Best Violence Research of 2013: Selections From an Invited Panel of Researchers

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Five senior researchers were invited by the journal editor Sherry Hamby to join a panel to identify the best violence research articles published in 2013. Each member of the panel describes how they methodically selected 2 articles that they believe represent the best violence research from the vast choice of publications produced in 2013. The 10 different articles chosen showcase different methodologies and cover a range of topics—working with men and boys, policing domestic violence, violence in LGBT relationships and in Hispanic communities, elder abuse, social support, violence in pregnancy, evolutionary psychology. Each reviewer gives an appreciation of the research articles they selected, outlining what they see as the key merits of the research.

Keywords: child abuse, domestic violence, elder abuse, LGBT relationships, Hispanic communities

2013 was the year when world leaders honored the first black president of South Africa and peace maker Nelson Mandela, 95 at the time of his death, and 16-year-old Malala Yousafzai, young campaigner for the education rights of girls in Pakistan, who after recovering from being shot by the Taliban, told the United Nations that nothing in her life had changed apart from being stronger and having more courage to pursue her aims. When we accepted the challenge to review the best published violence research of 2013 (Table 1) for the Psychology of Violence we did not expect to find similar themes running through these newsworthy events for 2013 and the articles chosen, without any collaboration, by the five reviewers. How to turn violence around is one powerful and striking theme that is shared in honoring the courage of these two inspirational people and recognizing the excellence in the work of the selected researchers. As in previous years when the editor Sherry Hamby has set this challenge, the reviewers have approached the task methodically, using different but equally justifiable criteria to select their two best articles from the massive choice that exists. Of the 10 different articles from 10 different journals the reviewers have selected papers with diverse methodologies—systematic reviews and meta-analyses, population representative community surveys, longitudinal cohort studies, experimental intervention studies. The range of methodologies reflects the sophistication and cross disciplinary nature of the field. Topics vary
from men and boys who are intimate partner abuse perpetrators, to violence in LGBT relationships, abuse of elders, policing domestic violence, social support and child maltreatment, domestic violence in pregnancy, abuse in Hispanic communities in the United States, and evolutionary psychology as an explanatory framework for partner violence and child abuse. Common themes that link these together include the diversity of experiences of violence among different groups of the population and across different cultures and countries, using knowledge to inform action, especially violence prevention, and related to this, gaining a better understanding of the range of risks and protective factors.

We have learned a lot from taking part in this exercise. Although the choices made here will inevitably be influenced by our subjective interests, we think the chosen papers are a pretty good indication of some of the very best research within the field.

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A very quick search of the PsycInfo database for 2013 using the term ‘violence’ found 3,199 articles in English language peer reviewed journals. A cross search of other databases covering this wide and multidisciplinary field would have added many more. My methodology for selecting the two best for 2013 from this vast choice was inevitably going to be subjective and highly idiosyncratic. I used what I had already—from two research reviews conducted with colleagues over the past year; from regular alerts such as the Sexual Violence Research Initiative Listserv (details at svri@mrc.ac.za) and Stanford university Abuse Research alerts (details at http://abuseresearch.info) — supplemented by a search of key violence research journals, including Psychology of Violence, Journal of Family Violence, Child Abuse and Neglect, Child Abuse Review, and Violence and Victims. From this interesting but humbling experience I have selected my top two articles of 2013 on the following criteria: they are based on excellent research, they address research questions that have exercised the research

Table 1
Articles Chosen as Best of 2013 Violence Research by the Psychology of Violence Panel (in Alphabetical Order)

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community over many years, and they raise challenging questions for policy, practice, and future research.


Lawrence Sherman, now at Cambridge University in the U.K., is well known for his research on experimental policing, especially the much cited work known as the Minneapolis Domestic Violence Experiment (Sherman & Berk, 1984). In this paper Sherman is joined with Heather M. Harris, University of Maryland, who specializes in the impact of criminal justice sanctions on health and wellbeing. The earlier studies influenced police proarrest policies across the world, some believe too rapidly and before further evidence about contradictory results from different contexts had emerged. Although death was not an outcome measure in the original experimental trials, and serious injury domestic violence cases were excluded from the studies, a major rationale to support proactive, proarrest policing responses has been the belief that lives can be saved. Sherman and Harris argue the evidence overall suggests over the longer term proarrest has no effect on repeat domestic violence. The selected paper considers the impact 23 years on of proarrest policies for domestic violence incidents on homicide rates among suspects. The Milwaukee DVE, a later methodologically improved version of the Minneapolis Domestic Violence Experiment, was a randomized trial of policing responses conducted in the United States in 1987 and 1988 (Sherman, 1992). Suspects, 1,128, were randomly assigned to either a police warning delivered at the scene of the incident or to arrest. Follow-up 23 years later found that suspects who had been arrested were three times more likely to have died as a result of homicide (2.25% of suspects, 17 suspects) than suspects who had been warned (0.81% of suspects, 3 suspects). The difference in homicide rates was not statistically discernible until 22 years after the experiment. No victims in the treatment (arrest) group died as a result of homicide, but on the 23-year follow-up death rates from other causes, mostly heart disease, were greater among those victims whose partners had been arrested than among those whose partners had been warned (Sherman & Harris, 2013). The suspects did not show this difference in death rates from causes other than from homicides. The etiology of mortality, according to Sherman and Harris, differs for domestic violence victims and domestic violence offenders. Four theoretical approaches are considered to explain why a combination of accumulative strain and victim precipitation might explain why an arrest 23 years previously could put an offender at greater risk of being a victim of homicide. These are as follows: biological explanations, increased stress caused by arrest creating sufficient accumulative physiological harm to explain greater homicide propensity in later life; Agnew’s General Strain Theory (Agnew, 2006), whereby the negative life event of arrest contributes to cumulative strain in a nonlinear fashion, erupting as homicide victim precipitation later on; chaos theory (Gleick, 1987), whereby the small initial difference between arrest or no arrest triggers a slight shift in the person’s life course pathway which magnifies over time in increased anger and reduced self-control such that at the end of 22 years, this is sufficient to explain levels of victim precipitation contributing to higher rates of homicide; defiance theory (Sherman, 1993), whereby if a person is, in their eyes, illegitimately punished, they are more likely to break the law, with criminality increasing over time. No firm evidence is found to support any of theories, although strain theory, according to the authors, appears more likely. It is interesting to note that almost all the homicide victims who had been arrested had a prior arrest record, suggesting possibly different impacts on different offenders. This paper raises really challenging questions about how long-term a follow-up of a randomized intervention needs to be if we are to get a full picture of the impact on health, wellbeing, costs, and benefits. It also raises questions about benefits and costs at the individual and broader macro/societal level. The ‘what works’ research is heavily populated with rapidly delivered interventions evaluated over relatively short periods of time, often with little regard for unintended consequences and the complexity of achieving sustainable change, change in different contexts, and for different groups in the population. Measuring change over time is difficult and some readers may question what a study of policing more than 23 years ago can tell us about the impact of policing policy on domestic violence today. The original Minneapolis experiment involved just a six-month follow-up period to mea-
sure outcomes, and few now stretch to more than two years. One major conclusion from this study is that two years follow-up is not enough.


This second paper I selected looks at the long-term impact of child abuse and neglect and the role of social support in moderating or mediating the impact and subsequent adverse outcomes, measured here as anxiety, depression, and illicit drug use. Social support is generally recognized as being a protective factor within the child maltreatment literature, but the authors of this paper argue that attention has focused on social support lowering risk of maltreatment occurring, rather than as a buffer against its adverse consequences. Few have considered whether or not maltreatment means individuals are likely to have less social support, and studies that exist have limited methodologies and produce mixed results. Using a prospective cohort design involving 696 children aged 0 to 11 years, 388 of whom had substantiated experiences of child abuse or neglect in the years 1967 to 1971, and 318 of whom were a matched control group without these experiences, this paper is based on findings from follow-up interviews conducted in middle adulthood. It is part of a longitudinal study that has collected follow-up data from a number of time spaced waves. The current paper adds to the important and growing research on how different types of social support—support with appraisal/having someone to talk to, self-esteem, tangible social support, and social support that provides a sense of belonging—can separately and together have buffering effects. The researchers found that individuals who had experienced child abuse and neglect had significantly lower levels of social support as adults compared with the control group. But the effects on different types of social support varied by gender. Maltreated males had lower levels of self-esteem social support whereas maltreated females did not. Maltreated females had lower levels of tangible social support whereas maltreated males did not. Adjusting for age, sex, gender, and prior psychiatric diagnosis, social support was found to mediate the relationship between child abuse and neglect and anxiety and depression in adulthood. Males were particularly strongly affected by social support. Whereas child abuse and neglect predicted social support and child abuse and neglect predicted illicit drug use, levels of social support had no impact on illicit drug use. It seems that the pathway to better protection of maltreated children from use of illicit drugs is more complex. This paper brings messages for professionals and practitioners who work with children and young people in many sectors. Much emphasis has been put on ‘engagement’ with vulnerable children and their families and, within children’s services, ensuring that children have someone to turn to. The researchers highlight that little is known about how maltreatment influences social support, whether and why it may be harder for a maltreated child to reach out or to cultivate support from others, whether this ability to reach out erodes steadily across the life course, and how this differs for boys and girls. We need a better understanding of what we mean by ‘social support,’ including the much neglected area of the informal sector and everyday interactions within the communities in which we live. These longitudinal studies, painstakingly crafted over time with individuals who have lived through these experiences, are helping to address these gaps in our understanding.

Antonia Abbey
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Selecting two articles that represent the best violence research of 2013 was a bit like choosing a single item from a luscious dessert buffet. There are so many excellent choices that my selections are a bit arbitrary. I scanned the table of contents of well-known violence journals and used a variety of keywords in PsycInfo. My choices reflect my interests and my sense of research foci that need more attention. Given the outrageously high rates of sexual, emotional, and physical violence perpetrated in relationships of all types (long-term, casual, friends, coworkers), I particularly value research that documents the scope of perpetration and identifies proximal risk and protective factors that are amenable to prevention and treatment.

Fulu, E., Jewkes, R., Roselli, T., & Garcia-Moreno, C.; on behalf of the UN Multi-country Cross-sectional Study on Men and Violence research team. (2013). Prevalence of and fac-

I selected this article because of its methodological rigor, international scope, and important findings. These authors conducted household health surveys with a representative sample of men ages 18–49 in rural and urban areas of Bangladesh, Cambodia, China, Indonesia, Jayapura, Papua New Guinea, and Sri Lanka. They used behaviorally specific items to assess physical, sexual, emotional, and economic intimate partner violence perpetration. The response rates were high with a total of 8,006 men who had ever had a partner answering questions about violence perpetration. Overall, 57.4% of these men reported at least one act of intimate partner violence perpetration, with rates ranging across countries from 39.4% (Sri Lanka) to 87.3% (Papua New Guinea). Findings regarding risk factors associated with different forms of violence in different countries are too complex to easily summarize; however, the authors found a variety of societal (gender inequity), background (childhood victimization, low education), and proximal (transactional sex, alcohol consumption) risk factors. I commend these authors for their state of the art sampling procedures and analysis. These authors conducted household health surveys with a representative sample of men ages 18–49 in rural and urban areas of Bangladesh, Cambodia, China, Indonesia, Jayapura, Papua New Guinea, and Sri Lanka. They used behaviorally specific items to assess physical, sexual, emotional, and economic intimate partner violence perpetration. The response rates were high with a total of 8,006 men who had ever had a partner answering questions about violence perpetration. Overall, 57.4% of these men reported at least one act of intimate partner violence perpetration, with rates ranging across countries from 39.4% (Sri Lanka) to 87.3% (Papua New Guinea). Findings regarding risk factors associated with different forms of violence in different countries are too complex to easily summarize; however, the authors found a variety of societal (gender inequity), background (childhood victimization, low education), and proximal (transactional sex, alcohol consumption) risk factors. I commend these authors for their state of the art sampling procedures and analysis.


I selected this article because of its findings regarding risk and protective factors associated with changes in perpetration status over time. Analyses were conducted with a large sample of adolescents in two rural school districts in the southeastern United States who completed in-school surveys across a 2.5-year interval. Social network analyses allowed friends’ self-reported beliefs and behavior to be included as predictors of participants’ self-reported dating violence perpetration at each time point. Within-participant analyses demonstrated that dating violence perpetration was lower than usual for adolescents at time points when they had more friends with prosocial beliefs (e.g., valued school, opposed alcohol use) and dating violence perpetration was higher than usual for adolescents at time points when they had higher social status (percent of friendship nominations). Because these are within-participant analyses, they control for many common confounding community-, family-, and individual-level risk factors. The authors suggest that the power associated with high social status empowers aggressive treatment of others. These findings are noteworthy because they focus on risk and protective factors amenable to change, rather than static factors. As someone who hopes to see rates of sexual, emotional, and physical violence diminish, I particularly appreciate research that identifies potential causes that are modifiable.

David Sugarman
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As the piles of journals fill up my office shelves and floor, I relish the opportunity to dive into the “new” research contained within these issues. However, as readers of *Psychology of Violence* must recognize, the newly published literature in a specific research field can be expansive. In 2013, more than 800 peer-reviewed journal articles were published that had the word “Aggression” or “Violence” as a descriptor term. A keyword search would increase this number to over 1,900 articles. Clearly these figures underestimate the amount of new research because books, book chapters, dissertations, and other forms of publication were overlooked. But we can use the term “new” to denote more than publication recency.

Research neophilia requires more than meeting a criterion of contemporariness. The development of a new model (Anderson & Bushman, 2002; Crick & Dodge, 1994) or new measurement strategy (DeWall et al., 2013; Moore, Eikins, McNulty, Kivisto, & Handsel, 2011) produces more than a twinge of intellectual envy. So, what does one look for as one scans the many abstracts that arise from one’s electronic literature search? Perhaps one will find a new theoretical approach unifies earlier approaches, the application of a theory to a new research realm, or the reformulation of a model to align it more closely to the data. After I culled the abstracts, there remained about 50 articles that spanned topics from the neuroscience of aggres-
sion (Porges & Decety, 2013) to the assessment of audience judgments about the violent video game debate (Sjöström, Sowka, Gollwitzer, Klimmt, & Rothmund, 2013). However, in looking over my final choices, my bias toward evolutionary psychology emerged.


My first selection by Zwaan and colleagues (Zwaan et al., 2013) offered two features that served to focus my attention on it. First, their examination of bullying behavior suggested that status may be represented on multiple dimensions and that individual or group differences may indicate which dimension is more predictive of bullying. Second, the impact of an individual’s social status on aggressive behavior is moderated by characteristics of the group’s social hierarchy.

Applying an evolutionary perspective, Zwaan et al. (2013) posited that a high status adolescent would resort to aggression only in the context of poorly delineated status hierarchy. In a hierarchical environment individuals who clearly sort themselves into status groups would lack the need for aggressive behavior. Thus, they evaluated the impact of a number of contextual factors on peer nomination measures of physical aggression (i.e., Who quarrels and/or initiates fights often?) and relational aggression (i.e., Who spreads gossip/rumors about others?). They assessed status at the individual-level and class-level and used a multilevel regression analysis to cope with the nested design. The status measure involved the frequency of being nominated to the question Who do others want to be associated with?, whereas the attractiveness measure used the question Who is good looking? All individual-level measures were standardized by the size of the class thus all measures were on a 0 to 1 scale.

At the class level, the authors generated three contextual class variables. The first two measure assessed the status hierarchy and attractiveness hierarchy of each class. Focusing on the same-gender standard deviations of the status and attractiveness measures respectively, the authors calculated status and attractiveness hierarchy measures. Low hierarchy scores suggest that there are relatively few differences among class members on status or attractiveness. In contrast, high scores denote that differences among the student are wide and easily discernible. Finally, a sex ratio of the class membership was calculated.

Quite unexpectedly, Zwaan et al. (2013) found that boys were exhibiting more physical aggression than girls and girls were more likely to perpetrate relational aggression than boys. Furthermore, higher status was predictive of both forms of aggression for both genders. A finding that was more critical for their theorizing was the potential interaction between one’s status and the characteristics of the hierarchy. For boys, the association between one’s status and both aggressive behaviors was stronger when the social hierarchy was lower. Within this context, the high status male would feel more challenges than if a wider range of statuses composed the class membership. A similar finding emerged for female high status adolescents except in the case of relational aggression, not physical aggression. To a lesser degree, the sex ratio moderated the status–aggression relationship, but only for boys and only if the aggression was relational. The use of relational violence increased with higher status boys as the number of boys in the class increased relative to the number of girls.


Whereas the General Aggression model (Anderson & Bushman, 2002) and similar social information processing approaches to violent behavior (Crick & Dodge, 1994; Loersch & Payne, 2011) have focused on proximal explanatory factor, other authors have postulated that more evolutionary based processes offer us insight into this darker side of behavior (Daly & Wilson, 1987; Hrdy, 1979). As a second selection, I opt for a review paper that uses this latter approach. John Archer’s (2013) excellent review of a series of family violence research findings that would be predicted by evolutionary theory offers a fine elaboration of the processes that account for these findings. This creative integration of research findings and evolutionary-based predictions leads one to ponder when these points will be better inte-
grated into the social information models of violent behavior.

Archer applied three basic evolutionary theory principles in formulating his prediction regarding family violence. The first principle, kin selection, is based on Hamilton’s (1964) work and posits that the level of cost accepted by a caregiver (e.g., parent) to benefit (i.e., increase survivability) a target organism (e.g., child) is influenced by the degree of genetic relatedness between the caregiver and the target. Hamilton’s rule predicts that parents would exhibit a higher frequency of violence toward stepchildren than biologically related children and this violence would be more likely motivated by hostile resentment. Similarly, Archer (2013) predicted that children would be more likely to act violent toward stepparents than parents and greater violence would occur between stepchildren than biologically related siblings. Siblings would actually exhibit higher levels of cooperation in contrast to two unrelated individuals. Furthermore, siblings would show increased conflict only as access to highly valued resources is threatened. Archer (2013) further applies that principle to mate guarding given the desire of the male to ensure that parental costs benefit genetically related offspring. This would predict that men would exhibit these strategies to a greater degree than women would. In situations when paternity is questionable, men are more likely to exhibit aggressive behavior toward their partner and the offspring in contrast to when paternity is clear.

The second principle focused on reproduction value (RV). With age, Archer (2013) suggested that an individual’s RV or one’s contribution to future generations, changes. For example, as adults age, their ability to bear additional offspring and/or support children’s needs will dwindle. This would predict that as the parent ages, the likelihood of violence toward the child declines but child-to-parent aggression will increase. Similarly, infants who suffer from medical or genetic problems and will thus have a lower RV, would have a greater probability of victimization. Furthermore, violence during infancy would be greater under conditions of scarce resources. One’s RV can influence the aggression in one’s adult relationship. While younger women are more vulnerable to partner victimization in contrast to older women, a similar trend emerges with younger men’s perpetration. In fact, as the age differential increases between the younger female and older make, the probability increase for spousal violence.

The third critical factor offered by Archer (2013) is resource holding power (RHP), or the ability of an individual to maintain one’s self-interest at the expense of another individual’s interests. Given the impact of biological dimorphism on gender and age differences in strength, the concept of RHP would suggest several predictions. Parent-to-child violence will occur most frequently when the child is younger (i.e., infancy) and child-to-parent violence will happen more frequently when the parents are more elderly. Applying a similar logic, female partners will potentially be dominated by their male partners with greater likelihood than the reverse, and male children will exhibit more aggression toward their female sibling.

Applying a meta-analytic approach to evaluate these hypotheses, Archer (2013) concluded that these hypotheses are generally supported by the literature. He clearly notes potential alternative explanations (e.g., the presence of stress) or limitations (e.g., noting the presence of confirming data for step-parent but no research on adopting parents). Still his work agrees with Mock’s contention that “the basic family unit can be seen as a crucible for testing the upper evolutionary limits of selfishness, because within families the closest genetic relatives are routinely locked in mortal struggles over critically limited resources” (Mock, 2004, p. 9).

Callie Rennison
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Thanks to Sherry Hamby for this informative opportunity. It was a pleasure and a luxury to take the time to review research articles in a wide variety of journals published by names both familiar and unfamiliar.

The criteria (beyond that provided) I used to make these selections inevitably reflect some personal preferences. The first criterion used was to focus on violent victimization, given that this is the area in which my own work is concentrated. In contrast, the second criterion I used does not reflect my own work. Specifically, I focused on pieces that synthesized extant findings such as meta-analyses and literature reviews. And finally, I was drawn to
research that reviewed understudied populations. These criteria led me to many journals and authors outside of my normal working environment. With so much great work out there, choosing only two articles was very difficult. Nonetheless, I selected the following two articles for further comment.


The purpose of this meta-analysis is twofold. First, the authors offer estimates of the prevalence of domestic violence among pregnant women. Second, the authors identify risk factors associated with domestic violence against pregnant women. These studies used were selected based on a broad literature search of several online databases: Academic Search Complete, Proquest, Google Scholar, Criminal Justice Abstracts, Social Sciences Abstracts, MedLine, and PubMed Central. Specific terms searched for were domestic violence/abuse, intimate partner violence/abuse, family violence, spouse/spousal violence/abuse, and marital violence/abuse. Using these criteria, the authors’ work was based on 115 studies.

An especially appealing aspect of this research is that it is not confined to intimate violence among pregnant women in the United States only, to one type of domestic violence, or to one type of data collection (hospital samples vs. national surveys). Rather, findings presented include estimates and risk factors of domestic violence against pregnant women across several nations, by high and low income nations, in terms by overall domestic abuse, physical abuse, emotional abuse, and sexual abuse, and based on whether the data came from a hospital sample or a national survey. The authors provide several tables addressing these characteristics.

Findings show an average prevalence rate of domestic violence against pregnant women of 19.8%. The highest prevalence rate was estimated for emotional abuse (28.4%), followed by physical abuse (13.8%). The mean prevalence rate for sexual abuse was estimated to be 8% in total. Findings indicate that domestic violence during pregnancy prevalence rates are greater in low income nations compared to high income nations. Among low income nations, the domestic violence during pregnancy prevalence rate was estimated at 27.7%. In contrast, the rate in high income nations was 13.3%. Results of the meta-analysis reveal that hospital-based surveys are characterized by higher prevalence rates: 21.3% among hospital samples and 11.0% among national surveys.

The second overall goal of this meta-analysis was to identify risk factors. A review of the literature identified seven risk factors for victimization requiring further examination: (a) abuse before pregnancy, (b) lower educational level, (c) low socioeconomic status, (d) being single, (e) victim alcohol abuse, (f) pregnancy unintended/unwanted, and (g) lifetime adversity/exposure to violence. In addition, two offending risk factors were selected for greater investigation: (a) perpetrator alcohol abuse, and (b) pregnancy unintended/unwanted.

Findings indicated that victim’s ‘lower education level’ was characterized by the largest effect (ES = 1.92; zero not contained in the confidence interval). In other words, pregnant women with less education were almost twice as likely to be victims of domestic violence during pregnancy compared with more highly educated pregnant women. Results also show that being single, a lower socioeconomic status, and victim alcohol abuse are risk factors of domestic violence during pregnancy (ES = 1.73, 1.66, and 1.25, respectively). Among the perpetrator risk factors considered, only ‘pregnancy unintended/unwanted’ was significant (ES = 1.21). That is, if the perpetrator did not want or intend the pregnancy, the odds of domestic violence victimization of the pregnant victim increased 21%.

This meta-analysis clearly demonstrates that the relationship between pregnancy and intimate victimization is complex. Findings may be influenced by the type of sample used, the wealth and income levels of the nation in which the research was conducted, and the specific definition of domestic violence used.


This study focused on risk and protective factors of intimate partner violence—both victimization and offending—among people of Hispanic ethnicity framed by a four-level socio-
ecological model. The focus on people of Hispanic ethnicity is important given they are fastest growing population in the United States. In addition, people of Hispanic ethnicity are now the largest minority population in the nation. Despite this, relatively little research has examined this group. Understanding the overall state of research regarding intimate victimization and perpetration among people of Hispanic ethnicity is long overdue. To address this, the authors reviewed literature published since 2000 based on a search using PsycINFO, PubMed, and Google Scholar. Search terms included intimate partner violence, domestic violence, family violence, femicide, gender-based violence, sexual assault, partner violence, Hispanic, Latino, risk, and protective factors. Following this search, the authors identified 29 articles for review. Unlike the meta-analysis in the previous article discussed, this review does not offer the calculation of pooled estimates.

As is found in the more general intimate partner violence literature focused on victimization and perpetration, the authors concluded that Hispanic males and females share many risk and protective factors. Important individual level risk factors for perpetration and victimization identified in the literature are a history of physical and/or sexual abuse, marital status, unemployment, youthfulness, lack of educational attainment, impulsivity, and alcohol and/or drug use.

In contrast to shared risk and protective factors between Hispanic males and females, some findings provide evidence of a gender effect. Specifically, extant research focused on people of Hispanic ethnicity finds that being female serves as a risk factor for intimate victimization, whereas being male acts as a risk factor for intimate perpetration. Additional factors associated with increased risk of victimization for females include financial dependence on a partner, low self-esteem, and number of children in the home. Engaging in perilous sexual behaviors such as inconsistent condom use, HIV seropositivity, numerous sexual partners, and submissiveness on the part of the female was also associated with increased risk of victimization.

Whereas most research focuses on individual level factors, some studies do examine predictors of intimate violence at nonindividual levels. At the relationship level, a lack of social support, increased social isolation, conflict, and infidelity are positively related to increased intimate partner violence risk. At the community level, extant literature indicates that higher levels of poverty and violence in a community, a greater degree of neighborhood disorder, reduced church involvement by individuals, poorer community work conditions, and greater degree of urbanization are risk factors of victimization.

The authors found that protective factors for intimate violence among people of Hispanic ethnicity are poorly covered in the literature. The scant research that did focus on protective factors focused primarily on individual level characteristics. Findings show that that being older, employed, married, retired, having a higher income, and having higher/medium degree of acculturation are protective in nature. At the relationship level, the literature indicates that the presence of social support and healthy communication serve as protective factors against intimate partner victimization among people of Hispanic ethnicity.

Not surprisingly, the literature review noted that findings were mixed regarding some factors. The authors found the role of pregnancy in intimate victimization risk of people of Hispanic ethnicity as unclear. Some extant research finds pregnancy to serve as a protective factor, whereas other research indicates it is a risk factor. Research is clear that the simple state of pregnancy among Hispanic women oversimplifies the situation. For instance, whether the pregnancy was planned and whether intimate violence had been ongoing before the pregnancy were just some of the important considerations that may be responsible for mixed findings in the literature.

Similarly, the relationship between culture and intimate violence is unclear. For example, some research finds those who embrace traditional gender roles were more likely to be engaged in intimate violence. Yet other studies find the opposite. Some research finds that people of Hispanic ethnicity born in the United States had higher acculturation levels and were victimized at higher rates than those who were not.

This review of literature offers some guidance for future research focused on people of Hispanic ethnicity and intimate partner violence. First, more work on intimate partner violence against and by people of Hispanic ethnicity is needed. The authors search turned up 29 articles in approximately a decade. It is clear that the inclusion of additional search engines such as Social Science Abstracts would offer
more articles for consideration. However, it is an empirical question as to whether a broader search will result in different substantive findings. Second, research attention at relationship, community, and societal levels is needed. Third, additional attention to protective (vs. risk) factors is desirable. Fourth, although it is important to focus on victimization, additional work on intimate partner perpetration is required.

Carlos A. Cuevas
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In taking on the challenge of choosing the best violence research in the past year, I decided to narrow what to review based on personal criteria beyond what was outlined by the journal’s editor. Otherwise, the task would be overwhelming, as hundreds of excellent articles on the topic are published each year. First, I chose to focus on research that examines violence among understudied populations. This included ethnic minorities, LGBT individuals, those with disabilities, and the elderly. The rationale behind this decision was to promote and highlight violence research among individuals whose victimization experiences have not received significant attention, and as a result, are often underserved and overlooked in access to services and policy decisions. My second criterion was to emphasize quantitative studies with strong and innovative methodological approaches. This generally excluded qualitative work or studies with small sample sizes. This is not to minimize the value of that research, but rather to emphasize work that takes on the challenge associated with reaching and recruiting these often hard to reach populations. This still left me with a significant number of articles to review, and ultimately choosing two, although many others could have been selected given the quality of the work that has been done over the year.


My decision to choose this article by Goldberg and Meyer stems from the number of methodological limitations that are addressed in examining partner violence among LGBT individuals by using the California Health Interview Survey. As they note in their article, much of the research on violence among the LGBT community stems from nonprobability samples. This includes participants recruited through agencies that provide services to the LGBT community, IPV helplines and clinics, and LGBT events, which have the potential to increase sampling bias and often result in small sample sizes. This, in combination with the use of sampling and replicate weights to account for the sampling design, demonstrates a thoughtful approach to analyzing the data.

Another key contribution in this article is how they identified sexual orientation. Much of the research in this area either asks about sexual behavior and categorizes individuals as gay/lesbian/bisexual, or they use participant self-identification. The authors allowed for the separation of those who identify as gay/lesbian/bisexual and those who engaged in same-sex relations (i.e., men who have sex with men [MSM] or women who have sex with women [WSW]) but who do not identify as being LGBT. This results in a more nuanced evaluation of the data, as many would argue that the issues of sexual orientation are more complex than just identifying with one particular category.

Most importantly, this piece brings attention to an understudied group of individuals in violence research. In doing so, they also aim to identify potential mediation factors that may account for the differences in IPV rates for these and the context in which it may occur (e.g., controlling for the impact of binge drinking or psychological distress, the finding that bisexual women have a higher rate of victimization but primarily at the hands of male partners). As a whole, this article provides a significant move forward in the research on violence among LGBT individuals.


This piece by Hernandez-Tejada, Amstadter, Muzzy, and Acierno stuck out for a number of reasons. First, surveying the elderly has been notoriously difficult, and few have been able to reach this population in as large a scope as the National Elder Mistreatment Study (NEMS).
was able to do. Second, the article, which is not the first from the NEMS, takes aim at evaluating race/ethnicity differences, which is a crucial first step in understanding how dynamics of abuse may be different across different ethnic minority groups and setting up a foundation for potentially tailored interventions and services. Third, the study is methodologically ambitious and results in one of the largest (and perhaps the only) nationally representative sample of elder adults living in the community (i.e., outside assisted living facilities or residential/institutional care).

Another aspect of this article that led me to select it as the best of violence research was the detail used in evaluating the different forms of abuse, and how this was suited to the population being studied. For example, the emotional mistreatment questions include behaviors such as being humiliated/embarrassed, being told their opinion is worthless, or being refused to talk. These behaviors are not typical of other surveys that examine emotional abuse, but very salient to what the elderly may experience.

Finally, as with my other choice, this article brings attention to an understudied population and makes a significant contribution to the study of violence in the elderly and the field of violence research as a whole. I commend the researchers on the quality of their study, and the excellent presentation of their work in this particular article.

References


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