# ORIGINAL ARTICLE

# **Domestic Violence Against Women: Systematic Review** of Prevalence Studies

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**Abstract** To systematically review the worldwide evidence on the prevalence of domestic violence against women, to evaluate the quality of studies, and to account for variation in prevalence between studies, using consistent definitions and explicit, rigorous methods. Systematic review of prevalence studies on domestic violence against women. Literature searches of 6 databases were undertaken for the period 1995 to 2006. Medline, Embase, Cinahl, ASSIA, ISI, and International Bibliography of the Social Sciences were searched, supplemented by hand searching of the reference lists from studies retrieved and specialized interdisciplinary journals on violence. A total of 134 studies in English on the prevalence of domestic violence against women, including women aged 18 to 65 years, but excluding women with specific disabilities or diseases, containing primary, empirical research data, were included in the systematic review. Studies were scored on eight predetermined criteria and stratified according to the total quality score. The majority of the sudies were conducted in North America (41%), followed by Europe (20%). 56% of studies were population-based, and 17% were carried out

either in primary or community health care settings. There was considerable heterogeneity both between and within geographical locations, health care settings, and study quality The prevalence of lifetime domestic violence varies from 1.9% in Washington, US, to 70% in Hispanic Latinas in Southeast US. Only 12% scored a maximum of 8 on our quality criteria, with 27% studies scored 7, and 17% scored 6. The mean lifetime prevalence of all types of violence was found to be highest in studies conducted in psychiatric and obstetric/gynecology clinics. Results of this review emphasize that violence against women has reached epidemic proportions in many societies. Accurate measurement of the prevalence of domestic violence remains problematic and further culturally sensitive research is required to develop more effective preventive policies and programs.

Keywords Domestic violence · Women · Prevalence · Review

# Introduction

Violence against women includes all verbal, physical, and sexual assaults which violate a woman's physical body, sense of self and sense of trust, regardless of age, race, ethinicity, or country (Campbell 1995). Violence against women has been identified as a major public health and human rights issue (Joachim 2000), and has been estimated by the World Health Organization (WHO) to account for between 5-20% of healthy years of life lost in women aged 15 to 44 (WHO 1997).

Twenty years ago, violence against women was not considered an issue worthy of international attention or concern. This began to change in the 1980s, as women's groups were organized locally and internationally to

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demand attention to the physical, psychological, and economic abuse of women. Gradually, violence against women has come to be recognized as a legitimate human rights issue and a significant threat to women's health and well being (Ellsberg and Heise 2005). The process began in Europe and North America, but even in the United States, where this trend was most apparent, it took 20 years for rising awareness to lead to legislation and to potentially effective preventive measures. Only in the early 1990s were comprehensive laws enforced and effective resources allocated to deal with gender violence (Gelles 1997).

Worldwide, domestic violence is as serious a cause of death and incapacity among women aged 15-49 years as cancer, and a greater cause of ill health than traffic accidents and malaria combined (The World Bank 1993). In addition to causing injury, violence increases women's long-term risks of a number of other health problems, including chronic pain, physical disability, drug and alcohol abuse, and depression (Heise et al. 1999). Secondary to the biopsychosocial effects of battering are the high costs of such violence. Abused women have more than double the number of medical visits, an 8-fold greater mental healthcare usage, and an increased hospitalization rate compared to non-abused women (Wisner et al. 1999). The WHO multi-country study on women's health and domestic violence has recently confirmed significant associations between lifetime experiences of partner violence and self reported poor health (Ellsberg et al. 2008).

Prevalence studies of violence against women report wide variations in levels of violence within and between health care settings. The reported lifetime prevalence of physical or sexual violence, or both, varied from 15% to 71% among the countries studied in the WHO multi-country study (Garcia-Moreno et al. 2006). Few studies have used standard methods to derive comparative prevalence figures. The World-Safe initiative represents a successful model that has been used in five countries (Brazil, Chile, Egypt, Philippines, and India) to study intimate partner violence against women and children (Sadowski et al. 2004). The WHO multi-country study uses another model, which has been applied in 10 different countries. While confirming that physical and sexual partner violence against women is widespread, the variation in prevalence within and between study settings emphasizes that this violence is not inevitable, and needs to be addressed.

Over the last 10 years, a number of prevalence surveys on intimate partner violence has been published from around the world. However, despite a number of initiatives, such as the European Network on Conflict, Gender, and Violence, the launching of a European Society of Criminology and efforts to develop an international survey on violence against women (Hagemann-White 2001), information from these studies has not been systematically collated and analyzed. The aim of

this systematic review is to systematically summarize the worldwide evidence on the prevalence of domestic violence against women, to evaluate the quality of studies, and to try to account for variation in prevalence rates between studies.

#### Methods

## Literature Searches

Parallel literature searches of 6 databases (Medline, Embase, Cinahl, ASSIA, ISI, and International Bibliography of the Social sciences) were undertaken for the period1995–2006. The reference lists from retrieved studies and specilaized interdisciplinary journals in violence (Violence Against Women, Journal of Interpersonal Violence) were hand searched to look for further studies that might not have been retrieved by the database searches. Authors of unpublished studies, e.g., PhD theses, were contacted to obtain copies of their studies. We contacted experts in the field before and during the process to obtain feedback and advice with regard to methodology and analysis. All citations were exported into Reference Manager software (version 11). Searches included MeSH and text words terms, with combinations AND OR Boolean operator (Box 1).

Box 1: words used in the search

1. Domestic violence. 13. Frequency. 14. Prevalenc\$.tw. 2. Spouse abuse. 3. Battered women. 15. Incidenc\$.tw. 4. Partner abuse. 16. Propotion\$.tw. 5. Domestic violence.tw. 17. Frequenc\$.tw. 6. Spouse abuse.tw. 18. 10 or 11 or 12 or 13 or 14 or 15 or 16 or 17. 7. Battered women.tw. 19. Women. 20. Wom#n.tw. 8. Partner abuse.tw. 9. 1 or 2 or 3 or 4 or 5 or 6 21. 19 or 20. or 7 or 8. 22. 9 and 18 and 21. Prevalence. 23. Limit 22 to "all adult 11. Incidence. (19 plus years)" 12. Proportion. 24. Limit 23 to female.

We included studies on the prevalence of domestic violence against women conducted between 1995 and 2006, published in English and including women aged between 18 and 65 years. We excluded studies on women with special disabilities or certain complicated diseases e.g., HIV, women in places of refuge, case reports, reviews, and non-English studies. We also excluded studies conducted on women aged >65 years and on violence against pregnant



women, where a large number of studies was found, which possibly merit a separate review.

Our searches identified 1,653 primary studies, which were reduced to 356 after screening the titles and abstracts to assess whether the contents were likely to be within the scope of the review. We also checked for duplicates between databases, accounting for 180 (10.9%) of the total studies. A further 176 studies were excluded because they were largely naratives about domestic violence cases, studies of risk factors rather than prevalence or were predominately review articles. A final total of 134 studies was selected for further analysis (see Fig. 1).

# Quality Assessment

These studies was assessed using structured guidelines (Loney et al. 2000), and were scored on eight quality criteria as follows: (1) specification of the target population, (2) use of an adequate sampling method (e.g., random, cluster), (3) adequate sample size (>300 subjects), (4) adequate response rate (>66%), (5) valid, repeatable case definition, (6) measurment with valid instrument, (7) reporting of confidence intervals or standard errors, and (8) attempts to reduce observer bias. We recorded the date of the study, the prevalence (and/or incidence) estimates of domestic violence (including life-time and/or current estimates), and the type of violence reported. These variables

**Fig. 1** Flow chart summarising literature review

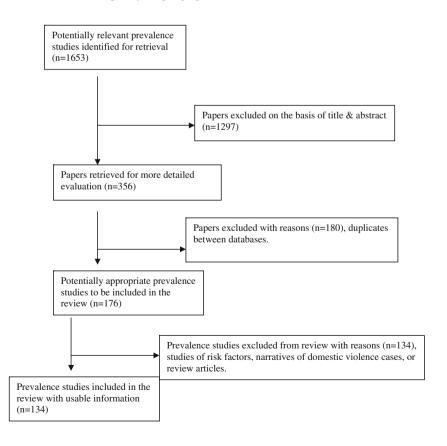
were coded from each study as categorical or continuous. After quality assessment was completed, studies were stratified according to the total score from 1–8.

## Data Synthesis

The study data were coded and analyzed using SPSS Version 11. Meta-analyses were conducted in STATA version 10. Continuous & categorical variables were expressed as frequencies and percentages, and are summarized statistically in tables and are presented in graphic form. Prevalence estimates in the figures represent the simple weighted *mean* prevalence for all the studies done in each continent.

A number of the studies we have included are described in more than one publication. In some cases, additional analysis conducted after completion of a study was reported in additional publications. In these cases, we used both reports to inform the data extraction. Conflict in quality scoring of the included studies was resolved by consensus between the authors (SA & RJ)

Forest plots were produced to give a graphical representation of the studies and to convey the extent of heterogeneity between prevalence estimates. Heterogeneity between prevalence estimates was tested using a chi-squared test. Sensitivity analyses were used to determine whether any heterogeneity found could be due to differing study methodologies, study quality or geographical differences.





#### Results

Most of the studies (41%) were conducted in North America, followed by 20% in Europe, 16% in Asia, 11% in Africa, and 5% in the Middle East (Table 1). Eighty three studies (56%) were population-based, twenty five (17%) were conducted in primary care, 12% in emergency care settings and others in obstetrics and gynaecology, paediatric, psychiatric and other hospital clinics. The sample size was over 300 in 84% of studies. Approximately 60% used a form of randomisation in their sampling (Table 2). In 41% of studies a measurement instrument was developed by the researchers using focus groups or by reference to other validated measuring instruments, although a few did not report about the instrument used. The most commonly used instrument was the Conflict Tactic Scale (16.9%), followed by the Abuse Assessment Screen (14%) and the WHO instrument (13%). The most frequently used method of collecting the data was face-to-face interviews (55%), followed by selfadministered questionnaires (30%), and telephone interviews (13%).

Only eighteen studies (12%) scored a maximum of 8 on our quality criteria, with 33 (27%) studies scoring 7, 25 (17%) scoring 6 (Table 3).

Table 1 Summary of frequencies of settings and continents

Frequency	%
Geographical setting	
60 studies in North America	40.5
29 studies in Europe	19.6
23 studies in Asia	15.5
16 studies in Africa	10.8
8 studies in Middle East	5.4
5 studies in Australia	3.4
4 studies in South America	2.7
Healthcare setting	
83 Population studies	56.1
25 studies primary care	16.9
18 studies in emergency care	12.2
8 studies in Obst/Gyn clinic	5.4
5 studies in hospital setting	3.4
3 studies in pediatric clinic	2
2 studies in psychiatric clinic	1.4
2 studies in college students	1.4
One study in surgical clinic	0.7
One study in HMO	0.7
Methods	
80 population cross-sectional studies	54.1
57 clinical cross-sectional studies	38.5
5 clinical cohort studies	3.4
4 population cohort studies	2.7

Table 2 Summary of frequencies of sampling, methods, and instruments used

Frequency	%
Sampling	
124 studies >300 sample size	83.8
24 studies <300 sample size	16.2
88 studies used randomization	59.5
54 studies used other methods	36.5
Instruments	
60 studies used their own instrument	40.5
25 studies used CTS	16.9
21 studies used AAS	14.2
19 studies used WHO instrument	12.8
6 studies used PVS	4.1
4 studies used ISA	2.7
3 studies used NorAQ	2
2 studies used women's health questionnaire	1.4
One study used DVI	0.7
One study used SVAWS	0.7
One study used BRFSS	0.7
One study used WorldSAFE	0.7
Contact with subjects	
82 studies used face-to-face interview	55.4
44 studies used self-administered	29.7
19 studies used telephone interview	12.8

The mean lifetime prevalence for physical, sexual and emotional violence by country is shown in Fig. 2. The highest levels of physical violence were seen in Japanese immigrants to North America (about 47%), who also had high levels of emotional violence (about 78%) along with respondents studied in South America, Europe, and Asia (37–50%).

The mean lifetime prevalence of physical violence was found to be highest (30–50%) in studies conducted in psychiatric and obstetric/gynecology clinics (Fig. 3). The highest rates of sexual violence were found in studies conducted in psychiatric, obstetric, and gynecology clinics (30–35%) and, for emotional violence, the highest rates

**Table 3** Summary of frequencies of qulaity score

Frequency	%
18 studies scored 8	12.2
33 studies scored 7	22.3
25 studies scored 6	16.9
34 studies scored 5	23
27 studies scored 4	18.2
8 studies scored 3	5.4
One study scored 2	0.7
2 studies scored 1	1.4



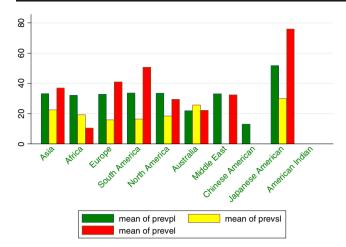


Fig. 2 Mean of lifetime prevalence of physical, sexual, and emotional violence by continent or country. *Note*: prevpl=prevalence of life time physical violence, prevel=prevalence of life time emotional violence, prevsl=prevalence of life time sexual violence

were found in accident and emergency and psychiatric departments (65–87%).

Forest plots of prevalence estimates and their confidence intervals indicate that there is a large amount of heterogeneity between studies. Heterogeneity was formally tested and confirmed by using the chi-squared test. This test showed strong evidence of heterogeneity (p<0.001). Sensitivity analyses found that even in studies that: used a standardized methodology (WHO), scored high in their quality criteria, were population-based (Fig. 3, 4, 5, and 6), and in studies that were done in the same continents (Dickers 2002), heterogeneity was a constant finding. Pooled estimates across geographical locations and settings were not calculated due to the extreme heterogeneity and the difficulty in interpreting them.

## Discussion

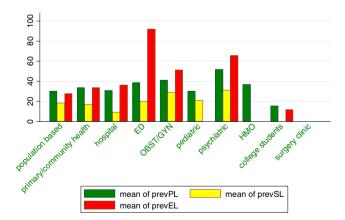
The results of this review emphasize that violence against women has reached epidemic proportions in many societies and suggests that no racial, ethnic, or socio-economic group is immune. However, we have also highlighted substantial differences in methodologies, sample sizes, sampling periods, study populations, and the types of violence studied. For all types of violence there was a consistent and a significant heterogeneity between studies, even in studies that appeared to use standardized methods (e.g., WHO multi-country study), population studies, and studies that scored high on our quality criteria. Age, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status were not consistently documented, making comparisons and evaluations of generalizability difficult. However, the WHO Multi-country study was an important attempt to collect internationally comparable statistics through the use of standardized survey methods.

Prevalence of violence has been assumed to be higher in clinical settings than in population samples (Campbell 2002), because it is assumed that health care utilization is higher among victims of abuse (Plichta 1992). For example, high prevalence rates have been measured in specific patient groups, for example at gynecology clinics in patients with severe premenstrual syndrome (PMS) or pelvic pain (Golding et al. 2000, Walling et al. 1994). This observation is consistent with the findings in our review, where the highest figures for violence were found in psychiatric, obstetrics and gynecology, and emergency clinic settings.

Our review highlights several important factors involved in the epidemiology of domestic violence against women.

- Surveys may not measure the actual number of women who have been abused, but rather, the number of women who are willing to disclose abuse. As with all self-reported disclosure, it is possible that results are biased by either over-reporting or under-reporting. In most studies, however, little evidence of over-reporting has been found (Koss 1993).
- 2) The meaning of violence varies from culture to culture, and sometimes within the same culture (Krauss 2006). Women from Asian cultures are brought up in a belief system that stresses the greater need of the family over the needs of individual members (Rydstrom 2003). Although women in the poorest of nations are probably most inclined to believe that men are justified in beating their wives, in all settings, in developed and developing countries, abused women tend to hold more beliefs which justify violence against them (Fagan and Browne 1994).

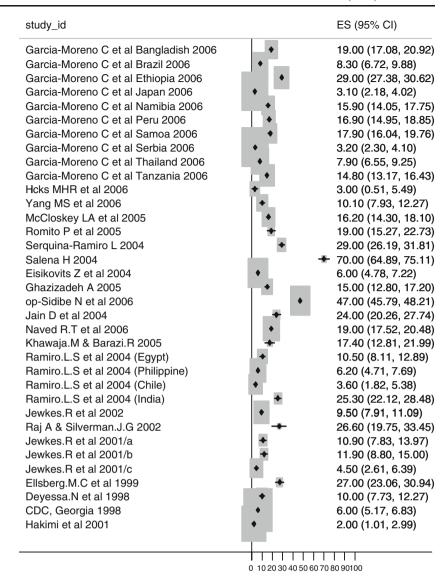
Fagan and Browne point out that, in classifying respondents as victims, a particular interpretation is placed on these responses, which may ignore important differences in the interpretation of 'assault' and of behaviors which



**Fig. 3** Mean of lifetime prevalence of physical, sexual, and emotional violence by setting. *Note*: prevpl=prevalence of life time physical violence, prevel=prevalence of life time emotional violence, prevsl=prevalence of life time sexual violence



Fig. 4 Forest plot of current physical violence studies



constitute violence. However, not all women who suffer abuse identify with the socially constructed image of a 'battered woman (Mahoney 1991). It is not only important to learn whether respondents have experienced any of the particular behaviors that we define as violent or abusive, but also to understand to what degree they share these labels with us. Many important social, political, and economic factors affect women's lives, other than the cultural practices that receive so much attention in relation to violence. These include poverty, inequalities, new articulations of patriarchies in specific regions, and the legacies of colonialism and racism (Sokoloff and Pratt 2005).

In Arab and Islamic countries, domestic violence is not yet considered a major concern, despite its increasing frequency and serious consequences. Domestic violence may be seen as a private matter and a potentially justifiable response to misbehavior on the part of the wife. Selective excerpts from religious tracts have been inappropriately

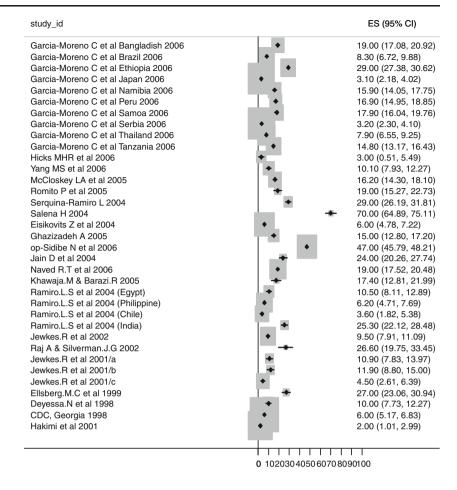
used to endorse violence against women, although abuse is more likely to be a result of culture than of religion (Douki et al. 2003). However, issues of power and gender (Caetano et al. 2000), rather than ethnicity and race (Anderson 1997), may be more important in creating and maintaining male dominance and the imbalance of power between husbands and wives (Harris et al. 2005).

Indeed, definitions of race and ethnicity are themselves problematic in research of this kind. Diverse ethnic groups are often collapsed into a single category, such as Asians, or the patterns of a single group such as Mexican Americans are over generalized to all Hispanics (Campbell et al. 1997). Because of this, data on partner violence among minority populations are often incomplete, precluding meaningful generalizations.

3) The measurement of domestic violence, and the accuracy of its reporting, are both fraught with problems, and much further work is need in this area. The choice of



**Fig. 5** Forest plot of prevalences of current physical violence from population studies



measures and the methodology used to establish the prevalence of domestic violence have significant impacts on the prevalence rates there are reported (Waltermaurer 2005). In our study, face-to-face interview methods yielded more disclosures of violence than self-reported or telephone interviews, in accordance with previous research indicating that the use of multiple and openended questions increases accurate reporting (Hamby et al. 1996). Written screening alone probably underestimates the prevalence of intimate partner violence (McFarlane et al. 1991).

Our results indicate that prevalence of all types of violence has increased over time, despite the provision of legal services for victims of violence. International law, particularly the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (Merry 2003) is a law without sanctions, so that its implementation can easily be avoided, and traditional interpersonal relationships within societies can continue to provide conditions which perpetuate the use of violence (Khawaja and Barazi 2005; Michalski 2004).

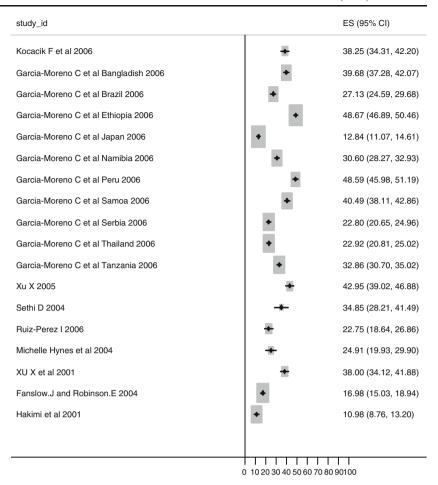
While we have attempted to follow a rigorous protocol in the conduct of this review, it is still subject to a number of limitations. It may be prone to indexing bias, publication bias and reporting bias. Our ability to assess quality of the studies that we identified was limited by the methodological information provided in the published articles, some of which was incomplete.

# Conclusion

The high prevalence rates of violence experienced by women suggests that doctors practicing in all areas of medicine need to recognize and explore the potential relevance of violence issues when considering women's reasons for presenting with ill health. Sensitization to the problem of domestic violence should be incorporated not only in medical training, but into governmental, legal, and judicial organizations. Inconsistences in methodology identified in the study emphasize the importance of developing clearer definitions so that findings can be compared across settings, to allow more accurate comparasions of prevalence rates over time, and between different population groups. Future research should seek to recognize cultural differences in family functioning without necessarily viewing such differences as 'deviant' or 'pathological', and should recog-



Fig. 6 Forest plot of high quality studies on life time prevalence of physical violence



nize the complex nature of differences between and within ethnic groups. More concentrated and culturally sensitive research can lead to a clearer understanding of the scope and causes of violence against women, which in turn may lead to more effective preventive and intervention efforts.

What is already known on this topic:

- Domestic violence is increasingly recognized as a global health issue.
- In the past decade a number of prevalence surveys on intimate partner violence have been performed.
- Widely different estimates of the prevalence of domestic violence have been reported in different settings, suggesting a need to standardize the methodology used in such research.

What this study adds:

- Violence against women has reached epidemic proportions in most societies.
- This review identified major differences in methodology, instruments, sample size, period covered, the population surveyed and types and forms of violence studied.
- In all types of violence our meta-analysis indicated significant heterogeneity between studies, even in studies employing standardized methods.
- To accurately estimate the prevalence of violence in different settings, researchers need to develop clear and consistent definitions to allow comparisons between settings.

 prevalence of lifetime domestic violence varies from 1.9% in Washington, US, to 70% in Hispanic Latinas in Southeast US.

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**Contributorship** Samia Alhabib had the original idea for the study which was refined by Roger Jones. Data collection, critical appraisal of studies and general data analysis were undertaken by Samia Alhabib. Meta-analysis and sensitivity analysis were undertaken by Ula Nur. Samia Alhabib and Roger Jones drafted and finalized the manuscript.

Potential Conflict of Interest None declared.

Ethics Approval Not required.

Funding None



Appendix

Summary Table of the include studies:

Study ID	Population	% & Violence type	sampling	Sample size	Kesponse	Case definition	instrument	<u></u>	→Bias	Score
Hakim et al. 2001, population study	Indonesia (Java)	P (LT: 11%, C: 2%), S (LT: 22%, C: 13%), F (TT: 34%, C: 16%)	ć	765	94%	Yes	WHO interview	Yes	Yes	7
Hynes et al. 2004, population study	East Timor		Random	288	74%	Yes	WHO interview	Yes	Yes	7
Haj-Yahia et al. 2000, population	Palestine	Annual incidence; E; 52%, P; 52%, S: 37.6% FC: 45%	Random	2,800, 1,500	86.7%, 88.9%	Yes	CTS & ISA, Self-administered	%	°N	9
Nikki et al. 2000, community clinic	Latin	Current overall prevalence; 19%	Non-random	1,001	ć	Yes	?AAS, interview	Š.	Š	4
Naved et al. 2006, population study	Bangladesh	LT prevalence P; 39.7% (Urban), 41.7% (Rural), current P; 19% (Tirhan) 15.8% (Rural)	Random	2,702	%96	Yes	CTS, interview	No.	Yes	7
Mousavi et al. 2005, population shady	Iran	· · · · · ·	Random	386	87.5%	No	Others, interview	%	Yes	S
Fawole et al. 2005, population study	Nigeria	P; Current 31.3%	Random	431	3	No	Others, self-administered	Š	Yes	4
Khawaja and Barazi 2005, population study	Jordan	LT <b>P</b> ; 42.5%, C; 17.4%	Random	262 (women)	%56	Yes	Others, interview	Š	o N	4
Seedat et al. 2005, population study	U.S	LT <b>P</b> ; 16%	Random	637	71%	No	Others, telephone interview	No	Yes	5
Amar and Gennaro 2005, college	U.S	<b>P;</b> C; 48%	Non-random	863		Yes	AAS, self-reported	Š	Š	4
Sudents Koziol-McLain et al. 2004, ED	New Zealand	<b>P</b> ; C; 21.3%, LT; 44.3%	Random	174	%09	Yes	interview	Yes	Yes	9
Fanslow and Robinson 2004, population study	New Zealand	LT P, (Auckland); 15%, 17% (North Waikato) S: 9% in Auckland, 12% in North Waikato.	Random	2,855	%6.9%	Yes	WHO interview	Yes	Yes	∞
Ramiro et al. 2004, population study Egypt, India, Philippine, Chile	Egypt, India, Philippine, Chile	LT; (P): (Egypt), 11.1%, India=34.6%, Philippines = 21.2%, Chile=24.9%, C; (P): Chile=3.6%, Egypt=10.5%, India=25.3%, Philippines=6.2% LT; E; Chile=50.7%, Egypt=10.5%, India=24.9%, Philippines=19.3%. C; E; Chile=15.2%, Egypt=10.8%,	Random	422 (Chile), 631 (Egypl), L; 506, T; 700, V; 716, 1,000 (Philippines), Brazil=813	96.1%(Chile), 93.5%(Egypt), 88%(India), 100% (Philippine)	Yes	Developed by researchers using focus group, interview	Yes	Yes	٢
		India=16.2%, Philippines=4.8%								
Swahnberg K et al. 2004, Gyn. clinic	Sweden	LT E; 16.8, P; 32.1%, S; 15.9%,	non-random	2,439	81%	Yes	NorAQ	%	Yes	9
Koenig et al. 2004, population study	Uganda	LT coercive sex; 24%	;	4,279	93%	Yes	Interview, other methods	No	Yes	S
? Swahnberg I M et al. 2003, population study	Sweden, validation study of NorAQ	LT P; 36.4%, S; 16.9%, E; 21.4%	random	1,168	61%	Yes	NorAQ	Yes	Yes	7
Grande et al. 2003, population study	South Australia	LT P; 16%, E; 19%	random	women=2,884	73.1%	Yes	Others, telephone survey	Yes	Yes	∞
Harwell et al. 2003, population study	American Indian	C P; 5%, E; 18%, LT for both; 12%	random	women=588	94%	Yes	Others, telephone survey	No No	Yes	9
Murty et al. 2003, population study	Iowa	C <b>P</b> ; 2.9%, <b>E</b> ; 46.7%	random	689	67.1%	Yes	CTS, interview	N <sub>o</sub>	Yes	7
? Bensley et al. 2003, population	Washington	C P; 1.9%, E; 5.1%	random	3,527	57%	Yes	BRFSS	Yes	Yes	7
study Maziak and Asfar 2003, primary	Syria	C P; 23%	random	411	%26	Yes	Others, interview	No.	Yes	9
care. El-Bassel et al. 2003, ED	New York, American Latin	C P, 15%, S; 6%, LT P; 43%, S; 20%	Non-random	143	Not reported	Š	Others, interview	No No	No	
Llika et al. 2002, primary care center	Nigeria	C overall; 40%, <b>P</b> ; 15.8%, <b>E</b> ; 20.1%	random	300	100%	Yes	Others, interview	No	No.	S
Okemgbo et al. 2002, population	Nigeria	LT P; 78.7, %, S; 21.3%, Mutilation;	Random	308	Not reported	Yes	Others, interview	No	No	4
study Basile 2002, population study	U.S	52.7% LT S; 34%	Random	602	20%	Yes	Others, telephone survey	No	No	4
? Coker et al. 2002, population study	U.S	LT P; 13.3%, S; 4.3%, E; 12.1%.	Random	6,790	72.1%	Yes	CTS, telephone survey	Yes	No	7
Jewkes et al 2002 nonulation study	South Africa	1T P: 24 6% Current: 9 5%	Random	1.306	90.3%	Vec	Others intension			



az-Olavarrieta et al. 2002, Hospital	Mexico	<b>P</b> and/or <b>S</b> ; C; 9%, LT; 26.3%.	Non-random	1,780	71.9%	Yes	Self-administered,, AAS	N <sub>o</sub>	No	S
study Coker et al. 2002, family practice	South Carolina	LT <b>P</b> ; 41.8%, <b>S</b> ; 21.4%, <b>E</b> ; 12.1%.	ć.	1,152	73%	Yes	Interview, ISA- to measure the severity of physical + AAS,	No Y	Yes	9
Melnick et al. 2002, surgical trauma	U.S	C P; 18%	Not-reported	127	Not-reported	Yes	PVS, self-administered	Yes Y	Yes	5
Romito and Gerin 2002, ER	Italy	C <b>P</b> and/or <b>S</b> ; 10.2%	Non-random	510	76%	Yes	Others, interview	No Y	Yes	5
+Community center Raj and Silverman 2002, population	South Asian women in Boston	C P; 26.6%, S; 15%, LTP;30.4%, S;	Snowball?	160	Not-reported	Yes	CTS, self-administered	No N	No	3
study Brokaw et al. 2002, ED	New Mexico	18.8% LT <b>P</b> ; 47.3%	Random	421	67.1%	No	Others, interview	No Y	Yes	5
Krishnan et al. 2001, ED	U.S	LT P; 72%, S; 20%, E; 92%	Non-random	87	70%	No	Others, interview	No No	No	2
Grynbaum et al. 2001, primary care	Israel	C <b>P</b> ; 21.7%, Incidence; 10%	Non-random	133	95.7%	No	PVS, self-administered	No N	No	3
Barnes et al. 2001, University	African American	LT <b>P</b> ; 15.6%, E; <b>11</b> .7%	random	179	47%	Yes	ISA, self-administered	N N	No No	4
Weinbaum et al. 2001, population	California	C <b>P</b> ; 6%	random	3,408	70%	Yes	CTS, telephone survey	Yes	No	7
Parkinson et al. 2001, Paediatric clinic	Massachusetts	C P; 2.5%, LT; 16.5%.	Non-random	553	71.2%	No	Others, self-administered	Yes	No	4
Coid et al. 2001, primary care	London	LT <b>P</b> ; 41%, <b>S</b> ; 9%	Non-random	1,207	55%	Yes	Others, self-administered			3
Subramanian and Sivayogan 2001, community health center	Sri Lanka	LT <b>P</b> ; 30%, C; 22%	random	417	55%	Yes	Others, interview	No Y	Yes	5
Jewkes et al. 2001, population study	South Africa	1) Eastern Cape (n=396): LT P; 26.8%, C P; 10.9%, LT S; 4.5%, C E: 51.4%.	random	1,306	90.3%	Yes	Others, interview	Yes Y	Yes	7
		2) Mpumalanga: (n=419), LT P; 28.4%, C; 11.9%, LT S; 7.2%, C E; 50%.								
		3) Northern Province: (n=464); LT P; 19.1%, C; 4.5%, C E; 39.6%								
Plichta and Falik 2001, population shidy	U.S	LT <b>P</b> ; 19.1%, <b>S</b> ; 20.4%	ć	1,821	ć	Yes	CTS	Yes N	No	S
Bauer et al. 2000, primary care	California	1) C P; 10%, S;3%, E; 10%, 2) LT P; 45%, S; 17%, E; 34%	random	734	74%	Yes	AAS, telephone survey	No No	No	9
Harwell and Spence 2000,	Montana	C <b>P</b> ; 3%	random	1,017	%06	Yes	Others, telephone interview	Yes Y	Yes	7
Coker et al. 2000, population study	south Carolina	LT P; 10.6%, S; 7.8%, E; 7.4%	random	women=314	69.4%	Yes	ASS, telephone survey	Yes Y	Yes	∞
Caetano et al. 2000, population study	U.S couples	C <b>P</b> black; 23%, Hispanic; 17%, whites; 12%	random	White=555, Black=358, Hispanic=527	85%	Yes	CTS, interview	S S	°Z	9
? CDC 2000, population study.	South Carolina	LT <b>P</b> ; 10.6%, <b>E</b> ; 7.4%, <b>S</b> ; 7.8%	random	313 women	69.4%	Yes	AAS, telephone survey		No	7
? CDC 2000, population study.	Washington	LT <b>P</b> ; 23.6%	random	2,012 women	61.4%	Yes	CTS, telephone survey	Yes N	No	9
Coker et al. 2000, family practice	South Carolina	LT <b>P;</b> 40%, <b>E</b> ; 13.6%, C <b>P</b> ; 8.9%, <b>E</b> ; 7.5%	Non-random	1,152	73%	Yes	Interview, ISA to measure current abuse, WEB to assess battering, AAS to measure life-time abuse	× %	Yes	9
Coker et al. 2000, family practice	Columbia	LT P; 32%, S;17.3%, E; 12.5%, C P; 18.9%, S; 14.4%,	ć	1,401	%68	Yes	Interview, ISA; for current S &P, WEBS; for battering, ASS; for life-time	o N	°Z	٧٥
Ernst et al. 2000, ED	U.S	C P; 5%, LT; 38.6%	? Random	57	78%	Yes	Self-reported, ISA	No Y	Yes	5
Ellsberg et al. 1999, population	Nicaragua	LT <b>P</b> ; 40%, C; 27%	ć	488	100%	Yes	CTS, Interview	Yes Y	Yes	7
Tollestrup et al. 1999, population	Mexico	C P; 6.7%, E; 13.5	Random	2,415	75	Yes	CTS, telephone survey	No Y	Yes	7
Deyessa et al. 1998, population	Ethiopia	LT <b>P</b> ; 45% ( $n$ =303), C; 10%	Random	673	ć	Yes	Others, interview	No Y	Yes	S
Kershner et al. 1998, community	Minnesota	LT <b>P</b> ; 37%, C <b>P</b> ; 6.6%, <b>E</b> ; 21.1%, <b>S</b> ;	Non-random	1,693	82.4%	Yes	Others, self-administered	No Y	Yes	\$
? CDC 1998, population study	Georgia	C <b>P</b> ; 6%, LT; 30%	Random	3,130	78%	Yes	Others, telephone survey			9
Pakieser et al. 1998, ED	Texas	LT <b>P</b> ; 37%, C; 10%.	Non-random	4,448	40%	Yes	Others, self-administered	Z %	°N	No



Sachs et al., ED		LT P; 14.7%, C; 3.9%	Non-random	480 women	66.2%	Yes	Others, self-administered	Yes	No No	5
Magdol et al. 1997, population study	New Zealand	C <b>P</b> ; 27.1%, <b>E</b> ; 83.8%								
Schei et al. 2006, population study	Australia	LT P/E/S; 27.5%	Random	356	%06	Yes	CTS, interview		No	9
Yuan et al. 2006, population study	Native American	LT <b>P</b> ;45%, <b>S</b> ; 14%	Random	793	%86	Yes	Others, interview	No	No	5
Avdibegovic et al. 2006, psychiatric	Bosnia and Herzegovina	LT,P; 75.9%, P & S; 43.5%, E;	Random	283	89.5%	Not reported	DVI, interview	No	No	4
Kocacik et al. 2006, population	Turkey	85.0% LTE; 53.8%, <b>P</b> 38.3%, <b>S</b> ;7.9%	random	583	100%	Not reported	WHO, interview	Z %	S <sub>o</sub>	5
study WHO, Garcia-Moreno et al. 2006, population study	Bangladesh, Brazil, Ethiopia, Japan, Namibia, Peru, Samoa (National), Serbia, Thailand,	Bangladesh: LT (P:39.7%, S:37.4%), C (P19%,S:20.2%) Japan=7	random	24,097	Japan (60.2%), other countries range; 85–	Yes	Interview, built on CTS	Yes	Yes	%, ii.
	Tanzania,	2-Brazil: LT (P27.2%,S 10.2%), C (P8.3%,S 2.8%).			97.8%					
		3. Ethiopia: LT (P48.7%, S 58.6%), C (P29%, S 44.4%).								
		4. Japan; LT (P12.9%, S 6.2%), C (P3.1%, S 1.3%).								
		5. Namibia: LT (P30.6%,S 16.5%), C(P15.9%,S9.1%).								
		6. Peru: LT (P48.6%,S 22.5%), C (P16.9%, S 7.1%).								
		7. Samoa: LT (P40.5%, S 19.5%), C (P17.9%, S 11.5%).								
		8. Serbia: LT (P22.8%, S 6.3%), C (P3.2%, S 1.1%).								
		9. Thailand: LT (P22.9%, S 29.9%), C(P7.9%, S 17.1%).								
10. Tanzania: LT (P32.9%, S 23%), C (P14.8%, S 12.8%).										
Hicks et al. 2006, population study	Chinese American	LT <b>P</b> ;13%, C; 3%,	random	323	99%	Yes	CTS, interview	Yes Y	Yes	7
Yang et al. 2006, population study	Taiwanese aboriginal tribes	LT prevalence <b>P</b> ; <b>15%</b> , C; 10.1%, <b>S</b> :	random	876	84.7%	No	ASS, interview	Yes	No	9
Thompson et al. 2006, population	Washington	LT prevalence (P; 44%, S: 30.3%, E: 25.10%)	random	3,568	56.4%	Yes	WEB, telephone survey	No No	No	5
Ruiz-Perez et al. 2006, general	Spain	LT prevalence; P: 14.3%, E: 30.8%,	Random	1,402	88.35%	Yes	WHO, self-administrated	N N	No	9
practice Ergin et al. 2005, primary care	Turkey (Bursa)	5: 8.3% LT P; 34.1%, E; 15.8%, economic;	Not reported	1,427	71%	Yes	AAS, interview	No Y	Yes	9
McCloskey et al. 2005, population study	Mohsi (Tanzania sub-Saharan Africa)	o.2.%, an.ype viorence, 29.5% LT P: 19.7%, S: 3.4%, C: P; 16.2%, S: 1.4%. Overall prevalence: 26%	Random	1,444	71%	Yes	One item from CTS, and 2 items from AAS, one item from SES, interview	Yes	No	7
Bengtsson-Tops 2005, psychiatric clinic	Sweden	LT P; 28%, S; 19%, Economic; 16%; E; 46%. C; P; 6%, S;3%, Economic; 6%, E; 22%.	Non-Random	1,382	79%	Yes	Others, interview	N 0 N	No.	4
Kyu and Kana 2005, population	Myanmar (South-East Asia),	C; <b>P</b> ; 27%, <b>E</b> ; 69%	Random	286	82%	Yes	CTS, self-administered	No N	No	5
Sundy Burazeri et al. 2005, population	Albania	C; <b>P</b> ; 37%	Random	1,196	87%	No	Others, interview	Yes	No No	5
Mayda and Akkus 2004, population	Turkey	LT <b>P</b> ; 41.4%, <b>E</b> ; 25.98%, <b>S</b> ; 8.6%, <b>R</b> : 77.6%	Non-Random	116	%001	Yes	Others, interview	No	Yes	4
McFarlane et al. 2005, primary care	U.S	C P&S: 8.9% in White, 6% in African American, 5.3% in	Non random	7,443	Not reported	Yes	Others?	S S	Š	4
Romito et al. 2005, family practice	Italy	Overall <b>P, S, E,</b> LT: 27.4%, C: 19.9%	Non random	444	78.6%	Yes	Others, self-administered	N N	No No	4
Newman et al. 2005, paediatric ED	Chicago	C <b>P &amp; S</b> ; 11%	Non random	461	Not reported	Not reported	AAS, self-administered	No No	No	3
Hegarty and Bush 2002, general practice	Australia	LT, P: 23.3%, E: 33.9%, S; 10.6%	random	2,338	78.5%	Yes	AAS, self-administered	Yes	S <sub>o</sub>	9



Del Grande et al 2003 nomilation	Anetrolia	17 P. 16% R. 19%	mobusa	6 004	73 10%	Ş	Others telenhone interview	Y SeX	Vec	1
study	Australia	11, 10,0, 5, 5, 5,0	iandoni	100,0	0.1.0	6	Cureis, erepuone med view		3	_
Xu X et al. 2005, gynecology clinic	China (Fuzhou)	Overall LT <b>P, S, E</b> ; 43%, C; 26%	random	685	%68	Yes	WHO Q, interview	Yes	No No	7
Parish et al. 2004, population study	China	LT <b>P</b> ; 34%	random	1,665 women	29%	No	Others, interview	No No	No	4
John et al. 2004, gynecology clinic	North England	LT <b>P</b> ; 21%, C: 4%	Non random	920	%06	Yes	AAS, self-administered	No No	No	5
Romito et al. 2004, primary care	Italy	LT <b>P</b> ; 14.1%, <b>S</b> ; 17.6%, <b>E</b> ; 16.4% C: <b>P</b> ; 5.2%, <b>S</b> : 5.2%, <b>E</b> : 19%	Non random	542	8.6%	Yes	Others, Self-administered	Yes	No No	2
Serquina-Ramiro et al. 2004,	Manila	LT <b>P</b> ; 47.2%, C; 29%	Random	1,000	%06	Yes	WorldSAFE, interview	No	Yes	7
Rivera- Rivera et al. 2004,	Mexico	LT <b>P</b> ; 35.8%	random	1,641	93.5%	Yes	CTS, interview	Yes	Yes	8
population study Keeling and Birch 2004, Hospital	Warral, UK	LT ? <b>P</b> : 34.9%, C; 14%	Non random	294	99.3%	No	AAS, self administered	Yes	No No	4
Cox et al. 2004, ED	Northern Canada	Overall life-time <b>P &amp;</b> E: 51%, C: 26%, Incidence: 18%	random	1,223	%08	Yes	Others, interview	Yes Y	Yes	∞
Kramer et al. 2004, primary care	U.S	LT: <b>P</b> ; 49.5%, <b>S</b> ; 265, <b>E</b> ; 72%. C; <b>P</b> ; 11.7%, <b>S</b> ; 4.2%, <b>E</b> ; 27.9%.	Non random	1,268	9% in each cell	Yes	AAS, self administered	Yes	No	9
Sethi et al. 2004, ER	UK	Life-time P.; 34.8%, C; 6.1%	Non random	228	86.8%	Yes	WHO Q, interview	Yes	No	5
Peralta and Fleming 2003, family	Madison, Wisconsin	C; <b>P</b> : 10.3%, <b>E</b> ; 43.5%	Non random	399	Not reported	Yes	CTS, self reported	No No	No	4
Ruiz-Perez et al. 2006, primary care	Spain	LT of any violence; 22.8%	Non random	449	%80.68	Yes	WHO Q, self administered	No	No	5
Lown et al. 2006, population study	California	C <b>P</b> ; 27.4%, <b>S</b> ; 6.7%	Non random	1,786	85%	Yes	CTS, interview	Yes Y	Yes	7
Ghazizadeh et al. 2005, population	Iran	LT <b>P</b> ; 38%, C; 15%	random	1,040	%26	No	Others, interview	No N	No	
Faramarzi et al. 2005, obstetric/	Iran	C P; 15%, S; 42.4%, E; 81.5%	Non random	2,400	Not clear	Yes	AAS, interview	N N	No No	5
gynecology clinic Ahmed and Elmradi 2005, medical	Sudan	C P & E; 41.6%	Non random	492	86.8%	Yes	Others, self-administered	No.	So No	4
Evans-Campbell et al. 2006,	New York	LT <b>P</b> ; 40%	random	112 women	83%	No	Others, interview	No	Yes	4
population study op-Sidibe et al. 2006, population	Egypt	LT P; 34.3%, C; 47%	random	995,9	%66	Yes	Others, interview	No No	S <sub>o</sub>	Ś
Apler et al. 2005, primary care	Turkey	LT <b>P</b> ; 58.7%, C <b>P</b> ; 41.1%%, <b>E</b> ;	Non random	909	Not reported	Yes	AAS, interview	No No	No	4
Coid et al. 2003, general practice	Hackney, east London	53.6% LT <b>S;</b> 24%	Non random	1,206	54%	Yes	Others, self administered	Yes	No No	4
Siegel et al. 2003, pediatric setting	U.S	Incidence; 6%, LT P; 22%, C: 16%	Non random	435	Not reported	No	Others, self administered	No	Yes	3
Boyle and Todd 2003, ED	Cambridge	LT <b>P</b> ; 21.3%, C; 6.1%, incidence:	random	307	84.8%	Yes	Others, interview	Yes	No No	5
Shaikh et al. 2003, obstetric/	Pakistan	LT <b>P</b> ; 55.9%, <b>E</b> ; 75.9%, <b>S</b> ; 46.9%	Non random	307	70.4%	Yes	Others, interview	No No	No	3
Richardson et al. 2002, general	East London	LT <b>P</b> :;41%, C; 17%, <b>E</b> ; 74%	Non random	2,192	64%	Yes	Others, self administered	Yes	Yes	9
Bradley et al. 2002, general practice	Ireland	LT <b>P</b> ; 39%, <b>E</b> ; 54%	Non random	2,615	72%	Yes	Others, self administered	Yes	No No	5
Mazza et al. 2001, population study	Australia	Overall LT prevalence; 28.5%, <b>E</b> ; 17%, <b>S</b> : 40.8%	Non random	395	%06	Yes	CTS, self-administered	Yes	No	9
Zachary et al. 2001, ED	New York	C P; 7.9%, LT; 38%	Non random	795	76.8%	Yes	CTS, interview	No	Yes	9
Az- Olavarrieta et al. 2001, hospital	Mexico	LT P; 14%, E; overall; 40%, S; 9.3%	Non random	1,255	83%	Yes	Others, elf-administered	Yes	S <sub>o</sub>	5
study Augenbraun et al. 2001, hospital study	Brooklyn, NY	LT <b>P</b> ; 37.6%, <b>E</b> ; 32.8%, C <b>P</b> ; 15.5%, <b>E</b> : 19.1%	Non random	375	%96	Yes	Others, elf-administered	No Y	Yes	S
Lown and Vega 2001, population	Fresno County, California	C <b>P</b> ; 10.7%	Random	1,155	%06	Yes	AAS, self-administered	Yes	Yes	∞
Hedin et al. 2000, gynecology clinic	Sweden	C; <b>P</b> ; 6%, <b>S</b> ; 3%, <b>E</b> ; 12.5%	Non random	207	64%	Yes	SVAW, self-administered	No	No	3
Jones et al. 1999, HMO survey	Washington DC	LT <b>P, S, E</b> ; 36.9%, C; 4%	Non random	10, 599	14%	Yes	AAS, self-administered	No No	No	4
Duffy et al. 1999, pediatric ED	New England city	LT <b>P</b> ; 52%, <b>S</b> ; 21%,	Non random	157	Not reported	Yes	AAS, interview	No	Yes	4
Fikree and Bhatti 1999, primary care	Pakistan, Karachi	LT <b>P</b> ; 34%	Non random	150	Not reported	No	Others, interview		No No	_
Dearwater et al. 1998, ED	Pennsylvania & California	LT <b>P/E</b> ; 36.9%, C <b>P/S</b> ; 14.4%	Non random	4,641	74%	Yes	AAS, self-administered		Yes	7
Emst et al. 1997, ED	New Orleans	LT non <b>P</b> ; 22%, <b>P</b> ; 33%, C non- <b>P</b> l; 15%, current <b>P</b> ; 19%	random	283 women	94%	Yes	ISA, self-administered	Š	S N	S



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Feldhaus et al. 1997, ED	Colorado	C <b>P</b> ; 25.5%	Random	322	%92	Yes	PVS, interview	No	Yes	7
Salena et al. 2004, population study	southeast US	C <b>P</b> ; 70%, LT; 17%	Non random	309	Not reported	Yes	Others, self-administered	No	Yes	4
Biroscak et al. 2006, ED	Michigan	Incidence <b>P, S</b> ; 38.8%	Random	2,926	82%	Yes	Others, chart review	Yes	No	9
Salam et al. 2006, population study	Bangladesh	Overall <b>P</b> , <b>S</b> , <b>E</b> ; 44.9%	random	496	73%	Yes	Others, interview	No	Yes	9
Hofner et al. 2005, ED	Switzerland	Overall C <b>P</b> , <b>E</b> ; 10.8%	Non random	1,894	77.2%	Yes	PVS, interview	No	No	5
Eisikovits et al. 2004, population study Israel	Israel	LT P; 13%, C; 6%, C E; 56%	Random	2,092	20%	Yes	CTS, self-administered	No	Yes	7
Rinfret-Raynor et al. 2004, nonulation study	Canada (Quebec)	C; P; 6.1%, S; 6.8%, E; 66.2%	Random	2,120	%9.9/	Yes	SVS, CTS, telephone survey	No	Yes	7
Krishnan et al. 2005, population study	South India	LT <b>P</b> ; 29%, <b>S</b> ; 12%	Random	397	88	Yes	Others, interview	Yes	No	9
Koziol-McLain et al. 1999, population study (PHD)	Colorado	C <b>P, S</b> ; 8.4%	Random	409	82%	Yes	PVS, followed by CTS, telephone survey	Yes	Yes	∞
Jain et al. 2004, population study	India	LT P; 48%, C; 24%, C E; 38%,	Random	500	%62	Yes	Others, interview	No	Yes	9
Csoboth et al. 2003, population study	Hungarian	LT <b>P</b> ; 31.7%	Random	3,615	94%	Yes	Others, self-administered	No	No	5
Wijma et al. 2003, gynecology clinic	5 Nordic countries	LT <b>P</b> ; 47.7%, C; 3.9%. LT <b>S</b> ; 24.1%, C; 1.2%,	Non random	4,729	77	Yes	NorAQ, self-administered	No	No	S
		LT E; 26.8%, C; 6.2%.								
Medina et al. 2003, population study Spain	Spain	P; 8.05%, S; 11.48%, E; 42.52%	random	2,015	71.3%	Yes	CTS, interview	Yes	Yes	∞
Smith et al. 2002, population study	U.S	C P; 8.6%, S; 8.2%, E; 13.5%	random	268	45%	Yes	AAS, self-administered	No	No	4
Yoshihama et al. 2001, population study	Japan	LT P; 51.7%, S; 29.9%, E; 75.8%	random	211	52%	Yes	CTS, interview	No	Yes	5
X Xu et al. 2001, obstetric/ gynecology clinic, PHD	China	LT <b>P</b> ; 38%, <b>S</b> ;16% C <b>P</b> ; 21%, <b>S</b> ; 12%	random	009	885	Yes	WHO, interview	No	No	9
Tollestrup et al. 1999, population study Mexico	Mexico	C E; 13.5%, <b>P</b> ; 6.7%	random	2,418	75%	Yes	CTS, telephone survey	No	Yes	7

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