

**Profiling Perpetrators and Victims: A Cluster Analysis of Intimate
Partner Violence experiences and attitudes in Finland in the Context
of the Nordic Paradox**

Fareed, Tuulimari & Kyllönen, Remi

Master's Thesis

Department of Psychology

University of Jyväskylä

June 2024

UNIVERSITY OF JYVÄSKYLÄ

Department of Psychology

KYLLÖNEN, REMI; FAREED, TUULIMARI: Profiling Perpetrators and Victims: A

Cluster Analysis of Intimate Partner Violence experiences and attitudes in Finland in the Context of the Nordic Paradox

Master's Thesis, 54 pp, 6 appendices.

Supervisor: Ana Gallego

Psychology

June 2024

Higher gender equality has been linked to lower rates of intimate partner violence (IPV). However, the opposite has been seen in the Nordic countries and the term Nordic paradox has been created to describe the discrepancy between the elevated rates of self-reported IPV experiences and high legal gender equality. This research aims to enhance our understanding of the attitudes and experiences among Finnish people on this highly tragic phenomenon, a crucial step towards effective solutions. We gathered data from 105 Finnish participants through an online survey to investigate the relationship between self-reported perpetration or experience of psychological IPV and several pertinent attitudes; victim-blaming, hostile sexism, acceptance of IPV, perceived severity of IPV and willingness to intervene in cases of IPV, through a correlation analysis. Additionally, we conducted a cluster analysis, to identify distinct profiles among participants, providing deeper insights into this complex issue. Contrary to expectations based on previous research, our findings revealed that being a victim of psychological IPV correlated with several harmful attitudes such as higher victim-blaming and hostile sexist attitudes and lower willingness to intervene. Additionally, there was a strong correlation between being a victim and being an aggressor. Unexpectedly, the connections between being an aggressor and the harmful attitudes did not reach statistical significance. Similarly, hostile sexism was not significantly related to most other harmful attitudes, except for victim-blaming. The cluster analysis revealed three distinct profiles; *High* cluster includes participants with above-average experiences of being both an aggressor and a victim of psychological IPV, and having above-average levels of victim-blaming and hostile sexist attitudes; *Low* cluster includes participants with below-average experiences of psychological IPV and below-average levels of harmful attitudes; and the *Ambivalent* cluster includes participants with below-average experiences of psychological IPV and

above-average levels of harmful attitudes. We examined differences in other attitudes and demographic factors between the clusters, discussing their implications for future research and the development of interventions. Additionally, we noticed some limitations in our data, which might affect our results and should be taken into consideration in future research.

Keywords: Intimate partner violence, IPV, domestic violence, gendered violence, the Nordic paradox, hostile sexism, victim-blaming attitudes, acceptance of IPV, perceived severity of IPV, willingness to intervene in IPV, psychological violence, profiling.

JYVÄSKYLÄN YLIOPISTO

Psykologian laitos

KYLLÖNEN, REMI; FAREED, TUULIMARI: Parisuhdeväkivallan uhrien ja tekijöiden profilointi: Klusterianalyysi parisuhdeväkivaltaa koskevien kokemusten ja asenteiden yhteydestä Suomessa, Nordic Paradox:in kontekstissa

Pro Gradu -tutkielma, 54 s., liitteitä 6 s.

Ohjaaja: Ana Gallego

Psykologia

Kesäkuu 2024

Korkea sukupuolten välinen tasa-arvo on yhteydessä vähentyneeseen parisuhdeväkivaltaan. Pohjoismaissa tilastot kuitenkin osoittavat vastakkaisia tuloksia ja termi Nordic paradox (pohjoismainen paradoksi) on luotu kuvaamaan ristiriitaa näiden maiden korkean tasa-arvon ja samanaikaiseen korkean itseraportoidun parisuhdeväkivallan määrän välillä. Tämän tutkimuksen tarkoituksena on lisätä paljon kaivattua tietämystä suomalaisten asenteista ja kokemuksista liittyen tähän traagiseen ilmiöön, jotta uusia ratkaisukeinoja voidaan kehittää. Hyödyntäen 105 suomalaiselta osallistujalta verkkokyselyn avulla kerättyä dataa, tutkimme itseraportoidun harjoitetun ja koetun psykologisen parisuhdeväkivallan ja seuraavien asiaan liittyvien asenteiden yhteyksiä korrelaatiotarkastelun avulla: uhria syyllistävät asenteet, vihamielinen seksismi, lähisuhdeväkivaltaa hyväksyvät asenteet, parisuhdeväkivaltatilanteiden havaittu vakavuustaso ja halukkuus puuttua väkivaltatilanteisiin. Lisäksi toteutimme klusterianalyysin löytääksemme osallistujien joukosta erillisiä profiileja. Näiden analyysien tulosten avulla pyrimme laajentamaan perspektiiviä tätä monitahoista ilmiötä kohtaan. Tutkimuksen tuloksena havaitsimme, että vastoin aikaisempaan tutkimukseen perustuvia odotuksia, psykologisen seurusteluväkivallan uhrina oleminen korreloi positiivisesti useiden haitallisten asenteiden kanssa, kuten uhria syyllistävien asenteiden, vihamielisen seksismin ja matalamman puuttumishalukkuuden kanssa. Lisäksi uhrina oleminen korreloi vahvasti psykologisen parisuhdeväkivallan harjoittajana olemisen kanssa. Yllättäen, psykologisen parisuhdeväkivallan harjoittaminen ei ollut yhteydessä haitallisiin asenteisiin tilastollisesti merkitsevästi. Klusterointi paljasti kolme erillistä profiilia: *Korkea*-klusteriin kuuluivat osallistujat, jotka raportoivat keskimääräistä enemmän psykologisen seurusteluväkivallan uhrina ja tekijänä olemisen kokemuksia sekä keskimääräistä enemmän uhria syyllistäviä ja vihamielisiä

seksistisiä asenteita, *Matala*-klusteri sisälsi osallistujat, jotka raportoivat päinvastoin keskimääräistä vähemmän edellä mainittuja kokemuksia ja asenteita sekä *Ristiriitainen* klusteri, joka sisälsi keskimääräistä vähemmän edellä mainittuja kokemuksia, mutta keskimääräistä enemmän edellä mainittuja haitallisia asenteita. Eroja muissa asenteissa sekä demografisissa tekijöissä näiden klustereiden välillä tutkittiin ja niiden merkitystä tulevaisuuden tutkimukselle ja interventioiden kehitykselle pohdittiin. Lisäksi havaittiin tiettyjä dataan liittyviä rajoitteita, jotka osaltaan voivat vaikuttaa tuloksiin ja niiden huomioiminen jatkotutkimuksissa on tärkeää.

Avainsanat: Parisuhdeväkivalta, sukupuolistunut väkivalta, lähisuhdeväkivalta, the Nordic paradox, pohjoismainen paradoksi, vihamielinen seksismi, uhria syyllistävät asenteet, parisuhdeväkivallan hyväksyntä, havaittu vakavuustaso, halukkuus puuttua parisuhdeväkivaltaan, psykologinen väkivalta, profilointi.

CONTENTS

1. INTRODUCTION	6
2. INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE	6
2.1. The Nordic Paradox - IPV in Finland and other Gender Equal Societies	8
2.2. Hostile Sexism	10
2.3. IPV Acceptability	12
2.5. Perceived Severity of IPV.....	14
2.6. Willingness to intervene in IPV situations	15
2.7. The profound impact of IPV: Social, Health, and Economic Consequences	15
2.8. Research Question and Hypotheses.....	17
3. METHODS	18
3.2. Measurements	20
3.3. Data Analysis	21
4. RESULTS	22
4.1. Correlation analysis	23
4.2. Cluster analysis	24
4.3. Analyzing the clusters with General Linear Model.....	26
4.4. Comparing demographic variables in different clusters.....	29
5. DISCUSSION	31
5.1. Exploring the Links Between Victim-Blaming, Hostile Sexism, and IPV in Finland.....	31
5.2. IPV Victimization: Links to Victim-Blaming, Hostile Sexism, and Willingness to Intervene	32
5.3. Strong Correlation between reported Perpetration and Victimization of IPV	33
5.4. Distinct Profiles of IPV Aggressors and Victims.....	34
5.5. Modern sexism and male privilege protection	36
5.6. Enhancing IPV Prevention and Intervention Strategies	37
5.7. Limitations	38
5.8. Summary.....	39
REFERENCES	41
APPENDICES	49

1. INTRODUCTION

This Master's Thesis will discuss the Nordic Paradox, a term created to describe the discrepancy between the high levels of legal gender equality and the high levels of self-reported Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) in the Nordic countries (Gracia & Merlo, 2016). The Nordic countries, including Iceland, Norway, Finland, Sweden, and Denmark are included in the top 23 of the most gender equal societies in the world, considering economic opportunities, education, health, and political leadership (World Economic Forum, 2023). Iceland, Norway, Finland, and Sweden have all ranked among the top five most gender-equal countries (World Economic Forum, 2023). According to The European Union's Gender Equality Index (2023), Sweden was the most gender-equal country among the EU countries in 2023, Denmark placed in third and Finland in eighth place (Gender Equality Index, 2023). Controversially, Denmark, Finland, and Sweden are in the top five countries in violence against women in the EU together with Latvia and the former EU member UK (FRA, 2014). In these Nordic countries 32 %, 30 % and 28 % of women respectively, report having experienced violence by their current or previous partner since the age of 15, compared to the EU average of 22 % (FRA, 2014).

This Master's Thesis is a part of a larger project that aims to investigate the various causes of the Nordic Paradox. Specifically, in this thesis, our focus is on gaining a deeper understanding of the attitudes towards women and IPV in the Finnish population. We examine how IPV relates to victim-blaming, willingness to intervene in IPV situations, and hostile sexism, as well as the severity and acceptability of IPV. Finally, as IPV is a highly multifaceted problem, we aim to identify distinct profiles among participants to provide a wider perspective for developing solutions.

2. INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE

The terms IPV, domestic violence (DV), and violence against women, are often used interchangeably, but there are nuances between the terms. IPV is defined as any non-consensual act done to make a partner submit (Alberdi & Matas, 2002). An intimate partner can be a current or previous partner, but the effects of IPV usually affect the whole family unit (THL, 2022). DV is a wider term that also

includes other relations between the victim and perpetrator, such as adult-child-violence, sibling violence or elderly abuse (THL, 2023; OVW, 2023). Violence against women includes all types of violence that is perpetrated against women because of their gender (WHO, 2024). IPV is a gendered phenomenon, where most of the victims are females and most of the perpetrators are males (Barbier et al., 2022; Lähisuhdeväkivalta, 2021), but not all types of violence against women is IPV. In this thesis, we will be using the term IPV, as it most accurately describes the type of violence we are studying, while considering the effects of gender and the domestic nature of the violence.

By definition, the victim has no control over the events, as IPV is defined as unidirectional non-consensual illegitimate use of force, a tool of control and punishment meant to position one partner under the will of the other (Alberdi & Matas, 2002; OVW, 2023). IPV is often simultaneously psychological, economic, sexual and/or physical, in addition to possibly taking other forms (Barbier et al., 2022; OVW, 2023). The escalation to physical violence is only possible when there is an inequality of power in the relationship (Alberdi & Matas, 2002). Different forms of violence usually accompany one another (Alberdi & Matas, 2002; OVW, 2023). Physical violence always has elements of psychological violence and psychological violence often includes threats of physical violence (Alberdi & Matas, 2002). Psychological abuse was reported to be the most common form of IPV, averaging with 48.5% of the victims that reported having experienced violence (Barbier et al., 2022). Furthermore, psychological violence predicts physical abuse (Salis et al., 2014). Its purpose is to undermine the victim's self-confidence and self-trust, often through devaluation, humiliation, and accusations (Alberdi & Matas, 2002). Consequently, in this thesis we concentrate on investigating the psychological dimensions of IPV.

Furthermore, IPV is recognized as a violation of human rights (The United Nations, 1995), compromising the victim's autonomy and freedom (The United Nations, 1995). Given that the majority of the victims are female, the constant fear of violence restricts women's mobility and limits their access to resources and daily activities (The United Nations, 1995). IPV against women is one of the crucial social mechanisms by which women are forced into a subordinate position compared with men on a societal level (The United Nations, 1995). Violence against women hinders equality, development, and peace (The United Nations, 1995). IPV exists in all socioeconomic groups, although it occurs more in lower economic and lower educational classes (Lidman, 2015; Reichel, 2017). IPV exists across different cultures and countries. Moreover, IPV is highly likely

underreported (Barbier et al., 2022; Siltala et al., 2022; The United Nations, 1995). Notably, only the most brutal and clear cases of physical IPV result in being reported to the authorities, leaving most of the real-life experiences out of the official statistics (AlberdÍ & Matas, 2002).

Recognizing and investigating different attitudes towards IPV are essential to understanding the problem (Gracia et al., 2020). Attitudes towards IPV determine the social and cultural norms regarding what is and what isn't acceptable in intimate relationships and are thus connected to the prevalence of IPV in society (Gracia et al., 2020). As attitudes vary among different groups of people, they result in higher prevalence of IPV among some groups than others (Gracia et al., 2020). To understand this multifaceted problem more thoroughly, it is essential to investigate the attitudes towards IPV in different types of societies.

2.1. The Nordic Paradox - IPV in Finland and other Gender Equal Societies

The Nordic Paradox (Gracia & Merlo, 2016) describes the phenomenon where the countries with the highest levels of legal gender equality (FRA, 2014) have seemingly high self-reports of IPV (FRA, 2014). In Finland, IPV affects a significant portion of the population, 48% of women and 39% of men having experienced physical, psychological and/or sexual domestic violence at least once in their life (Siltala et al., 2022). Recent data indicates that 9% of Finnish adults have experienced domestic violence within the past year (Siltala et al., 2022), with psychological abuse being more prevalent than physical violence (Siltala et al., 2022). Psychological IPV, in particular, is profoundly harmful and serves as a predictor for future physical violence.

Furthermore, higher report levels of IPV in the Nordic countries could reflect the societal acceptability to report IPV crimes according to the *Higher disclosure theory* (FRA, 2014; Gracia & Merlo, 2016; Karlsson et al., 2022). The *Higher disclosure theory* suggests that while levels of IPV may not have actually increased, there is a greater awareness among the public regarding what constitutes violence and how it should be addressed legally, medically, and politically. This heightened awareness can create the impression that IPV levels are higher compared to other countries (Alberdi & Matas, 2002; Karlsson et al., 2022). In countries with higher gender equality, victims may simultaneously downplay or fail to recognize the violence they have experienced. Data from the FRA (2014) survey shows lower rates of disclosing the violence to the police in the Nordic countries compared to others, which may contradict the *higher disclosure theory*. However, reporting

to the police differs from disclosing violence in an anonymous survey, so these numbers do not provide a conclusive answer. Additionally, even though the *Higher disclosure theory* could explain why the IPV levels in the Nordic countries seem higher than in other European countries, yet the IPV levels are still concerningly high. IPV and other forms of DV, have been targeted as problems in Finland only since the turn of the millennium, with the first programs piloted towards the end of the 1990s (Holma & Nyqvist, 2017). It is possible that efforts to address IPV have not yet reached societal significance, or that while awareness of IPV has increased, tangible changes in situations of abusers and victims have yet to materialize. Meta-analyses examining the societal influence of IPV perpetrator treatments has been challenging due to lack of adequate studies (Holma & Nyqvist, 2017). It is yet unclear whether raising victims' resources, like establishing safe houses and no-fault divorce, has been beneficial for the lack of studies and meta-analyses.

According to the *circulating abuser theory*, one abuser can have multiple victims in high gender-equality countries since the victims have more opportunities to leave the abuser (Permanyer & Gomez-Casillas, 2020; Wiechmann, 2022). Meanwhile, in countries with lower gender equality, the abuser might stay with one victim that is unable to leave either because of societal ideologies or financial reasons. Another hypothesis for the Nordic paradox stems from the notion that high levels of violence against women could be a *backlash to gender equality* (Alberdi & Matas, 2002; Wiechmann, 2022;), leading to a discrepancy between the legal gender equality and the realities of everyday life. The hypothesis of *backlash* has been described stating that men may resort to increased violence as a means of reclaiming perceived lost power in the face of gender equality (Gómez-Casillas et al., 2023). Gómez-Casillas and colleagues (2023) explain further how the *backlash* hypothesis is supported by radical feminists. They present also *ameliorate* hypothesis, which is supported by liberal feminists and holding on the idea that increased gender equality is connected to less IPV (Gómez-Casillas et al., 2023). The researchers also introduce two additional theories, *male privilege protection* hypothesis and *Marxist feminist* hypothesis (Gómez-Casillas et al., 2023). In the first, men support gender equality and allow women to increase their status as long as it does not threaten men's status (Gómez-Casillas et al., 2023). The latter hypothesis views that increasing women's absolute status (not their status in relation to men's) will result in less IPV (Gómez-Casillas et al., 2023).

The researchers compare these theories using data from FRA (2014) and the Gender Equality Index and as a result state that the *Marxist feminist* hypothesis and the *male privilege protection*

hypothesis are the ones most connected to IPV prevalence rather than the *backlash* hypothesis alone (Gómez-Casillas et al., 2023). Neither did the authors find a clear relationship with *ameliorative* hypothesis. Rather, they propose that the *male privilege protection* and *Marxist feminist* hypotheses could be there to explain why there are alternating phases of *amelioration* and *backlash* in the development of gender equality. In the context of the Nordic Paradox, the authors suggest that societies of strong economic and labor conditions, coupled with high gender equality, enable women to more easily leave a relationship if IPV occurs, as they typically have better socioeconomic status (*Marxist feminine theory*). Women can also reach for a higher status, but only as long as male privilege is not threatened (*male privilege protection*). This theorizing would support the *ameliorative* hypothesis, that is, more gender equality results in less IPV but only as long as *male privilege* is threatened, which again would result in a *backlash* of gender equality.

When investigating the different theories and reasonings behind the Nordic paradox and comparing data from different countries, the validity and internal consistency needs to be assessed. The FRA data is comparable across European countries and shows sufficient validity and internal consistency to be used to investigate the Nordic Paradox (FRA 2014; Gracia & Merlo, 2016; Martín-Fernández et al., 2020). Adequate data and statistics analysis of IPV is much needed in order to combat the problem (The United Nations, 1995). Elaborate data differentiating the characteristics around different types of gender-based violence enables States to design specific intervention strategies to combat the different types of violence (The United Nations, 1995). This Master's Thesis seeks to increase the knowledge of IPV and the Nordic Paradox within the Finnish context.

2.2. Hostile Sexism

Previous research has consistently linked sexist attitudes to various IPV-accepting attitudes (Gracia et al., 2020). According to Glick and Fiske's research (1996), sexism can be divided into benevolent and hostile sexism, both of which have their roots in patriarchal ideology. The term benevolent sexism describes the seemingly positive and protective but still stereotypical attitudes towards women and emphasizes male dominance (Glick & Fiske, 1996). Hostile sexism rather involves negative prejudice and discriminatory attitudes against women (Glick & Fiske, 1996). Hostile sexism has been linked to higher perpetration of IPV. Additionally, higher hostile sexism norm feedback has been connected to higher victim-blaming attitudes (Cinquegrana et al., 2022; Koepke et al., 2014). Moreover, IPV is a

gendered phenomenon, which means that gender has an effect on why and how the violence has been initiated and what type of violence is being used (Lidman, 2015). In gender-based violence, the gender of the victim and the aggressor, are integral parts of larger social phenomena that result in gendered violence (Alberdi & Matas, 2002). While people of all genders can experience IPV or execute IPV, most perpetrators of IPV are men (77% of suspects in Finland), and the majority of victims are women (75% of adult victims in Finland) (Lähisuhdeväkivalta, 2021). In Finland, 90 % of homicides where the perpetrator was a current or former spouse involved a female victim (Lähisuhdeväkivalta, 2021). This pattern is also seen across Europe, where 51.7% of women who have been in intimate relationships have experienced violence (Barbier et al., 2022). The figures likely are underestimated, as not all cases are reported to authorities.

Furthermore, Alberdi & Matas (2002) stress that IPV is gender-based violence, not sex-based violence. Historically, unequal power relations between men and women manifests itself as gendered violence to this day (The United Nations, 1995). The patriarchal societal structure is embedded in the dominating culture (Alberdi & Matas, 2002). The current social order normalizes violence and creates a misconception that the current cultural context is the only possible one (Alberdi & Matas, 2002). The patriarchal societal structure and ideological violence make the other forms of violence possible, but in a large part unnecessary (Alberdi & Matas, 2002). Yet, domination is reinforced through physical, sexual, and psychological violence (Alberdi & Matas, 2002).

The inequality between men and women consists of separated gender roles (Ferrer-Pérez et al., 2016) and male-superiority (Alberdi & Matas, 2002). The bigger is the division between the functions and responsibilities of men and women and the bigger is the inequality in decision making, the bigger is the power-imbalance and ultimately, the bigger is the risk of domestic violence against women (Alberdi & Matas, 2002). The strict gender roles play a part in the domination of women, as violence can be used to 'keep them in place' in case women rebel against their gendered role in society (Alberdi & Matas, 2002). On the other hand, the acceptance of violence is a bigger risk factor for IPV, than adhering to the traditional gender roles (Woodin & O'Leary, 2009). In patriarchal culture, masculine identity is based on the domination over women and the feminine through domination and aggression (Woodin & O'Leary, 2009). As the dominant features are not a part of male biology, rather than a result of socialization, men constantly need to reaffirm their dominance and to perform under the societal pressure of strength, leadership, and virility (Alberdi & Matas, 2002). Virility consists of

the sexual capability, volition to compete, as of the capacity to produce violence (Alberdi & Matas, 2002). Additionally, Men's fear of 'not being man enough', could be a contributing factor behind IPV against women as men could feel the need to demonstrate their strength and dominance through violence (Alberdi & Matas, 2002). As virility and violence are intertwined, the more fear there is to lose one's manhood, the more exaggerated are the attempts to hold onto it through violence (Alberdi & Matas, 2002; Woodin & O'Leary, 2009), making male virility linked to the *Social backlash theory*.

2.3. IPV Acceptability

Previous research suggests that witnessing parents IPV in childhood increases the child's risk to either use or experience IPV in their adult intimate relationships (Capaldi et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2011). In the *cycle of violence hypothesis*, IPV acceptance and IPV behaviors are learned in childhood by witnessing the parent's actions (Smith, et al., 2011). IPV acceptance plays a key role in the intergenerational transmission of violence (Evans et al., 2022). IPV acceptance mediates the relationship of a person's own experiences of violence and perpetration and/or victimization of adolescent dating violence (Evans et al., 2022). In previous research, IPV acceptance has also predicted more lifetime physical violence (Gracia et al., 2020). However, contradictory findings have also been presented, with some studies not showing this connection (Shakoor et al., 2020). Mediating factors may influence this relationship (Shakoor et al., 2020), such as the child's gender and age, the family's socioeconomic status, the duration and intensity of the violence witnessed, direct DV against the child, and protecting factors such as support programs for victims and children. Most children who witness or experience violence do not become violent in their adulthood, especially if they experience high rates of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) or major depression related to the violence (Capaldi et al., 2009). There are some study results that support the *cycle of violence* theory by indicating that victimized children have higher probability of becoming victims in adulthood even though a similar connection has not been found with IPV aggression (Renner & Slack, 2006). The phenomenon might be gendered, as Renner and Slack (2006) demonstrated that especially female children were more likely to end up as IPV victims in adulthood if they had witnessed parents' IPV during childhood (Renner & Slack, 2006). Renner and Slack (2006) suggest that the individuals in question might be learning or modeling "victim" behaviors or beliefs that raise their likelihood of experiencing IPV. According to this theory, certain beliefs may predispose the individual to a higher

likelihood of experiencing victimhood. However, the exact mechanism is still unknown (Renner & Slack, 2006).

In summary, if IPV is a learned behavioral model from childhood, prevention programs should target the children in question. Targeting children in risk could break the intergenerational cycles of abuse (Michell & James, 2009; Renner & Slack, 2006). Alberdi and Matas (2002) propose a larger scale equality education starting from primary school programs. Furthermore, women typically have less accepting attitudes towards IPV than men and men's acceptance of IPV even increases when they know the perpetrator (Gracia & Herrero, 2006). Therefore, the acceptance of IPV is connected to the peer culture among males. In gender-equal countries, IPV-accepting attitudes seem to be somewhat dichotomous. Gracia and Herrero (2006) found in the large EU-wide survey that in countries of higher gender equality, the difference in IPV acceptance between people of high and low victim-blaming attitudes was also larger.

2.4. Victim-Blaming Attitudes

Victim-blaming attitudes shift the responsibility of the violence to the victim from the aggressor (Sace, 2024; Welsh Women's Aid, 2023). Victim-blaming attitudes are widely spread through popular culture, repeated in stereotypes, and taught to younger generations through socialization to the dominant culture (The Southern, 2022). Moreover, IPV aggressors exhibit higher levels of victim-blaming attitudes than the general public (Holma & Nyqvist, 2017). Effective treatment for IPV aggressors begins with acknowledging accountability, which can be challenging. Even after voluntary counseling sessions, many aggressors still express higher levels of victim-blaming attitudes or view themselves as powerless against their own nature (Holma & Nyqvist, 2017). Meanwhile, the victims often have a heightened sense of feeling guilty for being victims (Alberdi & Matas, 2002). Several theories could explain this phenomenon. Victims may have internalized a victim-blaming mentality taught by the aggressor, leading them to feel responsible for the violent situations, their inability to stop the violence, or their inability to leave the relationship (Alberdi & Matas, 2002). In addition, IPV victims could be using self-inculpabilization as a psychological control mechanism that allows them to feel some level of control over the situation (Alberdi & Matas, 2002). Furthermore, the police's victim-blaming attitudes affect the IPV victim's access to legal protection, as the police are the first line of legal protection between the victims and the legal system (Lila et al., 2010). Police officers'

sexist attitudes and victim-blaming attitudes have been shown to affect their actions when they attend IPV situations (Lila et al., 2010). Lower levels of sexism and higher levels of empathy towards the victims led the officers to act according to the law, instead of dismissing the situation (Lila et al., 2010). Since the police is often the victim's first contact to the legal system, they reflect the societal acceptability of gendered violence (Lila et al., 2010).

2.5. Perceived Severity of IPV

Male violence has been viewed as natural and violence acceptance is taught since infancy (Alberdi & Matas, 2002), leading to lower perceived severity of IPV. Attitudes that tolerate, justify, or legitimize IPV have been demonstrated to be the biggest risk factor for IPV (Ferrer-Pérez et al., 2006; Gracia et al., 2020). Attitudes towards IPV acceptance can significantly influence help-seeking behavior, getting help, disclosure of violence, and recovery from it (Gracia et al., 2020). While IPV is increasingly recognized as a problem, its severity and prevalence are often downplayed, perpetuated by widespread silence and skepticism about the credibility of victims (Alberdi & Matas, 2002). Additionally, conflicts inside families have been considered a private matter and bad habits rather than recognized as acts of violence, and the society has been reluctant to interfere (Lidman, 2015; The United Nations, 1995), which has hindered the legal attention towards it (Alberdi & Matas, 2002). The historical context affects the cultural attitudes to this day, which has led the problem to be left without the attention it requires (Lidman, 2015). Moreover, attitudes surrounding IPV are divided by gender. According to previous research, women are less likely to accept or justify IPV than men, and they are also more willing to intervene in such situations and perceive IPV as more severe than men do (Gracia et al., 2020). Individual level experiences of violence, prejudices, stereotypical perception of gender roles and sexist attitudes have an influence on a person's attitudes towards IPV (Gracia et al., 2020). In the countries with high gender equality, the perceived severity of IPV against women is also higher (Karlsson et al., 2022). The more common people consider IPV to be, the more severe they tend to perceive it, and vice versa (Karlsson et al., 2022). Therefore, raising public awareness of IPV is important in order to mitigate its prevalence.

2.6. Willingness to intervene in IPV situations

Willingness to intervene in situations of IPV reflects the society's attitudes and tolerance towards IPV (Gracia et al., 2018). Although reported willingness to intervene does not guarantee action, it still reflects people's intentions and shapes the social context in which IPV occurs (Gracia et al., 2018). An outsider's reactions to IPV sends a message to both the perpetrator and the victim, influencing subsequent actions (Gracia et al., 2018). Depending on the outsider's reaction, the outcome may vary significantly: it might lead to the continuation and reinforcement of violence, inhibiting disclosure or help-seeking, or it could result in the reduction or cessation of violence (Gracia et al., 2018). According to Gracia and colleagues (2018), attitudes of non-willingness to intervene are still rather common and IPV is most often reported by the victim herself rather than an outsider. Typical reasons behind unwillingness to intervene are that it is a private matter, lack of proof or unwillingness to cause trouble (Gracia et al., 2018).

Perceived severity of IPV is typically connected to willingness to intervene, with women generally more willing to intervene than men (Gracia et al., 2020). Women and men also have different preferences in the type of intervention: women are more often calling the police, while men tend to favor personal intervention (Gracia et al., 2020). Additionally, people are more willing to intervene in IPV situations if the victim is a woman and when the society promotes a helping social norm (Gracia et al., 2020). Willingness to intervene is positively associated with empathy, personal responsibility, negative emotions towards IPV, and in-group helping norm, and negatively associated with victim-blaming attitudes (Gracia et al., 2020). Investigating willingness to intervene and the reasons behind it enhances understanding of the different attitudes and actions regarding IPV in society, aiding in finding solutions.

2.7. The profound impact of IPV: Social, Health, and Economic Consequences

IPV inflicts high social, health and economic costs at both individual and societal levels (The United Nations, 1995). It profoundly affects the victim's health and quality of life, underscoring the need to comprehend the underlying mechanisms of IPV, such as victim-blaming attitudes, hostile sexism, willingness to intervene in IPV situations, acceptance and perceived severity of IPV. Similar to physical violence, psychological violence can be highly detrimental, often harming the victim's well-

being and self-perception (Ureña et al., 2014). Psychological violence not only poses a risk for physical violence by frequently preceding it, although it can also occur independently (Juarros-Basterretxea et al., 2018). THL (2022) underlines that uninterrupted IPV tends to escalate to increasingly violent extremes.

Only recently has IPV been recognized as a public health risk (Michell & James, 2009). The healthcare costs associated with IPV victims are significantly elevated, often exceeding double the costs incurred by non-victims (Siltala et al., 2022). The added costs of IPV victims could be as high as 150 million euros per year (Siltala et al., 2022). Moreover, IPV increases the risk for several health problems, including physical injuries, psychological problems, and biopsychological immune system health problems (Campell et al., 2009; Michell & James, 2009). Experiencing IPV raises the victim's probability to develop heart disease, stroke, asthma, and arthritis (Michell & James, 2009). These health problems are linked to the higher levels of stress experienced by the victims of IPV (Campell et al., 2009; Michell & James, 2009; THL, 2022). The chronic stress can lead to diverse physiological and psychological disorders that can continue affecting the victim's life long after the violence itself has ended (Siltala et al., 2022). IPV experiences can be traumatizing and therefore affect the victims' mental processes in unexpected ways (THL, 2022). The victim can seem either unresponsive and submissive, or agitated and aggressive (THL, 2022). IPV can cause memory lapses and the victims' statement can be complemented as the victims remember more details (THL, 2022). It is also possible that the victim absolutely refuses to recognize the violence (THL, 2022). Furthermore, IPV victims have a heightened risk of suffering psychological problems such as depression, anxiety, to develop sleep and eating disorders, or to experience intense feelings of shame and culpability (THL, 2022). IPV can cause for example PTSD, panic disorder, psychosomatic disorders, alcohol and drug abuse disorders, aggressive behavior and partaking in self-harm (THL, 2022). Domestic violence victims had 70% higher legal costs compared to non-victims (Siltala et al., 2022). As well as direct costs, secondary costs should be considered as health and legal concerns can affect the victim's ability to work and study. The heightened costs of social services was 60-90% higher than those of non-victims (Siltala et al., 2022). In addition, IPV witnessed by the children is malevolent to their development and can have long lasting consequences that can form into intergenerational chains of terror (Siltala et al., 2022). Meanwhile, most IPV victims refrain from seeking help, thereby exacerbating the actual costs and effects (Siltala et al., 2022). Frequently, victims are too frightened or depressed to actively

seek assistance. Consequently, national screening for IPV is conducted within healthcare services for expecting mothers and in infant care (THL, 2022).

2.8. Research Question and Hypotheses

IPV is a severe and multifaceted problem and the public attitudes towards IPV are essential for finding solutions. While gender equality should theoretically be a factor reducing IPV, the situation in Finland and other Nordic countries is the opposite (Gracia & Merlo, 2016). Investigating different attitudes within society might help to unravel this complex phenomenon. Accordingly, the purpose of this study is to examine the associations between IPV and several pertinent factors, including victim-blaming attitudes, willingness to intervene, hostile sexism, acceptance of IPV, and the perceived severity of IPV in our Finnish sample. Understanding these correlations is crucial because it provides insights into the underlying attitudes that perpetuate IPV. Furthermore, our aim is to identify distinct profiles among participants based on their attitudes and experiences of IPV. If different profiles were identified, we are further interested in identifying differences among them in terms of their attitudes and demographic characteristics. These endeavors hold importance in informing strategies for IPV prevention and victim support. Based on previous research, we anticipate that victim-blaming attitudes, willingness to intervene, hostile sexism, acceptance of IPV, and the perceived severity are interconnected. Specifically, hostile sexism is expected to be connected to higher victim-blaming attitudes and acceptance of IPV, and lower levels of perceived severity and willingness to intervene in IPV cases (Gracia et al., 2020). Based on previous research, we expect that individuals who have engaged in IPV as aggressors, tend to exhibit higher levels of victim-blaming attitudes, hostile sexism and acceptance of IPV (Gracia et al., 2020). In addition, according to earlier research, we expect victims of IPV to be more likely to report higher rates of perceived severity and willingness to intervene (Beeble et al., 2008; Gracia et al., 2020; Woods, 2020). Therefore, we anticipate identifying distinct profiles for IPV victims and aggressors, each with different attitudes towards IPV.

3. METHODS

A total of 105 participants took part in the study. All the participants have read and signed the informed consent before partaking in the study. No personal information was gathered from the

participants, only demographic characteristics, which can be seen in Table 1. The vast majority, 82% of respondents were women, 17% were men and 1% other genders. The participants were mainly highly educated; 58% had undergraduate or higher degrees, 35% had completed high school or vocational school and 7% had finished secondary school as their highest grade. The majority (67%) were married, living together with someone or dating. 23% answered “not in a relationship”, around 10% were divorced and 1% reported being widowed. Intimate relationship experience was reported by nearly 90% of the respondents.

3.1. Procedure

The research has been executed by doing an online survey with questionnaires on the attitudes people have on IPV. In addition, questionnaires about persons’ own experiences of IPV and about relationships to friends and family, desirable responding, acceptance and commitment and self-compassion were included in the survey.

The Master’s Thesis and the associated data collection was done as a part of the Nordic Paradox research project in the University of Jyväskylä in Central Finland. The data was gathered through a Webropol online survey. The participants were asked to respond to several different types of questionnaires attached to the subject. The survey was disseminated to students and staff of the University of Jyväskylä via several University emailing lists during the spring of 2023. In addition, a link to the survey was shared in several local Facebook groups during the summer of 2023.

Table 1

Participants' sociodemographic characteristics. All participants informed consent to participate in the research.

Baseline characteristics	n=105
Age M	34,3
Gender	
Female	86 (81,9 %)
Male	18 (17,1 %)
Other	1 (1 %)
Educational level	
Secondary school	7 (6,7 %)
High school or vocational school	37 (35,2 %)
Undergraduate degree	42 (40,0 %)
Graduate degree	17 (16,2 %)
Doctoral degree	2 (1,9 %)
Relationship status	
Marriage or cohabitation	52 (49,5 %)
Dating	18 (17,1 %)
Not in a relationship	24 (22,9 %)
Divorced	10 (9,5 %)
Widow	1 (1 %)
Ever in a relationship	
Yes	94 (89,5 %)
No	11 (10,5 %)

3.2. Measurements

The survey consisted of six distinct questionnaires aiming to examine participants' attitudes on women and IPV. The questionnaires also included questions of participants' experiences of psychological IPV.

The questionnaire of Psychological Dating Violence (PDV-Q) by Ureña and colleagues (2014) was utilized to evaluate psychological IPV experiences. The PDV-Q is a 13-item measure with a 5-point Likert response scale (values ranging from 0 = never to 4 = always, e.g., “To compare the partner to other people”) which measures the level of involvement in aggressive behavior or victimization across different situations experienced in the past (“he/she to you” and “you to him/her”). In a previous study, the PDV-Q has shown satisfactory reliability for two subscales: victimization, and aggression with Cronbach's alphas of .88 for the victimization subscale, .85 for the aggression subscale, and an overall coefficient of .92 (Ureña et al., 2015). In this study, Cronbach's values were .88 for the aggression subscale and .95 for the victimization subscale.

The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI) by Glick & Fiske, (1996) was used to measure participants' sexist attitudes towards women. The ASI questionnaire is a 22-item measure with a 6-point Likert response scale (values ranging from 0 = “disagree strongly” to 5 = “agree strongly”, e.g., “Women are too easily offended”). In this study, the hostile sexism subscale consisting of 11 items was used, asking respondents' opinions on statements concerning relationships between men and women in order to measure their hostile sexist attitudes towards women. In previous research the ASI has shown satisfactory reliability, Cronbach's α ranging from .80 to .92 for the subscale of hostile sexism (Glick & Fiske, 1996). In this study Cronbach's α was .92.

Acceptability of Intimate Partner Violence Against Women questionnaire (A-IPVAW) by Martín-Fernández and colleagues (2018a) was used to measure participants' acceptance of IPV in different types of scenarios. A-IPVAW scale is a 20-item measure with a 3-point Likert-scale (values ranging from 0 = “acceptable”, to = “not acceptable”, eg. “To hit his partner if she is not treating him with respect”). In previous research the A-IPVAW scale has shown satisfactory reliability in an item response theory (IRT) framework study being particularly accurate with moderate, high and very high levels of acceptance of IPV, although less accurate with lower levels of acceptance (Martín-

Fernández et al., 2018a). In this study Cronbach's α was .71, but four questions were left out as zero variance was found between the answers. Closer investigation of the data shows that participants were unanimous of these four questions.

Perceived Severity of Intimate Partner Violence questionnaire (PS-IPVAW) by Martín-Fernández and colleagues (2022) was used to measure participants' perceptions of the severity of IPV. PS-IPVAW is a 7-item measure where each item presents a scenario of IPV against women and participants are asked to evaluate the severity of each scenario on a scale from 0 to 10 (E.g. "A couple argues, the man insults the woman and threatens to hit her"). In previous research the PS-IPVAW has shown satisfactory reliability, Cronbach's α being .89 and .90 in two different samples (Martín-Fernández et al., 2022). In this study Cronbach's α was .88.

The questionnaire Victim-Blaming Attitudes in Cases of Intimate Partner Violence against Women (VB-IPVAW) by Martín-Fernández and colleagues (2018b) was used to assess participants' victim-blaming attitudes, that is, to what extent they tolerate or try to explain IPV. VB-IPVAW is a 12-item measure with a 4-level Likert-scale (values ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 4 = "strongly agree", e.g. "Men are violent towards their partners because women provoke them"). In previous research VB-IPVAW has shown satisfactory reliability, Cronbach's α being .89 (Martín-Fernández et al., 2018b). In this study, Cronbach's α for the VB-IPVAW scale was .78. The Willingness to Intervene in cases of Intimate Partner Violence Against Women (WI-IPVAW) questionnaire by Gracia and colleagues (2018) was used to measure participants' willingness to intervene if they encounter a situation related to IPV. WI-IPVAW is a 28-item measure with a 6-level Likert scale (values ranging from 1 = "not likely at all" to 6 = "extremely likely" e.g. "If a man insulted his partner on the street, I would say something to express my disapproval"). In previous research the full WI-IPVAW scale has shown a very good internal consistency (Cronbach's α = .94) (Gracia et al, 2018). Also in this study, the reliability was satisfactory with Cronbach's α = .80.

3.3. Data Analysis

The data obtained from the survey on Webropol was analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistics, version 28.0.0.0. Sum variables were created for all the questionnaires, to represent each of the questionnaires according to the applicable literature. The frequencies of the sum variables were examined and as it

was noticed that the variables are mainly not normally distributed, non-parametric tests were used in the analysis.

The distribution of the sum variable IPV aggression representing the perpetrated IPV includes a deviant value. To ensure a more cautious analytical approach, the effect of the deviant value is evaluated while analyzing the data and, if applicable, moved to the tails of the distributions. To examine the associations between the experiences of IPV and victim-blaming attitudes, willingness to intervene, hostile sexism, acceptance of IPV and the perceived severity of IPV, a correlation analysis was executed using non-parametric Spearman rank correlation calculation. In Cohen's (1992) framework, correlations ranging from $r = 0.10$ to 0.30 are categorized as small, those from $r = 0.31$ to 0.50 as medium or moderate, and those from $r = 0.51$ to 1 as high. Furthermore, to identify distinct profiles among participants, k-means clustering was used. Clustering was done based on participants' responses of perpetrating or experiencing IPV. In addition, the sum variables of both hostile sexism and victim blaming attitudes were used in the clustering. If the distinct clusters were to be found, the General Linear Model (GLM) would be used to test if the participants in the different clusters differ from each other statistically significantly. The General Linear Model is a suitable analytical method to be used with our data as the fixed factor is a nominal variable and each of the dependent variables is of interval scale. The assumption of normality is not mandatory in GLM calculations, but the normality of residuals is. As our variables were not normally distributed but some of them are skewed, it might be that some of the distributions of the residuals are almost normally distributed but some are not. The calculations executed with the General Linear Model are thus confirmed with non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis testing if needed. In case of demographic variables, some of them are of ordinal or nominal scale in which case cross-tabulation is used.

4. RESULTS

To investigate the first research question regarding the relationship among IPV aggression, victimization, and its related factors including victim-blaming attitudes, willingness to intervene, hostile sexism, acceptance of IPV and perceived severity of IPV, non-parametric Spearman's rank correlations were conducted. Additionally, to determine whether IPV aggressors and victims show differing levels of victim-blaming attitudes, hostile sexism, acceptance of IPV, perceived severity and

willingness to intervene, cluster analysis was employed. This method allowed us to identify distinct groups or clusters among the participants.

4.1. Correlation analysis

The results of the correlation analysis are presented in Figure 1. The correlation between perpetrating psychological aggression towards a dating partner (IPV Aggression) and being victimized by a dating partner (IPV Victimization) was positive and high (IPV Aggression-IPV Victimization; $r = 0.695$, $p < 0.001$, $n = 94$) (Cohen, 1992). In addition, Victim-blaming attitudes (VB) and Hostile sexism (ASI) correlated moderately, correlation being positive (VB-ASI; $r = 0,450$, $p < 0.001$, $n = 105$) (Cohen, 1992). Being victimized had a weak negative correlation with Willingness to Intervene (WI), (IPV Victimization-WI; $r = -0.281$, $p < 0.01$, $n = 94$) (Cohen, 1992). A bit surprisingly, being a victim was weakly related to higher Victim-Blaming attitudes (IPV Victimization-VB $r = 0.277$, $p < 0.01$, $n = 94$) and Hostile Sexism (IPV Victimization-ASI; $r = 0.204$, $p < 0,05$, $n = 94$) (Cohen, 1992). Victim-Blaming attitudes correlated weakly with Acceptability (A), (VB-A; $r = 0.222$, $p < 0.05$, $n = 105$) as well as and Perceived Severity (PS) and Willingness to Intervene (PS-WI; $r = 0.273$, $p < 0.01$, $n = 105$) too (Cohen, 1992). Victim Blaming and Perceived Severity had a weak negative correlation (VB-PS; $r = -0.269$, $p < 0,01$, $n = 105$) (Cohen, 1992).

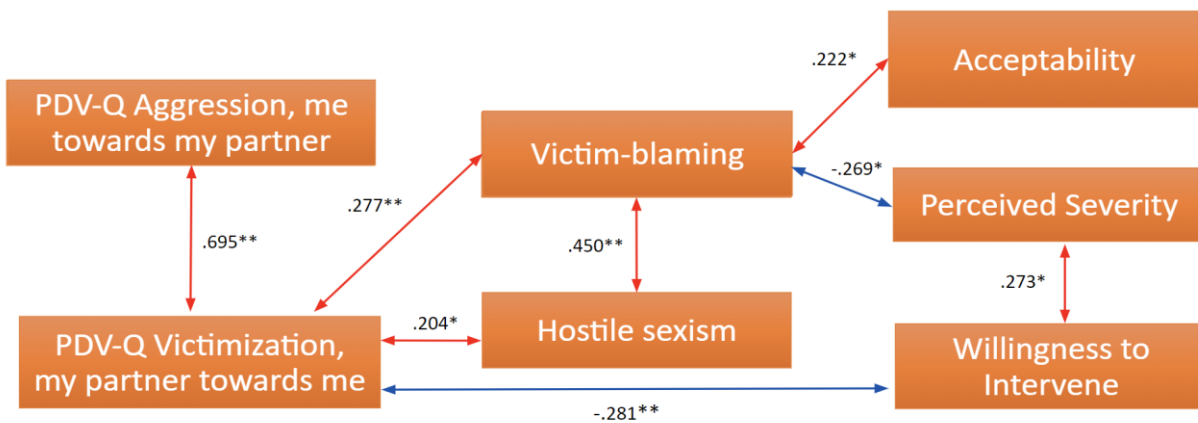


Figure 1. The correlations between the sum variables of IPV Aggression, IPV Victimization, Victim-Blaming, Hostile Sexism, Acceptability, Perceived Severity and Willingness to Intervene.

In addition, concerning the correlations between variables of experiences and attitudes, the analysis showed a moderate positive correlation between age and experienced IPV (Age-IPV Victimization; $r = 0,476$, $p < 0.001$, $n = 94$), as well as weak positive correlations between age and perpetrated IPV (Age-IPV Aggression; $r = 0.385$, $p < 0.001$, $n = 94$), age and hostile sexism (Age-ASI; $r = 0.301$, $p < 0.01$, $n = 105$), and age and perceived severity (Age-PS, $r = 0,261$, $p < 0.01$, $n = 105$) (Cohen, 1992). Education did not correlate with any of the other variables. However, age showed a positive correlation with education, as expected.

4.2. Cluster analysis

Clustering was done based on participants' responses of perpetrating or experiencing IPV and questions of victim-blaming and hostile sexist attitudes as these correlated strongest in the previous analysis. The deviant value in the distribution of the variable (Figure 2) of IPV Aggression did not have an effect in the results in the Spearman's rank correlation analysis but did so in the clustering analysis. Initially, most of the participants were grouped as a result in one cluster, leaving the others nearly empty, leading to less distinct differences between clusters. After removing the deviant value, the clustering gave a more clear result and the participants were divided between the clusters more evenly. Therefore, for further analysis, the deviant value of the variable IPV Aggression was decided to be moved to the tails of the distribution (Figure 2).

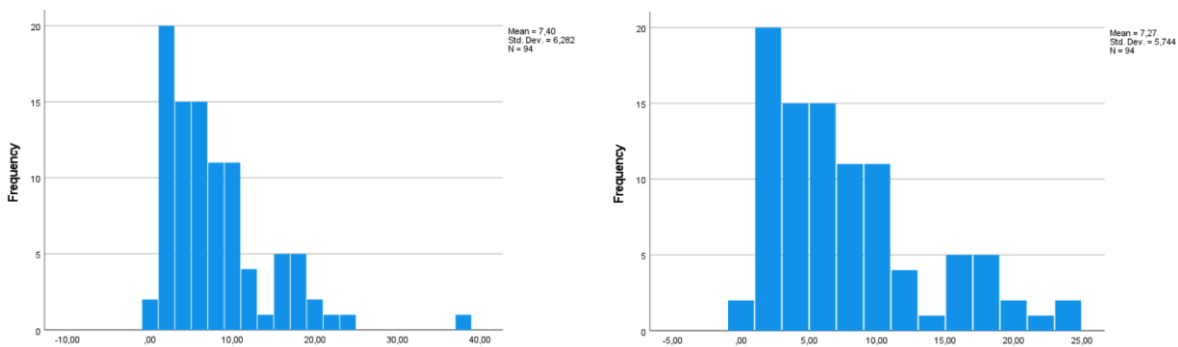


Figure 2. The sum variable of IPV Aggression had a deviant value, which was moved to the tails of the distribution as it had a strong influence on the results of the clustering analysis.

The clustering was performed using standardized variables in k-means clustering in SPSS, iterating through divisions into two, then three, and even four different clusters. Through this iteration process,

it was determined that the model of three different clusters provided the clearest and most informative results. In the three-cluster model, the first cluster consists of participants with above-average scores in both experienced and perpetrated PDV (PDV Victimization and PDV Aggression), as well as above-average scores in hostile sexist and victim-blaming attitudes. The second cluster includes participants with below-average scores in both experienced and perpetrated IPV, along with below-average scores in hostile sexist and victim-blaming attitudes. The third cluster is characterized by ambivalence, consisting of participants with below-average experiences of psychological IPV (both experienced and perpetrated), but above-average sexist and victim-blaming attitudes. The clustering is presented in Figure 3.

The first cluster, named *High*, consists of 16 participants with an average age of 46,8 years. The second cluster, named *Low* and being the largest cluster, consists of 64 participants with an average age of 31,7 years. The third cluster, named *Ambivalent*, consists of 25 participants with an average age of 32,8 years.

ba

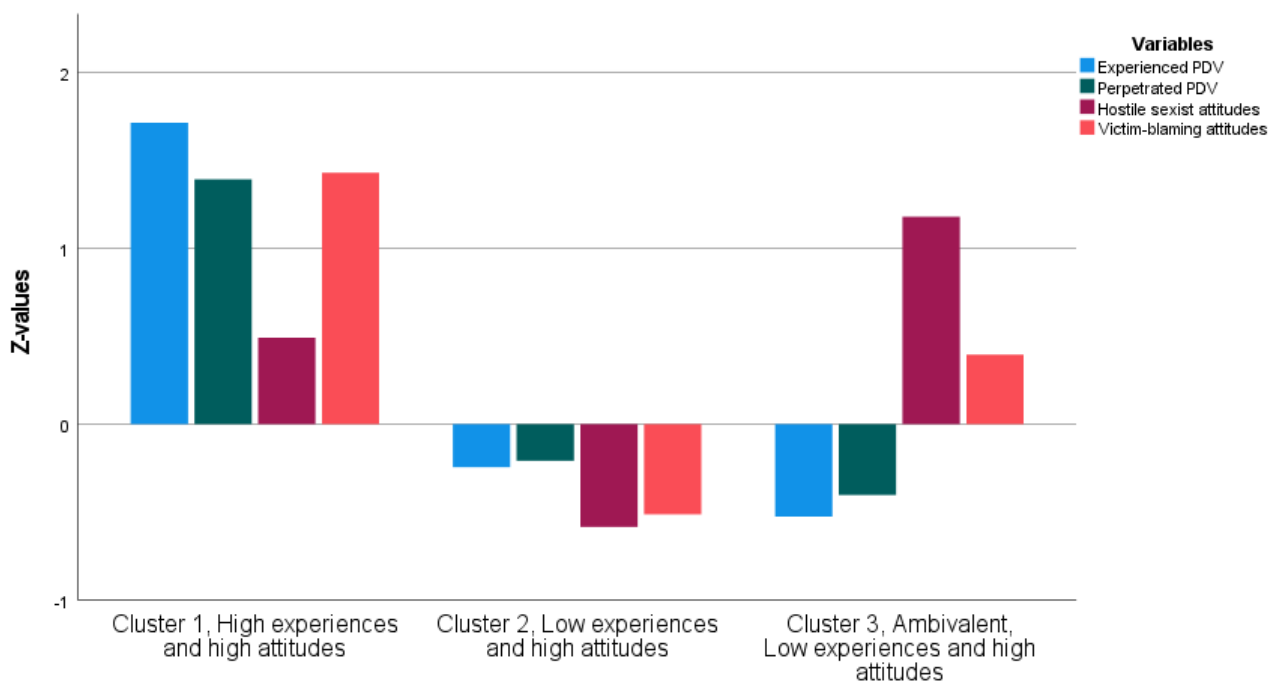


Figure 3. Three different types of answerers found in k-means clustering using experiences of psychological IPV, hostile sexism and victim-blaming attitudes as clustering variables.

4.3. Analyzing the clusters with General Linear Model

To answer the research question of how the clusters differed from each other, we employed General Linear Model (GLM) analysis to test for statistically significant differences in several variables used in the clustering: IPV Aggression, IPV Victimization, Hostile sexism and Victim-blaming. Each variable was tested individually as a dependent variable, with the participant's cluster designation as the fixed factor.

According to the GLM calculation, the clusters statistically significantly differed from each other in the means of victim-blaming attitudes [$F(2, 102) = 53.873, p < 0.001, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.514$], hostile sexist attitudes [$F(2, 102) = 70.80, p < 0.001, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.581$] and experiences of IPV, [$F(2, 91) = 27.763, p < .001, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.379$] for IPV Aggression and [$F(2, 91) = 62.314, p < 0.001, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.578$] for IPV Victimization. Victim-blaming attitudes were significantly different in all the three clusters based on the pairwise comparisons, with the highest levels in the *High* cluster and the lowest in the *Low* cluster. Post hoc tests for hostile sexism were conducted using Dunnett T3 due to unequal variances per Levene's test. The *Low* cluster exhibited significantly lower sexist attitudes than the other clusters whereas hostile sexism does not segregate the cluster *High* and the *Ambivalent* cluster. As, according to the test of Levene, the equality of variances of hostile sexism wasn't there, the results were obtained using Dunnett T3 post hoc tests. The difference between the *Low* and *Ambivalent* clusters in experienced or perpetrated psychological violence didn't reach significance, whereas, both of the clusters differed significantly from the *High* cluster in both experienced and perpetrated psychological violence. Based on the Levene's test, the post hoc tests for experienced psychological violence were done using Dunnett T3 while Bonferroni was used in case of perpetrated psychological violence due to equality of variances. The means, standard deviations and p-values of the GLM analysis are presented in Table 2.

Additionally, we explored whether the clusters differed in attitudes towards IPV regarding acceptability, perceived severity, and willingness to intervene. The differences in perceived severity did not reach significance between the three clusters. Differences in acceptability did reach significance [$F(2, 102) = 8.530, p < .001, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .143$]. According to the pairwise comparisons, the difference in acceptance was found only between the *Low* and *Ambivalent* clusters, the *Ambivalent* cluster having more accepting attitudes. Based on the test of Levene, the results were obtained using

Dunnet T3 post hoc test. Furthermore, the clusters differed in terms of willingness to intervene [$F(2, 102) = 3.47, p < .001, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .064$]. In the pairwise comparisons, the difference between the *High* and *Ambivalent* clusters reached significance, willingness to intervene being higher in the *Ambivalent* cluster. The means, standard deviations and p-values of these calculations can also be found in Table 2.

Examples of the residual distributions from the GLM calculations are illustrated in Figure 4, showing noticeable skewness in some distributions. Therefore, to validate the results, non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis tests were conducted for all the dependent variables. The results from the Kruskal-Wallis test were consistent with those of the GLM, indicating the reliability of the latter results for reporting purposes.

Table 2

The means, standard deviations and p-values of all the dependent variables in the calculation of General Linear Model.

Dependent variable, attitude or experience, used in clustering	Cluster	Mean	SD	Significance of differences between groups		
				Cluster 1 <i>High</i>	Cluster 2 <i>Low</i>	Cluster 3 <i>Ambivalent</i>
Victim-blaming attitudes	1 <i>High</i>	19,88	3,93	-		
	2 <i>Low</i>	13,05	1,36	<.001	-	
	3 <i>Ambivalent</i>	16,24	3,39	.015	<.001	-
Hostile sexist attitudes	1 <i>High</i>	1,32	1,03	-		
	2 <i>Low</i>	0,30	0,35	.004	-	
	3 <i>Ambivalent</i>	1,97	0,81		<.001	-
Experienced IPV	1 <i>High</i>	36,33	8,57	-		
	2 <i>Low</i>	10,64	9,80	<.001	-	
	3 <i>Ambivalent</i>	6,96	4,50	<.001		-
Perpetrated IPV	1 <i>High</i>	15,27	5,80	-		
	2 <i>Low</i>	6,07	4,67	<.001	-	
	3 <i>Ambivalent</i>	4,96	3,27	<.001		-
Dependent variable, other than used in the clustering						
Accepting attitudes	1 <i>High</i>	1,13	1,89	-		
	2 <i>Low</i>	0,55	0,94		-	
	3 <i>Ambivalent</i>	2,16	2,67		.02	-
Perceived severity	1 <i>High</i>	64,75	4,46	-		
	2 <i>Low</i>	64,41	5,81		-	
	3 <i>Ambivalent</i>	62,36	8,25			-
Willingness to intervene	1 <i>High</i>	99,63	11,74	-		
	2 <i>Low</i>	105,42	12,26		-	
	3 <i>Ambivalent</i>	110,48	15,27	.031		-

Each dependent variable has been examined separately.

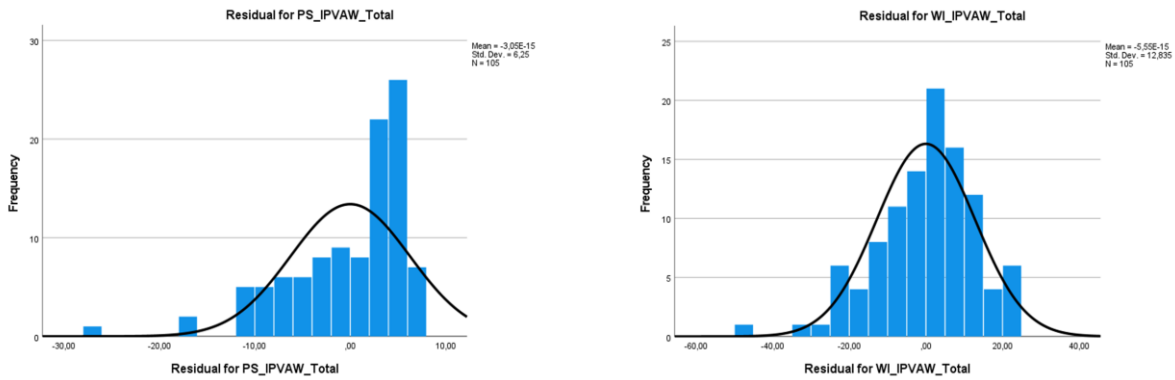


Figure 4. Two examples of skewed distributions of residuals in GLM calculation.

4.4. Comparing demographic variables in different clusters

To further investigate whether the clusters found among participants differ from each other based on demographic characteristics, additional analyses were conducted. The groups were compared on the means of age, education, marital status and gender. Age was examined by using GLM to test if the mean values of age are significantly different in different clusters, thus the calculation was run by placing age as the dependent variable and clustering as the fixed variable. The groups differed in the means of age [$F(2, 102) = 9.329, p < .001, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.155$]. The mean age in the *High* cluster was statistically significantly higher than in the second or third cluster. The mean age in the *Low* cluster was lower than in the *Ambivalent* cluster, but the difference did not reach significance. As the residual distribution of the calculation was skewed, the calculation was confirmed using non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test. As the results were similar to the results from the general linear model, the results from the general linear model are reported in this research. The mean ages, standard deviations and p-values of the calculation are seen in Table 3.

Table 3*Means, standard deviations and p-values of age in the three clusters.*

Cluster	Mean age, years	SD	Significance of differences between groups		
			Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3
1 High experiences, high attitudes	46,81	14,14	-		
2 Low experiences, low attitudes	31,70	12,34	<.001	-	
3 Ambivalent	32,84	12,50	.002		-

Additionally, we aimed to analyze differences among clusters in terms of education, marital status, and gender. As education is of ordinal scale and marital status and gender are nominal scales, the analyses were executed through cross tabulation. Cross tabulation of each of the demographic variables with participants' membership in a cluster showed that more than 20 % of expected counts in the crosstabs were below five and each crosstab included expected counts below one. Furthermore, as a summary of what Cochran (1952) has mentioned about too small, expected values when using χ^2 testing and Metsämuuronen's (2011) opinion about using the Exact Testing whenever it is possible, the dependence between the group membership and each of the demographic variables was examined using Fisher-Freeman-Halton Exact Test in addition to χ^2 testing. Although there were differences in the educational background of participants in different clusters, dependence between education and cluster membership did not reach significance, $\chi^2(8) = 10.913$; $p = 0.207$. According to Fisher-Freeman-Halton Exact Test, the result was similar ($p = 0.248$). Moreover, marital status reached significance $\chi^2(8) = 16.521$; $p = 0.036$ and the same was confirmed with the Exact Test ($p = 0.046$). Thus, marital status of the participants is attached to their cluster membership. Investigating the adjusted standardized residuals reveals that divorced participants are overrepresented in the *High* cluster. Additionally, the dependence between gender and cluster membership was on the edge of significance according to χ^2 test, $\chi^2(8) = 9.483$; $p = 0.05$. The Fisher-Freeman-Halton Exact Test showed a clearer significance, ($p = 0.022$). The adjusted standardized residuals show that men are statistically significantly overrepresented, and women are underrepresented in the *Ambivalent* cluster. Women are overrepresented and men underrepresented in the *Low* cluster. There are no statistically significant differences in the gender distribution in the *High* cluster. Notably, only one response from

a participant representing other genders was received and this participant was a member of the *Low* cluster.

5. DISCUSSION

Despite expectations that gender equality would reduce IPV, the situation in Finland and other Nordic countries contradicts this notion (Gracia & Merlo, 2016). Investigating societal attitudes can help unravel this complex phenomenon. Consequently, this study focuses on understanding the severe and multifaceted problem of IPV by examining public attitudes in Finland, which are crucial for finding effective solutions. Specifically, in this Master thesis we aimed to examine the relationship between IPV and several pertinent factors, including victim-blaming attitudes, willingness to intervene, hostile sexism, acceptance of IPV, and the perceived severity of IPV in our Finnish sample. Understanding these correlations provides insights into the underlying attitudes that perpetuate IPV. Furthermore, we aimed to identify distinct profiles among participants based on their attitudes and experiences of IPV. As a result of the analysis executed using correlation as a method, we were able to find connections between attitudinal variables and experiences of psychological IPV among the participants responding to the survey. Additionally, using k-means clustering, we were able to divide the participants into three distinct clusters, which we were able to name according to the experiences and attitudes the participants in each of the clusters held. These findings are essential for informing strategies for IPV prevention and victim support.

5.1. Exploring the Links Between Victim-Blaming, Hostile Sexism, and IPV in Finland

The correlation analysis revealed links between IPV aggression, victimization and related attitudes including victim-blaming, willingness to intervene, hostile sexism, acceptance of IPV, and the perceived severity of IPV. Notably, victim-blaming attitudes showed a weak positive correlation with acceptance of IPV, indicating that participants with stronger victim-blaming attitudes were more likely to accept IPV. This is in line with earlier research, where victim-blaming attitudes and IPV acceptance have been demonstrated to correlate positively in an EU sample (Gracia & Herrero, 2006).

Furthermore, the perceived severity of IPV showed a weak positive correlation with willingness to intervene and a weak negative correlation with victim-blaming attitudes. These results align with previous research that has demonstrated that victim-blaming attitudes and justification of IPV are connected to accepting attitudes towards IPV and negatively correlated with willingness to intervene in cases of IPV (Gracia et al., 2020). Notably, our data indicated that victim-blaming and willingness to intervene were connected only via perceived severity, as the direct correlation between victim-blaming and willingness to intervene was not significant. The positive correlation between perceived severity and willingness to intervene supports earlier research, which found that the more severe IPV is perceived, the more likely people are to intervene (Karlsson et al., 2022). Additionally, the data showed a moderate positive correlation between victim-blaming attitudes and hostile sexism. This finding aligns with previous research, which has found that sexism is associated with higher victim-blaming attitudes, greater acceptance of IPV, lower perceived severity of IPV, and reduced willingness to intervene (Gracia et al., 2020). In contrast with previous research, our data showed that only the correlation between hostile sexism and victim-blaming attitudes reached significance. The correlations between hostile sexism and other IPV-related attitudes did not reach statistical significance.

5.2. IPV Victimization: Links to Victim-Blaming, Hostile Sexism, and Willingness to Intervene

Psychological IPV victimization was found to be connected to IPV-related attitudes. Participants reporting higher victimization also reported higher victim-blaming and hostile sexist attitudes. Previous research has similarly found a positive correlation between IPV victimization and high victim-blaming attitudes (Swan et al., 2008). However, it remains unclear whether high victim-blaming and hostile sexist attitudes make individuals more susceptible to victimization or if experiencing psychological IPV leads to these attitudes. Specifically, women have been shown to exhibit victim-blaming attitudes that influence their perceptions of IPV situations (Neal & Edwards, 2017). Women who had experienced IPV often attributed their partner's violent behavior with self-blaming reasons such as unmet expectations on wifely duties, provocation or threats, jealousy, being questioned or challenged, and in cases of sexual violence, believing that they somehow wanted it (Neal & Edwards, 2017). This leads to a heightened sense of guilt among victims (Alberdi & Matas,

2002). Thus, internalized victim-blaming could explain the positive correlation found between IPV victimization and victim-blaming attitudes. Since it is difficult for the victims to accept that their partner is perpetrating violence, they may instead adopt self-blaming explanations, which can generalize into broader victim-blaming attitudes. Moreover, previous research has found a positive correlation between hostile sexism and the acceptance of IPV against women (Cinquegrana et al., 2022; Glick et al., 2002; Gracia et al., 2020; Valor-Segura et al., 2011). However, this correlation was not found statistically significant in our data. Although support for this theory was not found in our research, it is possible that women with high sexist attitudes may underestimate the severity of the psychological IPV and become more vulnerable to victimization (Cinquegrana et al., 2022). The purpose of psychological violence is to undermine the victim's self-confidence and self-trust through devaluation, humiliation, accusations, and other acts meant to break the victim's will (Alberdi & Matas, 2002). Aggressors can effectively shape their victims into adopting a victim-blaming mentality through psychological abuse. This manipulation may cause victims to feel trapped, accept the violence, or empathize with the aggressor (Alberdi & Matas, 2002). Furthermore, IPV victimization showed a weak negative correlation with willingness to intervene. Previous literature suggests that IPV might be viewed as a private matter (Alberdi & Matas, 2002), which could explain this result. Our findings contradict earlier research indicating that IPV victimization increases the victim's likelihood of intervening in similar situations (Beeble et al., 2008; Woods et al., 2020).

5.3. Strong Correlation between reported Perpetration and Victimization of IPV

We found a strong positive correlation between IPV aggression and victimization, which follows along with the earlier research surrounding the *Cycle of Violence* theory. Earlier research has demonstrated that childhood experiences of domestic violence heighten the individual's probability to experience or exhibit IPV behaviors in adulthood (Smith et al., 2011; Richards et al., 2017). IPV acceptance mediated the relationship between a person's own IPV experiences and IPV perpetration and/or victimization in earlier research (Evans et al., 2022; Gracia et al., 2020). In our sample, however, the correlation between IPV acceptance and IPV perpetration or victimization variables did not reach significance.

It has been demonstrated in earlier research that endorsement of sexist attitudes might make women become more vulnerable to victimization of psychological IPV (Cinquegrana et al., 2022).

Higher sexist attitudes on the other hand have been connected to higher rates of perpetration of IPV (Cinquegrana et al., 2022). These connections could explain our results to some extent. Additionally, internalized victim-blaming attitudes could be one explanation for the high correlation of the two variables representing experiences of IPV. The IPV victims that have high internalized victim-blaming attitudes might overestimate their own reactions and interpret their own behavior as more hostile than the IPV victims that exhibit lower levels of victim-blaming attitudes.

It is possible that the mechanisms of psychological violence are different than in physical violence. For example, it could be possible that both parties participate in psychological abuse even though physical violence was unilateral. Earlier research suggests that there could be gender differences that explain the high prevalence of psychological IPV done by women in our sample, as psychological IPV is more common for female aggressors while physical IPV is more common for male aggressors (White & Kowalski, 1994). Meanwhile females have been reported to be more often or as often perpetrators of IPV than males, the violence is at the less severe end of the continuum of physical abuse, and there is a complexity of contributory factors that affect the situations, like self-defense (White & Kowalski, 1994).

5.4. Distinct Profiles of IPV Aggressors and Victims

The k-means clustering analysis revealed that our survey participants exhibit distinct profiles concerning their experiences of psychological IPV, hostile sexist, victim-blaming and accepting attitudes, perceived severity of IPV, and willingness to intervene in IPV situations. This analysis identified three distinct clusters among the participants: 1) *High*, characterized by above average experiences of being both the aggressor and victim of psychological IPV, and having above-average victim-blaming and hostile sexism attitudes 2) *Low*, characterized by below-average levels of IPV victimization and aggression as well as below-average victim-blaming and hostile sexism attitudes; and 3) *Ambivalent*, characterized by below-average experiences of psychological IPV and above-average levels of victim-blaming and hostile sexism attitudes.

The Cluster 1; labeled as *High*, consisted of individuals who had reported higher levels of IPV victimization and perpetration compared to those in the *Low or Ambivalent* clusters. In addition, members of this cluster had the most victim-blaming attitudes among members of the three clusters

and more hostile sexist attitudes than members in the *Low* cluster. The mean age of the participants in this cluster was the highest.

The mean age being highest in the *High* cluster compared to other clusters, is somewhat expected as age also correlated positively with single variables, victimization, aggression and hostile sexism. This correlation suggests that older participants may have encountered more opportunities for experiencing violent situations. Divorced participants were overrepresented in the *High* cluster. The higher mean age in this group could contribute to their exposure to various life events. However, another possible explanation is that IPV was either the reason or a contributing factor for the divorce. This point of view could support the *circulating abuser theory*, which proposes that in countries where divorce is possible, the IPV aggressor has more victims than in other countries, as the victims have better opportunities of leaving the violent relationship (Permanyer & Gomez-Casillas, 2020; Wiechmann, 2022). Also, after leaving a violent partner, women are probably more willing to disclose the violence that occurred in their previous relationship.

The Cluster 2, labeled as *Low*, comprised individuals reporting the below average levels of IPV victimization as well as below average levels of IPV perpetration. Members of this group exhibited the lowest levels of victim-blaming attitudes and hostile sexist attitudes and acceptance of IPV. Participants in this cluster were younger than in the *High* cluster and women in this cluster were overrepresented. The *Low* cluster consisted of 64 participants, raising questions about whether our convenience sample influenced its size. Furthermore, previous research has indicated that women report fewer acceptance and justification of IPV attitudes, and perceive IPV more severely compared to men (Gracia et al., 2020). Although the correlation analysis did not reveal a connection between individual attitudes and gender, the overrepresentation of women in this *Low* cluster, coupled with below-average victim-blaming, aligns with findings from earlier research (Gracia et al., 2020).

The Cluster 3, labeled as *Ambivalent*, comprised individuals who reported low levels of IPV victimization and perpetration. However, members of this cluster exhibited higher levels of victim-blaming compared to the *Low* cluster and as high levels of hostile sexist attitudes as members of the *High* cluster. Participants in this cluster were younger than in the *High* cluster and the portion of men in this cluster was overrepresented whereas women were underrepresented. The *Ambivalent* cluster also displayed more accepting attitudes than the *Low* cluster but still more willingness to intervene

than the *High* cluster. Previous research has shown that men tend to have more accepting and justifying attitudes towards IPV than women, which is reflected in the formation of the *Ambivalent* cluster (Gracia et al., 2020). The research evidence of the relationship between age and attitudes is somewhat inconsistent (Gracia et al., 2020). Therefore, the younger age of participants in the *Ambivalent* cluster might be due to their relatively limited life experience compared to those in the *High* cluster. Furthermore, previous research suggests that IPV aggressors report lower levels of IPV aggression than their partners report (Holma & Nyqvist, 2017). It is possible that this could affect our *Ambivalent* cluster, where the participants exhibited high levels of victim blaming attitudes and high hostile sexism but low IPV aggression and victimization, where some of the participants could minimize their contribution to IPV aggression. Aggressors struggle with recognizing their own aggression, especially when psychological IPV aggression is considered (Holma & Nyqvist, 2017). Another possible explanation for the *Ambivalent* cluster is the influence of popular media and the dominant culture. The United Nations (1995) has noted that the images in the media that depict violence against women normalizes the violence women face. The media especially affects children and young people and modifies their attitudes (The United Nations, 1995), and if the ideologies presented in the dominant culture and popular media during the socialization process are not questioned in adulthood, it is possible that the individual internalizes the ideology and continues expressing the attitudes despite not having own experiences of IPV.

5.5. Modern sexism and male privilege protection

Possibly promoted by popular media culture, the *Ambivalent* cluster might indicate a concerning trend in attitudes among young adults, with a mean age of 32,84 years, despite lacking personal experiences of IPV as both perpetrators and victims. According to Gómez-Casillas and colleagues (2023), male privilege protection might contribute to IPV in the EU, where men may be more accepting of women's advancements when they perceive no threat. This aligns with Off and colleagues (2022) findings on modern sexism, which manifests as denial of continued discrimination against women and negative attitude towards women's demands and policy changes. Their EU-wide survey revealed that perceived competition between men and women drives young men to view women's rights as a threat, especially in regions with high unemployment and perceptions of unfair public institutions (Off et al., 2022).

As our study lacks longitudinal data, it is challenging to determine if these attitudes are on the rise or decline in Finland. However, Off and colleagues (2022) highlight that modern sexism is promoted by conservative and far-right politics, which have gained more popularity in recent years. Wemrell and colleagues (2019) caution that while political climate changes contribute to the Nordic Paradox, they do not solely explain it. Nevertheless, such factors likely impact the progress of gender equality in Finland as well. Additionally, the overall economic situation can influence how men perceive gender competition.

5.6. Enhancing IPV Prevention and Intervention Strategies

This study contributes to the growing literature on IPV prevention and intervention programs by providing new data on the connections between various attitudes and also the distinct profiles of IPV aggressors and victims. The support mechanisms and intervention programs are in need of scientific-based information and resources. The knowledge of IPV, its symptoms and warning signs in professional settings is crucial for the protection and prevention of IPV (Alberdi & Matas, 2002; Campell et al., 2009).

The work against IPV is relatively new in Finland (Holma & Nyqvist, 2017). Domestic violence against women, including IPV, rose to the common awareness in Europe in the end of 1960 (Holma & Nyqvist, 2017). Interventions to treat aggressors have been developed in Finland since the 1990s (Holma & Nyqvist, 2017). Even though the problem should be faced from the root, re-training aggressors, the efficacy of such intervention programs is limited (Holma & Nyqvist, 2017; Nuutinen et al., 2016), although there are some studies that have shown a decrease in domestic violence through intervention (Nuutinen et al., 2016). Meta-analyses have shown that treatments are more effective when the aggressors willingly participate in the intervention (Holma & Nyqvist, 2017).

This research offers new insight into the aggressors' treatment; If the correlation between the high aggression and high victimization is supported in further research and clinical samples, the reasons behind IPV aggression might be illuminated. In the light of the new information of this research, it could be hypothesized that IPV victimization predisposes individuals to IPV aggression and thus, IPV aggressors would benefit not only from programs that target the abusive behavior, but also the reasons behind it, for example previous traumatization. This is supported by what Richards

and colleagues (2017) have shown in their research that childhood victimization is connected to IPV perpetration and victimization in adulthood and that the connections are different among men and women. Emotional abuse in childhood has also been connected to both victimization and perpetration of IPV in later life, which also emphasizes the importance of the results of our research (Richards et al., 2017).

The profiles found in our research are an interesting indication that solutions related to IPV must be very versatile, as people approach the issue with many different attitudes and holding different experiences. In addition to offering individual help, the problem should be approached on a societal level. Increasing public awareness is important as the higher perception of IPV frequency has been proven to be connected to lower acceptance of IPV (Gracia & Herrero, 2006). Influencing attitudes seems to be absolutely important and this kind of profiling, if even added with the mapping of contextual factors participants hold, could well serve the work of shaping attitudes.

5.7. Limitations

Although this research gives new and much needed information on the attitudes and experiences of IPV in the Finnish population and even recognizes distinct profiles among participants based on these variables, it is not without limitations. First, a sample of 105 respondents is relatively small for a survey. Second, women were overrepresented and male and non-binary genders were underrepresented, there is a gender bias in our data. Third, as the research was disseminated through university mailing lists, the replies may represent and emphasize especially university students' and staffs' opinions. Moreover, disseminating the survey in Facebook likely resulted in replies outside of the University. However, there is a chance that these responses represent the opinions of specific types of Facebook users, which must be considered in the interpretation of the results. Therefore, the conclusions derived from this study cannot be generalized to the broader Finnish population.

Fourth, the questionnaires did not specify whether the IPV reported had occurred within one relationship, or if the IPV aggression and IPV victimization occurred in different relationships, nor did it inquire about other forms of IPV beyond psychological IPV. Examining these further in future research can reveal the influences behind the strong correlation between IPV aggression and victimization. Fifth, our research data does not allow us to further examine the relationship history

more precisely, which might have revealed whether divorces were due to IPV, and thus give more information related to the link between the attitudes and the relationship status. Sixth, the use of self-report questionnaires might have affected participants' responses by social desirability, thereby impacting the results of the analysis. Seventh, the survey did not inquire information about a participant's childhood experiences, which could have provided valuable information on the topic. Our questionnaire did not attend to the question, whether IPV could be, partially, inheritable through social and genetic components. The viewpoint is important though, as intergenerational chains of violence is a possible explanation for the IPV crisis. As the FRA (2014) data shows, Finland, Denmark and Sweden are among the top 5 of EU countries with the most self-reported experiences of childhood violence, psychological, physical and sexual. Children tend to adapt the belief systems their parents express, and therefore, further investigation on whether the attitudes surrounding IPV are socially inheritable is necessary. Understanding the mechanisms behind IPV situations, including the possible intergenerational factors, is important in order to combat the problem. Eighth, our data was cross sectional, which may have limited the depth of our findings. Longitudinal studies in the Finnish context would be essential to explore causal relationships between various factors over time. Cross-sectional data provide a snapshot at a single point in time and can show associations between variables. However, they do not allow for the examination of how these relationships change over time. Longitudinal studies, on the other hand, track the same individuals or groups over an extended period, offering insights into the development and impact of factors related to IPV.

5.8. Summary

In summary, our research gave a good view of attitudes and experiences towards IPV in a Finnish sample. The data showed some expected connections between attitudinal variables and experiences of IPV in Finland; higher victim-blaming attitudes were connected to higher hostile sexism and acceptance of IPV and lower perceived severity to lower willingness to intervene and higher victim-blaming. IPV Victimization was connected to victim-blaming attitudes. IPV Victimization and Aggression correlated strongly, and hostile sexism and IPV Aggression failed to reach significance with the attitudinal variables. These results are a good start in investigating attitudes towards IPV in the Finnish context and show that interventions should be aimed towards reasons behind perpetration and especially to the hostile sexist and victim-blaming attitudes that the victims of IPV hold. Three

distinct profiles of participants were found showing how people's experiences and attitudes towards IPV quite remarkably differ from each other. Two opposite profiles included either above or below average of attitudes and experiences of IPV and the third profile Ambivalent included below average of experiences but above average of attitudes towards IPV. The understanding of different types of attitudes and experiences different people hold gives a good premise to form different types of societal level interventions or campaigns to decrease IPV.

Understanding the attitudinal climate of the society will help promote and develop mechanisms to shape the culture into more intolerant towards IPV and more supportive of IPV victims. In the future, it will be intriguing to investigate whether the results found in this research can be replicated. This invites further research into the underlying reasons and implications for developing intervention programs for both abusers and victims. Furthermore, longitudinal data to understand causalities is essential, as well as comparative research between countries to conclusively explain phenomena like the Nordic Paradox.

REFERENCES

- Alberdi, I. & Matas, N., (2002). La violencia doméstica. Informe sobre los malos tratos a mujeres en España. [The domestic violence. Inform of the domestic violence against women in Spain]. Fundación 'la Caixa', Colección Estudios Sociales. Núm. 10. Available: www.estudios.lacaixa.es.
- Barbier, A., Chariot, P. & Lefèvre, T., (2022). Intimate partner violence against ever-partnered women in Europe: Prevalence and associated factors – Results from the violence against women EU-wide survey. *Frontiers in Public Health*. DOI: 10.3389/fpubh.2022.1033465
- Beeble, M., L., Post., L. A., Bybee, D. & Sullivan, C. M., (2008). Factors Related to Willingness to Help Survivors of Intimate Partner Violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*. Vol. 23, Issue 12. DOI: 10.1177/0886260508314333
- Capaldi, D. M., Kim, H. K. & Pears, K. C., (2009). The association between partner violence and child maltreatment: A common conceptual framework, In Whitaker, J. D. & Lutzker J. R. (ed.) *Preventing partner violence: research and evidence-based intervention strategies*. Washington (DC): American Psychological Association.
- Campell, J. C., Baty, M. L., Laughon, K. & Woods, A., (2009). Health effects of partner violence: Aiming toward prevention. In Whitaker, J. D. & Lutzker J. R. (ed.) *Preventing partner violence: research and evidence-based intervention strategies*. Washington (DC): American Psychological Association.
- Cinquegrana, V., Marini, M. & Galdi, S., (2022). From Endorsement of Ambivalent Sexism to Psychological IPV Victimization: The role of Attitudes Supportive of IPV, Legitimizing Myths of IPV, and Acceptance of Psychological Aggression. *Frontiers in Psychology*. Volume 13/2022 DOI: 10.3389/fpsyg.2022.922814
- Cochran, W. G., (1952). The χ^2 test of goodness of fit. *The Annals of Mathematical Statistics*. Vol. 23. No 3.
- Cohen, J. (1992). A power primer. *Psychological Bulletin*, 112(1), 155.

European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA), (2014). Violence against women: EU-wide survey. Results at a glance. Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg 2014.

Evans, K. E., Schmidt-Sane, M. M., Bender, A. E., Berg, K. A. & Holmes, M. R., (2022). The mediating effects of IPV appraisals and acceptance on other adjustment outcomes underscores their potential as critical points of intervention for service providers working with children exposed to IPV. *Journal of Family Violence* (2022) 37:1301–1319.

Ferrer-Pérez, V. A., Bosch-Fiol, E., Ramis-Palmer, M. C., Torres-Espinosa, G. & Navarro-Guzmán, C., (2006). La violencia contra las mujeres en pareja: Creencias y actitudes en estudiantes. Universidad de Oviedo, España. *Psicothema*, vol. 18, núm. 3, pp.359-366

Gender Equality Index, 2023. European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE), 2023.

Glick, P. & Fiske, S. T., (1996). The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory: Differentiating Hostile and Benevolent Sexism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. Vol. 7, No. 3, 491 - 512.

Glick, P., Sakalli-Ugurlu, N., Ferreira, M.C. & De Sousa., M. A., (2002). Ambivalent sexism and attitudes toward wife abuse in Turkey and Brazil. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 26(2002), 292–297. Blackwell Publishing, USA.

Gracia, E. & Herrero, J., (2006). Acceptability of domestic violence against women in the European Union: a multilevel analysis. *Journal of Epidemiology & Community Health* 2006; 60:123–129. DOI: 10.1136/jech.2005.036533

Gracia, E., Lila, M. & Santirso, F. J., (2020). Attitudes Toward Intimate Partner Violence Against Women in the European Union. A Systematic Review. *European Psychologist* (2020), 25(2), 104–121. DOI: 10.1027/1016-9040/a000392

Gracia, E., Martin-Fernandez, M., Marco, M., Santirso F., A., Vargas, V. & Lila, M., (2018). The Willingness to Intervene in Cases of Intimate Partner Violence Against Women (WI_IPVAW) Scale: Development and Validation of the Long and Short Versions. *Frontiers in Psychology*. 9:1146. DOI: 10.3389/fpsyg.2018.01146

Gracia, E. & Merlo, J., (2016). Intimate partner violence against women and the Nordic paradox. *Social Science & Medicine*. Vol 157, May 2016. P. 27 - 30. DOI: 10.1016/j.socscimed.2016.03.040.

Gómez-Casillas, A., van Damme, M. & Permanyer, I., (2023). Women's and Men's Status: Revisiting the Relationship Between Gender Equality and Intimate Partner Violence Against Women in Europe. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*. Vol. 38 (15-16). DOI: 10.1177/08862605231158760

Holma, J., & Nyqvist, L., (2017). Väkivaltatyö miesten kanssa. [Domestic violence work with men] Teoksessa J. Niemi, H. Kainulainen, & P. Honkatukia (toim.), Sukupuolistunut väkivalta: oikeudellinen ja sosiaalinen ongelma [Gendered violence: legal and societal problem], pp. 104-120. Vastapaino. (e-kirja)

Juarros-Basterretxea, J., Overall, N., Herrero, J. & Francisco, R-D., J., (2019). Considering the Effect of Sexism on Psychological Intimate Partner Violence: A Study with Imprisoned Men. *The European Journal of Psychology Applied to Legal Context*. 11. p. 61-69. DOI: 10.5093/ejpalc2019a1

Karlsson, M., Wemrell, M. & Merlo, J., Ivert, A., (2022). Intimate partner violence against women in the EU: A Multilevel analysis of the contextual and individual impact on public perceptions. *Women & Criminal Justice*. DOI: 10.1080/08974454.2020.1835792

Koepke, S., Eyssel, F. & Bohner, G., (2014). "She Deserved It": Effects of Sexism Norms, Type of Violence, and Victim's PreAssault Behavior on Blame Attributions Toward Female Victims and Approval of the Aggressor's Behavior. *Violence Against Women*. 2014. Vol. 20(4) 446–464

Laki rikoslain 20 luvun muuttamisesta 316/1994.
Available: <https://www.finlex.fi/fi/laki/alkup/1994/19940316>

Lidman, S., (2015). Väkivaltakulttuurin perintö. Sukupuoli, asenteet ja historia. Gaudeamus Oy HYY Yhtymä. Tallinna 2015.

Lila, M., Gracia, E. & García F., (2010). Actitudes de la policía ante la intervención en casos de violencia contra la mujer en las relaciones de pareja: influencia del sexismo y la empatía. [Police attitudes towards interventions in cases of domestic violence against women; The influence of sexism and empathy] *Revista de Psicología Social*, 25 (3), 313-323, DOI: 10.1174/021347410792675570

- Lähisuhdeväkivalta, (2021). Suurin osa lähisuhdeväkivallan uhreista on edelleen naisia tai tyttöjä, seksuaaliväkivallan uhreilla usein myös aiempia väkivaltakokemuksia. Tilastoraportti 43/2023, THL.
- Martín-Fernández, M., Gracia, E., Marco, M., Vargas, V., Santirso, F. & Lila, M., (2018a). Measuring Acceptability of Intimate Partner Violence Against Women: Development and Validation of the A-IPVAW Scale. *The European Journal of Psychology Applied to Legal Context*. 10(1) 26 - 34.
- Martín-Fernández, M., Gracia, E. & Lila, M., (2018b). Assessing victim-blaming attitudes in cases of intimate partner violence against women: Development and validation of the VB-IPVAW scale. *Psychosocial Intervention*, 27, 133-143. DOI: 10.5093/pi2018a18
- Martín-Fernández M., Gracia E & Lila M, (2020). Ensuring the comparability of cross-national survey data on intimate partner violence against women: a cross-sectional, population-based study in the European Union, Available: <https://bmjopen.bmj.com/content/10/3/e032231.abstract>
- Martín-Fernández M., Gracia, E. & Lila, M., (2022). Measuring Perceived Severity of Intimate Partner Violence against Women (IPVAW) among the General Population and IPVAW Offenders. *Psychosocial Intervention*, 31(2), 109-119. DOI: 10.5093/pi2022a8.
- Michell, C. & James, L., (2009). Evolving health policy on intimate partner violence. In Mitchell C, Anglin D (ed.) (2009). *Intimate partner violence: a health based perspective*. New York (NY): Oxford University Press; 2009. (E-book)
- Metsämuuronen, J., (2011). Tutkimuksen tekemisen perusteet ihmistieteissä. International Methelp Oy. Helsinki.
- Neal, A. M. & Edwards, K. M., (2017). Perpetrators' and Victims' Attributions for IPV: A Critical Review of the Literature. *Trauma, Violence & Abuse*. Volume 18, Issue 3, July 2017, Pages 239-267. DOI: 10.1177/1524838015603551
- Nuutinen, N., Korvenoja, A. & Holma, J., (2016). The changes in the relationships of intimately violent men who participated in the Vaihtoehto väkivallalle treatment group. *Psykologia*, 51 (5), 360-372.

Off, G., Charron, N. & Alexander, A., (2022). Who perceives women's rights as threatening to men and boys? Explaining modern sexism among young men in Europe. *Frontiers in political science*. 15 August 2022.

OVW, (2023). Office on Violence Against Women, U.S. Department of Justice, E-source: <https://www.justice.gov/ovw/domestic-violence>

Permanyer, I. & Gomez-Casillas, A., (2020). Is the 'Nordic Paradox' an illusion? Measuring intimate partner violence against women in Europe. *Int J Public Health* 65, 1169–1179 (2020). DOI: 10.1007/s00038-020-01457-5

Reichel, D., (2017). Determinants of Intimate Partner Violence in Europe: The Role of Socioeconomic Status, Inequality, and Partner Behavior. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 32(12), 1853-1873. DOI: 10.1177/0886260517698951

Renner, L. M. & Slack, K. S., (2006). Intimate partner violence and child maltreatment: Understanding intra- and intergenerational connections. *Child Abuse & Neglect* 30, 599-617

Richards, T. N., Tillyer, M. S. & Wright, E. M. (2017), Intimate partner violence and the overlap of perpetration and victimization: Considering the influence of physical, sexual and emotional abuse in childhood, *Child Abuse & Neglect*, Vol., 67, pp. 240-248, DOI: 10.1016/j.chiabu.2017.02.037

Sace, (2024). Victim Blaming. Sexual Assault Centre of Edmonton, E-source: <https://www.sace.ca/learn/victim-blaming>. Visited 16th of June 2024.

Salis, K. L., Salwen, J. & O'Leary, K.D., (2014). The Predictive Utility of Psychological Aggression for Intimate Partner Violence. *Partner Abuse*, Vol. 5., Num 1. pp. 83-97. Springer Publishing Company.

Shakoor, S., Theobald, D. & Farrington, D. P., (2020). Intergenerational Continuity of Intimate Partner Violence Perpetration: An Investigation of Possible Mechanisms. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, Vol 37, Is. 7-8, pp. 1-20.

Siltala, H., Hisasue, T., Hietamäki, J., Saari, J., Laajasalo, T., October, M., Laitinen, H.-L., & Raitanen, J., (2022). Domestic violence increases the use and costs of services (Policy Brief No. 24). Prime Minister's Office. Available: <http://urn.fi/URN:ISBN:978-952-383-317-3>

Smith, C. A., Ireland, T. O., Park, A., Elwyn, L. & Thornberry, T. P., (2011). Intergenerational Continuities and Discontinuities in Intimate Partner Violence: A Two-Generational Prospective Study. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 26 (18) 3720-3752

The Southern, (2022). Rape Culture, Victim Blaming and The Facts, E-source: <https://inside.southernct.edu/sexual-misconduct/facts>. Visited 18th June 2024.

The United Nations, (1995). Beijing declaration and platform for action. Available: <chrome-extension://efaidnbmnnnibpcajpcglclefindmkaj/https://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/pdf/BDPfA%20E.pdf>

THL, (2023). Lähisuhdeväkivalta [Domestic violence], E-source: <https://thl.fi/aiheet/vakivalta/vakivallan-muodot/lahisuhdevakivalta>. Visited 25th June 2024.

Ureña, J., Romera, E. M., Casas, J. A., Viejo, C. & Ortega-Ruiz, R., (2014). Psychometrics properties of Psychological Dating Violence Questionnaire: A study with young couples. *International Journal of Clinical and Health Psychology*, 2015. Volume 15, Issue 1, January–April. Pages 52-60. DOI 10.1016/j.ijchp.2014.07.002

Valor-Segura, I., Expósito, F. & Moya, M., (2011). Victim Blaming and Exoneration of the Perpetrator in Domestic Violence: The Role of Beliefs in a Just World and Ambivalent Sexism. *The Spanish Journal of Psychology*. Vol. 14 No. 1, 195-206. DOI:10.5209/rev_SJOP.2011.v14.n1.17

Welsh Women's Aid, (2023). Understanding victim blaming and why it's harmful to survivors, E-source: <https://welshwomensaid.org.uk/news/understanding-victim-blaming-and-why-its-harmful-to-survivors/>. Visited 25th June 2024.

Wemrell, M., Lila, M., Gracia, E. & Ivert, A., (2019). The Nordic Paradox and intimate partner violence against women (IPVAW) in Sweden: A background overview. *Sociology Compass*. DOI: 10.1111/soc4.12759.

WHO, (2024). Violence Against Women, E-source: https://www.who.int/health-topics/violence-against-women#tab=tab_1 Visited 25th June 2024.

Wiechmann, M., (2022). Gender-based Violence and the Nordic Paradox:: When things are not what they seem – A short critical reflection. *Journal of Comparative Social Work*, 17(2), 79–86. DOI: 10.31265/jcsw.v17i2.572

World Economic Forum, (2023). Global Gender Gap Report.

Woodin E. M. & O’Leary, K. D., (2009). Theoretical approaches to the etiology of partner violence, In Whitaker, J. D. & Lutzker J. R. (ed.) *Preventing partner violence: research and evidence-based intervention strategies*. Washington (DC): American Psychological Association.

Woods, W. C., Kistler, T. A., Stuart, G. L. & Cornelius, T. L., (2020). Bystander Intervention Behavior as Function of Victimization History, Opportunity, and Situational Context. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*. Vol 37, issue 9 - 10. DOI: 10.1177/0886260520975838

APPENDICES

English version	Appendix A	Finnish translation
Psychometrics properties of Psychological Dating Violence Questionnaire (PDV-Q), (Ureña, Romera, Casas, Viejo & Ortega-Ruiz, 2014)	PDV-Q Scale. Kysely psykologisesta väkivallasta seurustelusuhhteissa. Kuinka usein?	
1. To impose prohibitions or rules unilaterally, she/he to you, you to her/him		1. Määrää kieltoja tai sääntöjä yksipuolisesti, hän sinua kohtaan/sinä häntä kohtaan
2. To criticize in public or privately, she/he to you, you to her/him		2. Kritisoi julkisesti tai yksityisesti, hän sinua kohtaan/sinä häntä kohtaan
3. To show distaste about what the partner wants to do, she/he to you, you to her/him		3. Osoittaa inhoa sitä kohtaan, mitä toinen haluaa tehdä, hän sinua kohtaan/sinä häntä kohtaan
4. To ignore what the partner gives in the relationship, she/he to you, you to her/him		4. Jättää huomiotta sen, miten kumppani panostaa suhteeseen, hän sinua kohtaan/sinä häntä kohtaan
5. Try to control or impede with comments something that the partner wants to do, she/he to you, you to her/him		5. Yrittää kommentoimalla hallita tai estää kumppania tekemästä haluamiaan asioita, hän sinua kohtaan/sinä häntä kohtaan
6. To isolate the partner from friends and family, she/he to you, you to her/him		6. Eristää kumppanin ystävistä ja perheestä, hän sinua kohtaan/sinä häntä kohtaan
7. To show indifference or not to give support when is needed, she/he to you, you to her/him		7. Osoittaa välinpitämättömyyttä tai ei anna tukea silloin, kun sitä tarvitaan, hän sinua kohtaan/sinä häntä kohtaan
8. To blame the partner for bad things that happens, she/he to you, you to her/him		8. Syyttää kumppania, kun jotain ikävää tapahtuu, hän sinua kohtaan/sinä häntä kohtaan
9. To compare the partner with other people, she/he to you, you to her/him		9. Vertaa kumppania muihin ihmisiin, hän sinua kohtaan/sinä häntä kohtaan
10. To not accept responsibilities in the relationship, she/he to you, you to her/him		10. Ei hyväksy vastuita parisuhteessa, hän sinua kohtaan/sinä häntä kohtaan
11. Try to control what the partner says to other people about the relationship, she/he to you, you to her/him		11. Yrittää hallita mitä kumppani kertoo muille parisuhteesta, hän sinua kohtaan/sinä häntä kohtaan
12. To invade the partner's privacy, she/he to you, you to her/him		12. Loukkaa kumppanin yksityisyyttä, hän sinua kohtaan/sinä häntä kohtaan
13. To underestimate the capability of the partner, she/he to you, you to her/him		13. Aliarvioi kumppanin kykyjä, hän sinua kohtaan/sinä häntä kohtaan

Appendix B

The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI), (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

Original English version

Below is a series of statements concerning men and women and their relationships in contemporary society. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement using the following scale: 0 = disagree strongly; 1 = disagree somewhat; 2 = disagree slightly; 3 = agree slightly; 4 = agree somewhat; 5 = agree strongly.

2. Many women are actually seeking special favors, such as hiring policies that favor them over men, under the guise of asking for "equality".

4 Most women interpret innocent remarks or acts as being sexist.

5 Women are too easily offended.

7 Feminists are not seeking for women to have more power than men.

10 Most women fail to appreciate fully all that men do for them.

11 Women seek to gain power by getting control over men.

14 Women exaggerate problems they have at work.

15 Once a woman gets a man to commit to her, she usually tries to put him on a tight leash.

16 When women lose to men in a fair competition, they typically complain about being discriminated against.

18 There are actually very few women who get a kick out of teasing men by seeming sexually available and then refusing male advances.

21 Feminists are making entirely reasonable demands of men.

Note! Hostile sexism scale only used.

Finnish translation

Alla on esitetty sarja väittämiä miehistä ja naisista ja heidän keskinäisistä suhteistaan nyky-yhteiskunnassa. Pyydämme teitä osoittamaan, missä määrin olette samaa tai eri mieltä kyseisten väittämien kanssa käyttäen seuraavaa asteikkoa: 0 – Vahvasti eri mieltä, 1 – Jokseenkin eri mieltä, 2 – Hieman eri mieltä, 3 Hieman samaa mieltä, 4 – Jokseenkin samaa mieltä, 5 – Vahvasti samaa mieltä.

2 Tasa-arvopyrkimysten varjolla monet naiset todellisuudessa pyrkivät saavuttamaan erityisiä etuja kuten naisia suosivia rekrytointikäytänteitä.

4 Suurin osa naisista tulkitsee viattomat kommentit tai teot seksistisiksi.

5 Naiset loukkaantuvat liian helposti.

7 Feministit eivät pyri siihen, että naiset saavat miehiä enemmän valtaa.

10 Suurin osa naisista ei arvosta riittävästi kaikkea sitä, mitä miehet tekevät heidän vuokseen.

11 Naiset pyrkivät saamaan valtaa kontrolloimalla miehiä.

14 Naiset liioittelevat työelämässä kohtaamiaan ongelmia.

15 Saatuaan miehen sitoutumaan, nainen yleensä pitää tämän tiukassa otteessa.

16 Kun naiset häviävät miehille reilussa kilpailussa, he yleensä valittavat, että heitä on syrjitty.

18 Itseasiassa vain hyvin harvat naiset nauttivat siitä, että he kiusoittelevat miehiä vaikuttaen ensin seksuaalisesti kiinnostuneilta ja sitten torjuen miesten lähentymisyritykset.

21 Feministeillä on täysin järkeviä vaatimuksia miehiä kohtaan.

Huom! Käytetty vain vihamielisen seksismin osuutta.

Appendix C

Original English version (Martín-Fernández, Gracia, Marco & Vargas, 2018)		Finnish translation
A-IPVAW Scale I think it is acceptable for a man ...		A-IPVAW Scale Mielestäni miehen on hyväksyttävää...
a-ipvaw1	to shout at his partner if she is constantly nagging/arguing	huutaa kumppanilleen, mikäli tämä jatkuvasti nalkuttaa/riitelee
a-ipvaw2	to shout at his partner if she is not treating him with respect	huutaa kumppanilleen, mikäli tämä ei kohtele miestä kunnioittavasti
a-ipvaw3	to set limits on how his partner dresses	rajoittaa sitä, miten hänen kumppaninsa pukeutuu
a-ipvaw4	to set limits on where his partner goes	rajoittaa sitä, minne hänen kumppaninsa menee
a-ipvaw5	to push someone into having sex if she has been flirting with him all night	painostaa jotakuta harrastamaan seksiä kanssaan, mikäli tämä on flirttaillut miehen kanssa koko illan
a-ipvaw6	to control his partner's mobile phone	kontrolloida kumppaninsa puhelinta
a-ipvaw7	to push someone into having sex if she has been dating him	painostaa jotakuta harrastamaan seksiä kanssaan, mikäli tämä on tapaillut miestä
a-ipvaw8	to threaten to leave his partner in order to achieve something he wants	uhata jättää kumppaninsa saavuttaakseen jotain, mitä haluaa
a-ipvaw9	to hit his partner if she has been unfaithful	lyödä kumppaniaan, mikäli tämä on pettänyt häntä
a-ipvaw10	to hit his partner if she is constantly nagging/arguing	lyödä kumppaniaan, mikäli tämä jatkuvasti nalkuttaa/riitelee
a-ipvaw11	to push someone into having sex if he has spent a lot of money on her	painostaa naista harrastamaan seksiä kanssaan, mikäli mies on käyttänyt paljon rahaa tämän vuoksi
a-ipvaw12	to hit his partner if she is not treating him with respect	lyödä kumppaniaan, mikäli tämä ei kohtele miestä kunnioittavasti
a-ipvaw13	to prevent his partner from seeing family and friends	estää kumppaniaan näkemästä perhettään ja ystäviään
a-ipvaw14	not to allow his partner to work or study	estää kumppaniaan työskentelemästä tai opiskelemasta
a-ipvaw15	to tell his partner what she can or cannot do	kertoa kumppanilleen mitä tämä voi tai ei voi tehdä
a-ipvaw16	to throw/smash objects during an argument	paiskoa tai murskata esineitä riitojen aikana
a-ipvaw17	to record his partner with a mobile phone or video camera, or take pictures of her without her knowledge	nauhoittaa kumppaniaan puhelimella tai videokameralla, tai ottaa kuvia hänestä hänen tietämättään.
a-ipvaw18	to send messages or images of his partner without her permission	lähettää viestejä tai kuvia kumppanistaan ilman tämän suostumusta
a-ipvaw19	to threaten his partner with hurting her or others if she leaves him	uhata satuttaa kumppaniaan tai muita ihmisiä, mikäli tämä jättää miehen
a-ipvaw20	to constantly reproach his partner for the mistakes she has made during an argument	Mielestäni miehen on hyväksyttävää jatkuvasti moittia kumppaniaan virheistä, joita tämä on tehnyt riidan aikana.

Note. a-ipvaw: acceptability of intimate partner violence against women.

Huom. A-IPVAW tarkoittaa IPV:n hyväksyttävyyttä.

Appendix D

Original English version

PS-IPVAW Scale (Martín-Fernández, Gracia & Lila, 2022). Below are seven scenarios that can occur between a male-female couple. On a scale from 0 to 10, please indicate how serious these scenarios seem to you (the higher the number, the higher the severity of the scenario).

A woman has reported her partner for assaulting her, but the man continues to threaten her.

In an argument, a man hits his partner and later apologizes to her

A woman is frequently beaten by her partner, sometimes causing small injuries and bruises, although she does not want to report these acts.

A couple argues, the man insults the woman and threatens to hit her

A woman is constantly belittled and humiliated by her partner

A woman is repeatedly threatened and insulted by her partner, who sometimes pushes her or hits her.

A couple argues constantly, insulting and threatening each other, often coming to blows.

Finnish translation

PS-IPVAW Scale. Havaittu vakavuustaso – Naisiin kohdistuva lähisuhdeväkivalta. Ohessa on seitsemän tilannetta, jotka voisivat tapahtua miehen ja naisen välillä parisuhteessa. Arvioi asteikolla 0-10, kuinka vakavaksi arvioit tilanteen (Mitä suurempi numero, sitä vakavammasta tilanteesta on kyse).

Nainen on ilmoittanut poliisille kumppaninsa pahoinpidelleen häntä, mutta mies jatkaa naisen uhkailua.

Riidan aikana mies lyö naista ja myöhemmin pyytää tältä anteeksi.

Nainen joutuu usein kumppaninsa pahoinpitelemäksi, mistä aiheutuu toisinaan pieniä vammoja ja mustelmia, mutta hän ei halua tehdä tapauksista rikosilmoitusta.

Parisunta riitelee, mies haukkuu naista ja uhkaa lyödä tätä.

Nainen joutuu jatkuvasti vähättelyn ja nöyryytyksen kohteeksi kumppaninsa toimesta.

Nainen joutuu jatkuvasti uhkailun ja solvausten kohteeksi kumppaninsa, joka toisinaan tönii ja lyö häntä, toimesta.

Pariskunta riitelee jatkuvasti, solvaa ja uhkailee toisiaan. Tilanne usein kärjistyy iskuihin.

Appendix E

	Original English version Victim-blaming Attitudes in Cases of Intimate Partner Violence against Women Scale (Martín-Fernández, Gracia & Lila., 2018).	Finnish translation
vb-ipvaw1*	Men are violent towards their partners because they make them jealous	Uhreja syyllistävät asenteet naisiin kohdistuvassa lähisuhdeväkivallassa Miehet ovat väkivaltaisia kumppaneitaan kohtaan koska nämä saavat heidät mustasukkaisiksi.
vb-ipvaw2*	Men are violent towards their partners because women provoke them	Miehet ovat väkivaltaisia kumppaneitaan kohtaan, koska naiset yllyttävät heitä.
vb-ipvaw3	Men are violent towards their partners because women need to be controlled	Miehet ovat väkivaltaisia kumppaneitaan kohtaan, koska naisia täytyy kontrolloida.
vb-ipvaw4	Men are violent towards their partners because women are difficult to understand	Miehet ovat väkivaltaisia kumppaneitaan kohtaan, koska naisia on vaikea ymmärtää.
vb-ipvaw5	Men are violent towards their partners because women are not patient enough with them	Miehet ovat väkivaltaisia kumppaneitaan kohtaan, koska naiset eivät ole riittävän kärsivällisiä heidän kanssaan.
vb-ipvaw6*	Men are violent towards their partners because it makes them attractive to women	Miehet ovat väkivaltaisia kumppaneitaan kohtaan, koska se saa heidät vaikuttamaan puoleensa vetäviltä naisten mielestä.
vb-ipvaw7	Men are violent towards their partners because women like it	Miehet ovat väkivaltaisia kumppaneitaan kohtaan, koska naiset pitävät siitä.
vb-ipvaw8	Women file false complaints to obtain economic benefits and hurt their partners	Naiset tekevät vääriä ilmoituksia väkivallasta saadakseen taloudellista hyötyä ja satuttaakseen kumppaneitaan.
vb-ipvaw9*	Men would change their violent behavior towards their partners if they were more obedient	Miehet muuttaisivat väkivaltaista käyttäytymistään kumppaneitaan kohtaan, jos nämä olisivat tottelevaisempia.
vb-ipvaw10	Women could avoid violence from their male partners if they knew when to stop talking	Naiset voisivat välttää miehensä väkivaltaisen käytöksen, mikäli he tietäisivät milloin lopettaa puhuminen.
vb-ipvaw11*	If a woman is mistreated by her partner and does not leave him, that means she is not unhappy with the situation.	Mikäli nainen on kumppaninsa kaltoinkohtelun kohteena, eikä jätä kumppaniaan, merkitsee se, ettei nainen ole tyytymätön tilanteeseen.
vb-ipvaw12	A man is justified in beating his partner if she decides to leave him	Mies on oikeutettu pahoinpitelemään kumppaniaan, mikäli tämä päättää jättää hänet.

*WB-IPVAW short form.

*WB-IPVAW lyhyt versio.

Appendix F

Original English version

Finnish translation

WI-IPVAW Scale. Willingness to intervene in cases of intimate partner violence against women (Gracia, Martín-Fernández, Marco, Santirso, Vargas & Lila, 2018).

1. If I was in a bar and a couple that clearly had been drinking too much started insulting and pushing each other, I would ignore them and mind my own business.
- *2. If I heard a man shouting violently at his partner in the communal area of my building, I would intervene to stop the situation.
3. If a man insulted his partner on the street, I would say something to express my disapproval.
4. If a woman in a shop said she was afraid because her partner had threatened her, I would advise her to call the police.
5. If a woman knocked on my door to ask for help because her husband has threatened to hit her, I would call the police.
6. If a woman was running away from her partner in the street, I would stop the man.

7. In a supermarket, if a man insulted his wife, I would ignore the situation.

+*8. If I found out that a woman neighbor of mine had been beaten by her husband, I would advise her to report it.

+*9. In a bar, if a man started screaming at his partner, I would stand between them to help the woman.

+*10. If I found out that a woman in my neighborhood was frequently beaten by her partner, but did not want to report it to the authorities, I would call the police.

11. In the street, if a man took his partner's cell phone and threw it on the ground, I would approach the man and reprimand him for his action.

+*12. In the place where I live, if I overheard a man shouting and threatening his partner, I would go and try to protect the woman.

13. If a woman came into a local bakery, crying and saying that her partner was following her and threatening her, I would call the police.

+*12. In the place where I live, if I overheard a man shouting and threatening his partner, I would go and try to protect the woman.

14. If a couple in the neighborhood was arguing and screaming during the night, I would go and knock on the door to see what was happening.

*15. If a couple started arguing and the man pushed the woman at a bus stop, I would look the other way and ignore the situation.

*16. If a young couple was shouting and insulting each other on the street, I would ignore them.

17. On the staircase or in a communal area where I live, if a woman was asking for help because her partner was hitting her, I would call the police.

18. If a couple was insulting and threatening each other on the street and started to hit each other, I would call the police.

19. If a fierce argument broke out between a couple in a bar in the neighborhood, and both were shouting and insulting each other, I would reprimand them.

20. If a man in the street pushed his partner to the ground, I would intervene and try to stop him.

21. If a woman neighbor said that her husband was threatening her because she wanted to leave him or get a divorce, I would advise her to go to the police.

22. If a woman had been beaten in a bar by her partner and did not want to report it to the authorities, I would call the police.

23. If a couple was having a fierce argument in a local store, I would say something to them to stop the situation.

24. If I overheard fierce arguments and shouting between a couple in the neighborhood, I would ignore it.

25. In a bar, if a man hit his partner during an argument and immediately afterwards asked her to forgive him, I would ignore it.

*26. In a bar, if a woman said her partner had hit her, I would advise her to call the police.

+*27. If an immigrant couple or a couple from another culture were fighting on the street, I would ignore it and keep walking.

28. In a bar, if a couple who had clearly been drinking too much started to push and hit each other, I would call the police.

*nine-item WI-IPVAW short form version. + five-item WI-IPVAW short form version.

WI-IPVAW Scale. Halukkuus puuttua naisiin kohdistuvaan lähisuhteiden väkivaltilanteeseen.

1. Jos baarissa ollessani näkisin selvästi humaltuneen pariskunnan alkavan haukkumaan ja tuuppimaan toisiaan, jättäisin heidät huomiotta ja keskittyisin omiin asioihini.

*2. Jos kuulisin miehen huutavan rajusti kumppanilleen asuinrakennuksen yleisissä tiloissa, puuttuisin tilanteeseen pysäyttäakseni sen.

3. Jos mies haukkuisi kumppaniaan kadulla, sanoisin jotakin ilmaistakseni paheksuntani.

4. Jos nainen kertoi minulle kaupassa olevansa peloissaan, koska hänen kumppaninsa on uhkaillut häntä, kehottaisin häntä soittamaan poliisille.

5. Jos oveleni koputtaisi nainen pyytääkseni apua, koska hänen miehensä on uhanut lyödä häntä, soittaisin poliisille.

6. Jos nainen juoksisi kumppaniaan pakoon kadulla, pysäyttäisin miehen.

7. Jos mies haukkuisi vaimoaan kaupassa, jättäisin tilanteen huomioitta.

+*8. Jos saisin selville, että naapurissa asuva nainen on joutunut miehensä pahoinpitelemäksi, kehottaisin häntä tekemään asiasta rikosilmoituksen.

+*9. Jos mies alkaisi huutamaan kumppanilleen baarissa, menisin heidän väliinsä auttaakseni naista.

+*10. Jos saisin selville, että naapurustossani asuva nainen joutuu usein kumppaninsa pahoinpitelemäksi, muttei halua tehdä asiasta rikosilmoitusta, soittaisin poliisille.

11. Jos mies ottaisi kadulla kumppaniltaan matkapuhelimen ja heittäisi sen maahan, lähestyisin miestä ja moittisin häntä.

+*12. Jos kuulisin asuinpaikassani miehen huutavan kumppanilleen ja uhkailevan tätä, puuttuisin tilanteeseen ja yrittäisin suojella naista.

13. Jos paikalliseen leipomoon itkien sisään tuleva nainen kertoisi kumppaninsa seuraavan ja uhkailevan häntä, soittaisin poliisille.

14. Jos kuulisin asuinalueellani pariskunnan riitelevän ja huutavan yöllä, menisin koputtamaan ovelle nähdäkseni mitä on tekeillä.

*15. Jos pariskunta ryhtyisi riitelemään bussipysäkillä ja mies tönäisisi naista, katsoisin muualle ja jättäisin tilanteen huomioitta.

*16. Jos nuori pariskunta huutaisi toisilleen ja haukkuisi toisiaan kadulla, jättäisin heidät huomioitta.

17. Jos asuinrakennuksen portaikossa tai yleisissä tiloissa nainen pyytäisi apua, koska hänen kumppaninsa lyö häntä, soittaisin poliisille.

18. Jos pariskunta haukkuisi ja uhkailisi toisiaan kadulla ja alkaisi lyödä toisiaan, soittaisin poliisille.

19. Jos pariskunta alkaisi riidellä kiivaasti asuinalueellani olevassa baarissa, ja molemmat huutaisivat toisilleen ja haukkuisivat toisiaan, moittisin heitä.

20. Jos mies tuuppaisi kumppaninsa maahan kadulla, puuttuisin tilanteeseen ja yrittäisin pysäyttää hänet.

21. Jos naapurissa asuva nainen kertoisi miehensä uhkailevan häntä, koska hän haluaa jättää miehen tai erota tästä, kehottaisin naista ottamaan yhteyttä poliisiin.

22. Jos nainen olisi joutunut miehensä pahoinpitelemäksi baarissa, eikä haluaisi tehdä rikosilmoitusta, soittaisin poliisille.

23. Jos pariskunta riitelisi kiivaasti paikallisessa kaupassa, sanoisin heille jotakin pysäyttääkseni tilanteen.

24. Jos kuulisin pariskunnan riitelevän kiivaasti ja huutavan toisilleen asuinalueellani, jättäisin sen huomioitta.

25. Jos pariskunnan välisen riitatilanteen aikana baarissa mies löisi vaimoaan ja pyytäisi tältä anteeksi välittömästi sen jälkeen, jättäisin sen huomioitta.

*26. Jos nainen baarissa sanoisi kumppaninsa lyöneen häntä, kehottaisin häntä soittamaan poliisille.

+*27. Jos maahanmuuttajapariskunta tai toiseen kulttuuriin kuuluva pariskunta tappelsi kadulla, jättäisin sen huomioitta ja jatkaisin matkaani.

28. Jos selvästi humaltunut pariskunta alkaisi tönäistä ja lyödä toisiaan baarissa, soittaisin poliisille.

*yhdeksänosainen WI-IPVAW-lyhytversio. +viisiosainen WI-IPVAW-lyhytversio