

**DOMESTIC AND FAMILY VIOLENCE:
awareness, attitudes and experiences**

Preliminary findings

Heather Nancarrow, Christine Hanley and Renette Viljoen

Authors: Heather Nancarrow¹, Christine Hanley² and Renette Viljoen³

Acknowledgements: The authors wish to acknowledge and extend their gratitude to:

- the 1,606 anonymous men and women who participated in the survey for this research;
- the Institute for Health and Social Science Research, CQUniversity for access to the AHSS Panel, the facilities of the Population Research Laboratory and the contribution of Dr Jahar Choudhury towards the statistical analysis of the data;
- CDFVR staff, Annie Webster and Leda Barnett who assisted with the development of the survey questionnaire, Terese Kingston who assisted with the literature review and Lauren Pattie who assisted with editing the report.

Funded by



The Queensland Centre for Domestic and Family Violence Research (CDFVR) receives defined term funding from the Queensland Department of Communities, Child Safety and Disability Services to undertake research and develop educational resources pertaining to domestic and family violence in Queensland

ISBN: 978-0-9872525-2-4

Copyright: © December 2012 Queensland Centre for Domestic and Family Violence Research (CDFVR), Central Queensland University, Australia



¹ Heather Nancarrow is Director, Queensland Centre for Domestic and Family Violence Research, Institute for Health and Social Science Research, CQUniversity.

² Christine Hanley is Manager, Population Research Laboratory, Institute for Health and Social Science Research, CQUniversity.

³ Renette Viljoen is Education Officer, Queensland Centre for Domestic and Family Violence Research, Institute for Health and Social Science Research, CQUniversity.

Table of Contents

Executive summary	1
Objectives of the study	1
Methodology.....	1
Key findings	2
Chapter 1: Background and current knowledge	5
1.1 Introduction	5
1.2 Intimate partner abuse	7
1.3 Elder abuse.....	9
1.4 Adolescent-to-parent abuse	11
1.5 Conclusion.....	16
Chapter 2: Research objectives and methods	18
2.1 Objectives of the study	18
2.2 Methodology.....	18
2.2.1 Data collection method.....	18
2.2.2 Sample design	19
2.2.3 Description of the sample	22
2.3 Data analysis	22
2.4 Limitations.....	23
Chapter 3: Research results	24
3.1 Familiarity with terms describing forms of abuse	24
3.1.1 Socio-demographic correlates of familiarity with key terms.....	24
3.2 Domestic and family violence	26
3.2.1 Socio-demographic correlates: association of relationship type with <i>domestic violence</i>	28
3.2.2 Behavioural correlates of domestic violence.....	30
3.2.3 Behavioural correlates of domestic violence by socio-demographic variables.....	31
3.3 Spousal.....	34
3.4 Intimate personal.....	36
3.5 Elder abuse.....	38
3.5.1 Perception of age involved in Elder Abuse	38
3.5.2 Behavioural correlates of <i>elder abuse</i>	40
3.5.3 Behavioural correlates of <i>elder abuse</i> by socio-demographic variables	42
3.5.4 Seriousness of behaviour involved in elder abuse.....	44
3.6 Adolescent-to-parent abuse	48
3.6.1 Behavioural correlates of <i>adolescent-to-parent abuse</i>	48

3.6.2	Behavioural correlates of <i>adolescent-to-parent abuse</i> by socio-demographic variables	48
3.6.3	Acceptability, experience and witnessing of <i>adolescent-to-parent abuse</i>	50
3.6.4	Adolescent-to-parent abuse intervention	53
3.6.5	Relational correlates of <i>adolescent-to-parent abuse</i>	54
3.7	Violence against women	54
3.7.1	Association of certain behaviours with violence against women	54
3.7.2	Seriousness of certain behaviours	57
3.7.3	Attitudes on sexual violence against women	59
3.7.4	Attitudes on sexual violence against women by demographic variables	60
3.8	Experiences of domestic and family violence	63
3.8.1	Experiences of domestic and family violence across lifetime	63
3.8.2	Experiences of domestic and family violence by perpetrator/victim relationship	66
Chapter 4: Discussion and conclusion		70
4.1	Awareness of different types of domestic and family violence	70
4.2	Attitudes towards domestic and family violence	71
4.2.1	Domestic violence	71
4.2.2	Elder abuse	72
4.2.3	Adolescent-to-parent abuse	72
4.3	Perceptions of violence against women	73
4.3.1	Perceptions of and attitudes towards stalking and harassment	73
4.3.2	Perceptions of and attitudes towards sexual violence against women	74
4.4	Experiences of different types of relationship violence	75
4.4.1	Adolescent-to-parent abuse	75
4.4.2	Abuse by a parent	76
4.4.3	Intimate partner abuse	76
4.4.4	Other relationships	76
4.5	Conclusion	76
References		78
Appendix: Survey questionnaire		85

Table of tables

Table 2.1	Unweighted final sample	20
Table 2.2	Geographic weighting for the AHSS sample	20
Table 2.3	Age category weighting for the AHSS Sample	21
Table 2.4	Gender weighting for the AHSS Sample	21
Table 3.1	Familiarity with terms describing abuse in different kinds of relationships	24

Table 3.2	Familiarity with terms describing abuse in different kinds of relationships by demographic variables.....	25
Table 3.3	First response to term <i>domestic violence</i>	27
Table 3.4	Association of relationship types with <i>domestic violence</i> by demographic variables.....	29
Table 3.5	Association of behaviours with <i>domestic violence</i>	31
Table 3.6	Association of behaviours with <i>domestic violence</i> by demographic variables.....	32
Table 3.7	Association of relationship status with term <i>spousal</i>	34
Table 3.8	Association of relationship status with <i>spousal</i> by demographic variables	35
Table 3.9	Association of relationship status with term <i>intimate personal</i>	36
Table 3.10	Association of relationship status with <i>intimate personal</i> by demographic variables .	37
Table 3.11	Perception of age group involved in <i>elder abuse</i>	38
Table 3.12	Perception of age involved in elder abuse by demographic variables	39
Table 3.13	Association of behaviours with <i>elder abuse</i>	40
Table 3.14	Association of behaviours with <i>elder abuse</i> by demographic variables.....	42
Table 3.15	Perception of seriousness of behaviour involved in elder abuse	44
Table 3.16	Perception of seriousness of behaviour involved in elder abuse by demographic variables	46
Table 3.17	Association of behaviours with <i>adolescent-to-parent abuse</i>	48
Table 3.18	Association of behaviours of adolescent-to-parent abuse by demographic variables.	49
Table 3.19	Acceptability, experience and witnessing of <i>adolescent-to-parent abuse</i>	51
Table 3.20	Acceptability, experience and witnessing of <i>adolescent-to-parent abuse</i> by demographic variables.....	52
Table 3.21	Adolescent-to-parent abuse intervention	53
Table 3.22	Victim and perpetrator of violence.....	54
Table 3.23	Association of certain behaviours with <i>violence against women</i>	55
Table 3.24	Association of certain behaviours with <i>violence against women</i> by demographic variables	56
Table 3.25	Seriousness of certain behaviours	57
Table 3.26	Perception of seriousness of certain behaviours by demographic variables	58
Table 3.27	Attitudes on sexual violence against women	60
Table 3.28	Attitudes on sexual violence against women by demographic variables.....	61
Table 3.29	Experiences of domestic and family violence.....	63
Table 3.30	Experiences of relationship violence in a lifetime by demographic variables.....	65
Table 3.31	Experiences of domestic and family violence by perpetrator/victim relationship.....	67
Table 3.32	Experiences of domestic and family violence by number of males and females	69

Table of figures

Figure 3.1	Association of relationship type with <i>domestic violence</i>	28
Figure 3.2	Association of behaviours with <i>elder abuse</i>	41
Figure 3.3	Association of certain behaviours with <i>violence against women</i>	55

Executive summary

Serious attention to various forms of violence and abuse within different family relationships has emerged gradually over the past 40 to 50 years, beginning with efforts to address child abuse, followed by abuse of women by their current or former intimate male partners, then elder abuse and, more recently, adolescent-to-parent abuse. While the term 'domestic violence' was initially used in Australia to refer to abuse of a woman by her current or former intimate male partner, it has meant different things to different groups within the broader community. Further, many Indigenous Australians prefer the term 'family violence' (Blagg, 2000; Memmott, Stacy, Chambers, & Keys, 2001; Nancarrow, 2010). This has resulted in the term 'domestic violence' being applied more broadly than it was intended initially and it is often used interchangeably with 'family violence'. In some jurisdictions within Australia (e.g. in commonwealth policy and law, and in Victoria, Tasmania and the Australian Capital Territory) the term 'family violence' has replaced 'domestic violence' in official policy and legislation and the term 'domestic and family violence' is used in Queensland, for example.

As a result there is often confusion about what type of relationships are included in various policy or legislative initiatives and other terms, such as intimate partner abuse and adolescent-to-parent abuse have emerged. The different terms, and different conceptualisations of the problem, are also a consequence of the various relationship types being the primary concern of different sectors, such that there are those concerned primarily with intimate partner violence (or violence against women), those concerned with elder abuse and those concerned with adolescent-to-parent abuse. While there appears to be considerable overlap between the various groups of relationship violence, as well as some defining features, the sectoral separation of spheres of interest are also reflected in the research literature.

This research is an early attempt at gathering information on Australians' awareness, attitudes and experiences of violence across these various types of relationships. Preliminary findings are presented in this report and further analyses will be the subject of future publications.

Objectives of the study

The key objectives of this study on domestic and family violence awareness, attitudes and experience were to:

1. identify the level of awareness of domestic and family violence within a random sample of the Australian population;
2. ascertain the prevailing attitudes of domestic and family violence within a random sample of the Australian population; and
3. explore the experience of different types of relationship abuse within a random sample of the Australian population.

Methodology

The sample of 1606 adults was drawn from the membership of the Australian Health and Social Science panel, an initiative of CQUniversity's Institute for Health and Social Science Research. The total membership of the panel is 3273, so the sample constitutes a 49 per cent response rate. Following ethical clearance, data were collected via an online survey administered through the Institute's Population Research Laboratory.

Geographic weighting was applied to compensate for oversampling in Queensland due to the national panel membership strategically incorporating Queensland and Central Queensland sub-samples for the purposes of the Central Queensland-based Institute for Health and Social Science Research.

The data were analysed with PASW Statistics version 18.0, formerly known as SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences Statistics 18, or SPSS Base). Descriptive analysis of the data was performed by IHSSR researchers and presented to the AHSS panel members in a summary report. The coded and cleaned, de-identified data were provided to the researchers to allow for deeper analysis of individual question sets and were subjected to a range of statistical tests including Logistic Regression Analysis to examine whether there was an association between the types of abuse and a number of independent variables such as the socio-demographic characteristics of the adults, other behavioural characteristics etc.

The data were further subjected to multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), which is a multivariate extension of analysis of variance and involves two or more dependent variables. The procedure assesses the relationship of one or more factors with multiple dependent variables and is appropriate in this study since there are several dependent variables, all measuring different aspects of some cohesive theme.

Key findings

Domestic violence

Non-physical forms of abuse are still not identified as domestic violence by some groups within the general population. Men are significantly less likely than women, and people in the youngest age group (18-34 years) are significantly less likely than older people to identify some forms of non-physical abuse as domestic violence. Hurting family pets in front of family members was the third most frequently identified as 'definitely domestic violence', following physical abuse and sexual abuse, only.

Nearly three quarters (74%) of females, compared to just over half (52%) of males recognised forbidding access to a joint bank account as somewhat or definitely domestic violence. The results were similar for inadequate provision for family needs with 33 per cent of respondents overall regarding this as not really (24%), or not at all (9%) domestic violence.

People with technical education or lower, were less inclined than those with tertiary education to see various forms of physical and sexual abuse as domestic violence.

Elder abuse

The majority of respondents readily identify a range of physically and sexually abusive and neglectful behaviours as definitely being elder abuse, although five per cent of respondents believed that sexual intercourse without consent was not really, or not at all elder abuse.

Just under a quarter (24%) of respondents did not regard forging a signature on bank accounts or legal documents as definitely elder abuse and 8.5 per cent believed this was not really, or not at all, elder abuse.

Older respondents (people in the 65+ age group), were more likely than any other age group to identify managing the elderly person's assets inconsistently with the elderly person's wishes and threatening to give away the elderly person's possessions or pets as very serious.

People with secondary or lower level education are significantly less likely than those with technical or tertiary education to associate slapping, shoving, beating and burning as elder abuse.

People in the highest household income bracket (over \$100,000 per annum) are significantly less likely to consider forging a signature on bank accounts or legal documents, and refusing to visit or make any contact, as elder abuse.

People in the youngest age group (18-34 years) were significantly less likely than those in other age groups, and men were significantly less likely than women, to see that preparing uncomfortably hot baths for an elderly person is abusive. Men were also significantly less likely than women to perceive that a carer ignoring an elderly person most of the time, and leaving an elderly person alone for long periods of time, is very serious elder abuse.

Adolescent-to-parent abuse

Forty-five per cent of the respondents either agreed, or were undecided if, it is normal for parents to adjust their behaviour to avoid conflict with an adolescent child, and about the same number (44.5%) agreed, or were undecided if it is normal to create situations of which the adolescent approves.

One-quarter (25%) of the respondents agreed that, or were undecided if, it is normal to tip-toe around an adolescent to keep the peace, and 15 per cent had similar views about adolescents engaging in put downs to humiliate and embarrass their parents.

A substantial proportion (18%) of respondents also agreed, or were undecided if it is normal adolescent behaviour to threaten to leave home or to harm themselves or another family member in order to get their parents to do what they want.

Men were significantly more likely than women to regard a range of manipulative or emotionally abusive behaviours as normal for adolescent children.

Eight per cent of respondents had directly experienced adolescent-to-parent -abuse and 36 per cent reported they had witnessed adolescent-to-parent abuse. Mothers were most frequently identified as the victim of adolescent to parent abuse by respondents who reported they had witnessed such abuse.

More than half (57%) of those who witnessed adolescent-to-parent abuse, tried to intervene; mostly because they thought what was happening was wrong. In 16 per cent of cases, the witness intervened because they were afraid for the victim's safety.

For the 43 per cent of respondents who witnessed adolescent-to-parent abuse and did not try to intervene, the most common reason was they didn't think they could help the situation (58%), while 18 per cent thought it was none of their business.

Violence against women - stalking and harassment

Between five and seven per cent of survey respondents do not regard stalking women or harassing them by telephone, email or text messaging to be forms of violence against women.

Less than two-thirds of respondents regard stalking and harassment as violence against women, always. Approximately a quarter of respondents say these abusive behaviours are usually violence against women and some respondents (6 -10%) believe they are sometimes violence against women.

Men are significantly less likely than women, and people aged less than 34 years are significantly less likely than those in other age groups, to regard stalking and harassment as violence against women.

People in the second lowest income group (\$50,001 – \$70,000) were significantly less likely than those in other income groups to regard stalking as violence against women.

While many respondents are not inclined to see stalking and harassment as forms of violence against women, just under three-quarters (71%) of all respondents regard stalking to be very serious,

and a further quarter (26.2%) see it as quite serious. This suggests that the term 'violence' does not resonate with people's understanding of this behaviour.

Violence against women – sexual violence

Thirteen per cent of the respondents disagree that women rarely make false claims of rape; a further 30 per cent were not prepared to agree that such claims are rare.

More than a quarter (26%) of the survey respondents believe that rape occurs because men cannot control their need for sex and a further 22 per cent were not prepared to disagree with this assertion.

More than 90 per cent of respondents do not believe that: women who are raped ask for it; a man is less responsible for rape if he is affected by alcohol or other substances; a woman cannot be raped by her intimate male partner; and that women who have been sexually harassed should just sort it out by themselves.

Men are significantly more likely than women, and people with a household income of \$70,000 or less are significantly more likely than those with higher household income, to believe that women often say no to sex when they really mean yes.

People over the age of 65 years are significantly more likely than younger people to believe that women who are raped often ask for it.

People with lower levels of education are more likely than people with tertiary education to believe that rape is a result of men's inability to control their need for sex.

Experiences of different types of relationship violence

Overall, males were significantly more likely than females to experience physical violence (having something thrown at them, being kicked, bitten or hit with a fist or something or being beaten) within a domestic or family relationship during their lifetime. However, the data show significant gender differences in regard to the type of relationships in which males and females are more likely to experience abuse. Specifically, abuse by a parent accounted for the majority of abuse experienced by male respondents to the survey, whereas eight to 12 times more women than men reported various forms of non-physical and physical abuse perpetrated by their intimate partner. Similar numbers of women and men reported violence perpetrated by siblings and children, while women more frequently than men reported violence perpetrated against them by other family members.

Conclusion

This quantitative research reveals significant gender differences in the experiences of different types of relationship violence. While men, overall, experience more violence over the lifetime, it is predominantly perpetrated by their parents and men experience more parental violence than women. Women more frequently experience violence perpetrated by intimate partners and other family members.

Awareness of, and attitudes towards relationship violence also vary along gender lines, with women being less accepting of a range of coercive, violent and neglectful behaviours across various relationship types. There are also statistically significant differences in awareness of and attitudes towards various types of relationship violence dependent on education and income levels.

Community engagement in campaigns to stop domestic and family violence require clear delineation of the type of relationship violence being addressed, rather than a broad brush campaign on 'family violence', for example. Careful consideration also needs to be given to the language that will resonate with the wider community in such campaigns.

Chapter 1: Background and current knowledge

1.1 Introduction

Domestic and family violence is a violation of human rights and is not acceptable in any community or culture, yet it occurs across all social, demographic, economic and cultural divides. It is not distributed equally among them, however; some groups are more at risk than others. Domestic and family violence has devastating and long-lasting harmful effects, including physical, emotional and psychological harm on people who experience it and children and others exposed to it. Domestic and family violence is the biggest single cause of homelessness among women and children (Australian Government, 2008) resulting in disruption to employment, education and social supports. It can result in substance abuse, depression and other mental illness and it can also result, indirectly and directly, in death (VicHealth, 2004). About one-third of all homicide victims in Australia are killed by an intimate partner or other family member (Dearden & Jones, 2008).

This is a capacious and vexing problem that has captured the attention of social service practitioners, researchers, policy advisers and politicians in every developed country of the world. Serious public policy attention on violence within the family began in the mid-20th century and was initially centred on abuse and neglect of children. This form of violence within the family is most commonly referred to as “child abuse”. The primary response to child abuse is direct statutory intervention, with specific legislation, whereby a specialised civil court may order that an abused child be placed into the care of the state. Abusive parents may also face criminal charges related to child abuse or neglect. Domestic and family violence are dealt with in a different, though predominantly civil, legal jurisdiction.

Second wave feminism brought abuse of women by their current or former intimate male partners to greater public attention in the 1970s, leading to an international movement that has spawned women’s shelters and other specialist domestic violence services, community education campaigns and specific legislation. In the early 1990s, neglect and abuse of the elderly emerged as a public policy concern, with the establishment of some specialised services, such as the Elder Abuse Prevention Unit in Queensland. More recently adolescent-to-parent abuse appears to be gaining some traction as a specific area of endeavour, particularly in social work and psychology counselling practices.

All Australian jurisdictions now have specific domestic and family violence legislation. In most cases the primary legal response is civil law, although in Tasmania and the Australian Capital Territory the primary legal response is criminal law. In all jurisdictions, the civil and criminal law are intended to be used together. The domestic violence laws in all jurisdictions currently cover a wide range of relationship types, although the legislation in some jurisdictions, such as Queensland, was initially limited to protection from abuse by current or former intimate partners (defined as ‘spousal relationships’). In 2003, Queensland’s legislation was extended to include other family relationships and informal care relationships. Currently, Queensland has the most recently created domestic violence legislation. In February 2012, the Queensland Parliament passed the *Domestic and Family Violence Protection Act 2012*. It will commence in September 2012 at which time the current *Domestic and Family Violence Protection Act 1989* will be repealed.

The burgeoning response to domestic and family violence over the past 40 years has resulted in an array of labels and definitions (MacDonald, 1998), which attempt to capture its multi-dimensional nature. Initially, the term *domestic violence* was synonymous with men’s violence against their intimate female partners; however, increasing interest in other aspects of violence occurring within ‘domestic’ relationships resulted in a broader conceptualisation of the term. Some jurisdictions,

including the Australian Government, Tasmania and the Australian Capital Territory now inclusively refer to 'family violence'. Other jurisdictions, such as Queensland, use 'domestic and family violence' in policy and legislation. As the concept of *domestic violence* began to be applied beyond its initial boundaries, the terms 'intimate partner violence', and *intimate partner abuse* have begun to emerge.

Consequently, there is no single nationally or internationally agreed definition as to what constitutes 'family violence' and/or *domestic violence* (ABS, 2009). Although there is considerable overlap across the different aspects of domestic and family violence (Currie, 1996; Daly & Nancarrow, 2010) they are rarely, if ever, dealt with as a consolidated service response. Services and practitioners tend to specialise in responses to either child abuse, violence involving current or former intimate partners, elder abuse or adolescent-to-parent abuse. In part, this is a consequence of the responses to the various aspects emerging at different points of time and brought to the fore from different theoretical perspectives. In addition, many Indigenous Australian women consistently advocated for reference to 'family violence' rather than *domestic violence* (Blagg, 2000; Memmott et al., 2001) because it was seen to be limited to spousal relationships, while they were concerned about violence across all family relationships and within a broad conceptualisation of 'family'. For some, 'domestic violence' was consciously rejected because it "was a white construct that did not represent their experience" (Nancarrow, 2010, p. 137).

Queensland's new legislation continues to provide protection against abuse for people in intimate personal relationships (couples, current or former marital or de facto couples, parents of a child and people who are engaged or betrothed), family relationships (defined broadly to accommodate, for example, Indigenous conceptualisations) and informal care relationships (where one person depends on another for regular personal care provided outside a formal service or institutional role). It was enacted to provide a contemporary definition of domestic violence that will assist police, the courts, support services and the community in identifying this type of violence and responding effectively to the safety needs of victims. Section 8(1) of the *Domestic and Family Violence Protection Act 2012 (Qld)* defines domestic violence as:

... behaviour by a person (the "first person") towards another person (the "second person") with whom the first person is in a relevant relationship that— (a) is physically or sexually abusive; or (b) is emotionally or psychologically abusive; or (c) is economically abusive; or (d) is threatening; or (e) is coercive; or (f) in any other way controls or dominates the second person and causes the second person to fear for the second person's safety or wellbeing or that of someone else.

The Act continues, at section 8(2), that domestic violence includes behaviour such as —

(a) causing personal injury to a person or threatening to do so; (b) coercing a person to engage in sexual activity or attempting to do so; (c) damaging a person's property or threatening to do so; (d) depriving a person of the person's liberty or threatening to do so; (e) threatening a person with the death or injury of the person, a child of the person, or someone else; (f) threatening to commit suicide or self-harm so as to torment, intimidate or frighten the person to whom the behaviour is directed; (g) causing or threatening to cause the death of, or injury to, an animal, whether or not the animal belongs to the person to whom the behaviour is directed, so as to control, dominate or coerce the person; (h) unauthorised surveillance of a person; (i) unlawfully stalking a person.

The Australian Government's amendments to the federal *Family Law Act 1975*, which took effect on the 7th of June 2012, were also designed to accommodate a more contemporary understanding of family violence and provide better protection for children and families at risk of violence and abuse.

It includes an amended definition of family violence to better capture harmful behaviour. Section 4AB(1) of the *Family Law Act 1975*, now defines family violence as “...violent, threatening or other behaviour by a person that coerces or controls a member of the person's family (the family member), or causes the family member to be fearful.” Section 4AB(2) of the Act provides a non-exhaustive list of behaviours that may constitute family violence including assault, sexual assault, stalking, repeated derogatory taunts, damage to property, financial abuse, and social isolation.

Outside of child abuse, domestic and family violence involving current or former intimate partners is the most prevalently reported type of relationship violence. Spousal domestic violence (involving current or former marital or de facto partners) is the biggest single category for which people present at domestic and family violence support services across Queensland, consistently representing at least 75 per cent of all new client matters across the State⁴ and it has received the greatest attention from Australian governments and the broader community. As noted above, the definitions and responses to the various types of relationship violence have developed at different points of time from different theoretical perspectives. This research is concerned with intimate partner violence, elder abuse and adolescent-to-parent abuse. The following three sections provide an overview of each of these three forms of abuse broadly defined as “domestic and family violence’.

1.2 Intimate partner abuse

Public policy attention to intimate partner abuse is the result of advocacy from the mainstream feminist movement of the early 1970s, outraged by the continued oppression of women, including by their husbands, as an expression of society’s patriarchal-dominated structures and values. There were no specific domestic violence laws and relevant provisions in criminal law were unattainable because of the nature of domestic violence and the nature of the relationship. Definitions of rape in criminal law explicitly excluded rape in marital relationships. Men were able to control and dominate their intimate partners using physical and non-physical forms of abuse with impunity. Intimate partner abuse was, and is still, understood as a recursive consequence of gender inequality.

Some research finds that men and women equally use physical violence such as slapping, pushing and hitting (Archer, 2000; Straus, Gelles, & Steinmetz, 1980) in relationships. This research does not, however, identify gender differences in the context of the violence, such as the motive, impact and consequences. Research that contextualises violence shows that while some men and women use violent actions to resolve incident based conflicts, coercive, controlling violence (aimed at achieving and maintaining general control over the life of the victim, through fear) is almost always perpetrated by men (Johnson, 2006, 2008; Pence & Dasgupta, 2006; Stark, 2007; White, Smith, Koss, & Figueredo, 2000). Apart from the incident-based conflict scenario, women’s use of violence against male intimate partners is most frequently an attempt to resist the violence perpetrated against them (Bair-Merritt et al., 2010; Johnson, 2006; Kernsmith, 2005). Research also consistently finds that men’s violence has more negative consequences than women’s violence, in terms of intimate partner homicide, physical injury, psychological harms such as depression, and fear of the partner (R. E. Dobash & Dobash, 2004; R. P. Dobash, Dobash, Wilson, & Daly, 1992; Hamberger, 2005; Kimmel, 2002; Osthoff, 2002).

The highly gendered nature of coercive, controlling intimate partner violence points to the role of gender inequality in its perpetration. However, since most men are not abusive towards their partners, gender inequality, alone, is not sufficient to explain the phenomenon. Furthermore, black

⁴ Source: Queensland Centre for Domestic and Family Violence Research, Domestic and Family Violence Database.

feminist and critical race theorists (e.g. Crenshaw, 1989; Harris, 1990) drew attention to the limitations of mainstream feminist analyses and developed an intersectional analysis that took account of the multi-faceted nature of oppression in the lives of poor, black women. Intimate partner abuse is now commonly understood as a result of a number of intersecting factors at the individual, family and community levels operating within broader societal values and structures (WHO, 2002). This framework informed the development of the COAG National Plan to Reduce Violence against Women and their Children 2010-2022 (NCRVAWC, 2009a).

Almost one in six Australian women has been physically abused by a current or former intimate partner (ABS, 2006) and Queensland research indicates 13 per cent of women in a co-habiting heterosexual relationship had been physically abused by a current intimate partner (Nancarrow, Burke, Lockie, Viljoen, & Choudhury, 2011). Further, research consistently shows that approximately one-third of women in a heterosexual intimate partner relationship had experienced non-physical abuse by their current partner (Mouzos & Makkai, 2004; Nancarrow et al., 2011). Physical and non-physical abuse can have dire consequences for the health and well-being of victims and for children and others exposed to it (Edleson, 1999; Perry, 2001). Domestic violence contributes to more ill health and premature death for women aged between 15 and 44 years than any other factor (VicHealth, 2004). Health impacts include depression and severe psychological symptoms (Mouzos & Makkai, 2004; Nancarrow et al., 2011). These physical and psychological impacts have consequences for the broader community and the Australian economy. Research conducted by KPMG illustrates that intimate partner and sexual violence against women costs the Australian economy \$13.6 billion per annum (NCRVAWC, 2009b).

As noted in the introduction, above, about one-third of all homicide victims in Australia are killed by an intimate partner or other family member. In 43 per cent of intimate partner homicide cases there was a history of violence known to the police (Dearden & Jones, 2008), and in approximately 25 per cent of intimate partner homicides, the victim had left the relationship (Mouzos & Rushforth, 2003). Fear of homicide is one of many factors that contribute to women remaining in abusive relationships. Other factors include fear of poverty and homelessness, a desire to keep the family together for the sake of the children, love and a belief that the perpetrator has, or will change their behaviour, and a belief that the abuse is not serious enough to warrant separation (Nancarrow et al., 2011).

In 2011, the Council of Australian Governments (COAG) produced the *National Plan to Reduce Violence against Women and their Children 2010-2022* (the "National Plan"), which focuses on domestic and family violence (predominantly, though not exclusively, intimate partner violence), and sexual violence against women. COAG's National Plan defines *domestic violence* as follows:

"Domestic violence refers to acts of violence that occur between people who have, or have had, an intimate relationship ... the central element of domestic violence is an ongoing pattern of behaviour aimed at controlling a partner through fear, for example by using behaviour which is violent and threatening. In most cases, the violent behaviour is part of a range of tactics to exercise power and control over women and their children, and can be both criminal and non-criminal. Domestic violence includes physical, sexual, emotional and psychological abuse" (COAG, 2011, p. 3).

In support of the developing National Plan, the Australian Government commissioned a national community attitudes survey, conducted in 2009 (VicHealth, 2010), to assess changes in attitudes to domestic violence (intimate partner violence) and sexual abuse since 1995 when an equivalent survey was conducted. The 2009 survey found, overall, significant positive shifts in attitudes to domestic violence and sexual violence. There has been no similar work on violence in other family relationships.

1.3 Elder abuse

Although there is no common definition of 'elder abuse' shared across disciplines (Penhale, 2010), key concepts are agreed. An international study involving eight countries found that older people consistently categorise abuse into three broad areas: neglect (including abandonment and social exclusion), violation (of human and other rights) and deprivation (including being deprived of decision-making, finances, respect and status) (WHO & INPEA, 2002, p. v). The International Network for the Prevention of Elder Abuse (INPEA) adopted the following definition of elder abuse, developed in 1995 by the United Kingdom's Action on Elder Abuse: "*Elder abuse is a single or repeated act or lack of appropriate action, occurring within any relationship where there is an expectation of trust which causes harm or distress to an older person*" (WHO & INPEA, 2002, p. 3). The definition specifically includes the commission, and the omission, of acts that cause harm or distress. Further, WHO and INPEA note that definitions of elder abuse typically include physical abuse, psychological/emotional abuse, financial/material abuse, sexual abuse and neglect, including the "*intentional or unintentional refusal or failure to fulfil a care-taking obligation*" (2002, p. 3). The UK Action on Elder Abuse definition was also subsequently adopted by the World Health Organization (WHO), including for a programme of research conducted jointly by its Ageing and Life Course Programme and the Center for Interdisciplinary Gerontology at the University of Geneva (WHO, 2008).

The Australian Network for the Prevention of Elder Abuse (ANPEA) similarly includes a range of types of abuse, including neglect, in its definition of elder abuse, which is:

Any act occurring within a relationship where there is an implication of trust, which results in harm to an older person. Abuse may be physical, sexual, financial, psychological, social and/or neglect (cited in Kurrle & Naughtin, 2008, p. 112).

Probably due to the influence of ANPEA, the definitions used (and, therefore, reporting on elder abuse) are reasonably consistent across Australian states and territories (Kurrle & Naughtin, 2008, p. 113). The ANPEA definition was specifically cited, for example, in Queensland policy which identified action on elder abuse as a number one priority for a 10 year strategy on ageing (Queensland Government, 2010, p. 11). However, definitions vary in regard, for example, to the inclusion or exclusion of specific types of relationships, such as abuse in institutional settings and by paid carers, and self-neglect (Clare, Black Blundell, & Clare, 2011).

One area that remains particularly contested is the age at which one becomes an 'elder', demonstrated by the fact that very few countries have age-specific laws to protect older adults from abuse (Podnieks, Penhale, Goergen, Biggs, & Han, 2010). In Australia, the term 'elder' is not defined in common law, and various state and federal laws inconsistently identify specified ages as criteria for eligibility for certain benefits, such as access to a 'seniors card' providing discounts on various products, eligibility for the age pension and access to the preserved component of superannuation; and in Queensland an assault on a person aged 60 years or more is classified a serious assault (Office of the Public Advocate and the Queensland Law Society, 2010; Queensland Government, 2010). In addition to chronological age, the status of 'elder' is associated with factors such as mobility, frailty and decision-making capacity. Studies on elder abuse, however, generally use age 65 years as the minimum age for inclusion, although some have used a younger inclusion age for consistency with public policy responses, for example (Boldy, Horner, Crouchley, Davey, & Boylen, 2005). Variance in the age groups and types of relationships included or excluded impact on comparability of research findings.

Another definitional dilemma regarding the term 'elder abuse' is the overlap between elder abuse and spousal/intimate partner domestic violence, for example. Physical, psychological, financial, sexual and/or other forms of abuse in a spousal relationship may continue well into old age. One may also speculate that long-term victims of spousal abuse may, in later years, take advantage of a relative position of power as the carer of their abuser and fight back (or even retaliate), presenting a particular kind of challenge for professionals assessing and responding to elder abuse/domestic violence (Bergeron, 2001). A systematic review of the elder abuse literature (Cooper, Selwood, & Livingston, 2008) found that 5.6 per cent of couples reported physical violence in their relationship in the last year.

Finally, the concept of 'elder' itself is problematic. As noted in reports from Queensland (DFSAIA, 1994) and Western Australia (Clare et al., 2011) it has a particular meaning within Indigenous Australian cultures. Clare et al report that "many Aboriginal people ... find the use of the word 'elder' offensive in this context as it is commonly used as a term of respect for their community leaders" (2011, p. 38).

Only over the last two to three decades has the abuse and exploitation of older people been recognised as a serious social problem internationally (Penhale, 2010; Podnieks et al., 2010; Teaster, Wangmo, & Anetzberger, 2010). Within Australia, the earliest published reference to elder abuse was a 1975 Social Welfare Commission report on the care of the aged (Kurrle & Naughtin, 2008, p. 110), which drew attention to the need for protection of older people from exploitation by family members, friends and others in the broader community. Kurrle and Naughtin (2008) report that it was only in the late 1980s and early 1990s, however, that the abuse of older people began to be clearly recognised by various Australian states, all of which now have some response to elder abuse through public policy, legislation and social service provision. In Queensland, for example, a recently published elder abuse resource directory (Office of the Public Advocate, 2012) includes a range of statutory bodies and community based organisations, some of them specialist elder abuse support services, equipped to respond to the needs of people affected by elder abuse.

The emergence of elder abuse as a significant area for public policy, legislation and social service provision may be attributed to a confluence of factors related to demography, availability of care provisions and an ageing population (in part, an effect of improvements in public health due to medical and technological advances), combined with a growing focus on human rights and advocacy (Penhale, 2010). The vast majority (almost 90%) of Australians aged sixty and over live in private dwellings, and "of those aged over eighty years, 84 per cent of men and 75 per cent of women remain living in the community" (Department of Health and Ageing, 2007, p. 15). Kurrle and Naughtin point out that, with most Australians preferring to remain in their own homes as they grow older, "those who need care receive it from informal carers, such as family members, neighbours and friends" (2008, p. 109). In many ways, ageing is a gendered process, with women, compared to men, living longer but having retired earlier with less money to support them through a longer period of time (Rosenman & Scott, 2009, p. 287). Therefore, women may be particularly vulnerable to elder abuse. Indeed, a Western Australian prevalence study involving a survey of agencies, (Boldy et al., 2005) found that women ($n = 1355$) comprised 75 per cent of the known and suspected cases of elder abuse, a finding consistent with international studies that have disaggregated the data by gender (Boldy et al., 2005, pp. 4-5). Boldy et al report an estimated elder abuse prevalence rate (in individuals aged 60 years or over) of just over half a per cent (0.58%), overall, with a rate of just less than one per cent (0.90%) for females and just over a third of a per cent (0.35%) for males (2005, p. 5). Cripps' (2000) telephone survey, drawing on a sample of the general population in South Australia, found that three per cent of the community-dwelling population in urban and rural South Australia were victims of elder abuse. Cooper et al's systematic review of the international elder abuse literature concluded that "[M]ore than 6% of the older general population, a quarter of

vulnerable adults and a third of family carers report being involved in significant abuse, but only a small proportion of this is currently known to protective services” (2008, p. 159).

Cripps (2000) found that psychological abuse was the most common form of abuse reported, followed by financial abuse, physical abuse and, finally, neglect, while Boldy et al (2005) found that financial/material abuse was the most common form of abuse reported in their survey of agencies, affecting 81 per cent of those known or suspected to have been victims of elder abuse. Boldy et al (2005, p. 5) also report the majority of victims of elder abuse experience more than one form of abuse, with financial (81%) and psychological (55%) abuse being the two most common, followed by physical abuse (25%), neglect (17%) and sexual abuse (4%). The actual, or potential for, financial/material abuse of older people has been the focus of a sustained programme of Australian research (Setterlund, Tilse, Wilson, McCawley, & Rosenman, 2007; Tilse, Setterland, & Rosenman, 2005; Tilse, Wilson, Setterland, & Rosenman, 2007; Wilson, Tilse, Setterlund, & Rosenman, 2009) aimed at understanding the phenomenon and putting in place prevention and amelioration strategies. The researchers have highlighted the vulnerability of older people to financial abuse as a consequence (in part) of increasingly complex arrangements for post-retirement provision of income support and housing, for example, and cultural expectations regarding inheritance. Older people, for a range of reasons, often rely on family, friends or neighbours to assist with financial/asset management and a number of risky assets management practices have been identified. These include poor accountability for use of finances, coercion and misuse of the enduring power of attorney (a legal mechanism developed to assist in cases where the older person is deemed to have inadequate decision-making capacity and another person is given the legal power to make certain decisions on their behalf) (Tilse et al., 2005). With ageing populations, changing social conditions and associated pressures on infrastructure, the prevalence of elder abuse is likely to increase (James, 1994; Kurrle & Naughtin, 2008; Penhale, 2010) in the absence of effective evasive action.

Further research and contextual analysis of elder abuse is required (Biggs & Goergen, 2010; Lowenstein, 2010; Penhale, 2010), including research that delineates the different types of elder abuse (Jackson & Hafemeister, 2011; Penhale, 2010). Attitudes towards abuse, appropriateness of services and reasons older people remain in abusive situations have been the subject of some qualitative research, which has emphasised the importance of professionals having the appropriate skills and knowledge to give accurate information regarding available services, financial support and alternative accommodation options available to older people (Disney & Cupitt, 2000; Schaeffer, 1999). Research on the awareness, attitudes and experiences of elder abuse in various demographic groups in the general community is needed.

1.4 Adolescent-to-parent abuse

Adolescent-to-parent abuse, understood as *any act by children that intimidates the parents and is aimed at hurting them* (Cottrell, 2001), remains a rather unacknowledged and under-researched form of family violence (Coogan, 2011; Wilcox, 2012). The shortage of attention paid to adolescent violence towards parents is indicated by the sparse literature on the topic. Although now gaining greater attention, this form of violence has been a neglected area and is still receiving little recognition within social policy and professional practice (Bobic, 2004; Chrichton-Hill, Evans, & Meadows, 2006; Coogan, 2011; Eckstein, 2004; Gallagher, 2008).

Adolescence (ages 12-18) is an ‘in-between’ developmental stage in which young people are no longer considered children, but are yet to be accepted as adults. This can add to the complexities in trying to distinguish between what is ‘normal’ and what is ‘abusive/challenging’ behaviour (Bobic, 2004; Cottrell, 2001). According to Gallagher (2008), not all violence by adolescents at home is

abusive. Depending on the social context, the violence can also be defensive, mutual combat or expressive. Adolescents who abuse their parents may also show an escalation in violent behaviour as the abuse frequently begins with verbally abusive episodes and progresses over time in frequency and intensity, escalating to emotional and physical abuse (Eckstein, 2004). Adolescent aggression may be viewed by some as 'normal' teenage behaviour, but it should not be seen as acceptable.

For the purpose of this study, the term *adolescent-to-parent abuse* is conceptualized to include verbal, physical, and emotional means of inflicting hurt upon another that violates socially accepted standards. Adolescent-to-parent abuse is defined as any act of a child (age 12-18) that is intended to cause physical, psychological or financial damage to control, intimidate, disempower or hurt parents, whether this be physical violence, verbal abuse, threats, destruction of property or emotional abuse.

As with intimate partner and elder abuse, various researchers agree that adolescent-to-parent abuse includes physical, psychological/emotional and financial abuse with typical behavioural indicators (Cottrell, 2001; Eckstein, 2004; Straus & Gelles, 1990):

Physical abuse includes acts which are intentional or perceived as intentional and that result in any physical harm against a person. Examples of adolescent-to-parent physical abuse include hitting, kicking, shoving, pushing, slapping, biting of a family member, hitting with an object, beating up, or attempting to shoot, stab, or strangle another family member, breaking things, punching holes in the wall, throwing things and spitting.

Psychological/emotional abuse is constituted by specific communicative behaviours, strategies, and situations. Emotionally abusive tactics undermine parents' personal or interpersonal competence, affects their ability to function in the typical parent role, compromises self-esteem, and instils the belief of negative personality characteristics resulting in emotional distress. Emotionally abusive behaviours specific to adolescent-parent interactions include anger or hostility over little or unpredictable things, emotional control (blaming parent for being upset), bind or dilemma (putting the parent in a no-win situation), disconfirmation, withdrawal (becoming cold or indifferent), threats of impending physical assault, suicide, or self-destructive acts (quitting school, running away from home and staying away all night, drug use, indiscriminate sex), making manipulative threats, such as threatening to run away, commit suicide or otherwise hurt themselves without really intending to do so, maliciously playing mind games, trying to make the parent think he or she is crazy; making unrealistic demands on parents, such as insisting they drop what they are doing to comply with their demands; lying; and controlling the running of the household.

Financial abuse includes stealing money or parents' belongings, selling possessions – theirs or their parents', destroying the home or parents' belongings, incurring debts the parents must cover, and demanding parents buy things they don't feel they can afford (Cottrell, 2001; Eckstein, 2004; Straus & Gelles, 1990).

Adolescent-to-parent verbal abuse is a destructive form of communication that focuses an implicit attack on the self-concept of the parent instead of the issue under discussion; it is the verbal maltreatment of the parent and involves the use of verbally aggressive behaviours. Such aggressive behaviours include accusations, rejections, refusals to talk, attacks on character, competence, background, physical appearance, as well as teasing, swearing, ridicule, and nonverbal expressions. (Cottrell, 2001; Eckstein, 2004; Straus & Gelles, 1990).

Possible explanations for adolescent-to-parent abusive behaviour are diverse and research in this area has been distinctly lacking. The two most common contributors to a young person's violent/abusive behaviour appears to be (i) the witnessing of domestic violence and/or experiencing other forms of childhood trauma; and (ii) an inflated sense of entitlement in the child or adolescent (McKenna & Hotich, 2009). Other explanations for the behaviour include health and learning

problems, socio-economic disadvantage, the temperament of the young person, socialising difficulties, the impact of peers, the impact of substance abuse by the young person and a range of varied influences from family and the community (Eckstein, 2004; Gallagher, 2008; Ibabe & Jaureguizar, 2010).

Adolescent-to-parent abuse can occur in any family and is not necessarily associated with socio-economic class, ethnic background, or sexual orientation (Cottrell, 2001). According to various authors, a range of multifaceted and interconnected dynamics contributes to adolescent violence towards parents. These dynamics may include biological, psychological and social factors, as well as those related to culture and crime (Chrichton-Hill et al., 2006). Family dynamics (dysfunction, gender power imbalance); child development (personality; mental illness); societal values; and cultural influences may all be contributing factors that are associated with adolescent-to-parent abuse (Cottrell, 2001; Stewart, Burns, & Leonard, 2007). Common contributors to adolescent-to-parent abuse can be grouped into seven categories: parenting, family structure; gender; society, schools and peer groups; witnessing abuse; maltreatment and punishment; and individual development of adolescent.

Conventionally, parents are set to be the more powerful person in a parent/child relationship and are therefore assigned a position of power and control. However, parental self-blame and blame by others when parents seek assistance to deal with the violent behaviour shapes both parental and societal responses to the problematic behaviour of adolescents.

Permissive or absent/ineffectual parenting may contribute to the adolescent's abusive behaviour (Cottrell, 2001; Omer, 2000; Paterson, Luntz, Perlesz, & Cotton, 2002). When parents do not demonstrate adequate or appropriate leadership in their families, the adolescents may act out because they do not feel safe (Agnew & Huguley, 1989; Omer, 2000) and attempt to replace parents and take control, or to punish parents for showing lack of leadership (Paterson et al., 2002). Some researchers suggest that violence occurs when an adolescent feels powerless to influence parental attitudes, to get needs met, or to resolve conflict. Less conflict within the home and greater attachment and trust between parents and children are likely to reduce adolescent violence (Agnew & Huguley, 1989; Chrichton-Hill et al., 2006; Cottrell, 2001).

Adolescent-to-parent abuse occurs in different types of families. However, with regard to the type of household, many studies report greater prevalence of adolescent-to-parent abuse among one-parent families (mothers alone with children) (Agnew & Huguley, 1989; Cottrell, 2001; Cottrell & Monk, 2004; Daly & Nancarrow, 2010; Ibabe, Jaureguizar, & Diaz, 2009). Notably, changes in relation to separation, divorce, new marriage and so on represent a risk factor for physical violence by adolescents against their mothers. Not only can divorce cause stress for adolescents, but variables associated with single-parenthood and/or separation/divorce, such as domestic violence, custody conflicts, financial difficulties or lack of social support, and parents' failure to work together to deal with the abuse, cause a deterioration of the relationship between parents and children. In addition, teenagers sometimes resent the parent they live with (usually the mother) for changing their life (Cottrell, 2001; Ibabe & Jaureguizar, 2010).

Mothers are the most frequent victims of this type of abuse as they are usually also the primary caregivers (Cottrell, 2001; Stewart et al., 2007). It is reasoned that mothers spend more time with their children than fathers and have closer emotional connections to them. In addition, women have traditionally been more aware of and receptive to the feelings and emotions of those around them. Many adolescents find it is easier to share their emotions with their mothers and as a result, they feel they can express a whole range of feelings towards their mothers, including anger (Cottrell, 2001).

Walsh and Krienert (2007) suggest that another explanation for the dramatically disproportionate abuse of mothers may be their willingness to report their victimization compared to fathers. Data from the Justice System (Crimes Act Monitoring Report, 1997) indicate that more mothers than fathers take out Intervention Orders against their children. This is supported by reports that mothers are more frequently on the receiving end of adolescent violence from both sons and daughters (Cornell & Gelles, 1981; Holt, 2009). A number of studies conclude that there are no significant gender differences in the numbers of perpetrators of adolescent violence against parents (Agnew & Huguley, 1989; Cornell & Gelles, 1981; Cottrell, 2001; Paterson et al., 2002), although differences have been found in the types of violence perpetrated. Boys are more likely to be physically abusive and girls more likely to be emotionally abusive towards their parents (Gallagher, 2008). Sons are more likely to hit their fathers and this violence increases in later adolescence — perhaps because the young men take advantage of their increased size and strength (Cornell & Gelles, 1981; Peek, Fisher, & Kidwell, 1985). In addition, girls who witness more parental aggression are less likely to be violent towards their parents (Ibabe et al., 2009; Pagani, Larocque, Vitaro, & Tremblay, 2003). Although young males may behave violently within the family more often than females, it is estimated that young females account for between approximately thirty to forty per cent of child and adolescent family violence (McKenna & Hotich, 2009).

Society and schools play a pivotal role in creating, accepting, and perpetuating abusive behaviour (Cottrell, 2001). Deviant behaviours, alcohol and drug abuse and truancy at school are also identified as predictors of adolescent violence, and the continuation of violence across different developmental stages is attributed to social influences (including Internet and video games) that support violent behaviours (Bobic, 2004). In films, on television, the internet and in everyday life, young people see that violence is commonly used to achieve goals and is an acceptable form of social control. They may feel they have to be in control to avoid being victimized and some act out their victimization and rage with abusive actions at home. Adolescent-to-parent abuse may also be the manifestation of adolescents' frustration and alienation in a society that bombards them with advertising and then denies them the economic opportunity to access material goods for themselves (Cottrell, 2001). Witnessing family and marital violence is the one factor that has been linked to increased adolescent-to-parent abuse (Cornell & Gelles, 1981; Paterson et al., 2002). In some cases, exposure to ongoing domestic violence has also been shown to have a profound effect on adolescent development and can be a predictor of violent delinquency, particularly in males (Duffy & Momirov, 1997; Geffner, Jaffe, & Sudermann, 2000). It would also appear that the violence parents commit on their children is related to violence by children against parents and some researchers have analysed witnessing marital violence as a decisive factor for future son-to-mother violence (Ibabe & Jaureguizar, 2010).

A study by Ulman and Straus (2003) reported that over 60 per cent of the children in the study who had witnessed intimate partner abuse (wife-to-husband and husband-to-wife) were violent to the mother. An explanation for mothers being the most frequent victims of their children's violence may be the modelling the children receive from the father who abused the mother (Straus & Gelles, 1990). Other studies, however, suggest that there could also be gender differences, since they found that girls who witnessed more parental aggression were less likely to be violent towards their parents. Findings show a common spiral pattern in which an abusive adolescent would begin to abuse his mother shortly after the violent father/partner left the family-home (Cottrell & Monk, 2004) and that the adolescent may subsequently commits violent acts against their partner and/or family members (Ibabe & Jaureguizar, 2010). The explanation for such bi-directionality of violence may reside in the learning of relationship models based on violence, through which children internalise the idea that the only way of dealing with conflicts is by recourse to violent behaviours (Barkin, Kreiter, & DuRant, 2001; Mitchell & Finkelhor, 2001).

Physical maltreatment, neglect and abuse in childhood, and inappropriate disciplining of children have also been found to lead young people to aggressive and violent behaviour (Browne & Hamilton, 1998; Paterson et al., 2002). Studies have found that the higher the rate of corporal punishment by parents on children, the greater the presence of violent behaviours by the children against their parents (Ibabe & Jaureguizar, 2010; Peek et al., 1985). Moreover, Peek et al. (1985) found that the frequency of violence against children is more important than its intensity. Adolescents may perceive the physical punishments against them as humiliating because they feel that their parents treat them like children, while they feel like adults. Thus, punishment perceived as unfair may increase these adolescents' resentment, anger and frustration, feelings that may be expressed by violence against those who have caused them (Ibabe & Jaureguizar, 2010).

There is limited knowledge about the total extent of adolescent violence towards parents. Many studies rely on self-reporting by adolescents, who are likely to minimise the rate and severity of their violence (Agnew & Huguley, 1989; Peek et al., 1985), and in other cases, professional agencies do not identify the violence or it is described as a 'family conflict' or a child or adolescent 'at risk' (McKenna & Hotich, 2009). It is therefore difficult to obtain precise figures about the incidence and prevalence of adolescent-to-parent abuse, which vary widely depending on the definition used and the method of collecting data (Ulman & Straus, 2003). Nevertheless, a review of available studies illustrates that the problem is relatively widespread.

Victorian data for 2003-04 identified nine per cent of all reported incidents of family violence as child or adolescent family violence (McKenna & Hotich, 2009). In other studies, prevalence rates for any act of violence against parents were estimated at five per cent (Agnew & Huguley, 1989; Parentline, 2008). A UK study in an English Accident and Emergency Department found that 6 per cent of trauma cases as a result of domestic violence were adolescent or adult children injuring their parent or guardian, with a similar number of male and female victims (Ulman & Straus, 2003). Knowing that much family violence of all types is not recorded as such, it is safe to estimate that the incidence and prevalence of child and adolescent family violence is considerably higher than official reports.

The available research has generally focused on the use of physical violence by adolescents towards their parents (Agnew & Huguley, 1989; Bobic, 2004; Peek et al., 1985), though verbal and emotional abuse may also be included (Gallagher, 2008; Pagani et al., 2003). Other relevant violent behaviours more commonly found in the literature on youth crime –such as financial abuse and damage to property– were largely ignored.

Early research on adolescent-to-parent abuse indicated that the majority of aggressors were males aged between ten and 18 years who attacked their mothers, mainly in one-parent families and/or where parents were older than average (Agnew & Huguley, 1989; Cornell & Gelles, 1981). A later meta-analysis of a total sample of 3,660 young people identified by parents or researchers as violent towards their parents reported that 72 per cent of them (2,609 adolescents) were boys (Gallagher, 2008). Evidence from an international body of literature suggests that adolescent-to-parent abuse is in practice highly gendered, with a propensity for women, and particularly lone mothers, to be at risk of becoming the targets of abuse perpetrated by teenage sons (Cottrell & Monk, 2004; Daly & Nancarrow, 2010; Stewart et al., 2007). Some authors, however, report similar representation of males and females as explained by Pagani et al. (2004) in that clinical, anecdotal and forensic studies found more male perpetrators, while epidemiological studies found no sex differences in gender ratios.

Kennair and Mellor (2007) found that the gender of abusive young people was related to differences in types of parent abuse (physical, emotional and verbal). Studies suggest that males are more likely to be physically abusive (hitting, punching, slapping, pushing or destroying furniture in front of the

parents), while females are more likely to be emotionally abusive (maliciously playing mind games, trying to make the parents think they are crazy, making manipulative threats) and verbally abusive (screaming, swearing or insulting) towards their parents (Bobic, 2004; NCFV, 2003). Some authors argue that women's violence in family relationships is predominantly defensive, and that patriarchal attitudes play a significant role in much family violence (Ibabe & Jaureguizar, 2010).

Although anecdotal information suggests that adolescent-to-parent abuse mainly occurs in one-parent families, research to date has been conducted with small samples and therefore does not offer reliable statistics to either support or contradict this belief. An Australian study of 17 mothers of abusive adolescent children reports similar numbers of one- and two-parent families who experience adolescent-to-parent violence (Bobic, 2004; Paterson et al., 2002). U.S. data estimate the incidence of adolescent-to-parent abuse in one-parent families at 29 per cent and at seven to 18 per cent in two-parent families (Downey, 1997). Early Canadian statistics estimate that one in 10 Canadian parents are assaulted by their children (DeKeseredy, 1993), while this figure is estimated to be significantly lower in France at less than one per cent (0.6%) of parents being assaulted by their children (Laurent & Derry, 1999). The differences in estimates once again reflect the use of different measurement scales and methods of data collection used to arrive at these prevalence rates, which makes comparisons difficult. Additionally, USA and Canadian estimates (Cornell & Gelles, 1981; DeKeseredy, 1993; Peek et al., 1985) date back to the 1980s and early 1990s, when emotional, psychological and financial abuse was not included in definitions of abuse.

Of the large sample surveys that have explored adolescent-to-parent abuse, it was estimated that on average nine per cent of all 10–17 year olds in the USA had assaulted at least one of their parents. Gallagher's 2004 Australian study (Gallagher, 2008), identified that most (86%) of the of 77 perpetrators of adolescent-to-parent abuse in his sample were male, and all but one had victimized the mother. Twelve had also been violent to the father. Several other Australian studies have explored features of adolescent violence towards parents and most authors point out that these rates may be a marked underestimate, as families typically go to considerable lengths to conceal abuse from the outside world (Bobic, 2004; Parentline, 2008; Paterson et al., 2002).

COAG's National Plan to Reduce Violence against Women and their Children highlights the need to respond to children as victims of family violence but does not specifically address the fact that children may also perpetrate violence in the home, which severely impacts on women (Holt, 2011; Howard, 2011). In recent years, however, a range of programs and responses have been developed to address adolescent problem behaviour, including violence, such as school based anti-violence programs, drug and alcohol programs, mental health and child protection interventions. Integrated service system responses to family violence in Australia have also resulted in greater coordination across a range of services; such as criminal justice, health, educational and community services, however, due to the lack of a clearly articulated response to family violence where the offender is less than 18 years old, services may inadvertently support the adolescent perpetrator as assessment does not necessarily consider safety or power and control within family relationships.

1.5 Conclusion

Interest in elder abuse and adolescent-to-parent abuse has sharply increased in the last two to three decades in Australia and internationally, following the success of grassroots activists in putting intimate partner abuse on the public agenda. Increasingly ageing populations and complexity in post-retirement accommodation, income and assets management, combined with attention to human rights, has provided an environment conducive to addressing the protective needs of older people in relation to abuse.

Defining, and therefore researching, violence in different types of family relationships is not straight forward with definitional dilemmas to be addressed, and inconsistency in the way researchers and practitioners resolve these dilemmas. Nevertheless, the available literature demonstrates that these types of relationship violence are prevalent and under-reported, largely due to constraints similar to those associated with reporting spousal domestic violence (e.g. shame, fear of relationships ending and self-blame). Research also shows that while men and women can be both victims and perpetrators of elder abuse and adolescent-to-parent abuse, they also are gendered phenomena, with women at greatest risk of victimisation. Further research related to these types of relationship violence is required to develop theory and inform practice, including research drawing on samples from the general population.

Preliminary findings are presented in this report and further analyses will be the subject of future publications.

Chapter 2: Research objectives and methods

2.1 Objectives of the study

The aim of this study is to provide important new information about violence and abuse in a broader range of family relationships, specifically adolescent-to-parent abuse and abuse of older people, compared with intimate partner (or *spousal*) abuse. While much research has been conducted on domestic violence (intimate partner abuse), there is a very small body of evidence within Australia related to awareness, attitudes and experiences of non-spousal violence within families in spite of increasing public policy interest in elder abuse and adolescent-to-parent abuse, particularly. The results of this research can potentially contribute important knowledge for the development of public policy.

The overall goal was to elicit information regarding different types of relationship violence (domestic and family violence) and identify any distinct groups (e.g. women, men, older people, and specific socio-demographic groups) in need of particular attention in regard to targeted awareness raising/community education campaigns or support services. The objectives, then, were to:

1. identify the level of awareness of domestic and family violence within a random sample of the Australian population;
2. ascertain the prevailing attitudes of domestic and family violence within a random sample of the Australian population; and
3. explore the experience of different types of relationship abuse within a random sample of the Australian population.

2.2 Methodology

Following approval from the Central Queensland University Human Research Ethics Committee (Project Number H10/09-149), the study utilised the Australian Health and Social Science (AHSS) project panel members to explore issues related to abusive behaviour within family relationships and attitudes to such abuse. The AHSS panel was initiated and funded by the Institute for Health and Social Science Research at CQUniversity, Australia. The panel affords researchers the ability to examine the unique issues affecting Australians now and into the future through targeted and regular research using a randomly selected national group (panel) of participants.

2.2.1 Data collection method

Through the AHSS panel, an online survey was conducted to provide important information about domestic and family violence, including adolescent -to-parent abuse and abuse of older people, compared with intimate partner (or *spousal*) abuse. The survey instrument was pilot-tested by project staff and pre-test frequency distributions were reviewed before modifications were made to the final questionnaire that consisted of three components:

1. A standardised introduction
2. Substantive questions
 - a. Section 1: Domestic and family violence
 - b. Section 2: Elder abuse
 - c. Section 3: Adolescent-to-parent abuse
 - d. Section 4: Violence against women
 - e. Section 5: Experiences of domestic and family violence; and

3. Demographic questions (largely replicated from previous AHSS questionnaires)

The online survey was then administered using SSI Web V6.6, online survey software developed by Sawtooth Software, which allows data to be collected and recorded as the respondent completes the questionnaire. When the online survey was opened, each respondent was sent a personalised email which contained general information about the study, instructions on how to access the online survey via the AHSS website and a unique password for each respondent that ensured re-starts and tracking, which in turn allowed for targeted reminders. Respondents who encountered difficulties accessing the website or online survey were provided with technical assistance from the Population Research Laboratory staff.

2.2.2 Sample design

The participants for the study are members of the AHSS panel, i.e. a group of people who are willing to participate in research by undertaking surveys and who become familiar with data collection protocols over time.

The AHSS Study panel is made up of a random sample of adults (18+) living in each Australian state and territory, recruited via computer assisted telephone interviewing (CATI). Households were randomly selected and willing respondents were then provided with further information about the AHSS study via a website link. Members of the panel were asked to provide basic demographic data and answer brief questions about problem gambling, substance abuse, physical and emotional well-being, physical activity and nutrition in an initial online survey. Each panel member has agreed to be contacted for participation in web-based surveys approximately three to four times per year and each panel member has the right to withdraw their participation from the panel at any time by emailing the Population Research Laboratory.

The panel has a total of 3273 participants and consists of a phase 1 National panel (n=2050), a Queensland only sub-panel (n=613) and a Central Queensland only sub-panel (n=610). Each participant was informed of the nature and purpose of the study and told that they have the right to refuse participation, or should they agree to participate they are free to disengage from the survey at any time without penalty or prejudice. The data collected from any respondent withdrawing from the study prior to completion was not included in any subsequent analysis. Individuals refusing participation were removed from the sample frame and were not recontacted for this project.

The characteristics of the final AHSS panel sample aimed to be proportional to the population they represent based on current Australian Bureau of Statistics population figures,⁵ so weighting by geography, gender and/or age group was necessary.

2.2.2.1 Geographic weighting

With the addition of the Queensland and Central Queensland sub-sample there was an oversampling of respondents based in the State of Queensland. Table 2.1 shows the final breakdown of the national sample participating in the study by geographical sub-sample area. As there is generally less than a 3 percentage point difference between the geographical population distribution and the sample distribution, no geographical weighting is necessary when using the national sample only.

⁵ 2006 Census Tables by Location: 2006 Census Tables: Australia Age by Sex (population 18 years+) (ABS (Australian Bureau of Statistics), 2006).

Table 2.1 Unweighted final sample

Sample area	Australian population %	AHSS national panel <i>n</i>	AHSS national panel %	Difference %
ACT	1.6	34	2.1	+0.5
NSW	33.0	347	21.6	-11.4
TAS	2.4	41	2.6	+0.2
VIC	25.0	267	16.6	-8.4
NT	0.9	8	0.5	-0.4
QLD	19.4	682	42.5	+23.1
WA	9.8	114	7.1	-2.7
SA	7.8	113	7.0	-0.8

If it is desirable to present a proportionate national sample, weighting of the data are necessary. Table 2.2 shows the geographical distribution and subsequent weighting factors for the sample.

Table 2.2 Geographic weighting for the AHSS sample

Sample area	Australian population %	AHSS national panel <i>n</i>	AHSS national panel %	Weighting factor	Weighted sample
ACT	1.6	34	2.1	0.761904762	26
NSW	33.0	347	21.6	1.527777778	530
ACT & NSW	34.6	381	22.5		556
TAS	2.4	41	2.6	0.923076923	38
VIC	25.0	267	16.6	1.506024096	402
TAS & VIC	27.4	308	18.6		440
NT	0.9	8	0.5	1.8	14
QLD	19.4	682	42.5	0.456470588	311
NT & QLD	20.3	690	43.0		326
WA	9.8	114	7.1	1.38028169	157
SA	7.8	113	7.0	1.114285714	126
WA & SA	17.6	227	14.1		283
TOTAL		1606			1605

2.2.2.2 Age category weighting

A sample is considered representative of the larger population from which it is selected if the aggregate characteristics of the sample closely approximate those same characteristics in the population. When the most recent ABS census data was compared with the AHSS survey sample and the profile was broken down in specific age groups, the index of dissimilarity⁶ for the overall

⁶ The index represents the proportion of households that would have to move to a different category to make the distributions identical. The index can vary from 0 to 100. Any index that is less than 10 indicates that their

(unweighted) sample was 27.05. This demonstrated over sampling in the 45-65 age categories and under sampling in the less than 45 years age categories. Table 2.3 below shows the weighting factors that were applied to the sample to account for the variation when performing some analysis.

Table 2.3 Age category weighting for the AHSS Sample

Age category	Australian population %	AHSS panel <i>n</i>	AHSS panel %	Weighting factor	Weighted sample
18-24	12.4	22	1.4	8.857142857	195
25-34	17.7	76	4.7	3.765957447	286
35-44	19.5	254	15.8	1.234177215	313
45-54	18.3	425	26.5	0.690566038	293
55-64	14.5	455	28.3	0.512367491	233
65+	17.5	351	21.9	0.799086759	280
TOTAL		1583*			1602

* Some respondents did not report age.

2.2.2.3 Gender weighting

There were slightly more females than males in the final AHSS sample. In table 2.4, below, the sample is compared to the Australian population (18+) and weights are calculated accordingly.

Table 2.4 Gender weighting for the AHSS Sample

Gender	Australian population %	AHSS panel <i>n</i>	AHSS panel %	Weighting factor	Weighted sample
Male	48.7	688	42.8	1.137850469	783
Female	51.2	918	57.2	0.895104895	822
TOTAL		1606			1605

Due to the smaller numbers in some cells, comparisons of analysis with variables of interest were made between unweighted and weighted data to evaluate the impact of the sample weighting on the results. Multiple weighting⁷ were used for proportionate representation when the whole sample were analysed.

distributions are similar. *Source:* Duncan, O.S., and Duncan, B. *Residential distribution and Occupational Stratification*, American Journal of Sociology, 60(5):493-503, March 1955.

⁷ DeVaus, D. 2002. *Analyzing Social Science Data*, SAGE Publications Ltd, London.

2.2.3 Description of the sample

The final sample comprised 1606 adults (18 years and over), who completed the online survey. There were an additional 60 respondents who only partially completed the survey and they were not included in the final sample. The final sample of 1606 adults included 778 males and 828 females. Just less than a third was between 18 and 34 years of age and a third between 45 and 64 years of age. Three quarters of the survey respondents were born in Australia, nearly three quarters of the respondents were married and more than half had a tertiary education. One third of the respondents were employed full time at the time of the survey and about one sixth were retired. Less than two per cent were unemployed. Just under one third of the respondents had an income of more than \$100,000; while about the same amount earned less than \$50,000.

2.3 Data analysis

Data were collected via the SSI Web program and exported into the appropriate data analysis program PASW Statistics⁸ version 18.0, formerly known as SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences Statistics 18, or SPSS Base). Descriptive analysis of the data was performed by IHSSR researchers and presented to the AHSS panel members in a summary report. The coded and cleaned, de-identified data were provided to the researchers to allow for deeper analysis of individual question sets and the IAT task data. The data cleaning process included wildcode, discrepant value, and consistency checks and the resultant data set contained 1606 cases with a total of 241 variables for each.

The data were subjected to a range of statistical tests including Logistic Regression Analysis to examine whether there was an association between the types of abuse and a number of independent variables such as the socio-demographic characteristics of the adults, other behavioural characteristics etc.

Logistic regression is used to predict a categorical (usually dichotomous) variable from a set of predictor variables. Logistic regression is particularly useful in circumstances in which these predictor variables are a mix of continuous and categorical variables and/or are not normally distributed. Logistic regression is frequently used in medical research in which the dependent variable is the presence or absence of a disease and more recently in social science research on intimate partner abuse, in which case the dependent variable is the presence or absence of abuse (Nancarrow, Burke, Lockie, Viljoen & Choudhury, 2011).

The data were further subjected to multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), which is a multivariate extension of analysis of variance and involves two or more dependent variables. The procedure assesses the relationship of one or more factors with multiple dependent variables. The factors are either between-subjects or within-subjects factors⁹. It is appropriate in this study since there are several dependent variables, all measuring different aspects of some cohesive theme, for example several different issues or behaviours relating to the forms of abuse within gender, age, education and income groups.

⁸ PASW Statistics is a product of SPSS Inc, an IBM company, Chicago, Illinois.

⁹ A between-subjects factor divides research participants into different groups such as gender or age groups. A within-subjects factor has multiple levels, and each participant is observed on a dependent variable across those levels (Argyrous, G. (2000). *Statistics for Social & Health Research with a guide to SPSS*, SAGE Publications: London).

The MANOVA procedure offers several test statistics and for each statistic, an approximate F value and significance figure is given. For the purpose of this study, Wilks's Lambda is used in the multivariate tests.

2.4 Limitations

The major limitation of this study is that it is a quantitative study measuring acts of violence, devoid of motive, meaning and context (DeKeseredy, 2011; R. E. Dobash & Dobash, 2004; Kimmel, 2002), while the research is concerned with abuse manifested as physical and non-physical actions aimed at coercion and control over the other party. Not all acts of violence are abusive; some are defensive and/or reactive in response to abuse and some scholars (Dasgupta, 2002; Johnson, 2008; Pence & Dasgupta, 2006) contend that there are some forms of violence which are common conflict resolution strategies in the particular relationship. Depending on factors such as gender and the broader relationship, family and social context, incident-based acts of violence may be more or less physically or psychologically harmful. Nevertheless, combined with existing knowledge from the extant literature on intimate partner violence, elder abuse and adolescent-to-parent abuse, the results of this study provide important insights regarding current levels of awareness and experiences of abuse in different relationship types and attitudes to various forms of abusive behaviour. Further qualitative research to elicit the motive, meaning and context of violence within these relationships is necessary to expand on these results.

Chapter 3: Research results

3.1 Familiarity with terms describing forms of abuse

There is no single nationally or internationally agreed definition as to what constitutes ‘family violence’ and/or *domestic violence* (ABS, 2009). However, definitions used in legislation include protection against abuse for people in intimate personal relationships (couples, current or former marital or de facto couples, parents of a child and people who are engaged or betrothed), family relationships (defined broadly to accommodate Indigenous conceptualisations) and informal care relationships (where one person depends on another for regular personal care provided outside a formal service or institutional role).

In this study, participants were asked to respond to a set of seven questions regarding their familiarity with terms referring to abuse in different kinds of relationships. These terms are domestic violence, spousal abuse, intimate partner abuse, elder abuse and adolescent-to-parent abuse.

Table 3.1, below, shows the breakdown of familiarity with these terms. The term *domestic violence* had the highest level of familiarity for respondents, with 97 per cent¹⁰ stating that they are familiar with the term. This is followed by *spousal abuse* (71%), *elder abuse* (49%), and *adolescent-to-parent abuse* (45%). The term *intimate partner abuse* had the lowest levels of familiarity with respondents, with only 27 per cent stating that they are familiar with this term and 26.5 per cent stating that they are not at all familiar with the term.

Table 3.1 Familiarity with terms describing abuse in different kinds of relationships

Form of violence	Very familiar		Familiar		Not very familiar		Not at all familiar	
	n	%	n	%	N	%	n	%
Domestic violence	909	56.6	647	40.3	48	3.0	2	0.1
Spousal abuse	446	27.8	696	43.3	376	23.4	87	5.4
Intimate partner abuse	154	9.6	284	17.7	742	46.2	426	26.5
Elder abuse	256	15.9	529	33.0	569	35.4	253	15.7
Adolescent-to-parent abuse	176	11.0	543	33.8	641	39.9	247	15.4

3.1.1 Socio-demographic correlates of familiarity with key terms

Table 3.2, over page, indicates the familiarity with terms describing violence or abuse in different relationship types and demographic variables such as gender, age, education and household income. Based on the combined percentages of ‘very familiar’ and ‘familiar’ responses, men and women are equally (97%) familiar with the term *domestic violence*, however, the women are in general more familiar with the other terms. One third of the women reported that they were familiar with the term *intimate partner abuse*, whereas only one quarter of the men indicated familiarity with this term.

¹⁰ Percentages are rounded to the nearest whole number, except in tables.

All age groups were quite familiar with the term *domestic violence* (on average 97%), but where 77 per cent of respondents in the age group 35-44 years were familiar with the term *spousal abuse*, only 20 per cent of respondents in that same age group were familiar with the term *intimate partner abuse*. Respondents in the age group 45 or older were most familiar with the terms *intimate partner abuse*, *elder abuse* and *adolescent-to-parent abuse*, compared to the respondents younger than 45 years who indicated less familiarity with these three terms.

Familiarity with terms describing different kinds of relationship abuse was rather equally distributed among education levels. Respondents with a secondary or lower level of education were slightly more familiar with the terms *intimate partner abuse*, *elder abuse* and *adolescent-to-parent abuse* than respondents from other education levels, however, they were least familiar with the terms *domestic violence*, and *spousal abuse*. More than 70 per cent of the respondents with either a technical or tertiary education were familiar with the terms *domestic violence* and *spousal abuse*.

Table 3.2 Familiarity with terms describing abuse in different kinds of relationships by demographic variables¹¹

	Domestic violence %	Spousal abuse %	Intimate partner abuse %	Elder abuse %	Adolescent-to-parent abuse %
Gender†					
Male	96.9	64.8	22.8	41.8	42.8
Female	96.9	77.2	31.5	55.6	46.5
Age†					
18-34	96.9	69.5	22.7	39.6	37.6
35-44	98.7	76.7	19.9	31.0	39.1
45-64	97.2	73.3	31.8	58.7	51.0
65+	94.7	63.7	34.9	66.2	51.6
Education†					
Secondary or lower	94.4	66.7	33.1	50.6	58.6
Technical	97.0	73.1	30.1	47.9	48.5
Tertiary	97.5	71.4	24.3	48.9	39.3
Household income‡					
≤50,000	97.4	72.5	34.1	53.6	47.0
\$50,001-\$70,000	96.7	80.5	34.8	55.5	46.2
\$70,001-\$100,000	97.4	70.6	24.2	49.3	38.2
>\$100,000	97.4	70.8	22.1	41.1	44.9

Note † : significant at the level <.01; ‡ : significant level at the .05.

¹¹ Combined percentages of 'very familiar' and 'familiar' responses are reported.

Across all income groups, respondents were mostly familiar with the terms *domestic violence* and *spousal abuse*, while less than half of the respondents across all income groups were familiar with the term *adolescent-to-parent abuse*. Respondents in the annual income group of more than \$100,000 were least familiar with the terms *intimate partner abuse* (22%) and *elder abuse* (41%). Less than a quarter (on average 23%) of the respondents with household incomes over \$70,000 were familiar with the term *intimate partner abuse*; and less than 39 per cent of those with household incomes of more than \$100,000, were familiar with the term *adolescent to parent abuse*.

Further multivariate analysis indicated that there was a significant difference in familiarity with terms describing forms of abuse. Females were more familiar with terms such as, spousal abuse ($F(1,1547)=34.68, p=0.000, \eta^2=0.022$), intimate partner abuse ($F(1,1547)=17.51, p=0.000, \eta^2=0.011$), and elder abuse ($F(1,1547)=35.31, p=0.000, \eta^2=0.022$).

The analysis also showed that in terms of age groups, the difference in familiarity was significant. While there was a significant difference in familiarity of most forms of abuse, there was no significant difference in familiarity of the term *domestic violence* in regards to age groups ($F(3,1545)=3.454, p=0.016$).

3.2 Domestic and family violence

Two questions were asked relating to **domestic violence**:

- What do you FIRST think of when you hear the *term domestic violence* and how strongly do you associate specific items with the issue of domestic violence?

The list of items included:

- a) Violence between a married/de facto couple
 - b) Violence between people who are separated or divorced
 - c) Violence between a couple who are the biological parents of a shared child
 - d) Violence between people who are dating
 - e) Violence between people who are betrothed or 'promised' under cultural/religious tradition
 - f) Violence between people who are sharing accommodation
 - g) Violence between same sex partners
 - h) Violence between people who are either engaged or 'promised' under cultural law
 - i) Violence toward older people
 - j) Violence between extended family members
 - k) Violence between adolescents and parents.
- Rate how much you consider specific items fits into the category of "domestic violence".

The list of items included:

- a) Punching, pushing, shoving, hitting, biting, kicking, spitting, strangling
- b) Sulking, silent treatment, emotional blackmail, blaming
- c) Swearing, humiliating comments
- d) Isolation from friends/family, prevented from going out and meeting people
- e) Forbidding access to joint bank accounts
- f) Providing inadequate allowance for family needs
- g) Denial or misuse of partner's religious beliefs to force them into a lesser role
- h) Persuading someone to have sex without protection

- i) Sexually degrading insults.
- j) Hurting family pets in front of family members
- k) Making threats about custody of the children
- l) Leading someone to believe that they are stupid and that no one will believe them
- m) Driving dangerously or recklessly to scare family members
- n) Preventing a partner from seeking or holding down a job
- o) Instigating the move to a location where there are no friends or family support
- p) Alienating friends and family by ongoing rudeness
- q) Convincing a partner that the (abusive) sexual behaviour they are taking part in is normal.

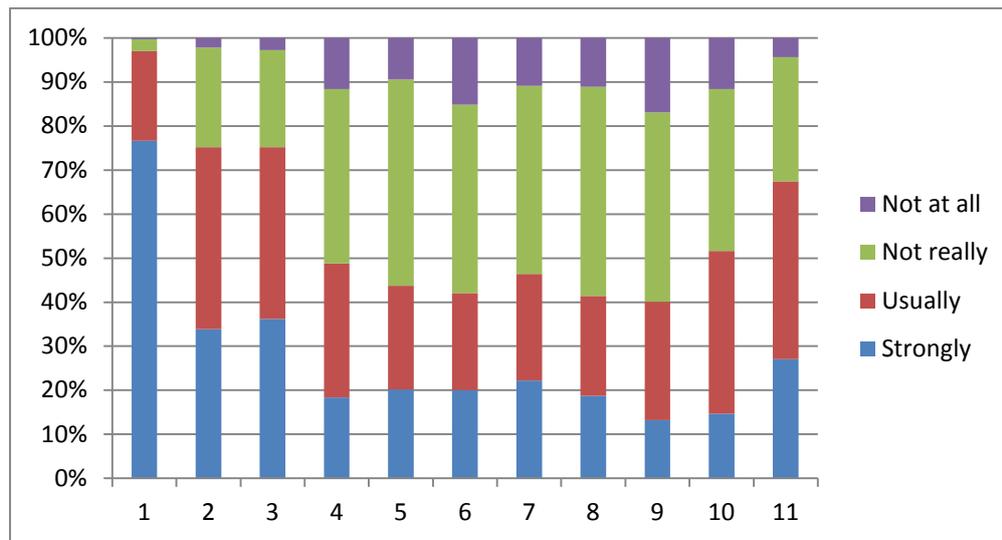
Most respondents' (78%) first response to the term *domestic violence* was that it is violence between a married or de facto couple. Table 3.3 shows that 13 per cent of the respondents' first response to the term was that it is violence between people who are sharing accommodation and less than one per cent of the respondents' first response was that it is violence between people who are dating, or who are betrothed or 'promised' under cultural/religious tradition or cultural law, same sex partners, extended family members or adolescents and parents.

Table 3.3 First response to term *domestic violence*

First response to term <i>domestic violence</i>	(n=1606)	(%)
1. Violence involving a married/de facto couple	1255	78.1
2. Violence involving people who are separated or divorced	16	1.0
3. Violence involving a couple who are the biological parents of a shared child	33	2.1
4. Violence involving people who are dating	14	0.8
5. Violence involving people who are betrothed or 'promised' under cultural/religious tradition	10	0.6
6. Violence involving people who are sharing accommodation	216	13.4
7. Violence involving same sex partners	2	0.1
8. Violence involving people who are either engaged or 'promised' under cultural law	1	0.1
9. Violence toward older people	5	0.3
10. Violence involving extended family members	49	3.1
11. Violence involving an adolescent and a parent	5	0.3

Figure 3.1 shows that respondents do not really associate *domestic violence* with violence involving people who are betrothed or 'promised' under cultural/religious tradition (47%); people who are sharing accommodation (43%); same sex partners (43%); or people who are either engaged or 'promised' under cultural law (47%). Respondents do, however, strongly associate *domestic violence* with violence involving a married/de facto couple (77%). They also usually associate *domestic violence* with violence involving people who are separated or divorced (41%); a couple who are the biological parents of a shared child (39%); and violence involving adolescent and parent relationships (40%).

Figure 3.1 Association of relationship type with *domestic violence*



1. Violence involving a married/de facto couple
2. Violence involving people who are separated or divorced
3. Violence involving a couple who are the biological parents of a shared child
4. Violence involving people who are dating
5. Violence involving people who are betrothed or 'promised' under cultural/religious tradition
6. Violence involving people who are sharing accommodation
7. Violence involving same sex partners
8. Violence involving people who are either engaged or 'promised' under cultural law
9. Violence involving an older person
10. Violence involving extended family members
11. Violence involving adolescents and parents

3.2.1 Socio-demographic correlates: association of relationship type with *domestic violence*

In table 3.4, over page, the association of issues with domestic violence are shown by gender, age, education and income.

Of the approximate 46 per cent of respondents (figure 3.1) who do not really associate domestic violence with violence involving people who are betrothed or 'promised' under cultural/religious tradition or people who are either engaged or 'promised' under cultural law, 26 per cent were in the 65+ age group. On the other hand, 61 per cent of the respondents in the 18-34 year age group strongly associate these relationships with domestic violence. They also strongly associate violence involving a couple who are the biological parents of a shared child with domestic violence (85%).

Overall, respondents in the 18-34 year age group had the highest average response (69%) in associating domestic violence with any of the eleven issues mentioned, whereas respondents in the over 65 year age group's average response was only 45.5 per cent.

Only 31 per cent of respondents in the higher income group of more than \$100,000 associated violence toward older people with domestic violence, whereas respondents in that group mostly associate domestic violence with violence involving a married/de facto couple (99%) and violence involving people who are separated or divorced (80%).

Table 3.4 Association of relationship types with *domestic violence* by demographic variables¹²

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Gender†											
Male	97.2	72.5	71.5	41.3	39.2	40.6	43.3	36.4	34.1	47.3	66.6
Female	96.9	77.8	78.9	55.9	47.9	43.6	49.3	46.3	46.0	55.6	68.1
Age†											
18-34	97.1	71.5	85.3	72.9	67.4	60.6	62.4	61.2	45.2	63.2	74.2
35-44	98.4	76.9	72.8	53.0	32.9	38.7	45.4	34.8	24.0	42.2	64.9
45-64	97.9	81.4	73.9	39.8	37.6	35.2	42.4	35.4	42.5	52.1	65.9
65+	94.0	69.4	63.3	19.2	26.3	24.0	27.4	26.0	45.2	41.1	61.2
Education†											
Secondary or lower	95.2	77.1	72.2	37.3	40.3	34.3	34.3	36.3	50.6	46.8	67.9
Technical	95.7	79.9	71.8	53.0	44.7	43.4	42.2	45.0	44.4	48.3	61.9
Tertiary	98.2	72.6	77.8	49.9	44.2	43.7	51.6	41.1	35.3	54.5	69.9
Household income†											
≤\$50,000	95.2	72.5	79.2	43.3	43.2	44.1	46.3	43.3	47.8	56.1	71.5
\$50,001-\$70,000	94.3	76.2	72.4	49.3	41.4	41.4	47.1	40.0	47.1	54.5	67.3
\$70,001-\$100,000	99.1	73.4	80.6	51.2	48.6	54.6	43.5	46.2	38.7	49.1	68.8
>\$100,000	98.9	79.7	72.3	50.0	42.6	34.5	50.8	37.9	30.6	50.3	62.3

Note † : significant at the level <.01.

1. Violence involving a married/de facto couple
2. Violence involving people who are separated or divorced
3. Violence involving a couple who are the biological parents of a shared child
4. Violence involving people who are dating
5. Violence involving people who are betrothed or 'promised' under cultural/religious tradition
6. Violence involving people who are sharing accommodation
7. Violence involving same sex partners
8. Violence involving people who are either engaged or 'promised' under cultural law
9. Violence involving an older person
10. Violence involving extended family members
11. Violence involving adolescents and parents

Further multivariate analysis indicated significant differences in respondents, across all demographic variables, and their association of issues with domestic violence:

- The difference between male and female respondents' association of domestic violence with violence involving a couple who are biological parents of a shared child ($F(1,1547)=12.57$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.008$) as well as violence involving people who are dating ($F(1,1547)=28.69$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.018$); people who are either engaged or 'promised' under cultural law ($F(1,1547)=14.19$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.009$); older people ($F(1,1547)=23.87$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.015$); and extended family

¹² Combined percentages of 'strongly' and 'usually' responses are reported.

members ($F(1,1547)=15.20$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.010$) is significant in that men do not make the same association (Wilks' Lambda=0.903).

- The difference between the older and younger age groups and their association of domestic violence with violence involving people who are either engaged or 'promised' under cultural law is not significant (Wilks' Lambda=0.870, $F(3,1545)=1.54$, $p=.202$, $\eta^2=.003$).
- A significant difference exists between different education groups in terms of their association of domestic violence with violence involving same sex partners (Wilks' Lambda=0.914, $F(2,1546)=10.59$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.014$). Similarly, the difference between education groups and their association of domestic violence with violence toward older people, is also significant ($F(2,1546)=9.36$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.12$).
- Although respondents in the higher income groups did not necessarily associate domestic violence with violence involving people who are either engaged or 'promised' under cultural law, as the other income groups did, it is not a significant difference ($F(4,1482)=1.93$, $p=0.103$, $\eta^2=0.005$). On the other hand, the difference in association of domestic violence with violence involving people who are sharing accommodation ($F(4,1482)=12.0$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.032$), and violence toward older people ($F(4,1482)=6.88$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.018$) is significant (Wilks' Lambda=0.875).

3.2.2 Behavioural correlates of domestic violence

According to Section 8(1) of the *Domestic and Family Violence Protection Act 2012*, domestic violence includes behaviour such as —

(a) causing personal injury to a person or threatening to do so; (b) coercing a person to engage in sexual activity or attempting to do so; (c) damaging a person's property or threatening to do so; (d) depriving a person of the person's liberty or threatening to do so; (e) threatening a person with the death or injury of the person, a child of the person, or someone else; (f) threatening to commit suicide or self-harm so as to torment, intimidate or frighten the person to whom the behaviour is directed; (g) causing or threatening to cause the death of, or injury to, an animal, whether or not the animal belongs to the person to whom the behaviour is directed, so as to control, dominate or coerce the person; (h) unauthorised surveillance of a person; (i) unlawfully stalking a person.

Noticeable in table 3.5 is that nearly all the respondents (96%) definitely associate behaviour such as punching, pushing, shoving, hitting, biting, kicking, spitting and strangling with *domestic violence*. More than half of the respondents definitely associate swearing, humiliating comments, persuading someone to have sex without protection, sexually degrading insults, leading someone to believe that they are stupid and that no one will believe them, hurting family pets in front of family members, and driving dangerously or recklessly to scare family members with *domestic violence*. Two-thirds of the respondents definitely associate convincing a partner that the (abusive) sexual behaviour they are taking part in is normal with *domestic violence*.

Approximately 10 per cent of the respondents do not at all associate domestic violence with behaviour such as forbidding access to joint bank accounts, providing inadequate allowance for family needs and instigating the move to a location where there are no friends or family support.

Table 3.5 Association of behaviours with *domestic violence*

Behaviour	Definitely %	Somewhat %	Not really %	Not at all %
1. Punching, pushing, shoving, hitting, biting, kicking, spitting, strangling	96.1	3.5	0.3	0.1
2. Sulking, silent treatment, emotional blackmail, blaming	33.1	39.5	21.4	6.0
3. Swearing, humiliating comments	51.4	34.8	10.2	3.7
4. Isolation from friends/family, prevented from going out and meeting people	47.6	33.5	13.9	5.0
5. Forbidding access to joint bank accounts	34.3	28.9	24.0	12.8
6. Providing inadequate allowance for family needs	34.3	32.8	24.3	8.6
7. Denial or misuse of partner's religious beliefs to force them into a lesser role	36.1	36.2	21.2	6.5
8. Persuading someone to have sex without protection	53.2	25.6	15.8	5.4
9. Sexually degrading insults	54.0	31.1	12.2	2.7
10. Hurting family pets in front of family members	59.2	26.4	9.8	4.6
11. Making threats about custody of the children	54.2	31.5	10.7	3.6
12. Leading someone to believe that they are stupid and that no one will believe them	51.2	29.7	15.1	4.0
13. Driving dangerously or recklessly to scare family members	53.1	28.9	14.0	4.0
14. Preventing a partner from seeking or holding down a job	35.4	36.0	21.2	7.4
15. Instigating the move to a location where there are no friends or family support	30.5	36.3	23.4	9.9
16. Alienating friends and family by ongoing rudeness	33.3	37.8	22.2	6.7
17. Convincing a partner that the (abusive) sexual behaviour they are taking part in is normal	67.3	23.7	6.1	2.9

3.2.3 Behavioural correlates of domestic violence by socio-demographic variables

Behaviours associated with *domestic violence* are shown by gender, age, education and income in table 3.6. Although most of the respondents (96%) reported that they definitely associate punching, pushing, shoving, hitting, biting, kicking, spitting, strangling with *domestic violence*, all the respondents in the age group of 45 years and younger reported this association. Respondents with a tertiary education and respondents in the highest income group (> \$100,000) also associate punching, pushing, shoving, hitting, biting, kicking, spitting, strangling with *domestic violence*. In general, females, more frequently (15-20% more) associated *domestic violence* with behaviours such as emotional blackmail, forbidding access to joint bank accounts; providing inadequate allowance for family needs; and denial or misuse of partner's religious beliefs.

Table 3.6 Association of behaviours with *domestic violence* by demographic variables¹³

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Gender†																	
Male	99.6	64.3	81.5	73.7	52.1	56.8	63.2	71.5	79.3	81.5	78.9	72.2	74.3	62.9	57.8	61.0	86.0
Female	99.6	80.3	90.5	88.0	73.7	76.7	80.9	85.7	90.6	89.5	92.3	89.1	89.3	79.5	75.2	80.7	95.8
Age†																	
18-34	100.0	63.5	78.7	76.5	51.9	58.1	74.6	79.2	82.6	87.0	80.8	76.5	77.1	68.2	59.0	65.3	91.1
35-44	100.0	71.6	90.1	83.7	63.3	64.9	67.1	78.3	85.6	87.5	82.7	79.6	82.4	67.4	65.8	64.9	90.4
45-64	99.6	80.1	91.9	86.4	72.5	75.9	75.2	80.7	89.8	86.2	91.7	86.2	87.5	76.5	72.9	78.0	93.4
65+	98.2	75.1	83.7	76.2	65.5	68.3	69.0	75.1	80.4	80.1	86.5	80.1	80.1	71.9	69.8	75.4	87.9
Education†																	
Secondary or lower	98.8	74.3	88.8	81.0	65.1	70.3	69.9	76.7	85.1	83.5	89.6	84.7	78.7	73.5	75.4	76.2	89.6
Technical	99.3	73.5	87.9	78.8	61.0	65.1	69.7	71.9	84.5	85.4	86.8	81.7	82.6	68.5	68.5	73.6	89.7
Tertiary	100.0	71.6	84.5	82.3	63.8	67.2	74.2	82.7	85.4	86.3	84.2	79.5	82.6	72.3	63.7	68.6	92.1
Household income†																	
≤50,000	99.0	76.1	81.8	74.6	61.5	67.7	68.7	74.8	81.8	80.3	83.5	77.2	73.2	68.4	67.9	72.0	90.4
\$50,001-\$70,000	99.0	75.7	91.4	90.5	72.0	75.7	83.3	82.4	90.5	90.0	90.5	90.0	83.3	74.8	71.9	69.5	91.4
\$70,001-\$100,000	99.7	70.5	91.6	81.2	62.1	70.8	73.7	82.7	86.1	90.8	83.8	82.4	86.2	69.8	72.0	76.0	91.9
>\$100,000	100.0	68.8	82.6	80.7	60.4	59.9	70.6	78.7	85.7	84.2	88.3	79.8	87.4	64.8	58.6	65.1	91.3

Note † : significant at the level <.01.

¹³ Combined percentages of 'definitely' and 'somewhat' responses are reported.

1. *Punching, pushing, shoving, hitting, biting, kicking, spitting, strangling*
2. *Sulking, silent treatment, emotional blackmail, blaming*
3. *Swearing, humiliating comments*
4. *Isolation from friends/family, prevented from going out and meeting people*
5. *Forbidding access to joint bank accounts*
6. *Providing inadequate allowance for family needs*
7. *Denial or misuse of partner's religious beliefs to force them into a lesser role*
8. *Persuading someone to have sex without protection*
9. *Sexually degrading insults*
10. *Hurting family pets in front of family members*
11. *Making threats about custody of the children*
12. *Leading someone to believe that they are stupid and that no one will believe them*
13. *Driving dangerously or recklessly to scare family members*
14. *Preventing a partner from seeking or holding down a job*
15. *Instigating the move to a location where there are no friends or family support*
16. *Alienating friends and family by ongoing rudeness*
17. *Convincing a partner that the (abusive) sexual behaviour they are taking part in is normal*

The 18-34 year age group associated domestic violence with some of the behaviours 20 per cent less than the 45-64 year age group. These behaviours include sulking, silent treatment, emotional blackmail, blaming; and forbidding access to joint bank accounts.

Further multivariate analysis indicated significant differences in respondents, across all demographic variables, and their association of certain behaviours with domestic violence:

- Except for punching, pushing, shoving, hitting, biting, kicking, spitting and strangling ($F(1,147)=2.33, p=0.127, \eta^2=0.002$), females are significantly more likely than males to associate other listed behaviours with domestic violence (Wilks' Lambda=0.834, $p=0.000$).
- The difference between age groups and their association of domestic violence with behaviours such as persuading someone to have sex without protection ($F(3,1545)=1.96, p=0.118, \eta^2=0.004$); and hurting family pets in front of family members ($F(3,1545)=2.53, p=0.056, \eta^2=0.005$) is not significant (Wilks Lambda=0.870).
- It is significant that the younger age group did not so much associate domestic violence with sulking, silent treatment, emotional blackmail, and blaming ($F(3,1545)=24.07, p=.000, \eta^2=0.045$).
- Differences exist between education groups and their association of domestic violence with specific behaviours (Wilks' Lambda=0.899). These differences are significant where domestic violence is associated with punching, pushing, shoving, hitting, biting, kicking, spitting and strangling ($F(2,1546)=24.86, p=0.000, \eta^2=0.031$); and persuading someone to have sex without protection ($F(2,1546)=4.86, p=0.008, \eta^2=0.006$).
- Even though there is a difference between income groups in associating domestic violence with behaviour such as making threats about custody of the children ($F(4,1482)=2.42, p=0.047, \eta^2=0.006$); and alienating friends and family by ongoing rudeness ($F(4,1482)=3.24, p=0.120, \eta^2=0.009$), it is not significant (Wilks' Lambda=0.830).

3.3 Spousal

Participants in the study were asked which of the following relationships they considered to be categorized as “spousal”?

The list included:

- People of the same or opposite sex who are living together as a couple
- People who are married
- People who are divorced
- People who are separated
- A couple who are the biological parents of a shared child

Seventy one per cent of respondents initially reported that they are familiar with the term *spousal*. After further questioning, recorded in table 3.7, more than 80 per cent of the respondents associated *spousal* with people of the same or opposite sex who are living together as a couple and/or as people who are married. One per cent indicated no association with any of the given relationships.

Table 3.7 Association of relationship status with term *spousal*

Relationship	(n=1606)	(%)
People of the same or opposite sex who are living together as a couple	1360	84.8
People who are married	1310	81.7
People who are divorced	420	26.2
People who are separated	578	36.0
A couple who are the biological parents of a shared child	629	39.2
None of the above	16	1.0

In table 3.8 the association of relationships with *spousal* are shown by gender, age, education and income.

Table 3.8 Association of relationship status with *spousal* by demographic variables

Demographic variables	Same or opposite sex living together %	Married %	Divorced %	Separated %	Biological parents %
Gender†					
Male	80.2	85.0	21.7	29.6	36.2
Female	88.9	89.0	30.2	42.0	42.0
Age†					
18-34	87.6	71.2	23.6	27.7	29.5
35-44	85.0	77.4	23.6	33.2	36.1
45-64	89.0	83.8	30.7	43.1	45.5
65+	71.2	87.1	24.8	39.9	47.7
Education†					
Secondary or lower	77.4	82.3	21.8	34.3	35.3
Technical	83.8	82.4	24.4	34.5	35.5
Tertiary	87.1	88.5	28.1	37.2	42.0
Household income†					
≤50,000	82.3	88.5	24.6	34.0	41.2
\$50,001-\$70,000	82.4	85.0	30.0	36.2	41.0
\$70,001-\$100,000	88.5	89.0	29.7	40.5	47.7
>\$100,000	88.5	71.2	26.8	36.8	35.7

Note † : significant at the level <.01.

Across all the demographic variables, including gender, age, education and income, the association with the term *spousal* is much higher with people of the same or opposite sex living together as a couple (84%) and/or people who are married (83%), compared to an association of the term with people who are divorced (26%) or separated (36%), or a couple who are the biological parents of a shared child (40%).

Respondents in the 65+ age group (87%) and those with a secondary or lower level of education (82%) more strongly associate being married with the term *spousal* than with people of the same or opposite sex living together as a couple (71%; 77%). Only 71 per cent of respondents in the highest income group of more than \$100,000 associate *spousal* with being married, while 88.5 per cent of them associate that term with people of the same or opposite sex living together as a couple.

Less than a quarter of the male respondents in the age groups under 45 and over 65; as well as respondents with technical or lower education, associate people who are divorced with the term *spousal*.

Further multivariate analysis indicated significant differences in respondents, across all demographic variables, and their association of relationships with the term *spousal*:

- The difference between gender and their association of the term *spousal* with people who are married is not significant (Wilks' Lambda=0.962, $F(1,1547)=1.30$, $p=0.254$, $\eta^2=0.001$). However, the difference is significant when they associate the term *spousal* with people who are divorced ($F(1,1547)=13.18$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.008$); separated ($F(1,1547)=31.51$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.020$); and people of the same or opposite sex who are living together as a couple ($F(1,1547)=26.83$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.017$).

- Differences between age groups and their association of the term *spousal* with people of the same or opposite sex living together as a couple ($F(3,1545)=21.54$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.040$); people who are married ($F(3,1545)=6.70$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.013$); separated ($F(3,1545)=10.17$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.019$); and a couple who are the biological parent of a shared child ($F(3,1545)=11.49$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.022$), are significant (Wilks' Lambda=0.908).
- Significant differences (Wilks' Lambda=0.949) also exist between education groups and the association of the term *spousal* with relationships between people of the same sex living together as a couple ($F(2,1546)=5.59$, $p=0.004$, $\eta^2=0.007$) and people who are married ($F(2,1546)=8.37$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.011$).
- Only the difference between income groups and their association of *spousal* with the relationship between people living together as a couple ($F(4,1482)=3.95$, $p=0.003$, $\eta^2=0.011$) and a couple who are the biological parents of a shared child ($F(4,148)=7.41$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.020$) is somewhat significant (Wilks' Lambda=0.852).

3.4 Intimate personal

Participants were asked which of the following relationships they considered “intimate personal”? They could select as many as apply. The list included:

- People who are involved in a sexual relationship
- People who are or were engaged to be married
- People who are betrothed or ‘promised’ under cultural/religious tradition
- People of the same/opposite sex who are in dating relationships and their actions impact on one another.

Only 27 per cent of respondents initially reported that they are familiar with the term *intimate partner*. After further questioning, recorded in table 3.9, more than 90 per cent of the respondents associated *intimate personal* with people who are involved in a sexual relationship. Two thirds associated *intimate personal* with people of the same/opposite sex who are in dating relationships and their actions impact on one another, and 60.5 per cent associate *intimate personal* with people who are or were engaged to be married. Forty-three per cent associate *intimate personal* with people who are betrothed or ‘promised’ under cultural/religious tradition. Three per cent indicated no association with any of the given relationships.

Table 3.9 Association of relationship status with term *intimate personal*

Relationship	(n=1606)	(%)
People who are involved in a sexual relationship	1472	91.7
People who are or were engaged to be married	971	60.5
People who are betrothed or ‘promised’ under cultural/religious tradition	695	43.3
People of the same/opposite sex who are in dating relationships and their actions impact on one another.	1063	66.2
None of the above	48	3.0

In table 3.10, the association of relationship status with *intimate personal* is shown by gender, age, education and income.

Table 3.10 Association of relationship status with *intimate personal* by demographic variables

Demographic Variables	Sexual relationship %	Engaged %	'Promised' %	Dating relationship %
Gender†				
Male	87.9	53.6	33.3	60.9
Female	93.5	65.8	51.9	69.9
Age				
18-34	88.2	58.6	46.0	62.6
35-44	90.7	55.3	38.0	67.1
45-64	91.9	60.9	42.9	68.9
65+	92.9	65.8	42.7	62.6
Education†				
Secondary or lower	83.5	50.6	32.9	60.1
Technical	90.2	57.6	38.3	61.6
Tertiary	92.9	63.5	47.8	69.0
Household income				
≤50,000	90.4	63.3	46.9	63.5
\$50,001-\$70,000	91.0	57.1	40.5	70.0
\$70,001-\$100,000	91.3	64.8	46.7	68.9
>\$100,000	89.8	56.7	40.3	67.0

Note † : significant at the level <.01.

Females mostly associated the term *intimate personal* with sexual relationships (93.5%) and to a lesser degree with dating relationships (70%) and people who are or were engaged to be married (66%). Whereas over half of the females (52%) associated intimate personal with people who are betrothed or 'promised' under cultural/religious tradition, only one third of the male respondents (33%) made that association.

Respondents with a tertiary level of education responded higher to the association of the term *intimate personal* with people in a sexual relationship (93%); people who are or were engaged to be married (63.5%); with people who are betrothed or 'promised' under cultural/religious tradition (48%); and people in a dating relationship (69%), than any of the respondents with lower levels of education.

Further multivariate analysis indicated significant differences in respondents, across all demographic variables, and their association of relationships with the term *intimate personal*:

- The difference between gender and the association of *intimate personal* with any of the listed relationships are all significant (Wilks' Lambda=0.850, F(1,1547)=16.07, p=0.000).
- Differences between all levels of education and their association between the term *intimate personal* and all listed relationships are also significant (Wilks' Lambda=0.955, F(2,1546)=7.14, p=0.000).

3.5 Elder abuse

3.5.1 Perception of age involved in Elder Abuse

There has been debate around what constitutes 'elder' in relation to elder abuse and participants were asked about their perception of age involved in elder abuse. Initially, 49 per cent of respondents reported that they are familiar with the term *elder abuse*. Further questioning focused on the perception of the age groups involved in elder abuse. Table 3.11 shows that nearly 60 per cent of all the respondents perceived elder abuse to involve people older than 60 years of age. Fifty per cent of the respondents indicated that they see elder abuse involving people of any age where a younger person is abusing an older person.

Table 3.11 Perception of age group involved in *elder abuse*

Age group	(n=1606)	(%)
60+ years	917	57.1
50+ years	384	23.9
40+ years	132	8.2
Any age where younger person is abusing older person	795	49.5

Table 3.12, over page, shows perception of age involved in *elder abuse* by gender, age, education and income.

More males (58.5%) than females (56%) perceive elder abuse to involve people older than 60 years of age. However, over half of the female respondents also perceive elder abuse to involve people from any age where a younger person is abusing an older person (55%), whereas only 43 per cent of the male respondents reported under this category.

Respondents in the 65+ age group responded higher on most categories and perceived elder abuse to mostly involve people in the age group of 60+ years (62%), although they similarly agree that elder abuse involves people of any age where the younger person is abusing an older person (61%). Respondents in the age group 45-64 years do not really perceive the 50-60 year age group (22%) to be involved in elder abuse.

About ten per cent more respondents with a tertiary education (60%) than those with a technical (52%) education indicated that they perceived elder abuse to involve people over 60 years of age. On average, nearly eight per cent less respondents with a tertiary education (46%) perceived any age where a younger person is abusing an older person to be elder abuse compared to those respondents with a technical (54%) or secondary/lower (55%) education level.

Of all the respondents in the \$50,001-\$70,000 household income group, less than half (46%) perceived elder abuse to involve people over 60 years of age, however, 59 per cent perceived people of any age, where a younger person is abusing an older person, involved in elder abuse. Respondents in the lowest income group of less than or equal to \$50,000 perceived elder abuse either to involve people older than 60 years of age (59%) or any age where a younger person is abusing an older person (53.5%).

Table 3.12 Perception of age involved in elder abuse by demographic variables

Demographic Variables	60+ years %	50+ years %	40+ years %	Any age %
Gender†				
Male	58.5	21.0	6.0	43.1
Female	55.7	26.7	10.3	55.4
Age‡				
18-34	56.9	22.7	6.2	39.8
35-44	53.7	25.9	6.4	42.2
45-64	56.7	21.8	9.5	56.5
65+	61.9	27.8	11.4	60.9
Education†				
Secondary or lower	55.4	23.7	7.3	54.6
Technical	51.6	26.9	10.0	53.9
Tertiary	60.1	22.5	7.6	46.0
Household Income†				
≤50,000	58.8	29.4	10.6	53.5
\$50,001-\$70,000	46.4	29.5	8.5	58.6
\$70,001-\$100,000	56.1	20.8	9.8	48.8
>\$100,000	62.0	19.5	5.2	41.2

Note † : significant at the level <.01; ‡ : significant level at the .05.

Further multivariate analysis indicated significant differences in respondents, across all demographic variables, and their perception of age as relevant to elder abuse:

- The gender difference in the perception of the age involved in elder abuse is significant (Wilks' Lambda=0.978) for any age where a younger person is abusing an older person ($F(1,1547)=26.97$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.017$). This difference is also significant for age groups (Wilks' Lambda=0.943, $F(3,1545)=13.10$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.025$).
- Although slight differences exist between education groups and perception of age involved in elder abuse, it is not significant (Wilks' Lambda=0.987, $p>0.010$).
- Significant differences (Wilks' Lambda=0.957) exist between income groups and their perception that elder abuse involves people aged 60+ years ($F(4,1482)=5.26$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.04$) and any age where a younger person is abusing an older person ($F(4,1482)=5.20$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.014$).

3.5.2 Behavioural correlates of *elder abuse*

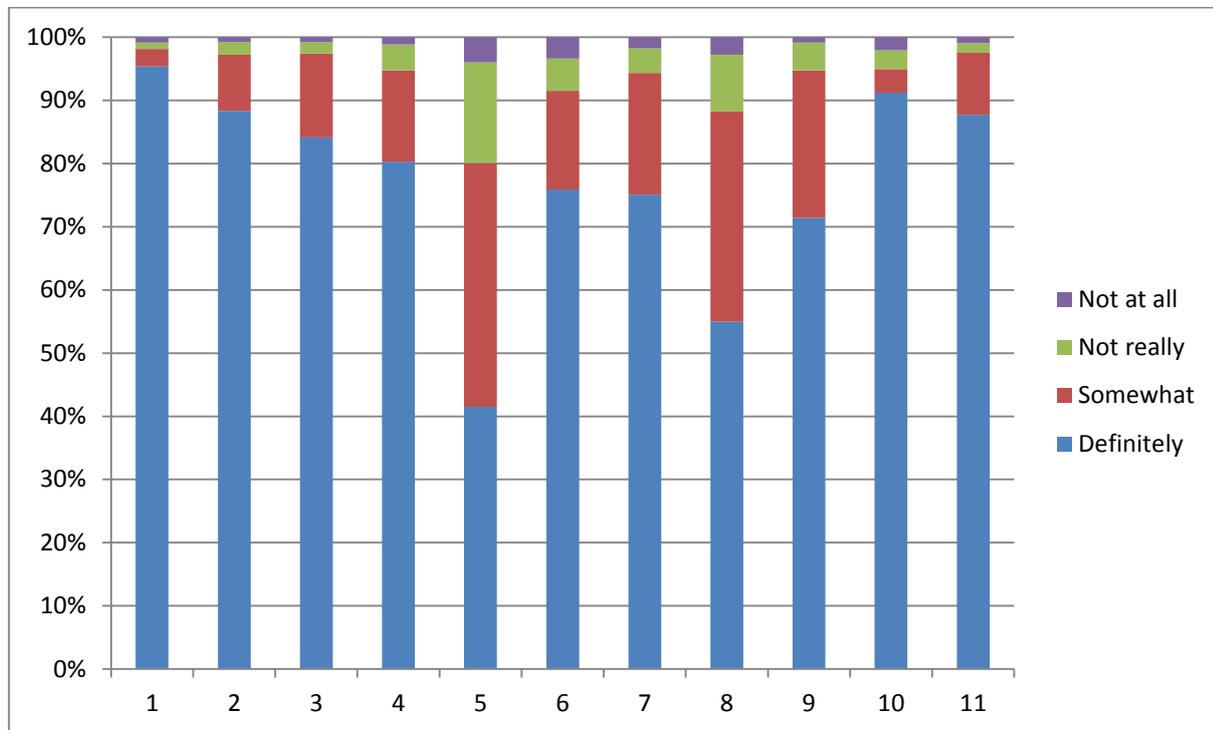
In this study, participants had to associate certain behaviours with elder abuse. Responses rated from 'I definitely think this fits the category of elder abuse' to 'I don't think this fits the category of elder abuse at all'. Approximately 95 per cent of the respondents definitely or somewhat associate elder abuse with all listed types of behaviour, but about 20 per cent do not associate elder abuse with behaviours such as refusing to visit or make any contact.

Table 3.13 Association of behaviours with *elder abuse*

Behaviour	Definitely %	Somewhat %	Not really %	Not at all %
1. Slapping, shoving, beating, burning	95.4	2.7	1.0	0.9
2. Physical restraint (example, locking someone in their room)	88.3	8.9	2.0	0.8
3. Forcing changes to last will and testament	84.1	13.3	1.8	0.8
4. Misusing power of attorney	80.3	14.4	4.1	1.2
5. Refusing to visit or make any contact	41.5	38.6	15.9	4.0
6. Forging signature on bank accounts or legal documents	75.9	15.6	5.1	3.4
7. Threatening to put someone into an institution	75.1	19.2	3.9	1.8
8. Withholding affection (example refusing access to grandchildren)	55.0	33.2	9.0	2.8
9. Stopping interaction with friends (example, not allowing use of the telephone)	71.4	23.3	4.4	0.9
10. Sexual intercourse without consent	91.2	3.7	3.0	2.1
11. Failing to provide medication, clothing or food	87.7	9.8	1.5	1.0

Figure 3.2 shows that respondents definitely associate *elder abuse* with slapping, shoving, beating, burning (95%); physical restraint (example, locking someone in their room) (88%); forcing changes to last will and testament (84%); sexual intercourse without consent (91%); and failing to provide medication, clothing or food (88%). Based on responses of 'not really' or 'not at all', it can also be seen in figure 3.2 that some respondents do not really, or do not at all, associate *elder abuse* with refusing to visit or make any contact (20%); forging a signature on bank accounts or legal documents (8.5%); threatening to put someone into an institution (6%); and withholding affection, such as refusing access to grandchildren (12%). Five per cent of the respondents also believe that sexual intercourse without consent is 'not really' or 'not at all' elder abuse.

Figure 3.2 Association of behaviours with *elder abuse*



1. *Slapping, shoving, beating, burning*
2. *Physical restraint (example, locking someone in their room)*
3. *Forcing changes to last will and testament*
4. *Misusing power of attorney*
5. *Refusing to visit or make any contact*
6. *Forging signature on bank accounts or legal documents*
7. *Threatening to put someone into an institution*
8. *Withholding affection (example refusing access to grandchildren)*
9. *Stopping interaction with friends (example, not allowing use of the telephone)*
10. *Sexual intercourse without consent*
11. *Failing to provide medication, clothing or food*

3.5.3 Behavioural correlates of *elder abuse* by socio-demographic variables

Table 3.14 shows behaviours associated with *elder abuse* by gender, age, education and income.

Table 3.14 Association of behaviours with *elder abuse* by demographic variables¹⁴

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Gender†											
Male	96.9	95.0	95.5	89.6	70.6	86.5	89.4	84.0	92.2	91.7	95.6
Female	99.3	99.2	99.2	99.5	89.0	96.1	99.0	92.2	97.1	98.1	99.3
Age†											
18-34	95.6	94.3	96.2	89.2	70.2	86.4	89.7	79.6	91.2	93.8	98.1
35-44	99.4	98.1	97.7	94.9	75.5	90.4	93.3	85.3	93.2	94.6	94.2
45-64	99.2	99.3	97.4	97.6	86.9	93.9	97.0	93.4	96.7	95.4	98.3
65+	99.0	97.5	98.6	98.9	89.3	96.8	98.3	95.8	98.2	96.5	98.5
Education†											
Secondary or lower	92.7	95.5	91.1	89.6	86.8	92.7	90.7	90.7	94.7	87.5	93.9
Technical	99.0	98.0	98.4	93.6	78.1	89.2	96.8	84.3	92.0	97.0	98.1
Tertiary	99.1	97.2	98.6	96.5	79.3	92.1	94.2	89.5	95.9	95.5	98.2
Household income†											
≤\$50,000	97.4	99.0	97.6	92.6	82.0	93.0	95.4	90.7	96.4	94.7	99.1
\$50,001-\$70,000	100.0	99.0	97.6	98.0	88.1	96.7	98.5	97.6	99.5	96.7	97.1
\$70,001-\$100,000	99.7	98.5	98.3	96.2	85.8	96.0	95.6	91.3	96.8	96.0	99.1
>\$100,000	98.3	96.9	97.9	93.9	73.1	87	92.4	83.3	92.0	94.8	97.0

Note † : significant at the level <.01.

1. *Slapping, shoving, beating, burning*
2. *Physical restraint (example, locking someone in their room)*
3. *Forcing changes to last will and testament*
4. *Misusing power of attorney*
5. *Refusing to visit or make any contact*
6. *Forging signature on bank accounts or legal documents*
7. *Threatening to put someone into an institution*
8. *Withholding affection (example refusing access to grandchildren)*
9. *Stopping interaction with friends (example, not allowing use of the telephone)*
10. *Sexual intercourse without consent*
11. *Failing to provide medication, clothing or food*

¹⁴ Combined percentages of 'definitely' and 'somewhat' responses are reported.

On average, female respondents (97%), respondents over 65 years of age (97%), respondents with a tertiary education (94%), and respondents earning between \$50,001 and \$70,000 income (97%) mostly associate all listed behaviours with elder abuse.

Behaviour, such as refusing to visit or make any contact, is least likely to be associated with elder abuse. Only 71 per cent of male respondents and 70 per cent of respondents between the ages of 18-34 associate this type of behaviour with elder abuse, compared to the 96 per cent of males and 98 per cent of respondents between the ages of 18-34 years who associate elder abuse with failing to provide medication, clothing or food.

All respondents in the income group of \$50,001-\$70,000 associate slapping, shoving, beating and burning with elder abuse. More than 99 per cent of the respondents in this group also associate elder abuse with behaviour such as stopping interaction with friends and physical restraint.

Whereas 99 per cent of respondents with technical or tertiary education associate elder abuse with behaviour such as slapping, shoving, beating and burning, only 93 per cent of respondents with a secondary or lower education associate this type of behaviour with elder abuse. Approximately eight per cent more respondents from this lower education group, compared to the other education groups, associate elder abuse with refusing to visit or make any contact (87%), and ten per cent less respondents from this lower education group associated elder abuse with sexual intercourse without consent.

Further multivariate analysis indicated significant differences in respondents, across all demographic variables, and their association of behaviour with *elder abuse*:

- Refusing to visit or make any contact is the one behaviour with the lowest response and significantly different (Wilks' Lambda=0.859, $F(1,1547)=154.09$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.091$).
- Although a difference exists between age groups and their association of elder abuse with behaviour such as sexual intercourse without consent (Wilks' Lambda=0.867, $F(3,1545)=0.90$, $p=0.441$, $\eta^2=0.002$), it is not significant.
- The difference in education groups and their association of elder abuse with slapping, shoving, beating and burning is significant (Wilks' Lambda=0.888, $F(2,1546)=33.53$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.042$), but the difference in terms of associating elder abuse with refusing to visit or make any contact ($F(2,1546)=3.07$, $p=0.047$, $\eta^2=0.004$) or withholding affection ($F(2,1546)=2.75$, $p=0.064$, $\eta^2=0.004$) is not significant.
- Differences in income groups and their association of elder abuse with forging a signature on bank accounts or legal documents ($F(4,1482)=9.57$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.020$) and refusing to visit or make any contact ($F(4,1482)=6.05$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.016$), are significant (Wilks' Lambda=0.884).

3.5.4 Seriousness of behaviour involved in elder abuse

Participants were asked about the seriousness of certain behaviours in the care of older people.

Table 3.15 Perception of seriousness of behaviour involved in elder abuse

Behaviours	Very serious %	Moderate %	Mild %
1. Caregiver prepares uncomfortably hot bath water for elderly person to bathe in.	79.6	17.4	3.0
2. Caregiver takes money from the elderly person without asking.	90.8	8.5	0.7
3. Caregiver pressures elderly person for control of finances or assets	91.0	8.1	0.9
4. Caregiver takes elderly person out of the house against their wishes.	52.1	41.4	6.5
5. Caregiver ignores the elderly person, seldom talking or listening	68.6	29.0	2.4
6. Caregiver fails to feed the elderly person.	97.9	1.3	0.7
7. Caregiver shakes the elderly person by the shoulders.	87.8	10.4	1.8
8. Caregiver threatens to poison the elderly person's food.	94.1	3.9	2.0
9. Caregiver hits the elderly person in the face.	97.6	0.5	2.0
10. Caregiver leaves the elderly person alone for long periods of time.	66.7	32.2	1.1
11. Caregiver misuses the elderly person's funds.	92.6	6.7	0.7
12. Caregiver gives away the elderly person's belongings without asking.	85.6	12.6	1.8
13. Caregiver reminds elderly person how much of a burden he/she is	75.2	21.8	3.0
14. Caregiver does not give the elderly person their medication.	95.8	3.4	0.8
15. Caregiver fails to keep medical appointments for the elderly person.	85.8	13.2	1.0
16. Caregiver gives the elderly person tranquilizers to keep them subdued.	89.0	10.0	1.0
17. Caregiver strikes the elderly person with a wooden spoon.	96.1	2.5	1.5
18. Caregiver makes the elderly person sleep on a filthy old mattress.	90.8	7.3	1.9
19. Caregiver screams at the elderly person, calling him/her foul names.	91.6	7.2	1.2
20. Caregiver pressures the elderly person to move to a nursing home.	52.4	40.3	7.3
21. Caregiver tries to help even when elderly person doesn't want help.	14.0	54.9	31.1
22. Caregiver does not ensure that the elderly person is clean.	75.4	23.3	1.3
23. Caregiver and elderly person don't get along; caregiver won't admit problem.	47.4	43.8	8.8
24. Caregiver manages the elderly person's assets against elderly person's wishes.	77.8	20.0	2.2
25. Caregiver threatens to give away elderly person's possessions or pets	82.8	14.0	3.2

According to table 3.15, above, most respondents perceive it a very serious behaviour when the caregiver fails to feed the elder person (98%) or where the caregiver hits the elderly person in the face (98%). Just over 40 per cent of respondents perceive the caregiver taking the elderly person out of the house against their wishes, and the caregiver pressuring the elderly person to move to a nursing home, as moderately abusive behaviour.

Behaviour such as the caregiver taking money from the elderly person without asking; pressuring the elderly person for control of the elderly person's finances or assets; failing to feed the elderly person; misusing the elderly person's funds; and not giving the elderly person their medication, was seen as only mildly serious behaviour by less than one per cent of respondents.

In table 3.16 the perception of seriousness of behaviours involved with elder abuse are shown by gender, age, education and income. The table indicates 98 to 99 per cent female respondents perceive behaviour such as where the caregiver fails to feed the elderly person or hits the elderly person in the face/strikes the elderly person with a wooden spoon, or does not give the elderly person their medication, as very serious in terms of elder abuse. Just over 96 per cent of male respondents perceive the caregiver failing to feed the elderly person, and the caregiver hitting the elderly person in the face, as very serious behaviour.

Nearly 98 per cent of the respondents in the age group younger than 34 years reported behaviour as very serious where the caregiver fails to feed the elderly person or where the caregiver does not give the elderly person their medication. In all the other age categories, 97 to 100 per cent perceived behaviour where the caregiver fails to feed the elderly person or where the caregiver hits the elderly person in the face as most serious.

Where, in general, behaviours are not rated as very serious, an average of 87 per cent of respondents in the 65+ age group reported behaviours such as where the caregiver manages the elderly person's assets in a way that is inconsistent with the elderly person's wishes; and threatens to give away the elderly person's possessions or pets, as very serious.

Further multivariate analysis indicated significant differences in respondents, across all demographic variables, and their perception of the seriousness of behaviour involved in elder abuse:

- Significant differences (Wilks' Lambda=0.850) exist between gender groups and how serious they perceive behaviours such as the caregiver preparing uncomfortably hot tubs of water for an elderly person to bathe in ($F(1,1547)=61.27, p=0.000, \eta^2=0.038$); the caregiver ignoring the elderly person most of the time ($F(1,1547)=86.09, p=0.000, \eta^2=0.053$); and the caregiver leaving the elderly person alone for long periods of time ($F(1,1547)=146.96, p=0.000, \eta^2=0.087$).
- Although there is a difference in age groups and their perception of seriousness of behaviour such as the caregiver failing to feed the elderly person ($F(3,1545)=1.49, p=0.215, \eta^2=0.003$) and the caregiver not giving the elderly person their medication ($F(3,1545)=0.95, p=0.414, \eta^2=0.002$), it is not significant. However, the difference in perception of behaviour such as the caregiver preparing uncomfortably hot tubs of water for an elderly person to bathe in ($F(3,1545)=70.55, p=0.000, \eta^2=0.120$), is significant.

Table 3.16 Perception of seriousness of behaviour involved in elder abuse by demographic variables¹⁵

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
Gender†																									
Male	72.8	87.7	87.8	46.0	58.7	96.9	82.6	91.5	96.3	52.6	90.2	83.5	63.7	93.3	79.8	82.3	94.2	87.4	86.3	47.0	13.8	64.8	41.1	69.8	78.0
Female	86.0	93.6	94.0	57.9	77.8	98.8	92.6	96.6	98.8	80.0	94.8	87.5	85.9	98.2	91.3	85.3	97.8	94.1	96.6	57.5	14.3	85.4	53.3	85.3	87.2
Age†																									
18-34	57.7	88.8	87.6	45.6	61.2	97.7	79.2	92.2	96.1	64.5	91.1	84.1	64.3	97.7	79.8	85.4	95.5	82.3	88.9	42.9	9.1	66.2	43.5	75.7	75.3
35-44	84.0	92.9	88.5	47.9	67.1	98.7	93.9	96.5	100	62.9	92.0	84.3	76.4	93.0	87.2	93.3	99.4	93.6	92.3	49.8	16.0	77.9	45.0	75.6	81.5
45-64	91.1	90.9	93.4	56.4	74.0	98.1	91.9	95.4	97.7	71.0	93.4	87.1	80.5	96.0	89.4	90.2	95.8	95.1	93.2	57.0	17.1	80.5	50.1	79.0	86.7
65+	90.8	91.8	95.0	59.8	72.6	97.2	87.9	92.9	97.5	66.5	94.3	86.8	82.6	95.0	88.3	88.6	93.6	94.3	92.2	63.1	14.6	78.9	52.0	82.2	89.7
Education†																									
Secondary or lower	91.1	88.8	91.6	58.9	73.1	93.2	86.7	93.5	95.6	72.3	89.2	84.7	80.7	92.8	89.2	90.8	92.4	92.0	92.4	57.3	15.7	85.9	59.3	77.1	85.9
Technical	77.7	93.2	93.2	54.6	71.9	97.9	89.5	93.6	98.2	70.5	92.7	84.7	82.9	95.2	88.8	90.9	96.1	91.1	92.2	52.4	13.7	78.1	49.3	79.2	83.4
Tertiary	77.4	90.3	89.8	49.1	65.7	99.1	87.1	94.6	97.9	63.4	93.4	86.3	69.9	97.0	83.5	87.6	97.1	90.3	91.2	51.1	13.7	71.3	43.3	77.3	81.6
Household income†																									
≤50,000	76.3	94.2	95.2	60.5	74.6	98.8	87.8	97.1	98.6	68.7	91.1	86.1	79.1	96.6	87.8	87.5	96.9	92.3	95.0	52.3	12.7	83.3	54.4	77.7	84.9
\$50,001-\$70,000	82.9	91.0	88.6	59.5	71.1	96.7	86.2	92.4	98.1	73.3	95.3	87.1	71.6	92.4	91.9	93.8	95.7	88.6	93.3	55.5	14.8	69.5	55.2	80.5	85.2
\$70,001-\$100,000	85.0	89.9	93.1	49.7	70.0	98.8	90.2	91.9	96.0	68.2	93.4	82.4	81.6	97.1	82.7	89.3	95.1	93.4	92.8	55.2	13.6	79.8	44.8	79.0	79.0
>\$100,000	77.9	90.5	89.6	42.9	62.5	99.1	90.0	94.2	99.3	59.2	92.8	86.6	66.4	97.0	84.2	89.6	97.4	89.2	86.3	47.9	14.1	69.4	39.4	74.6	80.6

Note † : significant at the level <.01.

¹⁵ 'Very Serious' responses are reported.

1. *The caregiver prepares uncomfortably hot tubs of water for an elderly person to bathe in.*
2. *The caregiver takes money from the elderly person without asking.*
3. *The caregiver pressures the elderly person for control of the elderly person's finances or assets*
4. *The caregiver takes the elderly person out of the house against their wishes.*
5. *The caregiver ignores the elderly person most of the time, seldom talking with him/her or listening to him/her.*
6. *The caregiver fails to feed the elderly person.*
7. *The caregiver shakes the elderly person by the shoulders.*
8. *The caregiver threatens to poison the elderly person's food.*
9. *The caregiver hits the elderly person in the face.*
10. *The caregiver leaves the elderly person alone for long periods of time.*
11. *The caregiver misuses the elderly person's funds.*
12. *The caregiver gives away the elderly person's belongings without asking.*
13. *The caregiver reminds the elderly person how much of a burden he/she has become.*
14. *The caregiver does not give the elderly person their medication.*
15. *The caregiver fails to keep medical appointments for the elderly person.*
16. *The caregiver gives the elderly person tranquilizers in order to keep them subdued.*
17. *The caregiver strikes the elderly person with a wooden spoon.*
18. *The caregiver makes the elderly person sleep on a filthy old mattress.*
19. *The caregiver screams at the elderly person, calling him/her foul names.*
20. *The caregiver pressures the elderly person to move to a nursing home.*
21. *The caregiver tries to help the elderly person even when the elderly person doesn't want help.*
22. *The caregiver does not ensure that the elderly person is clean.*
23. *The caregiver and the elderly person have difficulties getting along. The caregiver refuses to acknowledge the problem.*
24. *The caregiver manages the elderly person's assets in a way that is inconsistent with the elderly person's wishes.*
25. *The caregiver threatens to give away the elderly person's possessions or pets*

- In terms of education groups and their perception of the seriousness of behaviour involved in elder abuse, such as the caregiver reminding the elderly person how much of a burden he/she has become ($F(2,1546)=13.96$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.018$), the difference is significant. However, the difference between education groups is not significant for the caregiver failing to feed the elderly person ($F(2,1546)=3.05$, $p=0.048$, $\eta^2=0.004$).
- Significant differences (Wilks' Lambda=0.752) between income groups exist in their perception of the seriousness of the caregiver reminding the elderly person how much of a burden he/she has become ($F(4,1482)=8.25$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.022$) and the caregiver and the elderly person have difficulties getting along and the caregiver refuses to acknowledge the problem ($F(4,1482)=9.54$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.025$).

3.6 Adolescent-to-parent abuse

3.6.1 Behavioural correlates of adolescent-to-parent abuse

At least 45 per cent of respondents were familiar with the term *adolescent-to-parent abuse*. When asked what would be considered ‘normal behaviour’ for an adult with an adolescent in their care, over 88 per cent indicated that it is not normal for an adult to be afraid of the adolescent in their care; 85 per cent indicated it is not normal that the adolescent engages in ‘put downs’ to humiliate and embarrass the adult; and 81 per cent indicated that it is not normal that the adolescent threatens to leave home or harm themselves or another family member if the adult doesn’t do what they want. Three quarters of the respondents indicated that to tip-toe around the adolescent to keep the peace is not normal behaviour.

Twenty one per cent of the respondents agreed that it is normal to change behaviour to avoid conflict with the adolescent and 17 per cent agreed that to create a situation that the adolescent approves of is also normal behaviour.

Table 3.17 Association of behaviours with *adolescent-to-parent abuse*

Behaviour	Strongly agree %	Agree %	Undecided %	Disagree %	Strongly disagree %
1. To be afraid of the adolescent	1.3	3.0	7.7	33.6	54.4
2. To change behaviour to avoid conflict with the adolescent	1.9	19.2	23.5	40.3	15.1
3. To tip-toe around the adolescent to keep the peace	0.6	7.6	17.1	48.7	26.0
4. To create situations that the adolescent approves of	1.5	15.3	27.7	36.9	18.7
5. That the adolescent engages in ‘put downs’ to humiliate and embarrass the adult	1.8	6.1	6.8	33.6	51.8
6. That the adolescent threatens to leave home or harm themselves or another family member if the adult doesn’t do what they want	2.7	8.2	7.5	26.2	55.3

3.6.2 Behavioural correlates of adolescent-to-parent abuse by socio-demographic variables

Behaviours associated with *adolescent-to-parent abuse* are shown by gender, age, education and income in table 3.18, over page.

Female respondents (9% average), were less likely than male respondents (14% average) to perceive all the listed behaviours as being normal. Male respondents were more likely to agree that to be afraid of adolescents (6%); to create situations that the adolescent approves of (22%); that the adolescent engages in ‘put downs’ to humiliate or embarrass the adult (10 %); and that the adolescent threatens to leave home or harm themselves or another family member if the adult doesn’t do what they want (16%) are normal behaviours in adolescent and parent relationships. Male and female respondents equally agree (8%) that it is normal to tip-toe around the adolescent to keep the peace.

At least 20 per cent of respondents in all age groups agreed that it is normal to change behaviour to avoid conflict with the adolescent. Where respondents in the age group 65+ agree that it is normal to create situations that the adolescent approves of (20%), younger respondents (18-34 years) agree the most that it is normal for the adolescent to threaten to leave home or harm themselves or another family member if the adult does not do what they want (16%). Only three per cent of respondents aged 35-44 years and four per cent aged 45-64 years agreed that it is normal behaviour to be afraid of the adolescent compared to the five per cent in the youngest age group and 6 per cent in the older age group.

Table 3.18 Association of behaviours of adolescent-to-parent abuse by demographic variables¹⁶

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Gender†						
Male	5.9	24.0	8.2	21.9	10.2	16.2
Female	2.7	18.3	8.2	12.0	5.5	6.1
Age						
18-34	5.2	22.7	7.2	17.2	8.3	15.7
35-44	2.6	19.5	9.9	14.7	5.8	8.4
45-64	3.8	20.4	7.2	16.3	7.7	7.4
65+	6.0	21.3	10.0	20.0	9.2	12.1
Education†						
Secondary or lower	9.2	22.2	10.9	14.1	10.8	14.1
Technical	5.9	15.9	8.9	17.9	7.9	13.2
Tertiary	2.0	23.3	7.2	17.0	7.0	8.9
Household income†						
≤50,000	5.3	23.5	9.3	23.0	12.9	13.2
\$50,001-\$70,000	2.8	18.1	10.0	14.2	1.5	4.3
\$70,001-\$100,000	2.3	17.8	7.2	10.1	5.4	8.1
>\$100,000	4.7	23.7	7.4	19.5	7.2	12.6

Note † : significant at the level <.01.

1. To be afraid of the adolescent
2. To change behaviour to avoid conflict with the adolescent
3. To tip-toe around the adolescent to keep the peace
4. To create situations that the adolescent approves of
5. That the adolescent engages in 'put downs' to humiliate and embarrass the adult
6. That the adolescent threatens to leave home or harm themselves or another family member if the adult doesn't do what they want

¹⁶ Combined percentages of 'strongly agree' and 'agree' responses are reported.

Respondents with a secondary or lower level of education agreed the most to it being normal to be afraid of the adolescent (9%) compared to respondents with tertiary education (2%). However, 23 per cent of the respondents with a tertiary education and 22 per cent of the respondents with a secondary or lower education indicated that it is normal to change behaviour to avoid conflict with the adolescent compared to the 16 per cent of respondents with a technical education.

Less than three per cent of respondents with a household income between \$50,001 and \$100,000 agree that it is normal to be afraid of the adolescent, compared to the five per cent of other income groups. Both the lowest (23.5%) and highest (24%) income group agreed the most that it is normal to change behaviour to avoid conflict with the adolescent. These two categories also agree the most that it is normal to create situations that the adolescent approves of (23%; 19.5%) and that it is normal that the adolescent threatens to leave home or harm themselves or another family member if the adult does not do what they want (13% for each of the two groups).

Further multivariate analysis indicated significant differences in respondents, across all demographic variables, and their association of behaviour with *adolescent-to-parent abuse*:

- The difference between gender and their association of the listed behaviours are significant (Wilks' Lambda=0.933, $F(1,1547)=18.35$, $p=0.000$).
- The difference between education groups and their association of *adolescent-to-parent abuse* with it being normal to be afraid of the adolescent ($F(2,1546)=12.74$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.016$) is significant, however, their association with it being normal to tip-toe around the adolescent to keep the peace ($F(2,1546)=3.95$, $p=0.019$, $\eta^2=0.005$) and it being normal that the adolescent threatens to leave home or harm themselves or another family member if the adult doesn't do what they want ($F(2,1546)=2.43$, $p=0.088$, $\eta^2=0.003$), is not significant (Wilks Lambda=0.952).
- Significant differences (Wilks' Lambda=0.934) exist between income groups and their association of *adolescent-to-parent abuse* with it being normal that the adolescent engages in 'put downs' to humiliate and embarrass the adult ($F(4,1482)=6.50$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.017$) and it being normal that the adolescent threatens to leave home or harm themselves or another family member if the adult doesn't do what they want ($F(4,1482)=6.49$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.017$).

3.6.3 Acceptability, experience and witnessing of *adolescent-to-parent abuse*

Participants were also asked about how acceptable certain adolescent to parent behaviour is and whether they have ever been a victim or witnessed *adolescent-to-parent abuse*.

Table 3.19 shows that 87 per cent of the respondents indicated that there are no circumstances when it might be acceptable for an adolescent to abuse their parent. Out of the sample of 1606 respondents, only 125 (8%) have ever been a victim of *adolescent-to-parent abuse* and 36 per cent ($n = 577$) indicated that they have witnessed another person experience *adolescent-to-parent abuse*.

Table 3.19 Acceptability, experience and witnessing of *adolescent-to-parent abuse*

Adolescent-to-parent abuse	YES		NO	
	n	%	n	%
Do you think there are any circumstances when it might be acceptable for an adolescent to abuse their parents?	204	12.7	1402	87.3
Have you ever been a victim of adolescent-to-parent abuse?	125	7.8	1481	92.2
Have you ever witnessed another person experience adolescent-to-parent abuse?	577	35.9	1029	64.1

Acceptability, experience and witnessing of *adolescent-to-parent abuse* are shown by gender, age, education and income in table 3.20, over page.

Male (12.5%) and female (13%) respondents almost equally responded affirmatively to whether there are any circumstances when it might be acceptable for an adolescent to abuse their parents. More respondents in the 45-64 year age group (14%) and over 65 year age group (20%) than the younger age groups indicated that there are circumstances when it might be acceptable for an adolescent to abuse their parents. Except for respondents in the \$50,001-\$70,000 income group (15%), all other income groups agreed less with the proposition that there might be circumstances when it is acceptable for an adolescent to abuse their parents.

Slightly less male respondents (7%) than female respondents (9%) reported that they have been a victim of *adolescent-to-parent abuse*. Respondents in the age group 45-64 years had the highest response (15%) to being a victim of *adolescent-to-parent abuse*. Three per cent more respondents with a technical, secondary or lower education indicated that they have been a victim of *adolescent-to-parent abuse* compared to those with tertiary education and, except for the lowest household income category (10%), just over seven per cent of respondents from the other income categories reported that they have been a victim of *adolescent-to-parent abuse*.

Of the 36 per cent of respondents who have witnessed another person experience *adolescent-to-parent abuse* before, half were male (35%) and half were female (36%). Forty one per cent of respondents in the age group 35-44 have witnessed *adolescent-to-parent abuse* compared to the one third of respondents in each of the other age groups. This was also the case for respondents who had a technical education (41%) compared to secondary or lower (35%) and tertiary (34%) education. Of the respondents in the less than \$50,000 income group nearly ten per cent have witnessed *adolescent-to-parent abuse*, compared to just over seven per cent for other income groups.

Table 3.20 Acceptability, experience and witnessing of *adolescent-to-parent abuse* by demographic variables¹⁷

	1	2	3
Gender			
Male	12.5	6.8	35.4
Female	12.8	8.6	36.4
Age			
18-34	8.5	1.0	33.9
35-44	10.2	5.4	33.5
45-64	14.2	14.8	41.1
65+	19.9	8.5	32.4
Education			
Secondary or lower	11.3	9.2	34.7
Technical	13.0	9.6	41.0
Tertiary	12.8	6.5	33.9
Household income			
≤50,000	12.0	9.6	9.6
\$50,001-\$70,000	14.8	7.1	7.1
\$70,001-\$100,000	12.4	7.5	7.5
>\$100,000	12.4	7.2	7.2

1. *Do you think there are any circumstances when it might be acceptable for an adolescent to abuse their parents?*
2. *Have you ever been a victim of adolescent-to-parent abuse?*
3. *Have you ever witnessed another person experience adolescent-to-parent abuse?*

¹⁷ Percentage of 'yes' responses are reported.

3.6.4 Adolescent-to-parent abuse intervention

All 577 participants who had witnessed adolescent-to-parent abuse were asked whether they have ever tried to intervene in any way and if so, what the main reasons were, and if not, why not? Table 3.21 shows that less than half (43%) of the respondents who had witnessed adolescent-to-parent abuse did not try to intervene. The main reason for not intervening was that the respondents did not think they could help the situation (58%). The majority (67%) of the 327 respondents who did try to intervene did so because they thought what was happening was wrong. Sixteen per cent of those who intervened did so because they were afraid for the victim's safety. For those who intervened, only four per cent called the emergency number, whereas just over half (54%) tried to reason with the aggressor and more than a third (37%) tried to get the victim away from the situation. Just over one fifth (22%) of the respondents identified that they used some other strategy to intervene.

Table 3.21 Adolescent-to-parent abuse intervention

	NO		YES	
	n	%	n	%
Did you ever try to intervene in any way?	250	43.3	327	56.7
Reason and response:				
Main reason for <i>not</i> intervening:	(n=251)¹⁸		%	
It was none of my business	46		18.3	
I was frightened for my own safety	7		2.8	
I didn't think I could help the situation	145		57.8	
Other	53		21.1	
Main reason for intervening:	(n=326)		%	
I wanted the violence to stop	33		10.1	
I was afraid for the victim's safety	52		15.9	
I thought what was happening was wrong	220		67.4	
Other	22		6.7	
Intervention response (as many as applicable):	(n=327)		%	
Called 000	13		3.9	
Tried to reason with the aggressor	178		54.4	
Tried to physically restrain the aggressor	55		16.8	
Tried to get the victim away from the situation	120		36.6	
Other	73		22.3	

¹⁸ While 327 people intervened and 250 did not, one respondent who did intervene answered the wrong follow-up question, so there are 251 responses to the question on the main reason for not intervening and 326 responses to the question on main reason for intervening.

3.6.5 Relational correlates of *adolescent-to-parent abuse*

Table 3.22 shows the relationship of the victim to the perpetrator and the relationship of the perpetrator of the violence to the victim, as witnessed by respondents.

Table 3.22 Victim and perpetrator of violence

Victim of violence	%	Perpetrator of violence	%
Partner	5.7	Partner	4.3
Father	15.6	Father	5.0
Mother	52.1	Mother	1.2
Brother	1.7	Brother	5.9
Sister	2.2	Sister	2.7
Child	3.4	Child	64.5
Other extended family member	7.8	Other extended family member	6.0

In most cases, according to the data in table 3.22, the mother (52%) was the victim of the violence in relation to the perpetrator and in 16 per cent of the cases the father was the victim. In two thirds of instances witnessed a child of the victim was the perpetrator of the violence (in relation to the victim). However, survey respondents also identified a partner (4%), father (5%), or brother (6%) as the perpetrator of the violence, which is probably due to the lack of familiarity with the term *adolescent-to-parent abuse*.

3.7 Violence against women

Survey questions relating to violence against women included whether participants regarded stalking and harassment as forms of violence against women.

3.7.1 Association of certain behaviours with violence against women

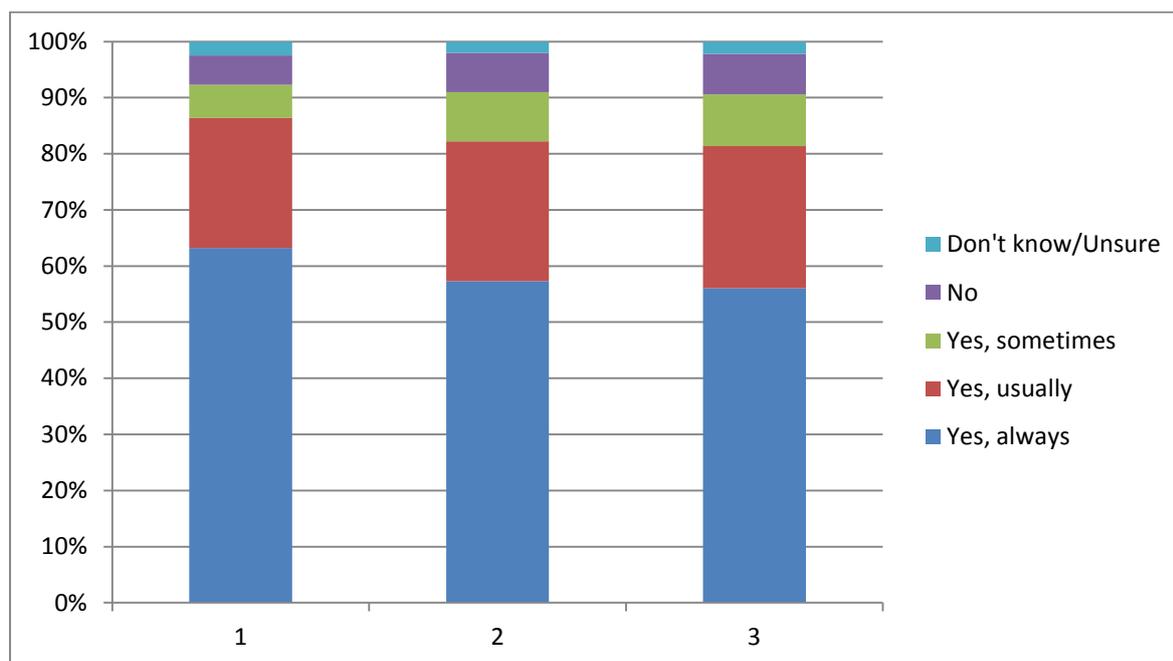
Table 3.23 shows that of the 92 per cent of respondents who regard stalking to be a form of violence against women, only about two thirds (63%) regard stalking to always be a form of violence against women. Similarly, of the 90 per cent of respondents who regard harassment via repeated telephone calls to be a form of violence against women, about two thirds (57%) regard this type of harassment as always being a form of violence against women. With harassment via repeated emails, text messages and the like the data looks the same in that the majority (90.5%) of respondents regard this type of harassment as a form of violence against women, but only 56 per cent regard it as always being a form of violence against women.

Table 3.23 Association of certain behaviours with *violence against women*

Issue	Yes, always %	Yes, usually %	Yes, sometimes %	No %	Don't know/unsure %
1. Do you regard stalking to be a form of violence against women?	63.2	23.2	5.9	5.2	2.5
2. Do you regard harassment via repeated telephone calls to be a form of violence against women?	57.3	24.9	8.8	7.0	2.0
3. Do you regard harassment via repeated emails, text messages and the like to be a form of violence against women?	56.0	25.3	9.2	7.2	2.2

It can be seen in table 3.23 and figure 3.3 that seven per cent of respondents do not regard harassment via repeated telephone calls, emails or text messages as a form of violence against women and just over five per cent do not regard stalking as a form of violence against women.

Figure 3.3 Association of certain behaviours with *violence against women*



1. Do you regard stalking to be a form of violence against women?
2. Do you regard harassment via repeated telephone calls to be a form of violence against women?
3. Do you regard harassment via repeated emails, text message or the like to be a form of violence against women?

Table 3.24 shows the association of certain behaviours with violence against women by gender, age, education and income. It indicates that half of the male respondents regard stalking and harassment as violence against women compared to the 11 per cent more female respondents. Seventy per cent of the respondents in the 45-64 age group and 68 per cent of the 65+ age group regard stalking as a form of violence against women. Similar results were found in regard to respondents with secondary or lower education level (66%) as well as respondents with a household income of less than \$50,001 (67%) or between \$70,001 and \$100,000 (67%).

Table 3.24 Association of certain behaviours with *violence against women* by demographic variables¹⁹

	1	2	3
Gender†			
Male	56.4	51.3	50.5
Female	69.7	62.8	61.2
Age†			
18-34	55.5	45.5	46.4
35-44	60.4	60.2	53.7
45-64	69.6	63.7	62.7
65+	68.0	61.9	63.0
Education			
Secondary or lower	65.7	64.7	63.1
Technical	61.2	59.6	57.9
Tertiary	63.5	54.2	53.2
Household Income†			
≤50,000	66.7	58.0	58.1
\$50,001-\$70,000	53.3	49.8	49.8
\$70,001-\$100,000	67.2	57.8	59.1
>\$100,000	63.9	58.7	53.5

Note † : significant at the level <.01.

1. Do you regard stalking to be a form of violence against women?
2. Do you regard harassment via repeated telephone calls to be a form of violence against women?
3. Do you regard harassment via repeated emails, text messages and the like to be a form of violence against women?

Except for the 18-34 year age group, of which more than 45 per cent (45.5%) reported that they regard harassment via the telephone to be a form of violence against women, more than 60 per cent of the respondents in the other age groups regard harassment via repeated telephone calls to be a form of violence against women. The respondents with a secondary or lower level of education

¹⁹ Percentage of 'always' responses are reported.

reported a stronger response (65%) to harassment via telephone than other levels of education (57%; 54%) and less than fifty per cent of respondents with a household income of \$50,001-\$70,000 regard harassment via repeated telephone calls to be a form of violence against women.

Harassment via emails, text message or the like are not so much regarded as a form of violence against women by respondents in the younger age group of 18-34 years (46%). Respondents in the 45-64 years age group (63%) and 65+ age group (63%), as well as respondents with a secondary or lower education (63%), regard harassment via repeated emails, text message or the like to always be a form of violence against women. Less than half of the respondents in the \$50,001-\$70,000 income group regard this type of harassment to be a form of violence against women.

Further multivariate analysis indicated significant differences in respondents, across all demographic variables, and their association of issues with violence against women:

- The difference between gender and their association of violence against women with stalking ($F(1,1547)=77.28, p=0.000, \eta^2=0.048$); harassment via repeated telephone calls ($F(1,1547)=34.83, p=0.000, \eta^2=0.022$); and harassment via repeated emails, text messages and the like ($F(1,1547)=32.69, p=0.000, \eta^2=0.021$), are significant (Wilks' Lambda=0.952).
- The difference between the youngest age group and their association of violence against women with stalking ($F(3,1545)=23.17, p=0.000, \eta^2=0.043$); harassment via repeated telephone calls ($F(3,1545)=40.78, p=0.000, \eta^2=0.073$); and harassment via repeated emails and text messages ($F(3,1545)=36.66, p=0.000, \eta^2=0.066$), compared to the other age groups, are significant (Wilks' Lambda=0.912).
- Income groups differ in terms of their association of violence against women with specific issues, however, only the difference in terms of stalking $F(4,1482)=4.79, p=0.001, \eta^2=0.013$ is significant.

3.7.2 Seriousness of certain behaviours

After responding to questions regarding forms of violence against women, participants were asked about how serious they thought these types of behaviour were.

Table 3.25 Seriousness of certain behaviours

Issue	Very serious %	Quite serious %	Not that serious %	Not at all serious %	Don't know/unsure %
1. Do you regard stalking to be ...	71.1	26.2	1.8	0.1	0.8
2. Do you regard harassment via repeated telephone calls to be ...	60.4	35.4	2.9	0.0	1.4
3. Do you regard harassment via repeated emails, text messages and the like to be ...?	57.8	36.9	4.5	0.1	0.7

Table 3.25 shows that nearly all of the respondents (97%) regard stalking to be a serious form of violence against women. Similarly, 96 per cent regard harassment via repeated telephone calls as serious and 95 per cent regard harassment via repeated emails, text messages and the like to be a serious form of violence against women. None of the respondents regard harassment via repeated

phone call to be not serious at all and only one respondent regarded stalking or harassment via repeated emails, text messages and the like as not serious.

Table 3.26, below, shows the perception of seriousness of violence against women by gender, age, education and income. Twenty per cent more female respondents (81%) than male respondents (61%) regard stalking to be a very serious form of violence against women. In the two age groups 35-44 years and 45-64 years, about three quarters of the respondents regard stalking to be very serious, with respondents in the younger and older age groups slightly less ($\pm 5\%$) regard stalking to be very serious. Except for the \$50,001-\$70,000 income group (62%), at least 70 per cent of the respondents regard stalking to be a very serious form of violence against women.

Table 3.26 Perception of seriousness of certain behaviours by demographic variables²⁰

	1	2	3
Gender†			
Male	60.9	54.2	50.0
Female	80.7	66.3	65.0
Age†			
18-34	67.2	51.3	49.3
35-44	74.4	60.9	57.4
45-64	73.8	67.4	64.0
65+	68.7	62.1	61.4
Education			
Secondary or lower	69.1	61.8	62.1
Technical	70.1	61.4	59.5
Tertiary	72.1	59.5	55.8
Household income			
≤50,000	73.4	61.2	57.7
\$50,001-\$70,000	62.4	54.5	52.9
\$70,001-\$100,000	74.9	65.9	64.6
>\$100,000	70.7	56.9	54.7

Note † : significant at the level <.01.

1. Do you regard stalking to be ...
2. Do you regard harassment via repeated telephone calls to be ...
3. Do you regard harassment via repeated emails, text messages and the like to be ...?

²⁰ Percentage of 'very serious' responses are reported.

Both forms of harassment, via repeated telephone calls as well as via repeated emails, text messages or the like, gathered similar results with only slight variations. Approximately twelve per cent less male respondents (54%) reported harassment via repeated phone calls to be as serious as the 66 per cent female respondents indicated and 15 per cent less males (50%) than females (65%) indicated that they regard harassment via repeated emails, text messages and the like to be a very serious form of violence against women

Further multivariate analysis indicated significant differences in respondents, across all demographic variables, and their perception of the seriousness of behaviour involved in violence against women:

- Significant differences (Wilks' Lambda=0.942) exist between gender groups and how serious they perceive behaviours such as stalking ($F(1,1547)=90.34, p=0.000, \eta^2=0.055$); harassment via repeated telephone calls ($F(1,1547)=50.73, p=0.000, \eta^2=0.032$); and harassment via repeated emails, text messages and the like ($F(1,1547)=56.79, p=0.000, \eta^2=0.035$).
- The differences in age groups and their association of violence against women with harassment via repeated telephone calls ($F(3,1547)=18.88, p=0.000, \eta^2=0.035$); as well as harassment via repeated emails and text messages ($F(3,1547)=12.85, p=0.000, \eta^2=0.024$) are significant (Wilks' Lambda=0.954).

3.7.3 Attitudes on sexual violence against women

Participants were asked about how strongly they associated certain behaviour with violence against women. As indicated in table 3.27, nearly half the respondents (46%) very strongly agree that women who are raped by their male partner, husband or boyfriend should report it to the police and nearly half (47%) agree that women are more likely to be raped by someone they know than by a stranger.

Respondents disagree and strongly disagree that women who are raped often ask for it (91.5%); that a man is less responsible for rape if he is drunk or affected by drugs at the time (93%); that a woman cannot be raped by someone she is in a sexual relationship with (94%); and that women who are sexually harassed should sort it out themselves rather than report it (91%). Just over one third of all the respondents (35%) indicated that they neither agree nor disagree that women with disabilities who report rape or sexual assault are less likely to be believed than other women. Nearly one third of respondents (30%) neither agree nor disagree that women rarely make false claims of being raped, while only 13 per cent disagree or strongly disagree that women rarely make false claims of being raped.

Table 3.27 Attitudes on sexual violence against women

Behaviour	Strongly agree %	Agree %	Neither agree nor disagree %	Disagree %	Strongly disagree %
1. Women are more likely to be raped by someone they know than by a stranger	22.6	47.4	24.6	4.6	0.7
2. Women RARELY make false claims of being raped	13.7	43.2	30.2	11.2	1.8
3. Women often say 'no' when they mean 'yes'	1.1	3.9	16.3	37.2	41.5
4. Women who are sexually harassed should sort it out themselves rather than report it	1.3	1.6	6.1	34.3	56.8
5. Women with disabilities who report rape or sexual assault are less likely to be believed than other women	5.6	29.8	34.8	19.9	9.9
6. Few people know how often women with disabilities experience rape or sexual assault	19.3	52.4	25.2	2.1	1.0
7. Women who are raped often ask for it	1.0	1.2	6.3	25.5	66.0
8. Rape results from men not being able to control their need for sex	7.3	18.4	22.2	23.6	28.6
9. A woman cannot be raped by someone she is in a sexual relationship with	1.2	0.9	3.6	32.9	61.3
10. A man is less responsible for rape if he is drunk or affected by drugs at the time	1.2	3.4	2.2	24.1	69.1
11. If a woman is raped while she is drunk or affected by drugs she is at least partly responsible	1.5	10.8	11.4	30.5	45.8
12. Women who are raped by their male partner, husband or boyfriend should report it to the police	46.0	33.9	14.7	2.6	2.9

3.7.4 Attitudes on sexual violence against women by demographic variables

Table 3.28 shows attitudes on sexual violence against women by gender, age, education and income. Three quarters (75%) of the female respondents agree that women are more likely to be raped by someone they know than by a stranger. Of the female respondents, 78 per cent agree that few people know how often women with disabilities experience rape or sexual assault and 83 per cent agree that women who are raped by their male partner, husband or boyfriend should report it to the police. Very few of the female respondents agree that women who are raped often ask for it (2%); a woman cannot be raped by someone she is in a sexual relationship with (1%); and a man is less responsible for rape if he is drunk or affected by drugs at the time (2.5%).

Only half of the male respondents agree that women rarely make false claims of being raped (50.5%) and on average 65 per cent agree that women are more likely to be raped by someone they know than by a stranger (65%) and that few people know how often women with disabilities experience rape or sexual assault (65%). More than three quarters (77%) of the male respondents agree that women who are raped by their male partner, husband or boyfriend should report it to police.

Table 3.28 Attitudes on sexual violence against women by demographic variables²¹

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Gender†												
Male	64.8	50.5	6.8	2.8	32.5	65.2	2.1	27.6	2.9	6.7	16.2	76.9
Female	74.9	62.8	3.4	3.0	38.2	77.8	2.2	23.8	1.4	2.5	8.7	82.7
Age†												
18-34	66.6	56.3	4.7	0.8	27.6	64.8	0.8	12.8	2.5	7.6	11.6	78.3
35-44	72.9	56.6	4.5	3.2	37.7	81.5	0.9	24.0	0.6	3.6	10.9	85.3
45-64	71.0	59.1	4.1	3.8	37.2	70.6	1.8	29.3	2.4	1.8	10.2	82.0
65+	71.1	54.1	7.4	4.6	43.0	74.8	6.3	43.1	2.9	2.4	19.2	73.1
Education†												
Secondary or lower	64.7	50.2	10.1	4.0	36.1	71.8	4.0	38.0	5.2	2.4	8.9	73.8
Technical	65.6	57.9	6.2	3.2	32.2	72.7	2.3	31.0	2.3	2.5	14.2	75.5
Tertiary	73.4	58.2	3.0	2.5	36.9	71.1	1.6	19.7	1.2	6.1	12.3	83.7
Household Income†												
≤50,000	71.5	54.5	6.9	2.9	38.1	76.5	2.6	32.4	4.3	3.6	15.1	80.3
\$50,001-\$70,000	71.9	55.4	6.6	2.9	38.4	75.7	3.3	24.6	1.9	0.5	8.1	77.0
\$70,001-\$100,000	67.3	61.6	2.9	3.4	33.5	73.2	2.9	17.6	1.4	5.8	6.4	84.5
>\$100,000	72.2	57.4	2.6	2.0	34.1	67.6	1.3	25.2	1.3	5.2	16.5	78.3

Note † : significant at the level <.01.

1. Women are more likely to be raped by someone they know than by a stranger
2. Women rarely make false claims of being raped
3. Women often say 'no' when they mean 'yes'
4. Women who are sexually harassed should sort it out themselves rather than report it
5. Women with disabilities who report rape or sexual assault are less likely to be believed than other women
6. Few people know how often women with disabilities experience rape or sexual assault
7. Women who are raped often ask for it
8. Rape results from men not being able to control their need for sex
9. A woman cannot be raped by someone she is in a sexual relationship with
10. A man is less responsible for rape if he is drunk or affected by drugs at the time
11. If a woman is raped while she is drunk or affected by drugs she is at least partly responsible
12. Women who are raped by their male partner, husband or boyfriend should report it to the police

²¹ Combined percentages of 'strongly agree' and 'agree' responses are reported.

Less than one per cent of respondents aged 18-34 years agree that women who are sexually harassed should sort it out themselves rather than report it, whereas those in each of the other age groups (3.5%) are more likely to agree women should sort it out themselves. Of the respondents aged 65 years or older, seven per cent agree that women often say 'no' when they mean 'yes', compared to the less than five per cent in the other age groups. Forty-three per cent of the older age group agree that rape results from men not being able to control their need for sex; 30 per cent more than the youngest age group 18-34 years (13%), about 20 per cent more than the 35-44 year age group (24%), and 13 per cent more than the 45-64 year age group (29%). Fewer respondents in the older age group (73%), compared to those in the other age groups (78%; 85%; 82%) agree that women who are raped by their male partner, husband or boyfriend should report it to police. Eight per cent of respondents aged 18-34 years agree that a man is less responsible for rape if he is drunk or affected by drugs at the time, compared to just four per cent or less in the older age groups.

Twenty eight per cent more respondents with a secondary or lower level of education (38%) than respondents with a tertiary education (20%) agree that rape results from men not being able to control their need for sex. Ten per cent of the respondents with the lower level of education agree that women often say 'no' when they mean 'yes', whereas only three per cent of the respondents with a higher education agree with this statement. Four per cent also agree that often women who are raped asked for it, compared to the two per cent of other respondents with a tertiary level of education who hold this view. Five per cent of the respondents with secondary or lower education agree that a woman cannot be raped by someone she is in a sexual relationship with, while only one per cent of respondents with a tertiary education agree with that view.

The percentage (13.5%) of respondents with a household income less than \$70,001 who agree that women often say 'no' when they mean 'yes', is more than double the percentage (5.5%) of those with an income of more than \$70,000 who agree with this statement. Between a quarter and a third of the respondents within income less than \$70,001, and those with income more than \$100,000, agree that rape results from men not being able to control their need for sex; less than 20 per cent of the respondents in the \$70,001-\$100,000 income group agree. Fifteen to 16 per cent of respondents in the lowest (\leq \$50,000) income group (15%) and highest ($>$ \$100,000) income group (16.5%) agree that if a woman is raped while she is drunk or affected by drugs she is at least partly responsible, whereas less than eight per cent of respondents in the middle income groups (\$50,001-\$70,000, 8%; \$70,001-\$100,000, 6%) agree that in such a case the woman is partly responsible.

Further multivariate analysis indicated significant differences in respondents, across all demographic variables, and their association of behaviour with violence against women:

- The gender difference in the belief that women say 'no' when they mean 'yes' is significant (Wilks' Lambda=0.900, $F(1,1547)=34.60$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.022$).
- Although age groups differ in their views on people not knowing how often women with disabilities experience rape or assault, the difference is not significant (Wilks Lambda=0.839, $F(3,1545)=2.85$, $p=0.036$, $\eta^2=0.006$), but the difference is significant in regard to the belief that women who are raped often ask for it ($F(1,1547)=36.82$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.067$).
- The difference between education groups and the belief rape results from men not being able to control their need for sex ($F(3,1545)=32.00$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.040$) is significant, however, their association with women being at least partly responsible for being raped while drunk or affected by drugs ($F(3,1545)=2.63$, $p=0.073$, $\eta^2=0.003$), is not significant (Wilks Lambda=0.897).
- A significant difference exists between income groups and their association of violence against women and women often saying 'no' when they mean 'yes' (Wilks' Lambda=0.899, $F(4,1482)=8.840$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.023$); and with rape resulting from men not being able to control their need for sex ($F(4,1482)=7.80$, $p=0.000$, $\eta^2=0.021$).

3.8 Experiences of domestic and family violence

3.8.1 Experiences of domestic and family violence across lifetime

The last section of the questionnaire prompted participants to respond to their experience of domestic or family violence, as a victim and/or as a perpetrator over the last year as well as in their lifetime. Table 3.29 displays reports of violence in the last year and across lifetime (including in last year).

Table 3.29 Experiences of domestic and family violence

Domestic and family violence experiences	Experienced in last year %	Experienced in lifetime %	Perpetrated in last year %	Perpetrated in lifetime %
1. Tried to limit your contact with other family members or friends.	4.4	18.4	1.4	3.4
2. Put you down or called you names to make you feel bad	17.1	52.1	12.7	33.6
3. Told you they don't want you to talk to other people for no good reason	4.8	16.2	1.3	5.0
4. Harmed or threatened to harm someone close to you	2.2	12.7	0	1.6
5. Demanded to know who you are with and where you are at all times	5.8	22.0	3.1	10.2
6. Deliberately damages or destroys your possessions or property	2.6	18.6	0.3	5.9
7. Prevented you from knowing about or accessing the household income for your personal items, even if you ask	1.7	8.1	0.5	2.8
8. Controlled finances and not given enough money to you to run the home	1.3	5.9	0.6	1.3
9. Demanded that you do what they want	8.6	28.5	7.0	17.8
10. Acted like you are their personal servant	5.1	19.0	0.6	3.8
11. Threatened you with a fist or anything else	2.2	30.3	1.7	15.1
12. Thrown something at you that hurt you	1.5	19.8	0.9	10.1
13. Pushed, grabbed or shoved you in a way that hurt you	4.4	32.5	2.6	20.4
14. Slapped you	1.3	36.6	7.1	30.9
15. Kicked you, bit you or hit you with their fist	3.9	20.3	0.4	11.3
16. Hit you with something	4.0	29.5	1.7	14.1
17. Beaten you	0.4	10.3	0	2.9
18. Choked or strangled you	0.7	5.1	0	0.7
19. Used or threatened to use a gun, a knife or a similar weapon on you	0.4	5.4	0	1.4
20. Forced you into any unwanted sexual activity	1.1	11.6	0.1	1.0

Note: 1 percentage (%) relates to approximately 17 respondents, where n=1606.

Over half of the respondents indicated that they have experienced being put down or called names to feel bad (52%) in their lifetime and 17 per cent had experienced that in the last year. One third of the respondents have, in their lifetime, put down or called their partner or family member names to make them feel bad.

About a third of the respondents have, in their lifetime, experienced being threatened with a fist or anything else (30%); being pushed, grabbed or shoved in a way that hurt them (32.5%); being slapped (37%); and being hit with something (29.5%).

None of the respondents reported having, in the last year, harmed or threatened to harm someone close to them; beaten anyone; choked or strangled anyone; or used or threatened to use a gun, a knife or a similar weapon on anyone. However, in the last year, approximately two per cent of respondents reported they had been harmed or threatened by someone close to them; three per cent had been beaten; just less than one per cent (0.7%) had been choked or strangled; and one per cent had been victimised, or threatened, with a gun, a knife or a similar weapon.

Approximately 20 per cent of respondents have, in their lifetime, been in a relationship with someone who demanded to know who they were with and where they were at all times (22%); were treated like they were the other person's personal servant (19%); and been kicked at, bitten or hit with a fist (20%).

Seven per cent of the respondents, in the last year, demanded from another person to do what they want and/or slapped another person. In their lifetime, at least 17 per cent of respondents were the perpetrator in demanding that another person do what they want; and 31 per cent perpetrated abuse by slapping a person with whom they were in a relationship.

Table 3.30 summarises survey respondents' experiences of different relationship violence in a lifetime by demographic variables.

- In most cases, in terms of gender, it is recorded that the females experience the most relationship violence. However, it is significant to note that males will more likely experience having something thrown at them; being kicked, bit or hit with a fist or something; and being beaten (Wilks Lambda=0.867, $F(1,1429)=10.782$, $p=0.000$).
- Respondents in the youngest age group experience being put down or called names to make them feel bad the most (67%) as well as being pushed, grabbed or shoved in a way that hurts (43%), compared to being choked or strangled (1.5%). This difference, however, is not significant (Wilks Lambda=0.813).
- Respondents with a technical or tertiary education are more likely to experience limitations on contact with other family members or friends and being put down or called names to feel bad, compared to respondents with a secondary or lower level of education. Differences between education levels are significant (Wilks Lambda=0.926, $F(2,1428)=2.750$).
- Respondents in the lowest income group are most likely to experience limited contact with other family members or friends; being told, for no good reason, they aren't allowed to talk to other people; have possessions or property damaged or destroyed; be coerced into doing what the other person wants and acting like a personal servant. The differences between income groups, however, is not significant (Wilks Lambda=0.840).

Table 3.30 Experiences of relationship violence in a lifetime by demographic variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Gender†																				
Male	15.2	4.9	12.1	11.1	19.9	16.3	7.6	3.6	27.8	16.0	29.9	21.4	26.6	36.1	21.8	36.4	11.5	3.9	5.8	3.4
Female	22.3	5.7	21.1	14.8	25.2	21.7	9.0	8.5	30.9	23.0	32.2	19.3	39.7	39.0	20.0	24.7	9.9	6.6	5.5	19.3
Age																				
18-34	18.3	66.8	16.7	15.7	22.2	22.7	12.5	5.8	26.9	20.4	35.3	20.0	42.8	38.8	25.8	34.6	9.4	1.5	2.8	10.0
35-44	20.9	52.8	18.7	11.8	25.9	19.6	5.3	4.3	26.6	20.7	32.9	25.3	36.4	41.4	20.4	37.8	10.9	11.8	8.2	12.9
45-64	19.4	46.5	16.3	13.6	23.2	18.0	7.9	7.5	32.0	18.4	29.4	19.9	28.7	36.3	19.2	26.7	11.6	6.3	7.6	11.6
65+	16.5	41.5	15.6	8.6	18.7	13.7	4.9	5.6	32.3	19.2	24.7	16.5	21.7	33.5	16.1	21.0	11.2	3.0	3.8	12.9
Education†																				
Secondary or lower	14.6	46.9	15.6	15.9	26.3	19.4	9.2	10.2	24.7	17.2	32.4	26.3	30.8	29.3	17.6	31.6	14.8	4.6	10.0	15.3
Technical	19.6	54.2	19.9	14.0	22.2	18.0	8.1	5.2	29.5	20.8	29.6	17.1	32.2	41.5	20.6	27.8	10.4	5.9	6.6	11.5
Tertiary	19.6	54.1	15.5	11.8	22.0	19.5	8.1	5.5	30.6	19.6	31.4	20.3	34.5	37.9	21.9	31.2	9.7	5.2	4.1	10.8
Household income																				
≤50,000	25.	51.5	19.8	10.0	25.5	23.8	9.3	6.5	36.9	24.0	29.8	23.0	29.9	35.0	20.4	27.5	13.1	4.8	5.3	14.9
\$50,001-\$70,000	18.0	56.6	14.7	21.5	20.6	19.5	7.8	7.4	25.5	17.1	33.8	18.6	33.7	32.0	15.6	28.8	5.8	2.0	3.4	11.3
\$70,001-\$100,000	18.6	52.1	11.6	12.1	20.6	14.5	11.8	6.8	25.4	18.9	29.4	19.2	37.1	41.8	24.8	26.0	11.0	5.7	5.3	7.7
>\$100,000	15.6	52.4	17.6	11.0	21.5	16.2	4.2	2.4	26.1	15.9	30.8	19.7	31.6	39.1	19.9	36.6	11.0	7.0	5.0	10.4

Note † : significant at the level <.01.

1. *Tried to limit your contact with other family members or friends.*
2. *Put you down or called you names to make you feel bad*
3. *Told you they don't want you to talk to other people for no good reason*
4. *Harmed or threatened to harm someone close to you*
5. *Demanded to know who you are with and where you are at all times*
6. *Deliberately damages or destroys your possessions or property*
7. *Prevented you from knowing about or accessing the household income for your personal items, even if you ask*
8. *Controlled finances and not given enough money to you to run the home*
9. *Demanded that you do what they want*
10. *Acted like you are their personal servant*
11. *Threatened you with a fist or anything else*
12. *Thrown something at you that hurt you*
13. *Pushed, grabbed or shoved you in a way that hurt you*
14. *Slapped you*
15. *Kicked you, bit you or hit you with their fist*
16. *Hit you with something*
17. *Beaten you*
18. *Choked or strangled you*
19. *Used or threatened to use a gun, a knife or a similar weapon on you*
20. *Forced you into any unwanted sexual activity*

3.8.2 Experiences of domestic and family violence by perpetrator/victim relationship

Table 3.31 indicates, in terms of domestic and family violence experiences recorded, the perpetrator/victim relationship. Over 70 per cent of the respondents who reported perpetrating domestic or family violence by forcing unwanted sexual activity were the spouse/partner of the victim. All (100%) of the respondents reporting victimisation was a spouse/partner of the perpetrator.

The perpetrator of domestic and family violence was the partner/spouse in more than half of the reported cases where the perpetrator: limited contact with other family members or friends (58%); demanded to know who the victim was with and where he/she was at all times (58%); deliberately damaged or destroyed the other person's possessions or property (50%); prevented the other person from knowing about or accessing the household income for personal items, even if asked (64%); demanded the other person to do what they want (56%); acted like the other person is their personal servant (59%); choked or strangled the other person (59%); and used or threatened to use a gun, a knife or a similar weapon on the other person (55.5%). The partner/spouse was the perpetrator in 79 per cent of the reported cases of controlling finances and not providing sufficient money to run the home.

Table 3.31 Experiences of domestic and family violence by perpetrator/victim relationship

Domestic and family violence experiences	Perpetrator					Victim				
	Partner/ Spouse	Parent	Sibling	Child	Other	Partner/ Spouse	Parent	Sibling	Child	Other
1. Tried to limit your contact with other family members or friends.	57.7	29.8	2.6	2.3	7.7	25.0	5.0	2.4	65.1	2.6
2. Put you down or called you names to make you feel bad	42.7	22.5	28.6	3.5	2.8	45.4	8.1	35.8	9.9	0.8
3. Told you they don't want you to talk to other people for no good reason	48.9	35.3	4.4	2.2	9.2	32.5	1.6	2.0	61.9	2.1
4. Harmed or threatened to harm someone close to you	33.7	42.5	10.6	6.3	6.9	10.9	1.9	73.8	13.5	0
5. Demanded to know who you are with and where you are at all times	57.8	41.0	0.6	0.4	0.2	28.9	0.2	2.7	67.2	1.0
6. Deliberately damages or destroys your possessions or property	49.6	20.6	22.8	5.3	1.6	29.8	6.7	55.4	8.1	0
7. Prevented you from knowing about or accessing the household income for your personal items, even if you ask	64.2	26.2	0.3	0.3	8.8	31.7	1.0	30.7	36.6	0
8. Controlled finances and not given enough money to you to run the home	79.0	20.6	0	0	0.4	83.6	3.9	0	12.5	0
9. Demanded that you do what they want	56.3	34.3	2.9	2.9	3.5	21.1	8.6	10.1	59.2	1.0
10. Acted like you are their personal servant	59.4	31.6	3.1	5.1	0.8	56.6	30.4	9.4	2.7	0.9
11. Threatened you with a fist or anything else	36.8	45.6	13.3	3.0	1.2	31.4	8.0	41.8	17.4	1.4
12. Thrown something at you that hurt you	41.3	25.5	25.3	3.5	4.4	29.4	10.1	55.2	4.3	1.1
13. Pushed, grabbed or shoved you in a way that hurt you	41.4	33.5	19.8	4.0	1.3	28.7	9.6	38.0	20.1	3.5
14. Slapped you	27.2	62.7	6.5	1.1	2.5	21.6	5.3	9.8	61.8	1.6
15. Kicked you, bit you or hit you with their fist	33.2	26.9	25.7	11.7	2.5	16.3	9.8	64.4	3.9	5.5
16. Hit you with something	16.7	62.8	12.4	6.1	2.0	3.0	3.2	52.4	40.1	1.2
17. Beaten you	26.8	69.1	2.7	0.7	0.7	5.8	52.3	40.6	1.2	0
18. Choked or strangled you	58.8	28.1	2.7	1.6	8.9	64.5	0	29.6	0	5.8
19. Used or threatened to use a gun, a knife or a similar weapon on you	55.5	18.8	4.8	12.9	8.1	41.6	33.7	24.7	0	0
20. Forced you into any unwanted sexual activity	70.6	4.4	5.6	0	19.4	100.0	0	0	0	0

Parents accounted for just fewer than 70 per cent of the perpetrators of domestic and family violence who slapped a child (63%); hit the victim with something (63%); and beat the victim (69%).

In just over a quarter of the cases, the perpetrator was a sibling who put down or called the victim names to make them feel bad (29%); threw something at the victim to hurt them (25%); and kicked, bit or hit the victim with the fist (26%).

In cases where the child was the perpetrator, it was mostly kicking, biting or hitting the victim with their fist (12%) or using or threatening to use a gun, a knife or a similar weapon on the victim (13%).

More than 80 per cent of the times the partner/spouse was the victim when finances were controlled (84%) and in over half of the times the partner/spouse was also the victim to having to act like the personal servant (57%). In more than three-fifths (64.5%) of the cases a partner/spouse was the victim of being choked or strangled.

In about a third of the cases the parent was the victim in having to act like a personal servant (30%) and in being threatened with a gun, a knife or a similar weapon (34%). In more than half the cases a parent was the victim of a beating (52%).

A sibling was reported to be the victim in cases such as being put down or called names (36%); being harmed or threatened to harm someone close to them (74%); having their possessions or property deliberately destroyed (55%); being threatened with a fist or something else (42%); being pushed, grabbed or shoved in a way that hurt (38%); or being kicked, bit or hit (64%).

In at least 60 per cent of the cases, a child is the victim in having limited contact with other family members or friends (65%); being told for no good reason that they cannot talk to other people (62%); having to tell the perpetrator who they are with and where they are at all times (67%); having to do exactly what the perpetrator wants (59%); and being slapped (62%).

Table 3.32 displays men and women's experiences of abuse victimisation by relationship type. It includes reports of violence at any time across their lifetime.

Women experienced twice as much abuse from their partners/spouses in having limitations put on their contact with other family members or friends; being put down or called names to feel bad; having to tell who they've been with and where they have been at all times; having to do what their partner/spouse wants; having to act like their personal servant; being slapped; or being hit with something. Women also reported experiencing four times more abuse from their partners/spouses in not being allowed to talk to other people for no good reason; being harmed or threatened that someone close to them will be harmed; having possessions or property deliberately damaged or destroyed; and being beaten.

Eight to twelve times more women than men reported that they experienced not being given enough money to run the home; being choked or strangled; threatened by the use of a gun, a knife or a similar weapon; and forced into unwanted sexual activity by their partner/spouse.

Men reported experiences of abuse mostly perpetrated by their parents, such as having limited contact with other family members or friends; having their property or possessions deliberately damaged or destroyed; being threatened with a first or anything else; having something thrown at them; being pushed, grabbed or shoved in a way that hurt; being slapped, kicked, bit or hit; beaten; choked or strangled; and threatened with a gun, knife or similar weapon.

Table 3.32 Experiences of domestic and family violence by number of males and females

Domestic and family violence experiences	Partner/ Spouse		Parent		Sibling		Child		Other	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
1. Tried to limit your contact with other family members or friends.	53	103	42	38	1	4	4	3	1	4
2. Put you down or called you names to make you feel bad	45	87	37	36	1	2	1	3	1	15
3. Told you they don't want you to talk to other people for no good reason	15	6	18	19	3	1	1	1	-	12
4. Harmed or threatened to harm someone close to you	9	41	3	7	-	-	1	1	-	2
5. Demanded to know who you are with and where you are at all times	35	71	12	28	-	2	1	-	-	2
6. Deliberately damages or destroys your possessions or property	11	52	22	18	-	1	-	-	-	9
7. Prevented you from knowing about or accessing the household income for your personal items, even if you ask	19	30	8	1	-	-	-	-	-	11
8. Controlled finances and not given enough money to you to run the home	2	29	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	1
9. Demanded that you do what they want	35	75	26	28	-	3	1	2	1	12
10. Acted like you are their personal servant	30	64	24	23	-	2	1	1	-	4
11. Threatened you with a fist or anything else	2	71	26	23	-	2	1	1	-	10
12. Thrown something at you that hurt you	15	38	24	18	1	2	-	-	-	1
13. Pushed, grabbed or shoved you in a way that hurt you	25	73	30	18	2	2	-	1	-	12
14. Slapped you	26	55	31	31	2	2	-	1	1	-
15. Kicked you, bit you or hit you with their fist	27	39	24	18	-	-	-	1	-	2
16. Hit you with something	16	41	31	24	1	1	-	-	-	2
17. Beaten you	8	35	12	8	1	-	-	-	1	2
18. Choked or strangled you	3	25	8	2	1	-	-	-	-	-
19. Used or threatened to use a gun, a knife or a similar weapon on you	2	24	13	2	-	-	1	-	-	-
20. Forced you into any unwanted sexual activity	4	50	1	15	-	2	-	1	-	2

Chapter 4: Discussion and conclusion

4.1 Awareness of different types of domestic and family violence

Patterns of awareness of the different types of relationship violence seem to reflect the relative length of time since each type (spousal domestic violence, elder abuse and adolescent-to-parent abuse) emerged as a public concern. Most of the respondents to the survey were aware of the term *domestic violence* and just less than three-quarters were aware of the term *spousal abuse*, while just less than half of the respondents were aware of the terms *elder abuse* and *adolescent-to-parent abuse*. The term *intimate partner abuse* was the least familiar term, with just over a quarter of respondents indicating that they were familiar with it. Men and women were equally aware of the term *domestic violence*, while women were more familiar than men with all other terms. For example, more than half of the women, compared to just over two-fifths of the men, reported they were familiar with the term *elder abuse*. This is not surprising given that women are more often victimised and they are perhaps more likely to tune into media attention, for example, to the various types of relationship abuse. While the majority (57%) regarded elder abuse as involving people over the age of 60 years, almost one quarter believed it involved people aged 50 years and over and eight per cent believed it involved people 40 years and over. Noting that respondents could select multiple options, nearly half also indicated they believed elder abuse involved a younger person abusing an older person, regardless of the older person's age. Awareness of elder abuse was evenly distributed across education levels. However, there were significant differences in perceptions of age involved in elder abuse in regards to respondents' gender and household income. The greatest disparity in familiarity with relevant terms was in regard to *adolescent-to-parent abuse*; more respondents with secondary or lower education were familiar with this term, than those with technical education and tertiary education.

The degree of familiarity across age groups indicates that familiarity with terms describing different types of relationships may also be associated with potential relevance to one's own life circumstances, with people aged 45 years or more reporting greater familiarity with the terms *elder abuse* and *adolescent-to-parent abuse* than those aged 45 years or less.

A question about respondents' first response to the term *domestic violence* revealed that 78 per cent immediately thought of violence involving a married/de facto couple, while 13 per cent immediately thought of violence involving people who are sharing accommodation. This understanding of *domestic violence* is vastly different to the initial conceptualisation in which domestic violence was used to describe men's violence against their current or former intimate female partners. In the initial conceptualisation the term 'domestic' was used to signify the nature of the relationship while, increasingly, the general usage of the term meaning home/household has been applied to *domestic violence*. Some advocates (e.g. Frohmader & Swift, 2012) cogently argue that conceptualisations of domestic violence should be expanded to include a range of domestic settings, including institutions caring for women with disabilities who are particularly vulnerable to psychological, sexual and physical abuse. However, the use of the term to capture abuse occurring within the context of a 'home', regardless of the nature of the relationship, unnecessarily creates a monolithic view of 'domestic violence' and conceals the nature of different types of relationship violence, within which particular vulnerabilities are exploited by the abusive 'partner' (e.g. spouse, carer, child). These vulnerabilities are different, though may be overlapping, across relationship types. Mobilising the general public and public policy processes to effectively address the exploitation of those vulnerabilities requires specific attention to the various contexts in which abuse occurs. Further, all terms currently used in Australia to describe violence in different relationships (family violence, domestic violence, spouse abuse, intimate partner abuse, elder abuse and adolescent abuse, for example) mask the gendered nature of abuse that exists, to varying degrees, in these types of relationship violence.

4.2 Attitudes towards domestic and family violence

4.2.1 Domestic violence

The majority of respondents saw a range of physical acts of abuse (excluding sexual abuse) as definitely being associated with domestic violence. Sixty-seven per cent of respondents indicated that convincing a partner that abusive sexual behaviour is normal is definitely domestic violence, while about half indicated that persuading a partner to have sex without protection and sexually degrading insults were definitely domestic violence. About half of the respondents saw some forms of psychological/emotional abuse as definitely domestic violence. Responding to a specific question on isolating and controlling a partner's social contacts, nearly half of the respondents definitely saw isolation from friends and family as domestic violence, but only about a third of the respondents definitely saw a range of other coercive, controlling behaviours, including alienating friends and family, preventing a partner from seeking or holding down a job and instigating a move to a location where there are no friends or family support, as *domestic violence*. This suggests that approximately two-thirds of respondents saw potential justification for some of these items, although in hindsight the question about instigating a move to a location where there are no friends or family support is somewhat vague in terms of an abusive element (i.e. it might have been more useful to say "deliberately moving the family to a place where there would be no access to friends or family support"). Of all the items it received the lowest 'definitely domestic violence' response.

On the other hand, the majority (85%) of respondents saw that hurting family pets in front of family members is somewhat (26%) or definitely (59%) domestic violence, having interpreted the action as non-accidental. It is interesting that so many respondents (89.5% of females and 81.5% of males) identified this as domestic violence. Indeed, it was the third most frequently identified as 'definitely domestic violence', following physical and sexual abuse, only. Although there is a growing body of research literature on the relationship between domestic violence and animal abuse (e.g. Ascione et al., 2007; Faver & Cavazos Jr, 2007; Taylor, Signal, & Stark, 2006; Volant, Johnson, Gullone, & Coleman, 2008) the level of recognition of this form of abuse, compared to others, by this general population sample is quite surprising. The reasons for it warrant further exploration, as they may provide valuable insights for initiatives aimed at raising awareness and engaging the wider community in action to stop domestic and family violence.

More than one-third of respondents did not really (24%), or did not at all (13%) regard forbidding access to a joint bank account as domestic violence. Nearly three quarters of females, compared to just over half of males recognised this as somewhat or definitely domestic violence. The results were similar for inadequate provision for family needs with one third of respondents overall regarding this as not really (24%), or not at all (9%) domestic violence. Again it appears that in the minds of this percentage of respondents, there is justification for one partner to deny the other access to financial and material means. Females (77%) more frequently recognised this as somewhat, or definitely, domestic violence, compared to males (57%).

The analysis of attitudes towards various behaviours as constituting domestic violence revealed statistically significant gender differences in that females were significantly more likely than males to identify non-physical forms of abuse as domestic violence. There were also statistically significant differences related to age and education levels in attitude to certain behaviours as domestic violence. People in the younger age group (18 – 34 years) were less inclined to see some non-physical forms of emotional abuse as domestic violence and people with technical education or lower were less inclined to see various forms of physical and sexual violence abuse as domestic violence. This is surprising and somewhat disappointing given that domestic violence has been on the public agenda in Australia, including specific domestic violence policy, legislation and awareness campaigns for more than twenty years. The results indicate the need for increased attention to the harmful effects of non-physical forms of abuse, as well as physical abuse, in campaigns using age appropriate media.

4.2.2 Elder abuse

The majority of respondents readily identify a range of physically and sexually abusive and neglectful behaviours as definitely being elder abuse, although five per cent of respondents believed that sexual intercourse without consent was not really, or not at all elder abuse. The results also revealed some disturbing attitudes in regard to financial and material abuse and behaviours that could constitute neglect. Just under a quarter (24%) of respondents did not regard forging a signature on bank accounts or legal documents as definitely elder abuse and 8.5 per cent believed this was not really, or not at all, elder abuse. Further, about 20 per cent of respondents do not regard refusing to visit or make any contact as elder abuse. The only statistically significant differences in attitude to elder abuse and demographics are that: people with secondary or lower level education are significantly less likely than those with technical or tertiary education to associate slapping, shoving, beating and burning as elder abuse; people in the highest household income bracket (over \$100,000 per annum) are significantly less likely to consider forging a signature on bank accounts or legal documents, and refusing to visit or make any contact, as elder abuse.

The great majority (98-99%) of female respondents perceive that failure to feed the elderly person, hitting the elderly person in the face or striking them with a wooden spoon, or not giving the elderly person their medication are very serious forms of elder abuse. Of the male respondents, 96 per cent perceive failure to feed the elderly person or hitting the elderly person as very serious. Older respondents (people in the 65+ age group), were more likely than any other age group to identify managing the elderly person's assets inconsistently with the elderly person's wishes and threatening to give away the elderly person's possessions or pets as very serious. Although this difference was not statistically significant, it does highlight that assessments of what is important to older people and how they experience certain behaviours must be informed by older people themselves. People in the youngest age group (18-34 years) were significantly less likely than those in other age groups, and men were significantly less likely than women, to see that preparing uncomfortably hot baths for an elderly person is abusive. Men were also significantly less likely than women to perceive that a carer ignoring an elderly person most of the time, and leaving an elderly person alone for long periods of time, is very serious elder abuse.

4.2.3 Adolescent-to-parent abuse

Approximately 45 per cent of the survey respondents were familiar with the term *adolescent-to-parent abuse*, and approximately 13 per cent believe there are circumstances where it might be acceptable for an adolescent to abuse their parent. Men and women were equally likely to hold this view, and people aged 45 years or more were more likely than younger people to hold this view. Twenty per cent of the respondents aged 65 years or more, compared to eight and a half per cent of people aged less than 34 years, believe that there are circumstances where it might be acceptable for an adolescent to abuse their parents. The survey results reveal a substantial number of people consider a range of adolescent behaviours that serve to manipulate parental behaviour, as 'normal'.

Ten per cent of respondents either agreed, or were undecided if, it is normal for parents to be afraid of an adolescent child. The percentages of those who agreed or were undecided increased as the question of parent's responses to adolescent behaviour became more specific. Forty-five per cent of the respondents either agreed, or were undecided if, it is normal for parents to adjust their behaviour to avoid conflict with an adolescent child, and about the same number (44.5%) agreed, or were undecided if it is normal to create situations that the adolescent approves of. One-quarter (25%) of the respondents agreed that, or were undecided if it is normal to tip-toe around an adolescent to keep the peace, and 15 per cent had similar views about adolescents engaging in put downs to humiliate and embarrass their parents. A substantial proportion (18%) of respondents also agreed, or were undecided if it is normal adolescent behaviour to threaten to leave home or to harm themselves or another family member in order to get their parents to do what they want.

It should be noted here that the term 'normal' may have been interpreted by respondents as 'common', without making any judgement about the behaviour. However, it is interesting that men were significantly more likely than women to regard a range of manipulative or emotionally abusive behaviours as normal for adolescent children. For example, 16 per cent of the men compared to six per cent of the women consider it normal adolescent behaviour to threaten to leave home or to harm themselves or another family member in order to get their parents to do what the adolescent wants. More than half of the victims were identified by respondents who had witnessed adolescent-to-parent abuse as the mother of the perpetrator, while approximately 16 per cent were identified as the father of the perpetrator.²²

Level of education is also significantly associated with a belief that it is normal for parents to be afraid of an adolescent child; the more educated respondents were less likely to hold this view. Only two per cent of the respondents with a tertiary education saw this as normal, compared to nine per cent of those with only secondary education or lower.

The results show a notable degree of acceptance of some manipulative or emotionally abusive behaviour as normal for adolescent children, as well as a notable degree of ambivalence. For example, one-fifth (21%) of respondents agree that it is normal for a parent to change their behaviour to avoid conflict with an adolescent child, while nearly a quarter (23.5%) were undecided on this question. It is also notable that men were significantly more likely than women to accept these behaviours as normal, given that females comprised at least 56% of those who had been victimised.²³ This could indicate that disrespect for women, combined with tolerance for, and ambivalence about, manipulative and abusive behaviour underpin the prevalence of adolescent-to-parent abuse.

4.3. Perceptions of violence against women

4.3.1 Perceptions of and attitudes towards stalking and harassment

Between five and seven per cent of survey respondents do not regard stalking women or harassing them by telephone, email or text messaging to be forms of violence against women. Less than two-thirds (56 – 63%) regard these forms of abuse as violence against women, always, with approximately a quarter of respondents saying these abusive behaviours are usually violence against women and some respondents (6 – 10%) believe these forms of abuse are sometimes violence against women. Men are significantly less likely than women, and people aged less than 34 years are significantly less likely than those in other age groups, to regard these behaviours as violence against women. People in the second lowest income group (\$50,001 – \$70,000) were significantly less likely than those in other income groups to regard stalking as violence against women.

While many respondents are not inclined to see stalking and harassment as forms of violence against women, just under three-quarters (71%) of all respondents regard stalking to be very serious, and a further quarter (26%) see it as quite serious. Less than two per cent of respondents believe stalking is not serious

²² A range of other relationship types were erroneously included in the options available to respondents, so they most likely were thinking of adolescent violence within the family generally, rather than adolescent violence towards a parent specifically. After 'mother' and then 'father', a range of other family members (a total of 15%), followed by the 'partner' of the perpetrator (6%), were most frequently identified as the victim by respondents who reported that they had witnessed such abuse. While in the majority of cases (64.5%) a child was identified as the perpetrator of adolescent-to-parent abuse, other family members were identified as the perpetrator in 21 per cent of cases, and the victim's partner in four per cent of cases.

²³ The gender of victims is not able to be discerned in some relationship options (e.g. partner, extended family member), totalling 15 per cent of the reported victims.

and less than five per cent believe that harassment by telephone, email and text messaging is not serious. These findings indicate that the majority of people (though women, especially) regard stalking and harassment as serious, while they do not regard these behaviours as violence. There has been much debate about the range of behaviours that should be included in definitions of violence against women (see for example, DeKeseredy, 2000), but the terms that are used to describe the narrow or broad collection of behaviours are seldom examined in any detail themselves. Terms such as violence against women, domestic violence, and assault, tend to be used interchangeably.

A number of Canadian scholars (DeKeseredy & Dragiewicz, 2007; DeKeseredy & Kelly, 1993; DeKeseredy & Schwartz, 1998; Dragiewicz & DeKeseredy, 2012) prefer the term 'woman abuse' and argue for specificity in language to address, particularly, the de-gendering of a gendered phenomenon. MacDonald (1998) examined definitions and terminology in an Australian context, focussing on the merits and limitations of the terms 'domestic violence', 'family violence' and 'violence against women', but again the central concern is about the behaviours and the relationship types that are included, or excluded, rather than the use of the term 'violence' as opposed to 'abuse', for example. Much of the debate about terminology and definitions has focussed on what is considered serious (DeKeseredy, 2000) and the preference for the term 'domestic violence' in Australia, from as early as the mid-1970s, was a strategy to highlight the seriousness of a range of physical and psychological forms of abuse. While the term 'violence' is broadly conceptualised in the minds of domestic violence workers and specialist social policy analysts, this broad conceptualisation does not appear to be embraced by the wider community. Further, the broad conceptualisation of domestic violence which includes non-physical forms of abuse was rejected by the Australian Government during the Howard years (Costello, 2009), resulting in a national education campaign being controversially revised to address physical and sexual violence, only.

The Council of Australian Governments' National Plan to Reduce Violence against Women and their Children (COAG, 2011) emphasises the role of the community in reducing violence against women (and its impact on children), particularly in strategies aimed at primary prevention (stopping violence before it starts). It is crucial to develop a shared conceptualisation of the problem if the broader community is to be engaged successfully in addressing it. It appears from the data that the strategic use of the term 'domestic violence' over the last four decades has not been absorbed in the wider community and has in fact met with active resistance, threatening to undermine the advances made in broad conceptualisations of the problem as being as much about non-physical forms of abuse as it is about physical and sexual abuse. The data also show, however, that the great majority of respondents see stalking and harassment as serious, even though they do not regard them as violence. A term such as 'abuse', rather than 'violence', to describe these behaviours may assist in mobilising community action on the COAG plan. Further, the term 'abuse', rather than violence, better captures the meaning of coercive, controlling acts of violence compared to acts of violence that are reactive or defensive in response to abuse.

4.3.2 Perceptions of and attitudes towards sexual violence against women

It appears that the most persistent rape myths are that women often make false claims of rape and that rape is the result of men's inability to control their need for sex. Thirteen per cent of the respondents disagree that women rarely make false claim of rape (including two per cent who strongly disagree with that position) and a further 30 per cent were not prepared to agree that such claims are rare. More than a quarter (26%) of the survey respondents believe that rape occurs because men cannot control their need for sex and a further 22 per cent were not prepared to disagree with this assertion, leaving just over half (52%) of all respondents who disagreed with it. Of particular concern is that people in the youngest age group were more likely than those in older age groups to minimise responsibility for rape if the offender was drunk or affected by drugs at the time. People with the lower level of education were also more likely to hold rape supportive attitudes.

While men and, especially, boys can also be victims of sexual violence, females comprise the great majority of adult victims and males are almost exclusively the perpetrators of sexual violence against adults and children. Research on the perpetration of violence against women, including sexual violence, consistently shows individual pathology is an inadequate explanation; individual factors interacting with broader cultural norms and societal structures create the conditions for male power that facilitate such abuse (Clark & Quadara, 2010; DeKeseredy, 2011; Kelly, 1988).

Overall, the majority of respondents disagree that women who are raped ask for it (91.5%), that a man is less responsible for rape if he is affected by alcohol or other substances (93%), that a woman cannot be raped by her intimate partner (94%) and that women who have been sexually harassed should just sort it out themselves. However, views on sexual violence against women are not equally shared across the various demographic groups.

Men are significantly more likely than women, and people with a household income of \$70,000 or less are significantly more likely than those with higher household income, to believe that women often say no to sex when they really mean yes. People over the age of 65 years are significantly more likely than younger people to believe that women who are raped often ask for it, and people with lower levels of education are more likely than people with tertiary education to believe that rape is a result of men's inability to control their need for sex. Even so, one in five people (20%) with a tertiary education believe this to be the cause of rape. More than one in three people (38%) with secondary or lower education believe this to be true. The only group who more frequently agreed that rape occurs because men cannot control their need for sex is people aged 65 years or more, with 43 per cent of people in that age group believing this.

Engaging the broader community in an understanding that sexual violence is linked to violence-supportive cultural norms and societal structures that establish and maintain gender inequality is a challenge. A greater challenge, however, is changing the cultural norms and societal structures that facilitate sexual and other violence and this will require a massive shift in understanding and commitment to stopping violence.

4.4 Experiences of different types of relationship violence

Overall, males were significantly more likely than females to experience physical violence (having something thrown at them, being kicked, bitten or hit with a fist or something or being beaten) within a domestic or family relationship during their lifetime. However, the data show significant gender differences in regard to the type of relationships in which males and females are more likely to experience abuse. This is discussed in more detail below.

4.4.1 Adolescent-to-parent abuse

Eight per cent of respondents had directly experienced adolescent-to-parent abuse and 36 per cent reported they had witnessed adolescent-to-parent abuse. Consistent with the literature, the survey results confirmed the gendered nature of adolescent-to-parent abuse, with mothers most frequently identified as the victim by respondents who reported they had witnessed such abuse. A parent²⁴ of the perpetrator was the victim in one-third (34%) of the cases of abuse involving threatened or actual use of a gun, a knife or a similar weapon; and in ten per cent of cases involving kicking, biting or hitting. A child was the perpetrator in 12 per cent of the cases of respondents having been kicked, bitten or hit; and in 13 per cent of cases where the respondent was threatened with a gun, a knife or a similar weapon.

²⁴ This could include a parent of adult children, as well as adolescent and younger children

4.4.2 Abuse by a parent

A parent was the perpetrator of five per cent of cases of sexual abuse reported by respondents and between one-fifth and two-thirds of the perpetrators of various forms of physical abuse, including more than a quarter (28%), of the perpetrators who had choked or strangled a respondent. Abuse by a parent accounted for the majority of abuse experienced by male respondents to the survey. Similar numbers of men and women reported most forms of abuse by a parent. However, 15 women, compared to one man reported sexual abuse by a parent; and more men than women reported all forms of physical abuse except slapping, which was reported equally by men and women.

4.4.3 Intimate partner abuse

Women reported sexual abuse and all other forms of physical abuse substantially more frequently than the men who responded to the survey. Women also reported most forms of non-physical abuse substantially more often than the men. In fact, eight to 12 times more women than men reported various forms of non-physical and physical abuse perpetrated by their intimate partner. This is not unexpected, given the extant evidence on the gendered nature of intimate partner abuse. However, the results of some quantitative studies of partner abuse, using general population surveys and incident based measures, indicate gender symmetry in the use of many of these 'conflict' resolution strategies.²⁵ This study shows substantial gender differences, even in the absence of information on motives, meaning and impacts of the violent actions.

4.4.4 Other relationships

Similar numbers of women and men reported various forms of abuse perpetrated by siblings and children. Women more frequently reported physical and non-physical abuse by partners, and by other family members, than men. This is consistent with the findings of the Australian Personal Safety Survey (ABS, 2006). The results of that survey highlight that while men experience more violence overall, women are more likely than men to experience violence, including violence causing injury, perpetrated within the home by a family member or some-one else well-known to them. The ABS Personal Safety Survey (2006) shows that violence against men, including violence causing injury, is most often perpetrated by acquaintances and strangers in public places. It also confirmed that men are predominantly the perpetrators of interpersonal violence against other men and women.

4.5 Conclusion

This quantitative research reveals a substantial number of people have experienced various forms of non-physical and physical violence perpetrated by an intimate partner or another family member and that there are significant differences in the experiences of men and women in regard to the perpetrator of such violence, and the types of abuse experienced. The majority of family violence, over the lifetime, reported by men was perpetrated by parents, while women more frequently experienced violence perpetrated by intimate partners and other family members.

As might be expected, people were more familiar with the term *domestic violence* than terms such as *intimate partner abuse*, *elder abuse* and *adolescent-to-parent abuse* and, similarly, were less likely to hold violence-supportive attitudes in regard to *domestic violence*, compared to other types of relationship violence. Nevertheless, there is still room for improvement in attitudes towards domestic violence as well as violence in other types of relationships. Of particular concern is the lack of awareness or concern regarding some forms of abuse and neglect of older people and the uncertainty about what can be

²⁵See page 23 for a discussion on the limitations of quantitative studies in regard to ascertaining the motive, meaning and context of acts of violence

regarded as normal or abusive behaviour in adolescent and parent behaviour. Overall, there are significant differences between men and women in regard to awareness of, and attitudes towards, violence in various relationships. Whilst most men disagree with all forms of abuse, in general they appear to be more accepting of a range of coercive, violent and neglectful behaviours across the various relationship types. The differences in awareness and attitudes, however, are not limited to gender; socio-economic status including education level and household income are also significantly correlated with awareness of and attitudes towards violence or abuse in various contexts.

Effective engagement of the wider community in actions to stop domestic and family violence requires attention to the demographic differences in awareness of and attitudes towards violence and abuse in specific types of relationships. This calls for campaigns aimed at addressing relationship violence to clearly distinguish the type of relationship concerned (i.e. the broad brush 'family violence' label is not helpful) and to target particular groups within the wider community on particular types, and aspects, of relationship violence. Further, it appears that the broad conceptualisation of domestic violence to include non-physical, as well as physical, abuse has not been embraced by the wider community, even though the majority of survey respondents regard some non-physical forms of abuse (stalking and harassment) as very serious. The term 'abuse', rather than 'violence' may be more effective in engaging community action on all forms of coercive controlling behaviour.

References

- ABS (Australian Bureau of Statistics). (2006). Personal Safety Survey (reissue). Canberra.
- ABS (Australian Bureau of Statistics). (2009). Conceptual framework for family and domestic violence. Canberra.
- Agnew, R., & Huguley, S. (1989). Adolescent violence towards parents. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 51(3), 699-711.
- Archer, J. (2000). Sex differences in aggression between heterosexual partners: A meta-analytic review. *Psychological Bulletin*, 126(5), 651-680. doi: 10.1037/MJ033-2909.126.5.651
- Ascione, F. R., Weber, C. V., Thompson, T. M., Heath, J., Maruyama, M., & Hayashi, K. (2007). Battered pets and domestic violence: Animal abuse reported by women experiencing intimate violence and by nonabused women. *Violence Against Women*, 13(4), 354-373.
- Australian Government. (2008). *The road home: A national approach to reducing homelessness*. Canberra: Commonwealth of Australia.
- Bair-Merritt, M. H., Crowne, S. S., Thompson, D. A., Sibinga, E., Trent, M., & Campbell, J. (2010). Why do women use intimate partner violence? A systematic review of women's motivations. *Trauma, Violence & Abuse*, 11(4), 178-189. doi: 10.1177/1524838010379003
- Barkin, S., Kreiter, S., & DuRant, R. H. (2001). Exposure to violence and intentions to engage in moralistic violence during early adolescence. *Journal of Adolescence*, 24(6), 777.
- Bergeron, L. R. (2001). An elder abuse case study: Caregiver stress or domestic violence? You decide. *Journal of Gerontological Social Work*, 34(4), 47-63. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1300/J083v34n04_05
- Biggs, S., & Goergen, T. (2010). Theoretical development in elder abuse and neglect. *Ageing International*, 35(3), 167-170.
- Blagg, H. (2000). *Crisis Intervention in Aboriginal Family Violence: Summary Report*. Canberra: Partnerships Against Domestic Violence, Commonwealth of Australia.
- Bobic, N. (2004). Adolescent violence towards parents [Topic Paper]. *Australian Domestic and Family Violence Clearinghouse*.
- Boldy, D., Horner, B., Crouchley, K., Davey, M., & Boylen, S. (2005). Addressing elder abuse: Western Australian case study. *Australasian Journal of Ageing*, 24(1), 3-8.
- Browne, K., & Hamilton, C. (1998). Physical violence between young adults and their parents: Associations with a history of child maltreatment. *Journal of Family Violence*, 13(1), 59-79.
- Chrichton-Hill, Y., Evans, N., & Meadows, L. (2006). Adolescent violence towards parents. *Te Awatea Review*, 4(2), 21-22.
- Clare, M., Black Blundell, B., & Clare, J. (2011). *Examination of elder abuse in Western Australia*. Perth, WA: Crime Research Centre, The University of Western Australia.
- Clark, H., & Quadara, A. (2010). *Insights into sexual assault perpetration: Giving voice to victim/survivors' knowledge. Research report no. 18*: Australian Institute fo Family Studies, Australian Government.
- COAG (Council of Australian Governments). (2011). *Safe and free from violence: The national plan to reduce violence against women and their children*. Canberra: Commonwealth of Australia.
- Coogan, D. (2011). Child-to-parent violence: Challenging perspectives on family violence. *Child Care in Practice*, 17(4), 347-358.

- Cooper, C., Selwood, A., & Livingston, G. (2008). The prevalence of elder abuse and neglect: a systematic review. *Age and Ageing*, 37(2), 151-160. doi: 10.1093/ageing/afm194
- Cornell, C. P., & Gelles, R. J. (1981). *Adolescent to parent violence*. Paper presented at the annual meetings of the American Society of Criminology, Washington, DC.
- Costello, M. (2009). *Australia says no?: Policy, politics and the Australian government's approach to male violence against women during the Howard years (1996-2007)*. (Unpublished doctoral thesis), University of Sydney.
- Cottrell, B. (2001). *Parent abuse: The abuse of parents by their teenage children*. Ottawa: Family Violence Prevention Unit, Health Canada.
- Cottrell, B., & Monk, P. (2004). Adolescent-to-parent abuse: A qualitative overview of common themes. *Journal of Family Issues*, 25, 1072-1095.
- Crenshaw, K. (1989). Demarginalising the intersection of race and sex: A black feminist critique of antidiscrimination doctrine, feminist theory and antiracist politics. *University of Chicago Legal Forum*, 139-167.
- Cripps, D. (2000). *Australia's first randomised study of the prevalence and effects of elder abuse in the general community*. Paper presented at the Australian Association of Gerontology Conference, Adelaide.
- Currie, S. (1996). *A report on legislative options for non-spousal domestic violence*. Brisbane: Queensland Government.
- Daly, K., & Nancarrow, H. (2010). Restorative justice and youth violence toward parents. In J. Ptacek (Ed.), *Restorative justice and violence against women* (pp. 150-176). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Dasgupta, S. D. (2002). A framework for understanding women's use of violence in intimate heterosexual relationships. *Violence Against Women*, 8(11), 1364-1389. doi: 10.1177/107780102237408
- Dearden, J., & Jones, W. (2008). Homicide in Australia: 2006-07 National Homicide Monitoring Program annual report. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology.
- DeKeseredy, W. S. (1993). *Four variations of family violence: A review of sociological research: A report*: National Clearinghouse on Family Violence, Health Canada.
- DeKeseredy, W. S. (2000). Current controversies on defining nonlethal violence against women in intimate heterosexual relationships: Empirical implications. *Violence Against Women*, 6(7), 728-746. doi: 10.1177/10778010022182128
- DeKeseredy, W. S. (2011). *Violence against women: Myths, facts, controversies*. Toronto, Ontario: University of Toronto Press.
- DeKeseredy, W. S., & Dragiewicz, M. (2007). Understanding the complexities of feminist perspectives on woman abuse: A commentary on Donald G. Dutton's Rethinking domestic violence *Violence Against Women*, 13(8), 874-884. doi: 10.1177/1077801207304806
- DeKeseredy, W. S., & Kelly, K. (1993). The incidence and prevalence of woman abuse in Canadian university and college dating relationships. *The Canadian Journal of Sociology* 18(2), 137-159.
- DeKeseredy, W. S., & Schwartz, M. (1998). *Measuring the extent of woman abuse in intimate heterosexual relationships: A critique of the Conflict Tactics Scales*. VAWnet, National Resource Center on Domestic Violence, Pennsylvania Coalition Against Domestic Violence: Available at: http://new.vawnet.org/print-document.php?doc_id=388&find_type=web_desc_AR (2 July 2011).

- Department of Health and Ageing. (2007). *Evaluation of the impact on the delivery of quality of care and quality of life to residents in Australia government subsidised residential care homes – final report*. Barton: Commonwealth of Australia.
- DFSAIA (Department of Family Services and Aboriginal and Islander Affairs). (1994). *Report of the project on abuse of older people*. Brisbane: Queensland Government.
- Disney, M., & Cupitt, L. (2000). *Two lives - two worlds. Older people and domestic violence*. Canberra: Partnerships Against Domestic Violence.
- Dobash, R. E., & Dobash, R. P. (2004). Women's violence to men in intimate relationships: Working on a puzzle *British Journal of Criminology*, 44(3), 324-349. doi: first published online April 8, 2004 doi:10.1093/bjc/azh026
- Dobash, R. P., Dobash, R. E., Wilson, M., & Daly, M. (1992). The myth of sexual symmetry in marital violence. *Social Problems*, 39(1), 71-91.
- Downey, L. (1997). Adolescent violence: A systemic and feminist perspective. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Family Therapy*, 18(2), 70-79.
- Dragiewicz, M., & DeKeseredy, W. S. (2012). Claims about women's use of non-fatal force in intimate relationships: A contextual review of Canadian research. *Violence Against Women*. doi: 10.1177/1077801212460754
- Duffy, A., & Momirov, J. (1997). *Family Violence: A Canadian Introduction*. Toronto: James Lorimer and Company.
- Eckstein, N. (2004). Emergent issues in families experiencing adolescent-to-parent abuse. *Western Journal of Communication*, 68(4), 365-389.
- Edleson, J. L. (1999). Children's witnessing of adult domestic violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 14(8), 839-870. doi: 10.1177/088626099014008004
- Faver, C. A., & Cavazos Jr, A. M. (2007). Animal abuse and domestic violence: A view from the border. [Article]. *Journal of Emotional Abuse*, 7(3), 59-81. doi: 10.1300/J135v07n03-04
- Frohman, C., & Swift, K. (2012). Opening minds & opening doors: Re-conceptualising 'domestic violence' to be inclusive inconclusive of women with disabilities in institutions. *CDFVRe@der*, 11(2), 7-8.
- Gallagher, E. (2008). *Children's violence to parents: A critical literature review*. (Masters of Social Work), Monash University.
- Geffner, R., Jaffe, P., & Sudermann, M. (2000). *Children Exposed to Family Violence: Current Issues in Research, Intervention, Prevention and Policy Development*. New York: Hayworth Press.
- Hamberger, K. L. (2005). Men's and women's use of intimate partner violence in clinical samples: Toward a gender-sensitive analysis. *Violence and Victims*, 20(2), 131-151.
- Harris, A. P. (1990). Race and essentialism in feminist legal theory. *Stanford Law Review*, 42, 581-686.
- Holt, A. (2009). Parent abuse: Some reflections on the adequacy of a youth justice response. *Internet Journal of Criminology*. Retrieved from http://www.internetjournalofcriminology.com/Holt_Parent_Abuse_Nov_09.pdf
- Holt, A. (2011). Responding to the problem of 'parent abuse'. *The Psychologist*, 24(3), 186-188.
- Howard, J. (2011). Adolescent violence in the home - the missing link in family violence prevention and response. *Australian Domestic & Family Violence Clearinghouse, Stakeholder Paper*(11).

- Ibabe, I., & Jaureguizar, J. (2010). Child-to-parent violence: Profile of abusive adolescents and their families. *Journal of Criminal Justice, 38*(4), 616-624. doi: 10.1016/j.jcrimjus.2010.04.034
- Ibabe, I., Jaureguizar, J., & Diaz, O. (2009). Adolescent violence against parents. Is it a consequence of gender inequality? *The European Journal of Psychology applied to Legal Context, 1*(1), 3-24.
- Jackson, S. L., & Hafemeister, T. L. (2011). Risk factors associated with elder abuse: The importance of differentiating by type of elder maltreatment. *Violence and Victims, 26*(6), 738-757.
- James, M. (1994). Abuse and neglect of older people. *Family Matters*(37), 94-97.
- Johnson, M. P. (2006). Conflict and control: Gender symmetry and asymmetry in domestic violence. *Violence Against Women, 12*(11), 1003-1018. doi: 10.1177/1077801206293328
- Johnson, M. P. (2008). *A typology of violence: Intimate terrorism, violent resistance, and situational couple violence*. Lebanon, NH: University Press of New England.
- Kelly, L. (1988). *Surviving sexual violence*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.
- Kennair, N., & Mellor, D. (2007). Parent abuse: A review. *Child Psychiatry Human Development, 38*, 203-219.
- Kernsmith, P. (2005). Exerting power or striking back: A gendered comparison of motivations for domestic violence perpetration. *Violence and Victims, 20*(2), 173-185.
- 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
- Kurrle, S., & Naughtin, G. (2008). An overview of elder abuse and neglect in Australia. *Journal of Elder Abuse and Neglect, 20*(2), 108-125. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/08946560801974521>
- Laurent, A., & Derry, A. (1999). Violence of French adolescents toward their parents. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 25*(1), 21-26.
- Lowenstein, A. (2010). Caregiving and elder abuse and neglect—developing a new conceptual perspective. *Ageing International, 35*(3), 215-227.
- MacDonald, H. (1998). *What's in a name? Definitions and domestic violence* Melbourne: Domestic Violence and Incest Resource Centre.
- McKenna, M., & Hotich, V. (2009). Child and adolescent family violence: an emerging issue. *Counselling Association of South Australia, 31*, 11-13.
- Memmott, P., Stacy, R., Chambers, C., & Keys, C. (2001). *Violence in Indigenous communities*. Canberra: Crime Prevention Branch, Commonwealth Attorney-General's Department.
- Mitchell, K. J., & Finkelhor, D. (2001). Risk of crime victimization among youth exposed to domestic violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 16*(9), 944-964.
- Mouzos, J., & Makkai, T. (2004). *Women's experience of male violence: Findings from the Australian component of the international violence against women survey (IVAWS)*. Canberra: Research and Public Policy Series no. 56, Australian Institute of Criminology.
- Mouzos, J., & Rushforth, C. (2003). *Family Homicide in Australia. Trends and Issues in Crime and Criminal Justice No. 255*.
- Nancarrow, H. (2010). Restorative justice for domestic family violence: Hopes and fears of Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australian Women. In J. Ptacek (Ed.), *Restorative Justice and Violence Against Women* (pp. 123-149). New York: Oxford University Press.

- Nancarrow, H., Burke, K., Lockie, S., Viljoen, R., & Choudhury, J. (2011). *Intimate partner abuse of women in Queensland*. Mackay: Central Queensland University, Q'ld Centre for Domestic and Family Violence Research.
- NCFV (National Clearinghouse on Family Violence). (2003). Parent abuse: The abuse of parents by their teenage children.
- NCRVAWC (The National Council to Reduce Violence against Women and their Children). (2009a). *Background Paper to Time for Action: The National Council's Plan for Australia to Reduce Violence against Women and their Children*. Canberra: Commonwealth of Australia.
- NCRVAWC (The National Council to Reduce Violence against Women and their Children). (2009b). *The cost of violence against women and their children*. Canberra: Commonwealth of Australia.
- Office of the Public Advocate. (2012). *Elder abuse resource directory: A Queensland guide to services, assistance and information*. Brisbane: Queensland Government Retrieved from <http://www.justice.qld.gov.au/justice-services/guardianship/our-publications> 30 October 2012.
- Office of the Public Advocate and the Queensland Law Society. (2010). Elder abuse: how well does the law in Queensland cope? Retrieved 26 July 2011, from http://www.qls.com.au/content/lwp/wcm/resources/file/eb89e1043274b31/elder-abuse_issues-paper%20v6.pdf
- Omer, H. (2000). *Parental presence: Reclaiming a leadership role in bringing up our children*. Phoenix, AZ: Zeig, Tucker & Co.
- Osthoff, S. (2002). But Gertrude I beg to differ, a hit is not a hit is not a hit. *Violence Against Women*, 8(12), 1521-1544. doi: 10.1177/107780102237968
- Pagani, L. S., Larocque, D., Vitaro, F., & Tremblay, R. E. (2003). Verbal and physical abuse toward mothers: the role of family configuration, environment, and coping strategies. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 32, 215-223.
- Parentline. (2008). You can't say go and sit on the naughty step because they turn round and say make me. *Aggressive Behaviour in Children: Parents' Experiences and Needs*. Retrieved from www.parentlineplusforprofessionals.org.uk/cmsFiles/policy_briefings/Aggressive_behaviour_in_children151008.pdf
- Paterson, R., Luntz, H., Perlesz, A., & Cotton, S. (2002). Adolescent violence towards parents: Maintaining family connections when the going gets tough. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Family Therapy*, 23(2), 90-100.
- Peek, C. W., Fisher, J. L., & Kidwell, J. S. (1985). Teenage violence toward parents: A neglected dimension of family violence. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 47(4), 1051-1058.
- Pence, E., & Dasgupta, S. D. (2006). Re-examining 'battering': Are all acts of violence against intimate partners the same? *Praxis International, Inc.*
- Penhale, B. (2010). Responding and intervening in elder abuse and neglect. *Ageing International*, 35(3), 235-252.
- Perry, B. D. (2001). Incubated in terror: Neurodevelopmental factors in the 'cycle of violence'. In J. Osofsky (Ed.), *Children, Youth and Violence: The Search for Solutions* (pp. 124-128). New York: Guilford Press.
- Podnieks, E., Penhale, B., Goergen, T., Biggs, S., & Han, D. (2010). Worldview environmental scan on elder abuse. *Journal of Elder Abuse and Neglect*, 22, 131-163.

- Queensland Government. (2010). *Positively ageless: Queensland seniors strategy 2010-20*. Brisbane: Queensland Government Retrieved from <http://www.communities.qld.gov.au/communityservices/seniors/positively-ageless-queensland-seniors-strategy-2010-20> 10 November 2011.
- Rosenman, L., & Scott, W. (2009). Financing old age: Why is there still gender inequality? *Australian Social Work, 62*(2), 287-298.
- Schaeffer, J. (1999). Older and isolated women and domestic violence project. *Journal of Elder Abuse & Neglect, 1*(1), 59-74.
- Setterlund, D., Tilse, C., Wilson, J., McCawley, A.-L., & Rosenman, L. (2007). Understanding financial elder abuse in families: The potential of routine activities theory. *Ageing and Society, 27*(4), 599-614. doi: 10.1017/S0144686X07006009
- Stark, E. (2007). *Coercive control: How men entrap women in personal life*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Stewart, M., Burns, A., & Leonard, R. (2007). Dark side of the mothering role: abuse of mothers by adolescent and adult children. *Sex Roles, 56*, 183-191.
- 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 Publishers.
- Straus, M. A., Gelles, R. J., & Steinmetz, S. K. (1980). *Behind closed doors: Violence in the American family*. Newbury Park: Anchor/Doubleday.
- Taylor, N., Signal, T., & Stark, T. (2006). *Domestic violence, child abuse and companion animal harm [electronic resource] : service provision / N. Taylor, T.D. Signal, T. Stark*: Macquarie, ACT. : Home Economics Institute of Australia, 2006.
- Teaster, P. B., Wangmo, T., & Anetzberger, G. J. (2010). A glass half full: The dubious history of elder abuse policy. *Journal of Elder Abuse & Neglect, 22*(1/2), 6-15.
- Tilse, C., Setterland, D., & Rosenman, L. (2005). Older people's assets: A contested site. *Australasian Journal on Ageing, 24*(Supplement 1), S51-56.
- Tilse, C., Wilson, J., Setterland, D., & Rosenman, L. (2007). The new caring: Financial asset management and older people. *Annals of the new York Academy of Sciences, 1114*, 355-361. doi: 10.1196/annals.1396.015
- Ulman, A., & Straus, M. A. (2003). Violence by children against mothers in relation to violence between parents and corporal punishment by parents. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies, 34*, 41-60.
- VicHealth. (2004). *The Health Costs of Violence: Measuring the Burden of Disease Caused by Intimate Partner Violence - A Summary of Findings*. Melbourne: Department of Human Services, State Government Victoria.
- VicHealth. (2010). *National survey on community attitudes to violence against women 2009: Changing cultures, changing attitudes - preventing violence against women. A summary of findings* Melbourne: Victorian Health Promotion Foundation.
- Volant, A. M., Johnson, J. A., Gullone, E., & Coleman, G. J. (2008). The relationship between domestic violence and animal abuse: An Australian study. [Article]. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 23*(9), 1277-1295.
- White, J., Smith, P. H., Koss, M. P., & Figueredo, A. J. (2000). Intimate partner aggression - what have we learned? Comment on Archer. *Psychological Bulletin, 126*(5), 690-696. doi: 10.1037//0033-2909.126.5.690

- WHO (World Health Organization). (2002). *World report on violence and health: Summary*. Geneva: World Health Organization.
- WHO (World Health Organization). (2008). *A global response to elder abuse and neglect: Building primary health care capacity to deal with the problem world wide: Main report*. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization.
- WHO (World Health Organization), & INPEA (International Network for the Prevention of Elder Abuse). (2002). *Missing voices: Views of older persons on elder abuse*. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization.
- Wilcox, P. (2012). Is parent abuse a form of domestic violence? *Social Policy and Society*, 11, 277-288 doi: 10.1017/S1474746411000613
- Wilson, J., Tilse, C., Setterlund, D., & Rosenman, L. (2009). Older people and their assets: A range of roles and issues for social workers. *Australian Social Work*, 62(2), 155-167. doi: 10.1080/03124070902748894

Appendix: Survey questionnaire

Section 1: Domestic and family violence

Q1.1: How familiar are you with the term “domestic violence”?

1. Very familiar
2. Familiar
3. Not very familiar
4. Not at all familiar (never heard of this)

Q1.2a: We would like to know what you FIRST think of when you hear the term ‘domestic violence’. From the list below, please select the item which comes closest to your first thought when hearing the words ‘domestic violence’. Please select ONE response only.

1. Violence between a married/de facto couple
2. Violence between people who are separated or divorced
3. Violence between a couple who are the biological parents of a shared child
4. Violence between people who are dating
5. Violence between people who are betrothed or ‘promised’ under cultural/religious tradition
6. Violence between people who are sharing accommodation
7. Violence between same sex partners
8. Violence between people who are either engaged or ‘promised’ under cultural law
9. Violence toward older people
10. Violence between extended family members
11. Violence between adolescents and parents

Q1.2b: Now we would like to know how strongly you associate each of the following items with the issue of domestic violence. For each item please rate how strongly you associate each item using the scale below.

1. Violence between a married/de facto couple
2. Violence between people who are separated or divorced
3. Violence between a couple who are the biological parents of a shared child
4. Violence between people who are dating
5. Violence between people who are betrothed or ‘promised’ under cultural/religious tradition
6. Violence between people who are sharing accommodation
7. Violence between same sex partners
8. Violence between people who are either engaged or ‘promised’ under cultural law
9. Violence toward older people
10. Violence between extended family members
11. Violence between adolescents and parents

Response options

- a) I ***strongly associate*** this issue with domestic violence
- b) I ***usually*** think about this issue in regard to domestic violence
- c) I ***haven’t really considered*** this issue in regard to domestic violence
- d) I ***don’t think this issue is associated*** with domestic violence

Q1.3: From the following list we would like you to rate how much you consider each item fits into the category of “domestic violence”.

1. Punching, pushing, shoving, hitting, biting, kicking, spitting, strangling
2. Sulking, silent treatment, emotional blackmail, blaming
3. Swearing, humiliating comments
4. Isolation from friends/family, prevented from going out and meeting people
5. Forbidding access to joint bank accounts
6. Providing inadequate allowance for family needs
7. Denial or misuse of partner’s religious beliefs to force them into a lesser role
8. Persuading someone to have sex without protection
9. Sexually degrading insults.
10. Hurting family pets in front of family members
11. Making threats about custody of the children
12. Leading someone to believe that they are stupid and that no one will believe them
13. Driving dangerously or recklessly to scare family members
14. Preventing a partner from seeking or holding down a job
15. Instigating the move to a location where there are no friends or family support
16. Alienating friends and family by ongoing rudeness
17. Convincing a partner that the (abusive) sexual behaviour they are taking part in is normal

Response options

- a) I **definitely** think this fits the category of domestic violence
- b) I **somewhat** think this fits the category of domestic violence
- c) I **don’t really** think this fits the category of domestic violence
- d) I **don’t** think this fits the category of domestic violence **at all**

Q1.4: How familiar are you with the term “spousal abuse”?

1. Very familiar
2. Familiar
3. Not very familiar
4. Not at all familiar (never heard of this)

Q1.5: Which of the following relationships do you consider to be categorised as “spousal”? Select as many as apply.

1. People of the same or opposite sex who are living together as a couple
2. People who are married
3. People who are divorced
4. People who are separated
5. A couple who are the biological parents of a shared child

Q1.6: How familiar are you with the term “intimate partner abuse”?

1. Very familiar
2. Familiar
3. Not very familiar
4. Not at all familiar (never heard of this)

Q1.7: Which of the following relationships would you consider “intimate personal”? Select as many as apply.

1. People who are involved in a sexual relationship
2. People who are or were engaged to be married
3. People who are betrothed or ‘promised’ under cultural/religious tradition
4. People of the same/opposite sex who are in dating relationships and their actions impact on one another.

Section 2: Elder abuse

Q2.1: How familiar are you with the term “elder abuse”?

1. Very familiar
2. Familiar
3. Not very familiar
4. Not at all familiar (never heard of this)

Q2.2: Which of the following age groups would you consider are included in the “elder abuse” category? Select as many as apply.

1. 60+ years
2. 50+ years
3. 40+ years
4. Any age where a younger person is abusing an older person.

Q2.3: Which of the following behaviours would you categorise as elder abuse?

1. Slapping, shoving, beating, burning
2. Physical restraint (example, locking someone in their room)
3. Forcing changes to last will and testament
4. Misusing power of attorney
5. Refusing to visit or make any contact
6. Forging signature on bank accounts or legal documents
7. Threatening to put someone into an institution
8. Withholding affection (example refusing access to grandchildren)
9. Stopping interaction with friends (example, not allowing use of the telephone)
10. Sexual intercourse without consent
11. Failing to provide medication, clothing or food

Response options

- a) I **definitely** think this fits the category of elder abuse
- b) I **somewhat** think this fits the category of elder abuse
- c) I **don’t really** think this fits the category of elder abuse
- d) I **don’t** think this fits the category of elder abuse **at all**

Q2.4: From the following list we would like to know how serious you think each of these items relating to the care of elderly people are. Please note – the term “caregiver” means the person with the most responsibility for caring for another person.

1. The caregiver prepares uncomfortably hot tubs of water for an elderly person to bathe in.
2. The caregiver takes money from the elderly person without asking.
3. The caregiver pressures the elderly person for control of the elderly person’s finances or assets
4. The caregiver takes the elderly person out of the house against their wishes.
5. The caregiver ignores the elderly person most of the time, seldom talking with him/her or listening to him/her.
6. The caregiver fails to feed the elderly person.
7. The caregiver shakes the elderly person by the shoulders.
8. The caregiver threatens to poison the elderly person’s food.
9. The caregiver hits the elderly person in the face.
10. The caregiver leaves the elderly person alone for long periods of time.
11. The caregiver misuses the elderly person’s funds.
12. The caregiver gives away the elderly person’s belongings without asking.
13. The caregiver reminds the elderly person how much of a burden he/she has become.
14. The caregiver does not give the elderly person their medication.
15. The caregiver fails to keep medical appointments for the elderly person.
16. The caregiver gives the elderly person tranquilizers in order to keep them subdued.
17. The caregiver strikes the elderly person with a wooden spoon.
18. The caregiver makes the elderly person sleep on a filthy old mattress.
19. The caregiver screams at the elderly person, calling him/her foul names.
20. The caregiver pressures the elderly person to move to a nursing home.
21. The caregiver tries to help the elderly person even when the elderly person doesn’t want help.
22. The caregiver does not ensure that the elderly person is clean.
23. The caregiver and the elderly person have difficulties getting along. The caregiver refuses to acknowledge the problem.
24. The caregiver manages the elderly person’s assets in a way that is inconsistent with the elderly person’s wishes.
25. The caregiver threatens to give away the elderly person’s possessions or pets

Response options

- a) Very serious problem
- b) Moderate problem
- c) Mild problem

Section 3: Adolescent to parent abuse

Q3.1: How familiar are you with the term “adolescent to parent abuse”?

1. Very familiar
2. Familiar
3. Not very familiar
4. Not at all familiar (never heard of this)

Q3.2: Please indicate whether you think each of the following items would be considered “normal” behaviour for an adult with an adolescent in their care.

1. It is normal to be afraid of the adolescent
2. It is normal to change behaviour to avoid conflict with the adolescent
3. It is normal to tip-toe around the adolescent to keep the peace
4. It is normal to create situations that the adolescent approves of
5. It is normal that the adolescent engages in ‘put downs’ to humiliate and embarrass the adult
6. It is normal that the adolescent threatens to leave home or harm themselves or another family member if the adult doesn’t do what they want.

Response options

- a. Strongly agree
- b. Agree
- c. Neither agree nor disagree
- d. Disagree
- e. Strongly disagree

Q3.3: Do you think there are any circumstances when it might be acceptable for an adolescent to abuse their parents?

1. Yes (please describe)
2. No

Q3.4: Have you ever been a victim of adolescent to parent abuse?

1. Yes
2. No

Q3.5: Have you ever witnessed another person experience adolescent to parent abuse?

1. Yes
2. No > skip to Q4.1

Q3.6: Did you ever try to intervene in any way?

1. Yes > skip to Q3.7b
2. No

Q3.7a: What was the MAIN reason that you didn’t intervene?

1. It was none of my business
2. I was frightened for my own safety
3. I didn’t think I could help the situation
4. Other (please specify)

>skip to Q3.9

Q3.7b: What was the MAIN reason that you intervened?

1. I wanted the violence to stop
2. I was afraid for the victim's safety
3. I thought what was happening was wrong
4. Other (please specify)

Q3.8: What did you do when you intervened? Select as many as apply

1. Called 000
2. Tried to reason with the aggressor
3. Tried to physically restrain the aggressor
4. Tried to get the victim away from the situation
5. Other (please specify)

Q3.9: Who was the victim of the violence (in relation to the perpetrator)?

1. Partner
2. Father
3. Mother
4. Brother
5. Sister
6. Child
7. Cousin
8. Nephew
9. Niece
10. Aunt
11. Uncle
12. Grandfather
13. Grandmother
14. Extended family member

Q3.10: Who was the perpetrator of the violence (in relation to the victim)?

1. Partner
2. Father
3. Mother
4. Brother
5. Sister
6. Child
7. Cousin
8. Nephew
9. Niece
10. Aunt
11. Uncle
12. Grandfather
13. Grandmother
14. Extended family member

Section 4: Violence against women

Q4.1: Do you regard stalking to be a form of violence against women? (ie. Repeatedly followed or watched at home or work)?

1. Yes, always
2. Yes, usually
3. Yes, sometimes
4. No
5. Don't know/Unsure

Q4.2: Do you regard stalking to be...

1. Very serious
2. Quite serious
3. Not that serious
4. Not at all serious
5. Don't know/Unsure

Q4.3: Do you regard harassment via repeated telephone calls to be a form of violence against women?

1. Yes, always
2. Yes, usually
3. Yes, sometimes
4. No
5. Don't know/Unsure

Q4.4: Do you regard harassment via repeated phone calls to be...

1. Very serious
2. Quite serious
3. Not that serious
4. Not at all serious
5. Don't know/Unsure

Q4.5: Do you regard harassment via repeated emails, text messages and the like to be a form of violence against women?

1. Yes, always
2. Yes, usually
3. Yes, sometimes
4. No
5. Don't know/Unsure

Q4.6: Do you regard harassment via repeated emails, text messages and the like to be...

1. Very serious
2. Quite serious
3. Not that serious

4. Not at all serious
5. Don't know/Unsure

The next few questions ask for your opinion on several issues relating to the sexual assault of women. Please remember there are no right or wrong answers, we are seeking your personal opinions.

Response options

- a) Strongly agree
- b) Agree
- c) Neither agree or disagree
- d) Disagree
- e) Strongly disagree

Q4.7: Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements.

1. Women are more likely to be raped by someone they know than by a stranger
2. Women RARELY make false claims of being raped
3. Women often say 'no' when they mean 'yes'
4. Women who are sexually harassed should sort it out themselves rather than report it
5. Women with disabilities who report rape or sexual assault are less likely to be believed than other women
6. Few people know how often women with disabilities experience rape or sexual assault
7. Women who are raped often ask for it
8. Rape results from men not being able to control their need for sex
9. A woman cannot be raped by someone she is in a sexual relationship with
10. A man is less responsible for rape if he is drunk or affected by drugs at the time
11. If a woman is raped while she is drunk or affected by drugs she is at least partly responsible
12. Women who are raped by their male partner, husband or boyfriend should report it to the police

Section 5: Your experiences with domestic and family violence

The final section of the survey will explore your own experiences with domestic or family violence. It is important to hear from people themselves if we are to understand the serious problem of violence or abuse in the home. Please understand that everyone participating in this survey is being asked the same questions. Some of the questions may not be applicable to you, but we still need to make sure that we ask all respondents the same questions. Your responses are important whether or not you have had any of these experiences.

You will be presented with a list of items and asked whether you have ever experienced any of these actions, whether you have experienced them in the last 12 months and whether you have done any of the listed items yourself. You will also be asked whom the action related to (e.g. spouse, parent, etc). Your responses will simply be a yes or no. You do not need to describe any experience of abuse you may have had and you are free to skip over any question that you would prefer not to answer (none of these questions require a response). Remember that all information provided is strictly confidential.

Q5.1: Has someone in your family ever done any of the following to you?

Response options (can select both 1&2)

- a) Yes, in the past 12 months
- b) Yes in the last 12 months AND at other times in my life

- c) Yes, in my lifetime but NOT in the last 12 months
- d) No, a family member has NEVER done this to me

Who MAINLY did this?

1. Partner/Spouse
2. Father
3. Mother
4. Brother
5. Sister
6. Child
7. Cousin
8. Nephew
9. Niece
10. Aunt
11. Uncle
12. Grandfather
13. Grandmother
14. Extended family member

Q5.1a: Tried to limit your contact with other family members or friends.

Q5.1b: Put you down or called you names to make you feel bad

Q5.1c: Told you they don't want you to talk to other people for no good reason (ie. controlling behaviour)

Q5.1d: Harmed or threatened to harm someone close to you

Q5.1e: Demanded to know who you are with and where you are at all times (ie. controlling behaviour)

Q5.1f: Deliberately damages or destroys your possessions or property

Q5.1g: Prevented you from knowing about / accessing household income for your personal items, even if you ask

Q5.1h: Controlled finances and not given enough money to you to run the home

Q5.1i: Demanded that you do what they want

Q5.1j: Acted like you are their personal servant (ie. controlling behaviour)?

Q5.1k: Threatened you with a fist or anything else

Q5.1l: Thrown something at you that hurt you

Q5.1m: Pushed, grabbed or shoved you in a way that hurt you

Q5.1n: Slapped you

Q5.1o: Kicked you, bit you or hit you with their fist

Q5.1p: Hit you with something

Q5.1q: Beaten you

Q5.1r: Choked or strangled you

Q5.1s: Used or threatened to use a gun, a knife or a similar weapon on you

Q5.1t: Forced you into any unwanted sexual activity

Q5.2: Have you ever done the following to someone in your family?

Response options (can select both 1&2)

- a) Yes, in the past 12 months
- b) Yes in the last 12 months AND at other times in my life
- c) Yes, in my lifetime but NOT in the last 12 months
- d) No, I have NEVER done this to a family member

Who did you MAINLY do this to?

- 1. Partner/Spouse
- 2. Father
- 3. Mother
- 4. Brother
- 5. Sister
- 6. Child
- 7. Cousin
- 8. Nephew
- 9. Niece
- 10. Aunt
- 11. Uncle
- 12. Grandfather
- 13. Grandmother
- 14. Extended family member

Q5.2a: Tried to limit their contact with other family members or friends

Q5.2b: Put someone down or called them names to make them feel bad

Q5.2c: Told them you don't want them to talk to other people (i.e. controlling behaviour)?

Q5.2d: Harmed or threatened to harm someone else that is close to them

Q5.2e: Demanded to know where they were and who they were with at all times (i.e. controlling behaviour)?

Q5.2f: Deliberately damaged or destroyed their possessions or property

Q5.2g: Prevented them from knowing about/ accessing household income for personal items, even if they ask

Q5.2h: Controlled the finances and not given enough money to another person to help run the home

Q5.2i: Demanded that they do what you want

Q5.2j: Treated them like they are your personal servant (ie. controlling behaviour)

Q5.2k: Threatened or harmed them with your fist or anything else

Q5.2l: Thrown something at someone and hurt them

Q5.2m: Pushed, grabbed or shoved someone in a way that hurt them

Q5.2n: Slapped someone

Q5.2o: Kicked, bit or hit someone with your fist

Q5.2p: Hit someone with something that hurt them

Q5.2q: Beaten someone

Q5.2r: Choked or strangled someone

Q5.2s: Used or threatened to use a gun, a knife, or a similar weapon on someone

Q5.2t: *Forced someone into any unwanted sexual activity*

Section 6 : Demographic information

We will now conclude the survey with a few demographic questions.

Q6.1: Are you:

1. Male
2. Female

Q6.2: What is your current age? Enter years.

Q6.3: What is your current marital status?

1. Single, never married
2. Widowed
3. Divorced
4. Separated
5. Married
6. De facto
7. Other 'live-in' relationship (including same sex relationship)

Q6.4: How many adults (people over 18) in total live at your residence? Please include yourself (response = 1 or more)

Q6.5: How many children under the age of 18 years live at this residence? (0 = none)

Q6.6: In which country were you born?

- | | |
|----------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Australia | 11. United States of America |
| 2. England | 12. Netherlands |
| 3. Scotland | 13. Switzerland |
| 4. Ireland | 14. Sweden |
| 5. New Zealand | 15. India |
| 6. China | 16. Malaysia |
| 7. Japan | 17. Philippines |
| 8. Germany | 18. Vietnam |
| 9. Greece | 19. South Africa |
| 10. Italy | 20. Other (specify below) |

Q6.7: What is your highest level of education? This includes complete or incomplete.

1. Pre-school
2. Infants/primary school
3. Secondary school
4. Technical or further educational institution (inc TAFE colleges)
5. University or other higher educational institution
6. No schooling
7. No response

Q6.8: How would you describe your current employment status?

1. Employed full-time
2. Employed part-time
3. Employed casual
4. Self employed
5. Unemployed
6. Retired
7. Student
8. Home Duties
9. Pensioner
10. Volunteer

Q6.9: What is your approximate annual combined household income (before tax)?

1. Less than \$30,000 per year (less than \$2,500/month)
2. \$30,001-\$50,000 per year (\$2,501 - \$4,200/month)
3. \$50,001 - \$70,000 per year (\$4,201 - \$5,800/month)
4. \$70,001 - \$100,000 per year (\$5,801 - \$8,300/month)
5. \$100,001 - \$150,000 per year (\$8,301 - \$12,500/month)
6. More than \$150,000 per year (more than \$12,500/month)
7. Don't know/No response

Q6.10: In which Australian State or Territory do you currently reside?

Australian Capital Territory

1. New South Wales
2. Northern Territory
3. Queensland
4. South Australia
5. Tasmania
6. Victoria
7. Western Australia

Q6.11: What is the postcode of your residence?