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Family, Peers and Culture: What Shapes Perceived Intimate Partner Violence in Portuguese Youth?

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Master in Psychology of Intercultural Relations

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I hope that the results of this study can contribute to voicing this global issue which leaves many to suffer in silence. Essentially, a better understanding of the factors that are related to intimate partner violence can aid in devising more effective prevention programs for young people, in order to stop the cycle of violence before it begins.

Abstract

Intimate partner violence (IPV) is one of the most prevalent forms of violence in society. During youth, individuals begin to develop romantic relationships, as well as attitudes regarding violence, thus, this age-group is critical for investigation. Research has demonstrated how family-of-origin and peers both influence IPV, through social norms, however, the influence of perceived cultural norms has scarcely been investigated. Thus, the present correlational study explored the association between descriptive and prescriptive norms, ascribed by family, peers and culture, and intimate partner violence in a sample of Portuguese university students. 221 participants completed a questionnaire regarding the perceived frequency (descriptive norms) and acceptability (prescriptive norms) of violence in relation to the three aforementioned groups, as well as a self-report of the violence perpetrated by both themselves and their partners in their own relationships, either past or present. Results showed that peer descriptive norms predicted psychological violence in participant's own relationships, but not physical or sexual violence. Parents did not correlate significantly with any kind of violence, and although cultural violence was perceived to be the highest out of all three groups, it was not as influential as the peer group for this sample. Practical implications to prevent IPV among university students should therefore focus on addressing peers and the larger school context, as well as psychological violence specifically.

Keywords: Intimate partner violence; culture; youth; descriptive and prescriptive norms

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- 3000 Social Psychology
- 3020 Group & Interpersonal Processes
- 3040 Social Perception & Cognition
- 2820 Cognitive & Perceptual Development
- 2840 Psychosocial & Personality Development

Resumo

A violência no namoro (VNN) é uma das formas de violência mais prevalentes na sociedade. Durante a juventude, os indivíduos começam a desenvolver relações amorosas, bem como atitudes em relação à violência, logo, esta faixa-etária é crítica para a investigação. A literatura demonstra como a família de origem e os pares influenciam a VNN, através de uma abordagem de normas sociais. No entanto, a influência de normas culturais percebidas tem sido pouco investigada. Assim, o presente estudo correlacional explorou a associação entre normas descritivas e prescritivas atribuídas pela família, pelos pares e pela cultura, e a violência no namoro em universitários portugueses. 221 estudantes universitários responderam a um questionário sobre a frequência percebida da violência (normas descritivas) e a sua aceitabilidade (normas prescritivas) em relação aos três grupos acima mencionados, bem como um autorrelato da violência perpetrada por eles próprios e pelos seus parceiros nos seus relacionamentos, passados ou presentes. Os resultados mostraram que as normas descritivas dos pares previram violência psicológica nos relacionamentos dos próprios participantes, mas não violência física ou sexual. Os pais não se correlacionaram significativamente com nenhum tipo de violência e, embora a violência cultural tenha sido percebida como a mais alta entre os três grupos, não foi tão influente quanto o grupo de pares para esta amostra. As implicações práticas para prevenir a VNN entre estudantes universitários devem, portanto, focar-se no tratamento de pares e no contexto escolar mais amplo, bem como na violência psicológica, especificamente.

Palavras-chave: Violência no namoro; cultura; juventude; normas descritivas e prescritivas

Códigos PsycINFO:

3000 Psicologia Social

3020 Processos Grupais e Interpessoais

3040 Perceção e Cognição Social

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Introduction

Intimate partner violence and abuse is silently one of the most common forms of violence in our society, encompassing any intentional effort to exert or threaten power or control on a person, either physically, psychologically, emotionally, socially or sexually, ending in harm. The abuse occurs in the context of an intimate relationship, where either one or both partners, of same or opposite sex, act as the aggressor (Ahmadabadi et al., 2017; Ferreira et al., 2019; Lien & Lorentzen, 2019; Wolfe & Feiring, 2000).

Romantic relationships and violence begin simultaneously during the already turbulent and sensitive period of adolescence (Wolfe & Feiring, 2000). It is during this developmental period that the framework of “attitudes and beliefs” regarding interpersonal relations, as well as “abuse of power and control”, are formed (Wolfe & Feiring, 2000, p. 362). Although various studies have shown these violence rates to be frequent, early romantic relationships have been generally dismissed, and are only now accepted as a significant and lasting health concern (Mulford & Giordano, 2008; Reyes et al., 2015; Wolfe & Feiring, 2000). More notably, psychological harm and victimization rates are the most prevalent health concerns of all, paving the path for a multitude of other health complications (Ellis & Dumas, 2018; Mulford & Giordano, 2008; Neves et al., 2019). Most victims report their cases only after their relationships have dissolved, and rarely when it is occurring, allowing it to develop somewhat invisibly (Neves et al., 2019).

Given this, it seems paramount that relationship violence be tackled from its onset (Godbout et al., 2017). Allowing these negative conflict patterns to be formed and preformed will only risk their progression into adult relationships, creating a cycle of violence (Ferreira et al., 2019; Reyes et al., 2015). Violence is often used to regulate social relationships, and is subjective in its legitimacy, thus, by understanding its moral roots, one may attempt to deconstruct and reduce it (Fiske et al., 2014). Therefore, in order for successful conflict management skills to be developed, one must first look at the roots and abusive styles which precede and propagate said conflict. In the case of adolescents and young adults, research has focused primarily on microsystems: family-of-origin violence, namely interparental and parent-child violence, and, more recently, peer influence. Cultural factors have been largely neglected in literature, and so, this investigation explores and compares the role of social norms in these three systems: parents, peers and culture. By identifying the norms ascribed by each of these groups, a better

understanding of relationship violence can be reached, and thereafter, appropriate interventions to reduce it can be devised.

Chapter I – Literature Review

Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) is multifaceted, with several individual and relational factors interacting within a larger social context. No single theory or perspective can explain the full dimension of this concept, however, by examining the dynamics of violence, and how they operate on multiple ecological levels, from individual psychology to socio-cultural factors, a better understanding of not only the genesis of violence, but also its maintenance, is possible (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Ellis & Dumas, 2018; Ferreira et al., 2019; Perdigão et al., 2016).

The conceptualization of violence is also somewhat unclear. Violent behaviors may be indirect, through coercive and controlling behaviors, or more severe and direct, through sexual and physical behaviors (Aizpitarte et al., 2017). Due to its private and often subtle nature, many victims may not recognize, identify or report abuse, and perpetrators may not actually intend or realize they are harming someone. Thus, rates of violence depend widely on how it is defined (Dim & Elabor-Idemudia, 2018; Ellis & Dumas, 2018; Gover et al., 2008; Nordin, 2019).

Contrary to common myths, IPV is a transversal phenomenon that can occur at any time, and in any social, economic, cultural or religious context (Perdigão et al., 2016). Victims are not to blame for the violence they suffer, and most aggressors - which may be of any gender - do not possess any mental pathology, but rather, their conservative gender beliefs are one of the fueling factors impacting the legitimacy of their transgressions (Ferreira et al., 2019; Mulla et al., 2019; Perdigão et al., 2016; Reyes et al., 2015). Furthermore, victims do not only stay in violent relationships because they want to (Ferreira et al., 2019; Perdigão et al., 2016). The cyclical dynamics of a toxic relationship can be very difficult to separate from and to report, resulting in many silent victims. Often, the aggressor may threaten to self-harm, stalk, or harm the victim or their loved ones if they were to leave them (Ferreira et al., 2019; Perdigão et al., 2016). Continuous psychological abuse may cause victims to believe they are to blame (Perdigão et al., 2016), jealousy and control may be seen as signs of love, or still, victims' own feelings of love for their partner may make them emotionally dependent on them (Ferreira et al., 2019). Moreover, cultural and religious pressure can also make people feel compelled to stay, as well as fear of being stigmatized as victims of abuse, or inversely, fear that no one will

believe or help them if there are no visible wounds to show (Figueiredo et al., 2018; Oudekerk et al., 2014; Perdigão et al., 2016).

In general, both same-sex relationships, and male victimization are underrepresented both in research and statistics reports, which show lower incidences and less negative effects of these cases than those for women (Ahmadabadi et al., 2017; Copp et al., 2019; Halpern et al., 2004; Laskey, Bates & Taylor, 2019; Lien & Lorentzen, 2019; Minter et al., 2014). Nevertheless, it is important to consider that this non-disclosure may be deeply rooted in a patriarchal cultural which characterizes men as stereotypically strong and courageous, and women as fragile and sensitive. This cultural framework imbues men with stigma and shame concerning victimization and vulnerability. Women may also exercise control and power over their partner, but since female perpetrated violence is often less visible, male victimization becomes a relatively hidden phenomenon, and to an extent less accredited by society. In fact, given the historical background of female victimization, female-perpetrated violence may even be encouraged by society, if justified by the circumstances, thus further promoting bystanders to view these events as inconsequential, and the media to view them as humorous (Ahmadabadi et al., 2017; Baker & Stith, 2008; Copp et al., 2019; Gover et al., 2008; Laskey, Bates & Taylor, 2019; Litcher & McCloskey, 2004; Nordin, 2019; Oudekerk et al., 2014; Perdigão et al., 2016).

Although research shows that overall endorsement of IPV is relatively low on its own, as it is not a desirable action (Copp et al., 2019; Nordin, 2019), it is still a pressing social issue that needs to be addressed by both policy makers and professionals. Even though violence is not desirable, it may still be conducted if considered justified, as seen in studies of young adults (Copp et al., 2019; Nordin, 2019) and adult male perpetrators (Rollero, 2019) in which participants recognized violence as somewhat acceptable, either because the aggressor was provoked, or in the case of infidelity or self-defense. Ultimately, any form of violence can result in mental consequences that hold severe short, medium and long-term effects (Laskey, Bates & Taylor, 2019). These issues range from depression, to anxiety, low self-esteem, substance abuse, PTSD, phobias, school dropout, social isolation, risky behaviors, eating disorders and even suicide (Dim & Elabor-Idemudia, 2018; Ellis & Dumas, 2018; Exner-Cortens et al., 2013; Ferreira et al., 2019; Godbout et al., 2017; Laskey, Bates & Taylor, 2019; Perdigão et al., 2016; Rollero, 2019). Beyond the negative impacts on victims' mental and physical health, there is

also a large economic cost of medical services, loss of productivity in the workplace, justice services, and property damage or loss (Perdigão et al., 2016; Rollero, 2019). Given that violence has the tendency to escalate in frequency, intensity and danger, through time, negative risks increase for the victim, as well as their sense of loss of power, control, confidence and competence (Ferreira et al., 2019).

IPV Among Young Adults

The majority of empirical studies to date have focused on adult IPV, largely ignoring the peak rates of IPV among adolescents and young adults, assuming these relationships to be transitory and associated with behavioral problems. Nevertheless, more recently, these early dating experiences have begun to be studied, as they have shown high risks for many lasting health concerns (Capaldi et al., 2012; Collins, 2003; Godbout et al., 2014; Jennings et al., 2017; Mulford & Giordano, 2008).

Adult IPV differs from young adult IPV in its nature, power dynamics and severity. For instance, younger females are normally not financially dependent on their partner, nor do they typically have children to care for, thus are not as constrained to their relationships (Giordano et al., 2015; Gover et al., 2008; Litcher & McCloskey, 2004; Mulford & Giordano, 2008). Furthermore, young people are generally less experienced in dealing with conflict in relationships, and therefore use inadequate coping strategies to express anger, jealousy or frustration, as, constructive ways to communicate emotions and intimacy are usually developed with age and experience (Mulford & Giordano, 2008). This can make them more tolerant to abusive behaviors such as controlling strategies, and not as quick to identify them as IPV (Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2019). Thus, allowing these negative conflict patterns to be formed and executed only risks their progression into adult relationships, creating a cycle of violence which may interrupt optimal development into adulthood (Baker & Stith, 2008; Collins, 2003; Copp et al., 2019; Exner-Cortens et al., 2013; Nardi-Rodríguez et al., 2019).

Adolescence is a sensitive developmental period of rapid transition in which relationships become more autonomous, intimate and critical to well-being. It is during this stage that the first experiences of romantic relationships and sexuality begin, which may bring intense emotions such as love and passion or turbulent and negative emotions like anxiety and violence (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Ellis & Dumas, 2018; Godbout et al., 2014; Oudekerk et al.,

2014; Wolfe & Feiring, 2000). Thus, secure attachments practiced during adolescence and young adulthood may shape individuals towards secure and healthy relationships later on in adulthood (Godbout et al., 2017).

While adolescents battle in their search for their identity, university continues this developmental search by adding the component of increased autonomy and, often, the distancing from one's primary social network, be this the nuclear family, or even one's hometown and peers. Students are confronted with a new environment which they must integrate and adapt to, and that may bring about social pressures to conform to (Ferreira et al., 2019).

Types of Violence

As can be seen above, IPV is a complex concept which can entail different types of behaviors. These are commonly categorized into physical, psychological and sexual violence, among others. The first three types of violence are explored in more detail below.

Physical Violence. Physical violence has been the most frequently studied form of violence in IPV research, as well as the most broadcasted on media reports (Dim & Elabor-Idemudia, 2018; Mulla et al., 2019; Rollero, 2019). It involves the intentional use of physical strength upon someone, with the possibility of inflicting harm, injury or even death. This can include pushing, hitting, kicking, throwing, punching, slapping, burning, choking, grabbing or even using a weapon against another (Breiding et al., 2015; Toplu-Demirtas & Fincham, 2020). Immediate physical consequences may include bruises, sexually transmitted diseases, unwanted pregnancies, hospitalization or even death (Ellis & Dumas, 2018; Ferreira et al., 2019; Perdigão et al., 2016). In a large international study conducted by Straus (2004) of over 8000 college students, between the ages of 18 and 40, in 16 different countries, an average of 29% of students had participated in some form of physical assault. Most of these assaults were minor, however an alarming 10% were high-risk transgressions. It was also observed that female assaults on males were just as frequent as male perpetrated assaults, in regard to both severe and minor aggressions. The question of symmetry between genders in college students is inconsistent in the literature, whereby some studies report equal numbers of male and female perpetrations and victimization (Mulla et al., 2019; Straus, 2004), and others suggest that women report higher levels of perpetration than males (Ahmadabadi et al., 2017; Baker & Smith, 2008; Gover et al.,

2008; Policastro & Daigle, 2016; Toplu-Demirtas & Fincham, 2020). This may be the result of female perpetration not being as socially disapproved and stigmatized as males', thus reflecting a greater comfort in reporting responsibility (Gover et al., 2008).

Nevertheless, research shows that, although reciprocal in practice, physical violence tends to hold more severe and frightening consequences for women if it escalates, as males are typically physiologically larger and stronger than females (Ahmadabadi et al., 2017; Hamby & Jackson, 2010). This was also evident in same sex relationships, where homosexual women had less risk of severe physical injury than homosexual males (Halpern et al., 2004; Hamby & Jackson, 2010). Nevertheless, as stated above, most physical aggressions on college campuses do not cause severe injury, and the problem should therefore not be focused solely on male-to-female perpetration (Hamby & Jackson, 2010; Straus, 2004).

Still, many rates of reported physical violence are limited as their measurements are inconsistent, and the attitudes, contexts, and consequences of actions are usually excluded. Specifically, the coexisting dynamics of victimization and perpetration are ignored, and it remains unclear if perpetrators executed violence in self-defense, and whether they were in normative population samples (Ahmadabadi et al., 2017; Copp et al., 2019; Dobash & Dobash, 2004; Gover, Kaukinen & Fox, 2008; Kwong et al., 2003; Litcher & McCloskey, 2004; Policastro & Daigle, 2016). For instance, Baker and Smith (2008) found that for both male and female students, partners' use of physical aggression was the strongest predictor of their own physical violence. This shows how circumstance is critical in exploring IPV.

In the case of Portuguese youth, studies show that physical violence reports are relatively low, considered the least acceptable, and perpetration and victimization rates are similar among male and female students (Antunes, 2016; Neves et al., 2019; Rodrigues et al., 2020).

Psychological Violence. Research shows that this form of violence, which does not include physical force, but rather verbal and non-verbal communication intended to mentally or emotionally harm or coerce another, is the most prevalent, detrimental and socially accepted of all among young adult samples (Aizpirtarte et al., 2017; Antunes, 2016; Copp et al., 2019; Dim & Elabor-Idemudia, 2018; Ferreira et al., 2019; Halpern et al., 2004; Kwong et al., 2003; Laskey, Bates & Taylor, 2019; Toplu-Demirtas & Fincham, 2020). Still, it is often neglected in

IPV research, with the focus being on physical violence (Dim & Elabor-Idemudia, 2018; Kwong et al., 2003; Laskey, Bates & Taylor, 2019). Psychological violence may include verbal insults, shouting, threats and humiliation, controlling behaviors (monitoring what the person wears, what they do, their social life and their privacy), gaslighting, ignoring a partner and socially isolating them. It involves subtle and manipulative strategies, making it difficult to define and measure, as it leaves no visible bruises and marks, is not sanctioned by law, and usually co-exists with, or precedes, other forms of violence (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Antunes, 2016; Breiding et al., 2015; Dim & Elabor-Idemudia, 2018; Ferreira et al., 2019; Gover et al., 2008; Rollero, 2019; Toplu-Demirtas & Fincham, 2020).

Among Portuguese youth, studies confirm that psychological violence is also the most reported tactic on campus, yielding similar rates of victimization and perpetration between men and women (Neves, Ferreira, Abreu, Borges, & Topa, 2019; Neves, Ferreira, Abreu, & Borges, 2019; Rodrigues et al., 2020). More specifically, in a 2020 census with 4598 Portuguese youths between 11 and 21 years of age, Rodrigues et al (2020) found that overall, the most accepted tactics of violence included insulting a partner during an argument (25%), seeking them out incessantly (23%), and logging in to their social media account without consent (35%).

In terms of gender differences, most research found no significant differences between male and female victimization and perpetration (Hamby & Jackson, 2010; Toplu-Demirtas & Fincham, 2020), while others showed women to perpetrate more abuse (Dim & Elabor-Idemudia, 2018; Gover et al., 2008). Nevertheless, a few authors also found that men tended to both legitimize and perpetrate more controlling behaviors than women, such as controlling what they wore, the places they went and friends they had (Dim & Elabor-Idemudia, 2018; Neves et al., 2019; Rodrigues et al., 2020). According to Baker (2016) this need for control among young males could stem from the competitive nature of their friendships, and the pressure to maintain a relationship with someone their peers approve of.

Sexual Violence. According to Breiding et al (2015) sexual violence can be defined as any sexual act that is executed or attempted by someone, without the free consent or ability to refuse from another. This can include physical dominance, forced substance abuse, or non-physical pressure or threat to engage in any sexual activity, including penetration, oral or anal sex, or other “non-contact acts of a sexual nature” (p. 11). When regarding educated samples,

such as the case of university students, sexual aggressions are usually less severe in nature, involving “hand-off” strategies of verbal pressure to engage in sexual activities more than physical “hands-on” assault (Carvalho & Sá, 2017). Thus, sexual violence is not limited to physical force, but a more nuanced assault on individuals’ sexual integrity.

Overall, gender differences were not found in any of the violence forms, except sexual violence, in which women appeared to be the main victims (Hamby & Jackson, 2010; Toplu-Demirtas & Fincham, 2020). In a study conducted by Carvalho and Sá (2017) on Portuguese male university students, there was a facility in reporting non-physical strategies of sexual violence, such as sexual coercion (87.7%), namely verbal tactics like threatening to terminate the relationship, or questioning the partners sexuality. Perhaps these strategies were judged as normal in comparison to physical force. Focusing on Portuguese university students, sexual violence is found to be the least reported form of violence on campus (Neves, Ferreira, Abreu, Borges, & Topa, 2019; Neves, Ferreira, Abreu, & Borges, 2019). Still, in a national study conducted between 2017-2020, women were displayed as its main victims, with 9% having been forced to have sexual relations, and 9.5% having been forced to have unwanted sexual behaviors including watching pornography and performing oral or anal sex, while only 4.6% and 5.2% of men suffered the same, respectively (Neves, Ferreira, Abreu, Borges, & Topa, 2019). In another national census done in 2020, when asked about the legitimacy of pressuring a partner to have sexual relations, 16% of male participants agreed, whereas only 4% of females agreed (Rodrigues et al., 2020).

The Role of Social Norms

Social norms pertain to the explicit or implicit standards of behavior considered appropriate by a given group, and as such, that have a determinant impact on behavior (Cialdini et al., 1991). These norms have become more present in the research regarding IPV, as, group expectations of what is considered acceptable behavior may influence individuals’ use of violence in their relationships (Mulla et al., 2019; Cialdini, Kallgren & Reno, 1991). Some individuals may not identify with, and thus not follow, the norms of their group; however, conformity is generally perceived as beneficial to the individual and associated to positive outcomes (Lapinski & Rimal, 2005; Nardi-Rodríguez et al, 2019). Nevertheless, the understanding of the order of this

relationship remains unclear, specifically, if attitudes help mold behaviors, or vice versa (Litcher & McCloskey, 2004).

Collective vs perceived norms. Each social context has a different set of behaviors and attitudes deemed as acceptable. These are considered collective norms, which exist as part of the framework of a given community or culture. They delineate the system by which codes of conduct are prescribed and are born from collective communication and interaction within that group. Perceived norms are simply each individual's subjective interpretation of these collective norms. This means that perceived norms may or may not reflect collective norms and are thus susceptible to misinterpretation and divergence in individual understanding (Lapinski & Rimal, 2005; Mulla et al., 2019; Nardi-Rodríguez et al, 2019). The latter will be the focus of this investigation.

Descriptive vs prescriptive norms. Descriptive norms are the perception of the prevalence of behaviors that are adopted by a group, in other words, what *is*. Prescriptive norms are the moral standards and values regarding the acceptability of the behaviors that a group upholds, thus, what *should be* (Brauer & Chaurand, 2009; Cialdini et al., 1991). These norms may function congruently or not, as, unacceptable behaviors may be perceived as prevalent, or acceptable behaviors may not be practiced (Lapinski & Rimal, 2005; Reyes et al., 2015). Regardless, these norms are most influential when both are high, as opposed to only one (Lapinski & Rimal, 2005). Normative misperceptions of either descriptive or prescriptive norms can serve as biases and lead to engagement or tolerance of risky behaviors, like alcohol abuse or IPV. In this case, the actual collective norm may be substituted by an incorrect perceived norm (Berkowitz, 2004; Lapinski & Rimal, 2005; Mulla et al., 2019; Witte et al., 2015; World Health Organization, 2009).

The Role of Parents

A vast amount of research has been done regarding the exposure to violence in one's family-of-origin (be that indirectly by witnessing interparental violence, or directly through child-parent violence) and subsequent experiences of violence in adult romantic relationships, creating an intergenerational transmission of violence (Ehrensaft et al., 2003; Ferreira et al., 2019; Godbout et al., 2017; Gover et al., 2008; Kaufman-Parks, 2017; Linder & Collins, 2005; Litcher & McCloskey, 2004; O'Keefe, 1998; Perdigão et al., 2016).

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Social learning theory, proposed by Bandura (1977) is one of the main explanations of this transmission of violence, as the family is a child's primary agent of socialization, with parents acting as the first models of behavior. Through direct and indirect observation of their actions and the consequences of those actions, children may learn, and potentially internalize, scripts and attitudes which accept violent behaviors as viable means of conflict resolution (Copp et al., 2019; Godbout et al., 2017; Kaufman-Parks, 2017; Kwong et al., 2003; Litcher & McCloskey, 2004; O'Keefe, 1998). Furthermore, the explicit communication of the acceptability of violence, and under which conditions it could potentially be considered understandable, or even, desirable, also contributes to the individual's attitudes and views on violence (Bandura, 1973; Kaufman-Parks, 2017).

Nevertheless, results regarding this association were inconsistent, whereby some found low positive associations between witnessing parental violence and subsequent endorsement of violent attitudes (Capaldi et al., 2012; Copp et al., 2019; Ehrensaft et al., 2003), others found mediating associations, in which interparental IPV increased aggressiveness which could potentially result in the development IPV (Aizpitarte et al., 2017), and others did not find significant associations (Baker & Stith, 2008). Furthermore, some studies found differences between genders, with male victimization of family violence being more predictive of adult IPV than that of females (Dim & Elabor-Idemudia, 2018; Gover et al., 2008), and others did not (Litcher & McCloskey, 2004). It is important to note that different studies examined different forms of violence, which makes it difficult to make conclusions. Also, not all individuals who experience IPV in their family of origin go on to report IPV in adult relationships, as the effects of witnessing violence and resilience levels are not the same for everyone. Conversely, some individuals develop IPV in adulthood without ever having been exposed to family of origin violence, thus parental IPV is neither enough nor necessary to explain adult IPV (Copp et al., 2019; Litcher & McCloskey, 2004; O'Keefe, 1998). This kind of deterministic association does not consider each individual trajectory, which may vary depending on broader mediating factors which may reinforce or hinder previous attitudes towards violence, including romantic relationships themselves (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Collins, 2003; Copp et al., 2019; Giordano et al., 2015; Kaufman-Parks, 2017; Kwong et al., 2003; Linder & Collins, 2005).

Finally, literature points to the importance of other parental variables such as the parent-child relationship as significant predictors, or at least foundations for violence in future relationships, namely, a lack of monitoring, support, warmth, psychological control and positive interactions (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Ellis & Dumas, 2018; Kaufman-Parks, 2017; Linder & Collins, 2005; O’Keefe, 1998).

The Role of Peers

Most research on IPV has focused on the intergenerational influence of family in the development of violence into adulthood, however peers begin to emerge in the literature as just as critical (Giordano et al., 2015; Minter et al., 2014). Peers play leading roles in each other’s lives during adolescence and young adulthood, influencing each other’s attitudes and behaviors (Mulford & Giordano, 2008; Olsen et al., 2010; Wolfe & Feiring, 2000). As individuals develop, family no longer constitutes as the primary source of information, particularly when it comes to relationship behaviors and sexuality. Peers therefore take the stage, serving as cognitive and behavioral models for relationships, including those with a romantic partner. Social status and belonging become central to individuals’ defining identity during these ages, and much of life takes place in a public and social context, such as educational institutions, and more contemporarily, in the digital realm, thus peer influence is constantly present (Mulford & Giordano, 2008; Oudekerk et al., 2014). Social learning theory can help to explain how these new normative behaviors, presented by valued peers, are directly and indirectly observed and imitated on the basis of their social consequences. Individuals who conform to norms are rewarded with increased popularity and those who do not are socially rejected from the group (Bandura, 1977; Ellis & Dumas, 2018; Giordano et al., 2019; Oudekerk et al., 2014; Shorey et al., 2018).

This influential power of peers may come from their equal status, as opposed to more hierarchical family structures, as well as its voluntary nature, allowing individuals to select friends who share their interests and with whom they identify with. As a result, many individuals choose their intimate partners from these peer groups, thus peer interactions are largely involved in romantic interactions (Baker, 2016; Capaldi et al., 2012; Giordano et al., 2019; Linder & Collins, 2005).

Peer norms. Many studies show that the overestimation of perceived descriptive norms (peer behaviors) is related to perceived prescriptive norms (what peers must think is acceptable) and subsequently, to individual self-reported behavior. Thus, if perceived peer descriptive norms are high, then perceived prescriptive norms are more acceptable, and individual behavior more likely. Studies confirmed this not only in cases of IPV (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Mulla et al., 2019; Shorey et al., 2018) but also in alcohol abuse (Berkowitz, 2004; Ellis & Dumas, 2018; McKool et al., 2017). This relationship between peer IPV perpetration and consequent individual perpetration was more predictive for close friends than distal peers (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Ellis & Dumas, 2018; Giordano et al., 2019; Witte et al., 2015). Thus, prescriptive norms strengthen the connection between descriptive norms and behavior. More than the actual norm, peer influence pertains to individual's perceived norms, which are often misconceptions which are shared in public discussions. In other words, what individuals think their peers do and accept is more influential than what they actually do (Berkowitz, 2004; Rimal & Real, 2003), but modelling the norm must be beneficial for the individual in order for the behavior to be executed (Rimal & Real, 2003). Among a sample of young male adults, McKool et al (2017) found an association between violent peer attitudes and subsequent individual perpetration of said violence. Specifically, males were more likely to report perpetration of sexual violence if their peers held attitudes that supported sexual coercion, however, attitudes supportive of physical IPV were not linked to self-reported physical violence.

Peers as a protective factor. Although conflict in the family environment can create risk for future violence perpetration and or victimization, several studies point to the buffering role of peers, as a potential protective factor, weakening the link between early violence experiences and future ones (Ellis & Dumas, 2018; Linder & Collins, 2005; Oudekerk et al., 2014). These high-quality, supportive friendships can serve as models of positive conflict management and intimacy, and help individuals to develop coping mechanisms, and even, to terminate abusive relationships (Ellis & Dumas, 2018; Linder & Collins, 2005; Wolfe & Feiring, 2000). In the event of IPV, victims, both male and female, who do seek help, more frequently turn to a friend, and are less likely to call upon family or other professionals (Neves, Ferreira, Abreu, Borges, & Topa, 2019; Oudekerk et al., 2014).

Peers as a risk factor. On the other hand, deviant peer groups that incentivize or model aggressive behaviors are considered risk factors, as they may moderate the association between individuals' acceptance of violence, and later perpetration or victimization in relationships (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Capaldi et al., 2012; Ehrensaft et al., 2003; Minter et al., 2014; Olsen et al., 2010). Their contribution to the development of violence in romantic relationships is regarded by some studies to be larger than that of parents (Linder & Collins, 2005; Oudekerk et al., 2014). Poor-quality friendships may inhibit positive conflict resolution, communication and emotional regulation skills, and incentivize aggressive behaviors. Furthermore, peers may have unhealthy norms regarding appropriate expectations for romantic relationships, including jealousy and controlling behaviors, as well as accepting violence as an appropriate response to conflict (Ellis & Dumas, 2018; O'Keefe, 1998). Although findings are somewhat inconsistent, peer substance and alcohol abuse, risky behaviors (Baker & Stith, 2008; Jennings et al., 2017; O'Keefe, 1998; Policastro & Daigle, 2016), as well as derogatory and hostile language can also increase the risk for abusive behaviors among both males and females already at risk (Capaldi et al., 2012).

Interventions should therefore target all youths, alerting them to the risks of IPV, helping them to define what counts as violence, and creating shared norms which are conducive of non-violent behaviors (Mulford & Giordano, 2008; Nordin, 2019; World Health Organization, 2009). According to a Portuguese national census, almost half of the reports of IPV were made by witnesses, most of which were university colleagues. Further, although most victims dealt with the situation by themselves, almost half confided in their friends, and less confided in family, emphasizing the importance of peers as allies in addressing conflict (Neves, Ferreira, Abreu, Borges & Topa, 2019).

The Role of Culture

The risk for development of violence in romantic relationships is clearly multifaceted and delves into multiple system levels. Therefore, these collected risk factors contribute to a wider "culture of violence" (Olsen et al., 2010, p. 411), in which both social and individual acceptance of violence as morally legitimate, propagates a normative unhealthy cycle (Fiske et al., 2014). Overall, there is a scarcity in the literature regarding the influence of socio-cultural factors on IPV, including stereotyped gender norms, particularly when it comes to planning

effective intervention programs (Mulla et al., 2019; Perdigão et al., 2016; Rollero, 2019). Although parents and peers have a potential to form violent behavioral scripts, these often originate from broader cultural scripts of behavior which may encourage conformity in the first place (Copp et al., 2019; Giordano et al., 2015; Lapinski & Rimal, 2005; World Health Organization, 2009). As such, parents and peers can be seen to function as social representatives of cultural norms (Nardi-Rodríguez et al, 2019).

IPV in Portugal. Although violence is a transversal phenomenon, each culture ascribes its own criteria to its definition (Antunes, 2016). In Portugal, IPV is a public health concern which needs to be regarded as more than just a private issue of the family or couple. It occurs in all sectors of society and is deeply rooted in a patriarchal cultural framework (Figueiredo et al., 2018). Until the beginning of the 21st century, Portuguese law still validated male implementation of violence in domestic contexts. Only in 2000 was domestic violence considered a public offense (*Decreto Lei no 7/2000 de de 27 de Maio da Assembleia da República*, 2000) marking the beginning of a path towards support services for IPV victims, increased scientific investigation on the topic, as well as prevention interventions to the more general population (Antunes, 2016). Still, the legislative eradication of the problem did not fully solve the deeper social issue, and as such, the descriptive and prescriptive norms of violence in Portuguese culture still need to be explored (Aizpitarte et al., 2017).

Portuguese media representations of domestic violence highlight the nature of the problem as being one focused on physical, male to female perpetration, underrepresenting other forms of violence and other victims. In a study done in Portugal in 2018 regarding the representation of domestic violence on television news broadcasts, statistics showed that women are overrepresented as victims and men as aggressors in news broadcasts (Figueiredo et al., 2018). The media is a highly influential platform which constructs a perception of the reality of a particular context. Television, and news broadcasts specifically, are particularly influential in Portuguese society. Unfortunately, several of the news pieces regarding IPV are event-oriented, reporting isolated events, ignoring the structural precedents of violence, rooted in a culture of submission, and its many consequences. Furthermore, these short coverages tend to use sensationalist language, scandalizing audiences about the crime, focusing on the aggressor, and reducing the reality of IPV to severe physical violence and even murder, rather than informing

them about the full scope of the problem. IPV is thus limited to uncontextualized and shocking reports of male-to-female attacks, which contribute to gendered stereotypes, reflecting the still traditional socio-cultural values regarding violence in Portugal (Figueiredo et al, 2018). This narrow outlook can help to communicate misperceptions of the nature and prevalence rates (descriptive norms) of IPV in Portugal (Lapinski & Rimal, 2005).

According to two studies conducted in Portuguese universities regarding youth IPV, the average victim in Portugal was female, 22 years old, heterosexual, and mostly reported the situation after the end of the relationship. Aggressors on the other hand were mainly male, and ex-partners of the victims. The main cause of violence was jealousy and occurred mainly in the household, street or online (Neves, Ferreira, Abreu, Borges, & Topa, 2019; Neves, Ferreira, Abreu, & Borges, 2019). Furthermore, students who practiced and suffered violence were generally older and held more conservative gender beliefs. Specifically, male participants held these conservative beliefs more than their female counterparts (Neves, Ferreira, Abreu, & Borges, 2019). Litcher & McClosky (2004) shared this finding that both males and females who held traditional gender roles were more accepting, and perceived lower rates of psychological violence than those who were nontraditional. Thus, even highly educated groups such as university students succumb to cultural norms which tolerate some forms of IPV (Straus, 2004). Although cultural norms may not coincide with an individuals' attitudes or beliefs, they can be influential if these norms are internalized (World Health Organization, 2009).

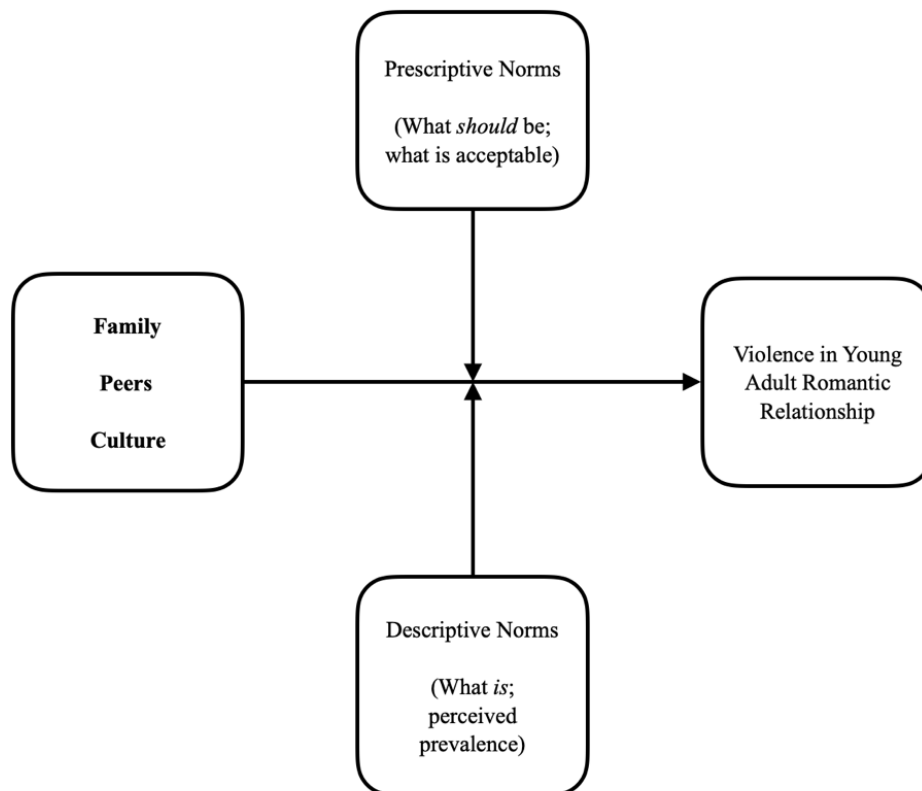
Present Study

The present study sought to fill the gap in the literature by exploring the effect of social norms on violence in early adult romantic relationships. More specifically, it asked the question: *To what extent do perceived prescriptive and descriptive norms, ascribed by family, peers and culture, influence Portuguese university students to engage in violence in their romantic relationships?* This correlational study explored how perceived prescriptive and descriptive norms moderated the association between violence in parents, peers and culture, and individual IPV (see Figure 1). For the purpose of this study, perceived norms were of focus. Family consisted of the interparental relationship, peers included friends and colleagues, and culture was Portuguese society. By understanding the moderating effects of descriptive and

prescriptive norms on violence, future prevention programs can identify the levels in which intervention should be implemented, considering different systems may be more critical during different developmental stages (Olsen et al., 2010). Essentially, by tackling these initial romantic relationships, and redefining what constitutes violence, a precedent can be set for healthier relationships later on in life.

Figure 1

Proposed model of the association between family, peers and culture and perceived relationship violence



Hypotheses

Based on existing literature, some exploratory hypotheses were drawn. As far as peers were concerned, research placed emphasis on this group’s involvement and influence in young adult’s romantic relationships. Furthermore, many studies found that overestimated perceptions of peer descriptive norms affected individual’s self-reported violence, and that this relationship was strengthened by prescriptive norms (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Mulla et al., 2019; Shorey et al., 2018). Thus, it is expected that in this investigation, peer descriptive norms will predict participant’s perception of IPV in their relationships (Hypothesis 1).

Research is limited in what concerns the effects of cultural norms on IPV. Still, the nature of relationship violence in the context of Portuguese culture portrays deeply rooted patriarchal and gender stereotyped attitudes, that are illustrated in media depictions of IPV (Figueiredo et al., 2018). These conservative beliefs may influence people to hold, or be more accepting of, traditional gender roles, which research has shown may promote IPV (Neves, Ferreira, Abreu, & Borges, 2019; Litcher & McClosky, 2004). Thus, it is expected that cultural prescriptive norms will be correlated with participant's perception of IPV in their relationships (Hypothesis 2).

Literature regarding parental norms has been inconsistent, whereby some studies found associations between witnessing parental violence (descriptive norms) and subsequent IPV (Capaldi et al., 2012; Copp et al., 2019; Ehrensaft et al., 2003), and others did not (Baker & Stith, 2008). Generally, parents were considered to be a foundational, but not deterministic factor of IPV (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Collins, 2003; Copp et al., 2019), thus this investigation expects parental descriptive norms to be correlated with participant's perception of IPV in their relationships (Hypothesis 3).

Finally, in regard to gender, research has shown some inconsistencies regarding the question of symmetry among college students. Still, several studies found there to be no significant differences between genders in regard to physical violence (Mulla et al., 2019; Straus, 2004; Antunes, 2016; Neves, Ferreira, Abreu & Borges, 2019; Rodrigues et al., 2020) or psychological violence (Neves, Ferreira, Abreu, Borges, & Topa, 2019; Neves, Ferreira, Abreu, & Borges, 2019; Rodrigues et al., 2020; Hamby & Jackson, 2010; Toplu-Demirtas & Fincham, 2020). There were however differences found in regard to sexual violence, whereby females reported higher levels of victimization than males (Hamby & Jackson, 2010; Toplu-Demirtas & Fincham, 2020; Neves, Ferreira, Abreu, Borges, & Topa, 2019; Rodrigues et al., 2020). Thus, this study expects individuals' perception of IPV in their relationships will be similar across genders for psychological and physical violence, but higher for females in regard to sexual violence (Hypothesis 4).

Chapter II – Method

Participants

This study recruited 221 Portuguese university students, (68.3% female) between the ages of 18-24 ($M_{age} = 22.56$; $SD_{age} = 2.509$) via opportunity sampling through an online questionnaire. Participants identified mainly as heterosexual (82.4%) and considered themselves non-religious (56.6%). In terms of relationships, the majority of participants were

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currently romantically involved with someone (65.2%), the average duration of relationships was 34.49 months and the average number of overall relationships was of one and two people (25.3% each). Finally, in regard to family structure, 76% of participants grew up with married parents (either their biological or adoptive parents), however only 62.4% of these parents were still together in the present time.

A total of 381 surveys were submitted, however 160 of these were excluded as they did not meet the required criteria. These criteria included being Portuguese, between 18 and 26 years old, and currently being or having been in both university and a romantic relationship. Of these participants, 221 (58%) remained. Given the predominantly heteronormative nature of the sample, non-heteronormative participants were extracted from the sample to observe if the data would change. This test did not change the results; thus, the full sample was maintained. Participants were also not offered any benefits; thus participation was entirely voluntary.

Procedure

Consent for participation in written form was given prior to the questionnaire, where all participants were briefed on the topic, as well as their right to withdraw from the study at any time, and the anonymity and confidentiality of their responses (see Appendix C). The research was also submitted to the universities' research ethics committee. The online questionnaire was open between April 11th and June 3rd. The administration of the questionnaires took place in three phases, which totaled approximately 10-15 minutes to fill in.

First, participants filled in the demographic information provided, ensuring they were eligible to participate in the study (see Appendix D). A total of 51 participants (13.39%) did not meet these criteria and were directly sent to the end of the questionnaire. Next, an adapted version of the Acceptability of Intimate Partner Violence Against Women Scale (A-IPAW Scale) was presented in order to assess participants' perception of prescriptive, followed by descriptive, norms. Finally, the Revised Conflict Tactics Scale measured participants' perception of violence within their own relationship. Only 223 out of the initial 381 participants (58.53%) completed this final section. At the end of the questionnaire, participants were provided with a small debriefing where they received additional information about the study and were thanked for their participation (see Appendix H).

Measures

Prescriptive and descriptive norms were measured using an adapted version of the A-IPAW Scale (Martín-Fernández et al., 2018). The original scale was comprised of 20 items relating to physical, psychological and emotional abuse. These items were modified to account for violence perpetrated by any gender (not exclusively male to female violence) (see Appendix A). Furthermore, for the behaviors of shouting and hitting, justifications (e.g. “if they...”) were removed as these were not relevant to the current study. Therefore, these items (1, 2, 9, 10 and 12 respectively) were modified into two items: “to shout” and “to hit”. Items 4, 13 and 14 were also eliminated as they repeated the idea of partner control which was already encompassed in item 15, “to tell the partner what they can and cannot do”. Items 19 and 5 were eliminated for the same reason, as they repeated examples of threat and sexual coercion, respectively, that were encompassed in other items more generally. It is also important to note that four of these twelve items (7, 11, 17 and 18) were not used when assessing parents, as they involved references to sexual coercion and technology use which would not be accessible to the participant. Nevertheless, all twelve items were used when assessing peers and culture. Finally, this scale was translated into Portuguese and then back translated to English by a bilingual speaker, seeing as the sample in question was Portuguese.

For the prescriptive norms, participants rated the acceptability of the scale’s twelve items on a 5-point Likert scale (0 = not acceptable, , 5 = almost always acceptable). Their prompt was “My parents/peers/culture consider the following behaviors acceptable within their own relationships” (see Appendix E). Internal consistencies for prescriptive norms were considered acceptable as they exceeded the α Cronbach of 0.7. Namely, consistencies were good for parents ($\alpha = .810$) and peers ($\alpha = .835$), and excellent for culture ($\alpha = .924$).

To assess descriptive norms, the final translated items proceeded the prompt: How frequently do you see/hear whichever one of your parents/peers/culture...” Participants were asked to assess the frequency of each behavior described in the items on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = never, 5 = almost always) (see Appendix F). Internal consistencies for descriptive norms were considered acceptable as they exceeded the α Cronbach of 0.7. More specifically, consistencies were good for parents ($\alpha = .818$) and peers ($\alpha = .866$) and excellent for culture ($\alpha = .901$).

In order to measure participants' perception of their own, as well as their partners' violence, the Revised Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS2) was used (Straus, Hamby, Boney-McCoy & Sugarman, 1996). This instrument has been widely used in research concerning relationship violence, given its good reliability and validity (Godbout et al., 2009). It is composed of five scales, each divided into two subscales: negotiation (emotional and cognitive), psychological aggression (minor and severe), physical assault (minor and severe), sexual coercion (minor and severe) and injury (minor and severe). It contains 39 items, regarding both the participant and their partner, thus resulting in a total of 78 questions (see Appendix B). For the purpose of this study, items on the CTS2 were translated into Portuguese and then back translated to English by a bilingual speaker.

Certain items from this scale were also eliminated or adapted to avoid repetition and justification of actions, including items 21, 23, 25, 27, 31, 39, 41, 55 and 65. The injury subscale of the CTS2 was not used in the present study, as research suggests that most IPV that occurs in university contexts is mild (Mulla et al., 2019). Using this adapted scale, participants were asked to measure the frequency with which they and their partners practiced the behaviors listed in the items on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = never, 5 = almost always) (see Appendix G). Scores were then averaged to reflect the perpetration of violence in terms of frequency, thus, the higher the score, the higher the frequency of violence perpetration. Internal consistencies for perceived violence tactics used by the participant were considered acceptable as they met the α Cronbach of 0.7. Specifically, they were low for negotiation ($\alpha = .719$), psychological violence ($\alpha = .708$) and sexual violence ($\alpha = .795$), and high for physical violence ($\alpha = .947$). For perceived violence perpetrated by the participant, internal consistencies were questionably low for sexual violence ($\alpha = .690$) and low for negotiation ($\alpha = .779$), however they were good for psychological violence ($\alpha = .826$), and high for physical violence ($\alpha = .938$).

Chapter III – Results

Data was analyzed using the statistics software IBM SPSS (version 26). In order to test the hypotheses of this study, general linear models were conducted, followed by linear regressions and correlation analyses. Prior to analysis, items from both scales were averaged, where higher values indicated greater perception of the measured construct.

Firstly, descriptive statistics showed that in general, participants endorsed low levels of violence perpetration and victimization. The average scores of physical, psychological and sexual violence did not exceed “not frequently”, while the negotiation tactic demonstrated high levels of endorsement ($M = 4.10$; $SD = .65$) (see Table 5, Appendix). The most frequently perceived form of violence was psychological ($M = 1.563$; $SD = .516$), followed by sexual ($M = 1.140$; $SD = .312$), and physical last ($M = 1.073$; $SD = .297$). The most used violence behavior across norm and target was shouting (see Appendix, Table 3).

Participant Perception of Norms

First, participants' perception of prescriptive and descriptive norms regarding violence in the relationships of their parents, peers and culture were analyzed by means of a repeated measures ANOVA. The variables type of norm (prescriptive vs. descriptive) and target (parents vs. peers vs. culture) were within-participants factors, and participants gender (female vs. male) was a between-participants factor. The analysis showed a significant within-subject effect for target ($F(1.93, 421.85) = 194.42, p < .000$). Specifically, a post hoc pairwise comparison, using the Bonferroni correction, showed a significant difference between the target groups culture and peers ($M = .797, SE = .044$) and culture and parents ($M = .794, SE = .051$), but no difference between peers and parents ($M = .002, SE = .045$). These differences were present independent of the type of norm, however mean cultural norm scores were slightly higher for descriptive norms ($M = 2.46$; $SD = .048$) than for prescriptive norms ($M = 2.35$; $SD = .055$). In regard to type of norm, descriptive norms ($M = 1.91$; $SD = .03$) had a slightly larger average than prescriptive norms ($M = 1.88$; $SD = .032$), however, there was no significant difference between the two ($F(1.00, 219) = .288, p > .001$).

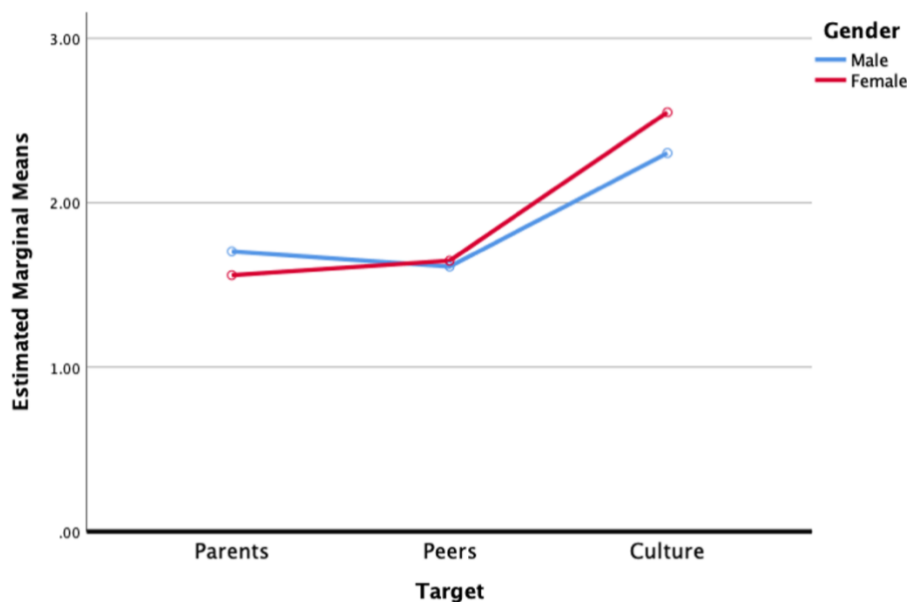
The analysis also showed a significant interaction between type of norm and target ($F(1.86, 406.29) = 3.29, p < .01$). A post hoc pairwise comparison using the Bonferroni correction showed that there was a difference between descriptive and prescriptive norms for the peer target group ($M = .065, SE = .032$), namely, that peer scores were higher for descriptive norms ($M = 1.662, SD = .038$) than prescriptive norms ($M = 1.597, SD = .035$).

Furthermore, when regarding gender and target, there was also a significant interaction found ($F(1.93, 421.85) = 8.89, p < .001$). A post hoc pairwise comparison, using Bonferroni correction, showed a significant difference between males and females in regard to cultural

norms ($M = .248$, $SE = .090$, $p < .01$). Specifically, the average scores for cultural norms were higher for females ($M = 2.55$; $SD = .051$) than males ($M = 2.30$; $SD = .074$). In regard to parental norms, mean scores were slightly higher for males ($M = 1.70$; $SD = .062$) than females ($M = 1.56$; $SD = .042$), however these were not statistically significant ($M = .144$, $SE = .075$, $p > .001$) (see figure 2). No significant difference emerged between females and males in relation to peer norms ($M = .036$, $SE = .066$, $p > .001$).

Figure 2

Estimated Marginal Means of Gender vs Target



Participant Perception of Tactics Related to Violence in Relationships

Second, participants' perception of the tactics of violence used in their own relationships, perpetrated by their partner, and themselves, were analyzed by means of a repeated measures ANOVA. The variables tactics (negotiation vs. psychological vs. sexual vs. physical) and target (participant vs. partner) were used as a within-participants factor, and participants gender (female vs. male) as a between-participants factor.

The analysis showed a significant interaction between tactic and target ($F(1.590, 348.288) = 26.80$, $p < .001$) and a three way interaction between tactic, target, and participants gender ($F(1.59, 348.29) = 6.41$, $p < .01$). Post hoc pairwise comparison, using the Bonferroni correction, showed that both male and female participants perceived themselves ($M = 4.08$, SE

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= .08 and $M = 4.26$; $SE = .05$, respectively) to use more negotiation tactics than their partner ($M = 3.83$, $SE = .09$ and $M = 4.07$; $SE = .06$, respectively, $ps < .001$). Furthermore, male participants' perceived their partners to use more psychological violence than themselves ($M = 1.59$, $SE = .07$ and $M = 1.45$; $SE = .06$, respectively, $p < .001$) and female participants perceive their partners to use more sexual violence than themselves ($M = 1.17$, $SE = .03$ and $M = 1.08$; $SE = .03$, respectively, $p < .001$).

Correlation Between Norms and Violence Tactics

A correlation analysis was conducted to identify the relationships between norms and violence tactics.

Table 1

Correlations between norms, target and types of violence

Norm	Target	Negotiation		Psychological Violence		Sexual Violence		Physical Violence	
		M	P	M	P	M	P	M	P
Prescriptive	Parents	-.077	-.200**	.183**	.159*	.088	.078	-.003	.003
Norms	Peers	-.136*	-.106	.322**	.268**	.111	.173**	.188**	.143*
	Culture	.046	-.010	.197**	.237**	.024	.064	.150*	.159*
Descriptive	Parents	-.079	-.173*	.085	.068	.039	-.004	-.061	-.047
Norms	Peers	-.045	-.092	.326**	.302**	.046	.131	.094	.069
	Culture	.044	.007	.133*	.118	-.001	.059	.032	.028

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .001$. M = Me. P = Partner.

This analysis indicated that overall, prescriptive norms were more related to perceived violence tactics than descriptive norms, in other words, perceived acceptability of norms was related to reported violence more than reported frequency of observed behaviors. Furthermore, peer norms appeared to be more frequently correlated with the different violence tactics than parents and culture, independent of norm. Perceived partner violence was also correlated more frequently with violence than the perception of participants' own violence in their relationship.

When regarding the four tactics of violence, perceived psychological violence was the most frequently correlated tactic to both prescriptive and descriptive norms. More specifically, all three target groups within prescriptive norms demonstrated significant, weak, positive

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correlations, when perpetrated both by the participant and their partner (see Table 1). Notwithstanding, there were also weak, positive correlations between peer descriptive norms and psychological violence conducted by both the participant and their partner. Descriptive norms of culture were also positively correlated to perceived psychological violence performed by the participant.

Perceived negotiation tactics used by the partner appeared to be significantly correlated with the parent group for both prescriptive and descriptive norms. These correlations were negative and weak, indicating that the more participants perceived their partners to use negotiation strategies, the less they perceived their parents to practice and accept IPV in their relationship, or vice versa.

There was also a significant correlation between prescriptive norms of peers and the negotiation tactic perceived to be used by the participant. This weak, negative correlation indicated that the more participants perceived themselves to use negotiation strategies, the less they perceived their peers to accept IPV in their relationships, or vice versa.

When analyzing sexual violence, there was only one weak, positive correlation between perceived partner violence and prescriptive norms of peers. Finally, when examining physical violence, significant correlations were found between the prescriptive norms of both peers and culture, and perceived violence perpetrated by both the participant and partner (see Table 1).

Linear Regression Analysis

Regression analyses with the perceived prescriptive and descriptive norms by target groups as predictors were performed for each of the four violence tactics as dependent variables: negotiation, psychological, sexual and physical violence.

Only the regression analysis with the psychological violence tactic as dependent variable yielded statistical significance ($F(6, 214) = 6.697, p < .001$). The model accounted for 15.8% of the variance of the dependent variable. Nevertheless, the analysis of the coefficients of the regression confirmed that only the descriptive norms of peers predicted the use of psychological violence (see Table 2).

Table 2

Coefficients of Psychological Violence Variable

Column	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
Head					
(Constant)	.794	.165		4,805	.000
PN Parents	.166	.092	.182	1,801	.073
PN Peers	.107	.089	.101	1,201	.231
PN Culture	.094	.053	.140	1,761	.080
DN Parents	-.114	.093	-.120	-1,226	.222
DN Peers	.245	.085	.250	2,896	.004
DN Culture	-.053	.062	-.069	-.853	.394

a. Dependent Variable: Psychological Violence. PN (Prescriptive norms), DN (Descriptive norms).

Chapter IV – Discussion

The aim of the current study was to examine the extent to which perceived prescriptive and descriptive norms, ascribed by family, peers and culture, influenced Portuguese university students to engage in violence in their romantic relationships. First and foremost, the findings suggested that in general terms, performance and acceptance of IPV was perceived to be relatively low by both males and females, which is congruent with the literature (Copp et al., 2019; Nordin, 2019; Rollero, 2019), and negotiation tactics demonstrated high levels of endorsement in both males and females.

Overall, the main results showed that prescriptive norms were more related to perceived violence tactics than descriptive norms. In regard to the sources of these norms, peers were the group that influenced IPV the most in this sample, even though culture was given the highest score of violence out of the three groups. The violence type most reported by both males and females was psychological, and physical violence was the least reported.

Hypothesis 1 posited that peer descriptive norms would predict individual perception of IPV, and this hypothesis was founded in the results. More specifically, these norms predicted psychological, but not physical or sexual violence. This finding is in line with several studies which have shown that perceived peer descriptive norms (peer behaviors) affect perceived

prescriptive norms (what peers must think is acceptable), which in turn predicts perceived individual IPV (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Berkowitz, 2004; Ellis & Dumas, 2018; McKool et al., 2017; Mulla et al., 2019; Shorey et al., 2018). Nevertheless, literature suggests that descriptive norms alone do not cause subsequent violent behavior, with prescriptive norms, group identity and outcome beliefs functioning as moderators in this interaction (Rimal & Real, 2003). In this investigation however, these moderators were not studied, and thus the complex interaction between descriptive peer norms and individuals' psychological violence is unknown. Still, much of this existing literature predicted for general, or physical and sexual violence, and not psychological violence specifically.

In accordance with other studies of Portuguese university students, this study also found psychological violence to be the most common form of abuse on campus (Neves, Ferreira, Abreu, Borges, & Topa, 2019; Neves, Ferreira, Abreu, & Borges, 2019; Rodrigues et al., 2020). In fact, several studies found that psychological violence is considered the most prevalent, long-lasting and socially accepted form of violence among young adults, yet it is often neglected in research (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Antunes, 2016; Copp et al., 2019; Dim & Elabor-Idemudia, 2018; Ferreira et al., 2019; Halpern et al., 2004; Kwong et al., 2003; Laskey, Bates & Taylor, 2019; Toplu-Demirtas & Fincham, 2020). Furthermore, this study found psychological violence to be the tactic most frequently correlated to both prescriptive and descriptive norms and shouting specifically to be the most endorsed behavior across norm and target, which is not explored much in literature. Thus, these results point to the importance of studying more subtle and manipulative forms of violence as well as more visible ones. This work would be highly beneficial as psychological abuse usually co-exists or precedes other forms of violence. Further, violence has the tendency to progressively escalate in frequency, intensity and danger, thus bringing increased negative risks for the victim (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Antunes, 2016; Breiding et al., 2015; Dim & Elabor-Idemudia, 2018; Ferreira et al., 2019; Gover et al., 2008; Rollero, 2019; Toplu-Demirtas & Fincham, 2020).

Focusing back on the target group of peers, the current study also found that overall, peer groups appeared to be more frequently correlated with the different violence tactics than parent and cultural groups, independent of norm. Thus, both peer behaviors and attitudes were important factors in their association to violence in relationships. This finding is widely

supported by research, as peers play leading roles in each other's lives during young adulthood, influencing each other's attitudes and behaviors (Mulford & Giordano, 2008; Olsen et al., 2010; Wolfe & Feiring, 2000). These relationships, which are voluntary and equal in status, make students identify with peers, and even, select partners from these groups (Baker, 2016; Capaldi et al., 2012; Giordano et al., 2019; Linder & Collins, 2005). Social learning theory helps explain how these new normative behaviors are both directly and indirectly modelled and validated by peers, making conformity important for belonging (Bandura, 1977; Ellis & Dumas, 2018; Giordano et al., 2019; Oudekerk et al., 2014; Shorey et al., 2018).

More specifically, in this study, peer prescriptive norms were associated to perceived physical violence perpetrated by both the participant and partner. In other words, if peers perceived physical violence to be more acceptable, perceived perpetration of violence by both the participant and their partner would be higher. Additionally, peer prescriptive norms were also correlated to perceived sexual violence perpetrated by a partner. This was in line with a study that found that young male adults were more likely to report perpetration of sexual violence if their peers held attitudes that supported sexually coercion (McKool et al., 2017). These attitudes could also be applied to victim's acceptance of abuse, as individuals with more traditional gender roles could be more likely to accept sexual violence in their relationships (Litcher & McClosky, 2004).

It was expected that there would be an association between perceived cultural prescriptive norms and individual's perception of IPV in their relationships (Hypothesis 2). This correlation was in fact found, in regard to perceived physical violence perpetrated by both the participant and partner. However, there was no correlation to psychological or sexual abuse. This finding can be supported by research done on Portuguese media representations of physical violence. The sensationalist depictions of violence in relationships may contribute to the disapproval of cultural norms regarding physical violence, and subsequent individual lack of perceived physical violence in their relationships, or, the opposite (Figueiredo et al., 2018). In the case of this study, physical violence endorsement was low, and even though culture was perceived to possess the highest levels of violence among all target groups, it was not the group that influenced participants' violence in their own relationship the most. Interestingly, females rated cultural violence higher than males, perhaps due to the deeply rooted gender inequalities

embedded in Portuguese culture that still portray woman as the main victims of IPV (Figueiredo et al., 2018).

Hypothesis 3 posited that parental descriptive norms would be associated with individual perception of IPV. This claim was not supported by results, as parents showed no significant correlation to IPV perpetration or victimization. This finding inserts itself into the inconsistent and inconclusive body of research concerning the intergenerational transmission of violence (Aizpitarte et al., 2017; Baker & Stith, 2008; Capaldi et al., 2012; Copp et al., 2019; Ehrensaft et al., 2003). Nevertheless, male participants indicated more violence between their parents than females did. This result could have merely been related to the sample at hand. Gender differences regarding witnessing interparental violence during childhood and subsequent relationship violence are also inconsistent, either showing no differences (Litcher & McCloskey, 2004), or that men are at more risk than women (Dim & Elabor-Idemudia, 2018; Gover, Kaukinen & Fox, 2008). Still, this does not explain why males reported witnessing more interparental violence than females.

Another finding related to this target group was that parental frequency and acceptance of IPV was negatively correlated to perceived use of negotiation tactics by the partner. In other words, the more a partner was seen to negotiate, the less parental IPV was perceived, or vice versa. This result is congruent with the literature which suggests that the quality of one's early relationships contributes not only to the potential intergenerational transmission of violence (Capaldi et al., 2012; Copp et al., 2019; Ehrensaft et al., 2003), but also, more generally, to "conflict management skills" (Linder & Collins, 2005, p. 258).

Finally, Hypothesis 4 predicted that individual's perception of IPV in their relationships would be similar across genders for psychological and physical violence, but higher for females in regard to sexual violence. This was partially supported by results, whereby female participants perceived their partners to be more sexually violent than them. Considering the heteronormativity of the present sample, it can be assumed that most of these partners were male, and thus this finding is in line with research, which states that overall violence forms do not differ between gender, with the exception of sexual violence, which seems to affect females more than males (Hamby & Jackson, 2010; Toplu-Demirtas & Fincham, 2020). Sexual violence was one of the least reported form of violence in this study, which is in line with other studies

conducted in Portuguese universities. Still, in these studies, males did not perceive sexual abuse in their female partners as much as females did, confirming that female victimization is more frequent than that of males in regard to sexual violence (Neves, Ferreira, Abreu, Borges, & Topa, 2019; Neves, Ferreira, Abreu, & Borges, 2019).

Nevertheless, this last hypothesis was only partially supported given the fact that males perceived more psychological violence in their partners than females did. Although the literature concerning gender differences in psychological violence perpetration and victimization is inconsistent, some studies support the fact that females perpetrate more abuse than males (Dim & Elabor-Idemudia, 2018; Gover et al., 2008). Finally, physical violence was found to be similar across genders, which is supported by research (Mulla et al., 2019; Straus, 2004). However, these results may have been due to the fact that only mild physical violence was studied, not taking into account potential gender differences present in more severe injury cases (Ahmadabadi et al., 2017; Hamby & Jackson, 2010). Furthermore, the Revised Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS2) does not report the contextual nature of the violence perpetrated, thus it is unclear if there were gendered differences regarding self-defense (Ahmadabadi et al., 2017; Copp et al., 2019; Dobash & Dobash, 2004; Gover et al., 2008; Kwong et al., 2003; Litcher & McCloskey, 2004; Policastro & Daigle, 2016).

To conclude, participants perceived their partners to perpetrate violence more often than themselves, and they also perceived their own use of negotiation tactics as higher than that of their partner. This tendency to view the self as less conflictive than the partner can be explained by social desirability, and the stigma associated with being disagreeable and aggressive in intimate relationships. Overall however, females used more negotiation tactics than males, which is in line with a study that shows that women turn to emotional and cognitive negotiation strategies more often than men (Antunes, 2016).

Limitations and Future Research

One limitation of the study is its lack of generalizability. Similar to literature, this study overrepresents female and heterosexual participants, which does not allow for a more encompassing picture on the problematic at hand (Ahmadabadi et al., 2017; Copp et al., 2019; Halpern et al., 2004; Laskey, Bates & Taylor, 2019; Lien & Lorentzen, 2019; Minter et al.,

2014). Furthermore, the fact that this sample is limited to university students does not give information relevant to Portuguese youth who are not in any form of higher education.

Another limitation of the study is the use of self-report assessment. Although this measurement provided useful information, there is also a risk that individuals attenuated their perpetration reports to be more socially desirable when evaluating their own relationships. Furthermore, self-reports rely on retrospective accounts of interparental and intimate partner violence, which may be subject to inaccuracies (Gover et al., 2008). More specifically, one of the instruments used in this study, the CTS2, although frequently used in IPV research, has also been criticized for not investigating the contextual nature of violence (e.g. if aggression was perpetration in self-defense) (Ahmadabadi et al., 2017; Copp et al., 2019; Dobash & Dobash, 2004; Gover et al., 2008; Kwong et al., 2003; Litcher & McCloskey, 2004; Policastro & Daigle, 2016). Furthermore, the “Injury Scale” of the instrument was not included and may have limited the retrieval of data regarding differences in male and female injury levels. The cross-sectional nature of the study can also be seen as a limitation, as it does not allow for changes to be observed over time, as different groups may be more influential depending on the moment in time.

Furthermore, qualitative data could complement the quantitative results found in this investigation. For instance, a future study could examine the influence of peers in a broader cultural context by conducting interviews. Individuals could then provide additional information about justifications and conditions under which violence may be acceptable, which were not explored in this study. This could provide a better understanding of the complex dynamics of perceived social norms, and how they affect behavior and attitudes concerning IPV.

In relation to peers, a limitation of this study was that there was no specification of if these were one’s close friend group, or general acquaintances. This distinction has shown differences in individual’s perceptions of norms, as people are more likely to identify with their close friend group than distant peers (Witte et al., 2015).

In regard to parents, this study did not find perceived inter-parental violence to be a predictor of subsequent violence. Thus, a future study could investigate the quality of the parent-child relationship instead. Research points to the influence of this relationship as

potentially more important than witnessing violence, particularly in regard to how caring, controlling and rejecting the parent is, how much time spent with the child, and how much the child feels respected, trusted and accepted by them (Capaldi et al., 2012; Kaufman-Parks, 2017). Finally, it could be interesting for a future study to examine and compare perceived norms of IPV against collective norms, to identify if the two are congruent or not, in the eyes of young Portuguese adults.

Practical Implications

It is clear from the results of this study that practical applications should focus on peers and the wider cultural and social framework of university to redefine what violence means and what it looks like in romantic relationships. Given that peers appear to be highly influential, and may be protective factors, prevention programs could target them as allies in violence reporting. Also, more general socio-cultural norms that may overestimate the use or acceptance of certain more subtle forms of violence could be addressed. Overall, psychological violence should be explored in these interventions, as physical and sexual violence are more widely viewed as unacceptable, whereas psychological abuse and coercion is less obvious. Programs should open the conversation of violence to all people, irrespective of gender and sexual orientation, in order to cut the stigma and shame associated with victimization for men, and to give a voice to non-heteronormative victims who may suffer IPV in silence, as they are frequently excluded from these discussions (Laskey, Bates & Taylor, 2019). Ultimately, interventions should seek to educate and deconstruct the myths and beliefs that sustain the legitimization of some forms of violence over others (Rodrigues et al., 2020). Involving entire communities in this process of re-conceptualization of IPV, from parents, to peers to cultural institutions, would likely to be the most effective path to combating this pertinent issue.

Conclusion

The present study explored the relationship between perceived descriptive and prescriptive norms ascribed by parents, peers and culture, and engagement in IPV among Portuguese university students. Although overall endorsement of violence in relationships was relatively low, results revealed that the peer group was most predictive of psychological violence in young adult relationships, specifically through descriptive norms. The current findings add to the existing literature by demonstrating how peers are a significant group of influence during this

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stage of life, and how psychological violence is more accepted than other forms of more physical violence. Furthermore, the results demonstrate that the perception of violence in Portuguese culture is high, and although this did not appear to influence participant's own violence, it would be important to understand the possible effects this perception may have on gendered stereotypes in Portuguese society. Thus, future research and programs should seek to redefine what counts as violence, and discuss cultural norms within the school context that highlight non-violent behavior in relationships.

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Tables

Table 3*Mean scores of behaviours per group, per norm and overall*

Behaviour	Parents			Peers			Culture			Overall
	PN	DN	Mean	PN	DN	Mean	PN	DN	Mean	Mean
Shout	2,31	2,5	2,405	2,17	2,15	2,16	3,06	3,24	3,15	2,57
Threaten to leave	1,41	1,26	1,335	1,56	1,65	1,605	2,43	2,47	2,45	1,797
Censor mistakes	2,15	2,14	2,145	2,06	2,27	2,165	2,93	2,98	2,955	2,422
Control dress	1,72	1,45	1,585	1,75	1,76	1,755	2,83	2,79	2,81	2,05
Control phone	1,4	1,3	1,35	1,71	1,97	1,84	2,7	2,85	2,775	1,988
What they can('t) do	1,73	1,68	1,705	1,74	2,09	1,915	2,83	2,92	2,875	2,165
Record on phone	-	-	-	1,78	1,67	1,725	2,28	2,21	2,245	1,985
Send messages	-	-	-	1,59	1,62	1,605	2,2	2,21	2,205	1,905
Pressure sex when dating	-	-	-	1,35	1,36	1,355	2,22	2,24	2,23	1,7925
Pressure sex money	-	-	-	1,14	1,16	1,15	1,9	1,83	1,865	1,5075
Hit	1,06	1,07	1,065	1,04	1,12	1,08	1,75	2,09	1,92	1,355
Throw/ smash objects	1,24	1,27	1,255	1,25	1,28	1,265	2,12	2,23	2,175	1,565

**PN = Prescriptive norms. DN = Descriptive norms.*

Table 4

Mean scores of violence tactics used by norm and target group

Norm and Target Group	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
NP Parents	1.00	4.38	1.6273	.56545
NP Peers	1.00	3.58	1.5973	.48704
NP Culture	1.00	4.67	2.4374	.76988
ND Parents	1.00	4.50	1.5826	.54457
ND Peers	1.00	3.33	1.6742	.52567
ND Culture	1.00	5.00	2.5049	.67747

**PN = Prescriptive norms. DN = Descriptive norms.*

Table 5

Mean scores of violence tactics used

Violence Tactic	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Negotiation	1.00	5.00	4.0962	.65101
Psychological	1.00	3.92	1.5626	.51607
Sexual	1.00	3.86	1.1396	.31223
Physical	1.00	4.13	1.0732	.29730

Appendix A – Adaptation of the A-IPVAW Scale

a-ipvaw1	to shout at their partner if they are constantly nagging/arguing
a-ipvaw2	to shout at their partner if they are not treating them with respect
a-ipvaw3	to set limits on how their partner dresses
a-ipvaw4	to set limits on where their partner goes
a-ipvaw5	to push someone into having sex if they have been flirting with them all night
a-ipvaw6	to control their partner’s mobile phone
a-ipvaw7	to push someone into having sex if they have been dating him
a-ipvaw8	to threaten to leave their partner in order to achieve something they want
a-ipvaw9	to hit their partner if they have been unfaithful
a-ipvaw10	to hit their partner if they are constantly nagging/arguing
a-ipvaw11	to push someone into having sex if they have spent a lot of money on them
a-ipvaw12	to hit their partner if they are not treating them with respect
a-ipvaw13	to prevent their partner from seeing family and friends
a-ipvaw14	not to allow their partner to work or study
a-ipvaw15	to tell their partner what they can or cannot do
a-ipvaw16	to throw/smash objects during an argument
a-ipvaw17	to record their partner with a mobile phone or video camera, or take pictures of them without their knowledge
a-ipvaw18	to send messages or images of their partner without their permission
a-ipvaw19	to threaten their partner with hurting them or others if they leave them
a-ipvaw20	to constantly reproach their partner for the mistakes they have made during an argument

**Pronouns have been modified from his/he and her/she to their/they to account for violence from all sexes, and not exclusively male to female violence, as accounted for in the original scale.*

Appendix B – Revised Conflict Tactics Scale

<i>Negotiation Scale Items^a</i>		
<i>Question Number</i>	<i>Subscale</i>	<i>Item</i>
1	Emotional	I showed my partner I cared even though we disagreed
13	Emotional	Showed respect for my partner's feelings about an issue
39	Emotional	Said I was sure we could work out a problem
3	Cognitive	Explained my side of a disagreement to my partner
59	Cognitive	Suggested a compromise to a disagreement
77	Cognitive	Agreed to try a solution to a disagreement my partner suggested

<i>Psychological Aggression Scale Items</i>			
<i>Question Number</i>	<i>Relation to CTS1^b</i>	<i>Subscale</i>	<i>Item</i>
5	Old	Minor	Insulted or swore at my partner
35	New	Minor	Shouted or yelled at my partner
49	Old	Minor	Stomped out of the room or house or yard during a disagreement
67	Mod	Minor	Said something to spite my partner
25	New	Severe	Called my partner fat or ugly
29	New	Severe	Destroyed something belonging to my partner
65	New	Severe	Accused my partner of being a lousy lover
69	Old	Severe	Threatened to hit or throw something at my partner

<i>Physical Assault Scale Items</i>			
<i>Question Number</i>	<i>Relation to CTS1^b</i>	<i>Subscale</i>	<i>Item</i>
7	Mod	Minor	Threw something at my partner that could hurt
9	New	Minor	Twisted my partner's arm or hair
17	Mod	Minor	Pushed or shoved my partner
45	Mod	Minor	Grabbed my partner
53	Old	Minor	Slapped my partner
21	Old	Severe	Used a knife or gun on my partner
27	Mod	Severe	Punched or hit my partner with something that could hurt
33	Old	Severe	Choked my partner
37	New	Severe	Slammed my partner against a wall
43	Old	Severe	Beat up my partner
61	New	Severe	Burned or scalded my partner on purpose
73	Mod	Severe	Kicked my partner

<i>Sexual Coercion Scale Items^c</i>		
<i>Question Number</i>	<i>Subscale</i>	<i>Item</i>
15	Minor	Made my partner have sex without a condom
51	Minor	Insisted on sex when my partner did not want to (but did not use physical force)
63	Minor	Insisted my partner have oral or anal sex (but did not use physical force)
19	Severe	Used force (like hitting, holding down, or using a weapon) to make my partner have oral or anal sex
47	Severe	Used force (like hitting, holding down, or using a weapon) to make my partner have sex
57	Severe	Used threats to make my partner have oral or anal sex
75	Severe	Used threats to make my partner have sex

<i>Injury Scale Items^c</i>		
<i>Question Number</i>	<i>Subscale</i>	<i>Item</i>
11	Minor	Had a sprain, bruise, or small cut because of a fight with my partner
71	Minor	Felt physical pain that still hurt the next day because of a fight with my partner
23	Severe	Passed out from being hit on the head by my partner in a fight
31	Severe	Went to a doctor because of a fight with my partner
41	Severe	Needed to see a doctor because of a fight with my partner, but I didn't
55	Severe	Had a broken bone from a fight with my partner

a. All items are new to the CTS2 and replace the former reasoning items.

b. Compares CTS2 item with items in CTS1. Modified from CTS1.

c. All items are new to the CTS2.

Appendix C – Informed Consent

No seguimento do Mestrado em Psicologia das Relações Interculturais na Universidade ISCTE de Lisboa, venho solicitar a tua colaboração neste estudo.

O presente estudo tem como objetivo perceber a percepção de violência nas relações íntimas entre jovens adultos universitários em Portugal. Se a qualquer momento do questionário te sentires incomodado(a) pelas questões, podes parar de preencher o questionário.

Os dados recolhidos serão confidenciais, tratados como um todo e não individualmente, e a sua eventual publicação e apresentação só poderá ter lugar em revistas da especialidade ou em conferências científicas.

Os dados são recolhido on-line através da plataforma Qualtrics (<https://www.qualtrics.com/pt-br/>), gravados e armazenados na mesma. A plataforma possibilita proteger os dados de uma forma anónima e segura (<https://www.qualtrics.com/pt-br/research-suite/>), e o IP e a localização do teu computador não serão gravados.

Caso aceites participar, tenhas entre 18 a 26 anos de idade, vivas em Portugal, e estejas ou tenhas estado numa relação amorosa, continua este formulário respondendo às questões.

O questionário tem cerca de 10 minutos de duração. Muito obrigada pela tua colaboração.

Ao clicar no botão abaixo, declaras que recebeste e leste todas as informações acima apresentadas e confirmas participar no estudo

Sim/Não

Appendix D – Socio-Demographic Questions

1. Nacionalidade Portuguesa
 - Sim/Não

2. Frequentas/já frequentaste uma universidade Portuguesa?
 - Sim/Não

3. Idade:
 - 18/19/20/21/22/23/24/25

4. Género
 - Masculino/Feminino/Outro/Prefiro não dizer

5. Orientação Sexual
 - Heterossexual/Bissexual/Homossexual/Outro

6. Estás atualmente numa relação amorosa? (Uma relação amorosa é designada por um relacionamento no qual existe intimidade física e/ou emocional, estabelecidas pelos dois parceiros de modo periódico.)
 - Sim/Não

7. Qual foi a duração do teu relacionamento mais longo?
 - _____

8. Em quantas relações amorosas é que já tiveste?
 - _____

9. Consideras-te religioso(a)?
 - Sim/Não

10. Qual a tua estrutura familiar atual?
 - Pais biológicos/adotivos casados
 - Pais recasados
 - Pais divorciados
 - Pais solteiros
 - Outro

11. Qual foi a tua estrutura familiar ao crescer?
 - Pais biológicos/adotivos casados
 - Pais recasados
 - Pais divorciados
 - Pais solteiros
 - Outro

Appendix E – Scale for Prescriptive Norms

De seguida vais encontrar uma serie de comportamentos. Pedimos que dê uma estimativa da aceitabilidade dos seguintes comportamentos, numa escala entre 1-5 em que 1 = inaceitável, 2 = pouco aceitável, 3 = às vezes aceitável, 4 = aceitável, 5 = quase sempre aceitável

(A meu ver,) Os meus **pais** consideram aceitáveis os seguintes comportamentos dentro da sua relação amorosa:

	1	2	3	4	5
Gritar					
Ameaçar deixar o parceiro para conseguir algo que se quer					
Censurar constantemente o parceiro pelos erros que cometeu durante uma discussão					
Definir limites sobre a forma como o parceiro se veste					
Controlar o telemóvel do parceiro					
Dizer ao parceiro o que é que pode ou não pode fazer					
Bater no parceiro					
Atirar ou esmagar objetos durante um argumento					

(A meu ver,) Os meus **pares (amigos/colegas)** consideram aceitáveis os seguintes comportamentos dentro das suas relações amorosas:

	1	2	3	4	5
Gritar					
Ameaçar deixar o parceiro para conseguir algo que se quer					
Censurar constantemente o parceiro pelos erros que cometeu durante uma discussão					
Definir limites sobre a forma como o parceiro se veste					
Controlar o telemóvel do parceiro					
Dizer ao parceiro o que é que pode ou não pode fazer					
Gravar o parceiro com um telemóvel ou uma câmara, ou tirar fotografias sem o seu conhecimento					
Enviar mensagens ou imagens do seu parceiro sem a sua permissão					
Pressionar alguém a ter relações sexuais se estiverem a namorar					
Pressionar alguém a ter relações sexuais se tiver gastado muito dinheiro com o parceiro					
Bater no parceiro					

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Atirar ou esmagar objetos durante um argumento					
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(A meu ver,) A **sociedade portuguesa** considera aceitável os seguintes comportamentos nas relações amorosas:

	1	2	3	4	5
Gritar					
Ameaçar deixar o parceiro para conseguir algo que se quer					
Censurar constantemente o parceiro pelos erros que cometeu durante uma discussão					
Definir limites sobre a forma como o parceiro se veste					
Controlar o telemóvel do parceiro					
Dizer ao parceiro o que é que pode ou não pode fazer					
Gravar o parceiro com um telemóvel ou uma câmara, ou tirar fotografias sem o seu conhecimento					
Enviar mensagens ou imagens do seu parceiro sem a sua permissão					
Pressionar alguém a ter relações sexuais se estiverem a namorar					
Pressionar alguém a ter relações sexuais se tiver gastado muito dinheiro com o parceiro					
Bater no parceiro					
Atirar ou esmagar objetos durante um argumento					

Appendix F – Scale for Descriptive Norms

De seguida vais encontrar uma série de comportamentos. Pedimos que dê uma estimativa da frequência com que os seguintes comportamentos acontecem, numa escala entre 1-5 em que 1 = nunca, 2 = com pouca frequência, 3 = às vezes, 4 = frequentemente, 5 = quase sempre

Com que frequência vês/ouves qualquer um dos teus **pais** a:

	1	2	3	4	5
Gritar					
Ameaçar deixar o parceiro para conseguir algo que se quer					
Censurar constantemente o parceiro pelos erros que cometeu durante uma discussão					
Definir limites sobre a forma como o parceiro se veste					
Controlar o telemóvel do parceiro					
Dizer ao parceiro o que é que pode ou não pode fazer					
Bater no parceiro					
Atirar ou esmagar objetos durante um argumento					

Com que frequência vês/ouves qualquer um dos teus **pares (amigos/colegas)** dentro de uma relação amorosa a:

	1	2	3	4	5
Gritar					
Ameaçar deixar o parceiro para conseguir algo que se quer					
Censurar constantemente o parceiro pelos erros que cometeu durante uma discussão					
Definir limites sobre a forma como o parceiro se veste					
Controlar o telemóvel do parceiro					
Dizer ao parceiro o que é que pode ou não pode fazer					
Gravar o parceiro com um telemóvel ou uma câmara, ou tirar fotografias sem o seu conhecimento					
Enviar mensagens ou imagens do seu parceiro sem a sua permissão					
Pressionar alguém a ter relações sexuais se estiverem a namorar					
Pressionar alguém a ter relações sexuais se tiver gastado muito dinheiro com o parceiro					
Bater no parceiro					
Atirar ou esmagar objetos durante um argumento					

FAMILY, PEERS, CULTURE & INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE

Com que frequência vê/ouves os seguintes comportamentos entre casais na **sociedade** portuguesa:

	1	2	3	4	5
Gritar					
Ameaçar deixar o parceiro para conseguir algo que se quer					
Censurar constantemente o parceiro pelos erros que cometeu durante uma discussão					
Definir limites sobre a forma como o parceiro se veste					
Controlar o telemóvel do parceiro					
Dizer ao parceiro o que é que pode ou não pode fazer					
Gravar o parceiro com um telemóvel ou uma câmara, ou tirar fotografias sem o seu conhecimento					
Enviar mensagens ou imagens do seu parceiro sem a sua permissão					
Pressionar alguém a ter relações sexuais se estiverem a namorar					
Pressionar alguém a ter relações sexuais se tiver gastado muito dinheiro com o parceiro					
Bater no parceiro					
Atirar ou esmagar objetos durante um argumento					

Appendix G – Scale for Perceived Violence in Relationship

Independentemente de quão bem um casal se relacione, há momentos de discórdia, de desentendimento, outros em que são esperadas reações diferentes um do outro, ou discussões motivadas por mau humor, cansaço, entre outras razões. Os casais também têm diferentes maneiras de estipular as suas diferenças. Esta é uma lista de coisas que podem acontecer quando têm diferenças.

Por favor, clica na frequência com que praticaste as seguintes ações no último ano, e a frequência com que o/a teu/tua parceiro/a praticou as mesmas, numa escala de 1 a 5, em que: 1 = nunca, 2 = pouco frequente, 3 = às vezes, 4 = frequente, 5 = quase sempre. Caso não estejas atualmente numa relação, considera a tua última relação.

	1	2	3	4	5
Mostrei respeito pelos sentimentos do/a meu/minha parceiro/a acerca de um assunto					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a mostrou respeito pelos meus sentimentos acerca de um assunto					
Expliquei o meu lado de um desentendimento ao/à meu/minha parceiro/a					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a explicou-me o seu lado de um desentendimento					
Sugeri um meio-termo para um desentendimento					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a sugeriu um meio-termo para um desentendimento					
Concordei em tentar uma solução para um desentendimento que o/a meu/minha parceiro/a sugeriu					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a concordou em tentar uma solução para um desentendimento que eu sugeri					
Insultei ou fui grosseiro/a com o/a meu/minha parceiro/a					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a insultou ou foi grosseiro/a comigo					
Gritei com o/a meu/minha parceiro/a					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a gritou comigo					
Saí intempestivamente de um lugar/situação/contexto durante um desentendimento					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a saiu intempestivamente de um lugar/situação/contexto durante um desentendimento					
Embirrei deliberadamente com o/a meu/minha parceiro/a para o/a chatear					

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O/a meu/minha parceiro/a embirrou deliberadamente comigo para me chatear					
Destruí algo que pertencia ao/à meu/minha parceiro/a					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a destruiu algo que me pertencia					
Ameacei bater ou atirar algo ao/à meu/minha parceiro/a					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a ameaçou bater ou atirar-me algo					
Fiz o/a meu/minha parceiro/a ter relações sexuais sem preservativo					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a fez-me ter relações sexuais sem preservativo					
Insisti em ter relações sexuais com o/a meu/minha parceiro/a quando ele/ela não queria (mas não recorri a força física)					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a insistiu em ter relações sexuais comigo quando eu não queria (mas não recorreu a força física)					
Insisti em ter sexo oral ou anal com o/a meu/minha parceiro/a (mas não recorri a força física)					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a insistiu em ter sexo oral ou anal comigo (mas não recorreu a força física)					
Recorri a força física (tal como bater, agarrar ou usar uma arma) para que o/a meu/minha parceiro/a fizesse sexo oral ou anal					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a recorreu a força física (tal como bater, agarrar ou usar uma arma) para que eu fizesse sexo oral ou anal					
Recorri a força física (como bater, segurar, ou até o uso de uma arma) para que o/a meu/minha parceiro/a fizesse sexo comigo					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a recorreu a força física (como bater, segurar, ou até o uso de uma arma) para que eu fizesse sexo com ele/ela					
Recorri a ameaças para forçar o/a meu/minha parceiro/a a fazer sexo oral ou anal					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a recorreu a ameaças para me forçar a fazer sexo oral ou anal					
Recorri a ameaças para forçar o/a meu/minha parceiro/a a ter sexo					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a recorreu a ameaças para me forçar a ter sexo					

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Atirei algo ao/à meu/minha parceiro/a que pudesse magoá-lo/la					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a atirou-me algo que me pudesse magoar					
Torci o braço ou o cabelo do/da meu/minha parceiro/a					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a torceu o meu braço ou cabelo					
Empurrei ou forcei o/a meu/minha parceiro/a					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a empurrou ou forçou-me					
Agarrei o/a meu/minha parceiro/a					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a agarrou-me					
Dei um estalo ao/à meu/minha parceiro/a					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a deu-me um estalo					
Asfixiei o/a meu/minha parceiro/a					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a asfixiou-me					
Bati/lancei/atirei o/a meu/minha parceiro/a contra a parede					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a bateu/lançou/atirou-me contra a parede					
Espanquei o/a meu/minha parceiro/a					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a espancou-me					
Queimei ou escaldei o/a meu/minha parceiro/a de propósito					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a queimou ou escaldou-me de propósito					
Dei um pontapé no/na meu/minha parceiro/a					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a deu-me um pontapé					
Fiz uma entorse, um hematoma ou um pequeno corte por causa de uma luta com o/a meu/minha parceiro/a					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a fez uma entorse, um hematoma ou um pequeno corte por causa de uma luta comigo					
Senti dor física que ainda me doeu no dia seguinte, por causa de uma luta com o/a meu/minha parceiro/a					
O/a meu/minha parceiro/a sentiu dor física que ainda lhe doeu no dia seguinte, por causa de uma luta comigo					

Appendix H – Debriefing/Thank You Message

Agradecemos a tua participação!

Este estudo tem como objetivo explorar a associação entre as normas prescritivas e descritivas, atribuídas pela família, os pares e a cultura, no desenvolvimento de violência nas relações amorosas entre jovens adultos Portugueses.

Se tiveres alguma dúvida, comentário ou sugestão a fazer contacta os investigadores Maria Malheiro Garcia (mpmmg@iscte-iul.pt) e Mauro Bianchi (mauro.bianchi@iscte-iul.pt).

Se tiveres interesse em tomar conhecimento dos resultados deste estudo podes contactar os investigadores e no final do projeto, ser-te-á enviada uma súmula dos principais resultados obtidos.