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Deterring Bonds: Why She Can't Leave.

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DETECTING BONDS: Why She Can't Leave.

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DETECTING BONDS: Why She Can't Leave.

by

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Chapter 1: Introduction

The prevalence of violence in U.S. culture is the foundation of many revered ideals and institutions where violence goes unchallenged and is even considered legitimate and acceptable. The aim of this research is to describe how military wives who experience abuse deal with their situation and if the Family Assistance Program is effective in supporting victims and dealing with abusers.

The existence of family violence, as a widespread problem in the United States was not recognized until fairly recently. Nevertheless, the phenomenon of spouse abuse has occurred throughout history. It was not until the mid 1970's with the feminist anti-rape movement and the women's movement, that spouse abuse was recognized as a pervasive social problem. Since then, research and literature focusing on spouse abuse have gained impetus in regard to the general population.

Recently spouse abuse has risen to the forefront of social and political issues for several reasons. First, the number of reported cases of family violence directed against women has increased. Second, the violence was often physical and usually caused pain or injury. Third, the increasing incidence of spousal assault resulted in more spousal murders. Consequently, public concern about this issue increased.

Scholars and legislators agree that the family is one of the most violent social institutions in our society. "People are more likely to be killed, physically assaulted, hit, beaten up, slapped, or spanked in their own homes by other family members than anywhere else, or by anyone else in our society" (Gelles & Cornell, 1990: 11). This is often attributed to the sanctity of marriage, which for centuries has been closely associated with personal privacy; consequently, the rejection of outside intervention in family affairs has been generalized. Furthermore, the middle

class rights of privacy, fostered by living in single-family houses isolated from the scrutiny of friends and family, reinforced the belief in personal privacy when it comes to intimate violence, thus discouraging people from getting involved in domestic affairs.

According to data on assault and injuries sustained during domestic disputes, women are more likely than males to be injured because of the greater amount of force used by males as compared with females (Straus, 1980). In their study, Mercy and Saltzman (1989) found that the leading cause of injuries to women is intimate violence. Stets and Straus (1990) report that in a nationally representative sample more of the female victims (3%) than the male victims (0.4%) needed to see a doctor for a violent incident. “In 1994 the U. S. Justice Department conducted patient surveys at emergency rooms in 31 hospitals across the nation and found that 1.3 million patients a year are treated for injuries caused by violent attacks – some 250 percent more than previously thought, approximately 243,000, or 17 percent, were victims of domestic violence, a rate four times higher than previous estimates” (Violence at Home, Sept, 1997); despite its epidemic proportions, according to research “91% of spousal (or intimate) violence may never come to the attention of the police” (Schulman, 1979; Teske & Parker, 1983).

This study is organized in seven chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the focus of this study on military wives’ experiences with abuse, and their interaction with the Family Assistance Program at the military installation. Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature, primarily discussing studies on domestic violence, the various types of violence considered as domestic violence and national studies providing information on the significant prevalence of domestic violence in the United States. Chapter 3 discusses the methodology employed in the study, and introduces hypotheses based on the relationship between military wives in domestic violence situations and their relationship to support networks. The fourth Chapter, provides a theoretical discussion of

domestic violence within a social scientific framework. Chapter 5 discusses family support services in the military. Chapter 6 provides the data examined and analyzed in this study. Finally, Chapter 7, provides a discussion of this study's findings and concluding remarks.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Literature Review

Family violence is a prevalent and complex problem. Gelles's (1974) investigation on the incidence of family violence in the general population disclosed that even in families where there was no history of abuse, violence was still occurring. Women in our society are disproportionately the most likely victims of spousal abuse, both because of physical size and social status. Women are still socially regarded as the property of their mates. Consequently, their lives are sometimes left at the mercy of their partners. According to research and official statistics, the high incidence of violence against women has become overwhelming. It has been estimated by researchers that over one-half of the couples in relationships-whether marital or cohabitating in the United States will engage in some type of physical violence during their lifetime (Langley & Levy, 1977). Furthermore, Straus, Gelles & Steinmetz (1980); Saunders, (1992) hypothesized that in any given year, over two million wives will be physically battered by their husbands. In incidents of domestic violence approximately 90% of the violence is battering of the female partner by her male partner, with 6-7 percent being mutual and 2-3 percent that of females battering male partners (Campbell & Humphreys, 1993).

In relation to spousal violent crimes, 91% are attacks on women by their husband or ex-husbands (Klaus & Rand, 1984). "Schwartz (1987) analyzed National Crime Survey (NCS) information from 1973 to 1982 and found that 94% of the victims of partner abuse were women. Recorded injury cases (sustained) 95% of the injured were females" (Barnett & La Violette, 1993), "McLee and Anwar found that when an appropriate trauma history was obtained, 30% of female trauma cases were a result of domestic violence" (Sugg & Inui 1997). In his study on victim/offender relationship Wolfgang (1958) found that the unintended homicide victim would

be one who did not have any role in contributing to his/her death and concluded that the home was the most violent setting for brutal and frequent violence. As previously, stated, spousal violence is one of the most pervasive forms of violence in our society.

Research has demonstrated that pregnancy does not assure women protection from abuse (Campbell & Humphreys, 1993) and that in many instances pregnancy stimulates the first episode of domestic violence or augments the prevalence of an already abusive relationship (Campbell, Poland & Walker, 1992).

According to Smith (1995), as many as 16% of women in the general population report battering during pregnancy. In his study, Gielen (1994) reported that 19% of the women reported moderate to severe abuse during pregnancy, while 25% of the women reported severe abuse during the first six months postpartum. In their research, Gelles & Straus (1990) found that more than 1.8 million women of childbearing age are annually victimized. Additionally, research has shown that abuse during pregnancy is correlated with mental health outcomes such as anxiety, depression, isolation, and substance abuse (Smith, 1995; Hall, Gurley, Sachs, & Kryscio, 1991; Sampsel et al., 1993).

Since research begun, studies have demonstrated that violence also occurs in dating and cohabiting relationships (Rouse, 1988, Stets & Straus, 1989). Sugarman and Hotling (1991) estimated that approximately 9% to 60% of dating relationships include encounters of physical abuse.

In a study conducted by Rouse, Breen, and Howell (1988), they found that dating couples in a college sample were slightly more likely to use moderate force (shoving, slapping, or hitting with an object) in order to resolve conflict than a comparison sample of married couples.

Further research disclosed that women, who are cohabiting, but unmarried, were more often victimized than dating or married women (Stets & Straus, 1989).

Additionally, researchers found that divorced or separated women face the same risk of abuse as married women (Stark & Flitcraft, 1996). “The U. S. Department of Justice (1983, pg. 21) revealed that about three fourths of reported spousal assault victims were separated or divorced at the time of the incident” (Barnett & LaViolette, 1993).

Psychological damage is just as bad as or worse than physical damage, sporadic episodes of physical abuse as well as many other forms of abuse are sufficient to create a climate of fear and a cycle that increases over time in frequency and intensity (R. E. Dobash & R. P. Dobash, 1979, Pagelow, 1981; Walker, 1979). Furthermore, “Because men are on the average much bigger and stronger than women, the psychological and physical damage they inflict also is likely to be much greater (O’Leary et al, 1989; Straus et al, 1980, 1990; Walker, 1989). Consequently, women who have been physically abused by their partners tend to live in fear of being hit as opposed to men who have been hit by their partners (O’Leary & Curley, 1986).

Straus and Gelles have been instrumental in making the family the focus of violence and homicide research. Results from National Family Violence Surveys using the Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS) indicate that women not only engage in physical violence as often as men (Straus et al, 1980), but according to Straus (1990), they also initiate violence as often as men do. Straus (1977/78) found the annual incidence of violence by wives only slightly lower than that of husbands (11.6 per hundred wives versus 12.1 per hundred husbands). According to the National Family Violence Surveys of the 28 percent of American Couples surveyed in 1975 and 1985 who admitted to having some violence in their relationships, the violence was instigated by women at least 25 percent of the time (Gondolf & Shestakov, 1997). Straus (1989) further states

that a certain amount of violence continues to occur in most American families; however, this violence has been accepted by society.

Based on research some theories have proposed that women in “self-defense” usually employ violence as a reaction to men’s violence against them (Saunders, 1986; Walker, 1989). Additionally, feminists argue that when women are aggressive it is as a result of domestic violence.

In recent years, spousal homicide has drawn special attention. Traditionally, spousal homicide and spousal violence have been viewed as distinct from other forms of homicide and interpersonal violence in terms of both societal and individual factors (Parker and Toth, 1990). However, the relationship between victim and offender is important in understanding the nature of the homicide (Wilson and Daly, 1988). In the specific case of spouse murder, a unique intimate relationship exists. “The term “spousal” here refers to a more inclusive category of intimate heterosexual partners, including separated and divorced couples, “boyfriends and girlfriends” in intimate relationships, and cohabitating male-female couples” (Gondolf & Shestakov, 1997). According to Perlman & Fehr (1987), these relationships contain affection, commitment, and interdependence. In Addition, Weiss (1989) suggests that ex relationships should also be included because the emotional closeness is more likely to remain after the relationship is terminated. Historically, researchers have combined cohabitating and legally married couples into one category.

The Bureau of Statistics (1994) reported that the homicide incidence in the United States decreased by approximately 5,000 murders in the mid-1980s and gradually increased in the late 1980s and into the 1990s (Gondolf & Shestakov, 1997). Mercy & Saltzman (1989) found that 2.3 women are killed by their spouse or lover for every one man killed by his spouse or lover.

Approximately two-thirds of the spousal homicides are committed with guns (Gondolf & Shestakov, 1997). According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics (BJS), National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) since 1994, violent crime rates have declined, reaching the lowest level ever recorded in 2005. The violent crime rate increased 1.3% from 2004 to 2005. From 1996 to 2005, the rate fell 26.3% (BJS, 2006).

There are numerous ways in which a man can abuse his spouse, as well as the degree of abuse. Along these lines, homicide is the ultimate degree of abuse. In some cases, the abuse is so severe that it results in the death of the victim. According to “statistics from the Department of Justice 1992, the sex-ratio for spousal homicide in the United States reported that 1,432 women were killed by lovers or spouses and 623 men were killed by lovers or spouses” (Gondolf & Shestakov, 1997). This ratio indicates a higher proportion of women as victim than in a 1985 study. While the sex-ratio for spousal homicide in the United States from 1976 to 1985 was calculated to be 1:13, according to analysis of official statistics (Mercy & Saltzman, 1989). Some of the probable reasons of the increase in the 1992 report could be the more accurate classification of victim-perpetrator relationship, and the inclusion of lovers and ex-spouses. In the United States, 2.3 women are killed by her spouse or lover (Mercy & Saltzman, 1989).

Wolfgang’s (1958) research on victim/offender relationship revealed that males generally kill males and females also generally kill males. Regarding gender, Wolfgang wrote, “There is a significant association between sex and criminal homicides, since males out proportion females as murderers”. In Wolfgang’s study primary group relationships such as the family accounted for 65% of all victim-offender relationships.

Further, in the analysis of the nature of the killings, Wolfgang found that family homicides were more brutal in nature than other homicides and that the majority of these

murders were more likely to be of wives. In addition, homicide is a uniquely personal crime where the most common victim/offender relationship can be found in spouses, close friends, acquaintances, and lovers.

Regarding weapon choice, Wolfgang found knives used most often (39%) followed by beatings (22%). According to Wolfgang, females in general were twice as likely to stab their victims, while men resorted to shooting or beating their victims.

In relation to race, Wolfgang's research was restricted to differences between Blacks and Whites. Nonetheless, his research disclosed that eighty percent of the individuals in his study were Black.

Even though one sixth of all murders in the Philadelphia study were, spouses and Wolfgang's analysis yielded only a 100 cases of husband/wife homicide. Fifty-three wives were killed by their husbands and forty-seven of the homicides were perpetrated by wives. According to Wolfgang "When a man was killed by a woman, he was most likely to be killed by his wife" (Wolfgang, 1958, p, 213). Furthermore, a husband/lover was the most likely victim of a female homicide (45%). Wolfgang also found that husbands killed their wives more violently than vice versa.

In his studies on homicide, William Wilbanks (1983) found that male offenders are more inclined to kill their spouse than female offenders. According to Wilbanks, the nature of crime is very inter-sexual for female offenders with females seldom killing other females. In the analysis of victim/offender relationship, he found 1,492 male offenders and 1,089 female offenders. In the examination of victim/offender relationship by sex he found 65.3% male/male, 2% female/female, 20.4% female/male, and 12.4% male/female, the categories included for this

examination were: “lover/spouse” thus not only including spouses, but also dating, common-law, homosexual, and divorced relationships.

Interestingly, in Wilbanks’s research, men more than women were also more inclined to use firearms when committing a homicide (64.6% versus 57.5%). Thus, contradicting the theory that women resort more often to using firearms to equalize the male’s physical strength.

In their research, Mercy & Saltzman (1989) analyzed 16,595 cases of homicide that included information on spouses and common –law couples only. The study reported that in contrast to men women had a 1.3 greater chance of being killed by their spouse. Moreover, Puzone, Saltzman, Kresnow, Thompson, & Mercy (2000), found that in intimate partner homicides (60%) of the adult victims were females, consequently, women more than men are more likely to be victims of intimate partner homicides.

Mercy & Saltzman (1989) found that according to race ratios, the incidence of spouse abuse for Blacks was substantially higher than for Whites. Similar ratios were found in regards to nonfatal husband and wife abuse. The rate of spouse homicide in interracial marriages was 7.7 times higher than in intraracial marriages. Mercy & Saltzman proposed the following explanation to help in the interpretation of their finding “persons with different racial or generational backgrounds bring very different outlooks and lifestyles to a marriage that may contribute to more conflict, greater stress, and ultimately to violence” (Mercy & Saltzman, 1988, p. 597).

Additionally, Mercy & Saltzman (1989) found that in most spouse homicides a firearm was the weapon utilized, and that women more than men resort to using a firearm (72.2 percent versus 71.0 percent). When compared to non-spouse homicides it was found that firearms were more frequently used in spouse killings.

According to Wolfgang, more than half of the male spouses killed can be linked to “victim-precipitated” homicide. Sub intended or a victim-precipitated homicide “occurs when the decedent plays some significant role (even though partial, covert, or unconscious) in hastening his or her own demise” (Allen, 1980, p.47).

2.2 Issues Related to Physical Abuse

“Physical assault on a partner in an intimate relationship such as marriage, cohabiting, or dating, may be the most prevalent type of violent crime” (Smithey & Straus, 2000). In attempting to uncover the etiology of abuse Straus, Gelles and Steinmetz (1980) developed a five risk factor theory. According to their theory, inequality between spouses (mainly male dominance in the relationship), poverty and unemployment, stress and lack of community ties, youthfulness, and alcohol abuse are the factors that contribute to abuse. In his study Gelles (1995) found that the rates of family violence are highest in urban families, low income families, and homes where the husband is unemployed, among members of racial minorities, people with no religious affiliation, people with only some degree of high school education, blue collar workers, and those under age 30.

Furthermore, Gelles (1995) asserts that family violence is very frequent, 10%-67% of dating relationships involve violence, and 1%-27% involve severe violence. That over the course of a marital or cohabiting relationship it would approximate to about 30% (Gelles & Straus, 1988). “According to the National Violence Against Women Survey, approximately 1.5 million women in the United States are physically assaulted and/or raped by their current or former husbands, partners, or boyfriends each year...”(Dept. of Defense, 2001). Three out of ten abusers interpreted violence as a sign of love (Henton, et al., 1983 in Gelles 1995, 459). Given these

statistics, “domestic violence is a pervasive problem that transcends all ethnic, racial, gender and socioeconomic boundaries ...” (DoD, 2001).

Nominal definition of domestic violence according to the Texas Family Code:

“An act by a member of a family or household against another member of the family or household that is intended to result in physical harm, bodily injury, assault or sexual assault or that is a threat that reasonably places the member in fear of imminent physical harm, bodily injury, assault or sexual assault, but does not include defensive measures to protect oneself” (Texas Family Code Section 71.004).

The Family Advocacy Program (FAP’s, 2006) Commander’s Guide definition for Domestic Abuse is:

- Domestic violence or
- A pattern of behavior resulting in emotional/psychological abuse, economic control, and/or interference with personal liberty when such violence or abuse is directed toward a person of the opposite sex who is:
 - A current or former spouse;
 - A person with whom the abuser shares a child in common;
 - A current or former intimate partner with whom the abuser shares or has shared a common domicile.

Domestic violence is an offense under the United States Code or the Uniform Code of Military Justice that involves the use, attempted use, or threatened use of force or violence against a person of the opposite sex, or a violation of a lawful order issued for the protection of a person of the opposite sex, who is:

- A current or former spouse

- A person with whom the abuser shares a child in common; or
- A current or former intimate partner with whom the abuser shares or has shared a common domicile.

In the Army, spouse assault offenses committed by members of the Armed Forces generally fall under the following articles of the UCMJ:

- (1) Article 128 – Assault
- (2) Article 124 – Maiming
- (3) Article 133 – Conduct Unbecoming an Officer
- (4) Article 134 – General Article (aggravated assault; disorderly conduct; communicating a threat; or violation of state law which may be assimilated under 18 USC 13).

Operational definition:

The use or threat of use of physical, emotional, verbal, or sexual abuse by a family member against another family member with the intent of instilling fear, intimidating, and controlling behavior.

2.3 Issues Related to Non-Physical Abuse

The perception of words as violence inflicted either in private or in public has been only recently recognized and sanctioned as abuse. However, besides words there are many other different types of non-physical abuse. In his writings, Marshall (1996) identifies the following:

Jealousy, rejection, possessiveness, humiliation, overly dominating or controlling behaviors, such as control of money, or her activities, making her feel fearful, attempts to enforce secrecy, made to feel guilty, attempted to make her feel self-doubt, made them choose between something they or their partner wanted, made to feel that what they did was wrong,

tried to break up relationships with others, made to feel like he had to be the center of attention” (p385).

Emotional abuse rarely occurs in isolation; rather, it begins after a pattern of other abusive behaviors has been established. Follingstad et al, (1990) found that there is a close relationship between emotional abuse and the frequency and severity of physical attacks. Verbal threats are forms of intimidation employed to establish control over the victim. Physically abusive husbands in an attempt to control and dominate their spouse use coercive power such as threats of severe physical harm. Non-violent husbands use rational power, appeals to experience, and knowledge to establish their dominance (Follingstad et al., 1990). Marshall (1996) asserts that men could carry on psychologically abusive acts in many ways, from being dominant, helpless, or overly loving.

2.4 Immigration Issues

Women married to military service members are at a higher risk of becoming victims of abuse than their civilian counterparts (Griffin et al., 1988). Predominantly, the victim of domestic violence in the military is the female, civilian spouse of an active duty service member. Unfortunately, sometimes they are immigrants from other countries. As a result of their immigrant status, their spouses further abuse the women who besides facing cultural and language barriers endure physical and psychological abuse, economic dependence, and isolation.

Case Example: #1

I felt like I was in a cage or a prison cell. I didn't have any place to go or anyone to ask for help. He was the ruler and the gatekeeper. He made the rules and I had to obey or face his bad temperament, outbursts of anger, and beatings. He always told me: “If you call

the police, as soon as they get here, I'll let them know that you are illegally in the U.S. and they'll immediately arrest you and you'll be deported.

These women are more vulnerable than other military wives because in many cases, abusers use their sponsoring immigration status (U.S. citizen or lawful permanent resident), to control and silence them about the abuse.

Throughout this research, some abused military dependents needed assistance to adjust their immigrant status. However, knowledge about these issues is not restricted to this research; it has been enriched by my private legal practice in Mexico, where I earned my Law Degree "Licenciado en Derecho" from Universidad Autonoma de Ciudad Juarez, and I am licensed to litigate.

Formal response from the Federal Government to violence against women came in 1990 when Federal legislation was introduced. However, it was not until 1994 that the Violence Against Women Act (VAWA) was finally signed into law (P.L.-103-322). According to the Immigration Provision of VAWA "Abused immigrant spouses and children can qualify for special immigration protection" (Federal Code).

The different branches of the Department of Defense are not exempt from facing immigration issues related to their service members and their dependents. Concerning military dependents, the DOD response to this problem is found in the Family Advocacy Program Commanders' Guide (2006) that states:

Abused immigrant spouses and children can qualify for special immigration protection under the Immigration Provisions of the Violence Against Women Act (VAWA). FAP and legal officers should be aware of the unique issues confronting immigrant victims of domestic abuse and be prepared to offer assistance.

Nonetheless, it does not specify the type and the length of the assistance.

Reauthorization of the Violence Against Women Act (VAWA 2000) was signed into law on October 28, 2000 (P.L.-106-386) “Victims of Trafficking and Violence Protection Act of 2000”. One of the most important additions to the original VAWA was the legislation addressing “Battered Immigrant Women”. It removed the U.S. residency requirements for immigrant women to receive VAWA protection; allowed battered immigrant women to obtain lawful permanent residence without leaving the country; restored VAWA protection for immigrants regardless of how they entered the country; created a new type of visa for victims of serious crimes; allowing some to attain lawful permanent residence (History of Violence Against Women, 10/31/06).

The “Violence Against Women and Department of Justice Reauthorization Act of 2005” (VAWA 2005), mainly includes a continuation of already existing programs with a few improvements and additions (<http://www.usdoj.gov/ovw/regulations.htm>, 2006).

According to the U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics (2007), the rate of violent crime victimization in all segments of the Hispanic community aged 12 and older had a 56% decrease between 1993 and 2000. The largest decreases were among Hispanic women ages from 35 years to 49 years old, divorced or separated with annual household incomes between 15,000 and 24,999 and those who lived in rural areas. During the same time, there was a decline in violent crime rates in other race/ethnic groups, 51% among the black population and 50% among whites.

In relation to offender, the BJS National Crime Victimization Survey (2007) shows that between 1993 and 2000 nine percent of Hispanics victims reported offender was an intimate, 4% stated the offender was a non-intimate relative and 34% said the offender was a friend or an

acquaintance. Compared to 64% of Asians and 46% of whites 52% of the Hispanic victims reported that the offender was a stranger.

Statistics released by the Bureau of Justice Statistics (2007) indicate that in general, the number of intimate victims in each race and gender group declined between 1976 and 2004. In the mid 1980s the number of white females killed by intimates rose, then declined after 1993 reaching the lowest recorded in 2002. After 2002, there was a slight increase. There was a decline in the number of intimate homicides for all other race and gender groups over the period; the number of black males killed by intimates dropped by 82%, black females by 56%, white males by 55%, and white females 5%. In Addition, most intimate homicides involved spouses, although most recently the number of deaths by boyfriends and girlfriends was about the same.

There are some limitations concerning homicides by racial composition of victims and offenders. The statistics published by the U.S. Department of Justice Bureau of Justice Statistics (2007) only mention White, Blacks and Others. Consequently, it is safe to suggest that the term “Others” refers to Hispanics and other minority groups. For a complete look of the statistics, please see Appendices A, B, and C

Additionally, complete and up to date statistics from the Army Central Registry on Spouse Abuse Cases are not available. As mentioned by Rentz, et al., (2006) in Family Violence in the Military, and others: A Review of the Literature “recent statistics are not available for all branches of the Military” (see Table D) that follows.

Table D

Spouse Abuse Reported to the Family Advocacy Program from

Fiscal Years 1998 through 2004

Year	Couples Population	Total		Substantiated	
		Reports	Rate/1000	Reports	Rate/1000
FY 98	743,691	21,650	29.1	14,692	19.8
FY 99	708,228	18,869	26.6	12,043	17.0
FY 00	686,309	19,479	28.4	12,078	17.6
FY 01	664,701	18,398	27.7	10,967	16.5
FY 02	682,656	17,909	26.2	10,546	15.4
FY 03	694,527	17,072	24.6	9,845	14.2
FY 04	698,160	16,392	23.5	9,434	13.5

(Lloyd, 2005)

These data on Spouse Abuse reported to the Family Advocacy Program from Fiscal Years 1998 through 2004 is only of spouse abuse cases reported to the Family Advocacy Program. The “Reports” in it refer to the number of incidents of abuse (physical abuse, sexual abuse, and emotional abuse), and in some instances, more than one report may have been submitted on a single victim, thus allowing the identification of repeated violence in certain families. However, it does not include incidents of spouse abuse reported to commanders or any other military agencies. Therefore, it does not completely reflect the total amount of spouse abuse cases that occurred between military spouses during those fiscal years. Consequently, the data should not be compared to data from other studies (Lloyd, 2005). When incidents of spouse abuse are reported they go through a process which starts with the victim’s report of spouse abuse. The case is reviewed by a Case Review Committee (CRC) that functions under the

supervision of the medical treatment facility commander for that installation. The CRC reviews the circumstances and makes recommendations that are presented to the commander who ultimately decides whether the case is substantiated or unsubstantiated. Consequently, there may be a discrepancy between the victim's experience of abuse and the official statistics.

Substantiated incidents are categorized by the type of maltreatment (major physical injury, minor physical injury, or emotional maltreatment). When a review is complete, case information is recorder at the Army Central Registry (ACR), a confidential computerized data base that records substantiated cases of spouse abuse (Commander's Guide, 2006).

Chapter 3: Methodology and Hypotheses

3.1 Data Collection and Sample

The qualitative research method employed for gathering data concerning spouse abuse in the military is the case study, interviews, and questionnaires, through which I was able to observe and obtain information from victims of spouse abuse. Other data sources included City Police Reports, USDOJ Bureau of Justice Statistics (NCVS), Military Police Reports, DoD Statistics Army Central Registry of spouse abuse cases.

This research started as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Internship in Counseling/Guidance EDPC 6580 M, from the University of Texas at El Paso. During the Internship, my primary responsibility was to research and draft the Standard Operating Procedure (SOP) for the Victim's Advocate Program at the military installation, under the supervision of Family Advocacy Program Coordinator (FAPC). This material was shared with the Shelter for Battered Women and the County Attorney's Office when they were developing their programs. Other responsibilities included answering the crisis line, assisting military families in crisis when they were experiencing family, child, or spouse abuse problems; providing them with information and/or making referrals to military and civilian resources. I was also co-facilitator for women's support-groups, and when needed, made home visits as part of the Social Work Services (SWS) team. Additionally, I was a translator of legal documents and interpreter. Upon completion of the Internship, I independently continued with the research.

The sample for this study is 16 cases of self-identified victims of spouse abuse who lived in the region where the military post was located. The informants were dependent wives of an active-duty military member or a retired military member from the U. S. Army. A potential informant was able to participate if she reported that she had been abused either physically or

emotionally /psychologically at least two times by the same man with whom she had an intimate or marital relationship during the last 12 months.

As a volunteer for a family program at a military post in the Southwest, as well as a volunteer at other shelters & programs in the community, I met several victims of spouse abuse. From informal interviews and conversations learned about their individual life histories and histories of abuse; some of these women became informants and invited other women who had been or were being abused, to become informants too.

Spouse abuse carries a stigma that most women try to avoid. Because of the unique characteristics of this population the snowball, sampling technique was the right tool in locating respondents. The initial participants were crucial in creating a powerful network of self-identified victims of spouse abuse within the military community.

The data (anonymous surveys, basic information, victim's life history, history of abuse, and strategies used to cope with abusive behavior) collected over the last 20 years, from 1986 to 2006. The survey questionnaire employed was divided in two sections. Section A relates to the demographic aspects of this study and Section B covers support services within the military. The informal approach was adopted. At short informal gatherings (1 to 1.5 hours), most of the time at a place and time chosen by the informant(s), initial interviews took place. During the initial interview, each participant provided basic information about herself. After the initial interview, each informant was invited to participate in a series of sessions to monitor her progress. The subsequent interviews lasted approximately three hours.

As a participant observer, (co-facilitator/volunteer victim advocate) this provided me with primary data, and first hand contact for an extended period with military personnel and their dependents. It also gave me the opportunity to become familiar with the military organization, its

policies and procedures as well as the relations of military personnel with the civilian institutions.

Initial contact was left to the potential participant and most of the time, it was a telephone call, during which basic information was obtained and arrangements for a first face-to-face interview were made. If for major reasons, a personal interview was not possible, then the initial interview took place over the telephone. However, emphasis was made on the importance of a personal interview. The subsequent meetings were personal, unless the informant had to move out of town.

Depending upon the informant's living conditions, there were between three and twelve subsequent meetings within a three-month period following the initial interview. During these series of sessions, each informant answered questions about her life history, history of abuse, and the different ways the informant(s) had used to cope with the abusive behavior. Other common issues, problems, and alternatives for improving the situation, as well as legal options were discussed.

Whenever possible, support-groups were formed with two or three participants. The participation of the author at each support-group meeting was that of a facilitator. At these meetings, the researcher encouraged each participant to freely express her ideas and to provide as much information as possible, even if she considered it irrelevant. This freedom of expression allowed me to obtain unexpected significant information. At each session, the participants were aware that the researcher took notes for further analysis and that individual progress was documented.

Additionally, at the closing of each interview, informants were encouraged to talk to other women who had been or were being victims of spouse abuse hoping they would agree to

participate as informants. At this time, each participant also received a written card providing information and important telephone numbers for reporting spouse abuse (off-post: National Domestic Violence Hotline, City Police Dept., Shelter for Battered Women; on-post: Military Police, Crisis line, Ambulance, and Emergency Room), and instructions on how to contact the researcher and telephone number.

Because of duty assignments of the military personnel and the constant mobility of their dependents, in some cases, it was hard to do a follow-up. However, extended contact continued with some of the participants with either face-to-face meetings, or telephone interviews, and most recently through the Internet, every three or five months. A few other contacts continued for three years or more. This extended contact of the participants with the researcher, gave way to an amiable relationship, and up to the present, there are some former participants that call from time to time to let the author know how they are doing now and their plans for new horizons.

The individuals interviewed came from different backgrounds, race/ethnic groups, and socioeconomic status. The average age of the participants was 26.5 (range 19-45). The education level ranked from some High School, High School graduate, some College, College graduate, to Graduate Degree. The race/ethnicity groups of the women in this study were White Anglo, American Indian, African-American, Hispanic, Mexican American, and Asian. The participants were married to active-duty enlisted personnel, active-duty officers and retired military. Most participants admitted that group sessions were beneficial to them because listening to the stories of other women made it easier for them to participate and openly talk about their fears and concerns. Additionally, participating in joint discussions helped them make new friends and/or to

strengthen the relationship they had with the other women or the women they invited to join the group.

3.2 Revised Conflict Tactics Scale

For this study, the Conflict Tactics Scale was used to determine if the women had been victims of abuse and the type of abuse they suffered.

The measurement tool used for violent incidents was the slightly modified version of the Revised Conflict Tactics Scale or CTS2. The CTS2 is a recent revision of the Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS) that has been used extensively in research studies of spouse abuse for the last 15 years (Gelles & Straus, 1988; Schafer, 1996; Straus, Hamby, Boney-McCoy & Sugarman, 1996).

Eight CTS2 items were used in this research to measure moderate and severe domestic violence. Moderate domestic violence included: a) Threw something; b) Pushed, grabbed, or shoved; c) Slapped; d) Kicked, bit, or hit with a fist. Severe domestic violence included: a) Beat up; b) Choked; c) Threatened with a knife or gun; or d) Used a knife or gun. This study also used the complete psychological aggression (preliminary alpha= .97) and physical assault (preliminary alpha= .86) subscales of the CTS2 to make sure that complete and orderly information is given on physical assault. Domestic violence prevalence was measured as the percent of the couples that have experienced each type of violence (physical abuse, verbal abuse, and emotional/psychological abuse) in the last 12 months.

3.3 Questionnaire

The survey questionnaire employed in this study was divided in two sections. Section A relates to the demographic profile of the participants in this study which includes age (self), age (spouse); the race/ethnicity of both spouses (White Anglo, American Indian, African American, Hispanic, Mexican-American or Asian). The marital status of the participants was married. Also

included were the characteristics of the relationship such as length of marriage, number of children, and education level of the couple (some High School, High School graduate, some College, College graduate, Graduate Degree). Section B covers support services within the military. Other variables measured were Institutional Response (barred from re-enlisting, discharge, etc.) was utilized, including Effects for Filing for Divorce on the Victim and the Children e.g., medical assistance, dental assistance, Post Exchange and Commissary benefits. Additionally, to measure women's beliefs and coping skills, Victims' Reasons for not Using Support Services within the Military, and types and Extent of Services Used were included. Simple percentage measures were employed for these variables. To better identify the informants, the previous information was collected. For a complete look of the questionnaire items, please refer to Appendix G.

3.4 Bias of Methodology

Snowball sampling is a nonprobability method. It relies on referrals from initial participants to generate additional participants; thus, reducing the likelihood that the sample will represent a good cross section of the population. The findings are difficult to generalize from one group to another. The presence of the researcher can influence the results.

3.5 Hypotheses

Recently the murders of military wives by their spouses have caught the media's attention. Because of these incidents, many questions have been raised about the prevalence of domestic violence in the military, the victim's safety and protection, and the effectiveness of the services offered to military personnel and their dependents to prevent and reduce domestic violence.

For the present study, this research attempts to describe how military wives who experience abuse deal with their situation and if the Family Assistance Program is effective in supporting victims and dealing with abusers.

The following hypotheses will be tested in this study:

- H 1: Support services for military personnel and their families are insufficient.
- H 2: Victims of abuse are reluctant to use services within the military community in fear of loosing their right of confidentiality.
- H 3: Military wives are at a higher risk of becoming victims of domestic violence because they often live far from family and friends.

Chapter 4: Theoretical Approach

The following theories: social learning theory, masculinity theory, intersectional approach, exchange theory, and subculture of violence will be used to support the hypotheses formulated and explain the findings of the analysis.

Domestic violence is a form of self-expression, for some men, of the male need to maintain power and control. Despite the fact that violence and love are not correlated, sometimes people misinterpret violence as love. Moreover, archaic masculine traditions deeply embedded in culture have promoted the inequality of sex roles. By the same token, taking advantage of the status quo, male socialization has tended to legitimize spousal violence denying access to the legal system and police protection to the victims of abuse. Not until society overcomes these misinterpretations and traditions will spouse abuse cease.

4.1 Social Learning Theory

Social learning theory or differential association theory states that deviance is learned behavior. Individuals learn to deviate or to conform to society's norms through the groups with which they associate (Sutherland 1924, 1947; Sutherland et al. 1992). Furthermore, humans tend to imitate and repeat learned behavior if it is accepted and tolerated.

According to Akers (1994), there are four main components of Social Learning Theory: 1) differential association, 2) definitions, 3) differential reinforcement, and 4) imitation.

Differential association refers to the ratio of exposure of an individual to deviance and non-deviance. Those associations, which occur first (priority), last longer (duration), occur more frequently (frequency), and involve others with whom the individual has the more important or closer relationship (intensity), will have the greater effect (Akers, 1994). Definitions refer to the individual's personal attitude or meaning toward a specific behavior, thus, including orientation,

rationalization, definitions of situations, and other modes of evaluation and moral attitude that define the commission of an act as right or wrong (Akers, 1994). Differential reinforcement refers to the anticipated or actual reward in the form of positive or negative sanctions, and the probability of repetition of an act increases or decreases according to the rewarding outcome (Akers, 1994). If the behavior is negatively reinforced, the individual will be less inclined to repeat it. In contrast, if the behavior is positively rewarded, the more likely it will be repeated. Imitation refers to the replication of behavior after the observation of similar behavior in significant others (Akers, 1994).

As afore mentioned, humans learn through observation and imitation. These four principles apply to intimate violence. In Gelles' (1997) words, violence cannot be prevented as long as some individuals and social institutions advocate it. However, in some instances our society suffers myopia concerning certain institutions; such is the case of the militia that as a total institution advocates violence. The focus of military training is to prepare soldiers for violence and that "killing people and breaking things" is a necessary condition (Grossman, 1995).

Extensive research among the civilian population has been done trying to determine the factors associated with potential risk to family violence and determining what groups of people are more prone to deviance than others.

Despite the numerous media reports of domestic violence in the military, there is a limited amount of information concerning domestic violence in military families. Recent studies on domestic violence in the military disclosed that much of the abuse of spouses in the military goes unreported. Often "military spouses are less likely to report (officially or in surveys) domestic violence than their civilian counterparts fearing even more violent attacks or that

revealing abuse could imperil the service member's career and the family's finances" (Caliber Associates, 1996a; West, Turner, & Dunwoody, 1981). Spouse abuse also goes unreported mainly because domestic violence has been long ignored because of its private nature, and it has been seen as "normal" within the military subculture (Williams & McShane, 1994). Some service members may learn that domestic violence is O.K. because it is not punished by their superiors, thus encouraging them to repeat the behavior.

4.2 Masculinity Theory

"Manhood is and has been constructed within the matrices of race, class, and sexual orientation" (Connell, R. W., 2005). In this dynamic world, men are changing and the perspective of masculinity has been redefined. Traditionally, men achieved masculinity in physical ways and it was defined that a male should be strong, non-emotional, quiet, sexually aggressive, dominant, and the breadwinner; "fights to protect family and stands up for beliefs" (Kimmel, S. Michael, 1987). However, because of the shifting of social and intellectual contexts, in contemporary society the "modern forms of achievement of masculinity are based primarily in the work world, which requires increasing interpersonal and intellectual skills" (Kimmel, 1987), such as being competitive and aggressive. At the same time, men display more familial-related traits by being warm and gentle with their family members.

Gender as a social construction carries images and expectations about how men should act. It guides men's behavior and is the basis of power and privilege (Kimmel, 2006). In some cultures, masculinity may be an indicator of social status, wealth, race or social class. In western culture, greater masculinity gives males a higher social status among their peers. Mistakenly, these inherited archetypal images of masculinity legitimate men's use of violence and authority to control and dominate others including women in their personal relationships. Godenzi (1999)

argues that “men’s violence is not an individual pathology but a logical consequence of men’s collective privilege,” the outcome of inequality.

According to Connell (2005), masculinities are diverse and change historically, men are not permanently committed to a particular pattern of masculinity; they make specific situational choices from a cultural repertoire of masculine behavior. This form of self-identification is learned throughout time within the cultural settings of each society and their institutions. In today’s world, global market relations, migration, and ethnic cultural conflict have linked the making of masculinity with the construction of racial and ethnic hierarchies resulting in masculinities oriented to domination and violence using the white male referent (Connell, 2005), which threatens diversity tolerance and heightens uncertainty about one’s place in the gender order.

Masculinity in a particular milieu such as the military, with traditional roots, where violence and the warrior traditions (gun violence, violent reaction in situations of conflict, beating of opponents and assassinations) are particularly important and revered, and women are a minority, enjoys a strong traditional definition. Men adhere to these distorted images of masculinity in order to live up to the dominant definition of masculinity within the subculture. According to statistics, Men’s propensity to resort to violence is higher among men who have received military training than the general population. In their study, Cazenave and Leon (1979) found that racial minorities adopt gender ideologies consistent with their motivation and strategies for upward mobility. However, regardless of the culture, most men feel pressured to act masculine. Standards of masculinity not only create stress for some men but also inhibit their ability to relieve stress. Military service is one of the most “masculine” occupations (Lutz, 2000) that has a great impact on the lives and behavior of its members.

As a minority group women in the military have limited opportunities for advancement, and in most cases men are given higher-level positions, more desirable work assignments, and higher salaries. This mistaken belief of inequality perpetuates the idea that men have to be aggressive and dominant to be masculine.

4.3 Intersectional approach

An alternative approach to gender based theory is the intersectional approach. It “recognizes that systems of power such as race, class, and gender, do not act alone to shape our experiences, but rather, are multiplicative, inextricably linked and simultaneously experienced,” furthermore,

[how class, gender and race (and age and sexuality) construct the normal and deviant . . . how these inequalities put some societal members at risk to be rendered deviant or to engage in law-breaking, and . . . how law and state institutions both challenge and reproduce these inequalities (Burgess, 2006)].

By using the intersectional approach, several theories have been developed to explain the relationship between inequality and crime. According to Richie (1996), intersecting systems of race, class, and gender can lead battered Black women to commit criminal offenses. She uses “gender entrapment” in her analysis to explain how “some women are forced or coerced into crime by their culturally expected gender roles, the violence in their intimate relationships, and their social position in the broader society” (Burgess, 2006). Sokoloff and Dupont (2006), proposed the use of an intersectional framework to develop domestic violence theories. They suggest exploring more in depth the couple’s culture in order to understand the roots of violence.

4.4 Exchange Theory

Peter Blau's theory (1964) of social exchange explains how this basic form of social interaction affects everyday life.

“When people do something for each other with the express purpose of receiving a reward or return, they are involved in an exchange interaction” (Tischler, 2002).

This mutual interchange of favors and privileges need not always be material; it can also be emotional, or based on the power symmetry within the relationship. When one partner fails to meet the expected response of the other, tension is sure to follow (Cardarelli, 1997).

Additionally, “human interaction is guided by the pursuit of rewards and the avoidance of punishment and costs” (Gelles, 1979), people engage in reciprocal activities and behaviors aimed at achieving specific goals or rewards, if there is no reciprocity the interaction will be interrupted.

According to Blau (1964), people establish expectations about the rewards they will receive for their actions even though the value of the same act or service may have more or less value depending on the persons perceived needs. In a relationship, when one person does not get what he or she wants or expects, this causes tension, the cost becomes excessive. He or she can resolve the conflict, by peaceful means or through violence or emotional abuse.

In intimate relationships, lovers tend to operate under the principles of exchange: setting goals, incurring costs, and constantly assessing profits. Gelles (1983) found that the greater the disparity between perceived investments and perceived returns, the greater the likelihood of violence, since reciprocity is the key factor. This concept of give-and-take, keeps a balance between two people in a relationship. However, when reciprocity is insufficient in a relationship it can lead to increased anger, resentment, conflict, and violence (Gelles, 1979).

Men and women make different investments in common-law and legal marriages. On the surface, both relationships appear to be similar, because both contain affection, commitment, and interdependence. Nevertheless, the difference lies in the reasons for and degree of interdependence and commitment. In an intimate relationship, partners can be economically, socially, and/or psychologically dependent on each other. Even though, the power structure of society is unequal. Typically, wives are more economically dependent on husbands, than females involved in common-law relationships

4.5 Subculture of Violence

Within a culture there are subcultures “A subculture is a group that is part of the dominant culture but differs from it in some important respects” (Shepard, 2002), such as homogeneity, autonomy, values and norms that members share and give them a sense of identity. However, most subcultures are compatible with the values of the dominant or main stream culture” (Henslin, 2006).

According to research, after examining the patterns of violence in the United States, certain minority groups are more at risk for violence. In their study on homicide, Wolfgang and Ferracuti (1967) found that differences on the incidence of homicide could be explained by regional and ethnic differences. Furthermore, Siegel (1983; Dobash & Dobash, 1979) found that legitimization of violence in some cultures takes place through the group’s customs and norms. Some cultural influences include lifestyles, the socialization process, and interpersonal relationships. In some cultures, for example, male dominance is not only acceptable it is encouraged.

According to Ferracuti and Wolfgang (1967) violence is a learned form of adaptation to certain problematic circumstances in life. Additionally, learning to be violent takes place within

the context of a sub-cultural milieu, which emphasizes the advantages of violence over other forms of adaptation (Schmallager, 1996). Moreover, human behavior is a product of socialization. All behavior is learned.

In all societies, there is a dominant culture. The dominant culture provides the guidelines for daily community life. Within this larger culture, subcultures coexist, a set of values and preferences, which are transmitted to their members through a socialization process (Schmallager, 1996). These subcultures do not defy the values of the dominant culture, but rather reinterpret those values imprinting on them their sui generis concept, which may differ from the dominant culture.

The militia is the product of socially constructed institutions. Its members train and work in an environment that values bravery and legitimates the use of violence. As a subculture, the military, from recruitment to retirement with a unique lifestyle (e.g., dangerous work, long work hours, uncertain lengths of deployment, a negative attitude toward women, etc.) influences the lives and behavior of all its members (Allen, 2000). Once the recruit enters Basic Combat Training (BCT) the transformation begins. His life becomes the result of training, working, and living within the subculture. Hypothetically, military training and/or combat experience are some of the factors that condition individuals to react with violence that results in poor family relations. Additionally, in some cases the influence of socioeconomic factors further promotes a subculture of violence. Durkheim (1938) stated that culture exerts a strong coercive effect on the individual. Because of the socialization process, individuals conform to the kind of thought and conduct that the culture requires. The bureaucratic nature of the military imposes on its members rigid guidelines to follow. Moreover, Wolfgang and Ferracuti found that the “transmission of

sub-cultural values involves a process by which individuals learn to accept violence as a reasonable model of behavior for solving problems.”

4.6 Race and Ethnic Studies

Some of the research on the effects of race and ethnicity on the rate of intimate partner homicide has focused on the differences between Blacks and Whites (Newby et al., 2000; Puzone et al., 2000). While other research includes Hispanics, Whites, and Blacks (Gauthier & Bankston, 2004; Rodriguez & Henderson, 1995). Nonetheless, there is a significant lack of information on other races and ethnic groups in order to be able to substantiate if race/ethnicity plays a major role on the levels of intimate partner violence. According to research some differences in abuse patterns between Hispanics and Anglo Americans include: the increase of abuse in U.S. born Hispanics is attributed to conflicting cultures, the dominant American culture and their native culture (Sorenson & Telles, 1991). Hispanic women are more tolerant of abuse than Anglo women (Torres, 1996). Phyllis W. Sharp’s investigation on the relationship between reported abuse, depressive symptoms, and self esteem among expectant active duty and dependent military women disclosed, that “abuse victims were typically Hispanic, young, and often single; that the perpetrator was more likely to be enlisted” (2000, as mentioned in *Battle Cries on the Home Front*).

Hampton asserts that family violence in Black families needs to be fully understood (Hampton, 1991; Hampton & Gelles, 1994). The limited number of comparative research studies on the occurrence or causes of spousal violence between Blacks and Whites make it hard to define race/ethnicity differences of abuse (Newby et al., 2000). According to Lockhart (1987), the violent problem-solving methods employed by black marital partners are closely related to sub-cultural norms and developmental experiences and not race differences between blacks and

whites. Moreover, the scant research and literature on “minorities” interprets the term as synonymous with African-American. This misinterpretation eliminates other minority groups as well as valuable research on culturally specific differences in spouse abuse incidents.

According to Gauthier and Bankston, (2004) in Hispanic culture women are removed from a powerful position that in turn reduces the probability of resorting to violence. In their study, Rodriguez and Henderson (1995) found significant interaction results in race, age, and the type of relationship. They found that White married females were more likely to kill their spouses than Blacks and Hispanics. For dating and cohabiting couples, Black females were more likely than White or Hispanic females to kill their partners and that Hispanic females had lower rates of intimate partner homicide offending than Blacks and Whites. Because the current studies are minimal more research studies, need to be done.

Chapter 5: Family Support Services in the Military

5.1 Historical Perspectives

After several years of being in oblivion, the old and hidden problem of family violence in the military is beginning to emerge. In The United States Department of Defense, “family violence in general was not officially acknowledged or addressed, and official records of spouse abuse cases were not available to the public” (Neidig, Thompson, 1994). Moreover, Mercier et al., 2000, in his empirical research found that family violence was considered to be a “private” matter, or undeserving of intervention.

However, the scant research that exists on family violence shows that spousal abuse in military couples is higher than the civilian rate (Cronin, 1995). While self-report studies on spousal abuse in the Army and the Air Force found that “in the Army 228 per 1000 active duty males and 311 per 1000 active duty females reported committing moderate or severe aggressive acts on their spouses in the past year” (Graves and Moriarty, 2000). In contrast, “the rate of officially reported partner violence during this period was around 18 per 1000 active duty members” (Caliber Associates, 1996a). “The Air Force study showed that 132 per 1000 active duty males and 205 per 1000 active duty females reported perpetrating moderate to severe violence in the last year, compared to an official report rate of 8.7 per 1000” (Caliber Associates, 1996a, 1996b). “These two studies confirm that there is a significant lack of reporting domestic violence” (Graves & Moriarty, 2000). For both the Air Force and the Army; physical violence was the most frequent form of substantiated spouse abuse in the military families (Rentz et al. / Family Violence in the Military) The researchers examined six years of data (1989-1995) from the U.S. Army Medical Command central registry.

Increased public awareness and research on spouse abuse pressured legislators to address the issue seriously and decree new and stronger laws against offenders. In 1980, President Ronald Reagan established The U.S. Attorney General's Task Force on Family Violence. After four years of research on its final report rendered in 1984 recognized domestic violence as a punishable criminal act deserving to be treated as such by the criminal justice system and encouraged "mandatory" arrest policy.

In 1994 the Department of Defense at Congress' request, conducted a study of family members abuse and its consequences, identified ways to reduce victim disincentives to reporting abuse, and recommended actions that could be taken to eliminate these disincentives. As a result, Congress established The Transitional Compensation Program for abused family members of military personnel (Family Advocacy, 2006).

The Transitional Compensation Program is a program authorized by Congress in 1994 as part of the fiscal Department of Defense Authorization Act (PL 103-160). It was created to encourage victims to report abuse without fear of economic reprisal. It allows the Armed Forces to provide temporary monetary payments and limited military benefits to children and adult spouses who:

- Are victims of reported family violence from an active duty sponsor, and
- The active duty sponsor is to be/has been discharged administratively or by court martial from the Armed Forces due to domestic violence.

Benefit entitlement starts the date the court martial sentence is approved or the date the administrative separation is initiated. Payments are for a minimum of 12 months or until the soldier's ETS date, whichever period is longer, but may not exceed a maximum of 36 months.

Transitional Compensation (TC) is centrally funded and managed at Department of the Army level” (Family Advocacy, 2006).

5.2 The Defense Task Force on Domestic Violence

The National Defense Authorization Act for fiscal year 2000, Section 591, Public Law 106-65, established the Defense Task Force on Domestic Violence. The Task Force consists of 24 members appointed by the Secretary of Defense. Twelve of the members are senior military and civilian personnel from the Department of Defense and the other twelve are experts on the area under discussion from the private sector, Department of Justice and the Department of Health and Human Services (Defense Task Force on Domestic Violence, 2006).

5.3 Final Report and Recommendations

In March 2003, The Defense Task Force on Domestic Violence submitted its final report, after three years of investigating the domestic violence policies of the Department of Defense. The Task Force recommended changes to the core principles of the current DOD Family Advocacy Program:

Culture Shift: The DOD should create a military culture that does not tolerate domestic violence, holds offenders accountable for their actions and punishes criminal behavior.

Focus on prevention and early intervention of domestic violence.

The DOD should make policies, practices, and programs more consistent and effective in providing victim safety, nondisclosure, encourage voluntary reporting of abuse and ensure confidentiality whenever possible.

Strong Victim Advocate Program: giving victim advocates sufficient support, stature, autonomy, access to commanding officers and authority to intervene in crises and provide case management and safety planning.

Domestic Violence Intervention Process Model: implement a domestic violence intervention process model to serve as a guideline for responding to incidents of domestic violence, with specific protocols for victim advocates, commanding officers, law enforcement personnel and offender intervention.

Improve reporting, coordination, and communication between DOD and the civilian community (Defense Task Force on Domestic Violence, 2006).

The Defense Task Force on Domestic Violence was established after the rate of incidents of domestic violence in the military rose from 18.6 to 25.6 per 1000 military personnel between 1990 and 1996” (Butterfield, Fox, 2002). “Since 1988, the number of domestic violence cases reported to the Department of Defense has increased, even though the military population has declined each year” (Fast track updates, 1995).

The abuse of spouses in the military goes unreported mainly because domestic violence has been long ignored because of its private nature it has been seen as “normal” within the military subculture (Williams and McShane, 2000). Additionally, some of the services provided within the military community do not enjoy the right of "confidentiality" under military law. The lack of formal prosecution by military officials (Richter, 1997; Knight, 1997; Williams & McShane, 2000) is another factor that discourages victims from reporting abuse, as well as some inconsistencies in reporting practices (Straus & Gelles, 1990, Caliber Associates, 1996b; Newby, et al., 2000).

5.4 Military Protection Orders (MPO)

Like the Civilian Justice System, the United States Military Justice System has military protective orders. In accordance with the Privacy Act of 1974 (Public Law 93-579); Code of Federal Regulations (CFR) 635.28 subpart (C) A military Protection Order is a written lawful order issued by a commander that orders a soldier to avoid contact with his or her spouse or children. Violations of a military Protection Order must be reported on DA Form 3975, entered into COPS, and entered into NCIC. Violations of a military Protective Order may be violations of Article 92, UCMJ. The commander should provide a written copy of the order within 24 hours of its issuance to the person with whom the member is ordered not to have contact. A copy should be forwarded to the installation Family Advocacy Program Manager (FAPM), the Chief, Social Work Service, and the installation military police.

A Military Protection Order (MPO) is similar to a Civilian Protection Order (CPO). However, unlike the Civilian Justice System where it is mandatory that a judge or magistrate grant a protective order, in the military, an MPO is issued by a commissioned officer to an active duty service member under his/her command, to protect a victim of domestic abuse or child abuse, and to regulate the behavior of the abusive service member. “A victim advocate, installation law enforcement agency, or FAP clinician may request a commander to issue an MPO”. Commanders should issue an MPO even if a CPO has already been issued by a judge, magistrate or other authorized civilian official” (Family Advocacy Program Commanders’ Guide, 2006).

In addition to other limitations, “an MPO may order the service member to surrender his/her government weapons custody card at the time of issuance of the order (see Appendix No. Lautenberg Amendment Information). The commander should ensure that the MPO is issued in

writing and copies are provided to the victim, the service member, Family Advocacy Program (FAP), the Provost Marshall/Security Officer, the Staff Judge Advocate (SJA), and the installation medical treatment facility” (Family Advocacy Program Commanders’ Guide, 2006).

“An MPO is only enforceable while the service member is attached to the command that issued the order. When the service member is transferred to a new command, the order will no longer be valid” (FAP Commanders’ Guide, 2006). If the problem persists the new command must issue a new MPO. Military Protective Orders cannot be enforced by a civil court or civil law enforcement agents. “Violation of an MPO constitutes a UCMJ violation under Article 90, Assaulting or Willfully Disobeying Superior Commissioned Officer or Article 92, Failure to Obey Order or Regulation (Family Advocacy Program Commanders’ Guide, 2006).

5.5 Armed Forces Domestic Security Act

On November 10, 2003, the Department of Defense issued a policy memorandum implementing Public Law 107-311, the Armed Forces Domestic Security Act (codified at 10 U.S.C. 1561a). It states: “a civilian order of protection (CPO) shall have the same force and effect on a military installation as such order has within the jurisdiction of the court that issued such orders”. It provided guidance for Commanders and law enforcement personnel; procedures for registering a civilian order of protection on a DOD installation, and directed the Services to issue regulations on compliance and sanctions (Family Advocacy Program Commanders’ Guide, 2006).

5.6 Domestic Violence Awareness Month – October

On October 1, 2004, The Department of Defense issued a memorandum of Zero tolerance to domestic violence “domestic violence in our military communities will not be tolerated by the Department of Defense. It is criminal, it harms individuals, it ruins families, it weakens

communities, it undermines military readiness, and it is an affront to the institutional values of the Armed Forces of the United States of America. I call upon commanders at every level to continue their efforts to prevent domestic violence, inform military personnel and their families of available resources, investigate incidents of domestic violence, and devote their attention to matters of victim safety and appropriate offender accountability” (Family Advocacy Policy and Procedures Manuals, 2004).

5.7 Protocols for Law Enforcement and Command Responses to Domestic Violence Involving Military Members on Active Duty

On October 22, 2004, the Department of Defense issued a policy memorandum, providing guidelines to establish law enforcement and command responses to domestic violence incidents involving a service member as either the abuser or the victim. “Each Military Service shall establish Service-specific guidance based upon the protocols to help reduce the incidence and severity of domestic violence through prompt and effective law enforcement investigation and command action” (FAP Commanders’ Guide, 2006). This was done in an effort to unify the criteria (Please see Appendix A, Sample Protocol for Law Enforcement Response to Domestic Violence, and Appendix B, Sample Protocol for Commanding Officer Response to Domestic Violence).

In the Department of Defense, eligibility is limited to those who are active duty military members and their dependents.

5.8 Military Installations

There are about 300 military installations worldwide, 82 Army posts, 86 Navy bases, 97 Air Force bases, and 19 Marine installations. Moreover, there is a great difference in the style and organizational culture among the four branches of the Department of Defense: Air Force,

Army, Navy and Marines. While some military aspects, laws, regulations and practices are standardized across all the military branches, others are specific to one or two branches.

5.9 Family Advocacy Program in the Military

In 1981, by Department of Defense Directive 6400.1 each branch of the military service (Army, Navy, Air Force and Marine Corps) was required to establish:

- a. A Family Advocacy Program to prevent and treat child maltreatment and spouse abuse and to report all incidents of that nature; and
- b. A confidential central registry to collect and analyze Family Advocacy Program data (Department of Defense, 1981).

“The Family Advocacy Program (FAP) is a command support program with responsibility for addressing family violence in military families, through prevention efforts, early identification and intervention, support for victims, and treatment for abusers” (FAP Commanders’ Guide, 2006). In the United States Army, the Family Advocacy Program was established in response to the increasing number of child and spousal abuse incidents in the military.

The DOD requires everyone to report all suspected cases of domestic violence to FAP. When a report is received arrangements are made by FAP to meet with the active duty member and the victim(s) separately to conduct a clinical assessment. At the same time FAP reports abuse incident to appropriate law enforcement agency. Then a Case Review Committee (CRC) reviews every case to determine if abuse occurred and develops recommendations for command (FAP Commanders’ Guide, 2006). Then the commander decides if the case was substantiated. The Family Advocacy Program support services to victims depends on what is available at an installation, which could be crisis intervention, referrals to shelters, victim advocacy counseling,

and support groups. Commanders are the key to the success of FAP intervention with military families.

5.10 The Army Program

The Army's program was conceived primarily as a medical program; however, the approach was broadened to cover social aspects. The original directive (AR 600-48), issued on November 26, 1975, made the Deputy Chief of Staff for Personnel directly responsible for program implementation. Under the directive, a child was defined broadly as a dependent younger than 18 years (Blanchard, 1992 as cited in Mercier 2000).

The program was subsequently placed under the auspices of the Army Community Services (ACS) program in October 1978. At the headquarters level, the Surgeon General was required to support the program in providing health services, establishing a system for collecting data on cases of maltreatment, and supervising the medical and psychosocial aspects of identifying, preventing, and treating abuse. Ultimately, the Army's program was expanded to include spouse battering in accordance with Army Regulations 608-18.

ACS is responsible for managing the Army's Family Advocacy Program. Medical treatment personnel, Army lawyers, military police, chaplains, and other Army staff personnel work with local Child Protective Service agencies to ensure that Army families receive help. The program identifies, reports, treats, prevents, and follows the progress of abuse incidents (Blanchard, 1992; Mercier, 1996).

The services that are offered include domestic violence prevention and awareness, child abuse prevention and awareness, protective orders, transportation, safety planning, relocation,

emergency shelter, access to medical care, community resources, know your RIGHTS, liaison (courts/military system), victim compensation (FAP Commanders' Guide, 2006).

Victim Advocate services include, but are not limited to: crisis intervention, emergency shelter, safety planning, orders of protection (civilian and military), liaison between victim and unit, information and referral, court accompaniment, transportation, referral to outside agencies, Texas Crime Victims Compensation and Transitional Compensation (Family advocacy Program, 2006).

The Family Advocacy Program (FAP, 2006) Commander's Guide definition for Domestic Abuse is:

- Domestic violence or
- A pattern of behavior resulting in emotional/psychological abuse, economic control, and/or interference with personal liberty when such violence or abuse is directed toward a person of the opposite sex who is:

- A current or former spouse;
- A person with whom the abuser shares a child in common;
- A current or former intimate partner with whom the abuser shares or has shared a common domicile.

Domestic violence is an offense under the United States Code or the Uniform Code of Military Justice that involves the use, attempted use, or threatened use of force or violence against a person of the opposite sex, or a violation of a lawful order issued for the protection of a person of the opposite sex, who is:

- A current or former spouse
- A person with whom the abuser shares a child in common; or

- A current or former intimate partner with whom the abuser shares or has shared a common domicile.

The **sanctions** imposed on active duty service members who commit acts of domestic violence range from non-judicial punishment to criminal sanctions resulting in imprisonment.

In the Army, spouse assault offenses committed by members of the Armed Forces generally fall under the following articles of the UCMJ:

- (5) Article 128 – Assault
- (6) Article 124 – Maiming
- (7) Article 133 – Conduct Unbecoming an Officer
- (8) Article 134 – General Article (aggravated assault; disorderly conduct; communicating a threat; or violation of state law which may be assimilated under 18 USC 13).

928 Art. 128. Assault

(a) Any person subject to this chapter, who attempts or offers with unlawful force or violence to do bodily harm to another person, whether or not the attempt or offer is consummated, is guilty of assault and shall be punished as a court-martial may direct.

(b) Any person subject to this chapter who –

- (1) commits an assault with a dangerous weapon or other means of force likely to produce death or grievous bodily harm; or
- (2) commits an assault and intentionally inflicts grievous bodily harm with or without a weapon;

is guilty of aggravated assault and shall be punished as a court martial may direct.

(Aug. 10, 1956, c. 1041, 70A Stat. 75).

924 Art.124. Maiming

Any person subject to this chapter who, with the intent to injure, disfigure, or disable, inflicts upon the person of another an injury which-

- (1) seriously disfigures his person by any mutilation thereof;
- (2) destroys or disables any member or organ of his body; or
- (3) seriously diminished his physical vigor by the injury of any member or organ;

is guilty of maiming and shall be punished as a court-martial may direct.

(Aug. 10, 1956, c. 1041, 70A Stat. 74.)

Art.133. Conduct unbecoming an officer and a gentleman

Any commissioned officer, cadet, or midshipman who is convicted of conduct unbecoming an officer and a gentleman shall be punished as a court-martial may direct.

(Aug. 10, 1956, c. 1041, 70A Stat. 76.)

934 Art. 134. General article

Though not specifically mentioned in this chapter, all disorders and neglects to the prejudice of good order and discipline in the armed forces, all conduct of a nature to bring discredit upon the armed forces, and crimes and offenses not capital, of which persons subject to this chapter may be guilty, shall be taken cognizance of by a general, special, or summary court-martial, according to the nature and degree of the offense, and shall be punished at the discretion of that court.

(Aug. 10, 1956, c. 1041, 70A Stat. 76.).

Chapter 6: Data, Data Analysis and Findings

This chapter presents and analyzes two kinds of data: (1) Informal interview data, and (2) Questionnaire data.

6.1 Data and Data Analysis

To properly address the seriousness of the problem and gain insight of the painful experiences of women who were subjected to spousal abuse by their husbands who either were active military members, or retired military, a few selected stories will be narrated. Because of the qualitative nature of this study, logical inferences need to be made to show the cause-effect relationship among variables. Quantitative measures will be minimally utilized to test the hypotheses.

Ideally, marriage is a binding bond of love between a man and a woman that binds them together for the rest of their natural lives, “. . . ’til death do us part”. Nevertheless, in many marriages this bond of love turns out to be a bond of terror, where women are trapped in a hideous cycle of abuse, violence, and fear.

Case Example: #2

He has been verbally and emotionally abusive from the beginning of our marriage, or probably before, but I didn't recognize it as abuse. He would get upset over the silliest thing. His rage and violence seemed uncontrollable and soon the beatings started.

Beatings, death threats, withholding the money from me as well as the military ID, and threats of taking the children away went on for many years.

Whenever we visited family or friends, I had to be very careful about what I said. I was always checking to make sure that what I said did not inconvenience him. I remember one Thanksgiving Day we spent with some friends, he was so furious about something I

said that when we got home, as we entered the house, he slammed me against the wall and pinned me to it with such a ferocious grip around my neck that my feet were dangling above the floor. The impact was so hard that I fainted; I don't know what happened afterward.

A few days after the incident, one of my sisters who lived in a nearby town and was suspicious about my bruises, took me to a private clinic and there we learned that, because of the beating, the fifth vertebrae from my spinal cord at the neck level had been fractured. With my sister's help I filed for divorce, and with my children moved to another state far from the military post where we were living.

Many women do not identify early signs of abuse during the dating period, and this causes them to get caught in an abusive marriage. Moreover, abusers try to compensate their perceived lack or loss of power by resorting to violence to intimidate the victim and regain control.

Case Example: #3

We got married right after graduating from college. During the first two years of our marriage, everything was fine. Both of us worked, shared our earnings, and the house chores. Then I got pregnant and had some complications that made me quit my job. His salary was not enough to pay for all the medical expenses we were having at that time, so he decided to enlist in the Army and we had to relocate far from family and friends. After his enlistment, he became very demanding and controlling, as well as abusive. I was ashamed to tell anyone, especially my folks that my husband sometimes slapped me or hit me. He started telling me that I was stupid and dumb. If I rearranged the furniture or put up new decorations around the house, he made negative remarks about it. He found fault with everything I did. My reasoning was that if I tried harder, I could be a better

wife and he would stop beating me. However, no matter how hard I tried, he was never satisfied. I tried to do my best to please him, but his uncontrollable rage never diminished. The beatings continued and he put me down as often as he could. His excuses were: “You made me do it”; “You made me angry”; “You are so stupid, if you did it right, I wouldn’t have to punish you”. Eventually, I became insecure about what I did, and started to believe what he told me.

The gentleman I married turned into a tyrant. The house had to be immaculately clean before his arrival from work, the table had to be all set up, and supper had to be ready and on the table. Additionally, he was a despot and autocratic parent to our children. At meal times, he sat at the head of the table and the children were expected to be seated around the table when he sat down. The poor children were always on alert, like soldiers, ready to receive orders.

I was scared of my husband so much that, by the way he parked the car when he arrived home from work; I knew if he was in a good or a bad mood. If by misfortune, he were in a bad mood, for sure, I would get a beating that night.

The strongest take advantage of the weakest by victimizing them. In the private realm some men resort to violence not only against their spouse, but also against their children, making them the escape goats of their displaced anger and frustration, especially if they are far from family and friends. In this case the husband not only abused, degraded, and traumatized his wife; he also did it to their children.

Case Example: #4

Sometimes he was a really sweet man to me. But then there were times when he got out of control. One of those times, he threatened to kill me with a gun. I managed to get out

of the house with my children and as we were exiting the kitchen door, he fired the gun several times. I said to myself, “If I survive, I’ve got to get away from him”.

Like in the previous case, in this and the next case, the wife and children were also victims of abuse. For many abusers, assault with a weapon is the easiest way to obtain and demonstrate control over their spouse, with no respect for their children.

Case Example: #5

During one of his outbursts of rage, by kicking the door and ramming his body into it, he broke into the children’s room, where my three children and I were sleeping. Before I could do anything he grabbed me by one foot, pulled me out of bed and dragged me into the living room, where he punched me, head-slapped me, and kicked me until the children called 911. Then he turned against them calling them bastards and other names.

Abuse is an ongoing process, which involves many types of abuse, and affects the victims physically, emotionally, and mentally.

Case Example: #6

He has been verbally and emotionally abusive since we got married. At the beginning of the marriage, I refused to acknowledge the abuse and interpreted his possessiveness, as “he loves me so much”. I also believed that the isolation from family and friends was because he wanted to spend time with me.

As time went by, his possessiveness got worse, to the point that I was not allowed to have a conversation with neighbors or co-workers. Phone calls to my family and friends were allowed only when my husband was present and they had to be brief. No phone calls were made nor accepted after 9:00 PM. I was not allowed to go anywhere by myself. My isolation started to become unbearable; I was just allowed to go to work. If for any reason

I was a few minutes late back home, my husband accused me of having an affair with someone else. On several occasions, he stalked me to see if he could catch me with another man.

After I became pregnant, my husband became physically aggressive; at first, he started throwing things at me, then a shove or a slap, and with time, the physical abuse escalated. There was no end to his beatings. I couldn't believe what was happening to me, I was expecting his child, yet he was so mean to me!

During pregnancy some men feel they are not getting all the attention they had before from their wives. To them, this poses a threat to their masculinity, which they strive to regain through violence and coercion.

Case Example: #7

Before our marriage, my husband was polite to my folks and to me. On one or two occasions, he made some negative remarks about my looks, which I didn't take seriously. After the marriage, he progressively became abusive both verbally and physically. The first time he hit me, I blamed myself for the attack, both of us had been drinking and, probably, I said something inappropriate. After that incident, I decided to stop drinking; however, his beatings didn't stop. The second and subsequent beatings had no excuse, both of us were sober. For no apparent reason, he suddenly turned violent with such an uncontrollable rage and fury that I feared for my life and my children's fate. Because of his work, he had to be away from home very often and when he came back home, he accused me of having an affair. For this reason I quit my job thinking it will help end his jealousy and beatings.

Since the divorce, I've lived in constant fear because my ex-husband has made harassing phone calls to my family and me. On several occasions, he stalked me after I left my place of work and headed for the nursery. He has threatened to take the children away. In addition, he has threatened to leave town so that I'll never see them again. Even though I obtained a restraining order against him, he showed up at my parents' house demanding to see our children and me. Because of his constant harassment, I had to quit my new job, and moved out from my parents' house somewhere else to avoid any family confrontations with my ex-husband.

Physical abuse seldom occurs in isolation, most of the time is the result of a series of abusive behaviors. In addition, leaving an abusive relationship has proven to be one of the most dangerous episodes of an abusive relationship. In this case the victim left the abuser hoping to put an end to the abuse she endured for several years. Even though she encountered many hardships, luckily she was able to escape alive.

Case Example: #8

Everyone thought we were the perfect couple. I was able to keep my secret about his abuse, from family and friends for many years. I was so ashamed about it that I didn't seek any help from my family. Instead, I started to believe what he told me whenever we had an argument, that I was good for nothing. I wasn't able to leave him; he had threatened to kill me if I ever left him. Many times he even showed me the high caliber gun that he would use on me and bragged about the damage it did. When I thought about leaving I could hear his voice in my mind saying "Wherever you go, I'll find you and I'll kill you". I was so confused; I couldn't go to his commander for help either. If I reported him, I was going to ruin his career.

Sometimes I took sleeping pills to escape my mental anguish because his violent behavior got worse after he returned from an overseas assignment. He started accusing me of having an affair with someone else. Finally, one day he told me that, while he was abroad his buddies at work always told him that all wives cheated on their husbands when they were not home and that I was no exception. Therefore, he needed to know the name of the guy with whom I was having an affair. Suddenly he became so furious that he grabbed me by the shoulders and started slapping me and yelling, “What’s his name? What’s his name? You bitch... Tell me or I’m going to kill you. I’m going to break every bone in your body and no one will turn around to look at you.” He punched me, he kicked me, and then he grabbed me by the hair and dragged me down the stairs where he left me in a pool of blood.

Victims of abuse, often go into a state of denial in an attempt to overcome the abusive situation. Eventually, these women come to believe all what their abusers tell them and as a result their self-esteem is very low.

6.2 Common Experiences

These women have been repeatedly abused physically, psychologically, and/or verbally by their husbands. They have been punched, kicked, choked, strangled; attacked with guns, and knives, and beaten with chains, or blunt objects. They have suffered fractures, dislocations, miscarriages, internal bleeding and concussions. In addition, they have been isolated from family and friends to prevent them from developing their family and social relationships and to silence them about the abuse.

Some of the victims had no one to turn to. Moreover, most of the women had been the victims of uncontrollable rage and fury that made them fear for their life. Fear of revenge by the

husband, fear that the husband would be imprisoned by the military authorities, and the fact that some of the women felt embarrassed and feared being blamed for the violence by those who were there to protect them, were the reasons why many women refrained from reporting incidents of abuse against them.

For all of the participants being a battered woman was a social stigma and most of them were looking for a way out of the abusive relationship. Most of the women had been physically abused, while others had been subjected to emotional blackmail and forced to stay in an abusive relationship with threats and intimidation. On some of them, the threat of murder had been used frequently. In most cases, the husband maintained control over finances. In some cases the husband attempted to regain control by resorting to romance, however, when things did not go according to his wishes his viciousness reappeared.

6.3 Findings

The findings obtained from the surveys are presented as follows: In Table 1, the demographic profile of the sample was analyzed. Table 2 states victims' reasons for not using support services within the military. Table 3 depicts the rates of the different patterns of abuse (physical abuse, verbal abuse, and emotional abuse). Table 4 shows the outcome of the relationship after a pattern of abuse had been established.

Table 1 presents the Demographic Profile of the sample. In this study, I chose to concentrate exclusively on spouse abuse directed against women. The main reason for that decision was that all of the informants were women. The variables included in the demographic profile are: Age (self); age (spouse); race/ethnicity of each of the two spouses; the marital status of the sample were all married couples; number of years of marriage; number of children; level of education (self) and level of education (spouse).

Table 1
Demographic Profile

<u>Variables</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Mean</u>
Age (self)		26.5
Age (spouse)		30.5
Race/ethnicity (self)		
White Anglo	37.50 %	
American Indian	6.25 %	
African-American	6.25 %	
Hispanic	18.75 %	
Mexican-American	18.75 %	
Asian	12.50 %	
Race/ethnicity (spouse)		
White Anglo	56.25 %	
American Indian		
African-American	12.50 %	
Hispanic		
Mexican-American	31.25 %	
Asian		
Marital Status		
All Married couples		
Years of marriage		6.6
Number of children		1.5
Education (self)		
Some High School	12.50 %	
High School graduate	31.25 %	
Some College	31.25 %	
College graduate	18.75 %	
Graduate Degree	6.25 %	
Education (spouse)		
Some High School	12.50 %	
High School graduate	37.50 %	
Some College	31.25 %	
College graduate	18.75 %	
Graduate Degree		

As shown on table I, the average age of the participants was 26.5 years (range 19-45 years); the average age of the husbands was 30.5 years (range 22-50 years). The race/ethnicity of the participants was diverse, 37.5% were White Anglo; 6.25% were American Indian; 6.25% were African-American; 18.75% were Hispanic; 18.75% were Mexican-American; and 12.50% were Asian. The race/ethnicity of the husbands was as follows: 56.25% were White Anglo; 12.50% were African-American; and 31.25% were Mexican-American. As previously mentioned, all the participants in this study were married. The average length of marriage was 6.6 years (range 1-25 years). The average number of children was 1.5 (range 0-3 children). Concerning education (self) 12.50% of the participants had some high school education; 31.25% graduated from high school; 31.25% of them had some college education; 18.75% graduated from college; and 6.25% had a graduate degree. The husband's education level revealed that 12.5% had some high school; 37.5% graduated from high school; 31.25% had some college education; and 18.75% of them graduated from college.

The demographic variables of age (self) and age (husband) examined as correlates of violence against women are consistent with the theory supported by West et al., 1981; Straus et al., 1980; Gelles and Cornell, 1990, and others. The theory sustains that the rate of violence for a couple that is 30 years old or younger is more than twice that of couples in the 31-50-year old group. Analysis of education (self) and education (spouse) revealed that emotional/psychological abuse occurred more often when there was a disparity in the levels of education.

The hypothesis that support services for military personnel and their families are insufficient was supported. Limited, incomplete, and unavailable up to date data on spouse abuse cases, lack of information about actions taken by commanders, reporting inconsistencies, reluctance to issue copies of Military Protective Order to victims, no appeal process when an MPO is denied support this hypothesis. Moreover, findings for this specific sample indicate that many of the women were fearful to use those services. Table 2 shows some of the victims' main reasons for not using support services available to them.

Table 2

Victims' Reasons for not Using Support Services within the Military

<u>General Reasons for Not Using Services:</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Afraid that battering would continue and be more severe.	87.50%
Shame about the abuse and problems.	56.25%
Afraid of being blamed about the abuse.	43.75%
Afraid of losing their right of confidentiality	87.5%
Insufficient economic resources.	43.75%
<u>Military Reasons for Not Using Services</u>	
Afraid of harming service member's career (e.g., Bar to Reenlistment or Administrative Discharge).	62.50%
Distrust of military system.	75.00%
Afraid of causing economic hardships on family.	43.75%
Sense of Isolation.	68.75%

For the purpose of this study, victims' reasons were divided into two different categories: General Reasons for Not Using Services and Military Reasons for Not Using Services.

Percentages were calculated based on the participants' responses in the survey.

For the first category, General Reasons for Not Using Services: 87.50% of the respondents stated they were afraid that battering would continue and be more severe; 56.25% felt shame about the abuse and problems; 43.75% were afraid of being blamed about the abuse; 87.50% were afraid of losing their right of confidentiality; and 43.75% because of insufficient economic resources. In the second category, Military Reasons for Not Using Services: 62.50% of the participants declared they were afraid of harming the service member's career (e.g., Bar to Reenlistment or Administrative discharge: 75.00% were doubtful about the military system; 43.75% were afraid of causing economic hardships on the family; and 68.75% at a certain time during their marriage had a sense of isolation (e.g., different country, far from family and friends, etc.).

The hypothesis that military wives are at a higher risk of becoming victims of domestic violence because they often live far from family and friends was supported (see Table 2, Military Reasons for Not Using Services). It was stated by 68.75% of the informants, that at some point during their marriage they felt they were isolated, because they were far from their family and far from their social network, and/or in a different country with a different culture. Consistent with the findings of Bachman and Saltzman, 1995a; Caliber Associates, 1996a; Moriarty and Graves, and others, the variable examined is a strong disincentive for using services within the military. Additionally, some of the cases narrated further support this hypothesis.

Case Example: #9

The abuse began when we were newlyweds. All his threats and manipulation were new to me; I come from a peaceful family. At first, I didn't recognize his name calling as abuse. I thought he's having a bad day, that's why he called me a "bitch".

Gradually the abuse escalated from name calling to pushing, shoving and things like that. Then, one night during an intense argument, the verbal abuse became physical. He punched me in the mouth and my lower lip was split open. I was afraid to go to the hospital or to call the MPs (Military Police), they were going to ask me how I got it and if I told them he did it to me, I would get him in trouble. I was afraid he would be kicked out of the Army. Having no work and no money that would really make him angry, and I didn't want to provoke his rage and violence, so I kept quiet. However, over time, his rage outbursts have gotten worse. Even when I was pregnant the abuse continued. One day he pushed me down the stairs but I was too afraid to call the MPs (Military Police) or anybody else for help. We were in another country far from the U.S. and far from family and friends; I had no place to go. I didn't know anybody.

The hypothesis that victims of abuse are reluctant to use support services within the Military in fear of losing their right of confidentiality was supported (see Table 2, General Reasons for Not Using Services). Findings obtained show that 85.50% of the participants were afraid of losing their right of confidentiality. However, the findings cannot be generalized beyond this sample.

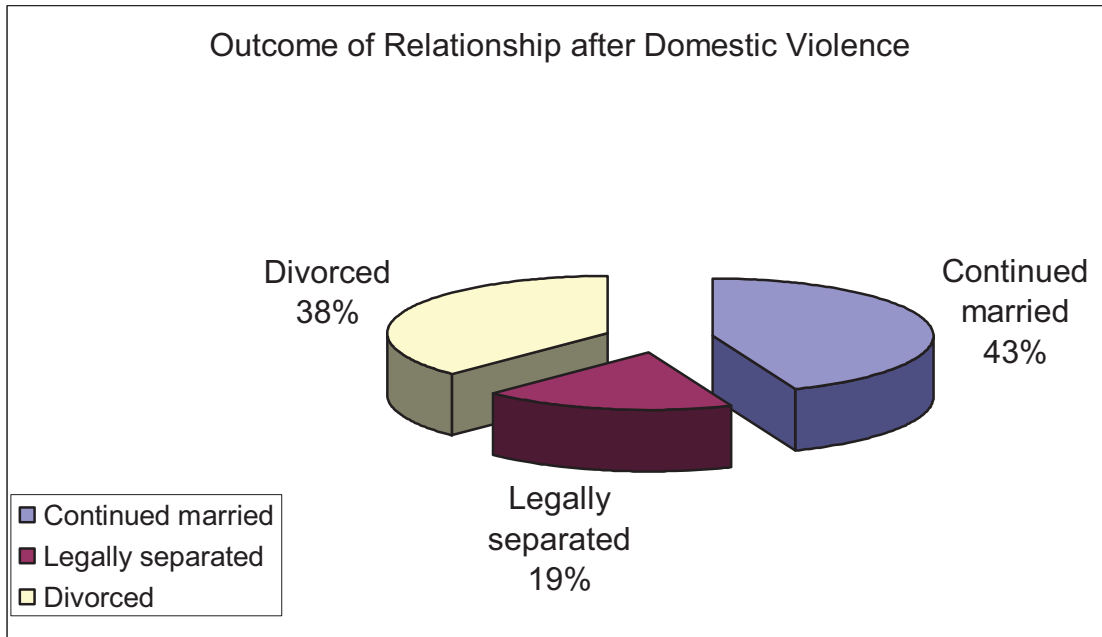
Table 3
Characteristics of Abuse

<u>Types of Abuse</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Physical abuse	15	93.75%
No Physical abuse	1	6.25%
Verbal abuse	15	93.75%
No Verbal abuse	1	6.25%
Emotional/Psychological abuse	9	56.25%
No Emotional/Psychological abuse	7	43.75%

The rates and characteristics of abuse (physical abuse, verbal abuse, and emotional/psychological abuse) depicted in table 3 derive from the eight potential answers for all the questions of the Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS2). In this research 93.75% of the informants stated, that their husbands had physically abused them at least twice during the 12 months before their participation in this study. While 6.25% of them reported that, their husbands had never physically abused them during the 12 months preceding their participation in the study. In 93.75% of the cases, the women declared their husbands had been verbally abusive at least twice during the 12 months prior to their participation in the study. At the same time, 6.25% of the participants indicated that they had not experienced any verbal abuse from their husbands during the same period. Regarding emotional/psychological abuse 56.25% of the women indicated that, their husbands had subjected them to emotional abuse at least two times during the 12 months preceding their participation in the study. Furthermore, 43.25% of the respondents stated that

their husbands had not inflicted on them any emotional/psychological abuse during the same time.

Table 4



As indicated in Table 4, the outcome of the relationship after a pattern of domestic violence was established is as follows 43% of the participants continued married, while 19% of them decided to opt for legal separation, and 38% of the women obtained a divorce. As previously stated, the study was done on cases presented over a twenty-year period. It would have been ideal if all of them had been from the same time.

Chapter 7: Discussion and Conclusions

7.1 Discussion

This research attempts to describe how military wives who experience abuse deal with their situation and if the Family Assistance Program is effective in supporting victims and dealing with abusers. The findings of the study indicate that spotty prosecutions, vague statistics, long-standing male dominance, gender stereotypes, and unresponsive commanders have tarnished the implementation of spouse abuse laws by the Department of Defense.

Moreover, the complexity of the bureaucratic social structure of the military and its unique lifestyle and culture, combined with the stigma and fear of disclosure, lead to a situation where only a small percent of the crimes of spouse abuse are ever reported. Some of these women in order to maintain confidentiality and in an attempt to prevent revenge by the husband, and embarrassment, refrained from reporting incidents of violence against them. As stated by some victims, it is common for women to be blamed by installation authorities, from which they are seeking support, for provoking the violence perpetrated against them by their spouses. In addition, making accurate data extremely difficult to obtain makes it impossible to measure the true extent of violence against women as a great percent of incidents of spouse abuse go unreported. At the same time it is difficult to assess perpetrators accountability. The results indicate that physical abuse, emotional abuse and verbal abuse occurred during the relationship at different age levels, levels of education, income levels and at different stages of marriage.

The findings of the theoretical perspectives reveal that traditional attitudes toward women, sex-role stereotypes, non-egalitarian expectations of marriage, and male-dominance beliefs about marital relations and family life played a significant role in spouse abuse incidents.

A masculinity perspective and lack of empathy with the woman's needs explain men's beliefs about spouse abuse and violence against women in general.

7.2 Conclusions

The goal of this research was to determine if family support services in the military are effective in supporting spouse abuse victims and dealing with abusers. For Hypothesis H: 1 Support services for military personnel and their families are insufficient, was supported. Limited, incomplete and up to date data on spouse abuse cases, lack of information about actions taken by commanders, reporting inconsistencies, reluctance to issue copies of Military Protective Order (MPO) to victim, no appeal process when a Military Protective Order is denied support this hypothesis. For Hypothesis H: 2 Victims are reluctant to use services within the military community in fear of losing their right of confidentiality. It was supported for this sample as shown on Table 2. The sample specific findings indicate that spouse abuse victims in the military are reluctant to use services within the military community because of limited confidentiality.

Furthermore, it was found that commanders' within the military have an immense power, such as setting the tone for the installation's prosecuting practices of domestic violence incidents and offenders accountability, full authority for taking disciplinary action (non-judicial punishment, judicial, or administrative) to solve domestic violence problems, granting or denying Military Protective Orders (MPO), etc. In contrast, in the civil sphere, a Court Judge based on the testimony and evidence from both parties, decides the type of sanction to be imposed on domestic violence offenders. Additionally, in the military commanders have the power to grant or deny Military Protective Orders without the benefit of appeal as opposed to the Civil Justice System where Protective Orders by law must be granted by a judge or magistrate

and the victim has the right of appeal. Moreover, Military Protective Orders are only enforceable within the military installation. Civil Courts cannot enforce Military Protective Orders.

For Hypothesis H3: Military wives are at a higher risk of becoming victims of domestic violence because they often live far from family and friends. It was supported according to the figures shown in Table 2, Military Reasons for Not Using Services. Furthermore, women married to active duty service members are more vulnerable than wives are in the civilian sphere. Part of the military life-style is frequent relocations to installations located either in the continental United States but far from family and friends or outside of the continental United States, thus presenting a window of opportunity for domestic violence since couples are socially and culturally isolated.

In the military, only active duty members and their dependents qualify for almost all the benefits. When a couple legally separates, their dependents continue enjoying full benefits. On the other hand, veterans and their dependents have limited benefits. Moreover, when a couple gets divorced, and the grounds for divorce are other than domestic violence the former wife has no more benefits and the children have limited benefits (even though they did not get divorced from their father). According to the Transitional Compensation Program for Abused Family Members of Military Personnel (1994), when a couple gets divorced and the grounds for divorce were for spouse abuse or child abuse and the military member was administratively discharged or court martial or received forfeiture of all pay and allowances for abuse. The dependents may qualify (depending on these and other restrictions) for Transitional Compensation for a minimum of 12 months, but not more than 36 months.

It was found that the criteria for entering information of spouse abuse cases in the data system of the Army's Central Registry of Spouse Abuse Cases is that only substantiated cases

involving married active duty personnel are recognized as spouse abuse and are entered. Consequently, there is a lack of information reflecting the total number of incidents of abuse. Moreover, reporting practices of spouse abuse incidents lack uniform interpretation and implementation among the different services, and across the installations and military branches.

7.3 Recommendations

Unify the laws and regulations concerning spouse abuse across all military installations and military branches.

Implement the right to appeal when a Military Protective Order is denied.

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Appendix A

Table A

Percent of All Homicides by Racial Composition of Victims and Offenders

	White on White	Black on White	Other on White	White on Black	Black on Black	Other on Black	White on Other	Black on Other	Other on Other
1986	47.1%	6.5%	.4%	2.6%	42.6%	.1%	.3%	.0%	.6%
1987	47.3%	6.3%	.4%	2.9%	42.2%	.1%	.2%	.1%	.5%
1988	44.9%	6.6%	.4%	2.7%	44.5%	.1%	.3%	.0%	.4%
1989	43.9%	7.0%	.3%	3.1%	44.8%	.0%	.3%	.0%	.5%
1990	44.1%	6.9%	.3%	3.2%	44.8%	.0%	.3%	.1%	.4%
1991	41.5%	7.7%	.3%	3.4%	46.3%	.0%	.3%	.1%	.4%
1992	41.7%	8.5%	.3%	2.7%	46.1%	.0%	.2%	.1%	.4%
1993	41.1%	8.9%	.3%	2.7%	46.2%	.0%	.2%	.1%	.4%
1994	41.1%	8.6%	.4%	3.1%	46.1%	.0%	.3%	.1%	.3%
1995	43.8%	8.0%	.4%	3.3%	43.6%	.1%	.3%	.1%	.5%
1996	43.8%	8.4%	.4%	3.3%	43.4%	.1%	.3%	.1%	.3%
1997	43.4%	8.4%	.3%	2.9%	44.0%	.0%	.2%	.1%	.6%
1998	46.4%	7.5%	.3%	3.2%	41.6%	.1%	.3%	.1%	.5%
1999	46.0%	8.1%	.4%	2.8%	41.5%	.0%	.2%	.1%	.9%
2000	45.5%	8.2%	.3%	3.0%	42.1%	.0%	.2%	.1%	.6%
2001	46.4%	8.2%	.4%	2.8%	41.4%	.1%	.2%	.1%	.4%
2002	45.7%	8.1%	.4%	3.2%	41.6%	.1%	.2%	.2%	.5%
2003	44.7%	8.6%	.3%	3.5%	42.0%	.1%	.2%	.1%	.5%
2004	46.1%	8.5%	.4%	3.5%	40.7%	.0%	.2%	.1%	.6%
2005	44.6%	8.8%	.3%	3.2%	42.2%	.0%	.2%	.2%	.5%

(BJS, 2007 Source: FBI, Supplementary Homicide Reports, 1976-2005).

Table A: Percent of All Homicides by Racial Composition of Victim and Offender

This table depicts the percentage of all homicides reported by racial composition of

victim and offender. The racial composition is made up of White, Black, and Other.

Appendix B

Table B

Homicides by relationship and weapon type, 1990-2005

Relationship of victim to offender	Total	Gun	Knife	Blunt object	Force	Other weapon
Husband	100%	69%	26%	2%	1%	3%
Ex-husband	100	86	10	1	0	3
Wife	100	68	14	5	10	4
Ex-wife	100	77	12	3	5	3
Boyfriend	100	45	47	3	3	3
Girlfriend	100	56	20	5	14	5

(BJS, 2007 Source: FBI, Supplementary Homicide Reports, 1976-2005).

Table B: Homicides by relationship and weapon type

Table B shows the percentage of homicides by relationship of victim and offender and weapon type. The weapons most often used in intimate homicide were guns. However, the weapon varies according to the relationship.

Appendix C

Table C

Intimate Homicide Victims by Race and Gender

	White		Black		Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1986	416	994	522	532	5	52
1987	397	958	482	483	8	35
1988	351	998	448	524	15	36
1989	351	879	499	473	10	42
1990	364	941	436	487	16	44
1991	333	907	393	518	7	55
1992	296	877	352	504	9	48
1993	294	980	331	533	12	43
1994	291	897	351	462	11	35
1995	233	865	281	387	6	50
1996	229	844	241	416	6	27
1997	216	749	187	399	9	40
1998	238	862	209	392	11	38
1999	190	797	181	336	8	57
2000	186	841	180	330	14	49
2001	174	792	161	342	9	50
2002	179	763	150	362	8	49
2003	176	774	144	333	7	45
2004	195	798	138	316	11	33
2005	183	789	138	337	7	44

(BJS, 2007 Source: FBI, Supplementary Homicide Reports, 1976-2005).

Table C: Intimate Homicide Victims by Race and Gender

Table C shows the number of intimate homicide victims by race and gender. The homicide and population data are for persons ages 20-44. The number of married or divorced persons is the population base used to calculate spouse and ex-spouse rates and the number of

never married or widowed persons is the population base used to calculate boyfriend/girlfriend rates.

Appendix D

Sample Protocol for Law Enforcement Response to Domestic Violence

Purpose

To establish an effective law enforcement response to domestic violence.

Policy

Law enforcement personnel shall respond to reports of domestic violence as they would to credible reports of any other crime. Law enforcement personnel shall further ensure that alleged victims are informed of services available to victims of domestic violence.

Scope

These guidelines apply to any act of domestic violence involving a military member on active duty either as the abuser or as the victim. Acts of domestic violence constitute chargeable offenses under the United States Code, the Uniform Code of Military Justice, or state law involving the use, attempted use, or threatened use of force or violence, or a violation of a lawful order of protection against (a) a current or former spouse, (b) a person with whom the abuser shares a child in common or (c) a current or former intimate partner with whom the abuser shares or has shared a common residence.

Dispatcher Responsibilities

1. Upon receiving a domestic violence call, the dispatcher should attempt to elicit from the caller and any accessible law enforcement records as much of the following information as possible:

- The nature of the alleged incident.
- The access or specific location of the alleged incident.
- A telephone number where the caller can be reached.

- Whether firearms or other weapons were involved in the incident or are otherwise present in the home or location.
 - Whether an ambulance is needed.
 - Whether the alleged suspect is present. If not, the alleged suspect's description, direction of flight, and mode of travel.
 - Who else is present at the scene, their involvement in the alleged incident, and their relationship to the parties.
 - Whether there have been previous domestic violence incidents involving the parties.
 - Whether there is a protective order in effect involving the parties.
2. The dispatcher should then relay the information to the responding law enforcement personnel either in person or via a secure radio network.

First Responder Responsibilities

1. Responding law enforcement personnel should approach the scene of a domestic violence as one of high risk.
2. Upon arrival law enforcement personnel should identify themselves, explain their presence, and request entry to investigate the call. If refused entry, be persistent. Seek appropriate legal advice if a forced entry is contemplated.
3. Once inside, law enforcement personnel should establish control by:
 - Identify potential weapons in the surroundings.
 - Separating the alleged victim and the alleged suspect.
 - Restraining, detaining, or apprehending the alleged suspect as needed.
 - Assessing injuries, administering first aid, or notifying emergency medical services.
 - Inquiring about the alleged incident.

- Identifying all occupants and witnesses from the alleged victim and the alleged suspect and keeping them out of hearing range.
4. Once inside, control has been established, interview the alleged victim and suspect as fully as circumstances allow.
 5. Ensure the alleged victim's safety and privacy by interviewing the alleged victim in an area apart from the alleged suspect, witnesses, and occupants. Be sure to inquire about any history of abuse or existing protective orders. Fully investigate all orders violations. Encourage the alleged victim to seek a medical examination and arrange transport as needed, Inquire about injuries that are concealed by clothing or otherwise not readily apparent. Advise the alleged victim to contact law enforcement and arrange for photographs to be taken of other injuries that become apparent in the days following the incident.
 6. If the alleged suspect has fled the scene, attempt to get information about potential whereabouts.
 7. Interview any witnesses as fully and as soon as circumstances allow.
 8. Interview children in a manner appropriate to their age.
 9. Collect and preserve all physical evidence reasonably necessary to establish what took place, including photographic evidence substantiating the victim's injuries and crime scene, and evidentiary articles that substantiate the incident.
 10. Follow established law enforcement procedures pertaining to apprehension (for military personnel) and detention (for civilian). Comply with training on whether advisement of rights under the 5th Amendment of the U.S. Constitution or Article 31 of the Uniform Code of Military Justices required. Civilian suspects should be detained and turned over to DOD or local law enforcement personnel having arrest authority for further disposition.

11. Seek appropriate legal advice if seizure of firearms not directly tied to the incident is contemplated.
12. If apprehension or detention is not authorized, explain to the alleged victim the reasons why apprehension or detention is not going to occur.
13. Whether or not apprehension or detention occurs, law enforcement personnel should not leave the scene of the incident until the situation is fully under control and the likelihood of further violence has been eliminated. Law enforcement personnel should inform the alleged victim of the availability of local shelter facilities, victim advocate and other domestic violence services, and procedures for obtaining a protective order. If the alleged victim desires to take advantage of the shelter option, law enforcement personnel are obliged to stand by as belongings are gathered for the stay at the shelter and arrange transport, as needed.
14. A detailed written report of the investigation should be promptly completed and a copy forwarded to the suspect's commanding officer or provided to local law enforcement authorities when the alleged suspect is a civilian in accordance with DOD or local law enforcement requirements and procedures.

Disclaimer

This guidance is intended only to improve the internal administration of the Department of Defense. It does not create any rights enforceable by any person, organization or other entity in an administrative proceeding or at law or equity. Failure on the part of law enforcement personnel to comply with any aspect of these guidelines shall not create any rights or privileges in the persons referenced and shall not operate to provide a defense or other remedy in any proceedings arising under this protocol.

Appendix E

Sample Protocol for Commanding Officer Response to Domestic Violence

Purpose

To establish an effective command response to domestic violence.

Policy

Commanding officers shall respond to reports of domestic violence as they would to credible reports of any other crime, and ensure that alleged victims are informed of services available to victims of domestic violence. Commanding officers at all levels, beginning with unit-level commanders closest to the accused, shall be familiar with the responsibilities delineated below. If a particular responsibility is beyond a commander's capabilities, he/she shall involve his/her next higher in the chain of command.

Scope

These guidelines apply to any act of domestic violence involving a military member on active duty as either the abuser or the victim. Acts of domestic violence constitute chargeable offenses under the United States Code, the Uniform Code of Military Justice, or state law involving the use, attempted use, or threatened use of force or violence, or a violation of a lawful order of protection against (a) a current or former spouse; (b) a person with whom the abuser shares a child in common; or (c) a current or former intimate partner with whom the abuser shares or has shared a common residence.

Commanding Officer Responsibilities

1. Upon receiving a report of domestic violence, commanders shall counsel a military suspect about his/her alleged misconduct, but only after providing the military suspect his/her Article 31 rights under the Uniform Code of Military Justice.

2. Refer any incident of domestic violence reported or discovered independent of law enforcement to law enforcement for formal investigation.
3. Secure safe housing for the alleged victim as needed.
4. Direct the alleged abuser to alternative housing as needed.
5. Consider issuing a military protection order, as necessary, and monitor compliance as needed.
6. Cooperate in making the alleged abuser available to be served with a civilian protection order as needed. Obtain a copy of the protection order and review it with the legal office.
7. If the alleged abuser is a civilian, consider requesting that the installation commander bar the individual from the installation.
8. If the alleged abuser is a civil service employee, consult with the servicing civilian personnel officer as the employee may be subject to disciplinary action.
9. Provide the alleged victim with information about victim advocate services, legal services, the Victim Witness Assistance Program, and transitional compensation as needed.
10. Monitor the alleged victim's safety.
11. Review each law enforcement investigative report with the installation legal office to determine if punitive and/or administrative action is warranted, and the level of appropriate disposition in accordance with the Uniform Code of Military Justice and/or administrative regulations.
12. Consult Family Advocacy Program (FAP) staff to determine if an abuser is a suitable candidate for intervention services.
13. Consult personnel officials to determine if Temporary Duty or Permanent Change of Station (PCS) orders that interfere with the completion of any directed intervention services should be cancelled or delayed.

14. Document command actions and report such actions through installation law enforcement officials for inclusion in the Defense Incident Based Reporting System.

Garrison or Installation Commanding Officer Responsibilities

In addition to assisting unit-level commanders with the responsibilities above, garrison or installation commanders will:

1. Establish, oversee, and provide authority for the installation Family Advocacy Program.
2. Ensure 24 hour a day capability to report and respond to domestic violence calls.
3. Require investigation of every reported incident of domestic violence.
4. Ensure that all programs and organizations with roles in responding to domestic violence have the necessary protocols and procedures in place to execute their responsibilities.
5. Institute and participate in the installation Family Advocacy Committee.
6. Direct installation law enforcement and legal officials to seek formal memoranda of understanding with their local civilian counterparts to enhance information sharing regarding domestic violence investigation, arrests, and prosecutions involving military personnel.

Disclaimer

This guidance is intended only to improve the internal administration of the Department of Defense. It does not create any rights enforceable by any person, organization, or other entity in an administrative proceeding or at law or equity. Failure on the part of a commander to comply with any aspect of these guidelines shall not create any rights or privileges in the persons referenced and shall not operate to provide a defense or other remedy in any proceeding arising under this protocol. In an effort to unify criteria and procedures across installations the DOD issued the Sample Protocol for Law Enforcement Response to Domestic Violence and the Sample Protocol for Commanding Officer Response to Domestic Violence.

Appendix F
Revised Conflict Tactics Scale

No matter how well a couple gets along, there are times when they will disagree, get annoyed with the other person, want different things from each other or just have spats or fights because they are in a bad mood, are tired, or for some other reason. Couples also have many different ways of trying to settle their differences. This is a list of things that might happen when you have differences. Please circle how many times your partner did them in the past year. If your partner did not do one of these things in the past year, but it happened before that, circle "1".

How often did this happen?

1 = Once in the past year

2 = Twice in the past year

3 = 3 – 5 times in the past year

4 = 6 – 10 times in the past year

5 = 11 – 20 times in the past year

6 = More than 20 times in the past year

7 = Not in the past year but it happened before

0 = This has never happened

	ONCE	TWICE	3 - 5	6 - 10	11 - 20	20 +	BEFORE	NEVER
1. I showed my partner I cared even though we disagreed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
2. <i>My partner showed care for me even though we disagreed.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
3. I explained my side of a disagreement to my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
4. <i>My partner explained his or her side of a disagreement to me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
5. I insulted or swore at my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
6. <i>My partner did this to me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
7. I threw something at my partner that could hurt.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
8. <i>My partner did this to me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
9. I twisted my partner's arm or hair.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
10. <i>My partner did this to me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
11. I had a sprain, bruise, or small cut because of a fight with my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
12. <i>My partner had a sprain, bruise, or small cut because of a fight with me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
13. I showed respect for my partner's feelings about an issue.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
14. <i>My partner showed respect for my feelings about an issue.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
15. I made my partner have sex without a condom.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
16. <i>My partner did this to me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
17. I pushed or shoved my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
18. <i>My partner did this to me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
19. I used force (like hitting, holding down, or using a weapon) to make my partner have sex in a humiliating way.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
20. <i>My partner did this to me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
21. I used a knife or gun on my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22. <i>My partner did this to me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
23. I passed out from being hit on the head by my partner in a fight.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
24. <i>My partner passed out from being hit on the head in a fight with me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
25. I called my partner fat or ugly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
26. <i>My partner called me fat or ugly.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

	ONCE	TWICE	3 - 5	6 - 10	11 - 20	20 +	BEFORE	NEVER
27. I punched or hit my partner with something that could hurt.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
28. My partner did this to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
29. I destroyed something belonging to my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
30. My partner did this to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
31. I went to a doctor because of a fight with my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
32. My partner went to a doctor because of a fight with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
33. I choked my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
34. My partner did this to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
35. I shouted or yelled at my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
36. My partner did this to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
37. I slammed my partner against a wall.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
38. <i>My partner did this to me</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
39. I said I was sure we could work out a problem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
40. <i>My partner was sure we could work it out</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
41. I needed to see a doctor because of a fight with my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
42. <i>My partner needed to see a doctor because of a fight with me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
43. I beat up my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
44. <i>My partner did this to me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
45. I grabbed my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
46. <i>My partner did this to me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
47. I used force (like hitting, holding down, or using a weapon) to make my partner have sex.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
48. <i>My partner did this to me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
49. I stomped out of the room or house or yard during a disagreement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
50. <i>My partner did this to me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
51. I insisted on sex when my partner did not want to (but I did not use physical force).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
52. <i>My partner did this to me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
53. I slapped my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
54. <i>My partner did this to me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
55. I had a broken bone from a fight with my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
56. <i>My partner had a broken bone from a fight with me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
57. I used threats to make my partner have sex in a humiliating way.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
58. <i>My partner did this to me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
59. I suggested a compromise to a disagreement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
60. <i>My partner did this to me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
61. I burned or scalded my partner on purpose.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
62. <i>My partner did this to me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
63. I insisted my partner have sex in a humiliating way.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
64. <i>My partner did this to me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

	ONCE	TWICE	3 - 5	6 - 10	11 - 20	20 +	BEFORE	NEVER
65. I accused my partner of being a lousy lover.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
66. <i>My partner accused me of being a lousy lover.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
67. I did something to spite my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
68. <i>My partner did this to me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
69. I threaten to hit or throw something at my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
70. <i>My partner did this to me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
71. I felt physical pain that still hurt the next day because of a fight with my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
72. <i>My partner still felt physical pain the next day because of a fight we had.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
73. I kicked my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
74. <i>My partner did this to me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
75. I used threats to make my partner have sex.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
76. <i>My partner did this to me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
77. I agreed to try a solution to a disagreement my partner suggested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
78. <i>My partner agreed to try a solution I suggested.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

Appendix G

Questionnaire

Section A: Demographic Profile

Instructions:

1. Please use a black pen or pencil when filling out this survey.
2. Please, answer the following questions by checking the box that best answers your personal opinion or write in the space provided the appropriate answer.

1. Your age (at the time of your last birthday): _____

2. The age of your spouse (at the time of last birthday): _____

3. Your race/ethnicity is:

White Anglo

American Indian

African-American

Hispanic

Mexican-American

Asian

Other, please specify: _____

4. The race/ethnicity of your spouse is:

White Anglo

American Indian

African-American

Hispanic

Mexican-American

Asian

Other, please specify: _____

5. How long have you been married? Years _____ Months _____ Weeks _____

6. How many children are there from this marriage? _____

7. Your education level is:

Some High School

High School Graduate

Some College

College Graduate

Graduate Degree

Other, please specify: _____

8. The level of education of your spouse is:

Some High School

High School Graduate

Some College

College Graduate

Graduate Degree

Other, please specify: _____

9. In your opinion how controlling is/was your spouse?

not controlling

somewhat controlling

extremely controlling

10. Who controlled money expenses?

Wife

Husband

Other, specify: _____

Section B: Support Services

Instructions:

1. Please use a black pen or pencil when filling out this survey.
2. Please, check the box that best answers your personal opinion.

11. Are/were Family Advocacy Services available at the military installation where you/your spouse are/were assigned?

- Yes
- No
- Does not apply/Not required
- Don't know

12. What are/were the reasons for **not** using the services offered to military personnel and their dependents?

Instructions: Please, check all the boxes that apply to your situation.

- Afraid that battering would continue and be more severe.
- Shame about the abuse and problems
- Afraid of being blamed about the abuse
- Afraid of losing right to confidentiality
- Insufficient economic resources
- Afraid of harming service member's career (e.g., Bar to Reenlistment or Administrative Discharge).
- Doubtful about military system
- Afraid of causing economic hardships on family.
- Sense of Isolation (e.g., different country, far from family and friends, etc).

Instructions: Please check the box that best answers your personal opinion.

13. How satisfied are/were you with the confidentiality policy of the military?

- Completely satisfied
- Very satisfied
- Satisfied
- Somewhat satisfied
- Not at all satisfied
- Other, please specify: _____

14. How satisfied are/were you with the services offered to military personnel and their dependents?

- Completely satisfied
- Very satisfied
- Satisfied
- Somewhat satisfied
- Not at all satisfied
- Other, please specify: _____

15. Were services available to you on both an appointment and non-appointment basis?

- Yes
- No
- Does not apply/Not required
- Don't know

16. When arriving for service, were you greeted promptly?

- Yes

- No
- Does not apply/Not required
- Don't know

17. How satisfied were you that all personnel treated you in a courteous, fair, and professional manner?

- Completely satisfied
- Very satisfied
- Satisfied
- Somewhat satisfied
- Not at all satisfied

18. How satisfied were you that the victim advocate/social worker took enough time to thoroughly understand your problem?

- Very satisfied
- Satisfied
- Somewhat satisfied
- Not at all satisfied

19. How satisfied were you that the victim advocate/social worker took enough time to thoroughly understand your service request?

- Completely satisfied
- Very satisfied
- Satisfied
- Somewhat satisfied
- Not at all satisfied

Instructions: Please check the box that best answers your personal opinion.

20. Were you offered victim safety options?

- Yes
- No
- Does not apply/Not required
- Don't know

21. How satisfied were you with the explanation you were given on how to handle the problem of violence in your marriage?

- Completely satisfied
- Very satisfied
- Satisfied
- Somewhat satisfied
- Not at all satisfied
- Other, please specify: _____

22. Were all of your service needs met on this visit?

- Yes
- No
- Does not apply/Not required
- Don't know

23. How satisfied were you that the commander/commander's assistant took enough time to thoroughly understand your problem?

- Completely satisfied
- Very satisfied

- Satisfied
- Somewhat satisfied
- Not at all satisfied
- Other, please specify:_____

24. How satisfied were you that all commander(s) and their personnel treated you in a courteous, fair, and professional manner?

- Completely satisfied
- Very satisfied
- Satisfied
- Somewhat satisfied
- Not at all satisfied
- Other, please specify:_____

25. Overall, how satisfied were you with the services you received?

- Completely satisfied
- Very satisfied
- Satisfied
- Somewhat satisfied
- Not at all satisfied
- Other, please specify:_____

Comments:

END OF SURVEY: THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING

Curriculum Vita

Yolanda Cora Seidler was born in Cd. Juarez, Chih., Mexico to Engineer. Melchor Aguilar F. and Paralegal Ma. Isabel L. de Aguilar. She graduated from Jesus and Mary High School, El Paso, Texas, in 1965. She returned to Mexico to pursue a career in jurisprudence and from the Department of Education learned that her studies abroad were not valid in Mexico. Consequently, she had to attend Secondary and Preparatory School in Mexico. She graduated from Escuela Secundaria Federal Nocturna para Trabajadores in 1969. In 1971, she graduated from Escuela Preparatoria Federal Nocturna “Lic. Adolfo Lopez Mateos”. At both Schools, she was recognized as an outstanding student. From 1973 to 1978, she attended Escuela Normal Superior de Mexico, in Mexico City and obtained her degree in Education. In 1981, upon completing her studies in jurisprudence, at Universidad Autonoma de Ciudad Juarez, the degree of “Licenciado en Derecho” (Law degree) was conferred on Yolanda, and she received a Thesis award from the Law School. While pursuing her Law degree, she was litigating at Bufete Gratuito Juridico Universitario in Cd. Juarez. In the fall of 1983, she entered the Graduate School at The University of Texas at El Paso and completed her Master of Education degree, Major Guidance & Counsel in 1986, as an honor student. During her graduate studies, she participated in The Youth Opportunities Unlimited Program, sponsored by The Governor’s Office of Exemplary Youth Programs, as Practicum Counselor. In addition, she served as a volunteer/victim advocate at Fort Bliss, Texas Army Community Service. In the fall of 1992, she entered UTEP’S Graduate School to obtain the Bilingual Certification PK-6. The same year she was recognized by UTEP as an outstanding student and was selected to apply to Who’s Who Among Students in American Universities and Colleges. She was awarded the distinguished national honor Who’s Who Among Students in

American Universities and Colleges 1994-95. In 1995, she was nominated for Top Ten Seniors Award. She was also selected to apply to Men and Women of Mines Award. She completed her studies in Bilingual Education in 1995 and received the Texas Teacher Certificate, Elementary Self-Contained (Grades PK-6) and Bilingual/ESL (Grades PK-6). She entered the Sociology Graduate Program at the University of Texas At El Paso in 1997 and while studying she worked as an adjunct professor at El Paso Community College in El Paso, Texas, and Escuela de Lenguas de la Universidad Autonoma de Ciudad Juarez, in Cd. Juarez, Chih., Mexico. She was nominated by UTEP for The National Dean's List 2005-2006 where she is represented. She was a member of the first UTEP AKD Chapter Epsilon of Texas (the International Sociological Honor Society). In 2007, for the second time, she earned the distinction of being named to The National Dean's List 2007-2008. As a member of The National Dean's List, she was nominated to participate in the International Scholar Laureate Program Delegation on Anthropology and Archeology in China in the summer of 2008.

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This Thesis was typed by Yolanda Cora Seidler.