

### SF3.4: Family violence

#### *Definitions and methodology*

Family violence, also known as domestic violence, is defined as any violent act inflicted by one family member on another. It may occur between partners, by parents against children, by children against other children, by children against parents and by adult children against elderly parents. Here we consider violence between partners in an intimate relationship (marriage, cohabitation or dating) and to violence by parents against children. Family violence has many forms including: physical, sexual, emotional or economic abuse. It also includes neglect (passive abuse) which is mainly inflicted on children.

- *Physical violence*: hurting or trying to hurt another by pushing, hitting, kicking, slapping, throwing objects, strangling, threatening, injuring with a weapon or using other kind of physical force.
- *Sexual violence*: forcing another person to take part in a sexual act when the other does not give her/his consent, including (attempted) rape.
- *Emotional violence*: exposing the victim to humiliating or abusive behaviours, including extreme jealousy, intimidation, threat to harm children or others, threat of suicide, not allowing victims to see friends or family, stalking.
- *Economic violence*: control over money and other economic resources (sometimes included in emotional violence).
- *Neglect*: act or failure to act which presents an imminent risk of serious harm.

This indicator presents data on physical violence, sexual violence and (child) neglect. Emotional and economic violence, though one of the most common types of domestic violence (Schrötle, Martinez, *et al.*, 2006), are not included here because of numerous comparability constraints (see below). Although several OECD countries have conducted national surveys to examine family violence, here we present data of a few countries only because cross-national comparisons are far from straightforward.

Prevalence rates (percentage of people suffering from some form of domestic violence during the specified period) are presented for violent acts perpetrated by current and former partners. When available, data is presented for both women and men. Data are presented for two time periods, past twelve months (annual rates) and any time during adult life (lifetime rates). We use twelve month period rates as these provide estimates that are less affected by recall bias than those obtained using longer reference periods (e.g., five years<sup>1</sup>). However, we also present lifetime rates because, for this kind of events, annual rates capture a relatively small number of cases.

Data on violence against children comes from studies looking at attitudes towards and prevalence of corporal punishment. The design of these studies varies widely across countries, affecting cross-national comparisons. Table SF3.4.D describes results obtained in countries for which data is available and fairly comparable. In addition, we present death rates among children aged 0-19 years due to negligence, maltreatment or physical assault occurring at home.

Other relevant indicators: SF3.1: Marriage and divorce rate; SF3.3: Cohabitation rate and other forms of partnership; CO4.3: Substance abuse by young people; CO4.4: Teenage suicides; CO1.2: Life expectancy at birth.

<sup>1</sup> Canada collects data on a 5 year period.

Family violence is linked to a series of health outcomes (mental health and physical health) both in the short and in the long term (Martinez, Schröttle, *et al.*, 2005). For example, children who witness violence between parents or who are victims of parents' violence are at higher risk of experiencing behavioural problems (anxiety, depression, low self-esteem), of bullying other children, of achieving poor school performance, and of experiencing other negative outcomes (Bowes, Arseneault, *et al.*, 2009). Moreover, children who experience family violence tend to replicate these patterns with their partners and/or their own children, there appears to be intergenerational transmission of family violence (Laing and Bobic, 2002).

Different studies have shown that domestic violence has important public costs - some victims need assistance through medical care, mental health services, the police, others may lose paid work days or productivity at paid and/or unpaid work. Some countries (e.g., Australia, Chile, Switzerland, the US) have estimated the public costs associated with domestic violence. For example, the National Center for Injury Prevention and Control in the US estimated that in 2003 the cost of intimate partner violence against women was of around 8.3 billion USD a year. It is not possible to present cross-national figures because countries use different methodologies for producing these calculations, raising numerous comparability issues.

### *Key findings*

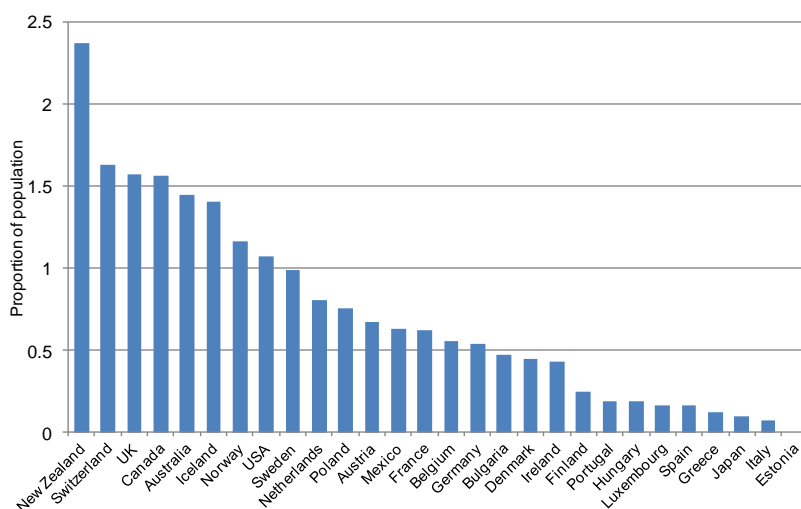
#### **Intimate Partner Violence**

Data on physical and sexual violence by an intimate partner (current and former) are presented using two data sources: the International Crime Victims Survey (ICVS) and a set of national surveys that allow for comparisons.

Chart SF3.4.A shows prevalence rates on physical assaults, threats and sexual offenses (rape, attempted rape or indecent assault) by an intimate partner using data from crime surveys (International Crime Victim Survey (ICVS) and European Crime and Safety Survey (2005)). Here physical violence is defined as incidents where respondents were attacked or threatened in a frightening way and sexual violence as sexual acts carried out in an offensive way. These violent acts could have been committed by a current or former partner. Figures suggest that in OECD countries intimate partner violence is in general low, with less than 2% of the population reporting such incidents, but nonetheless subject to significant cross-national variation. However, the size of these estimates should be read with caution. It is believed that crime surveys underestimate the extent of intimate partner violence, especially regarding sexual incidents (van Dijk, van Kesteren, Smit, 2008). In response to this drawback, the *International Violence Against Women Survey* (IAVWS) was developed with more detailed questions on partner (and non-partner) violence. In parallel, several countries have carried out national surveys to investigate different types of intimate partner violence.

Table SF3.4.A presents lifetime and annual prevalence rates for physical and sexual violence from an intimate partner (current or former). Data is divided in two sections for comparability purposes. The first section shows figures of countries participating in the *International Violence Against Women Survey* (IVAWS), a survey aimed at collecting international data of violence of men against women. The second section is withdrawn from an analysis of violence against women in Europe carried out by the Co-ordination Action on Human Rights Violation. This network reviewed prevalence data from national European surveys and produced comparable figures by harmonizing definitions and samples (Schröttle, Martinez, *et al.*, 2006).

**Chart SF3.4.A Prevalence of partner physical or sexual assault, women and men, around 2005.**



Note: Data refers to 2004 for Australia, Bulgaria, Canada, Estonia, Japan, Mexico, New Zealand, Norway, Poland and the US. For the rest data refer to 2005.

Source: International Crime and Victim Survey (2004-2005) and European Crime and Safety Survey (2005).

Lifetime (any time during adult life) prevalence rates for physical and/or sexual violence against women by an intimate partner ranged from 10% to almost 40%. The proportion of women reporting these violent acts was highest in the Czech Republic and lowest in Switzerland. In general, estimates for lifetime prevalence rates for physical violence were three times higher than estimates for sexual violence. Prevalence rates over the past 12 months present a similar picture in terms of differences between acts of violence and differences across countries. Annual rates of physical and/or sexual violence by an intimate partner ranged from 1% in Denmark and Switzerland to 9% in the Czech Republic. Family violence varies not only across but also within countries. For example, in the US statistics show that whites and blacks are more likely than Hispanics and persons of other races to experience family violence (US Department of Justice, 2005); in Australia indigenous women are more likely to be victims of family violence than their non-indigenous counterparts (Heenan, 2004).

**Table SF3.4.A Prevalence rates of intimate partner violence against women**

Year	Lifetime rates of intimate partner violence			One-year rates of intimate partner violence		
	Physical violence	Sexual violence	Physical and/or sexual violence	Physical violence	Sexual violence	Physical and/or sexual violence
<i>Source: International Violence Against Women Survey (IVAWS)</i>						
Australia	25	8	27	4	1	4
Czech Republic	35	11	37	8	2	9
Denmark	20	6	22	1	0	1
Poland	15	5	16	3	1	3
Switzerland	9	3	10	1	0	1
Note: Women aged 18-69 years						
<i>Source: Co-ordination Action on Human Rights Violations (CAHRV)</i>						
Sweden	21	6	21	5	1	-
Finland	28	12	30	7	3	-
France	-	-	-	3	1	-
Germany	28	7	29	-	-	-
Lithuania	33	8	38	-	-	-

Note: Women aged 20-59 years

Although there is little evidence on intimate partner violence against men, studies that have examined violence for both genders have shown that both women and men are abused or treated violently by their partners. Table SF3.4.B presents data of national studies that have collected data on family violence

against both sexes. Prevalence rates (lifetime and annual) indicate that, although rates are smaller for men than for women, men also suffer from violent acts inflicted by their partner. The observed gender gap should be read with caution because, among other things, men may be less likely to admit being victims of intimate partner violence (Schröttle, Martinez, *et al.*, 2006) or to report spousal violence to the police (Statistics Canada, 2005). A meta-analysis in the US looking at these issues showed that, although men were more likely than women to inflict an injury on their partner, women were slightly more likely than men to use physical aggression and to use this type of violence more frequently (Archer, 2002).

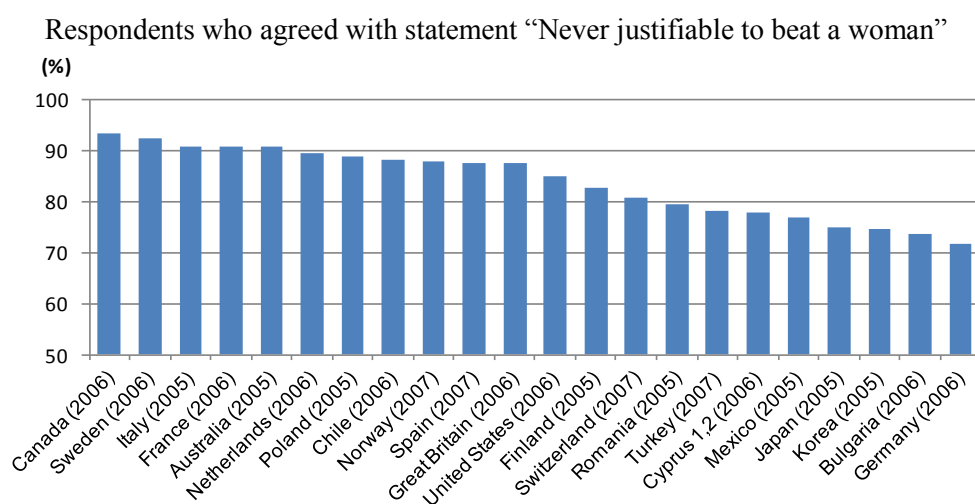
**Table SF3.4.B Prevalence rates of intimate partner violence against women and men**

Year	Lifetime rates of intimate partner violence			One-year rates of intimate partner violence		
	Physical violence	Sexual violence	Physical and/or sexual violence	Physical violence	Sexual violence	Physical and/or sexual violence
<b>Women</b>						
Canada	2004	-	-	-	-	2
UK	2004/2005	19	6	-	3	1
USA	1995-1996	22	8	26	1	0
<b>Men</b>						
Canada	2004	-	-	-	-	2
UK	2004/2005	11	1	-	2	1
USA	1995-1996	7	0	8	1	-

Notes: Canada: population aged 15 years +; UK: population aged 16-59 years; US: population aged 18 years +  
 Sources: Canada, General Social Survey (2004); British Crime Survey (2004); USA, National Violence Against Women Survey (1995-1996).

Chart SF3.4.B shows data on attitudes towards violence against women from a set of questions on justifiable social behaviours of the World Value Survey. Attitudinal data is presented to provide some insight into the general approval or disapproval of violent behaviours. The data here complements prevalence rates' estimates, which in general tend to be underreported. The chart below shows that more than 90% of respondents in Australia, Canada, France, Italy and Sweden agreed that it is never justifiable to beat a woman. However, in Germany, Japan and Korea the proportion of respondents agreeing with this statement was much lower, at around 70%.

**Chart SF3.4.B Attitudes towards violence against women**



Notes: 1) Footnote by Turkey: The information in this document with reference to « Cyprus » relates to the southern part of the Island. There is no single authority representing both Turkish and Greek Cypriot people on the Island. Turkey recognizes the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). Until a lasting and equitable solution is found within the context of United Nations, Turkey shall preserve its position concerning the "Cyprus issue".

2) Footnote by all the European Union Member States of the OECD and the European Commission: The Republic of Cyprus is recognized by all members of the United Nations with the exception of Turkey. The information in this document relates to the area under the effective control of the Government of the Republic of Cyprus.

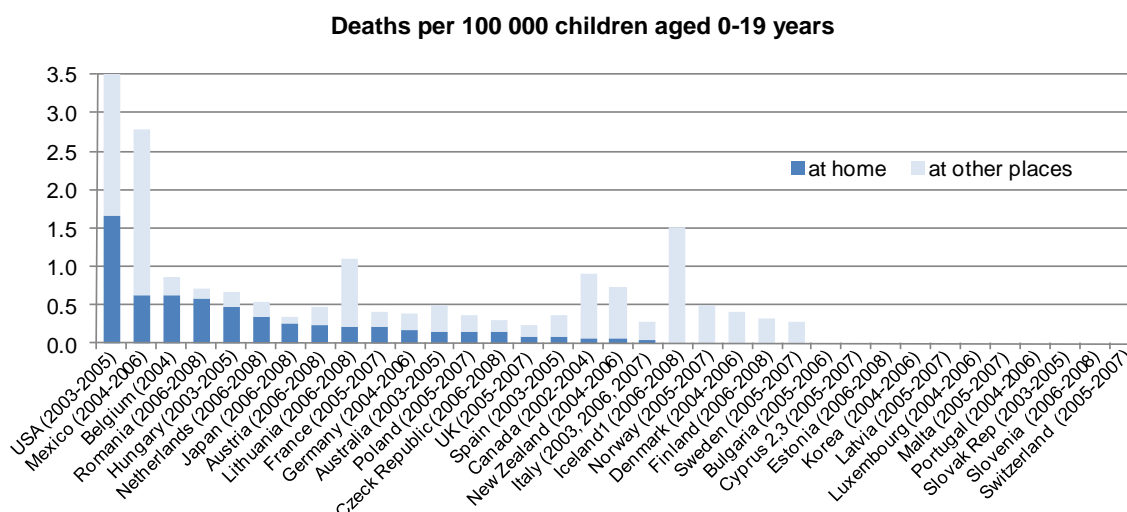
Source: World Value Survey 2004-2005

## Children and Domestic Violence

Chart SF3.4.C presents child death rates due to negligence, maltreatment and assault taking place at home and at other places (see also Table SF3.4.C). The figures show that death rates due to these causes vary widely across countries. The US has the highest child death rates followed closely by Mexico. By contrast, the Nordic countries, Luxembourg and Portugal have the lowest rates. On average, one in three child deaths take place at home. However, in the Nordic countries there are no registers of child deaths occurring at home. In addition, in some countries (Korea, Luxembourg, Portugal, the Slovak Republic and Switzerland) there are no registers of this kind of child deaths during the last years (between 2002 and 2008).

In the US, child death rates attributed to violent acts are three times higher than in other OECD countries (except for Mexico). When grouping data by geographical regions, it is possible to observe that the number of child deaths in the US, followed by Mexico, stand out from the rest (Chart SF3.4.D). Friedman (2005) observed that compared with other nations, the US has the highest rate of child homicides and filicides (murder of son or daughter). It is possible that part of this gap is explained by the US high quality system for identifying causes of death but other factors also influence this comparatively high rate.

**Chart SF3.4.C: Child death rates due to negligence, maltreatment or physical assault, children 0-19 years old, 2006-2008 (or latest three years available)**



Note: Data sorted in decreasing order of deaths occurring at home. 1) Death rate for Iceland is an anomaly. There was one death due to these causes but death rate is high due to the low number of population in this age group; 2) and 3) see notes 1) and 2) in Chart SF3.4.B.

Source: Secretariat calculations using WHO mortality database.

**Table SF3.4.C: Average annual child deaths due to negligence, maltreatment and abuse.**

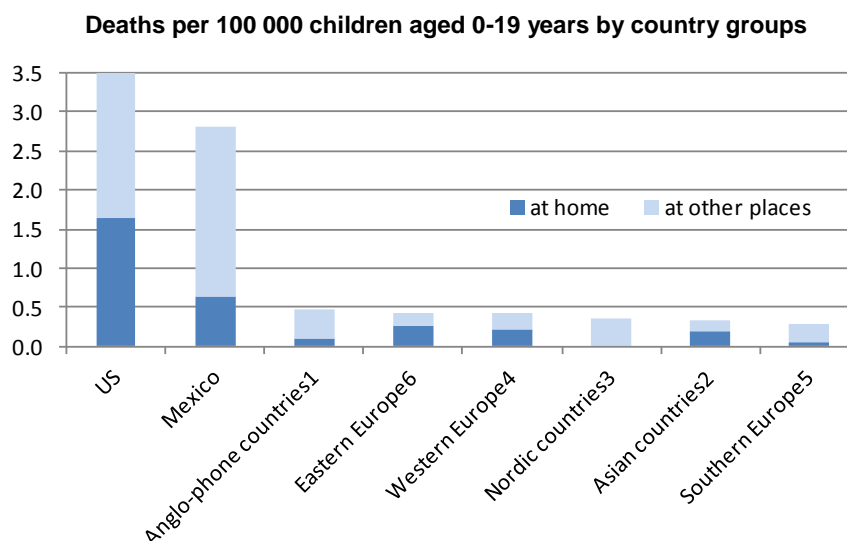
Country	Years	Population of children 0 to 19 years old	Average annual child deaths due to negligence, maltreatment or assault	Average annual child deaths due to negligence, maltreatment or assault occurring at home	Proportion of child deaths due to negligence, maltreatment or assault occurring at home (%)
US	(2003-2005)	81,739,248	2991	1350	45
Mexico	(2004-2006)	43,086,903	1207	269	22
Japan	(2006-2008)	23,091,000	80	60	74
Canada	(2002-2004)	7,875,112	71	6	8
Germany	(2004-2006)	16,343,013	65	27	42
France	(2005-2007)	15,288,560	62	32	51
UK	(2005-2007)	14,736,807	35	12	36
Romania	(2006-2008)	4,693,800	34	28	83
Israel	(2003-2005)	2,536,736	34	9	27
Poland	(2005-2007)	8,708,423	33	13	40
Italy	(2005-2007)	11,306,337	32	5	16
Spain	(2003-2005)	8,601,892	31	7	22
Australia	(2004-2006)	5,421,694	27	8	30
Belgium	2004	2,411,249	21	15	71
Netherlands	(2006-2008)	3,895,953	21	14	65
Hungary	(2003-2005)	2,197,341	15	11	71
Austria	(2006-2008)	1,770,673	9	4	50
Lithuania	(2006-2008)	768,480	9	2	19
New Zealand	(2004-2006)	1,201,880	9	1	8
Czech Rep	(2006-2008)	2,121,812	6	3	47
Sweden	(2005-2007)	2,174,040	6	0	0
Denmark	(2004-2006)	1,332,361	5	0	0
Norway	(2005-2007)	1,218,578	4	0	0
Finland	(2006-2008)	1,225,428	4	0	0
Iceland	(2006-2008)	89,864	1	0	0
Bulgaria	(2004-2006)	1,576,136	0	0	0
Cyprus <sup>2,3</sup>	(2005-2007)	194,388	0	0	0
Estonia	(2006-2008)	299,167	0	0	0
Korea	(2004-2006)	12,500,000	0	0	0
Latvia	(2005-2007)	502,399	0	0	0
Luxembourg	(2004-2006)	115,812	0	0	0
Malta	(2005-2007)	96,059	0	0	0
Portugal	(2004-2006)	2,229,186	0	0	0
Slovak Rep	(2003-2005)	1,337,092	0	0	0
Slovenia	(2006-2008)	398,430	0	0	0
Switzerland	(2005-2007)	1,632,992	0	0	0

1) The data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

2) and 3) See notes 1 and 2 for Chart SF3.4.B

Source: Secretariat calculations using WHO mortality data

**Chart SF3.4.D: Child death rates due to negligence, maltreatment or physical assault, children 0-19 years old, by geographical region 2006-2008 (or latest three years available)**



**Notes:**

- 1) Anglo-phone countries: Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the UK;
- 2) Asian countries: Japan and Korea;
- 3) Nordic countries: Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden;
- 4) Western Europe: Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Luxembourg, Netherlands and Switzerland;
- 5) Southern Europe: Cyprus, Italy, Malta, Portugal and Spain;
- 6) Eastern Europe: Bulgaria, the Czech Rep, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, the Slovak Rep and Slovenia.

Source: Secretariat calculations using WHO mortality data

Table SF3.4.D presents data on attitudes and prevalence of corporal punishment towards children. These figures need to be interpreted with great caution as they are not fully comparable because of methodology differences (e.g., questionnaires use different wording, age of children differs, respondents may include parents or adult population). Nevertheless, they provide an overview of parental discipline in OECD countries. They suggest that in most countries a significant number of parents find mild forms of corporal punishment (e.g., smacking, slapping or spanking) as acceptable practices to discipline children. The exceptions include Sweden and Denmark, where few parents find physical punishment acceptable. In Denmark, although not shown here, 57% of parents are against the use of corporal punishment. In addition, these studies show that a majority of parents admit to use moderate forms of physical punishment (smacking or spanking on the buttocks) and only a minority admit to use severe physical punishment (e.g., kicking, beating or hitting with an object).

About one third of OECD countries have some type of specific legislation concerning family violence (Table SF3.4.E) and a few others have legislation that is being reviewed in order to address this issue. Additionally, half of OECD countries have enacted laws prohibiting the use of corporal punishment by parents. Sweden was the first country to abolish corporal punishment at home (in 1979), followed by other Nordic countries such as Finland (1983) and Norway (1987).

**Table SF3.4.D Attitudes and prevalence of child corporal punishment**

	Attitudes towards corporal punishment		Prevalence of corporal punishment	
	Year	Acceptable	Unacceptable / Never acceptable	Year
Australia <sup>1</sup>	2006	41% smacking is effective in shaping children's behaviour; 69% agreed sometimes necessary to smack a naughty child		2007 71% smacked their children occasionally; 43% were likely or very likely to use a single smack as a punishment
Austria				1991- 29% of mothers and 26% of fathers occasionally resorted to violence in 1992 bringing up their children
Belgium	2004	77% acceptable for parents to smack their children (17% always acceptable and 60% in some circumstances)	19% unacceptable in any circumstances	
Canada	2004	64% support use of force such as spanking by parents to discipline a child		2002 50% of parents reported they had "inflicted light corporal punishment, like a slap" on their children; 6% reported they had "inflicted painful corporal punishment"
Chile				2002 Mothers report using physical punishment as follows: 51% spanked buttocks with hand, 39% shook child, 27% twisted ear, 24% pulled hair, 18% hit with object on buttocks, 13% slapped face or head, 12% hit with knuckles, 3% pinched child.
Cyprus <sup>2,3</sup>	2000	15% smacking is a socially acceptable method of child discipline.		
Denmark	1997			2000 12% of 3 year-olds were spanked "sometimes" or "seldom"
Estonia	2000	41% support use of corporal punishment		
Finland	2007	25% acceptable physical discipline of children at least in exceptional situations		2007 73% of women and 68% of men reported they had sometimes used physical punishment.
France				1999 51% of parents hit children often, 33% hit them rarely, and only 16% had never hit them.
Germany				2001 54% of parents frequently used "minor" corporal punishment (such as beatings and spankings); 17% frequently used "serious" corporal punishment; 28% of parents rarely resorted to disciplinary sanctions and "as far as possible" did not use corporal punishment.
Ireland	1999	45% agreed with the statement "I see nothing wrong with slapping a child who misbehaves"		
Italy	2004	69% acceptable for parents to smack their children (7% always acceptable and 62% in some circumstances).	25% unacceptable in any circumstances	2001 Incidence of severe violence was 8%
Korea				2001 45% of parents reported that they had hit, kicked or beaten their children.
Mexico				2003 55% of mothers and 29% of fathers reported using physical discipline
New Zealand	2001	80% of parents believed smacking with an open hand should be legally permissible		2004 51% of parents reported using physical discipline, 45% smacking on the bottom
Poland	2001	54% considered beating children with a belt acceptable, and 77% acceptable to shout at and threaten children.		
Portugal	2004	83% acceptable for parents to smack their children (16% always acceptable and 67% in some circumstances).	13% unacceptable in any circumstances	
Romania				2000 47% of parents admitted using corporal punishment; 16% beating their children with an object
Slovak Rep	2002	98.6% agree with a "smack on the buttock from time to time", 75.3% believed that parents should be allowed to use "occasional slaps"		
Spain	2004	26% necessary to smack children to impose discipline; 59% stated it may be sometimes necessary to smack a child		
Sweden	1999	10% support corporal punishment		
Switzerland				2004 Estimates show that 13,000 children under 30 months of age had been slapped; nearly 18,000 had been pulled by the hair and about 1,700 hit with objects.
UK	2003	10% always acceptable to smack a child 50% acceptable in some circumstances	40% never acceptable to smack a child	1998- 58% of parents use minor physical punishment (slapping and smacking) during the past year. 9% used severe physical punishment in the last year.
US	2002	65% approved of spanking children		2001 Mothers report using physical punishment as follows: 47% spanked buttocks with hand, 9% shook child, 21% hi child with object on buttocks, 4% slapped face or head, 5% pinched child.

Note: 1) Data from Australia concerns a survey of parents in Queensland; 2) and 3) see notes 1) and 2) in Chart SF3.4.B. Sources: Korea and US (prevalence), WHO (2002); Mexico, ENDIREH 2003; UK, ESRC (2003); Others: <http://www.endcorporalpunishment.org>



**Table SF3.4.E Legislation on domestic violence**

	Domestic violence	Marital rape
Sweden	1	1
Cyprus <sup>4,5</sup>	1	1
New Zealand	1	1
Austria	1	3
Ireland	1	1
Mexico	1	1
United States	1	1
Chile	1	0
Japan	1	0
Korea	1	0
Turkey	1	0
Bulgaria	2	1
Italy <sup>6</sup>	2	3
Greece	2	0
Denmark	3	1
Finland	3	1
Germany	3	1
Norway	3	1
Spain	3	1
Netherlands	3	1
Portugal	3	3
Hungary	3	3
Romania	3	0
Canada <sup>7</sup>	3	1
Estonia	3	3
Slovak Republic	3	0
Poland <sup>8</sup>	3	1
Czech Republic	3	3
Australia <sup>9</sup>	3	1
France	3	1
United Kingdom	3	1
Belgium	3	3
Switzerland	3	3
Malta	3	0
Iceland	0	3
Latvia	0	0
Luxembourg	0	0
Slovenia	0	3
Lithuania	0	0

Notes: Data sorted according to specified legislation in domestic violence; 0) no provisions or unknown; 1) specific legislation; 2) specific legislation, being planned, drafted or reviewed; 3) non-specific legislation; 4) and 5) see notes 1) and 2) in Chart SF3.4.B; 6) Italy -1996 the Supreme Court in Rome declared all corporal punishment to be unlawful; this is not yet confirmed in legislation; 7) Canada -2004 Criminal Code allows parents the use of corporal punishment to children aged 2-12 years, but not using objects and not involving slaps or blows to the head; 8) Poland - corporal punishment prohibited at home in 1997 constitution, but not confirmed in law; 9) Australia - Laws vary across the jurisdictions, which may result in women and children being subject to different levels of protection depending upon where they live. In 2002 New South Wales prohibits force to head or neck of child or any part of body where likely to cause harm lasting more than a short period.

Sources: Domestic violence and marital rape: UNIFEM (2003);

### *Comparability and data issues*

The *International Crime Victim Survey* and the *European Crime and Safety Survey* collect data on both men and women using a standardised questionnaire. This, in principle, should allow for cross-national comparisons. In the last wave of data collection (2004/05) questions on physical assaults, threats and sexual offenses (rape, attempted rape or indecent assault) were asked of both female and male respondents. However, the small number of cases reporting physical assault or sexual offenses by an intimate partner did not allow disaggregating these data by sex.

Several countries have conducted national surveys to examine family violence. However, comparisons of prevalence rates face numerous constraints including methodological, cultural and contextual aspects. The methodological aspects refer to the following issues: definition of violence, wording of surveys, diversity of target population (age range, partnership status), time periods (past 12 months, past 5 years, any time during adult life), perpetrator (current partner or former partner), method of interviewing (face to face, postal, telephone, self-administered), forms of violence (physical, emotional, sexual, economic, threats) and grouping of violence variables (see Martinez *et al.* 2005). However, even when methodologies between surveys are comparable, cross-national comparisons are not straightforward. Cultural differences or social acceptability of violent acts can limit the interpretation of these data. For example, it is possible that in countries with notions of gender equity more embedded, respondents are more inclined to report acts of domestic violence (Van Dijk *et al.*, 2008).

Data on prevalence of corporal punishment were taken from an international review on the use of violence as a disciplinary method carried out by End Corporal Punishment Organisation (see [www.endofcorporalpunishment.org](http://www.endofcorporalpunishment.org)); a WHO report on Violence and Health for Korea and the US; the Encuesta Nacional de la Dinamica de las Relaciones en los Hogares (ENDIREH 2003) for Mexico; and the National Study of parents, children and discipline in Britain (1998-2001) for the UK. Data from Australia concerns a survey of parents in Queensland, conducted by the Parenting and Family Support Centre, University of Queensland. Similar to intimate partner violence, cultural aspects have to be considered when interpreting corporal punishment data as this greatly influences answers from respondents.

Child deaths were drawn from WHO mortality database, which in turn, collects data from national vital registration systems. The underlying cause of death is defined in accordance with the rules of the International Classification of Diseases: “the disease or injury which initiated the train of morbid events leading directly to death, or the circumstances of the accident or violence which produced the fatal injury”. Procedures for determining causes of death may vary across countries and homicides may be missed in countries with less advanced systems to register and prosecute these incidents. Here we present deaths of children aged 0 to 19 attributed to negligence, maltreatment and assault both at home and at other places. Mortality rates were estimated by dividing the total number of deaths by the total population and averaging data over the last three years available (unweighted averages).

Sources and further reading: Archer, J. (2002), “Sex differences in aggression between heterosexual partners: A meta-analytic review”, *Psychological Bulletin*, 126, pp. 651–681; Bowes, L., L., Arseneault, *et al.*, (2009), “School, Neighborhood, and Family Factors Are Associated With Children's Bullying Involvement: A Nationally Representative Longitudinal Study”, *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 48 (5), pp. 545-553; Council of Europe (2006), “Combating violence against women. Stocktaking study on the measures and actions taken in Council of Europe Member States”, Council of Europe. Strasbourg; Economic and Social Research Council (2003). “The national study of parents, children and discipline in Britain: key findings”, ESRC, London; European Crime and Safety Consortium (EUCS). Gallup Europe. Brussels (<http://www.gallup-europe.be/euics>); Friedman, S.H., S.M., Horowitz and P.J Resnick (2005), “Child Murder by Mothers: A critical analysis of the current state of knowledge and a research agenda”, *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 162, pp. 1578-1587; Heenan, M. (2004), “International Violence Against Women Survey. Findings from the Australian component”, *ACSSA Newsletter* 6, Australian Institute of Family Studies, Melbourne; Laing, L and M., Bobic (2002), “Literature review. Economic Costs of Domestic Violence”, University of New South Wales, Australia.

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