Intimate Partner Violence: Evaluation and development of campaigns tailored for victimized men

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Resumo

A investigação sobre a violência nas relações íntimas (VRI) dirigida a homens em relações de sexo diferente e do mesmo sexo (RSD/MS) é escassa. Sabe-se que a sua procura de ajuda pode melhorar e que campanhas de VRI podem ser instrumentais neste processo, mas o seu impacto nestas populações é desconhecido. Este trabalho utilizou métodos mistos para compreender como facilitar a procura de ajuda em homens alvo de VRI em RSD/MS através de campanhas de VRI, recorrendo a modelos teóricos de mudança comportamental, perceção de riscos para a saúde e persuasão. Os resultados revelaram que estes homens experienciam diferentes tipos de violência significativa e possíveis conflitos com o seu papel de género. O desconhecimento sobre VRI e os serviços existentes são limitantes, e a promoção de normas sociais sobre linhas de apoio pode aumentar as intenções para procurar ajuda. As campanhas podem auxiliar neste sentido, mas os homens entrevistados não têm conhecimento das campanhas em Portugal. Também expressam a necessidade de representar "homens reais" e de evitar o termo "vítima" em campanhas futuras. A eficácia das campanhas pode aumentar se forem integrados conceitos de modelos teóricos e se for realçada a procura de ajuda de outros homens nestas circunstâncias. Estes resultados visibilizam populações sub-representadas e como a sua procura de ajuda é condicionada e facilitada. Campanhas de VRI podem ser um dos meios para incentivar a procura de ajuda, mas investigação futura deve identificar conteúdos adequados sobre riscos para a saúde e representar diversos grupos de homens em RSD/MS.

Palavras--chave:

Violência nas relações íntimas, Homens, Procura de Ajuda, Comunicações de Media em Massa, Sexo e Papéis de Género, LGBT.

Códigos PsycInfo:

2340 Processos Cognitivos

2750 Comunicações de Media em Massa

2970 Sexo e Papéis de Género

3000 Psicologia Social

Abstract

Research on intimate partner violence (IPV) targeting men in different-sex and same-sex relationships (DS/SSR) is scarce. It is understood that men's help-seeking can be improved and that IPV campaigns could be instrumental in this process, but there is essentially no research about its impacts on these populations. This work employed a mixed methods approach to understand how to facilitate help-seeking in men targets of IPV in DS/SSR relationships through IPV campaigns, leveraging theoretical models of behavioral change, health risk perception, and persuasion. The findings indicate that men experience various forms of severe violence and may face conflicts related to their gender roles. Additionally, the lack of awareness about IPV and information about help-seeking services affects their willingness to seek help. Promoting adaptive social norms toward calling helplines is important to enhance men's intentions to seek help. IPV campaigns may help in this regard, however, men target of IPV are unaware of existing IPV campaigns directed at men in Portugal. Moreover, men expressed the need for authentic representation and the avoidance of the label "victim" in future initiatives. IPV campaigns' effectiveness may increase if they integrate the insights from theoretical models and highlight how so many other men seek help in these circumstances. These findings shed light on under-represented populations and how their help-seeking is conditioned and facilitated. Public IPV campaigns can serve as one of the means to encourage seeking help, but future research should identify appropriate health risk-related content and represent diverse groups of men in DS/SSR relationships.

Keywords:

Intimate partner violence, Men, Help-seeking, Mass Media Communications, Sex & Gender Roles, LGBT.

PsycInfo Codes:

2340 Cognitive Processes

2750 Mass Media Communications

2970 Sex & Gender Roles

3000 Social Psychology

x

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General Introduction

Humans are inherently social beings, and our relationships hold the potential to be both beneficial and detrimental to us and those around us. On one hand, some of these relationships provide a deep sense of purpose and belonging, being filled with love, happiness, cooperation, and selflessness. These relationships tether individuals to each other in smaller or larger groups, ensuring that groups of friends, families, and communities' bond and grow beyond what our primal biological needs required. The importance of social support is undeniable in several areas of health, improving psychological and physical health, as well as overall well-being (Taylor, 2011). Partner support is no exception, and its effects on numerous outcomes has been verified, from smoking cessation to recovery from oncological diseases (Gustavsson-Lilius et al., 2006; Park et al., 2004). These arguments are further supported by the fact that loneliness can reduce a person's life-expectancy (Taylor, 2011). The need for and importance of relationships in our lives is therefore undeniable. Yet, relationships also have a detrimental potential. This includes the possibility of suffering and distress, harm to oneself and others, and violence, often due to conflicting interests and goals.

Violence has emerged in humankind's communities since the dawn of civilization. First and foremost, it served the instrumental and survivalist purpose of keeping oneself or others alive, while simultaneously mitigating other human or animal threats. Over millennia, with the development of more organized and developed societies, violence was ever present but, in some sense, evolved in its manifestations. For instance, on a more individual level, spiritual and/or religious experiences led some to inflict violence on the self or others. Alternatively, on a group level, spectators in colosseums witnessed gladiators fight, in what was then a socially constructed representation of entertainment. And if at the beginning of humankind, violence occurred between small settlements, the pretext of economic, religious, and political interests later fueled military efforts that led to the killings of millions of individuals on an ever-increasing scale. Thus, as society matured, so did violence and its expressions, with its enactment oftentimes symbolizing a complex system of power and status management (Dwyer, 2017).

The conception of violence has always been inherently linked with normative socio-cultural perceptions about harm, gender, power, interpersonal relationships, religiousness, and spirituality (Dwyer, 2017). Even today the debates surrounding what can or cannot be considered violence persist, with these discussions ranging from the etymological to the practical (Rutherford et al., 2007). It can nevertheless be stated that violence has different

expressions, on different levels of society, with consequences that range in their extent of reversibility for those who are targets. Overall, a broader, more consensual definition of violence can be found in the World Report on Violence and Health, suggesting "the intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or a community, that either result in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, maldevelopment or deprivation" (Rutherford et al., 2007, p. 676).

A key feature of the above definition of violence is the idea of intent to commit violence, which is a key distinction from non-intentional harm. According to this definition, violence can be self-directed, interpersonal, and/or collective. Other authors defend the notion that structural violence, such as social injustice present in broader societal structures (e.g., education and health systems), can also be considered violence (Rutherford et al., 2007; Teo, 2010). One author also suggests that the incorrect interpretation of data by authority figures will equally lead to violence against people or groups of people through inadequate action that places individuals at a disadvantage (Teo, 2010).

Among the types of interpersonal violence, domestic violence (DV) and intimate partner violence (IPV) has been a concern in modern societies, stemming from the recognition of the need for fundamental human rights for all, and of the existence of gender disparities in relationships and society (Heise & García-Moreno, 2002). The consequences of these types of violence are staggering in their severity, scope, and extent, adversely impacting the lives of millions of men, women, children, and youths every year, limiting the targets' potential to live fulfilled lives, and increasing the likelihood that the cycle of violence is repeated intergenerationally (Garcia-Moreno et al., 2012). To fight IPV and its negative consequences, many efforts have been implemented in different levels of society, and research has played an important role in defining, measuring, and implementing solutions. In line with data on the severity and frequency of violence directed at women in different-sex relationships, as well as social norms regarding gender roles and violence, most research thus far as focused on this population (Larsen & Hamberger, 2015; Roebuck et al., 2023). Nonetheless, a smaller number of researchers focused on understanding how men targets of violence experience IPV, providing visibility to a topic that is not often discussed in societies (Kimmel, 2002).

Research on men's targets of IPV in different-sex relationships is still relatively scarce (Scott-Storey et al., 2023), and this is even more pronounced for men in violent same-sex relationships (Rollè et al., 2018). What is currently understood is that men who are targets of

IPV tend to be put in gender-specific circumstances in which they may suffer by questioning their gender roles (Eckstein, 2010; Machado et al., 2018; O'Neil, 2015). This may stem from traditional conceptions regarding masculine gender roles, perceptions about who is a target of violence, and from incorporating stigmatized identities such as being a "victim" of violence. However, research is needed to properly address these processes (Åkerström et al., 2011). One of the ways to tackle the significant negative effects of violence, raise awareness about what constitutes IPV, and deconstruct misconceptions is through the use of structured and adequate communication efforts.

We know from marketing and social science studies that communication can significantly shape its audience's beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors, sometimes indirectly influencing social perceptions about a given product or situation (Maloney et al., 2011; Shahab et al., 2021). Nevertheless, communication can be used against the well-being and health of many, as a vehicle to spread misinformation for instance, which can lead to ideological polarization, delegitimizing democratic processes, social media-induced offline violence, and alienation (Arayankalam & Krishnan, 2022). It is then crucial to tap into the potential of communication for the improvement of the lives of people in society, and this is especially true for those who are in positions of added vulnerability, such as those who experience IPV.

Communication can be a gateway for people who are the targets of violence to understand their circumstances, what their legal rights are, and what are the possible avenues of action to improve their situation. Health communication campaigns have the potential to inform and potentially serve as a trigger for help-seeking among targets of IPV. More specifically, the effects of domestic violence and IPV communication have been suggested to be beneficial under certain circumstances (Carlyle et al., 2014; Colagrossi et al., 2023; Rollè et al., 2020). If those circumstances are met, we not only are potentially benefiting targets of violence, but we are also potentially reshaping the discourse surrounding norms on violence, gender, and help-seeking (Rollè et al., 2020).

Nevertheless, the impact of health communication on targets of violence is not linear. For instance, research has shown that women target of IPV can react negatively to graphic depictions of IPV, and that portraying gender stereotypes in these campaigns can be misrepresentative of reality (Gadomski et al., 2001; Keller & Honea, 2016; West, 2013). This is especially important when considering that, thus far, the realities of men who are targets of IPV in different-sex and same-sex relationships are still not widely discussed in many societies

and are subject to discrimination and ridicule (Rollè et al., 2018; Scott-Storey et al., 2023). In comparison with campaigns directed at women targets of IPV, campaigns directed at men are scarcer (Mckegg, 2021). Moreover, no study is published today on the development and testing of health communication campaigns directed at men targets of IPV in different-sex and same-sex relationships.

Thus, this thesis seeks to tap into the potential of health communication as a tool to improve the realities of men who experience IPV in different-sex and same-sex relationships, by increasing awareness about IPV and fomenting help-seeking. We achieve this by employing a participatory approach that considers the target population's insights and impressions, and by testing the effects of different communication efforts according to theoretical models and guidelines on effective campaign design. Doing so is in line with the principles of ethical research on populations in circumstances of added vulnerability (Hastings et al., 2004; Roffee & Waling, 2017), and paves the way for future interventions that are more effective and representative of the realities of these men.

Objectives and Overview of the Thesis

The overarching objective of this work is to better understand how to facilitate help-seeking among men who were targets of IPV in different-sex and same-sex relationships (DS/SSR), and how targeted IPV campaigns may aid in this purpose.

To adequately address this objective, we conducted the Formative Research evaluation process (Rice & Atkin, 2013) with samples of men in DS/SSR, which entailed three main goals: 1) understand men's experiences and dynamics of IPV and help-seeking in DS/SSR; 2) characterize existing IPV campaigns directed at men in DS/SSR and their integration of theoretical models, as well as understand men's insights about the development of future IPV campaigns; 3) test the effects of IPV campaigns with different theoretically-based types of information on intentions to seek help. A mixed-methods, theoretically based, participatory approach was employed to meet the goals of this work.

Each main goal aimed to reply to different research questions. The first goal encompassed Research Question (RQ) 1 "What are the processes and determinants of help-seeking intentions in victimized men in different-sex and same-sex relationships?" and RQ2 "Does gender role conflict impact men's trajectories of victimization?". The second goal was comprised of RQ3

"How are campaigns targeting victimized men in different-sex and same-sex relationships characterized? And how do they represent constructs from different theoretical models?" and RQ4 "What are victimized men's impressions of campaigns targeting victimized men, and what are their insights for the creation of new campaigns?". Lastly, the third goal aimed to answer RQ5 "What is the effect of efficacy information on campaigns perceived effectiveness?" and RQ6 "What is the effect of salience of subjective norms about helplines on intentions to call?".

Chapter I presents the theoretical background of this thesis' main topics of investigation, namely IPV, gender norms, public health campaigns, and the different theoretical frameworks used. A historical perspective is provided about most of the topics covered and a summary of main findings in each field is offered.

To meet the first main goal set, in Chapter II we describe a qualitative study on men's experiences of IPV, what barriers and facilitators they faced when help-seeking, the potential role of Gender Role Conflict (GRC) (O'Neil, 2015), and their impressions about using helplines. To conduct this analysis, we draw from insights provided by the Extended Parallel Process Model (Witte et al., 2001) and the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). After understanding men's experiences of IPV and obtaining feedback on key aspects of calling a helpline, in Chapter III we present a correlational study that tests whether the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991) is an adequate model to explain intentions to call a helpline among victimized men and women, and how GRC may be associated with the TPB's constructs in men.

In Chapter IV, deriving from an in-depth understanding of the target audiences, we conduct a systematic content analysis on existing pictorial campaigns on IPV focusing on victimized men in DS/SSR to characterize existing IPV campaigns. This analysis was based on the constructs of the Theory of Planned Behavior, Extended Parallel Process Model, Elaboration Likelihood Model, and Transtheoretical Model (Prochaska & Velicer, 1997). Complementarily, in Chapter V we present a study in which we question men who are targets of IPV about their knowledge of existing campaigns, their impressions about three specific IPV campaigns, and their suggestions for the development of new ones. The Extended Parallel Process Model and the Elaboration Likelihood Model serve as the basis for some of the analyses in this study.

After analyzing our target audience's characteristics, as well as existing and possible future campaigns, we aim to experimentally test different prototypical campaigns on our target

audiences. In Chapter VI, we conduct a pre-test to assess the effect of different prototypical IPV campaigns directed at men and women in a general sample. Based on the Extended Parallel Process Model, we test the effects of "presenting Efficacy" vs "not presenting Efficacy" information in campaigns on their perceived effectiveness and consider insights of the Elaboration Likelihood Model as well. Subsequently, we experimentally manipulate the salience of subjective norms about calling a helpline, deriving from the findings of the correlational study (i.e., women's and men's intentions are predicted by subjective norms). In this experiment, we consider insights from the Theory of Planned Behavior, the Extended Parallel Process Model, and the Elaboration Likelihood Model.

Finally, Chapter VII offers a summary and discussion of all findings across studies, their potential implications for policy, practice, and theory, and suggestions for future research. This chapter provides visual summaries of our main conclusions. See Figure 1 for an overview of the thesis structure.

RATIONALE AND PROBLEM	Chapter I. Theoretical Background

- ✓ Intimate partner violence (IPV) affects the lives of millions of men in different-sex and same-sex relationships worldwide, but more research is needed about the specific processes they go through, as well as what may facilitate their help-seeking intentions;
- ✓ Some men question their gender roles when facing IPV, which may be linked with Gender Role Conflict (GRC). GRC is associated with a wide range of psychological problems, including decreased help-seeking intentions. No peer-reviewed research is available on GRC in men targets of IPV;
- ✓ To potentially facilitate help-seeking, IPV campaigns have been created. Very few campaigns are directed at men who are targets of IPV, and they do not resort to theoretical models or audience insights for their development or testing. Nonetheless, if properly developed according to principles of Social Marketing, these campaigns have the potential to facilitate help-seeking, and reshape social norms about gender, violence, and help-seeking.

THESIS PROPOSAL	Men are targets of significant and consequential instances of IPV, going through gender-specific processes (e.g., GRC) which impact their help-seeking intentions. IPV campaigns directed at these men may facilitate help-seeking by reshaping social norms surrounding masculinity, violence, and help-seeking.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND STUDIES PERFORMED

Experiences of violence and help-seeking

What are the processes and determinants of help-seeking intentions in victimized men in different-sex and same-sex relationships?

How does gender role conflict impact men's trajectories of victimization?

Characterization of existing IPV campaigns and insights for the development of new ones

How are campaigns targeting victimized men in different-sex and same-sex relationships characterized? And how do they represent constructs from different theoretical models?

What are victimized men's impressions of campaigns targeting victimized men, and what are their insights for the creation of new campaigns?

Testing the effects of IPV campaigns with different types of information

What is the effect of efficacy information on campaigns perceived effectiveness?

What is the effect of salience of subjective norms about helplines on intentions to call?

Chapter II. Intimate Partner Violence directed at Men: Experiences of Violence, Help-seeking, and potential Gender Role Conflict
Chapter III. Intentions to call a helpline among targets of Intimate Partner Violence: The role of the Theory of Planned Behavior and Gender Role Conflict

Chapter IV. Pictorial campaigns on intimate partner violence focusing on victimized men: a systematic content analysis

Chapter V. Men who experienced Intimate Partner Violence: Impressions about existing public campaigns and recommendations for new ones

Chapter VI. The role of presence or absence of efficacy information in IPV campaigns on campaigns' perceived effectiveness and Campaigns on Intimate Partner Violence: The Role of Social Norms and Health Risk Perception on Help-Seeking Behavior

Chapter VII. General Discussion

Figure 1. *Overview of Thesis Structure and Rationale*

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CHAPTER I | Theoretical Background

1.1. Men target of Intimate Partner Violence and the Portuguese Legal Context

1.1.1 Domestic Violence shaped modern definitions of IPV

The terms Domestic Violence (DV) and IPV are very often used interchangeably in the literature and society, although IPV is a more contemporary and accurate term to describe the processes within an intimate dyad. Thus, for decades, the terms "domestic violence" and "family violence" were often referred to what is now considered IPV. According to Garcia-Moreno, Guedes and Knerr (2012) DV is conceptually wider in scope and its targets when compared with IPV, given that it also encompasses child and elder abuse, or violence perpetrated by any member of the household in addition to violence between intimate partners.

Progress regarding DV, which strived for fair treatment of those who are targeted by it and adequate accountability for those who perpetrate it, has been inherently linked with advances in social causes and the distribution of power in modern societies. In the American context, this progress stemmed partly from the advent of the feminist movement in the late 1960s that raised awareness about women's rights (Jasinski et al., 1998). American society was confronted with a critical perspective on how traditional family values often overlooked the well-being, safety, and career progression of women, while simultaneously being permissive to violence in the family context (Jasinski et al., 1998).

Subsequently, in the 1970s, the United Nations established as one of its main goals the eradication of violence against women to promote gender equality, while the first "battered woman" shelter was opened in England by Erin Pizzey (Walker, 2009). These landmark events signaled the beginning of an essentially worldwide trend to promote social and political justice for women, and the recognition that this goal could only be achieved by a proper integration between health professionals, the judicial system, activists, and researchers to push this medium forward (Dias, 2010; Walker, 2009).

One key research development in this area was the release of "The Battered Woman" by Lenore Walker in 1979, which shone a light on how the perpetration of violence toward women in their different-sex intimate relationships was linked to a cycle of violence and learned helplessness that often lead to symptoms such as depression, stress, and low self-esteem (Walker, 2009). Since then, several decades of research in multiple cultural settings have shown that violence against women is a worldwide phenomenon that significantly and negatively impacts the lives of millions of women and children (Heise & García-Moreno, 2002; World Health Organization, 2018). Research has also shown that this violence has common underlying

drivers, processes, and proposed typologies (Ali et al., 2016), and that men can also be the targets of violence, despite traditional perspectives about gender roles and who the targets of IPV commonly are (McClennen et al., 2002).

1.1.2. The case for male targets of Domestic Violence and IPV

Among the first academic contributions to the study of the psychology of men and masculinities are Adler's postulations about "masculine protest" in 1911, which theorized masculinity as a psychological construct and highlights how patriarchal norms harmed women and men (O'Neil, 2015). More than a century ago, Adler's statements were met with criticism from scientists and were essentially subordinated to other research trends. It was only after the feminist movement in the 1960s that some feminist male researchers started to question the negative impact that traditional gender roles may have on men, with the term "battered husband" first appearing in 1977 (Steinmetz, 1978). The first prominent theoretical framework about the masculine gender role and its potential associated negative effects was proposed by Joseph Pleck in "The Myth of Masculinity", in which he proposed a gender role strain model, which posited that restrictive gender roles could be psychologically harmful to men and women (O'Neil, 2015). This book was key in pinpointing many of the tenets associated with traditional masculine roles, such as men's exertion of violence towards women, their avoidance of femininity and homosexuality, and their lack of involvement in raising their children.

It was only in 1995 that the American Psychological Association created the Society for the Psychological Study of Men and Masculinity, formally recognizing this topic as central in the field (SPSMM, n.d.). Later, in 2000, the journal Psychology of Men & Masculinity was founded and has ever since published over 350 empirical studies on the topics it covers (O'Neil, 2015). Besides this journal, overall research on men's targets of DV and IPV gained traction in the 1990s, further establishing itself in the 2000s with primary and secondary research on the topic (Archer, 2000; Hines et al., 2007; Kimmel, 2002). One key contribution was Kimmel's study that postulated about "gender symmetry" in IPV, indicating that women could also perpetrate IPV at significant rates against their male partners, contrasting with traditional perspectives that stated that women did not perpetrate violence or did it with vestigial frequency (Kimmel, 2002). Nonetheless, research on this field is very recent in comparison with other fields in psychology, and in comparison, with research focusing on women targets of DV/IPV, which is even scarcer (Machado et al., 2020; Scott-Storey et al., 2023). Furthermore, research

on IPV in same-sex relationships started around the same time, with different authors investigating the specificities and similarities between same-sex and different-sex IPV (Balsam, 2001; McClennen et al., 2002; Merrill & Wolfe, 2000). However, literature on these topics remains limited, constituting an estimated 15% of the total research on DV and IPV (Edwards, Sylaska & Neal, 2015).

1.1.3. The Portuguese Context and Legal Framework

In Portugal, DV is a public crime, which means that its inherent legal procedures are not dependent on the target of violence's filing of a formal complaint. Anyone in the public sphere that witness DV is encouraged to report it, formally or informally (Cardoso et al., 2021). Such legislation was implemented not only to encourage bystander actions regarding DV, but also to reduce the sense of impunity that aggressors may have felt for decades.

The status of DV legislation is the result of a gradual recognition of DV and IPV that started almost 50 years ago, mainly with the fall of the conservative and nationalist regime in 1974 and the resurfacing of laws that granted rights and equality for women (Azambuja et al., 2013; Wall et al., 2016). Portugal was among the first countries to ratify the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1979, but it was only in 1982 that violence within marriage was constituted punishable by law. Subsequently, in 1995, the penal code was changed to include "psychological abuse" as violence and make the spouse liable as the enactor of the crime (Beleza, 2008).

The first law stating the requirement of shelters for women was passed in 1999, and in the year 2000, conjugal violence was considered a public crime, which meant that any person in the public sphere who witnessed domestic violence could file a formal complaint to police forces, and police forces were required to act on it (Azambuja et al., 2013). In 2007, the penal code was once again updated to consider domestic violence between same-sex partners, and include aggravating factors such as exerting violence in the presence of, or towards, a minor. At this point, the minimum prison sentence for a DV crime was 2 years, and the maximum of 10 years in case of homicide within this context (Beleza, 2008).

Furthermore, Portugal's efforts to tackle domestic violence and IPV were sedimented with the ratification of the Council of Europe's Convention on Preventing and Fighting Violence against women and Domestic violence (Istanbul Convention) in 2013, an international initiative that aimed to further commit nations to end gender-based violence (Wall et al., 2016). More

recently, an update conducted in 2021 to the Portuguese legal framework extended those who are considered "victims" of DV to children and adolescents until the age of 18 years old who witness and are exposed to it (CiG, 2021).

Over the decades, several National Plans on Equality, the Fight against Domestic Violence, and the Fight against Human Trafficking were implemented, being key public policy instruments to tackle this social issue (Azambuja et al., 2013). These initiatives started in 1997 and have now culminated in the National Plan for Equality between Women and Men, and the 5th National Plan for the Prevention and Fight against Domestic Violence and Gender Violence, which are part of the National Strategy for Equality and Non-Discrimination (2018-2030). These public policies are implemented by the Commission for Citizenship and Gender Equality (CiG, n.d.).

Despite all the policies and legislation, Portugal's social, cultural, and religious landscape significantly conditioned their implementation and wide acceptance, something that is still observed nowadays. Influences from the Catholic church and its doctrine of the preservation of traditional family values, that simultaneously condemned same-sex intimate relationships in any form, have hampered the recognition of IPV in any kind of relationship (Azambuja et al., 2013; Cañete et al., 2022). Rigid gender norms have also negatively impacted the recognition of men who are targets of IPV in any type of relationship, as the first shelter directed at these men was implemented in 2016 as a pilot project with a capacity to host 10 individuals (Portuguese Government, 2016). In comparison with male oriented tailored help services, at that moment, the National Network for Support of Domestic Violence Victims had forty shelters for women who are targets of violence, with a combined hosting capacity of 800 individuals (Portuguese Government, 2016). Currently, only one shelter for men who are targets of IPV is operational in Portugal (Matos, 2021).

1.2. Characteristics and Drivers of Intimate Partner Violence and Help-seeking

Throughout decades of research on violence directed at individuals in intimate relationships, the terms Intimate Partner Violence and Domestic Violence have sometimes been used interchangeably. Nevertheless, they are postulated to be different constructs. Thus, only intimate dyadic dynamics of violence (IPV) are the object of this research, which is contextualized within the study of aggression and violence. Literature suggests that aggression is an intentional behavior that aims to harm an individual who wants to avoid that harm, and

which does not necessarily have to cause damage to be considered aggression (Allen & Anderson, 2017). Additionally, violence is considered a more extreme intentional expression of aggression, that usually aims to inflict physical damage, and that like aggression, does not have to cause harm to be considered violence. Thus, all acts of violence can be categorized as aggression, but only some more severe aggressions are considered violence (Allen & Anderson, 2017). For this work, we consider IPV to be the physical, psychological, or sexual victimization of a person by someone with whom they have or had an intimate relationship (Heise & García-Moreno, 2002). This violence can possibly result in short-term and long-term physical, psychological, and sexual health problems. Other definitions of IPV have been provided in literature, such as the World Health Organization's, that states that IPV involves harmful physical, sexual and within an intimate relationship (2010). Additionally, some authors distinguish between overt behaviors, such as slapping, and covert behaviors, such as threats, when defining IPV (Laskey et al., 2019).

Examples of psychological IPV may be verbal insults, diminishing one's self-worth, blackmailing, coercive control, intimidation, and stalking (Ali et al., 2016; Laskey et al., 2019). Added visibility has been given to these non-physical expressions of IPV recently given that historically these types of violence have been underrepresented in research and interventions despite their often severe and long-lasting consequences (Laskey et al., 2019). Cyber abuse, which encompasses "humiliations, monitoring of the partner's whereabouts, public exposure of private conversations and images, control and surveillance behaviors, the spread of rumors, and harassment of a current or former partner" is categorized as psychological violence due to its nature and distinction from the following types of violence in this work (Soriano-Ayala et al., 2022, p. 2). Gilbar and colleagues add that this technology-mediated form of violence has only been researched relatively recently, that it is positively correlated with face-to-face IPV perpetration and victimization, and that its rates did not differ as a function of gender (2023). Physical violence, in turn, can be expressed with different degrees of severity toward its targets, resulting in reversible or irreversible consequences for their health. Examples of this type of violence are punching, choking, kicking, stabbing, strangling, or using a weapon against an intimate partner (Ali et al., 2016; Spencer et al., 2022). Lastly, sexual violence pertains to "any sexual act, attempt to obtain a sexual act, unwanted sexual comments or advances, or acts to traffic, or otherwise directed, against a person's sexuality using coercion, by any person, regardless of their relationship to the victim" (Jewkes et al., 2002, p. 149). This definition contemplates rape (i.e., physically forcing or coercively penetrating the vulva or anus with a

penis, another body part or object), however there are disparities in legal definitions of rape across countries (Mikton, 2010).

1.2.1. The categorization of IPV through typologies

To characterize the patterns and types of intimate partner violence, several typologies have been proposed (Ali et al., 2016). The most prominent is Johnson's typology which states that there are essentially five patterns of violence: coercive controlling violence, situational couple violence, mutual violent control, violent resistance, and separation-instigated violence (Conroy et al., 2022; Johnson, 2005). This typology focuses mostly on the presence or absence of control in the context in which IPV arises.

Coercive control violence describes a pattern of control, isolation, and manipulation by a person against their partner, via emotionally abusive intimidation and minimization, combined with physical violence. This type of violence often escalates and is considered more severe, frequent, and perpetrated mostly by men, but evidence has pointed to its perpetration by women in different-sex and same-sex relationships (Ali et al., 2016). This type of violence has been traditionally framed in the literature as based on patriarchal norms, and these can play an important role in its operationalization (Conroy et al., 2022). Nonetheless, the author argues that any person can use any of the types of violence in the typology. Additionally, broader theories beyond what are traditionally considered "feminist" frameworks of analysis of control patterns must be employed to study this type of violence and its contributing factors (Conroy et al., 2023). Another pattern is violent resistance, which refers to the retaliation of violence by the target of violence, to defend themselves from their abusive partner or as premeditated acts of retaliation (Conroy et al., 2022).

Situational couple violence describes the most common type of violence in the general population, frequently perpetrated by men and women. These instances of violence emerge from different situations and arguments that can escalate to physical violence, and are often not motivated by power and control, but by an inability to control conflict, and may manifest as verbal abuse. This type of violence seems to be initiated by men and women at similar rates (Ali et al., 2016). Mutual violent control refers to the persistent mutual violent control over each other, although research is still scarce on this type of violence and may point to what is traditionally conceptualized as bidirectionality of violence (Bates, 2016; Langhinrichsen-Rohling, Misra, et al., 2012). Lastly, Separation-Instigated Violence describes the violence that

emerges out of the separation of the intimate dyad. It is rare for individuals who perpetrate this type of violence to have done so previously, as it represents a critical outburst that seems to occur at similar rates in women and men. It may manifest in the form of throwing objects and destroying property (Ali et al., 2016).

Research has shown solid support for this typology, but wide disparities in methodological approaches to test it, and its still restrictive scope when theorizing about violence and gender have been pointed as limitations (Conroy et al., 2022). One of the key criticisms lies in the fact that Johnson's typology focuses on physical violence, disregarding other forms of less explicit violence such as nonviolent coercive control (Ali et al., 2016; Conroy et al., 2022). Additionally, research on this typology followed its grounding tenets and has been based mostly on heterosexual and cisgender individuals, but future research should address these populations as they may be crucial to contest the model and possibly expand its applicability (Conroy et al., 2022).

Previous research has pointed out how many misrepresentations and misapplications of this typology may have contributed to impasses in this literature about the role of gender in IPV (Conroy et al., 2023). Despite previous claims on the contrary, Johnson's typology argues that women's use of Coercive Control Violence directed at men occurs, but it is seemingly less likely (Conroy et al., 2023). Johnson also argues that gender is a central tenet on which Coercive Control Violence occurs, but that it is not its sole explaining factor, and that prevalence rates alone cannot fully account for everything that IPV entails, as well as its impacts on men and women (Conroy et al., 2023). The other types of violence have also been posited to be gendered, but authors suggest that a more articulated in-depth discussion about the roles of different contributing factors to IPV must occur in order to clarify existing terminologies, methodologies, and conceptualizations to foment a unified perspective over this phenomenon (Conroy et al., 2023).

Other typologies have been proposed such as Johnston's typology, Holtzwoth-Munroe typology, Jacobson and Gottman's typology, Swan and Snow's typology, and Miller and Meloy's typology (Ali et al., 2016). Despite their different postulations, they share the basic principle that there are different types of IPV, and that IPV experiences of men and women as perpetrators and targets of violence differ. Additionally, they reveal that IPV is a complex phenomenon in an ever-changing field of study bound by sociocultural norms that shape how researchers make sense of the processes and dynamics people go through (Ali et al., 2016). It

is nevertheless important to consider that all of these typologies remain works-in-progress that should be tested in diverse contexts with diverse individuals.

1.2.2. Gender norms and expectations underpin IPV dynamics and processes

One of the key underlying mechanisms of IPV is gender norms. Gender studies arose in the 1970s as a response to the understanding that sex was not enough to adequately describe men's and women's configurations and relationships in society (Amâncio, 2004). Gender has been posited to be a socially constructed, culturally specific, transient set of beliefs about the roles men and women should have in society. It refers to the psychological experiences and characteristics socially and culturally associated with the social statuses of boys and girls and men and women and is based on the beliefs, norms, and stereotypes about the behaviors, cognitions, and emotions of these individuals (APA, 2018). These notions impact all people in society, including transgender and gender diverse people, among others.

These proposed roles are often set within a matrix of power and oppression in which men dominate and women are not warranted the same opportunities in several domains of life (Amâncio, 2004). On the one hand, the privilege and power that come with traditional masculinity are advantageous to those who support it. On the other hand, they are also expected to function under restrictive norms to uphold male privilege. Therefore, adhering to these standards can be taxing and limits men's capacity for taking up adaptive behaviors (Connell & Messerschmidt, 2005).

1.2.2.1. The masculine gender role and its consequences on boys and men

According to Pleck, masculinity ideology refers "to beliefs about the importance of men adhering to culturally defined standards for male behavior" and involves "the individual's endorsement and internalization of cultural belief systems about masculinity and male gender, rooted in the structural relationships between the sexes" (Pleck, 1995, cited from O'Neil, 2008, p. 364). More specifically, the traditional masculine gender roles have been construed as being emotionally stable, resilient, and having physical strength. Conversely, often seen as diametrically opposite to some extent, the feminine gender roles have been perpetuated as being vulnerable, physically weak, and emotionally unstable, among others (O'Neil, 2015). Traditional gender roles seem to be set on defined notions of sexism by which women's lives

are significantly conditioned in terms of their personal life, education, and access to the job market (Addis & Mahalik, 2003; APA, 2018).

It is important to consider that the socialization of gender roles precedes one's birth, as the expectations of parents often project what that person should be and how they should behave concerning gender norms. Thus, people are exposed to and perpetuate culturally situated gender norms, being simultaneously the recipients and the multipliers at various degrees of such preconceptions. Adaptive masculinities can thus be promoted through education and interventions, as well as the influence of men and boys' peers, families, schools, and larger communities (Wilson et al., 2021). Peer facilitation is critical because masculinities have been proposed to be built and maintained by groups of referents, with which integration is accomplished by compliance, and segregation is achieved through non-conformity with the referents' ideas (Wilson et al., 2021). Masculine peer facilitation has been associated with the use of seat belts, seeking social support, exercising, and dietary choices, and men who thought their male friends sought help had a higher likelihood of seeking help themselves (APA, 2018).

Being a member of one or more social groups that are stigmatized as a minority may influence how boys and men relate with their own identities. Mental health conditions linked to strict male ideals have been found to affect individuals who are not cisgender and heterosexual (Wester et al., 2005). Additionally, studies found that gay men favored more traditionally masculine gay men over more feminine gay men and hoped that they too were more manly (APA, 2018). Men may be compelled to repress the manifestation of one of these characteristics to avoid being fully rejected if they are members of other stigmatized groups, which may interact with these identities. The potential for intersections between ethnicity, gender identity, sexual orientation, cultural values and norms, migration status, social and economic situations, and others to exacerbate tensions and dissonances that have a detrimental impact on mental health is, therefore, crucial to consider (APA, 2018; Wilson et al., 2021).

Adherence to more traditional gender roles is associated with a range of psychological non-adaptive schemas, such as academic failure (Wilson et al., 2021), being less involved in instrumental and expressive parenting (Petts et al., 2018), taking up more risk behaviors, having muted emotional displays, absence of strong affect, less willingness to consult medical and mental health care providers, and fewer health-promoting behaviors (APA, 2018). Boys and men also tend to have lesser meaningful and satisfying social relationships that would contribute to their adaptive emotional regulation and well-being (APA, 2018). Traditional

masculinity norms also influence how boys and men view and act upon their sexuality, being associated with sexual violence and coercion (Barker & Ricardo, 2005) as well as engaging in unprotected sex and STI transmission, with having multiple sexual partners seen as a cornerstone of being masculine in some cultures (Brown et al., 2005). Overall, men seem to have a life expectancy that is around 5 years less than women, and a 2 times higher risk of mortality than women, with men dying more frequently due to violence and injury (APA, 2018; Patton et al., 2009). Additionally, research points to higher odds of alcohol intake by boys and men when compared with girls and women, and alcohol intake is in turn associated with a higher likelihood of suicide in men (APA, 2018).

In fact, both in the United States and in Portugal men's suicide rates are up to 4 times higher than women's (American Foundation for Suicide Prevention, n.d.; Nunes, 2018). Given that boys and men traditionally are not socialized to have emotional management skills, when critical emotional states arise, men may turn to alcohol and drugs to avoid processing them (APA, 2018). Research suggests that shame, lack of emotional support, and being able to attain traditional masculine ideals are associated with higher suicidal behavior in African men (Bantjes et al., 2017; Galligan et al., 2010; Ó Beaglaoich et al., 2014).

Violence is often socialized as a cornerstone of the traditional masculine roles, with aggression being associated with heightened masculinity (Amâncio, 2004; APA, 2018; McCarry, 2010). However, despite stereotypes to the contrary, most men are not violent. In the case of IPV-related topics, traditional gender role beliefs are associated with increased violence-legitimating attitudes, IPV perpetration, victimization, and worse help-seeking attitudes, among others (APA, 2018). Additionally, men who experience IPV from their female or male partners may be further victimized because of the stereotype that men are the sole violence perpetrators (Machado et al., 2020). Serious aggression may become invisible as a result, with potential short- and long-term psychological, sexual, economic, and physical repercussions. Being the target of IPV has a substantial influence on men's sense of masculinity, leaving them feeling helpless, undervalued, and lacking drive (Nybergh et al., 2016). These emotions result from a struggle between the prevalent masculinities in their environments and their circumstances, yet in some situations, they cause men to rethink their concepts of masculinity constructively and adaptively (Rowlands, 2021).

Nevertheless, many positive aspects of masculinity can be highlighted, with literature on this field suggesting that, when exerted to an adaptive degree, risk-taking and pursuit of status

can sometimes be predictive of positive outcomes such as courage, autonomy, endurance, and resilience (McDermott et al., 2019; Wilson et al., 2021). In addition, deconstructing traditional masculine gender roles to promote more adaptive intrapersonal and interpersonal outcomes may lessen the possible negative effects of traditional masculine ideology (APA, 2018; Wilson et al., 2021).

1.2.2.2. Gender Role Conflict and its dynamics

Gender role conflict (GRC) was first theorized in the 1980s by James O'Neil, stemming from the work of Joseph Pleck on gender role strain (Pleck, 1981). With his propositions, Pleck theorized that restrictive gender roles can be detrimental to psychological health, and GRC is determined to be one of the outcomes of this strain on men and women (Pleck, 1981). Essentially, GRC is posited to occur when restrictive gender norms result in the devaluation, restriction, or violation of others or of the self, being a socialized outcome of gender role strain (O'Neil, 2008). Over their lifetimes, men may face different trajectories that may lead to greater levels of GRC, such as:

- Going through development tasks or transitions that entail gender role transformations (e.g., entering school, puberty, getting married, becoming a father or losing one's father);

- Deviating from or violating gender role norms of masculinity ideologies;

- Trying to meet gender role norms of masculinity ideology;

- Experiencing discrepancies between their real self-concepts and their idealized self-concepts, considering existing masculinity ideology norms and stereotypes;

- Personally devaluing, restricting, and/or violating themselves for not meeting masculinity ideology ideals;

- Experiencing personal devaluations, restrictions, and/or violations from others for conforming to or deviating from masculinity ideology;

- Devaluing, restricting, and/or violating others because they deviate from or conform to masculinity ideology (Ó Beaglaoich et al., 2014; O'Neil, 2015).

Essentially, according to O'Neil (2015), GRC may arise because of gender role transitions, and be experienced intrapersonally, toward others, and from others. The author also suggests that GRC can manifest in different domains, namely the cognitive, emotional, behavioral, and unconscious (O'Neil, 2015).

Empirical research over decades has shown that this construct is associated with different patterns of attitudes and behaviors in men's lives that are more specifically related to Success, Power and Competition, Restrictive Emotionality, Restricted affective behavior between men, and Conflict between work and family relations (O'Neil, 2008). Regarding Success, Power, and Competition, it represents the extent to which men are socialized to strive for success and authority through competition, instead of collaboration (Wester et al., 2007). Restricted Emotionality refers to the degree to which men are socialized to avoid expressing their inner emotional states verbally, and Restricted Affective Behavior Between Men represents how men are taught not to express vulnerable feelings and thoughts with other men. Lastly, Conflict Between Work and Family Relationships describes how men oftentimes struggle to balance their work, academic and family lives (O'Neil, 2015; Wester et al., 2007).

These patterns have been associated with over 80 of psychological outcomes, most of them non-adaptive to boys and men and those who surround them in life (O'Neil, 2015). For instance, GRC was significantly associated with low self-esteem, shame, guilt, depression, alcohol and substance use, psychological stress, internalized homonegativity and heterosexism, avoidant coping, hopelessness, self-destructiveness, and suicide ideation, among others (O'Neil, 2015). In what concerns IPV, GRC has been linked with abusive behaviors and dating violence, and it is theorized that men in different-sex relationships may perpetrate violence to cancel threats to their masculinity (Reidy et al., 2014). Regarding help-seeking, GRC has been associated with worse attitudes about seeking help across men of different ages, nationalities, socialized races, and sexual orientations (O'Neil, 2015; Tang et al., 2016). To the best of my knowledge, only Venus Tsui in her doctoral thesis has measured GRC in men targets of IPV, finding that all subscales of GRC except for Restrictive Affectionate Behavior between Men were significantly associated with negative attitudes towards seeking psychological help (Tsui, 2010).

Given that gender seems to play a central role in the lives of men, and their experiences of IPV, these experiences of violence have been postulated to be gender-specific (Larsen & Hamberger, 2015; Nybergh et al., 2016; Scott-Storey et al., 2023). This suggests that the overarching positive and negative effects of being socialized as a man put men in specific

positions to live and respond to violence in society, and these circumstances have some different influencing factors when comparison with the circumstances of women targets of IPV (Larsen & Hamberger, 2015; Nybergh et al., 2016; Scott-Storey et al., 2023).

1.2.2.3. The role of stigma in victimized men's trajectories

Stigma is the co-occurring of labeling, stereotyping, and separating that may result in the loss of status and discrimination of a group of people in relation to a wider social context (Murray et al., 2018). Various operationalizations of stigma have been proposed in the past. However, Link and Phelan identify five key elements that constitute stigma: 1) the placement of a label on differences between people; 2) these labels are associated with negative stereotypes about the characteristics of people with those labels; 3) individuals distance themselves as a function of the labels they attribute; 4) those who receive these labels experience loss of status or greater discrimination from the remaining individuals; 5) those who are labeled are not provided with equal access to social, economic, and political power (Link & Phelan, 2001).

Stigma has been found to be an important predictor of men's help-seeking behaviors (Vogel et al., 2014). It is intrinsically linked to GRC, as higher GRC is associated with greater stigma to seek help (Cole & Ingram, 2020; Vogel et al., 2014; Wahto & Swift, 2016; Wester et al., 2007). This may be partially attributed to traditional notions about the masculine gender roles and its incoherence with help-seeking, by which those who seek help are perceived to lose status as idealized men (O'Neil, 2015). In the field of IPV, being a target of violence has also been linked with stigma in women (Kennedy & Prock, 2018; McCleary-Sills et al., 2016) and men targets of IPV (Arnocky & Vaillancourt, 2014; Machado et al., 2020; McClennen, 2005).

To explain men's and women's trajectories of stigma and IPV, the Integrated Stigmatization Model has been proposed by Murray, Crowe, and Overstreet (Murray et al., 2018). This model postulates five sources of stigma (i.e., internalized, anticipated, enacted, cultural, and stigma from the perpetrator) and four components of stigma (i.e., blame, isolation, negative emotions, and loss of status). Their findings suggest that internalized stigma was associated with shame, guilt, and identity conflicts (Murray et al., 2018).

Thus, stigma and its dynamics may be related with insights from different studies that reflect on the gender-specific circumstances in which men targets of IPV find themselves in, and how being the target of IPV shapes their relationships with their own identity (Åkerström et al., 2011; Arnocky & Vaillancourt, 2014; Eckstein, 2010). Facing traditional expectations

about the characteristics a man should have, who the traditional target of violence has been constructed to be in IPV, and the stigmatized nature of the identity of "victim" can lead men not to recognize themselves as targets of violence and suffer significantly even when their situation is concealable (Burcar & Åkerström, 2009; Eckstein, 2010). If their situation becomes public, and their status as "victims" of violence is disclosed and/or attributed voluntarily or involuntarily, this can have even more negative consequences for their sense of well-being, which can partly explain men's reluctance to disclose their experiences and seek help (Durfee, 2011; Eckstein, 2010; Hollander & Rogers, 2014; Lysova & Dim, 2020). If this is true for men targets of IPV in different-sex relationships, men in violent same-sex relationships may have an added degree of complexity in their experiences of stigma, as the stigma surrounding their gender role, help-seeking as men, and the identity of "victim" intersects with the stigma associated with their gender identity and/or sexual orientation (Eisikovits & Bailey, 2016; Meyer, 2003).

Considering the centrality that different identities within the same person can have in their trajectory as targets of IPV, it is important not to overlook the specificities of each identity and how they may intersect to create specific circumstances of discrimination, as described by Crenshaw in her intersectionality paradigm (Crenshaw, 1991). The above-stated norms and stigmatized identities are not static and change over time, generating positions of power and privilege that are dependent on personal characteristics such as socioeconomic status, socialized races, gender identity, sexual orientation, age, nationality, ability status, among others (del Pino et al., 2022). Thus, despite the overt and similar negative consequences of IPV for men in different-sex and same-sex relationships, in each of these broad categories lies a multitude of individual experiences that are specific to the target's characteristics and context (Scott-Storey et al., 2023).

1.2.3. Impact of violence on targets of violence

The literature on this phenomenon thus far points to hundreds of millions of lives being negatively impacted by IPV every year worldwide (Heise & García-Moreno, 2002; World Health Organization, 2018). IPV occurs in all countries, independently of social, economic, religious, or cultural group, and according to global estimates of IPV, one in every three women, and one in every four men will be a target of a severe physical IPV at some point in their lifetime (Center for Disease Control, 2022; Heise & García-Moreno, 2002; World Health Organization,

2018). When comparing women and men, women experience what tends to be more severe and frequent IPV, more sexual violence, stalking and damage to property (Larsen & Hamberger, 2015; Roebuck et al., 2023). Nevertheless, other research suggests men and women experience similar forms of IPV overall, as well as similar physical and mental health consequences after violent episodes (Roebuck et al., 2023). More recently, in the COVID-19 pandemic, data in Portugal indicates that both men and women experienced IPV significantly, and that being younger was associated with increased reporting (Gama et al., 2020).

Prevalence rates between lesbian, gay, and bisexual (LGB) people seem to be comparable or higher than in heterosexual individuals (Laskey et al., 2019), with LGB people suffering severe physical IPV and other forms of violence at slightly higher rates in their lifetimes than their heterosexual counterparts (Kar et al., 2023, Walters et al., 2013). Cyber-dating abuse also seems to be higher in LGBT individuals than heterosexual and cisgender ones (Butler et al., 2023). In what concerns IPV targeting gay and bisexual men, rates of psychological abuse seem to be higher than physical abuse in their relationships (Lin et al., 2020; Kar et al., 2023). Furthermore, transgender, and gender diverse people appear to experience a dramatically higher prevalence of IPV when compared with cisgender individuals (Peitzmeier et al., 2020; Stults et al., 2023). Trans and gender diverse people seem to experience very high rates of lifetime psychological victimization (ranging from 19.8% to 60% of people inquired), physical victimization (37.5% of people inquired) and sexual violence (25% of people inquired) (Peitzmeier et al., 2020). Nonetheless, IPV rates for trans women and trans men do not seem to differ significantly (Peitzmeier et al., 2020).

Experiencing different types of violence has a significant impact on the health and well-being of men in different-sex and same-sex relationships. When compared with a general sample of men, research suggests that increased exposure to different forms of IPV is associated with higher PTSD and depression symptomatology, as well as lower general physical health and sense of self-worth (Hines & Douglas, 2022). Some men may also resort to alcohol and substance abuse to cope with their experiences of violence (Cho et al., 2022).

Furthermore, men may experience loss of sexual functioning, financial strain, extreme isolation, and emasculation (Hines & Douglas, 2022). Additionally, it has been documented that some women, as part of the violence they exert on their different-sex partners, ruin men's reputation at their workplaces and communities, by generating unfounded allegations of abuse directed at them (Hines & Douglas, 2022). The consequences of the episodes of violence can

last for years after they occur and eventually entirely disrupt their relationship with their children, friends, family and work colleagues (Hines & Douglas, 2022). This type of impact on men can be considered bound by societal expectations about a traditional target and perpetrator of IPV and child sexual abuse, given that such claims may have be perceived as more unfounded when directed at women (Avieli, 2021; Roebuck et al., 2023).

From an economic point of view, the estimated IPV direct and indirect costs for all men and women in the United States who are targets of IPV is 3.6 trillion dollars over one lifetime (Peterson et al., 2018). In Portugal, gender-based violence (i.e., violence mainly directed at women based on asymmetrical power dynamics in society) costs around 8.4 billion euros yearly, with costs related to the physical and emotional impact, justice system procedures, and work economy. More specifically, based on 2019 estimates, IPV and its direct and indirect consequences cost around 4 billion euros per year (EIGE, 2021).

1.2.4. Specificities of same-sex IPV

All forms of violence are perpetrated in both different-sex and same-sex relationships, including psychological, physical, sexual, and economic violence (Edwards et al., 2015; Roebuck et al., 2023; Rollè et al., 2018). There are nevertheless specificities for LGBT individuals, such as being threatened of being outed as LGBT and/or HIV+ without their consent, being threatened with losing custody of their children and having added invisibility due to heteronormative societies (Edwards et al., 2015; Meyer, 2003). Moreover, trans and gender diverse people can face identity-specific IPV, such as being restricted from accessing gender affirming treatment and community support, and controlling or attempting to sabotage one's gender presentation or transition (Stults et al., 2023).

These specificities stem partly from minority stressors, which are additional stressors that individuals from stigmatized social groups may experience as a result of their minoritarian position in society. More specifically, experiencing and expecting prejudice and discrimination, as well as concealing your identity and internalized homophobia can significantly condition the lives of LGBT people outside of violent relationships (Meyer, 2003). This is even more pertinent for the understanding of the specific dynamics of same-sex IPV, as previous research suggests that internalized homophobia, degree of outness, stigma consciousness and experiences of discrimination are related to IPV (Longobardi & Badenes-Ribera, 2017).

In addition to the previously mentioned factors, it is important to consider that non-cis individuals, such as trans people, gender diverse people, and others, face emerging realities that have started to be studied relatively recently (Peitzmeier et al., 2020). Their lived experiences are unique and, thus far, literature points to trans people as being the group that is most exposed to IPV in their intimate partner relationships (Calton et al., 2016; Longobardi & Badenes-Ribera, 2017; Peitzmeier et al., 2020). Nonetheless, more research is needed to properly assess how IPV develops and impacts all populations.

All of these considerations should be anchored in the notion that LGBT people are at added vulnerability for the cascading effect that multiple traumas can have on one's well-being and health when compared with cisgender and/or heterosexual individuals (Kar et al., 2023; Miller et al., 2022). Thus, experiences of trauma and abuse that start in early childhood, last throughout adolescence, and culminate in adulthood can add to trajectories of IPV these people face, and intersect with contextualizing factors such as socioeconomic status (Miller et al., 2022).

Furthermore, a study by Murray and Mobley has pointed to different limitations that research on same-sex IPV has had (2009). Namely, they state that the studies they reviewed failed to use representative sampling procedures, did not use appropriate strategies to account for the potential inclusion of abusive partners in the studies' samples, did not always indicate within which time frame data collection occurred or which strategies were used to curb social desirability bias (Murray & Mobley, 2009). However, methodological strengths were also found, such as the clarification of how violence and sexual orientation was measured, making adequate inferences based on data, and detailing eligibility criteria (Murray & Mobley, 2009).

1.2.5. The help-seeking experience, its determinants, and hindering factors

Help-seeking behaviors in men targets of DV and IPV in different-sex and same-sex relationships have been the subject of research for more than two decades, but to a lesser extent than women's help-seeking in similar circumstances. Several specificities have been highlighted in these populations, in what concerns disclosure rates, who they disclose to, and other particularities (Huntley et al., 2020; Morgan et al., 2016; Satyen et al., 2019).

Heterosexual women tend to seek help from formal sources (e.g., the police, counseling and social services, medical professionals) and informal sources (e.g., family, and friends), while heterosexual men are less likely to seek formal help (Huntley et al., 2020; Satyen et al., 2019). Help-seeking rates are comparable or slightly higher for LGBT individuals when

compared to heterosexual people (Archer, 2000; Liang et al., 2005; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). Nevertheless, individuals in same-sex violent relationships may steer away from formal help sources and prefer informal ones when compared with heterosexual people (Santoniccolo et al., 2021). During the COVID-19 pandemic, IPV reporting decreased in Portugal, with studies suggesting that over 60% of targets did not seek help (Brink et al., 2021; Gama et al., 2020).

In what concerns the specific formal sources of help-seeking, previous research has suggested the importance of IPV helplines (Bennett et al., 2004; Hines et al., 2007; Tsui, 2014). These types of resources have been found to be effective in increasing access to information and support for women who experience IPV (Bennett et al., 2004), as well as men targets of IPV, despite some men describing their expectations of discrimination when first calling (Douglas & Hines, 2011; Hines et al., 2007; Tsui, 2014). There is room for improvement of these services, given that access to quality information about what constitutes violence, what help resources are available and what are realistic expectations about the help-seeking process are key to deconstructing misconceptions about seeking help via helplines (Garnelo et al., 2019).

Literature on help-seeking in targets of IPV has identified key barriers to help-seeking in men and women. One of the most reported factors is emotional dependence, by which individuals may remain in a violent relationship due to their emotional attachment to their aggressor (Merrill & Wolfe, 2000; Tsui et al., 2010). Additionally, financial dependence, substance abuse, and matters related to safekeeping the well-being of their children may lead people to not seek help to exit their violent relationships (Lysova & Dim, 2020; Merrill & Wolfe, 2000; Tsui et al., 2010). Shame has also been pointed out as a key emotion in the process of help-seeking and is inherently linked with fear of disclosure and lack of confidentiality of people's experiences (Huntley et al., 2020; Lysova & Dim, 2020; Machado et al., 2017). It is key to highlight that men can face specific socio-cultural barriers, as being the target of IPV is not consonant with traditional conceptions about who the target is, and what it means to be masculine (Larsen & Hamberger, 2015; McHugh et al., 2013; Nybergh et al., 2016).

Low awareness about violence and existing resources has also been suggested to play an important role in not seeking help, and this is especially true for men targets of violence in different-sex and same-sex relationships due to the overall invisibility they face in society (Huntley et al., 2020; Santoniccolo et al., 2021). Related to this are also expectations of discrimination from these help sources, which have added specificities if one identifies as

LGBT and/or is in a same-sex relationship (Santoniccolo et al., 2021). Lastly, low self-efficacy, which is often a byproduct of exposure to violence, hinders men's and women's capacity to move forward with help-seeking (Byrne & Arias, 2004; Huntley et al., 2020).

In terms of facilitators of help-seeking, the literature describes several factors that seem to play an important role for men and women targets of IPV. Firstly, recognizing IPV as a serious issue and reframing the partner's acts as IPV, instead of self-blaming, seems to be key (Berns, 2001; Gueta & Shlichove, 2022). This is part of what Sultana and colleagues describe as self-help and self-disclosure, and which often entails a significant cognitive appraisal shift about oneself and their beliefs about their intimate relationships (2022). Receiving informal support from friends and family is also encouraging, and receiving peer-to-peer support that validates their experiences was pointed as an important step (Gueta & Shlichove, 2022; Ravi et al., 2022; Sultana et al., 2022). Moreover, having access to online social networks and information about formal violence and help resources helped IPV targets initiate and maintain their help-seeking process (Gueta & Shlichove, 2022; Morgan et al., 2016; Ravi et al., 2022; Sultana et al., 2022).

Part of the vital role of information pertains to awareness about legal rights in what concerns IPV and help-seeking, which some authors have found to potentiate help-seeking willingness (Ravi et al., 2022; Sultana et al., 2022). Another key consideration is the availability of tailored services that provide adapted care that considers the specificities of diverse populations (Gueta & Shlichove, 2022; Ravi et al., 2022). Men and women also voice that protecting their children, families,and friends from existing and/or further harm sometimes led them to seek help, however this seems to be associated with IPV that is more severe and frequent (Gueta & Shlichove, 2022; Ravi et al., 2022). Some participants also mentioned that experiencing severe or more public episodes of IPV increased their help-seeking intentions (Gueta & Shlichove, 2022; Santoniccolo et al., 2021). Lastly, some men specifically mentioned that admitting their own vulnerability was key to accommodate the realities they were facing, and this was only possible by adopting nontraditional masculinity norms (Gueta & Shlichove, 2022).

1.2.6. The drivers and dynamics of IPV

Independently of the type of relationship, IPV seems to be driven by several key factors that often co-occur. Power and control dynamics seem to be one of the main determinants, as the literature points these dynamics to be central to an unbalance that leads to non-adaptive cognitive styles and relationship dynamics (Carvalho et al., 2011; Longobardi & Badenes-

Ribera, 2017; Ogbonnaya et al., 2021; Rozmann & Ariel, 2018). From the point of view of IPV directed at women and perpetrated by men, these power dynamics most likely stem from overarching patriarchal gender norms, in which men can exert dominance to assert their power and control and oppress women (Ali & Naylor, 2013). Nevertheless, as previously stated, men target of IPV can face gender-specific trajectories, in which traditional gender norms and expectations may be used against them as a form of violence (e.g., false allegations of abuse) and may hinder their help-seeking subsequently (Hines & Douglas, 2022).

In what concerns other examples of IPV drivers for men and women, the perpetration of physical violence seems to be higher when the perpetrator has caused previous injuries, has had controlling behaviors, and has suffered physical and sexual IPV (Heise & García-Moreno, 2002). Additionally, perpetration seems to be more likely when the individual has personality disorders, has been abused as a child, and has witnessed parental IPV (Clemens et al., 2023; Spencer et al., 2022). Insecure attachment styles (i.e., anxious, avoidant, and disorganized attachment), adherence to traditional gender roles, and experiencing PTSD are also significant risk factors, among many other factors (Heise & García-Moreno, 2002; Spencer et al., 2022). In their meta-analysis, Spencer and colleagues found that out of 44 risk markers for physical IPV perpetration in men and women, only 9 differed significantly in their strength: alcohol use, substance use, demand/withdraw relationship patterns, being abused as a child, having witnessed parental IPV, and physically abusing one's children were stronger for men in comparison with women (Spencer et al., 2022).

For same-sex IPV, besides most of the risk factors previously mentioned, internalized homophobia and fusion are among the strongest predictors of physical IPV perpetration for men, and HIV status and internalized homophobia predicted physical IPV victimization in this population. No evidence was found that degree of outness and stigma consciousness predicted perpetration and victimization in men, thus lending partial support to the possible impact of minority stressors on physical IPV perpetration in same-sex relationships (Kimmes et al., 2019; Meyer, 2003). Having perpetrated psychological abuse, drinking heavily, experiencing child abuse and witnessing parental IPV were more strongly associated with physical IPV perpetration for this population (Kimmes et al., 2019). Regarding physical IPV victimization, perpetrating and experiencing psychological abuse, drinking heavily, witnessing parental IPV and experiencing child abuse were its strongest predictors (Kimmes et al., 2019).

In what concerns dynamics of violence, it is central to highlight that different forms of violence can co-occur at the same time (Longobardi & Badenes-Ribera, 2017) and that bidirectionality of violence has been observed in both different-sex and same-sex relationships (Bates, 2016; Langhinrichsen-Rohling, Misra, et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2020; Messinger et al., 2018). Literature suggests that bidirectionality of violence occurs in a wide range of populations, including different ethnicities, sexual orientations, and education stages (Langhinrichsen-Rohling, Misra, et al., 2012; Messinger et al., 2018). Furthermore, some authors suggest that bidirectional violence is the most common form of aggression in violent relationships, contesting existing typologies of violence (Langhinrichsen-Rohling, McCullars, et al., 2012; Langhinrichsen-Rohling, Misra, et al., 2012). Findings in the Portuguese context also suggest that bidirectional violence is the most common dynamic of IPV, but evidence indicates an asymmetry in the types of violence experienced and perpetrated, as men who were involved in bidirectional violence had higher likelihood of being targets of physical violence and perpetrating sexual coercion than women (Machado et al., 2019).

1.3. Public Health Communication

1.3.1. News coverage as a source of information

Public communication is partly responsible for shaping social discourse and norms surrounding different subjects. When applied to the field of IPV, public communication has received some research that has shown its potential for benefiting and harming those who are subjected to IPV.

IPV-related news are biased toward crimes in which the targets of violence are female and in different-sex relationships, with same-sex IPV being mostly disregarded (Rollè et al., 2020). According to Rollè and colleagues, some of these news pieces also suggested different motivations for the crimes that aimed to justify or exonerate perpetrators from their accountability, while simultaneously indirectly or directly blaming the targets of violence for the situations they were in (2020). This type of contextual information has a significant influence on viewers' perceptions, as framing perpetrators to be the ones responsible for the violence they perpetrate, shifting attention from the target of violence, has resulted in increased sympathy towards targets and ultimately lead to higher intentions to engage in protective actions to help IPV targets (Carlyle et al., 2014). Perceptions also seem to differ as a function of the viewer's gender and the IPV target's gender, with IPV directed at women being

considered more serious than IPV directed at men by both women and men (Savage et al., 2017). Lastly, news coverage of femicides seems to lead to an increase in help-seeking behavior in the form of helpline calls and police reports, especially when news coverage and general interest are higher, but this beneficial effect is short-lived (Colagrossi et al., 2023).

1.3.2. Public communication campaigns as public health interventions

Another way to communicate with a given audience is the use of public communication campaigns. In theory, these campaigns should result from a thorough development and testing process that has clear objectives for a certain population, through different communication channels (Rice & Atkin, 2013). These campaigns can be transmitted through one or several channels simultaneously, such as radio, TV, the internet, billboards, posters, and other interactive experiences, and campaign effectiveness tends to increase as the scope of the campaign increases (Noar, 2006). They are often derived from a theoretical body of work that informs what outcomes and metrics should be measured to keep track of the campaign's effectiveness and impact on audiences and can be iteratively improved to better target different subsets of a population (Rice & Atkin, 2013).

Public health campaigns are specific types of public communication campaigns. They can range in scope and objectives but are mainly used for health prevention and intervention (Willoughby & Noar, 2022). Over decades of research, and especially in the North American context, these types of initiatives are also known as "Health Mass Media Campaigns" (Noar, 2006). Evidence from meta-analyses suggests that, despite methodological discrepancies in the measurement of effects, these campaigns seem to have small to moderate effects on knowledge, attitude, and behaviors related to topics such as physical activity, nutrition, cardiovascular disease, transportation safety, oral health, smoking prevention, and HIV prevention (Willoughby & Noar, 2022). Thus far, approaches that are tailored to a given purpose seem to be more effective than "one-size-fits-all" approaches, which points to the importance of tailoring these efforts according to their objectives and target audiences (Noar et al., 2007).

Among the many different types of messages that can be conveyed through public health campaigns, the literature in the past decades has mainly focused on the potential of fear appeals (or health risk/threat messages) to foment attitude and behavior change, but researchers are still divided about when they should be implemented and potential impact (Peters et al., 2013).

1.3.3. Health Risk Messages (or Fear Appeals)

The first efforts to publicly influence health behaviors adaptively while resorting to threat information date back to the 1950s, with the use of public safety announcements that aimed to inform about the risks associated with not brushing one's teeth (Witte et al., 2001). This campaign emphasized the importance of conducting a certain behavior to avoid a certain negative outcome, highlighting a potentially significant health risk. By many, this effort has been coined as the first "fear appeal" or health risk message as we will refer to henceforth (Witte et al., 2001).

These types of appeals resort to emotions, such as fear, to elicit the negative consequences of not performing a desired, more adaptive behavior for the message recipient. Conversely, they also should highlight one's efficacy to overcome the threat in question and provide a pathway for action to avert it (Peters et al., 2013). Over the decades, health risk appeals have been used in many different contexts, such as preventing driving-under-the-influence, promoting seatbelt use, smoking cessation, and healthy dieting, as well as preventing sexually transmittable infections, among others (Tannenbaum et al., 2015; Witte & Allen, 2000). Moreover, a review of sixty years of fear appeal research indicates that promoting response efficacy, and especially self-efficacy, is more effective in leading to protective action than strategies aimed at increasing risk perception (Ruiter et al., 2014). Another recent meta-analysis suggests that presenting positive response efficacy has a stronger influence on behavioral outcomes when compared with presenting low or no fear control conditions. According to this study, providing self-efficacy information or negative response efficacy information did not seem to significantly change the influence of fear appeals on behavioral outcomes when compared with positive response efficacy information (Bigsby & Albarracín, 2022). In recent years, health risk appeals were employed in different countries to promote the use of masks and vaccination amidst the COVID-19 pandemic (Teye-Kwadjo, 2022; Villacastin, 2021; Yang et al., 2020, 2021).

Nevertheless, the use of fear in health risk communications has been disputed in the prior literature due to its potential to yield non-predictable consequences for its viewers. Researchers and health practitioners have emphasized the possible counter-effectiveness of "shock tactics" that aim to jolt audiences into action and become memorable pieces of marketing but lack the depth in the analysis of its impacts on an attitudinal, emotional, and behavioral level (Hastings, 2002; Hastings et al., 2004; Peters et al., 2013). As an alternative, the use of humor in campaigns has been previously suggested, with some research pointing to encouraging results in reducing the non-adaptive effects of overcoming audiences with threat perceptions, but information on

efficacy should always be conveyed (Mukherjee & Dubé, 2012; Yoon & Tinkham, 2013). Nevertheless, no consensus still exists on the role of humor and fear in these campaigns, and more research is needed (Abril et al., 2017; Tannenbaum et al., 2015; Yoon & Tinkham, 2013).

Another perspective of analysis regarding how health messages may inform audiences can be segmented into the use of loss-gain framing (Gallagher & Updegraff, 2012). This type of framing effects emphasizes what kind of outcome the message aims for: highlighting the losses regarding doing or not doing a given action for example or emphasizing what is to be gained from doing or not doing a certain action. Research on framing effects suggests that, for general health prevention, gain-framed messages seem to be more effective than loss-framed messages (Gallagher & Updegraff, 2012). It is important to consider that this categorization is not mutually exclusive with other existing ones. For this work, message framing is not the main topic of study despite recognizing that it can be a useful perspective to develop and analyze the impacts of messages.

Independently of the type of emotion that messages appeal to, it is crucial that health message design resorts to a structured approach anchored in existing theoretical perspectives and key insights about the target population (Rice & Atkin, 2013). These campaigns should segment the audience they aim to target, use message design principles, conduct formative, process, and outcome evaluations, and improve their efforts continually (Noar, 2006).

For this work, a "campaign" is a conscious and articulated effort to tackle a social issue, promoted by an organized entity that is focusing on a given topic in a sustained way through time (Raab & Rocha, 2011). Often, the term "campaign" can refer to a broader strategy that encompasses media resources, interviews, and interactions with the target population, among others. For this work and the sake of brevity, "campaign" refers to the potential audiovisual resources employed in each social context to tackle a social issue, set on an organized procedure of development and potential testing of effects. The audiovisual resources mentioned could be audio messages, videos, static images such as posters and billboards, or even a mixture of all. Thus, in this work "campaign" does not contemplate efforts such as fund-raising, and advocacy via civil society organizations, among others.

1.3.4. IPV campaigns as prevention and intervention efforts

IPV campaigns generally aim to increase the audience's knowledge and attitudes towards IPV, help-seeking resources and aim to change social norms (Campbell & Manganello, 2013). These

campaigns have been mostly created and shared by governmental and non-governmental agencies, such as civil society organizations, and often employ a multimedia approach that considers audio and visual means.

This type of campaign has added layers of complexity when focusing on IPV given that it may be difficult to select which target audience to focus on (i.e., the targets of violence, the perpetrators, or bystanders), to understand what its main aim should be (i.e. changing individual behaviors or changing social norms), and to design messages that do not involuntarily further harm the targets of violence (Gadomski et al., 2001). This is especially important given that previous research suggests that some of these campaigns that depict explicit violence may be hurtful and inaccurate to women who experienced IPV, or even desensitize their targets to violence (Magaraggia & Cherubini, 2017; West, 2013). Contrary to these findings, Binik's results suggest that, among women and men targets of violence, a campaign depicting a woman with bruises on her face was rated among other IPV campaigns that did not depict explicit violence as most appealing, reflection inducing, and conducive of behavior change (Binik, 2020).

In addition, IPV campaigns should aim to be gender-transformative, by reshaping social norms about IPV and help-seeking behaviors (Kågesten & Chandra-Mouli, 2020). Often, accomplishing this objective requires a multi-strategy approach. However, for this thesis, it can be argued that the mere existence of IPV campaigns directed at men, who are targets of violence in different-sex relationships, and even more so in same-sex relationships, is inherently gender transformative. This is largely due to the lack of awareness about this issue in the world and Portugal (Gonçalves et al., 2021; Machado et al., 2017).

Thus far, years of research have focused on campaigns directed at women who experience IPV (Binik, 2020; Campbell & Manganello, 2006; Cismaru & Lavack, 2010; Colagrossi et al., 2022; Neal, 2015; Pedro, 2013; Romero, 2020; Wathen & Macmillan, 2003; West, 2013), documenting their creation, extrapolating about future directions in research, and testing some of its effects. Evidence seems to suggest that they can lead to an increase in knowledge about IPV and actual calls to helplines, intentions to confront abusers, and talking to someone about IPV, but many did not increase viewer's sense of self-efficacy. Nonetheless, we must highlight that there is a great disparity of methodologies, cultural settings, and outcomes which limits the quality of these findings (Binik, 2020; Campbell & Manganello, 2006; Cismaru & Lavack,

2010; Colagrossi et al., 2022; Gadomski et al., 2001; Neal, 2015; Pedro, 2013; Romero, 2020; Wathen & Macmillan, 2003; West, 2013).

Other campaigns focused on gender-based violence prevention and intervention with bystanders (Binik, 2020; Cismaru et al., 2010; Deitch-Stackhouse et al., 2015; Ferle et al., 2019; Ferle & Muralidharan, 2019; Heine, 2020; Kim & Muralidharan, 2020; Muralidharan et al., 2020; Muralidharan & Ferle, 2020; Nardi-Rodríguez & Paredes-López, 2022). Most of these campaigns strive to increase understanding of what constitutes IPV and to foster a sense of shared responsibility to take act upon witnessing IPV. Actions can include calling a helpline, engaging in conversation with the target of IPV, or filing an official complaint. Evidence suggests that recognizing IPV as a serious issue is a key step to intervene against IPV as a bystander, and in some cases, eliciting shame due to inaction and religious messaging in bystanders may increase intentions to report IPV (Deitch-Stackhouse et al., 2015; Ferle et al., 2019; Ferle & Muralidharan, 2019; Muralidharan & Ferle, 2020). Furthermore, appealing to the bystanders' sense of self-efficacy and subjective norms about helping someone who is experiencing IPV seems to increase intentions to act (Nardi-Rodríguez & Paredes-López, 2022). When compared with campaigns focusing on women targets of IPV or men perpetrators or bystanders of IPV, campaigns that appealed to the public responsibility to act in IPV were rated as having a beneficial impact in a sample of men and women, which were considered exciting and incentivizing people to act (Binik, 2020).

Lastly, other works have been conducted on campaigns directed at perpetrators of IPV (Cismaru & Lavack, 2011; Donovan et al., 1999; Gadd et al., 2014; Mbilinyi et al., 2008). Some studies outline relevant principles and theoretical models to anchor the development of such campaigns. Other studies highlight the increase in knowledge, attitudes, and actual calls to helplines by perpetrators because of the campaigns (Cismaru & Lavack, 2011; Donovan et al., 1999; Mbilinyi et al., 2008). In addition, some investigations address how perpetrators go through complex processes of negotiating their actions and their self-perceptions when faced with campaigns targeting perpetrators (Gadd et al., 2014).

Thus far, most of these campaigns tend to focus on women who experience IPV, or people in different-sex relationships (Martín et al., 2020) and have hardly represented men who are targets of violence, as well, as LGBT individuals in same-sex violent relationships (Alvarez-Hernandez et al., 2022; Edwards et al., 2015; Santoniccolo et al., 2021). There is a clear need for more peer-reviewed research on how IPV campaigns could aid men who are targets of

violence to be more informed and seek help, as suggested by previous investigations (Hine et al., 2020; Martín et al., 2020). Nevertheless, despite not being its sole focus, one study tested the impacts of campaigns that portrayed men who are targets of IPV (Shortland & Palasinski, 2019). These authors employed a within-subjects design that exposed 12 different posters to men and women: six of these posters portrayed men targets of IPV, and the remaining six depicted women targets of IPV. Following exposure, participants indicated their perception of effectiveness for each poster. Considering the global sample of men and women, results suggested that posters depicting women targets of IPV were seen as more effective than the other type of posters. Previous IPV victimization of the participants was not measured (Shortland & Palasinski, 2019).

Other studies have focused on campaigns that portray men in relation to IPV, but in a different light and anchored in the process of social marketing and formative research.

1.3.5. Social Marketing and Formative Research as tenets of campaign design and assessment

Social Marketing emerged as a discipline in the early 1970s. It focuses on influencing attitude, beliefs and behavior change via systematic planning processes that resort to marketing principles and techniques. This discipline aims to deliver beneficial and positive impact for various audience segments (Lee & Kotler, 2020). The specific behavioral changes may be: the acceptance of a new behavior; the rejection of a potentially undesirable behavior; the modification of a current behavior; or the abandoning of an undesirable behavior (Lee & Kotler, 2020). Social marketing has been named as one of the key approaches for improving health communication and its effectiveness (Stead et al., 2007). It has previously been applied to a great variety of topics, such as interventions directed at: preventing alcohol, tobacco and drug intake; increasing physical activity; increasing vaccination uptake amidst the COVID-19 pandemic; increasing screening for breast cancer; increase disclosure of sexual violence; and reducing IPV and domestic violence (Assaf & Hudaib, 2021; Bardus et al., 2023; Bueno & Cunha, 2022; Cismaru et al., 2017; Donovan & Vlais, 2005; Gordon et al., 2006; Irvine-Collins et al., 2022; Mckegg, 2021; Stead et al., 2007).

Considering a recent systematic review on the effectiveness of prevention interventions that resorted to social marketing methods, Roger and colleagues (2023) found that despite significant methodological variability and limitations, the more interventions adhered to social

marketing, the more they were deemed effective. This effectiveness was materialized as positive changes in outcomes related to concussion reporting, healthy food buying, alcohol consumption, pain intensity perception, and regular aerobic/flexibility/muscle strengthening activities, but there were some interventions that did not sustain these outcomes over time (Roger et al., 2023). It is nevertheless relevant to highlight that the quality of the studies analyzed was assessed to be generally low, and more research with adequate, unified, quantitative outcomes about the impact of social marketing initiatives was suggested (Roger et al., 2023).

Tessa McKegg's Master's thesis systematically reviewed social marketing interventions of men's help-seeking for IPV, with the aim of understanding how these initiatives may contribute to men's help-seeking (McKegg, 2021). She identified ten publications that matched her inclusion criteria, revealing a lack of research and initiatives of this kind directed at men who are targets of IPV. She also found that these initiatives had as its central themes' bystander intervention, continuity of care, digital marketing, target audience and message framing, and lastly inclusivity in social marketing (McKegg, 2021). She highlights that different marketing theories as well as behavior change theories were applied, which can be associated with increased likelihood of beneficial outcomes for its target audiences, and that more efforts directed at the diversity of men who are targets of IPV are needed (McKegg, 2021).

Within the social marketing approach, different types of research are carried out, such as formative, process and summative evaluation research (Atkin & Freimuth, 2013). All these approaches are key to improving the effectiveness of a campaign (Lee & Kotler, 2020; Rice & Atkin, 2013), but for this work I will focus on the formative research process. Formative research is the process through which message developers better understand the characteristics of the target population and their behaviors, what type of message should be created, and how it should be conveyed. This process starts before message conception and may extend into the message implementation phase (Kubacki & Rundle-Thiele, 2016; Lee & Kotler, 2020). Most often formative research is achieved through qualitative and quantitative methodologies such as interviews, focus groups, experimental tests of effects, and longitudinal studies (Atkin & Freimuth, 2013; Kubacki & Rundle-Thiele, 2016).

One way to improve the Formative Research process is by anchoring the design of a message in previously tested theoretical frameworks (Atkin & Freimuth, 2013). Some health campaigns have done so, publicly stating what theoretical models their work was based on, but

most campaigns do not share what theoretical frameworks guide their work, and disseminating such knowledge is central to allow for the testing of effects (Lee & Kotler, 2020; Stead et al., 2007). Furthermore, given the diverse range of theoretical frameworks in health and behavioral sciences, a requisite for adequate formative research involves selecting theories that have shown to explain and to enable the measurement of effects on the outcomes of interest (Atkin & Freimuth, 2013).

The literature in this field identifies many theoretical models and perspectives that could be useful for the design and study of the effects of campaigns, such as Social Cognitive Theory by Albert Bandura (Bandura, 2005), the Health Belief Model developed by the United States Public Health Services (Green et al., 2020; Rosenstock, 1966), and the Diffusion of Innovation theory by Everett Rogers (Kaminski, 2011). More pertinent to this work are the Elaboration Likelihood Model by Richard Petty and John Cacioppo (1986), the Extended Parallel Process Model by Kim Witte (1992), the Theory of Planned Behavior by Icek Ajzen (1991), and the Transtheoretical model by James Prochaska and Carlo DiClemente (1997) (Atkin & Freimuth, 2013; Lee & Kotler, 2020; Noar et al., 2007). Most importantly, besides using just one theoretical framework, considering several that tackle different parts of the problem and behaviors of interest can potentiate campaign effectiveness (Noar, 2006). Given the multitude of perspectives and their potential overlap, the selection of the most relevant theoretical perspectives should consider the nature of the problem and the aims of the research. In the context of IPV and IPV campaigns, it is essential to consider theoretical perspectives that aim to explain how individuals process health risk messages and how behavioral change may occurs.

A systematic review on the use of formative research in social marketing health interventions revealed that this approach was mostly used in the field of improving nutrition and physical activity, alcohol abuse and HIV/AIDS prevention (Truong & Dang, 2017). Additionally, it suggests that in most studies, some kind of assessment of the target audience's characteristics, attitudes, behaviors, and preferred communication channels was conducted. Nonetheless, the use of theoretical frameworks was not always reported in these studies, which limits current knowledge about what theoretical approaches framed which social marketing efforts (Truong & Dang, 2017). This review also highlights that a small number of studies conducted formative research with the aim of reducing teen dating violence, thus being targeted at young adolescents mostly in different-sex relationships (Truong & Dang, 2017).

Literature on the formative research process of IPV campaigns has been developing over the last decades. These articles mainly focused on the development of campaigns on violence against women in different-sex relationships (Donovan et al., 2008; Donovan & Vlais, 2005; Keller & Honea, 2016; Keller & Otjen, 2007), perpetrators of violence (Donovan et al., 1999; Stanley et al., 2012; Thomson et al., 2013), bystanders (Boyko et al., 2017; Potter et al., 2008) and other populations (Gadomski et al., 2001). Overall, these investigations point out the need for careful consideration about which messages are to be conveyed and to whom, with what objectives, given that lack of clarity or in-depth information about the target behavior and population may lead to counterproductive effects (Donovan et al., 2008, 2009). Furthermore, they highlight the importance of a participatory approach that considers a diverse array of people from the target population to account for the plurality of realities in each context (Boyko et al., 2017; Grennell & Cram, 2008).

1.4. Theoretical Frameworks

Over the decades, many theoretical frameworks have been proposed to explain different behavioral change processes. These theoretical frameworks have been heavily contested and subject to scrutiny, but in the context of IPV, they have been used thus far as key theoretical underpinnings of the processes men and women who are targets of or perpetrate IPV go through (Burke et al., 2001; Choden et al., 2021; Overstreet & Quinn, 2013). It is important to highlight that these theoretical models do not intend to cover every variable relevant to the study of IPV, mainly because they have been more generally applied to understanding general behavioral and attitudinal change, the construction of health risk appeals, and how cognitive processing operates (Keller & Honea, 2016; Keller & Otjen, 2007).

In what concerns health-related behavioral change, the first theoretical postulations date back to the 1950s, with theoretical frameworks such as the Health Belief Model (Green et al., 2020). This model emphasizes the relevance of perceived susceptibility, severity, benefits, and barriers related to a given behavior, highlighting cues to action and self-efficacy as key variables to consider. This model paved the way for subsequent models in the field of health behavior change, such as the Protection Motivation Theory (Rogers, 1975) and is still in use today. Other key contributions to this field are Social Learning Theory, and subsequently Social Cognitive Theory by Bandura, once again highlighting the importance of self-efficacy in

behavior change as well as modelling behaviors from social referents and the importance of behavioral rewards (Anderson & Kras, 2007).

All these initial propositions have informed current theoretical perspectives about behavior change, and for this work I will focus on four theoretical frameworks: The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991), the Extended Parallel Process Model (EPPM) (Witte et al., 2001), the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) and the Transtheoretical Model (TTM) (Prochaska & Velicer, 1997).

1.4.1. The Theory of Planned Behavior

The TPB stems from the Theory of Reasoned Action, originally proposed by Martin Fishbein & Icek Ajzen in 1967 (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2011). The original theory postulated that behavior change is preceded by behavioral intentions to do said behavior, which in turn are predicted by attitudes and subjective norms towards the behaviors. Thus, a person's intentions to do a given behavior would increase as their attitudes towards that behavior were more favorable, and the more that person perceived that others in a similar circumstance would perform that behavior (Montaño & Kasprzyk, 2008). This model received positive feedback but also was suggested to be lacking key aspects that were perceived to be central to behavior change and maintenance, namely self-efficacy as had been previously suggested by Bandura in the Social Cognitive Theory (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2011).

In 1991 Ajzen proposed an extended version of the Theory of Reasoned Action entitled the Theory of Planned Behavior, which added perceived behavioral control to the antecedents of behavioral intentions (Ajzen, 1991). According to the author, perceived behavioral control refers to the belief that one can conduct a given behavior while surmounting key obstacles. This construct is, according to the author, essentially analogous to that of self-efficacy. Hence, the intentions to perform a behavior also depend on whether one believes to be capable of performing the behavior in question (Ajzen, 1991; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2011).

Besides the three core antecedents of behavioral intentions, other predicting variables have been suggested for the three main components. For instance, in what concerns attitudes towards a behavior, individuals assess the outcomes of performing the behavior (outcome evaluation) and how likely the outcome is to occur (behavioral belief strength). Additionally, subjective norms are predicted by Injunctive Norms, or what the person this their social referents think about the behavior), Motivation to Comply with social referents, Descriptive Norms, or what

the person believes social referents would do in a realistic situation, and Identification with Referents, meaning how much the person identifies with the social referents. Finally, Perceived Behavioral Control has as core antecedents how likely it is that certain factors that may hinder or facilitate the behavior are present (Control Belief Strength), and the extent that these factors may hinder or facilitate the behavior (Power of Control Factors) (Ajzen, 2006; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2011).

Literature on the TPB has shown very promising results across different cultures, ages, and target behaviors. This framework has been successfully tested to explain COVID-19 vaccination intentions, psychological help-seeking, physical activity uptake, pro-nutrition behaviors, stress management, alcohol and drug use, adherence to medical regimens, risky sexual behavior, academic hazing, safe driving, smoking cessation, among others (Correia et al., 2018; Rahi, 2023; Smith et al., 2008; Stead et al., 2005; Steinmetz et al., 2016).

Most importantly, it has also been applied to explain behaviors in the domain of Domestic Violence and IPV. In what concerns help-seeking behaviors, several studies have shown that the TPB is useful to explain women's intentions of leaving an abusive relationship and highlight that having favorable attitudes towards leaving and having a sense of self-efficacy are key (Byrne & Arias, 2004; Dardis et al., 2015; Fleming & Resick, 2017; Sulak et al., 2014). Sulak and colleagues suggest that there may be gender differences in the application of the TPB in what concerns hypothetical reporting behaviors, with subjective norms regarding reporting being the common predictor of intentions for both genders (Sulak et al., 2014). Other studies focused on violence perpetration by men in different-sex relationships (Betts et al., 2011; Forsdike et al., 2018; Kernsmith, 2005; Tolman et al., 1996), with Kernsmith (2005) suggesting that the model may not be adequate to explain perpetration of violence by women. Lastly, some research has focused on how to understand bystander intervention through the lens of the TPB and its constructs, suggesting that increasing subjective norms regarding intervening in IPV leads to greater intentions to intervene (Lemay et al., 2019)

Moreover, several studies have shown the adaptive role of subjective norms to foster different types of behaviors in different populations. Generally, a recent meta-analysis on the use of social norms appeals has found that there is consistent support for the effectiveness of social norms manipulations (i.e. descriptive vs injunctive vs mixed approach) in attitudes, descriptive norms, behavioral intentions, highlighting that manipulating injunctive norms may hold potential in the future (Rhodes et al., 2020). Other examples of interventions, such as

workshops and campaigns, resorted to a social norms approach focused on IPV and domestic violence. The results of these studies suggest that these interventions are successful in leading to at least short-term positive changes in beliefs, attitudes, subjective norms, self-efficacy/perceived behavioral control, and behavioral intentions to seek help in samples of the general population (Deitch-Stackhouse et al., 2015; Fabiano et al., 2003; James et al., 2021; Lemay et al., 2019; Rogers et al., 2019). Most of these studies does not state which type of norms were used in their approach (i.e., descriptive, injunctive, or dynamic), but seemed to use a more generalized interpretation of descriptive norms regarding the behaviors in question.

It is key to highlight that some studies have specifically used or manipulated dynamic descriptive norms. Dynamic norms pertain to the change of a norm over time, and research suggests that they can lead to adaptive attitude and behavior change even when compared with a prominent, contrary "static" norm (Sparkman & Walton, 2017). Moreover, dynamics norms seem to be able to strengthen "static" norm interventions when the norm is positive, operating under the assumption that people may feel the need to anticipate a future change setting (Sparkman & Walton, 2017). More recent research from these authors indicates that presenting dynamic norms may aid in resolving diverse psychological barriers to behavior change in different contexts. Their investigation suggests that dynamic norms may make people feel that behavior change is more possible, regarded as more important by others, and more compatible with their identity (Sparkman & Walton, 2019). When comparing dynamic norms, static norms and control conditions, these authors found that the dynamic norm was more effective in leading to behavior change intentions when compared with the static norm and control conditions (Sparkman & Walton, 2019).

Lastly, the decades of research with the TPB have also brought to light several key limitations of this framework, such as not considering the influence of unconscious processes and emotions on behavior change, and having limited predictive validity (Sniehotta et al., 2014). The TPB is undoubtedly one of the most prolific theoretical models ever in the social sciences, but it must still be iteratively improved as new evidence is found pertaining to its constructs and applicability (Sniehotta et al., 2014).

1.4.2. The Extended Parallel Process Model

The EPPM is an example of a dual-process model, which stems from the original Parallel Process Model by Leventhal in 1970 (Witte et al., 2001). This original model focused on how people processed health risk messages, suggesting possible routes: danger control processes, in which people thought about strategies to avoid the threat; and fear control processes, in which people focused on fear arousal and fear reduction. According to the author, danger control processes are adaptive and may lead to the taking up of recommended protective behaviors against the threat, while fear control processes may lead to denial, defensive avoidance, and reactance to the threat. This model was criticized for its lack of precision, given that it did not inform about when one type of cognitive processes would occur and dominate the other (Witte et al., 2001).

The Extended Parallel Process Model by Kim Witte (1992) expanded Leventhal's ideas by specifically indicating that when faced with a health risk message, one of three outcomes may occur: no response, a danger control response, or a fear control response. These responses are dependent on different appraisals of threat information, which is processed firstly, and subsequently efficacy information appraisal. In what concerns threat perceptions, audiences assess how susceptible and how severe the portrayed threat may be for their health and well-being. Afterwards, they assess the efficacy of the recommended response to avert the threat and their self-efficacy to perform the recommended response (Witte et al., 2001). One of Witte and colleagues' major contributions lies in stating that there is a threshold of threat perception that must be activated for individuals to feel persuaded to process information, without which audiences would not respond to the message.

In line with this rationale, to adaptively process the message the viewer's sense of efficacy should be higher than their sense of threat, which has to be sufficiently high but no higher than their sense of self-efficacy. In case audiences are overcome with a threat in comparison with their appraisal of efficacy, one of three non-adaptive cognitive outcomes may occur: denial of the threat, defensive avoidance, or reactance (Witte et al., 2001). Reactance is essentially a reaction to a threat to one's freedom and has been verified in many different contexts (Ratcliff, 2021). In the context of health promotion, people who resort to reactance may appropriate the message's information in a way that suits their biased beliefs, ignoring key aspects of the message and non-adaptively reinforcing existing behaviors (Ratcliff, 2021). Thus, this model not only allows for the understanding of message success and failure in persuading audiences,

but also why and how it does so, pinpoint which types of cognitive processes were employed (Witte et al., 2001)

The EPPM has been tested over two decades in different fields of health promotion, with research on smoking cessation, dental hygiene, hearing health, pregnancy health, sexually transmitted infections, COVID-19 vaccination and mask use, physical activity safe driving, among others suggesting its suitability to explain risk messages (Batchelder & Matusitz, 2014; Roberto, 2013; Witte et al., 2001; Yang et al., 2020, 2021). In an adjacent topic, Ruiter and colleagues reviewed decades of research on fear appeals considering the EPPM and concluded that promoting efficacy information is more relevant than promoting threat information in order to foment adaptive behavior change (Ruiter et al., 2014). Additionally, it has been found to be mostly theoretically sound according to tests to its initial postulations (Maloney et al., 2011). In the field of DV and IPV messages, the use of the EPPM is essentially non-existent. To the best of my knowledge, only one study has resorted to the EPPM as a foundation on which to develop IPV campaigns directed at targets of violence, as part of its formative research process (Keller & Honea, 2016). Participants in this study were inquired about the different constructs of the EPPM relating to calling helplines, and men and women highlight the importance of representing self-efficacy and efficacy of the recommended response in these campaigns (Keller & Honea, 2016). Despite evidence to attest to its suitability in aiding the design and test of messages about IPV, the EPPM is pertinent to the extent that it allows for the safeguarding of the individuals who witness these messages, people who already are in situations of added vulnerability, and pinpointing what may be contributing to undesired negative effects (Witte et al., 2001).

The EPPM has also been subject to criticism over the decades, mainly due to its focus on fear as the main motivator of a desired behavior and emotional outcome of health risk message processing (in contrast with other emotions such as anger, disgust, and sadness) (Popova, 2012). Additionally, it also assumes that audiences are not familiar with the threat or recommended responses before exposure to the messages, and that the constructs underlying threat and efficacy perception are additive, instead of multiplicative. Literature on how to calculate indexes of threat and efficacy perception are still not consensual, and future research should attempt to test multiplicative, instead of additive, relationships between these variables (Popova, 2012).

1.4.3. The Elaboration Likelihood Model

The ELM aims to explain possible attitude change via persuasion and was proposed by Richard Petty and John Cacioppo in 1986 (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). It is a dualistic processing model in the sense that it states that argument processing may occur via two processing routes: central and peripheral. If audiences are sufficiently motivated and capable, and if the message is relevant to them, they may process the message via the central route. Attitudes that are changed via this type of processing tend to be more long-lasting and resist change. Conversely, when audiences do not meet these conditions, they use the peripheral route, in which different cognitive heuristics are employed to "shortcut" cognitive processing, thus being less cognitively demanding. Examples of such heuristics can be how attractive, similar, and credible the source of the message is (Jones et al., 2003; Kitchen et al., 2014; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986).

The model states that individuals very frequently move from the peripheral to the central route of processing and vice-versa, making the attitude change process a complex one in which any of the two routes can lead to the desired outcome (Kitchen et al., 2014; O'Keefe, 2013). Persuasion is a key staple of this model as it is inherent to the process of attitude change. Successfully activating key heuristics in an audience may hold the power of successfully convincing them of a given message, and this has been used to market different products and services (Kitchen et al., 2014). Moreover, this model has also been found to be key for health promotion, as most often audiences do not have the motivation and capacity to process resource-heavy health messages. Thus, employing social referents, such as celebrities, and people seen as credible, has been a key strategy for health promotion in different health domains (Henningsen et al., 2003; Jones et al., 2003).

The ELM has been applied extensively in the fields of marketing, psychology, health, education, tourism, information technologies, environmental sciences, among others, being considered a key framework to understand cognitive processing of information and its associated influencing factors (Shahab et al., 2021). In the context of IPV campaigns, the ELM has only been explicitly used once, in a study by Keller and Otjen (2007). In their approach to developing an IPV prevention campaign directed at women targets of IPV, they found preliminary positive results for the suitability of the ELM to this specific context.

Some limitations of this model may lie in its descriptive nature, issues related with multi-channel processing and what variables may mediate elaboration likelihood (Kitchen et al., 2014). The model is argued to be descriptive given that it was mostly organized to make sense

of a large body of literature before its inception and may end up failing to model the psychological processes inherent to persuasion or explaining the relationships and the conditions of the persuasive process (Kitchen et al., 2014). Additionally, it is not entirely clear if persuasion occurs via both routes simultaneously and under which conditions as some more recent evidence as shown, or if both routes must occur independently (Kitchen et al., 2014). Lastly, the mediating role of variables such as argument strength, cognitive involvement, personal relevance, and affect is not entirely specified, which does not provide a clear pathway for the testing of effects under the model's original propositions (Kitchen et al., 2014).

1.4.4. The Transtheoretical Model

The TTM has been widely studied over the past decades as one of the most prominent behavioral change models in the social sciences. It was first presented by Prochaska & DiClemente in 1986 and attempts to explain how behavioral change occurs through a series of stages and processes of change (Prochaska & Velicer, 1997). The authors state that this process is not linear, and individuals may regress from one "subsequent" stage to one that precedes it in the chain and iteratively improve their behavioral change process. This model states that there are five stages to achieving behavior change: Pre-Contemplation, Contemplation, Preparation, Action, and Maintenance (Velicer et al., 2013).

In the Pre-Contemplation stage, people are not yet ready to act on a given outcome or behavior, but cognitively they have engaged with the reasoning behind why they should or shouldn't do it. In the Contemplation stage, people actively ponder the benefits and drawbacks of conducting the desired behavior, assessing what barriers and facilitators they may have in doing said behavior. In the Preparation stage, individuals are purposely oriented towards doing the desired behavior, but in terms of cognitive and contextual resources are still preparing to do so. In the Action stage, people do the desired behavior along and in the Maintenance stage they aim to avoid regressing into other behaviors than the one chosen and try to maintain it. All the stages described are not tied to a specific timeline, but the authors suggest that when measuring contemplation of adoption of new behavior, one potentially representative timeframe is within the following six months. Nevertheless, behavioral change is a complex process and before the Action stage, people may remain in some of these stages for extended periods, such as a month or even years (Prochaska & Velicer, 1997).

Inherently linked with these stages of change are the processes of change. The processes are the mechanisms via which stage transition often occurs, and specific stages may require different processes. The authors reinforce that depending on a given behavior as well as personal and contextual variables several of these processes may apply in one or more of these stages. Categorized as affective/cognitive processes are acquiring new information about the behavior, reviewing the consequences of the behavior for oneself and others, experiencing and expressing affection, and conforming to changing social norms. Other processes that are more behavioral in nature are replacing an existing behavior with a new one, controlling external stimuli, seeking rewards in oneself and others, seeking social support, and committing to changing one's behavior (Velicer et al., 2013).

The Transtheoretical model has been previously applied to a wide range of fields and behaviors, such as healthy eating, physical activity, contraceptive use, sleep quality, drug abuse, smoking cessation, dental health, sunscreen use and breast cancer screening, among others (Hashemzadeh et al., 2019). Most of these interventions showed beneficial results on its targets, thus suggesting its high applicability to very diverse behaviors and settings (Hashemzadeh et al., 2019). Furthermore, in what concerns health campaigns, the TTM has been used to infer what type of information may trigger stage change in its audience, according to the different proposed processes of change (Cismaru et al., 2008).

In the field of IPV, previous research has used the TTM as a framework to understand the processes experience by women targets of IPV, highlighting its suitability to explain intentions to leave an abusive relationship and how to adequately counsel targets of violence based on which stage of change they are in (Brown, 1997; Burke et al., 2001, 2004; Burkitt & Larkin, 2008; Choden et al., 2021; Frasier et al., 2001; Reisenhofer & Taft, 2013). Additionally, studies have suggested that the TTM can be successfully applied to intervene with men and women who perpetrated domestic violence and IPV, with research suggesting more similarities than differences in the processes and stages of change between these two populations (Babcock et al., 2005; Levesque et al., 2008).

1.4.5. Proposed integration of previous theoretical models about the impact of campaigns on intentions to call a helpline

Figure 1.1 presents a hypothetical model as a visual representation of how the outlined theoretical models might provide a more comprehensive explanation of the short-term impact

of campaigns on behavioral intentions to call a helpline. This model, proposed in this thesis, seeks to integrate the various contributions provided by the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991), the Extended Parallel Process Model (Witte et al., 2001), the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) and the Transtheoretical Model (Prochaska & Velicer, 1997), with a focus on the impact of exposure to an Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) campaign. This model does not aim to state direct causal relationships between all models and their variables but provides a possible theoretical organization of all relevant concepts. Other possible integrations are possible and should be research in the future. Thus, this proposed model integrates IPV campaigns' potential effects on fear or danger control processes, the persuasive cues that may be activated, and how such exposure might influence behavioral intentions. These processes are dependent on the stage of change and the corresponding processes of change that may elicit adaptive evolution throughout the behavioral change process. All of these constructs may be influenced by over-arching gender roles in society, and how they shape one's life.

More specifically, the TPB is important for mapping out possible key behavioral determinants of help-seeking, due to its applicability to many behavioral outcomes, including help-seeking in IPV contexts (Fleming & Resick, 2017; Sulak et al., 2014). Its proposed antecedents to behavioral intentions, namely attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control (or self-efficacy) are all pertinent in the context of IPV help-seeking, and mirror constructs that have been researched quantitatively and qualitatively in this field over decades (Laskey et al., 2019). Knowledge about these behavioral antecedents is central to unveiling what may facilitate and hinder men's intentions to call a helpline. We chose calling helplines as the target behavior given that these helpful resources are very often free, easily accessible, confidential, and have less disclosure of the person who is seeking help when compared with other help-seeking strategies. In the context of this thesis, the TPB is the foundation on which other theoretical models are connected, given that both the EPPM and the ELM contribute to explaining persuasion and possible attitudinal change.

The EPPM is central to understanding what characteristics of health risk appeals could be pertinent for the study of IPV campaigns, and to understanding what constructs may facilitate or hinder persuasion and lead to unintended negative effects (Witte et al., 2001). Considering that one of the targets of IPV campaigns may be men who are subjected to IPV, the design of these public campaigns should hold as its core values the safeguarding of those who are already significantly impacted by IPV and are in situations of added vulnerability.
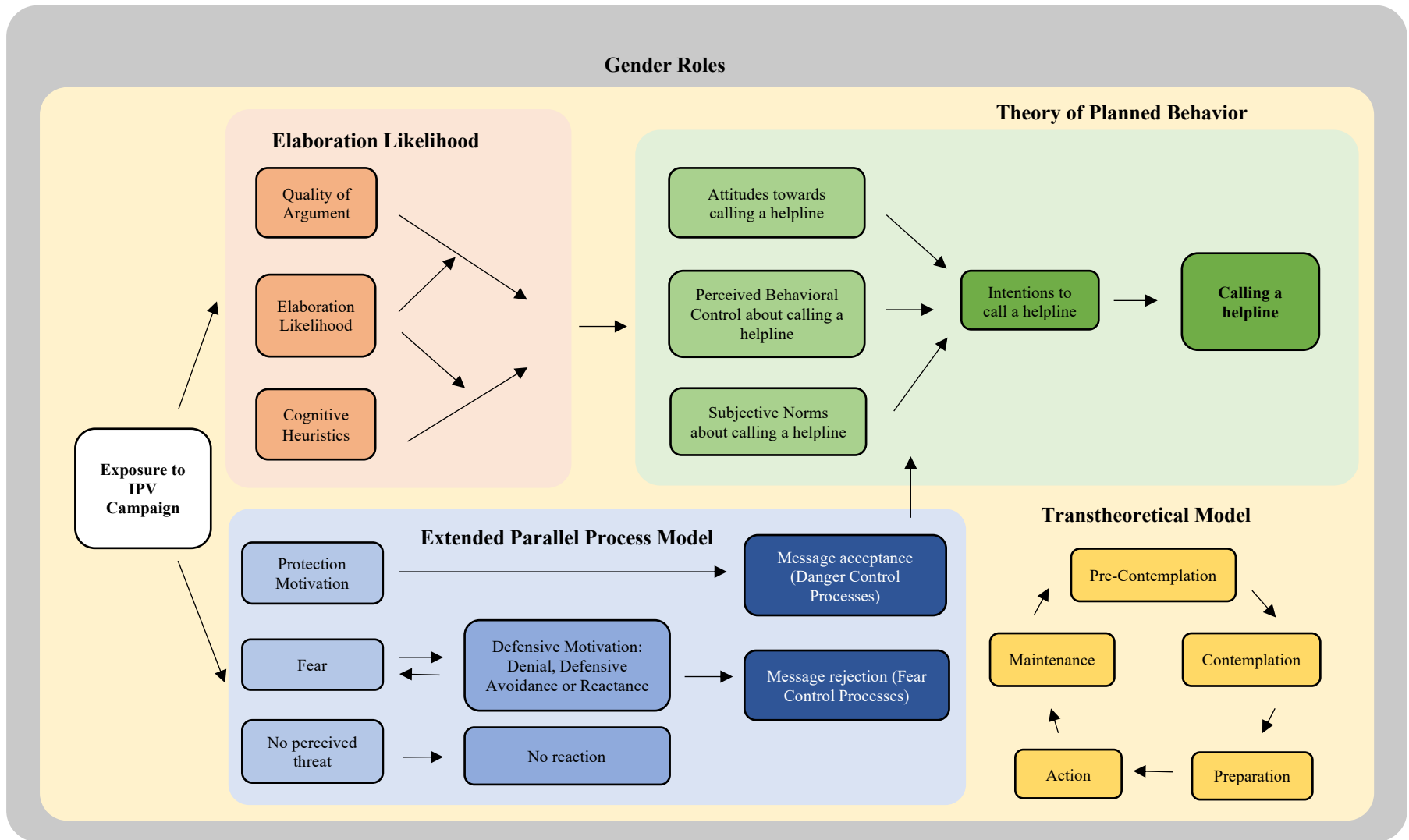
Figure 1.1. *Proposed hypothetical integration of different theoretical models*

The EPPM provides the possibility to understand if audiences are engaging in adaptive or non-adaptive cognitive processes about health risk messages, and then pinpointing what constructs of those messages may contribute to these processes. Thus, this theoretical model anchored our perspective on IPV campaign characterization and analysis of effects, as it postulates key conditions under which health risk messages can potentiate adaptive message processing while avoiding negative effects such as denial, defensive avoidance, and reactance.

From the ELM, we have considered how information may be processed depending on the motivation, resources, and abilities of the audience, as well as how cognitive heuristics may facilitate persuasion, and in turn, attitude change. We considered that this model can be applied adequately in the context of IPV campaigns due to the arguments and people they usually represent, and the potential role of message source similarity and credibility (Jones et al., 2003). The ELM has also been previously applied in the field of IPV with promising benefits and is suggested to be a key framework in this field (Keller & Otjen, 2007).

Lastly, the TTM contextualized our entire approach by detailing how behavioral change occurs through a series of stages and processes of change, and that this process is not necessarily linear. Both affective/cognitive and behavioral processes are postulated to trigger stage transition, such as acquiring new information, reviewing the consequences of behavior for oneself, conformity with social norms, and seeking social support. We consider that each stage should have a targeted approach given that different stages may require different strategies to activate adequate behavior change, and in my view, IPV campaigns may provide victimized men with this type of targeted information and strategies (Witte et al., 2001)

According to Burke and colleagues, women who are targets of IPV may need consciousness raising, helping relationships and decisional balance most when transitioning from Precontemplation to the Contemplation Stage (Burke et al., 2004). To move from the Contemplation to the Preparation stage, the authors suggest that processes of self-reevaluation and environmental reevaluation should occur (Burke et al., 2004). This model has also been previously applied to the field of IPV and health risk messages, suggesting how information about variables analogous to those in the Extended Parallel Process Model may trigger stage transition (Cismaru et al., 2008), bridging the gap between theoretical perspectives in an integrative approach. For this thesis, we consider that the target audience is men in violent DS/SSR that are mainly in the Pre-Contemplation and Contemplation stages, and that IPV campaigns may trigger consciousness raising, helping relationships, decisional balance and self-reevaluation processes, potentially fostering help-seeking.

Combining these four theoretical models also offers a perspective that is more encompassing of reality than other approaches that focus solely on one theoretical model. The use of these models covers behavioral, attitudinal, cognitive, and affective variables, providing a holistic approach to studying men's IPV circumstances and their help-seeking (Noar, 2006; Witte et al., 2001). For the purposes of this thesis, the over-arching influence of gender roles in these processes is key, as we posit that gender-specific trajectories of IPV and help-seeking may occur. Furthermore, approaching the development of public health campaigns taking into consideration different message design and behavioral change theoretical models has also been proposed to improve their effectiveness and allow for adequate testing of effects (Atkin & Rice, 2013; Willoughby & Noar, 2022). Nonetheless, documenting the integration of these models and further assessing the effects of their implementation in audiences across different fields and behavioral outcomes is scarcely done (Willoughby & Noar, 2022). Moreover, different types of interventions have been used to prevent and intervene in IPV with varying degrees of effectiveness. Thus, in this thesis, we aim to understand how to enhance the effectiveness of one type of intervention, namely by focusing on IPV pictorial campaigns. Nevertheless, IPV campaigns should not be implemented in isolation. Instead, they ought to form part of a broader suite of IPV interventions, striving to deliver a comprehensive strategy to address IPV in societies, all working collaboratively to provide a holistic strategy to eliminate IPV within societies (Donovan & Vlais, 2005).

1.5. Summary

This chapter highlights that men experience significant IPV in their DS/SSR, that can impact their own gender roles, and that their help-seeking is often conditioned by internal and external factors. Thus far literature is still very scarce on these populations, as well as on how IPV campaigns can take better advantage of theoretical perspectives and the insights of the target populations to potentiate their effectiveness. In fact, research has pointed that some IPV campaigns that resort to health risk appeals may have unintended negative effects on its audiences, being counterproductive to those they aim to aid. Thus, given that IPV targets are in circumstances of added vulnerability, this topic is worthy of more investigation given that it will produce valuable knowledge in this field, and adhering to ethical and moral principles on work with these types of populations is imperative.

Thus, with this thesis we aim to comprehend how to facilitate help-seeking among men who were targets of IPV in different-sex and same-sex relationships (DS/SSR), and how targeted IPV campaigns may aid in this purpose. We conducted the Formative Research process

(Atkin & Rice, 2013) with men targets of IPV in DS/SSR to: understand their experiences of violence and help-seeking; comprehend existing IPV campaigns directed at men targets of IPV considering different theoretical models, as well as men's insights for new ones; and test the effects of prototypical IPV campaigns based on tenets of different theoretical perspectives.

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CHAPTER II | Intimate Partner Violence Directed at Men: Experiences of Violence, Help-seeking, and potential Gender Role Conflict among Portuguese Men

2.1. Abstract

Recent research has shed light on how men in same-sex and different-sex relationships experience Intimate Partner Violence (IPV), and how it may contribute to their Gender Role Conflict (GRC), through which men face a dissonance with their gender roles. However, knowledge on these topics is still lacking. We aim to better understand men's experiences of violence in their same-sex or different-sex relationships by identifying their dynamics and the specific barriers and facilitators to seeking help. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 14 adult men (Heterosexual, n=6; Gay, n=5; Bisexual, n=2; Not disclosed, n=1) who self-identified as having been targets of IPV. The interview protocol considered the literature on IPV and the feedback from stakeholders in victim support services. The results were analyzed following the principles of Content Analysis. Our findings suggest that men are negatively impacted by their abusive relationships, with physical, psychological, sexual, and economic violence having been perpetrated by their same-sex or different-sex partners. Some men reported being further stigmatized in their help-seeking experiences. Gay and bisexual men indicated specific processes that played a significant role in their experiences. Some men revealed discomfort with the identity of "victim", which may be linked to possible GRC processes. In sum, IPV impacts men in different-sex and same-sex relationships, and our findings provide new insights about how violence and help-seeking are experienced in the Portuguese cultural setting. Future efforts should focus on assessing possible GRC processes in this population and provide adequate information and tailored services to the specific needs of these men.

2.2. Introduction

According to (Heise & García-Moreno, 2002), intimate partner violence (IPV) refers to the victimization of a person by someone with whom they have or had an intimate relationship, possibly resulting in both immediate and long-term physical, psychological, and sexual health problems. IPV has been traditionally associated with women experiencing violence in their different-sex intimate relationships (Hamberger & Larsen, 2015), and the COVID-19 pandemic seems to have exacerbated pre-existing tendencies in this regard, with severity of violence and novel cases of IPV potentially increasing (Lyons et al., 2022).

Nonetheless, research in the past few decades has shown that men in different-sex and same-sex relationships experience IPV as well (Edwards et al., 2015; Scott-Storey et al., 2023). Additionally, help-seeking in these populations seems to have different specificities that should be identified to raise awareness and better inform help services (Huntley et al., 2020). Nevertheless, more research is still needed on the study of this phenomenon (Edwards et al., 2015; Machado et al., 2018).

2.2.1. Prevalence and nature of violence directed at men

Recent research indicates that about 1 in 3 men in same-sex relationships has experienced some form of IPV in their lifetimes, and this prevalence is comparable to, or higher, than IPV prevalence for men in different-sex relationships (Liu et al., 2021; Rollè et al., 2018). Similarly to women, men may be the targets of physical, psychological, sexual and economic violence, leading to significant health consequences, such as anxiety, depression, suicidal ideation, and serious physical injuries (Longobardi & Badenes-Ribera, 2017; Scott-Storey et al., 2023).

Lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) people can also experience different minority stressors that may play a role in their experience of violence (Meyer, 2003). These can be expressed in factors such as degree of outness, stigma consciousness, internalized homonegativity, and discrimination (Meyer, 2003). These factors seem to potentiate both the victimization and the perpetration of violence in same-sex relationships (Longobardi & Badenes-Ribera, 2017; Stiles-Shields & Carroll, 2015), which may be linked to the invisibility of same-sex IPV or to disregarding its severity (Rollè et al., 2018). There are also specific expressions that violence in same-sex relationships can assume, such as being threatened of being "outed" without consent, and non-consensually disclosing a positive serological status (Edwards et al., 2015; Stiles-Shields & Carroll, 2015).

2.2.2. IPV as a gendered experience

Gender has been posited to be a mutable social construct that is ever-changing in accordance with a given social and historical context (Connell & Messerschmidt, 2005). Masculinities, in turn, refer to the way that gender is socially constructed and perpetuated among men in different contexts, set on underlying power and dominance dynamics, as well as other factors (Connell & Messerschmidt, 2005). Traditionally, men may be pressured to conform to hegemonic masculinity norms, such as being emotionally resilient, physically strong, and dominating, while rejecting notions that may be traditionally consonant with femininity (Addis & Mahalik, 2003; McClennen et al., 2002).

Deviating from or breaking traditional gender norms surrounding masculinity has been found to be emotionally harmful for men, and puts them at a higher risk for IPV, such as being the target of emasculating and homophobic comments (Scott-Storey et al., 2023). Additionally, men who identify as non-heterosexual and/or are in same-sex relationships may be further negatively impacted as traditional masculinity is heavily dependent on the assumption of heterosexuality (Carvalho et al., 2011; McClennen et al., 2002).

These negative impacts may be related with the concept of gender role conflict (GRC) (O'Neil, 2013), which occurs when rigid, sexist, or restrictive gender roles result in restriction, devaluation or violation of others or the self. GRC has been previously associated with over 85 non-adaptive psychological outcomes, such as depression, stress and anxiety, and worse help-seeking attitudes and intentions (O'Neil, 2015). Previous qualitative research suggests that IPV directed at men may result in dissonances with their gender roles, which is possibly linked with existing and rigid notions of masculinity and expectations to conform to them (Machado et al., 2020; Walker et al., 2020). Taking all of this into consideration, IPV experiences have been framed as gender-specific due to the significant influence that gender norms have on all men and women, (Larsen & Hamberger, 2015; Nybergh et al., 2016; Scott-Storey et al., 2023).

2.2.3. IPV drivers and dynamics

One key factor that seems to underlie violent acts towards an intimate partner is a need to exert power and control (Carvalho et al., 2011; Longobardi & Badenes-Ribera, 2017; Rozmann & Ariel, 2018). Among the theoretical frameworks aiming to explain IPV, we highlight the feminist theory which states that violence towards women is a way for men to exert their dominance, power, and social status in society. According to this perspective, men in different-sex and same-sex relationships can be the targets of violence primarily due to retaliation of violence they exerted in the first place (Ali et al., 2016; Merrill & Wolfe, 2000; Rozmann &

Ariel, 2018). Also relevant is the Gender Symmetry Theory, which postulates that women can perpetuate violence towards their male intimate partners to establish dominance and control, not only as retaliation but also without being targets of violence in the first place (Kimmel, 2002).

Research has previously supported both perspectives, although many methodological and conceptual limitations have been pointed out to establish a consensus on this topic (Rozmann & Ariel, 2018). Independently of which theory is supported, striving for power and control can drive partners to exert violence, even if for different reasons and in different contexts (Rozmann & Ariel, 2018). These power and control dynamics have also been observed in same-sex relationships (Carvalho et al., 2011), which may point to its cross-sectional nature among intimate partner relationships.

Furthermore, alcohol and substance abuse have also been linked with IPV, not only as triggers for the perpetration of violence, but also as non-adaptive coping strategies after being a target of violence (Larsen & Hamberger, 2015). Additionally, research suggests that some of the main reasons why men remain in their abusive relationships are emotional and financial dependence, lack of awareness about what constitutes violence, and lack of information about what help resources are available (Merrill & Wolfe, 2000; Tsui et al., 2010). For men in same-sex relationships, different minority stressors are postulated to influence remaining in an abusive relationship as well, such as not being "out of the closet" or having internalized homonegativity (Carvalho et al., 2011; Longobardi & Badenes-Ribera, 2017).

Also relevant, the "cycle of violence" has been observed in the experiences of abused men in different-sex and same-sex relationships (Machado et al., 2017; Rollè et al., 2018). This cycle is usually composed of three main moments involving violence and its de-escalation: an increase in tension between intimate partners, followed by a moment of violence, and the "honeymoon phase", in which the aggressor typically de-escalates violence by apologizing, keeping distance, among other behaviors (Walker, 2009). These dynamics may keep men who are targets of violence in their abusive relationships and may condition their willingness to seek help (Tenkorang et al., 2021).

2.2.4. Facilitators and barriers to help-seeking

In terms of frequency, men in different-sex relationships tend to seek formal help at lower rates than women in different-sex relationships (Lysova et al., 2020). Men in same-sex relationships seem to seek help more frequently than men in different-sex relationships (Edwards et al., 2015). In Portugal, almost 25% of the IPV formal reports refer to men as targets of IPV

(Ministry of Internal Affairs, 2021). When men seek informal help, they often resort to friends and family members for support, and are more likely to seek informal sources of help than their female counterparts (Choi et al., 2018).

Men who experience IPV seem to have specific facilitators and barriers to help-seeking (Huntley et al., 2020; Lysova et al., 2020; Machado et al., 2017). As internal barriers, research suggests that men tend to minimize the severity of the violence they face, which in turn can impact their help-seeking attitudes and intentions (Scott-Storey et al., 2023). This is inherently linked with their adherence to traditional gender norms which hinder men's capacity to recognize themselves as targets of violence, or that may make them feel vulnerable, ashamed, and "not masculine enough" (Carvalho et al., 2011; Lysova et al., 2020; Machado et al., 2017). Men may also not seek help due to emotional dependence and to safekeep their family's well-being, especially if the couple has children (Lysova et al., 2020). Being labeled as a "victim" may also add to existing pressure and negative health outcomes derived from experiencing violence, not only because this label has been found to be perceived as stigmatizing by both men and women who have experienced violence, but also because it may be incompatible with the traditional male gender role (Burcar & Åkerström, 2009; Eckstein, 2010), potentially hindering help-seeking (Lysova et al., 2020).

In what concerns external barriers, men may have expectations of prejudice and discrimination based on their gender role when considering help-seeking, or even of being ridiculed or framed as the perpetrators of violence (Douglas & Hines, 2011; Machado et al., 2017; Walker et al., 2020). For LGBT targets of violence, minority stressors and the "double closet" may be an additional barrier when seeking help, as they have to self-disclose both as targets of violence and as LGBT (Morgan et al., 2016). They may expect prejudice and discrimination from service providers, fearing negative repercussions, and feeling that services are not tailored to their needs (Edwards et al., 2015; McClennen et al., 2002). Moreover, men may feel isolated in their experiences, which could derive from the nature of the violence perpetuated (e.g., psychological violence), but also due to the invisibility surrounding males who are targets of IPV (Lysova et al., 2020).

2.2.5. Aims of the present study

Considering the literature on IPV directed at men in different-sex and same-sex relationships, and the need to further understand their experiences of violence and help-seeking, the aim of this study is twofold: firstly, assess men's experiences of violence in their different-sex and same-sex relationships by identifying their specific characteristics and dynamics; secondly,

understand men's help-seeking process, by identifying the specific barriers and facilitators they encountered.

This study provides a novel contribution to the fields of IPV and gender norms by investigating men in circumstances of IPV in a southern European cultural context. There is a dearth of research centered around how this region's specific masculinity norms, and subsequent possible GRC processes, may impact men's lives and their willingness to seek help. Furthermore, to the best of our knowledge, only one quantitative peer-reviewed study has been accepted for publication on GRC in men who were targets of violence (Reis, in press). Thus, this study also expands the literature on this field by complementing such findings with a qualitative approach.

2.3. Method

This study followed the Journal Article Reporting Standards for the report of primary research (JARS-Qual) (APA, 2018).

2.3.1. Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Eligible participants had to self-identify as men, aged 18 years or older, and have experienced IPV (past or present). Same-sex and different-sex relationships were considered, provided that participants were Portuguese residents and could communicate well in either Portuguese or English. In contrast, exclusion criteria included participants that, instead of experiencing IPV, reported other types of violence (such as physical or sexual abuse as a minor) that did not take place in the context of an intimate partner relationship.

2.3.2. Sample

To reach the widest possible sample, the call was distributed through governmental and non-governmental organizations. The call for participation ran throughout 2019, and after preliminary assessments showing data saturation, data collection was stopped in that same year. Interviews were conducted at several locations in Portugal. Our sample was initially composed of 15 participants; however, one participant's data was excluded from the study since he mentioned being the target of another type of violence besides IPV. As a result, 14 males, aged between 24 to 51 years old (M=34, SD=8 years), were included in the study. Most men had at least a bachelor's degree, were unmarried, and were employed at the time of participation (see Table 2.1 for a full description of sociodemographic characteristics). Participants differed

regarding their sexual orientation, with two participants identifying as bisexual, five as gay, and six as heterosexual. One individual did not to indicate his sexual orientation.

Table 2.1

Sociodemographic characteristics

Variable	*N*	*%*	Variable	*N*	*%*
Occupational Status			Civil Status		
Student	1	7.1	Single	11	78.6
Employed	11	78.6	Married	1	7.1
Unemployed	2	14.3	Divorced	2	14.3
Education level			Has Children		
Primary	3	21.4	No	10	71.4
Secondary	2	14.3	Yes	4	28.6
Bachelor's Degree	6	42.9	Abusive Relationship Length		
Master's Degree	2	14.3	Less than 1 year	3	21.4
Other	1	7.1	Between 1 - 5 years	7	50.0
Living Context			Between 6 - 10 years	2	14.3
Urban	11	78.6	Over 10 years	2	14.3
Rural	2	14.3	Filed a Criminal Complaint		
Mixed	1	7.1	Yes	8	57.1
Sexual Orientation			No	6	42.9
Heterosexual	6	42.9			
Gay	5	35.7			
Bisexual	2	14.3			
Not Disclosed	1	7.1			

One participant did not have Portuguese nationality or spoke Portuguese and thus his interview was conducted in English. Two men were residing in a shelter for men who were targets of IPV at the moment of participation. Different forms of violence, including psychological (e.g., insulting), physical (e.g., attempt at drowning), sexual (e.g., forcing sexual contact), and economic (e.g., non-consensual use of private funds) were perpetrated against participants. Only one participant chose to remain in his abusive relationship, and participants' abusive relationships lasted from 8 months to 19 years.

2.3.3. Interview Protocol

The interview protocol was developed to consider IPV research, its dynamics and processes, as well as additional stressors that males in same-sex relationships may experience. The protocol was semi-structured, and three stakeholders—a clinical psychologist, a victim support specialist, and an LGBT activist—reviewed the protocol.

To further enhance comprehension of the protocol, a pre-test was conducted with two men and one woman who volunteered to be in a hypothetical IPV circumstance. Following the completion of this procedure, the protocol was finalized in both Portuguese and English, and was used in all interviews without additional modifications. The protocol included both general inquiries (e.g., "When violence first occurred, how informed were you about violence directed at men?") and more focused inquiries (e.g., "How would you describe your experience while filing a complaint?"). When inquiring about men's experiences of violence, we did not inquire about identities (i.e., being a "victim" of violence). Instead, we used a descriptive approach of behaviors (e.g., "being the target of stalking). The interview protocol in Annex A.1.

2.3.4. Coding taxonomy development

The development of the coding taxonomy was both inductive and deductive. On a deductive level, we considered existing research on IPV and help-seeking. The inductive approach involved examining a subset of the interviews which were subjected to the original coding taxonomy. This allowed for the emergence of new categories that more accurately reflected the data. The definitive version of the taxonomy was the result of an iterative process of improvement.

2.3.5. Taxonomy categories

We had a total of 1368 units of analysis, and our taxonomy was composed of 26 categories and 40 subcategories. These categories cover men's accounts of their experiences with violence

(i.e., "Consequences of violence"), help-seeking (i.e., "Formal help – development of the process"), and gender roles (i.e., Masculinity, victimization and gender role conflict). All categories are described in Annex A.2.

Firstly, questions inquired about participants' general impressions about IPV directed at men in Portuguese society. Categories emerged because of this group of questions related to masculinity, and the nature of the identity of "victim". Secondly, participants were asked about the relationship in which they experienced violence and its characteristics. Categories in this group represent many different experiences, such as the types and nature of violence that occurred, the consequences of violence and resultant feelings, and factors that may escalated violence. The third group of questions inquired about informal and informal help-seeking, including categories that for instance represented the experiences of seeking help with friends, and how filing a complaint impacted men's well-being.

2.3.6. Coding process

Data from the interviews was coded using content analysis. According to Bardin (2011), the purpose of this approach is to systematize data according to different objectives to achieve a better understanding of its origins and meanings. Semantic coding was used to organize the data and was performed by three raters. The main rater coded all data entirely on his own. In total, the independent raters coded 50% of all collected data, with each rater coding mutually exclusive data sections that were equivalent in length. The researcher who performed the interviews and coded all the data is trained specifically in IPV and LGBT-related issues and has a background in Social Psychology. The coding taxonomy and its descriptions were provided to the other two raters, who were unfamiliar with the study aims. Discussions were held to clarify the definitions of certain categories, but our goal was to lessen any potential bias the independent raters may have had from knowledge of the subject. The QSR Nvivo 12 software was used to code the data.

2.3.7. Risk of bias assessment

Using IBM SPSS (v25), interrater reliability was calculated using Cohen's K. This index revealed a very good level of agreement between the main rater and the second (α= .94) and the third (α= .90) independent raters.

2.3.8. Procedure

The Ethical Review Board of the study's host institution provided its approval (32/2018). Participants gave their written informed consent at the beginning of each session. Only the interviewer and the interviewee were present, and the audio recording equipment was perceptible to both individuals. During the interviews, participants were asked about their general perceptions about IPV directed at men in Portugal, their experiences of violence and of help-seeking. To avoid potentially negative effects of discussing sensitive topics, at the end of the interviews, participants were provided with information about help resources such as helplines. Interview duration ranged from 1h30m to 2h30m, averaging 2 hours. The audio files were only accessed and transcribed to text by the main researcher, which were then anonymized for the purposes of data coding by the independent coders. In total, 28 hours of interviews were transcribed, analyzed and coded.

2.4. Results

2.4.1. Unbalanced power, control, and gender-based dynamics can potentiate violence

Processes that are in line with the victimization cycle were reported in most cases (n=13). Some participants reported staying in the relationship mostly due to emotional dependence (n=6), social isolation (n=2), lack of awareness about violence and resources (n=2), and lack of self-esteem due to the violence experienced (n=2). Two other participants mentioned family motives, such as feeling that remaining in the relationship would safeguard the well-being and the safety of their children and also because they feared losing legal custody (n=2). Another participant highlighted that socially his partner was closeted and this difficulted talking to someone about the situation.

When inquired about factors that may have potentiated the perpetration of violence, participants suggested unbalanced power and control dynamics in which the perpetrator aimed to be dominant (n=11) and substance abuse on behalf of the perpetrator (e.g., alcohol) (n=3). Other participants mentioned masculinity threat dynamics (n=3) such as same-sex partnership among men and the invisibility of violence in these relationships, early history of sexual abuse, erectile dysfunction, or similar sexual difficulties.

In terms of appeasing factors, participants reported that keeping distance from the aggressor after the violent events led to a reduction in tension (n=5) and being passive by not voicing their own opinions on the matter (n=5). Two participants highlighted that clear communication and dialogue also helped decrease the tension in the couple.

2.4.2. Participants experienced several types of violence

Psychological violence was the most experienced type of violence (*n*=12), with participants indicating a range of behaviors, such as being criticized and humiliated (*n*=10), being the target of coercive control and stalking (*n*=9), being socially isolated (*n*=6), and being threatened with disclosure of false aggressor status (i.e., being the aggressor in the relationship, or being a child sex offender) (*n*=3). These incidents were seen as serious, and one participant compared them to physical violence.

Physical violence was the second most reported type of violence (*n*=10) and constituted acts such as being punched (*n*=5), strangled (*n*=2), being cut (*n*=2) and an attempt at drowning (*n*=1). For all participants who reported physical violence, psychological violence co-occurred. Economic violence (*n*=6), such as attributing domestic expenses without the consent of the participant (n=2), and sexual violence, such as being forced to have sexual intercourse (*n*=3), were also reported. One participant reflected on how his experiences of sexual violence impacted him.

Lastly, specific circumstances of violence were reported by participants in same-sex relationships (n=2), namely being criticized for being out or not "discreet" (n=2) or threatening to out the participant to his family and workplace (*n*=1).

2.4.3. Experiencing violence leads to significant, often long-lasting psychological consequences

Most participants reported a wide array of negative psychological outcomes resulting from their experiences of violence (*n*=10). Among these participants, feeling emotionally exhausted was the most described feeling, especially after filling police complaints (*n*=9). Other participants reported lower self-esteem (*n*=5), and that they still felt they could not move on from the experience (*n*=4). Some stated that they had a better sense of what they deserved in a relationship after these experiences (*n*=4), but nevertheless felt anxiety, sadness, numbness, socially isolated and the targets of stigma (*n*=3). Lastly, two participants indicated that they felt like they had lost their identities, and another two participants reported feeling suicidal. Many of these consequences were still felt years after the episodes of violence occurred. These experiences of abuse also led to economic consequences, as reported by 5 participants. Two participants indicated that aggressors kept funds and documents from them after breaking up, and another two were left in a considerably worse economic conditions after the aggressor imposed non-consensual expenses.

2.4.4. Most men did not feel informed about violence directed at men, and suggest that it is stigmatized and mostly invisible in society

Most participants stated that they did not feel informed about violence directed at men at the time of their experiences of violence (*n*=11) and stated that physical violence as the most recognizable type of violence (*n*=8). When asked about overall perceptions about violence directed at men in society, participants felt that violence against men is not discussed as much as it should (*n*=11) and that men are seen as having to perform traditional masculinity roles such as being physically strong, emotionless, and enforcing power to avoid being labeled as more feminine or non-heterosexual (*n*=9).

For these reasons, when participants experienced violence, they often felt shame, ridiculous, and invisible (n=8), and that violence directed at men is considered less serious than violence directed at women (*n*=6). Some participants voiced concerns about the effectiveness of justice and police forces to help men and women in these circumstances (*n*=5), and partly due to this, some felt afraid of the consequences of being mislabeled as the aggressors in their experiences of abuse (*n*=4). Lastly, 2 participants suggested that violence experienced in same-sex couples may be harder to detect, also due to the lack of tailored efforts to do so.

2.4.5. Being a "victim" is seen as not consonant with being masculine

When discoursing about the topics under study, the concept of "victim" was often mentioned and elaborated upon by participants. Some participants voiced that the identity of "victim" is not compatible with notions of traditional masculinity, given that being a "victim" was inherently thought of as being passive, weak, and something pejorative (*n*=4). For these reasons, some participants stated that it was hard for men to recognize themselves as "victims" of violence (n=3), and that seeking help may be hindered (*n*=2).

Two participants in same-sex relationships voiced that violence between a couple of men was seen as normalized or ridiculed, in part due to traditional masculine socialization for violence among men (*n*=2). Lastly, one participant suggested that being a "victim" is often not associated with empowerment, and another indicated that perhaps this identity may not fit anyone, man or woman, due to its socialized negative connotation in Portuguese society.

2.4.6. Emotional dependence hinders men's recognition as targets of violence, and access to information and emotional support facilitates it

Independently of the participants' self-identification with the term "victim", they were inquired about the factors that played a role in their own recognition as targets of violent behaviors. Among the factors that hindering the capacity of men to recognize themselves as targets of violence, seven men indicated that emotional dependence to the aggressor was the most relevant factor. Additionally, men mentioned shame (*n*=3), lack of information and awareness (*n*=2), and one reported being in a same-sex relationship due to the added invisibility of violence in these types of relationships. Conversely, having access to information (e.g., websites, testimonies) (*n*=8), having emotional support adjusted to their circumstances and non—judgmental (*n*=6), or facing higher severity of violence (*n*=2) were seen as potential facilitators of their recognition as targets of violence.

2.4.7. Friends and family were sought for support, but formal help sources were scarcely resorted to

Most participants sought help from their friends (*n*=10) and family (*n*=5) amidst their experiences of violence. Three participants remained silent about their situation fearing negative reactions from friends and family. This type of informal support was sought mostly after incidents of violence occurred (*n*=5), but also when participants were left without a place to stay (*n*=2). Most participants found the support of friends and family to be helpful (*n*=10), but two participants stated that it was unhelpful.

Participants provided several reasons not to contact formal help sources (e.g., health centers, therapists) or file a criminal complaint. They indicated emotional dependence and not wanting consequences for their ex-partners (n=5), lack of awareness about who to contact and how the process would be (n=4) and not being aware about what constituted violence (n=4). Additionally, some men felt like they could/had to manage the situation (n=3), that being a man (and in some cases being LGBT) meant there was no guarantee that police forces would provide adequate treatment (n=3) and felt ashamed (n=2).

When specifically asked about domestic violence/intimate partner violence helplines, most participants did not know about them (n=9), and those who knew never thought to call (n=4) or had intentions but never actually called (n=1). Three participants stated that they associated these types of services and organizations to support women who were targets of violence, and that to foster a call to this type of service men had to process their own shame and fear of

prejudice from helpline providers (n=5) as well as more information that is specific to all realities, including LGBT issues (n=3).

2.4.8 Reporting violence to police forces is a complex process that further stigmatized some men

A total of 8 participants reported the violence they experienced to police forces. The motives behind these reports were varied, ranging from having their situation publicly exposed (n=2), to threats made to their loved ones by the aggressor (n=1), and acting before the aggressor falsely filed a complaint to the police (n=1). To 4 of these 8 men, their own sense of fear, shame and stigma were a key aspect to overcome when doing this process.

Nevertheless, to some men, this experience was still positive overall, clearly surprising them in how they felt assured and not judged by the police forces (n=3). However, other participants had mixed (n=1) to negative experiences (n=4). For instance, three participants felt that police forces did not believe or disregarded their account of the experiences they had gone through and were not trained to provide a gender-responsive service.

Moreover, one participant tried to report the abuse he was going through several times, and in two of those circumstances he was the one who was considered the aggressor. Additionally, two participants implemented safety measures because of the reporting, namely wearing electronic GPS with trackable bracelets and remote assistance devices. These participants voiced that these types of systems had severe limitations, such as being inconvenient for the performance of their jobs and daily lives, and due to their lack of effectiveness, these systems could potentially threaten the well-being of those they aim to protect.

2.5. Discussion

This study aimed to understand the violence that men in different-sex and same-sex relationships experienced, and their insights about formal and informal help-seeking processes and dynamics. Our results show that violence negatively impacted men's health and willingness to seek help and this was rooted in different factors.

The main drivers of violence were related to power and control dynamics, and substance abuse, which are in line with the literature on IPV (Carvalho et al., 2011; Coker et al., 2021; Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al., 2012; Rollè et al., 2018). These findings add to the literature on possible violence typologies and their potential application to men in different-sex and same-sex relationships. For instance, Johnson's typology (Johnson, 1995) argues that due to over-arching patriarchal norms, coercive control is most likely perpetrated by men towards women

as the basis of Coercive Controlling Violence (i.e. aiming to gain general control of the partner, resorting to physical or sexual violence). Our findings, along with more recent research (Hines & Douglas, 2010; Machado et al., 2017) inform of circumstances in which men were also the targets of this type of violence in different-sex relationships, and expand it by considering same-sex relationships. Nonetheless, more research is needed to assess how gender may play a role in different violence forms that have underlying power and control dynamics. Directed efforts should be made to understand scarcely researched populations such as men and women in same-sex relationships.

It is important to highlight other factors that emerged which we interpreted as gender-based dynamics, such as masculinity threats and the aggressor not recognizing violence among same-sex couples as valid, significant, and consequential. Our findings contribute to the scarcely researched field of IPV directed at men in same-sex relationships (Edwards et al., 2015), and highlight the invisibility of same-sex IPV and its subsequent disregard in terms of validity and severity, as stated in previous research (Rollè et al., 2014). Nevertheless, more research is needed on the possible intersection between norms about violence, masculinity and sexual orientation/gender identity, and how this intersection may impact the identification of what constitutes violence in an intimate relationship (Scott-Storey et al., 2023). This may also inform clinical practice and future research on this field, by highlighting a possible lack of recognition of the specificities of same-sex IPV in those involved in the process.

Participants experienced several forms of violence such as psychological, physical, economic, and sexual, with significant and long-lasting consequences in their lives. Aggressors also threatened to falsely disclose some of our participants as the perpetrators of violence (i.e., IPV or child abuse). This type of coercive control may be specific to men due to the normative perceptions about who the target of IPV commonly is and the invisibility surrounding men who experience violence. This pattern of behaviors has been observed previously in this population (Avieli, 2021; Hines et al., 2015) and may point to the need to consider normative perceptions about violence and masculinity when dealing with men who experience violence. It may also point to gendered forms of Intimate Terrorism, potentially expanding Johnson's typology and contributing to a critical reflection on its tenets and applicability (Ali et al., 2016; Johnson, 1995).

All the reported episodes of violence were extremely serious to the point that two participants felt suicidal in their abusive relationships. Psychological violence was thus compared to physical violence in terms of its consequences, as pointed out in previous research (Longobardi & Badenes-Ribera, 2017). Feeling exhausted, anxious, sad, numb, and being the

target of stigma were key experiences during this process. Our results corroborate previous literature on this topic (Coker et al., 2021; Eckstein, 2016; Scott-Storey et al., 2023) and highlight that men go through very complex situations in which different types of violence can accumulate, leading to great strain.

Same-sex specific expressions of violence were also registered and are in line with research on the specificities of same-sex IPV and how different minority stressors in the aggressor and the target of violence may play a role in its processes (Edwards et al., 2015; Longobardi & Badenes-Ribera, 2017; Meyer, 2003). This highlights the importance of mapping out all types of violence and recognizing that same-sex couples may go through specific circumstances that health service providers, police forces and the justice system should be aware of to provide adjusted responses (Rollè et al., 2018). As previously stated, the literature in this field is still emerging (Edwards et al., 2015; Rollè et al., 2018) and our results help shed light on the specific processes men in same-sex relationships go through in the Portuguese context.

In line with research on these topics, participants reported remaining in their abusive relationships mainly due to emotional dependence or to lack of awareness about violence (Carvalho et al., 2011; Mallory et al., 2016). The cycle of violence was also observed in most cases (Machado et al., 2017; Rollè et al., 2018) and may be inherently linked with why men stayed in their relationships. Men also reported that they did not feel that violence directed at men was discussed in the Portuguese society, and that physical violence was most recognized, which is partly in line with research on this field in Portugal (Machado et al., 2016). Despite our findings that help understand this awareness (or lack thereof), more research on awareness about IPV is needed to allow for the extrapolation of comparisons between different cultural settings.

Countering the lack of awareness may be achieved by providing quality information about what constitutes violence, what are a person's rights in these circumstances, and what mechanisms and resources exist to help someone in these abusive situations (Tsui et al., 2010). Public awareness campaigns have been used previously and can still be improved considering the insights and suggestions of men who went through experiences of violence (Reis et al., 2022). Access to adequate information may, in turn, aid men in recognizing themselves as targets of violence and potentially lead to help-seeking.

Importantly, despite recognizing the violent circumstances they had been through, one key takeaway message from men's accounts of their experiences lies in their interpretations of the identity of "victim", and how this may lead to cognitive dissonance. This may be partly due to the involuntary designation of people who experienced violence as "victims" without

considering their self-determination as such (Hollander & Rogers, 2014), which has also been observed among women who were targets of violence (Leisenring, 2006). The same could be said for men who experienced abuse in their relationships, but there are social and historical specificities to be considered. The lack of fit with the term "victim" of violence may stem from the historical construction of who a "victim" is commonly perceived to be (i.e., mainly women) and how traditional masculinity is inherently incompatible with weakness, emotional instability, and lack of dominance (Burcar & Åkerström, 2009; Eckstein, 2010). This may be dependent on cultural settings and their general perceptions about masculinities, femininities, "victims" and intimate partner violence, and our findings are among the first contributions on this topic in the Portuguese context (Machado et al., 2020).

Moreover, for men who are not heterosexual and cisgender there may be some added factors to consider, as their own sexual orientation and/or gender identity may not be aligned with the traditional perceptions of what "being a man" and a "victim" means (Eisikovits & Bailey, 2016). In turn, this dissonance, or lack of fit, stemming from their involuntary designation as "victims" of violence can result in negative psychological outcomes for men (Eckstein, 2010), and possibly hinder help-seeking. Thus, future research should consider the possible negative effect of being imposed a stigmatized identity, since evidence points to its negative influence on health and help-seeking in IPV (McCleary-Sills et al., 2015). A better approach to conceptualize who is a "victim" is also needed, and if other terms should be preferred. For instance, prioritizing a descriptive approach of events (i.e., highlighting who perpetrated and who was the target of behaviors) may be a way to avoid using terms such as "victims" that may lead to unwanted negative effects. Another possibility could be the use of the term "survivor" of violence or abuse, which has been suggested in previous literature on IPV (Eckstein, 2016), but more research is needed to properly understand what terms may be most adequate, and if they are constant over time.

The negative feelings voiced by men about the masculine gender role may also be related with the concept of Gender Role Conflict (GRC) (O'Neil, 2008, 2013). Qualitative research conducted with males who were targets of IPV has shed light on how they may question or feel distress regarding their own gender roles, which could be because of expectations and violations about what "being a man" means (Machado et al., 2020; Walker et al., 2020). To the best of our knowledge, very few studies have specifically used the GRC framework to understand men's experience of violence (Reis et al., in press). Decades of quantitative research on other samples of men have shown that GRC is associated with many psychological non-adaptive outcomes, including worse attitudes and lower intentions to seek help (O'Neil, 2015). Thus, our

interpretations are novel as they provide an important complement to existing quantitative approaches, especially in the Portuguese context. Future research could assess if and how GRC may relate to the experiences of violence and subsequent help-seeking, and how it may exacerbate the negative impact that violence has on men.

For those who sought help, friends and family were the most common sources of informal help, with formal help sources being resorted to only when violence became unavoidable or very severe. These findings corroborate previous research in men who were the targets of IPV (Machado et al., 2017; Rollè et al., 2018) and may signal how violent episodes that are commonly interpreted as less severe by these men are not seen as worthy of being disclosed to formal help sources. Another motive may be due to the perception that help sources may not be adequate or even further stigmatizing, such as understanding that existing IPV helplines are exclusively for female targets of IPV, and may be discriminatory (Hines et al., 2007; Tsui, 2014). We highlight that one participant ended up being considered the aggressor when attempting to file a formal complaint, which is in line not only with some expectations about the ineffectiveness of existing help systems and resources (Machado et al., 2017; Tsui, 2014), but that has also been experienced by men in similar circumstances previously (Walker et al., 2020). Thus, training and adequate awareness raising about existing resources is key to potentiate help-seeking.

Still, several men did not disclose their situation, not even to their friends and family, because they were afraid of the repercussions. This may point to the need to raise awareness in bystanders of violence, and in the population in general, so that any given person is adequately informed to advise on the topics of violence and existing help resources. Additionally, men in same-sex relationships faced specific expectations of stigma and discrimination (i.e. "the double closet") (Morgan et al., 2016). Being aware of each populations' specificity is key to not only detect violence that is widely recognizable, but also to provide a tailored approach to each case. This may be achieved by education on these topics early in people's lives, specific training programs for service providers and public awareness campaigns (Reis et al., 2020, 2022; Tsui et al., 2010).

In sum, the experiences of IPV that men in different-sex and same-sex relationships go through are multi-faceted, complex, and deeply rooted in pre-existing social norms about gender roles, sexual orientation, and violence. Many factors were identified that could play a role in facilitating and hindering help-seeking, which should be the target of future research to build knowledge on this phenomenon and assist the development of tailored and more effective interventions for these populations. It is important to consider that these processes and dynamics

can be impacted by cultural variables, and our novel findings shed light on IPV in the Portuguese setting.

2.5.1. Limitations

Future research could aim to overcome different limitations present in this study. Firstly, our sample was obtained mostly via formal help sources such as governmental and non-governmental agencies, given that some of our participants had sought help with these sources. This is in part why essentially half of our sample had filed a formal complaint. Thus, the generalization of our findings may be limited for people with these types of experiences, and future research may aim to collect the impressions of other men via other sources such as social media platforms, that one hand may expand the reach of communication but on the other hand may limit the depth of analysis as provided in this study (Lyons et al., 2022). Secondly, our data was based on self-report of events that in some cases had happened years before, in very distressful circumstances of different degrees of severity. Violent experiences can impact memory recall, and this should be considered in future efforts in this field. Thirdly, our research could have been complemented by quantitative methods to provide a more standardized view over the topics under study, namely IPV and GRC, but measures that specifically apply to men's gendered processes of IPV are still non-existent (Costa & Barros, 2016).

2.6. Conclusion

Our study provides novel insights about how men experience IPV, highlighting the potential role of GRC. Consistent with previous research, men in different-sex and same-sex relationships experience different types of violence, that lead to significant consequences for their lives, and are often based on power and control dynamics. These findings add to existing typologies of violence such as Johnson's (Johnson, 1995), and highlight the complexities of IPV processes and dynamics. It is important to consider the specific barriers and facilitators to help-seeking in these populations, such as how specific stressors may impact the experiences of men in same-sex relationships. IPV can be considered a highly gendered experience, and GRC may play a role in men's experiences of violence and help-seeking. Future studies should resort to mixed-methods approaches to assess if GRC is linked with male experiences of violence and help-seeking, potentially paving the way for more effective interventions and awareness-raising.

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CHAPTER III | Intentions to call a helpline among victims of Intimate Partner Violence: The role of the Theory of Planned Behavior and Gender Role Conflict

3.1. Abstract

This research firstly aimed to test the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) as a model to understand the intentions to call a helpline of victimized males and females. A sample of 99 participants (53 males; 46 females) who were suffering violence at the time of participation were considered for analysis. Our results indicate that males and females' attitudes and subjective norms significantly predicted intentions. Secondly, this study aimed to measure Gender Role Conflict (GRC) in victimized men and test its association with TPB constructs. GRC occurs when rigid, sexist, or restrictive gender roles result in the restriction, devaluation or violation of others or the self. Our results indicate that GRC was only negatively associated with perceived behavioral control. Additionally, in our sample of men who filled the GRC measure (n=245), victimized men reported significantly higher GRC than non-victimized men. Overall, our findings indicate gender-specificities in the intentions to call a helpline and suggest that GRC plays an important role in seeking help for men.

Keywords: Victimization, Intimate Partner Violence/Partner Abuse, Violence, Gender

3.2. Introduction

Intimate partner violence (IPV) can be defined as the victimization of a person by someone with whom he/she currently has or had an intimate relationship, potentially leading to short and long-term physical, psychological, and sexual health problems (Heise & García-Moreno, 2002). Over the decades, research on IPV has highlighted it to be one of the most significant threats to the well-being of women worldwide (Heise & García-Moreno, 2002).

However, more recently, and challenging traditional beliefs about gender and violence, the study of IPV exposed its significant negative effects on male targets of violence (Scott-Storey, 2023; Liu et al., 2021; Laskey, Bates & Taylor, 2019; Drijber et al., 2013; Nowinski & Bowen, 2012). For instance, a review conducted by Desmarais and colleagues (2012) found that approximately one in four women and one in five men suffered physical violence in an intimate relationship. Nevertheless, most literature suggests an overall more frequent and more severe sexual, emotional and physical victimization directed at women in different-sex relationships, when compared with their male counterparts (Hamberger & Larsen, 2015). Previous research showed that lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) people seem to be the targets of IPV at similar or higher rates when compared with heterosexual individuals (Rollè et al., 2018). A systematic review and meta-analysis by Liu et al. (2021) found that one in four men who had sex with men had suffered some form of IPV in their lifetimes. It must also be considered that specific factors such as minority stressors have been found to influence both the process of abuse and subsequent help-seeking (Edwards, Sylaska & Neal, 2015; Santoniccolo et al., 2021).

In terms of help-seeking, heterosexual victimized women also tend to seek help more frequently when compared with victimized men (Archer, 2000; Liang et al., 2005; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). Among the types of formal ways of obtaining help, research on helplines indicates that, among heterosexual victimized men, general domestic violence helplines were among the least used types of formal help, and were rated as somewhat unhelpful and often discriminatory (Hines et al., 2007; Tsui, 2014). Furthermore, the Inter-American Development Bank (2019) highlights that improvements in this type of help service are needed to ensure adaptive attitudes and behaviors towards calling. Nevertheless, research from Bennett et al. (2004) found helplines to be reasonably effective in increasing women's knowledge, self-efficacy and coping skills in domestic violence contexts. These differences highlight the need to understand the specificities of victimization as a function of gender and identify potential explanatory factors. However, to adequately tackle IPV and improve help-seeking, the underlying mechanisms of behavioral change should be identified.

3.2.1. Understanding behavior change: The Theory of Planned Behavior

One of the most prolific theoretical models in the field of behavior change is the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991). It postulates that behavioral intentions are preceded by the attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control towards a certain behavior. Perceived behavioral control is theorized to moderate the relationship between attitudes and subjective norms with intentions. Behavioral intentions, in turn, predict actual behavior change, and can be moderated by perceived behavioral control. When applied to the field of IPV, this theory could for example be applied to explain intentions to call a helpline among males who are targets of IPV. According to this framework, intentions to call a helpline would be higher if victimized men: had a more positive attitude towards calling; felt that other people would call a helpline in their situation; believed that they could actually perform the call. This theory is an expansion of the original Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980), by adding perceived behavior control as a predictor of behavioral intentions.

Different predictors were proposed for each of the main components of the TPB (see Figure 3.1). Firstly, attitudes towards calling a helpline are predicted by evaluations of its possible outcomes (e.g., how good or bad receiving emotional support is) and behavioral belief strength (e.g., perceived likelihood that the person will receive emotional support).
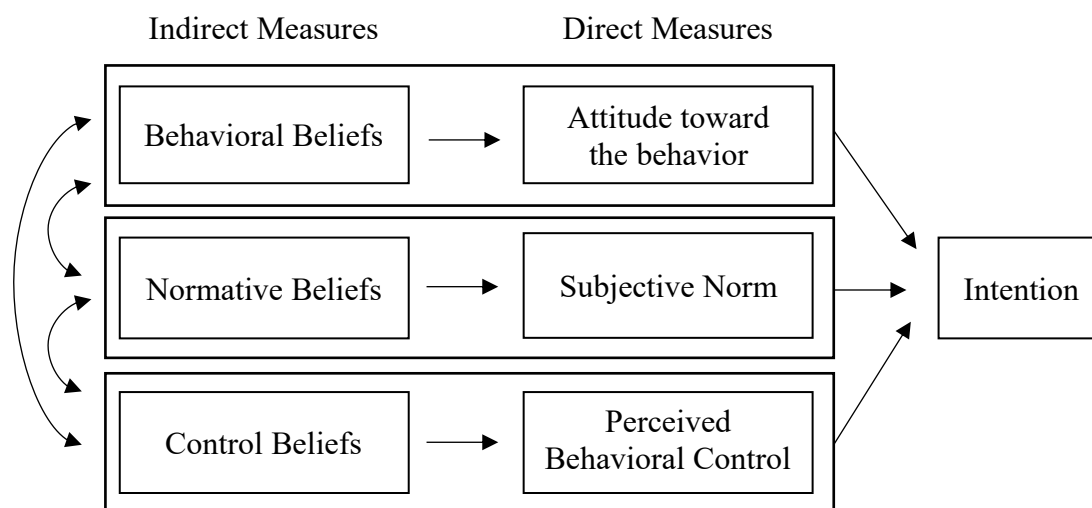
Figure 3.1. *Indirect and direct measures of behavioral intentions as proposed in the Theory of Planned Behavior (adapted from Ajzen, 2006)*

Secondly, the antecedents of subjective norms are Injunctive Norms (e.g., what the person thinks his/hers social referents think about calling a helpline), Motivation to Comply with

Referents, Descriptive Norms (e.g., what the person believes the social referents actually do in a situation of IPV) and Identification with Referents (e.g., how much the person identifies with the social referents in what concerns calling a helpline). Lastly, Perceived Behavioral Control is predicted by two constructs: Control Belief Strength (e.g., perceived likelihood that certain factors that could impede or facilitate the behavior are present, such as fearing a breach of call confidentiality); and Power of Control Factors (e.g., extent to which the presence of certain factors, such as fearing a breach of call confidentiality, has in impeding or facilitating the performance of the behavior).

The TPB was previously applied to explain many different behaviors such as smoking cessation (Norman et al., 1999), screening for cancers, healthy eating, exercising and adhering to oral hygiene (Godin & Kok, 1996), participation in academic hazing (Correia et al., 2018), men's psychological help-seeking (Smith et al., 2008), preventing sexually transmitted diseases and pregnancy (Tyson et al., 2014) and speeding (Stead et al., 2005). Overall, these studies suggest that the TPB is adequate in explaining behavioral intentions and identifying some of its potential predictors, allowing for more specific and effective interventions.

It was also applied in different contexts of IPV and domestic violence. For instance, it was shown to be adequate to explain women's intentions of leaving an abusive relationship (Byrne & Arias, 2004; Edwards, Gidycz & Murphy, 2015), male and females' perpetration of violence (Betts et al., 2011; Kernsmith, 2005), and college students' intentions to intervene in dating violence situations (Lemay et al., 2019). Fleming and Resick (2017) suggest that the TPB was useful in predicting past use of help-seeking strategies in female targets of violence recruited at battered women agencies, and that attitudes and perceived behavioral control were significant predictors. Sulak and colleagues (2014) studied hypothetical domestic violence (DV) reporting behaviors and indicate that when considering the Theory of Reasoned Action, there are some differences as a function of sex that should be highlighted. For instance, both attitudes and social norms explained 21% of the intentions to report in the global sample of females, but actual reporting behavior was not explained by these variables. For the global sample of male participants, only social norms predicted intentions, which in turn, significantly predicted actual reporting behavior. Most importantly, this study analyzed these variables in male and female participants who had experiences of DV, and the findings were similar to the previously mentioned model for the global sample of male participants.

3.2.2. Gender Role Conflict, IPV and Help-seeking

Research on the field of IPV has highlighted the potential role of gender norms in understanding violence among intimate partners. Gender is posited to be a social construct that is not static and changes overtime, and is dependent on social and historical settings (Connell, 2005). According to gender role theories, men and women are traditionally expected to adhere to rigid roles that limit their lives and reinforce historical asymmetries of power between genders (Brown, 2008). Adherence to more traditional gender norms was suggested to be positively associated with men's and women's perpetration of violence, among many other factors that play a role in these behaviors, such as demographic, historic, contextual, personal and interpersonal variables (Dardis et al., 2015). Research has also suggested that these rigid norms may reinforce heterosexist beliefs that can hinder the capacity of men and women in same-sex abusive relationships to recognize themselves as targets of violence and escape IPV (Brown, 2008). This may also impact help-seeking as same-sex couple violence has been seen as less serious than different-sex couple violence (Brown, 2008).

To better understand the impact that these norms may have on male individuals, the concept of Gender Role Conflict (GRC) was proposed. GRC occurs when rigid, sexist, or restrictive gender roles result in the restriction, devaluation or violation of others or the self (O'Neil, 2008). It is theoretically linked to four patterns of attitudes and behaviors: Success, Power, and Competition, expressed as attitudes towards achieving success through competition and power; Restrictive Emotionality, expressed as having restrictions about voicing one's feelings and emotions; Restrictive affectionate behavior between men, expressed as having restrictions in voicing one's feelings with other men, as well as touching them; and Conflict between work and family relations, reflecting restrictions in balancing work, school and family relationships, potentially leading to health problems.

Literature posits that GRC is associated with over 85 psychological problems, including chronic self-destructiveness, hopelessness, depression, stress, and anxiety (O'Neil, 2015). When compared with gay men, heterosexual men tend to report higher levels of Restrictive Affectionate Behavior between men and Restricted Emotionality (O'Neil, 2008; Shepard, 2001). Several contexts may also lead to GRC, namely when men try to or fail to meet gender role norms of masculinity ideology (O'Neil, 2008). In line with this, in different-sex IPV, men may perpetrate violence in order to cancel threats to their masculinity, ensure their dominance, and thus resolve their internal conflict (Reidy et al., 2014).

Given that GRC was postulated to make sense of the consequences of adherence to male gender norms in men, this construct has scarcely been measured in women when compared

with research conducted with men (O'Neil, 2015). Nevertheless, the studies that assessed GRC in women used a modified version of the Gender Role Conflict Scale, and have found mixed results when compared with men. For instance, in the majority of studies Conflict between work and family relations did not differ significantly between men and women. Conversely, men have reported significantly higher values on the remaining three GRC attitudes and behaviors (O'Neil, 2015). Overall, GRC was still associated with several variables in women, such as psychological problems, feelings toward their weight and physical conditions, and identity distress tolerance (O'Neil, 2015).

When it comes to victimization, previous qualitative research points to male targets of violence questioning or feeling distress regarding their own gender roles when victimized, potentially due to expectations and violations about what being masculine means (Machado et al., 2020; Walker et al., 2020). To the best of our knowledge, GRC was quantitatively studied once in the context of male intimate partner victimization by Tsui in her doctoral thesis (2010), as reported by O'Neil (2015). Her findings suggest that all GRC subscales were related to barriers to help-seeking except for Restrictive Affectionate Behavior between Men. In line with this, research has indicated that GRC is significantly related to negative attitudes towards seeking psychological help in men from diverse ages, nationalities, races and sexual orientations (O'Neil, 2015; Smith et al., 2008). Evidence suggests that holding more traditional gender beliefs may hinder informal and formal help-seeking behaviors by victimized men (McClennen et al., 2002), and this could be due to the perception that those who seek help are stereotyped as weak, or out of control, which is incongruent with traditional masculinity ideology (Corrigan, 2004).

3.2.3. Aims of the Current Research

The main aim of the present cross-sectional study was to identify the predictors of behavioral intentions to call a helpline among victimized men and women. We expected that attitudes towards calling a helpline would be positively associated with intentions to call a helpline in both victimized men and women, in different-sex and same-sex relationships (H1). In addition, in line with research on the significant predictors of intentions to seek help in this field, we hypothesized that attitudes would also be a predictor of their intentions in the aforementioned population (H2).

For the purposes of this study, we also aimed to better understand the victimization of men considering gender-specific experiences. Thus, we examined whether gender role conflict in men would be related to victimization, and its role in the process of seeking help through calling

a helpline. We hypothesized that gender role conflict in victimized men would be negatively associated with attitudes (H3) and intentions (H4) towards calling a helpline. Gender role conflict was not measured in women in our sample given that understanding women's adherence to traditional male norms was not wihtin the scope and purposes of this study.

Exploratory analyses also investigated the potential predictive power of the belief-based constructs of the TPB on the direct measures that precede intentions, as stated in the model. Finally, we will investigate possible differences in all outcomes as a function of sex, having been victimized or not, and having prior knowledge or not about helplines.

The exploratory analyses as a function of sex will investigate sex differences in different outcomes as stated by the literature on help-seeking and impressions on helplines. Furthermore, we will assess the possible impact of victimization or no victimization due to its suggested impact in the processes of victimized men, mainly considering its possible intersection with masculinity norms. Additionally, previous research highlights the importance of having knowledge about helplines in those who experience violence, to facilitate their help-seeking process, and mitigate misconceptions. Taken all together, our findings will inform the formative evaluation research for the development of targeted pictorial campaigns directed at victimized men and women, with the aim of facilitating calls to helplines.

3.3. Method

The STROBE statement recommendations for the report of cross-sectional studies were followed when applicable (von Elm et al., 2007). This statement provides detailed guidelines on how to properly report observational research to improve its clarity, as well as streamline a set of prerequisites for research conducted with this type of study design (von Elm et al., 2007). Data collection took place in Portugal, with an online survey via a "snowball sampling" approach between April 2020 and November 2020. A portion of this sample received monetary compensation for the time spent participating in the survey.

3.3.1. Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Participants were considered if they had ever had an intimate relationship, of they were over 18 years old, and understood and read Portuguese fluently. Participants were excluded from participating if they did not meet one of the inclusion criteria, consent to participate, as well as if they did not fill at least 75% of the survey.

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3.3.2. Participants

A statistical power analysis was performed a priori for sample size estimation (Faul et al., 2009). Considering a medium effect size (f2=.15), an α = .05 and p = .80, the projected sample size needed with this effect size was 85 participants.

From a total of 848 participants to whom the survey was available, we removed those who did not fill at least 75% of the questions (n = 223), those who never had an intimate relationship in their lives (n = 59) and 7 participants who did not consent to participate. A final sample of 559 Portuguese participants were considered for the analysis (290 Males, 51.9%; 269 Females, 48.1%). Ages ranged from 18 to 72 years old (M=30.16, SD=11.13), and most participants were heterosexual (n=435, 77.8%), employed (n=223, 45.1%), and in an intimate relationship, whether it was their first (n=94, 16.6%), or while also having been in previous ones (n=318, 56.9%). A comprehensive view of sociodemographic characteristics is presented in Annex B.1. Due to its characteristics, our sample may have limited representativity of the general population in Portugal, specially of those who are older, who do not have higher education, who are not heterosexual, or who are unemployed.

3.3.3. Measures

Victimization in Intimate Partner Relationships. An adapted version of the Conjugal Violence Inventory - 3 (CVI-3; Machado et al., 2006) was used to measure current and past victimization. Besides the 21 abusive/violent behaviors presented in the original version, two items were added: one related to the unwanted disclosure of the target's sexual orientation (as in Costa et al., 2006) and another about threatening to prevent contact with dependents, due to the perpetrator having legal custody. Participants reported the frequency (e.g., "He/she never did it", "He/she did it once", and "He/she did it more than once") of victimization, and were considered targets of violence if they indicated that a behavior happened at least once. As in Foshee et al. (1998), a variable representing the severity of suffered violence was created, composed by the sum of the scores for each of the 23 items presented. Scores for each response were coded as 1 = "Only once" and 2 = "More than once". Higher scores in this variable indicate higher frequency/severity of violence suffered.

Attitudes, subjective norm, perceived behavior control and intentions to call a helpline. To assess the TPB constructs applied to calling a helpline, recommendations by Ajzen (2006) were followed. We constructed this questionnaire based on previously assessed salient beliefs associated with calling a helpline in 14 males who self-identified as targets of abuse in different and same-sex relationships. This questionnaire was composed of all indirect and direct

constructs of the TPB, and measured participant's opinions in the context of the 6 months following an aggression suffered in their current relationship. A comprehensive list and descriptive statistics for all the items of all subscales is provided in Annexes B.2. to B.8. All of the items were presented with a 7-point scale (e.g. "Highly Disagree" to "Highly Agree"; "Very Bad" to "Very Good"). Higher values in these variables indicate higher agreement, probability or beneficial aspects of the measured constructs. Additionally, variables that represented the antecedents to each predictor variable were created as the product between the corresponding indirect measures (e.g. Behavioral Beliefs = Outcome Evaluations x Behavioral Beliefs) (Ajzen, 2006). To calculate these composite variables, negative items were reverse coded. Internal consistencies for the subscales were good, ranging from α=.80 (Negative Outcome Evaluations) to α=.94 (Motivation to Comply with Referents).

Gender role conflict. The Portuguese version of the Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRS) (Faria, 2002) was used. The GRS assesses men's conflicts with their gender roles on the following four dimensions: Success, Power and Competition (12 items; e.g. "I worry about failing and how it affects my doing well as a man") (α= .84); Restricted Emotionality (10 items; e.g., "I have difficulty expressing my tender feelings") (α= .90); Restricted Affectionate Behavior Between Men – Homophobia (8 items; e.g. "Affection with other men makes me tense") (α= .87); Conflicts between Work and Family Relations (6 items; e.g. "My work or school often disrupts other parts of my life: home, health or leisure") (α= .87). In this study participants were presented using a 6-point scale (1- Strongly Disagree to 6 - Strongly Agree). The mean score was calculated for each subscale and for the global score (α= .93). Higher values indicate greater gender role conflict.

3.3.4. Procedure

This study was accepted by the Ethical Review Board (84/2019) of its hosting institution and pre-registered (Reis & Arriaga, 2020). The survey was developed in the Qualtrics survey platform and shared through social networks, mailing lists, Portuguese non-governmental and governmental organizations, and through the online crowdsourcing Clickworker platform.

After agreeing with the informed consent, participants who were over 18 years old and have had an intimate romantic relationship at any point in their lives were considered eligible for participation. Then, participants filled in the CVI-3, and if they had been targets of violence in their relationship, they responded to the TPB measures. Only male participants were asked to fill in the GRC measure. At the end, a debriefing was provided informing the study aims and

listing support services that aimed to reduce any potential discomfort from participating. Survey duration was a maximum of 15 minutes.

In what concerns data analysis, to test our hypotheses we conducted correlational analyses with the study's main variables. We also performed a multiple regression for the TPB main predictors. Linear regression analyses for some indirect TPB constructs were performed.

3.4. Results

3.4.1. Main descriptives

Considering our global sample (N=559), many participants had been the targets of some form of violence at a point in their lives (54.38%). Victimization as a function of sex was rather similar, with about 50% of women and 55% of men reporting suffering violence. Most participants were victimized exclusively in past relationships (25.22%), although 17.1% also reported current and past victimization in relationships (Annex B.9 provides a detailed description of all victimization items in the latter sample). Victimization severity, using the composite variable, ranged from 1 to 26. Global levels of GRC were above the midpoint of the scale, but still moderate (M=3.34, SD=.86). Men had the highest levels for Success, Power, and Competition (n=245, M=3.80, SD=.91), and the lowest for Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men (n=244, M= 2.66, SD=1.16). Finally, overall attitudes (M=5.30, SD=1.45) and perceived behavior control (M=5.26, SD=1.74) to call a helpline were considerably high, whereas subjective norms were low (M=2.49, SD=1.55). Behavioral intentions to call a helpline were below the midpoint of the scale (M=3.11, SD=1.60). Descriptives for behavioral intentions, the predictors and its antecedents as a function of sex are presented in Annex B.8.

3.4.2. Hypothesis testing

The results for people who reported being currently abused, independently of past victimization, will be our main focus (n=99; 53 males, 46 females), as stated in the recommendations for the proper application of the TPB questionnaire. This sample was composed mostly of heterosexual (77.8%) and employed (52.2%) participants that were in an intimate relationship (51.1%). They reported a mean age of 31 years old (SD=11.27) and mean victimization severity ranged from 1 to 26 (M=6.29, SD=5.75). Point Biserial and Pearson correlations for the main variables are presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1.

Point biserial and Pearson correlations for study variables

Variable	S	VS	GRC	A	SN	PBC	BI
Sex[a] (S)	-						
Victimization Severity (VS)	.11	-					
Gender Role Conflict (GRC)	-	.21	-				
Attitudes (A)	-.07	-.18	-.12	-			
Subjective Norms (SN)	-.13	.03	.04	**.23***	-		
Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC)	**-.24***	**-.22***	**-.35***	**.48****	.10	-	
Behavioral Intentions (BI)	**-.22***	.07	.01	**.39****	**.48****	**.24***	-

Note: [a]Men=1, Women=2; $* p < .05$; $** p < .01$, $n=99$.

Among the predictors of the TPB, Attitudes were positively correlated with Subjective Norms, $r(87)=.233$, $p=.028$ and Perceived Behavioral Control, $r(87)=.483$, $p<.001$. The relatively weak correlations suggest that nevertheless these constructs are independent. Regarding the Intentions to call a helpline, positive associations were found for all the predictors, namely: attitudes, $r(86)=.388$, $p<.001$; subjective norms, $r(86)=.482$, $p<.001$; and perceived behavioral control, $r(86)=.239$, $p=.025$.

Regarding our first hypothesis, attitudes were significantly associated with intentions to call a helpline in both victimized men, $r(53)=.31$, $p=.020$, and victimized women, $r(38)=.48$, $p=.002$. Thus, H1 was verified for both samples.

Given that all TPB's constructs were related to behavioral intentions to call a helpline we further tested how much of the variance in intentions was accounted for by the joint predictive power of attitudes, norms, and perceived behavioral control. To do so, we ran a linear multiple regression analysis (LMRA). Attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control were introduced in the model as predictors of intentions to call a helpline. As can be seen in Table 3.2, the model was statistically significant, $F(3, 87)=12.74$, $p<.001$, adj. $R^2= .28$. However, only attitudes, $B=.272$, $se=.123$, $t=2.21$, $p=.030$, and subjective norm, $B=.429$, $se=.097$, $t=4.43$, $p<.001$, towards calling a helpline were significant predictors. It is then suggested that both victimized men and women's intentions to call a helpline are predicted by the subjective norm and attitudes. Thus, H2 was confirmed for a sample of victimized men and women. Nevertheless, these findings encompass males and females, as well as heterosexual and non-heterosexual individuals, given that the sample size did not allow for specific analysis.

Table 3.2.

Multiple Regression results for behavioral intentions to call a helpline

Variable	*B*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	95% CI
C	.23	.60	.39	.700	[-.96, 1,42]
A	.27	.12	2.21	.030	[.03, .52]
SN	.43	.10	4.43	<.001	[.24, .62]
BC	.07	.10	.68	.496	[-.13, .27]

Note. C= Constant; A = Attitudes; SN = Subjective Norms; BC = Behavioral Control; CI = confidence interval.

Our findings suggest that perceived behavior control is negatively associated with victimization severity, $r(87)= -.22$, $p=.040$, and with GRC, $r(50)=-.347$, $p=.012$. As presented in Table 3.1, GRC was not significantly correlated with Attitudes, $r(50)=-.117$, $p=.41$, or Intentions to call a helpline, $r(50)=.011$, $p=.939$. Thus, H3 and H4 were not verified.

3.4.3. Exploratory Analyses

Firstly, to further test the potential predictive power of the belief-based constructs of the TPB on the predictors of intentions to call a helpline, two simple linear regressions and one multiple regression analysis were conducted. Belief-based attitudes significantly predicted attitudes towards calling a helpline, $F(1,86)=10.52$, $p=.002$, explaining 9.9% of the explained variability in attitudes. Additionally, belief-based behavior control predicted perceived behavioral control, $F(1,82)=13.04$, $p=.001$, accounting for 12.7% of total variability. Finally, regarding the multiple regression model for subjective norm, the model was statistically significant, $F(2,62)=16.94$, $p<.001$, Adj. $R^2=.332$. Both belief-based injunctive norms, B=.016, $se=.006$, $t=2.59$, $p=.012$, and belief-based descriptive norms, B=.012, $se=.004$, $t=2.80$, $p=.007$, contributed to explain the subjective norm (see Annexes B.10 to B.12 for Pearson Correlations and details on regression analyses).

Secondly, we also explored whether there were specificities in the experiences of violence and on the levels of the TPB constructs between victimized men and women. Our findings indicate that women reported higher violence severity ($n=75$; $M=8.20$, $SD=.89$) than males ($n=66$; $M=4.77$, $SD=.68$) $t(133.89)=-3.05$, $p=.003$, Cohen's $d = 0.71$, but only for those who reported being victimized exclusively in past relationships. In these cases, victimized men indicated higher motivation to comply with referents ($M= 2.86$, $SD= 1.87$) in comparison with women ($M=2$, $SD=1.41$), $t(73)=2.20$, $p=.031$, Cohen's $d= .511$. Men registered also significantly higher levels of perceived behavioral control ($M=5.63$, $SD=1.45$) than women ($M=4.80$, $SD=2.01$), $t(61.45)=2.14$, $p=.037$, Cohen's $d=.472$.

Thirdly, we compared victimized and non-victimized men. Victimized men reported significantly higher levels in the GRC (overall and in most subscales, with the exception of Restrictive affectionate between Men) than non-victimized men (see Annex B.13 for descriptives and t-test values).

We also found differences for Negative Outcome Evaluations and Beliefs as a function of having prior knowledge about helplines: victimized people who knew about helplines rated negative outcomes as worse, $t(89.62)= -2.25$, $p=.027$, Hedge's $g=.435$, and believed negative outcomes of calling were less likely to occur, $t(89.83)= 2.09$, $p= .039$, Hedge's $g= .385$, than targets who did not know about helplines. Lastly, targets of violence who had prior knowledge, had more favorable attitudes towards calling a helpline ($M=5.73$, $SD=1.19$) than those who did not ($M=5.08$, $SD=1.53$), $t(87)= -2.034$, $p=.045$, Hedges $g=.456$.

3.5. Discussion

This study aimed to test if the Theory of Planned Behavior was adequate to explain intentions to call a helpline in victimized men and women, and to understand whether gender role conflict relates to the help-seeking process of victimized men. To the best of our knowledge, this was the first study to quantitatively measure GRC in victimized men, and to investigate the TPB in this specific help-seeking context.

In what concerns our 1st and 2nd hypotheses, overall the TPB seems to be an adequate model to explain intentions to call a helpline in victimized men and women. Attitudes were positively associated with intentions in victimized men and women, and intentions to call a helpline were significantly predicted by attitudes and subjective norms for both sexes. We also found a significant contribution of each of the indirect constructs on their corresponding predictors of intentions to call a helpline, lending further support to the model similarly to Hou and colleagues (2020) findings on the perpetration of violence.

Taken all together, our results partially mirror previous research with this model in the context of IPV and domestic violence that highlight the role of the subjective norm in predicting intentions (Sulak et al., 2014; Fleming & Resicks's, 2017). Nevertheless, in our study we have inquired about the specific act of calling a helpline, something that has not been done before with this model, to the best of our knowledge. Our findings add to this field as they result from a more specific questionnaire of the TPB constructs that was developed with the input of victimized men on their beliefs about calling a helpline, which is in line with the recommendations by Ajzen (2006). An adequate application of the questionnaire should inquire about future behaviors, and we highlight that our results pertain to men and women that were victimized at the moment of participation and inquired about future intentions to call a helpline. This approach may be more representative of targets of violence who actually seek help due to the on-going victimization and may specifically inform more effective interventions in this population, thus potentially increasing access to key information and facilitating help-seeking.

Furthermore, the higher motivation to comply with referents and higher perceived behavior control found for victimized men are important data to tackle IPV through a gendered approach. Previous literature states that men seek help at lower rates than women (Smith et al., 2008), and our findings may suggest that the path from intentions to actual behaviors in victimized men is conditioned by specific factors. Nevertheless, considering unique trajectories for victimized men and women may yield more beneficial results than "one size-fits-all approaches".

Based on previous literature showing that GRC was associated with barriers towards seeking help in victimized men (Tsui, 2010) and less favorable attitudes towards seeking

psychological help in non-victimized men (O'Neil, 2015; Smith et al., 2008), we predicted that GRC would be associated with attitudes and intentions to call a helpline. However, these two hypotheses (H3 and H4) were not supported and our results challenge the above postulations.

One possible explanation may be the type of help-seeking that was inquired about, given that calling a helpline has different implications than seeking a therapist, for example. Another possible explanation lies in the often-found discrepancy between intentions and actual behavior change as stated in previous research (Nabi, Southwell & Hornik, 2002), but this was not measured in our study. Furthermore, the negative associations between GRC and perceived behavior control illustrate to what extent internal stress might influence men's help-seeking process. Essentially, men who suffer with higher GRC may feel less confident and capable to act and seek help. This is different than having less favorable attitudes, as the target of violence's own sense of autonomy may be impacted, and this has been found to be central to lead people to act in different contexts (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2011). Conversely, an increase in perceived behavioral control might lead to a reduction in GRC, which could signal possible interventions in this field.

Victimized men had significantly higher GRC when compared with non-victimized men, even though no association was found between victimization severity and GRC for men who were suffering on-going abuse. Additionally, no differences were found for Restrictive affectionate behavior between Men, suggesting that it could be stable across different contexts. These quantitative findings greatly contribute to the existing body of knowledge on victimized men and GRC. Our questionnaire inquired only about suffered behaviors, and not about whether these men identified as "victims" of IPV in order to preserve their integrity in already sensitive positions. This may indicate that independently of identification with this term, the mere presence of some violence is sufficient to elicit higher levels of internal conflict.

One possible explanation could be based on O'Neil's (2015) postulations about the different sources of GRC. He identifies that victimization by others could lead to gender role violations, which potentially lead to the worst health outcomes for those who experience violence when compared with gender role devaluations or restrictions. Nevertheless, our findings could also be explained by the potential bidirectionality of violence. Previous research suggests that GRC is associated with perpetration of violence (O'Neil, 2015) and thus, part of the violence suffered by these men could be a retaliation of the violence they perpetrated because they had higher levels of GRC in the first place. It is also possible that both unidirectional and bidirectional violence were present in our sample, which could be due to the seemingly prevalent nature of bidirectionality (Laskey, Bates & Tayloer, 2019; Larsen &

Hamberger, 2015). Overall, our results pertaining to GRC add novel insights to the literature on this field and may inform about victimization through a gendered perspective.

When compared with non-victimized people, victimized men and women who had prior knowledge of helplines had more favorable attitudes towards calling and believed that negative outcomes were worse and less probable of occurring. Additionally, we did we not find differences as a function of sex on attitudes towards calling a helpline, which can be argued is not consonant with previous research on victimized men's impressions of domestic violence helplines (Hines et al., 2007; Tsui, 2014) but a possible positive outcome of outreach on this topic. Over the recent years, governmental and non-governmental organizations in Portugal have increased the awareness about victim support helplines, highlighting their benefits. These helplines were further promoted with the emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic, during which our sample was collected.

Despite the considerably low percentage of participants who knew and actually called a helpline in their lifetimes, these results point to the beneficial potential of providing information to targets of violence. Previous research indicates that male IPV targets may hinder help-seeking efforts because of the normative impression that these services are mainly for women who were victimized by their male partners (Hines & Douglas, 2011). But independently of the gender of those who experience violence, having access to adequate knowledge is important and may inform targets of violence of what to realistically expect from helplines and their benefits, while also mitigating biased notions towards what helpline services provide, who they are for, as well as the quality of their services (Inter-American Development Bank, 2019; Hines & Douglas, 2011). This knowledge could be offered by tailored interventions such as public awareness campaigns, that should aim to tackle possible misconceptions while being anchored on theory and the needs of the target population (Reis et al., 2020).

Our findings regarding suffered violence at the moment of participation revealed similar prevalence between men and women, which diverges from a large body of research on this field (Chan, 2011; Hamberger & Larsen, 2015). Nevertheless, when accounting for exclusively past victimization, rates for women were essentially double than that of men's, which is congruent with the overarching findings by research in IPV over the last decades (Hamberger & Larsen, 2015). Our results must be contextualized in our methodological approach and how violence was measured, and the fact that it did not allow for the differentiation between different types of violence. Finally, interpretations about these findings should nevertheless consider the possible bidirectionality of violence in different and same-sex relationships (Laskey, Bates &

Taylor, 2019), and given that we did not measure perpetration, our inferences on this topic are limited.

3.5.1. Policy and Practice Implications

The results of this study shed light on the importance of educating the general public and specially targets of violence in order to foster adaptive attitudes towards help-seeking. More specifically, our findings may also inform policies regarding help service provision towards males who suffer from IPV. Policy-makers should consider the potential role of GRC in the experiences of victimized male, and its potential in primary and secondary prevention efforts, such as public awareness campaigns. The concept of GRC may also be key for clinical practice as well given that our findings suggest that it may play a key role in men's experience of victimization and subsequent impact on their health.

3.5.2. Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

Firstly, data collection was conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic, which not only has been a period of additional stress for targets of IPV and domestic violence, but also might limit the generalization of the results to non-pandemic contexts. This sample was also collected on internet platforms that may allow for differential responding and multiple responses by the same participant. Thus future studies should consider this if using this approach, and apply adequate measures to counter these types of occurrences.

Our sample was also limited in its representativity of different age groups, sexual orientations and occupations in Portugal. We did not inquire about participants' economic sustainability, but this may be an important indicator to consider in future studies in this field. Our extrapolations are also limited in the sense that they derived from a sample of Portuguese individuals, and thus may not represent realities with participants from other cultures and nationalities. More research within other cultural settings is key to understand the external validity of our findings.

Another limitation to highlight is the fact that we only inquired participants' sex, and not also their gender. Future research in this field may complement a measure of participant's sex with measures of gender identity to improve the understanding of the study's sample.

Although this sample was arguably more diverse than many typical convenience samples used in psychological research, it remains important to replicate these findings in more diverse samples. For instance, analysis as a function of sexual orientation for GRC and sex for the regression of the TPB constructs are key in the future but were not possible due to sample size

limitations. In the future, collecting data on LGBT individuals is key to understanding the processes targets of violence go through, taking into account specificities for IPV in this population (Edwards, Sylaska & Neil, 2015).Additionally, the literature on gender roles and GRC recognizes that as socially bound constructs they are not static. Thus, as gender roles are restructured and changed, the measures used to inspect these constructs should adapt as well. The Gender Role Conflict Scale has not been subject to any major adaptations to current social realities since its inception in 1986 (Ó Beaglaoich, 2014), and this could potentially impact its measurements and subsequent possible extrapolations.

Furthermore, in our sample attitudes towards calling a helpline were considerably favorable and the levels of GRC were moderate. It is possible that a sample of participants with higher GRC could potentially lead to a significant association with attitudes, and that the type of help-seeking method may condition the results. Future studies could inquire about different help-seeking methods, victimization, perpetration, initiation, and retaliation of violence to improve the accuracy of measurements on the experiences of those who experience violence.Moreover, the TPB questionnaire was constructed taking into account only the beliefs of victimized males but was applied to victimized females as well. It could be argued that the beliefs gathered are transversal to the experiences of victimized women and men, but future research should assess the salient beliefs and normative referents for victimized women. Lastly, the cross-sectional design of the present study also does not allow for causal determinations about the study's main variables.

3.6. Conclusion

The present study aimed to test the explicative power of the Theory of Planned Behavior in the context of calling a helpline in victimized men and women. Additionally, it investigated the relation between gender role conflict, victimization in victimized men and attitudes and intentions to call a helpline. Our results support the Theory of Planned Behavior as an explicative model, as attitudes and subjective norms predicted intentions to call a helpline in both victimized males and females. Furthermore, victimized men felt significantly greater gender role conflict than non-victimized men, but gender role conflict was only negatively associated with perceived behavioral control, and not with attitudes or intentions to call a helpline. Overall, a gendered approach to victimization is supported, with victimized men and women experiencing unique trajectories in their abusive relationships and processes. Future studies should collect data about different help-seeking methods, and with more diverse samples.

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CHAPTER IV | Pictorial campaigns on Intimate Partner Violence focusing on Victimized Men: A Systematic Content Analysis

4.1. Abstract

Men who are victimized in their intimate different-sex and same-sex relationships often report not having information to help them escape their abusive situations. To overcome this lack of information, public awareness campaigns have been created. But thus far, there isn't a clear understanding of how these campaigns reflect theoretical principles central to improve message effectiveness and avoid undesired negative effects. This study aims to review the content of Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) pictorial campaigns focusing on victimized men in different and same-sex relationships. Specifically, it aims to understand the campaigns' global characteristics, and if their content represents constructs from different theoretical models. Online search engines were used to extract pictorial campaigns in English, Spanish and Portuguese, released up until 2019. They must have had to be promoted by a formal organization, and were coded according to a theoretically grounded taxonomy, using thematic analysis. Our results indicate that out of the 57 campaigns collected, most were aimed at men without specifying the relationship they were in (i.e. different-sex or same-sex) (n=22, 39%), and intended to change attitudes, beliefs and behaviors about IPV (in line with the Theory of Planned Behavior) (n=47, 82%). Additionally, four campaigns adequately integrated fear appeal constructs of the Extended Parallel Processing Model (n=4, 7%), while 41 campaigns highlighted dissonant states in line with the Elaboration Likelihood Model (n=41, 72%). Following the Transtheoretical Model, most campaigns targeted targets of IPV in the Maintenance stage (n=52, 92%). The campaigns under analysis may prove useful for some victimized men, mostly presenting messages designed to elicit beneficial attitude and behavior change. Our analysis highlights different limitations as well, such as the lack of information on susceptibility to IPV (n=13, 23%) and the effectiveness of the recommended responses the campaigns provide (n=20, 38%), which may interfere with adequate fear appeal processing. Additionally, presenting more diverse targets of IPV may be beneficial, along with social norms change information regarding gender roles, violence, and help-seeking. This may guide the development of improved and tailored campaigns to better facilitate help-seeking in victimized men that mostly avoid undesired negative effects on the viewer.

Keywords: Intimate Partner Violence; Victimized men; Pictorial Campaigns; Prevention; Help-seeking

4.2. Introduction

The literature on Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) and Domestic Violence has traditionally focused on female targets of IPV and male perpetrators. However, an ever-increasing number of studies has focused on men's victimization, considering violence that occurs in different-sex (Cook, 2009) and same-sex relationships (Edwards et al., 2015b). Evidence suggests that victimized men in different-sex (DS) and same-sex (SS) relationships suffer significantly in their abusive relationships (Nowinski & Bowen, 2012), and encounter specific difficulties when recognizing the violence and seeking help (Hines & Douglas, 2011).

Victimized men face many internal barriers (e.g. shame, guilt) and they tend to not recognize themselves as "victims" due to masculinity norms, by which they are expected to be strong and emotionally controlled (McClennen et al., 2002). Additionally, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex (GBTI) men may have to disclose their sexual orientation and/or gender identity when seeking help (Edwards et al., 2015b). Some external barriers have also been reported, such as the lack of knowledge about the available support services (Machado et al., 2016). To overcome these barriers and increase help-seeking, IPV awareness campaigns have been created. The available research on this field indicates that female targets of IPV have perceived IPV awareness campaigns targeting them as emotionally harmful and inaccurate, given that generally they depicted explicit physical violence and lacked empowering information for the targets of IPV (West, 2013). These perceived negative effects could potentially be overcome by following the literature on effective campaign design. However, to the best of our knowledge, there is no research addressing the impressions of victimized men in DS/SS relationships on campaigns focusing on victimized men, highlighting the need to conduct research focusing the specific realities of these relationships and on how to develop campaigns to avoid these unintended effects.

4.2.1. Principles of Campaign Design

Over the last decades, research on the use of fear appeals for health promotion points to their effectiveness in positively influencing attitudes, intentions, and behaviors (Tannenbaum et al., 2015). Fear appeals have been defined as messages that elicit fear by highlighting the negative consequences of not doing a certain behavior (Witte et al., 2001). Adequately constructing and presenting these fear appeals is key to potentiate their effectiveness (Witte et al., 2001; Peters et al., 2013), as negative unintended effects may occur and audiences can react unpredictably to fear appeal messages (Cho & Salmon, 2007; Witte et al., 2001). One of these unintended effects is the Boomerang Effect, in which a message can potentially reinforce undesired

attitudes and behaviors due to not being adequately processed (Witte et al., 2001). In order to avoid this, campaigns should be tailored to the social and psychological profiles of the target audience (Maibach & Cotton, 1995) and be based on previously tested theoretical approaches and constructs (Noar, 2006). This is consonant with a "contingency effects approach", which states that message effects can depend on numerous factors that should be taken into account when developing campaigns and evaluating their effects (Riffe et al., 2008). Thus, including different theoretical approaches may be beneficial, as the consideration of the different processes inherent to message design, its cognitive processing and behavior change adequately frames the viewer's experience, and may also lead to an adequate assessment of the campaigns' expected effects (Witte et al., 2001). This could lead to more effective IPV campaigns that could facilitate beneficial attitude and behavior change, potentially leading to more recognition of violence and help-seeking attitudes and behaviors.

4.2.2. Theoretical Frameworks

In the present study we analyzed the content of campaigns focusing on victimized men in DS/SS relationships by considering four theories that have often been used to study the effectiveness of campaigns and the use of fear appeals. More specifically, we considered the Extended Parallel Processing Model (EPPM) (Witte et al., 2001), which is specific to fear appeals and campaigns; and the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991), the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986), and the Transtheoretical Model (Prochaska & Velicer, 1997) that are more broad in their applications but can be included in campaign design and the assessment of its effects.

The EPPM (Witte et al., 2001) suggests that, when faced with health threat messages, viewers firstly appraise information regarding threat severity and susceptibility, and then self-efficacy and efficacy of the recommended response. Threat severity corresponds to the significance or seriousness expected from a threat, while threat susceptibility is the likelihood that a specific target will experience the threat. Self-efficacy represents the degree to which the target perceives that he/she is able to perform the recommended response to avert the threat. And finally, response efficacy corresponds to the degree to which the recommended response effectively averts the threat. According to the model, in order to adequately process a fear appeal, it should be able to elicit a sufficient level of threat susceptibility and severity, but an even higher perceived self-efficacy and efficacy of the recommended response (Witte et al., 2001). Otherwise, the viewer may not pay attention, or may reject the message. Applications of the EPPM to the IPV domain have been scarce, but some evidence suggests the utility of this

model in understanding how important its constructs are for the development of IPV campaigns (Keller & Honea, 2016).

The Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991) provides important insights into behavior intention development. According to this model, the emergence of an intention is the result of the combination of attitudes towards the behavior, subjective norms about the behavior, and perceived behavioral control. When applied to health promotion, this model suggests that to generate actual behavioral change, practitioners should target all these components, given that intention strength will be greater when all are adequately framed (Ajzen, 1991). The Theory of Planned Behavior has been shown to be a suitable framework to understand different behavioral intentions in the context of IPV and domestic violence (Betts et al., 2011), both on intentions to leave the abusive relationship (Byrne & Arias, 2004; Edwards et al., 2015a), and intentions to perpetrate violence (Tolman et al., 1996; Kernsmith, 2005).

The Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) adds that persuasion and possible attitude change can occur through two main routes. If the target is motivated and capable to process the message, the person will process it through the central route. Persuasion can still occur through a peripheral route in case these conditions are not met. In these cases, the target will focus on more contextual cues to process the message and will possibly be persuaded. It is important to note that persuasion does not have to occur solely through one of these routes, and that the role of peripheral cues (e.g. attractiveness, credibility, similarity of the source of the message to its viewer) is crucial to capture viewers' attention (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Additionally, dissonance states may play a role in cognitive elaboration when processing a message, given that the viewer often aims to understand and dissolve the dissonance (Prunty & Apple, 2013). This model has been previously used in the development of an IPV campaign for domestic violence prevention, demonstrating preliminary positive results (Keller & Otjen, 2007), and has been noted has an adequate framework for content analysis in campaigns in other fields (Igartua et al., 2003).

Finally, the Transtheoretical Model aims to explain the readiness for behavior change (Prochaska & Velicer, 1997). Specifically, it states that behavior change occurs through the following series of stages: Pre-Contemplation, Contemplation, Preparation, Action, Maintenance. In the Precontemplation stage, individuals do not have intentions to change their behavior. Reason for this lack of intention to change may be due to not being aware of the behavioral options available or denial of the situation they are in. In the Contemplation stage, individuals begin to contemplate the need for change and start realizing the risks associated with a given behavior. In the Preparation stage, individuals commit to changing and prepare for

an eventual behavioral change. In the Action stage, individuals perform the new behavior, consistently. Finally, in the Maintenance stage, the aim is to sustain and avoid relapses. According to this model, behavioral change is often a complex and recursive process, and relapses to previous stages may occur before a new behavior is fully adopted (Prochaska & Velicer, 1997). For individuals to move from one stage to another, different mechanisms, and processes specific to the behavior in question, should be elicited. Some studies have implemented the Transtheoretical Model to understand the processes that women targets of IPV go through (Burke et al., 2004; Frasier et al., 2001; Brown, 1997). Additionally, research on health risk information has indicated the type of information that may trigger stage transition, and ultimately affect behavioral change (Cismaru et al., 2008). Previous research has also applied the constructs and processes of the Transtheoretical Model in the context of domestic violence, revealing that it can be a valuable framework when considering the processes of change in targets of IPV when leaving an abusive relationship, and in the treatment of perpetrators of violence (Levesque et al., 2008).

4.2.3. Aims of the present study

Drawing from the literature on IPV directed at victimized men in DS/SS relationships, and also from the theoretical models and conceptual frameworks pertaining to fear appeals and behavioral change, the present review research questions are:

- What are the general characteristics of existing pictorial intimate partner violence campaigns focusing on victimized men in DS/SS relationships? That is, to whom are they targeted, what type of approach do they use, what are their objectives and what type of information do they convey?
- Which of the main constructs of the EPPM, the Theory of Planned Behavior, the Elaboration Likelihood Model, and the Transtheoretical Model do these campaigns represent?

To the best of our knowledge, our study is the first to analyze these types of campaigns by characterizing their components according to a theoretically grounded framework. This approach is pertinent to inform future campaign developments, because it allows tailoring campaigns to intended audiences by providing a framework by which their effectiveness can be assessed, and potentially avoid undesired negative consequences.

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4.3. Method

This review followed the ENTREQ statement, designed to promote and enhance transparent and comprehensive reports of synthesis in qualitative studies (Tong et al., 2012). The protocol for this study was previously registered at the PROSPERO – International Prospective register of systematic reviews database (CRD42018115346).

4.3.1. Searches

Searches were firstly conducted in the Web of Science, SCOPUS, PsycARTICLES, PsycINFO, Psychology and Behavioral Sciences Collection, Scielo, and B-On. In addition, governmental and non-governmental organizations websites were consulted. These sources allowed for the access to academic literature specific to the topic under research that has included pictorial campaigns focusing on victimized men. After concluding searches in these sources, free association searches were conducted in Google Images and grey literature. These specific searches allowed us to gather image files that fulfilled the inclusion criteria. The entire search process spanned 3 months, from January 2019 to March 2019.

4.3.1.1. Eligibility criteria. National and international awareness pictorial campaigns focusing on victimized men in intimate relationships, in English, Spanish and Portuguese, as still images (i.e. digital images, posters) released up until 2019. These languages were chosen based on their widespread use worldwide. These still images must have included (i) information and/or images relative to the formal promoting agency/entity; (ii) written text. Campaigns must have explicitly portrayed domestic violence or intimate partner violence concepts and topics, and campaigns about IPV forms (e.g. sexual abuse) were considered if explicitly stated in the campaign. Campaigns portraying other related topics (e.g. sexual assault) were also subject to analysis.

4.3.1.2. Exclusion criteria. We excluded campaigns related to themes other than IPV (i.e. safe-sex, child abuse), promotion of products or brands, in languages other than English, Spanish and Portuguese. Images that did not contain information (written text, images), relative to the formal promoting agency/entity, were also excluded. These criteria were defined to improve the focus of the campaigns selection among images that were the product of creative/artistic work, and not the product of a formal agency/entity.

4.3.1.3. Keywords. Searches were carried out with different keywords, using the Boolean operators "and" or "or" to articulate varied and specific results when possible. An example of search terms used is: (Campaign*) AND (*Violence) AND (Men). In what concerns searches in Google Images, different keywords were used such as "Campaign victimized men" and "Poster victim men" (see Annex C.1 for a comprehensive list).

4.3.2. Record screening

Using the PRISMA-P framework (Shamseer et al., 2015), a three-stage process of screening was implemented. One researcher screened all academic records by relevant keywords in the Title, then in the Abstract, and lastly a review of the body of the articles. Articles that did not mention any keywords either in the Title or Abstract were excluded. Regarding the images resulting from the Google Images searches, they were screened taking into consideration the inclusion and exclusion criteria, and discussions with two other researchers that allowed for more transparency and congruence across the collected sample.

4.3.3. Coding taxonomy development

The coding taxonomy was partially adapted from previous work on pictorial campaign characterization (Velez, 2014). On one hand, this taxonomy was deductively developed, considering the literature on IPV, the processes of seeking help among targets of IPV, and health communication design. On the other hand, its development was also inductive, grounded on the taxonomy application to a small sample of collected pictorial campaigns and to allow the emergence of additional codes that were meant to complement and improve the original coding scheme. The final version of our taxonomy was reached after conducting the coding of our entire sample. By applying the taxonomy to a wider range of campaigns, general codes were classified into specific sub-categories to properly evaluate the content of the campaigns. By fine-tuning the coding scheme, new categories emerged that took into account unique aspects of our data. Thus, codes were organized to better represent the diversity of constructs in the campaigns, considering, when possible, a hierarchical progression in their specificity and distinctiveness from existing codes.

4.3.3.1. Taxonomy categories. To adequately represent message content, different categories were created (see Annex C.2 for a summary). The first main group of categories represented the violence portrayed, perceived target audience, specific objectives, approach, and framing.

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The second main group of categories was created considering the four theoretical models previously described, and contemplated different constructs pertaining to each one of them. We considered the four main constructs of the EPPM, and additionally Attitudes, Social Norms and Behavioral Control surrounding IPV themes as stated in the Theory of Planned Behavior. Pertaining to the Elaboration Likelihood Model, categories mainly represented Dissonances, the person portrayed in the image (considered in this study as the message sources and a potentially important persuasive cue), and finally Colloquialisms. As for the different stages of change the campaigns may be useful for, we adapted a previously developed framework (Cismaru et al., 2008). According to this previously developed coding scheme, different threat appeal constructs (e.g. Self-Efficacy; Threat Severity) are useful for different stages (i.e. Contemplation and Preparation; Pre-contemplation, Contemplation and Maintenance, respectively). Different threat appeal constructs can target the same stage of change, given that through the behavioral change process different types of information are important to highlight and they are often not mutually exclusive. Thus, using the results of the coding for the EPPM, we extrapolated for which stages the campaigns provided information for, considering specific categories for Precontemplation, Contemplation, Preparation, Action and Maintenance.

4.3.4. Coding process

Researchers used thematic analysis following a post-positivist paradigm (Braun and Clark, 2006) to describe the content within the pictorial campaigns on a semantic level. Thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data (Braun and Clark, 2006). Based on a previously developed coding taxonomy, the majority of the content analysis was deductive (e.g., see Boyatzis, 1998). However, inductive codes emerged during the analysis, which were integrated into the taxonomy by establishing a clear definition of their meaning and their additional contribution to the analysis. The coders analyzed the content of the images and the text in each campaign and based on different examples for each category in the coding taxonomy, nominally coded it if it adequately represented that part of the content in the campaign (0 = Absent; 1 = Present). Most codes were not mutually exclusive, even if within the same category. This allowed for the most direct representation of the campaigns, considering that our coding taxonomy was developed posteriorly to the release of the campaigns under study, and we cannot assume that the constructs being analyzed anchored the campaigns' development. Based on the agreement between the two coders regarding the fit of the coding scheme to the campaign analysis, a case-by-case analysis was employed to perform a semantic interpretation of the content. Given the novelty of our research

approach to the topic, we decided to provide a balanced perspective between a rich thematic description of our entire data set and its most prevalent themes.

4.3.5. Data extraction

The practical characteristics of the campaigns, such as promoting entity, country of origin, year of release, and whether they were or not disseminated through multiple channels were collected. These data as well as the results of the coding process were registered in a Microsoft Excel form created for this purpose, to simplify the inter-coder reliability index extrapolation. The promoting entities responsible for these campaigns were not contacted to clarify the intent behind their campaigns (only public information was considered).

4.3.6. Risk of bias (quality) assessment

A training session was conducted with the second independent coder to improve familiarity with the coding taxonomy. Then, one coder coded all pictorial campaigns, and the second coder a random selection of approximately 40% of these campaigns. IBM SPSS (v24) software for Windows 10, DAG_Stat tool (Mackinnon, 2000) and VassarStats (Lowry, 2019) were used to calculate the inter-coder reliability indexes (Cohen's K; Prevalence and Bias Adjusted Kappa - PABAK and Maximum Kappa - K_{max} ,when appropriate) indicating a Good to Very Good level of agreement according to the guidelines on interrater reliability levels (Nurjannah & Siwi, 2017) (See Annex C.3 for a detailed overview).

4.3.7. Strategy for data synthesis

NVivo 12 software for Windows 10 was used. Results were aggregated in the form of overall frequency, taking into consideration that most codes within a category were not mutually exclusive. Phrases that were coded as colloquialisms were subjectively analyzed in the context of the language used and the information provided in the pictorial campaign. No formal coding process was involved in this analysis. Data synthesis was conducted by one researcher, with two others reviewing the process and providing feedback.

4.4. Results

In total, 2,683 records were collected and after duplicate removal, 2,009 records remained. After screening, only 57 were considered for ll-text analysis. Based on the review process, no academic article collected studied campaigns specifically focusing on victimized men in DS/SS relationships, nor featured images of pictorial campaign (for an overview of the selection and

screening process see Figure 4.1). Given that no records resulted from the scientific database searches, additional searches were conducted in Google Images. This process followed a snowballing approach, identifying possible images via websites of non-governmental organizations, and related images suitable according to the inclusion criteria.
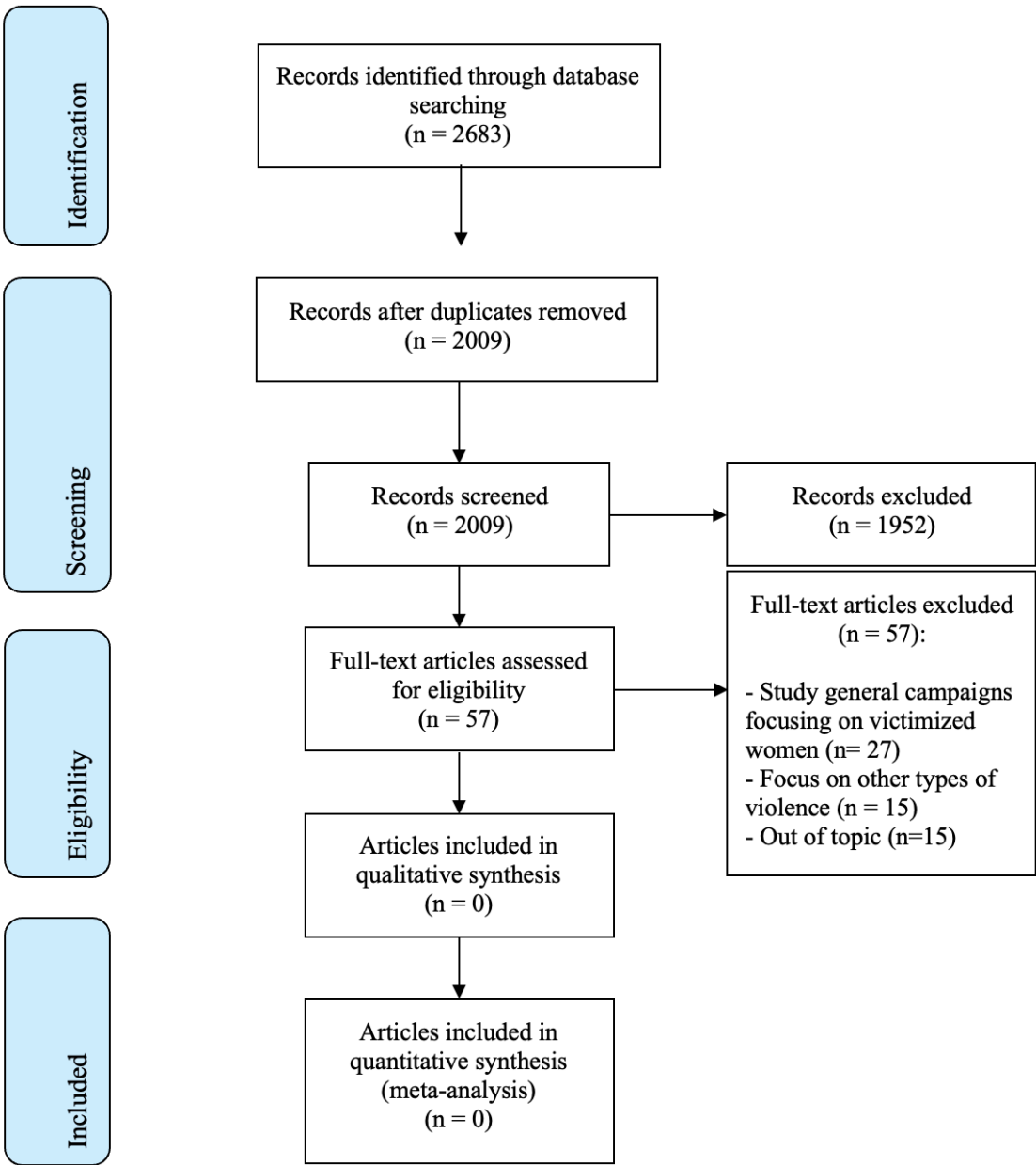
Figure 4.1. *Flowchart of article search and screening process*

A total of 134 images were collected. After an initial screening process, 28 were excluded for: (i) not referencing the promoting entity, (ii) portraying men exclusively as perpetrators, and (iii) not specifying violence towards men (ambivalent). Out of a total 134 images, a shortlist of

97 images was screened again considering the eligibility criteria, with 40 images excluded for being: (i) developed as an individual's art project, (ii) shared only on social media, and (iii) manipulated versions of existing images. Thus, a final sample of 57 images were considered for analysis, representing pictorial campaigns explicitly focusing on victimized men in DS/SS relationships, promoted by formal entities.

4.4.1. Practical characteristics of the pictorial campaigns

Concerning the campaigns' practical characteristics, the release date ranged from 2004 to 2019. Twenty-three of these campaigns were disseminated using a multi-channel approach. The majority of collected campaigns was released in England (n=27) and was promoted mainly by NGO's and/or the police force (see Table 4.1 for a comprehensive overview). No data pertaining to the campaigns development or assessment was found online in the searches conducted.

Table 4.1.

Campaign Characteristics Summary

#	Promoting Entity	Country	Year of release	Multi-channel
1	ACON / LGBTIQ Domestic Violence Interangency	Australia	2004	Yes
2	Virginia Sexual & Domestic Violence Action Alliance (The Red Flag Campaign)	United States	2006	No
3	Virginia Sexual & Domestic Violence Action Alliance (The Red Flag Campaign)	United States	2006	No
4	Virginia Sexual & Domestic Violence Action Alliance (The Red Flag Campaign)	United States	2006	No
5	Virginia Sexual & Domestic Violence Action Alliance (The Red Flag Campaign)	United States	2006	No
6	CIG	Portugal	2008	Yes
7	APAV	Portugal	2009	No
8	West Yorkshire Police	England	2010	No

#	Promoting Entity	Country	Year of release	Multi-channel
9	Kirklees Council / West Yorkshire Police	England	2010	Yes
10	Kirklees Council / West Yorkshire Police	England	2010	Yes
11	The National Centre for Domestic Violence	England	2010	No
12	Safer Peterborough / White Ribbon	England	2013	No
13	NHS Forth Valley	Scotland	2013	No
14	Birmingham Safeguarding Adults Board	England	2013	Yes
15	End the Fear / Greater Manchester Police	England	2014	No
16	Kirklees Council	England	2014	Yes
17	End The Fear / Greater Manchester Police	England	2014	Yes
18	Derbyshire Police	England	2014	Yes
19	ACON / LGBTIQ Domestic Violence Interangency	Australia	2014	No
20	ACON / LGBTIQ Domestic Violence Interangency	Australia	2014	No
21	Kirklees Council / West Yorkshire Police	England	2014	Yes
22	Camden Safety Net	England	2014	Yes
23	Canadian Association for Equality	Canada	2015	No
24	Western Sydney Men And Relationships Services Interagency (WSMARS)	Australia	2015	No
25	Rainbow Bridge (Victim Support / Hate Report it Wales)	Wales	2015	No
26	Broken Rainbow / End the Fear	England	2015	No
27	Men Standing Up / Bradford Cyrenians	England	2015	Not available
28	LGBTQ partner abuse & sexual assault helpline (Virginia Department of Health / Virginia Sexual and Domestic Violence Alliance)	United States	2015	Yes

#	Promoting Entity	Country	Year of release	Multi-channel
29	Association for Victim Support (APAV)	Portugal	2015	Yes
30	APAV	Portugal	2016	Yes
31	APAV	Portugal	2016	No
32	Surrey Police	England	2016	Yes
33	CiG	Portugal	2016	Yes
34	CIG	Portugal	2016	Yes
35	End the Fear / Greater Manchester Police	England	2016	Yes
36	Mankind Initiative	England	2016	Not available
37	Mankind Initiative	England	2016	Not available
38	Mankind Initiative	England	2016	Not available
39	United States Navy	United States	2017	No
40	APAV	Portugal	2017	No
41	APAV	Portugal	2017	No
42	COLEGAS-Confederación LGBT Española, Observatorio Español contra la LGBTfobia (StopLGBTfobia), Bufete Patón&Asociados	Spain	2017	Yes
43	Men's Advice Line	Scotland	2017	Yes
44	Lancashire Victim Services	England	2017	Yes
45	Lancashire Victim Services	England	2017	Yes
46	APAV	Portugal	2018	Yes
47	Mankind Initiative	England	2018	Yes
48	West Yorkshire Police	England	2018	No

#	Promoting Entity	Country	Year of release	Multi-channel
49	West Yorkshire Police	England	2018	No
50	Comission for Citizenship and Gender Equality	Portugal	2019	No
51	Men's Sexual Health	England	Not available	No
52	White Ribbon	England	Not available	No
53	Abused Men in Scotland	Scotland	Not available	No
54	CPN Family Violence Program	United States	Not available	No
55	Abused Men in Scotland	Scotland	Not available	No
56	Sussex Police	England	Not available	No
57	Abused Men in Scotland	Scotland	Not available	No

4.4.2. Global characteristics of the pictorial campaigns

4.4.2.1. Perceived campaign main target. Several of the selected campaigns only stated that men suffer violence in their relationships, not defining the type of relationship they were in (n=22, 39%). They were followed by campaigns focusing on victimized men in SS relationships (n=21, 37%), and DS relationships (n=20, 35%). Eight of these campaigns focusing on victimized men in DS/SS relationships explicitly stated that violence existed both in same-sex and different-sex relationships. Among campaigns targeting bystanders, ten were specifically directed at friends of the target of IPV (18%), while four were not specifically aimed at bystanders in particular but for general bystanders (7%). Finally, out of the selected 57 campaigns, only one targeted female perpetrators (2%), and three (5%) did not define who the perpetrator was.

4.4.2.2. Perceived main objectives. The vast majority highlighted the problematic nature of domestic violence/IPV and its consequences (n=48, 84%), while also introducing new and specific useful information to recognize the problem and escape violence (n= 46, 81%). As for the overall approach, most campaigns included an interventive approach (n=54, 95%), followed by prevention (n=21, 37%), and finally post-violence or treatment (n= 9, 16%).

Information Provided. Concerning the informative component, most campaigns (n = 46, 81%) highlighted that violence towards men in intimate relationships is a serious and real problem. Thirty-five campaigns specifically represented psychological violence (61%), 26 mentioned the social repercussions of the violence (46%), and 22 informed about the physical consequences of violence (39%). Three campaigns identified economic manipulation as a form of violence (5%), and only one campaign presented information about the legal rights and protection of the targets of IPV (2%).

Some campaigns also highlighted the emotional struggles that people who experience IPV often face. Twenty-nine campaigns (51%) emphasized that men in these problematic situations suffer in silence and often feel powerless to act (e.g. "As a man, telling somebody that your partner is abusing you is difficult. You might feel ashamed, embarrassed or worried you'll be viewed as less of a man" - #11). Another 12 campaigns (21%) stated that violence often occurs in privacy and is not publicly displayed (e.g. "Shaun's familiar with control and isolation… That's because he's not allowed to see his family or friends" - #55). Four campaigns (7%) highlighted the specific additional stressors in an IPV context to gay, bisexual, trans, and intersex men (e.g. "I'll out you" - #25). Finally, regarding formal support networks, 47 campaigns (82%) informed of formal support mechanisms such as hotlines and websites (e.g. "Call the Men's Advice Line and talk it over" - #43).

4.4.3. Theoretical representation in the campaigns

4.4.3.1. The Extended Parallel Processing Model. In our sample the majority of campaigns (n=53, 93%) displayed a recommended response (e.g. hotline, website). However, only 20 of these 53 campaigns (38%) informed about the efficacy of the recommended response as stated in the model (e.g. "A confidential and specialized LGBT domestic abuse service centered around YOU and YOUR needs in Cardiff" - #25). Most campaigns (n=46, 80%) also highlighted the severity of the threat (e.g. "Women and men affected by domestic violence can lose their confidence, feel mentally defeated and become depressed and very anxious" - #10), and out of these 46 campaigns 16 campaigns (35%) visually represented bruises, cuts, and

expressions of suffering on the targets of IPV. The remaining 30 campaigns (65%) framed violence implicitly with text, offering information on severity nonetheless. When considering our entire sample, messages that promoted the viewer's perception of self-efficacy were moderately frequent (n=32, 56%; e.g. "You deserve respect, not pressure" - #28). Information regarding susceptibility to the threat portrayed in the campaigns was the least common of all constructs (n=13, 23%; e.g. "1 in 4 LGB and 3 in 4 Trans men and women will experience some form of domestic abuse in their lifetime." - #35). When considering the entire sample, and the recommendations regarding fear appeals, only 4 (7%) campaigns represented all four constructs of the EPPM simultaneously. When analyzing the most prevalent combinations of three of this model constructs, only 6 (11%) represented the efficacy of the recommended response, severity of the threat, and self-efficacy inducing information.

4.4.3.2. Theory of Planned Behavior. Our analysis indicated that most campaigns aimed to generate behavior change (n=51, 89%; e.g. "Break the silence, report it" - #51). Subsequently, they aimed to change attitudes and beliefs (n=47, 82%; e.g. "For all victims of domestic abuse the advice is the same, you are not alone and there is help available" – #11). Thirteen (23%) contrasted the importance of the targets of IPV's well-being with currently biased social norms that could indicate otherwise (e.g. "Derek makes sure the neighbors don't hear the smashing… that's because who'd believe that he was on the receiving end?" - #57). Finally, another seven (12%) highlighted the importance of changing gender norms (e.g. "Because men are traditionally thought to be physically stronger than women, you might be less likely to talk about or report abuse" - #54). All these analyses pertaining to social norms were simultaneously coded in the campaigns eliciting behavior and attitude change. Finally, 14 (25%) campaigns integrated constructs representing behavioral control, attitudes, and norms related to IPV.

4.4.3.3. Elaboration Likelihood Model. Our findings highlight the representation of dissonances, the properties of the perceived message source, and of the perceived target of violence in the campaigns.

Dissonances. We found that dissonances were used to represent facilitators to the dissolution of violence, such as highlighting the undesired state the target is in when viewing the campaign and highlighting a new and more healthy state that he could achieve if he seeks help. In many campaigns (n = 41, 72%) portraits of the victimized person's powerlessness contrasted with a message empowering the targets of IPV to act (e.g. "Break the silence. Break the cycle. Domestic Abuse. We know it happens. Contact us. We can help you." - #18). Other campaigns highlighted that what was culturally known about violence in intimate relationships

was a limited perspective on the subject, subsequently presenting the viewer with up-to-date and more complete knowledge about the nature of violence, its expressions and consequences (n=30, 53%; "Being trapped in a relationship by someone else's insecurities is domestic abuse. If this is you or someone you know, get confidential help now." - #21). A smaller number of campaigns contrasted love and abuse, explaining their incompatibility (12, 21%; "She puts me down every chance she gets. Know this isn't love." - #22), and 6 (11%) highlighted that the "victim" status was not only applicable to women, and that violence can affect any gender (i.e "It's not only women that can be abused by their partner" - #37). Regarding the use of colloquialisms, 27 (47%) campaigns presented some form of culturally specific term or expression that could potentially facilitate persuasion (i.e. "Does that sit right with you" – #35; "Stand up" – #19; "Red Flag" – #4).

Perceived Message Source. In our analysis, we considered the person portrayed in the campaign as the perceived message source. Pertaining to the type of relationship the target of IPV was in as represented by the information provided in the campaigns, we found that 15 campaigns (26%) did not present any details that could inform on the type of relationship, or of his sexual orientation and/or gender identity. Furthermore, it was found that the same number of campaigns explicitly informed that the target of IPV was in a different-sex relationship (n=8, 14%) or in a same-sex relationship (n=8, 14%).

Perceived targets of IPV. On a different level of analysis, our findings revealed that the target of violence was displayed by himself in 35 campaigns (61%), with six additional campaigns portraying both the target and the perpetrator simultaneously (11%). When the victimized person was presented alone, the majority (n=22, 63%) represented them suffering, followed by a more intimate portrayal in which the person's face was directed at the campaign viewer (n=18, 51%). When considering the six campaigns that presented both the target of IPV and the perpetrator simultaneously, 3 campaigns represented reenactments of acts of violence (50%). Considering all the campaigns that portrayed targets of IPV, 26 portrayed what we perceived as young Caucasian males (65%), followed by middle-aged Caucasian men (n=6, 15%). Representing Black men as the targets of IPV was significantly less prevalent, being present in only 2 campaigns (5%).

4.4.3.4. The Transtheoretical Model. By considering the threat information that was present in our sample of campaigns, we extrapolated the stages of change the campaigns could be useful for using an adaptation of a previously developed coding scheme (Cismaru, 2008) (see Table 4.2 for an overview). We found that the threat information represented in the campaigns was mostly directed at targets in the Maintenance stage (n=52, 92%) and

Contemplation stage (n=51, 89%). These were followed by the Precontemplation (n=50, 88%) and Preparation (n=39, 68%) stages. Lastly, information that was useful for the Action stage was the least prevalent in our sample (n=32, 56%), being present nevertheless in more than half of the campaigns. When analyzing the co-occurrence of codes pertaining to the stages of change, we found that 28 (49%) campaigns presented threat information that was adequate for all 5 stages of change simultaneously. Finally, only 3 campaigns (5%) did not provide any information for any stage of change given the absence of threat components.

Table 4.2.

Extended Parallel Processing Model and Transtheoretical Model coding distribution

		Extended Parallel Processing Model			
Transtheoretical Model	# Campaigns	Threat Severity	Threat Susceptibility	Response Efficacy	Self-Efficacy
Pre-Contemplation	49	46	13	17	29
Contemplation	51	45	12	19	32
Preparation	39	31	9	21	32
Action	32	26	8	15	31
Maintenance	52	46	13	19	32

4.5. Discussion

The first aim of the present study was to identify the characteristics of existing pictorial intimate partner violence campaigns focusing on victimized men in DS/SS relationships.

We start by highlighting the relative recency of these initiatives in the IPV field, given that the earliest released campaign was launched in 2004. Additionally, in our selected sample England was the country with the highest number of campaigns. Although there have been many efforts to mitigate IPV in the past (WHO, 2010), the societal, legal and clinical recognition of men as targets of IPV in their intimate relationships is a relatively recent topic. The lack of visibility on the topic may have contributed to the reduced number of campaigns, but on the other hand, the lack of campaigns may have also played a role in the invisibility of

this topic and victimized men in society. Thus, an increase in the number and quality of future campaigns focusing on victimized men may play a positive role in the social recognition of this issue. Additionally, given that our systematic search of the literature did not return any studies on this specific topic, to the best of our knowledge the present study is the first to describe and analyze campaigns focusing on men as targets of IPV, and specifically pictorial campaigns.

Secondly, our study examined the campaigns' main targets, their main objectives as well as their informative components to contribute to a better characterization and understanding of the target populations on which they aimed to intervene.

We found that the majority of campaigns only mentioned that men suffer violence in their relationships, but did not define what specific relationship types they were in. The importance of tailoring campaigns to the specific social and psychological profiles of the target audience has been highlighted previously (Maibach & Cotton, 1995; Palmgreen et al., 1995), but our findings suggest that most campaigns do not do so. For instance, GBTI men may not see themselves in the ambivalent campaigns due to heteronormativity. It is nevertheless very positive that a relatively high number of campaigns has focused on victimized men in SS relationships, suggesting that campaign developers may be more aware and inclusive. Additionally, campaigns focusing on bystanders may play a crucial role in increasing the recognition of violent attitudes and behaviors, as well as leading the target of violence to act (Potter et al., 2011). We did not find information on the formative research processes of these campaigns and their objectives, but they have the potential to model prosocial bystander behaviors (Potter et al., 2009).

Most campaigns in our sample aimed to intervene, which may reflect an adequate strategy to urgently help those who are in need. Nevertheless, fewer campaigns focused on information that can be preventive in nature. In the future, this type of information could be highlighted more often given that it may represent the first step in the recognition of violence in the viewer or those surrounding him. Additionally, future campaigns could emphasize that no matter the approach, psychological help is available, and is a crucial step in the entire process (Machado et al., 2016).

Furthermore, many campaigns portrayed the different expressions the violence can assume, representing mainly psychological, social and physical violence. This information is essential to better clarify what exactly constitutes violence, and how often it emerges in abusive relationships. Nevertheless, there is still a lack of focus on less commonly discussed types of violence, such as sexual abuse and economic manipulation. Furthermore, it is important to consider the specific aggressions GBTI men may face, such as threatening to out the target of

violence as GBTI or as HIV positive in the workplace or family context (Edwards et al., 2015b). Finally, the campaigns' emphasis on the silence and sense of powerless of the victimized person is a frequent topic in the literature surrounding victimized men (Machado et al., 2016; Edwards et al., 2015b; Cook, 2009), and may adequately portray the feelings these men have. This information may help men with underlying feelings of shame and stigma surrounding their own recognition as targets of IPV, as well as seeking help.

For our second research question, we aimed to understand how content in the campaigns could be representative of constructs of the different theoretical models.

Pertaining to the EPPM (Witte et al., 2001), we only found 4 campaigns that thoroughly followed the recommendations of the model on threat appeal design. Subsequently, 12 others presented three of the constructs simultaneously. These findings point to a need for campaign developers to adequately frame message information to consider these threat components when suitable, so that the message can be processed and not denied or avoided (Witte et al., 2001). Inadequately framing threatening appeals may reinforce undesired attitudes and behaviors (i.e. Boomerang Effect; Witte et al., 2001), possibly harming victimized men indirectly. Intrinsically linked with the threat severity information presented, we verified that the majority of campaigns framed violence implicitly, and thus did not visually represent bruises and cuts on victimized men. This is an aspect to be highlighted, given that portraying men suffering significantly may be harmful for victimized men. Considering victimized women's mostly negative impressions on IPV campaigns targeted at them (West, 2013), conducting formative research with the target population may help to understand what type of information is able to induce high perceived threat severity.

Nevertheless, it may be possible that using an explicit approach can be useful for a given population. Information about threat susceptibility was the least frequent of all in our sample, contrasting with its high relevance for preventive approaches. Additionally, despite providing many different recommended responses, information about their efficacy was significantly less available. This may impact the facilitation of attitudes and behaviors towards the recommended response, and ultimately drive men not to act. Information on how the support system works and how it is effective seems to be crucial information in breaking men's negative expectations about how they will be treated when they act to escape the violence (Machado et al., 2016). This motivation to act is linked with the viewer's own sense of self-efficacy, and in our sample, information on this component was moderately frequent. Future campaigns will likely benefit from eliciting this component in the targets of IPV given that previous research has suggested

that it is crucial for beneficial attitude and behavior change in the IPV context (Cismaru & Lavack, 2010; Overstreet & Quinn, 2013; Edwards et al, 2015a).

Pertaining to the Theory of Planned Behavior, we found that the emphasis on generating behavior, attitude and belief change was very positive and adequately served the perceived general purposes of the campaigns under study: to inform the viewer and lead the person to act. Despite this, the lack of focus on changing social norms surrounding violence, gender, and help-seeking represented an aspect that needs improvement. The victimized person's perception of what these specific social norms are is key to trigger actual behavioral intention, and previous literature has highlighted the pressure exerted by social expectations that is felt by victimized men (Machado et al., 2016; Cook, 2009). Furthermore, campaign developers might consider if the perceived norms should be mitigated, changed, or reinforced, and when so, specify exactly what those norms pertain to (Dillard & Pfau, 2002). Nevertheless, in our sample a small number of campaigns portrayed all three constructs of the Theory of Planned Behavior. Despite the possible positive increment added to the message, future research could test if all the aforementioned constructs in a message are relevant for eliciting any given behavior change.

Regarding the Elaboration Likelihood Model and its constructs, the use of dissonances was widespread, and we found that the information presented to the viewer was in accordance with the literature on how targets of IPV feel when they experience violence (Cook, 2009; Machado et al., 2016). For example, contrasting a sense of powerlessness with a specific indication to act may reflect a careful consideration of the campaign developers about what the target of IPV may be feeling and what could potentially elicit change. This can indirectly empower men to act, but if no information is provided about self-efficacy or how the recommended action is effective, men may feel overwhelmed and still not ready to act. Dissonances about social norms and the nature of violence are also key parts of these campaigns, as they can provide a new perspective on a topic that for these men may have seemed unsurmountable, or even, not recognizing it as an issue at all. The use of colloquialisms is a positive increment, but according to the literature they must be used only when they have been pre-tested with the target population (Witte et al., 2001). Not pre-testing a certain colloquialism may lead to unintended reactions and wrongful appropriations of the term in use, something that could counter the desired effect of the message.

Finally, in what concerns the message source, more than half of the campaigns visually portrayed a target of IPV, and among these, more than half represented the person suffering. As stated before, caution should be taken when considering this aspect of campaigns. When considering who could be portrayed in future campaigns, other sources could be tested as

previous literature on the role of message sources did not find that the use of role models made a significant contribution to effect size under study (Hornik, 2002). In the absence of a role model, specific characteristics of the source are relevant for consideration, such as credibility (Hass, 1981) and attractiveness (Chaiken, 1979). In line with these characteristics, it could be possible that including a real testimonial from an empowered victimized male target of IPV could be beneficial for victimized men. Furthermore, previous literature has indicated that IPV perpetration and victimization are transversal to a diversity of sociodemographic profiles (CDC, 2010). Thus, more diversity should be considered in the targets of IPV who are portrayed, so that they could represent victimized men of different ethnicities, age groups, economic status, sexual orientations and degree of functionality.

Pertaining to our findings on the Transtheoretical Model, it is positive that many campaigns simultaneously provide information that is useful for any stage of change. Nevertheless, in accordance with the principles of formative research, the main stages of change in the target population should be assessed before development is initiated (Maibach & Cotton, 1995; Noar, 2006). In line with this perspective, campaign developers must make sure that at least the stages of readiness in which the target population is are considered in the information provided by the campaign.

In summary, to surmount the limitations in our sample, our results suggest that the development of future campaigns could consider the core constructs and processes underlying behavioral change fear appeals, and persuasion. Overall, public information could be made available regarding the development of campaigns and how they were tailored to the target population. Grounding this development on theoretical approaches provides a comprehensive framework on which the characteristics of an audience and the performance of a campaign can be analyzed. This framework facilitates a structured analysis of a campaign's effectiveness (or lack thereof), eventually unintended effects, and how these could potentially be overcome. This approach may, in turn, benefit changes in the target population while reducing costs that often occur with trial-and-error approaches.

Finally, for the analysis of future campaigns in this field or others that may apply, the taxonomy in use for our content analysis may be useful as it provides a theoretically grounded approach. Despite being developed specifically for the field of IPV (both directed at self-identified men and women), and despite considering the literature on IPV, campaign design, threat appeal research and LGBTI topics, it may be improved in the future to consider other types of media, such as video campaigns.

4.5.1. Limitations

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to assess campaigns directed at victimized men, and as such it used qualitative methods to extract crucial data for its understanding. Considering pre-set outcomes and effectiveness indicators, future studies could use quantitative methods to assess the perceived effectiveness of these campaigns, and how different constructs play a role in leading the person to be more aware, to change the person's attitudes, and even to leave their abusive relationships.

It is also important to consider that each individual has a limited cognitive capacity to process all stimuli adequately, and thus the processing of each of these campaigns may differ with other viewers (Lavie, 2005). Nevertheless, such a fact highlights the importance of using the Elaboration Likelihood Model as a framework to study these campaigns, as peripheral cues can capture and hold our attention and lead to persuasion.

Another important consideration is that due to the definition of codes in our coding taxonomy, many of the codes were not mutually exclusive. This allowed us to extract the properties of the campaigns as best as possible, but also, highlights the limitations of the taxonomy that realistically could not accommodate all variations of the codes in an image.

Additionally, there are other theoretical models that could be suitable to proceed with the analysis, such as the Protection Motivation Theory by Rogers (1975), or the Health Belief Model (Rosenstock, 1974). Other campaigns targeting victimized men could be available in other channels such as TV and radio, and in other languages besides English, Spanish and Portuguese.

Finally, we did not consult with campaign developers and thus our extrapolations were achieved with the information provided by the campaign. Future campaigns could provide more public information about their development and assessment, including pre-post test designs and longitudinal studies that assessed attitude and behavior change over time.

4.6. Conclusion

The present study aimed to understand how intimate partner violence pictorial campaigns focusing on victimized men in DS/SS relationships were characterized, and how they represented constructs of the EPPM, Theory of Planned Behavior, Elaboration Likelihood Model and Transtheoretical Model. Our findings revealed that, despite being relatively recent, many of the campaigns integrated key constructs of these theoretical models and were at least partially in line with literature recommendations on the design of fear appeals and the EPPM. A great focus was given to the elicitation of behavior and attitude change, as well as the use of

peripheral cues that could capture the viewer's attention. Nonetheless, more information could be present on how social norms condition the lives of victimized men and their attempts to seek help, as well as how susceptible men are to the violence. In the future, public campaigns could provide more data on their development and effectiveness, in order to improve current knowledge on campaign design and its effectiveness. Finally, more quantitative research is needed to truly understand the effects that different constructs portrayed in these campaigns have on the viewers.

4.7. References

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CHAPTER V | Men who experienced Intimate Partner Violence: Impressions about existing public campaigns and recommendations for new ones

5.1. Abstract

Over the last decades, the negative effects of intimate partner violence (IPV) directed at men in abusive different-sex and same-sex relationships have been increasingly investigated. Men who are the targets of IPV face many barriers to help-seeking, and to overcome them, public awareness campaigns have been developed. Women who experienced IPV have found campaigns targeting them to be harmful and misleading, and previous research suggests that following the principles of formative evaluation research may improve campaigns' effectiveness and reduce unwanted negative effects. This article documents the theory-based formative evaluation research conducted with 14 men abused in different-sex and same-sex relationships for the creation of targeted campaigns. Through semi-structured interviews, men were asked about their overall knowledge of campaigns, their thoughts about specific pictorial IPV campaigns, and their suggestions for the development of new campaigns. Thematic analysis and a theoretically grounded coding scheme were used to analyze the content of the interviews with high inter-rater reliability. Overall, our results indicate that most men were not aware of campaigns in Portugal, and their impressions about the ones they recalled were mixed. Most men praised clear messages informing forms of violence, while some responded negatively to the inclusion of words such as "shame" and "victim", and the depiction of bruises. They also considered that future campaigns targeting men should portray "real people" like them and provide information on self-efficacy, the efficacy of recommended responses, and threat susceptibility. Our findings are consistent with previous evidence with women who experienced IPV but also provide theoretically grounded novel contributions and highlight the importance of considering the population of interest's insights when developing and testing new campaigns.

Keywords: Intimate partner violence; Men; Campaigns; Formative Evaluation Research; Social Marketing

5.2. Introduction

The purpose of this study is to understand the impressions and needs of 14 Portuguese men that were abused in different-sex and same-sex relationships based on theory-based formative evaluation research. By using an explorative and qualitative approach, the results of this formative evaluation research can inform the development of campaigns targeted at these men. This study's literature review firstly elaborates on intimate partner violence (IPV) and its effects on men in different-sex and same-sex relationships, as well as evidence on previously developed IPV campaigns. Subsequently, the tenets of Social Marketing (SM) and formative evaluation research are also elaborated upon. Lastly, we describe two theoretical models that illustrate different key components that public awareness campaigns can include, as well as their possible effects on target audiences.

IPV has been a subject of study for decades, as a phenomenon that spans across the globe and significantly impacts the health of millions of people every year (Heise & García-Moreno, 2012). It is defined as the victimization of someone by a person with whom he/she has or had an intimate relationship, leading to short or long-term negative health outcomes on a physical (e.g., slapping, hitting), psychological (e.g., intimidation, humiliation), and/or sexual (e.g., sexual coercion) level (Heise & García-Moreno, 2012). Intimate partner violence can be experienced and perpetrated by both men and women, independently of age, marital status, or sexual orientation (Ali et al., 2016). Thus far, research on IPV has mainly focused on victimized women in different-sex relationships. Evidence suggests that when compared with victimized men, women experience more frequent and severe violence that results in long-lasting impacts on their health (Hamberger & Larsen, 2015).

Nonetheless, an ever-growing body of research has highlighted how men in different-sex and same-sex relationships are the targets of IPV, and how they experience specific processes and victimization types (Edwards et al., 2015; Nowinski & Bowen, 2012). In terms of prevalence, it has been estimated that one in four men experiences some form of IPV in their lifetimes (Nowinski & Bowen, 2012). In 2020, as reported by the Ministry of Internal Affairs (2021), IPV was the most commonly reported crime in Portugal, representing 7.8% of general criminality (n = 23 439). Out of these reports, 25% referred to men who had been victimized (n=6909) (Ministry of Internal Affairs, 2021). For men in same-sex relationships, victimization rates seem to be comparable or even greater than for men in different-sex relationships (Nowinski & Bowen, 2012). This may be due to different minority stressors that lesbian, gay,

bisexual, and trans people (LGBT) may experience, such as perceived and actual discrimination, which is also common in IPV and may enhance existing vulnerabilities for LGBT people in abusive relationships (Stiles-Shields & Carroll, 2015).

Help-seeking rates have also been found to be different across populations. In Portugal, the National Support Network for Victims of Domestic Violence (RNAVVD) assisted 66 men in 2021, when compared with 2877 women in the same year (Commission for Citizenship and Gender Equality, n.d.-a). Evidence suggests that gay men may seek help at higher rates than heterosexual males (Edwards et al., 2015). To facilitate help-seeking and provide crucial information for the early recognition of signs of abuse, IPV awareness can be achieved through public campaigns. The use of well-developed public awareness campaigns has been found to result in small-to-moderate effects on knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, and some pro-health behaviors (e.g., drug abuse, seatbelt use, oral health) (Noar, 2006). In the context of IPV, evidence on the effectiveness of public awareness campaigns in changing behaviors is limited, but some changes have been found in knowledge and attitudes about IPV (Harvey et al., 2007). Nevertheless, these campaigns have been posited as one of the possible strategies to reach IPV survivors that should be implemented in conjunction with other efforts (e.g., community-based prevention) (Harvey et al., 2007).

5.2.1. Intimate Partner Violence Campaigns

Research in the field of IPV campaigns often focuses on adult females who experience violence, employing mostly qualitative methods to understand the characteristics of campaigns and their potential impact on female targets of violence (Martín et al., 2019). In this line of research, West (2013) has found that abused women considered IPV campaigns to often be emotionally harmful, inaccurate, and misleading, by, for example, depicting severe and graphic aggression. Magaraggia and Cherubini (2017) also highlighted that graphic depictions of physical aggression have become so commonplace that they can inadvertently contribute to the invisibility of other types of violence, such as psychological aggression.

Quantitative evidence is also mixed regarding campaigns' effectiveness on health outcomes. In their review of public campaigns on IPV, Campbell and Manganello (2013) found some support for changes in attitudes about IPV, facilitation of bystander behavior, and helpline calls in the general population. Nonetheless, as assessed by the study's authors, the low

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methodological quality of some studies limited the extrapolations about campaign effectiveness (Campbell & Manganello, 2013). Contrasting with these approaches that focused exclusively on females, Shortland and Palasinski (2019) used a within-subjects design to expose a sample of males and females to 12 posters: six depicting victimized males, and six representing victimized females. After exposure, participants quantitatively rated how effective each poster was, and no assessment of previous victimization was conducted. When considering their global sample (i.e. the impressions of both males and females in their sample), the authors found that posters presenting females who were the targets of IPV were overall seen as more effective than posters representing male targets of violence. Furthermore, a systematic content analysis of IPV pictorial campaigns directed at men in different-sex and same-sex relationships found that many campaigns integrated constructs of different theoretical models but often did not articulate them as recommended (Reis et al., 2020). This could impact their effectiveness and ultimately lead to unwanted negative cognitive consequences for the targets of the message, such as denial, defensive avoidance, and/or reactance to message content (i.e., a motivation to resist a threat to freedom) (Witte et al., 2001; Shen & Coles, 2015).

Studies addressing the impact of campaigns oriented to victimized males or assessing victimized males' impressions of campaigns targeted at them are extremely scarce. This is reflected by the numerous recommendations that have been made on the need for IPV awareness efforts that specifically inform male targets of violence about what constitutes violence, which resources are available, and what information they provide (Hine et al., 2020; Martín et al., 2019). In Portugal, most widespread IPV campaigns have been promoted by the Portuguese Government's Commission for Citizenship and Gender Equality (CiG), and by the Portuguese Association for Victim Support (APAV). In this country, very few campaigns portray IPV against males, and when they do, men are usually portrayed in conjunction with victimized women (Commission for Citizenship and Gender Equality, n.d.-b). To the best of our knowledge, only one IPV campaign in Portugal thus far has been created exclusively for victimized males (i.e., its sole focus is victimized males, and the campaign's template is not simultaneously used to target other populations such as victimized females) (APAV, n.d.). Moreover, no peer-reviewed research is available on the impressions or effectiveness of Portuguese campaigns directed at victimized males. Very few studies in this field have documented how these campaigns were created, and if so, according to which standards and guidelines (Donovan & Vlais, 2005)

5.2.2. Social Marketing and Formative Evaluation Research

The principles of Social Marketing are an example of key theoretical guidelines in the development of campaigns. Social Marketing is defined as a set of procedures that makes use of marketing principles and techniques to elicit behavior change in a given target audience, potentially benefiting society as well (Lee & Kotler, 2019). Harvey and colleagues (2007) indicate that campaigns based on SM have higher odds of being effective in changing knowledge, attitudes, and social norms about IPV when compared to traditional public education campaigns that do not resort to this methodology. Research on the development of SM campaigns and effective interventions highlights the central role of formative evaluation research and its potential beneficial impact on domestic violence (Lee & Kotler, 2019).

Formative evaluation research is the process through which the target audience's characteristics, predispositions, and evaluations are collected before implementing the campaign, thus representing foundational research that supports subsequent efforts (Atkin & Rice, 2013). The importance of formative research evaluation is highlighted by the specificities that different types of messages and channels have, since communicating via static images, audio, and video formats entails different conceptualization, implementation and evaluation strategies (Noar, 2006). Using this research approach may lead campaign designers to understand how susceptible and severe an audience may feel towards a given health threat, and also provides information on how to engage their attention, how to overcome audience resistance to a given message, and how counterproductive effects may arise (Atkin & Rice, 2013). Data derived from the implementation of this approach can improve messages during their creation, which is crucial given that most campaigns do not follow a systematic approach and may fail to meet their goals to positively change knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors (Atkin & Rice, 2013).

Different researchers have considered the insights of men (Donovan et al., 1999; Stanley et al., 2009; Thomson et al., 2013) to document the development of campaigns targeting male perpetrators of IPV, but the inquired participants were either from the general population or perpetrators of violence. Thus far, no studies have assessed the opinions of victimized men in different-sex and same-sex relationships to inform the development of campaigns targeted at victimized men. Moreover, when developing public campaigns, the importance of considering theoretical models to potentially improve their effectiveness and facilitate their evaluation has been consistently highlighted over the years (Atkin & Rice, 2013; Witte et al., 2001).

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5.2.3. Theoretical Frameworks

Several theoretical models have been found useful in assisting campaign development and evaluation. Two important models are the Extended Parallel Process Model (EPPM) (Witte et al., 2001) and the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986).

The EPPM focuses on how people perceive health risk information. It is comprised of four main theoretical constructs: susceptibility, severity of a threat, self-efficacy, and efficacy of the recommended response to avert the threat. When people are presented with a message that elicits health risks, they usually start by assessing how susceptible and severe they are to that given health threat. They also evaluate the efficacy of the recommended response to avert the threat and their self-efficacy to carry out the recommended response. Thus, the cognitive outcome of message processing will be a result of simultaneous engagement in efficacy and threat assessment (Witte et al., 2001).

In this sense, if viewers have higher perceived efficacy than perceived threat, they may engage in danger control processes. This type of control process directs the viewer to manage the threat while resorting to the sense of efficacy they hold and are often considered to be adaptive for message processing (Witte et al., 2001). However, if their threat perceptions are higher than their self-efficacy, they may feel overwhelmed and engage in non-adaptive fear control processes. This type of process may lead the viewer to focus on the management of negative emotional states and not resort to his/her perceptions of efficacy to avert the threat. This could lead to unwanted cognitive processes such as denial of the threat, defensive avoidance, and reactance (Witte et al., 2001).

Thus far, only Keller and Honea (2016) have used the EPPM in the field of IPV campaigns targeting females who experience IPV, as part of the formative evaluation research and while pre-testing a IPV campaign. The authors conducted interviews and focus groups in which participants were inquired about general perceptions of IPV and the use of support services through questions based on the components of the EPPM. Their findings suggest that it is key to be mindful of gender stereotypes and dynamics in society when developing IPV campaigns targeted at victimized women. Additionally, the systematic content analysis by Reis et al. (2020) suggested that less than 10% of their sample adequately represented the four constructs of the EPPM, as per the recommendations of this theoretical model. To surmount this, their findings indicate that future campaigns could present more information on the susceptibility to

the threat, and on the efficacy of the recommended response. Nonetheless, to the best of our knowledge, no research has applied its tenets to the actual development and quantitative evaluation of messages directed at men who are the targets of IPV.

The second model that can significantly contribute to campaign development and evaluation is the ELM (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). The ELM explains how possible attitude change can occur through persuasion. According to ELM, if the recipient of a message is highly motivated and is capable of processing the message, persuasion occurs through what is called the "central route". In this case, elaboration is relatively high and a thorough analysis of most components in the message is conducted, such as argument strength and complexity, possibly resulting in more stable and long-lasting changes in the recipient. When the recipient is not as capable of processing the message, and/or may also not be as motivated to do so, persuasion may occur through the "peripheral route". In this low elaboration likelihood route, the receiver employs heuristics to evaluate the message, and for example, he or she may be guided by how credible and similar the communicator of the message is, or the will to solve a dissonant internal state. Thus, different peripheral cues guide their attitudes and beliefs (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). It is also important to consider that a given persuasion-related outcome often occurs as a result of engagement in both processes, which can shift and combine in complex patterns (O'Keefe, 2013).

Previously, the study by Reis et al. (2020) provided insights about the representation of ELM-related constructs in IPV campaigns directed at men. It found that campaigns often conveyed dissonant states (e.g., describing what the viewer's situation possibly was, and what it could become if adaptive actions were taken), and portrayed men that could be perceived as normative (i.e., similarity cue). Additionally, the ELM was used specifically for the development of a campaign focusing on domestic violence prevention (Keller & Otjen, 2007). The campaign developed by Keller and Otjen (2007) presented preliminary positive results but focused solely on violence against women.

5.2.4. Aims of the current research

Taking into account the theoretical background on the EPPM and ELM, this study aims to conduct theory-based formative evaluation research to assess overall awareness, and

impressions of victimized men in different-sex and same-sex relationships regarding existing Portuguese IPV campaigns, as well as their recommendations for the development of new ones.

To achieve this goal, semi-structured interviews were conducted with these populations. Our objective stems from the need to consider the perspective of an intervention's target population and inquire about their characteristics, predispositions, and impressions about the topic under study, which is in line with formative evaluation research. By considering theory, previous findings from effective health campaign design, and men's perspectives, we may improve the development and effectiveness of future interventions in this population and potentially reduce unintended negative effects (such as denial, defensive avoidance, and reactance). Additionally, we produce novel scientific knowledge on this field, by also following the ethical principles on research within vulnerable populations (Roffee & Waling, 2017) and the Journal Article Reporting Standards for the report of primary qualitative research (JARS-Qual) (APA, 2018).

5.3. Method

This study was approved by the Ethical Review Board of its host institution (32/2018). No incentives were provided for participation in this study.

5.3.1. Sample

Participants were considered if they were over 18 years old, and self-identified as males and targets of violence in a past and/or current intimate partner relationship. Both different-sex and same-sex relationships were contemplated, as long as participants spoke Portuguese or English fluently and resided in Portugal. Participants were not included if they were younger than 18 years old and/or reported another type of violence that did not occur in the context of an intimate partner relationship (e.g., minor's sexual abuse).

Data collection was undertaken before the COVID-19 pandemic, and the call for participants lasted the entire duration of 2019. This call presented the inclusion and exclusion criteria, to which potential participants responded by proactively contacting the researchers demonstrating their interest in participating. They were selected for participation via purposive sampling if they met the inclusion criteria. Data collection ended after preliminary analyses

revealed data saturation, which is also in line with findings by Guest et al., (2006) on saturation being achieved with as few as 12 interviews. The call was disseminated through the Portuguese Network for the Support of Domestic Violence Victims with the aid of a governmental organization (CiG). Additionally, it was shared by non-governmental organizations, such as the Portuguese Association for Victim Support (APAV), and social networks to reach the most diverse sample possible.

A total of 15 participants were interviewed, but one participant was not included in the analysis because in the later stages of his interview he clarified that he had experienced a form of violence other than IPV. Thus, 14 participants were included for analysis (M = 34 years old, SD = 8 years old, ranging from 24 to 51 years old). Most participants were single, were working at the moment of participation, and had at least an undergraduate degree. Six participants identified as heterosexual, two as bisexual, and five as gay men. One participant did not disclose his sexual orientation. Only one participant, "O", was not Portuguese, as he had a migrant background. Our participants were subject to different forms of IPV, namely psychological (e.g., diminishing one's value), physical (e.g., stabbing), sexual (e.g., forcing sexual contact), and economical (e.g., non-consensual use of private funds). Relationship duration ranged from 8 months to 19 years, and only one participant remained in the relationship in which he was abused. See Table 5.1 for an overview of sociodemographic and abusive relationship characteristics.

Table 5.1.

Sociodemographic characteristics

Variable	*N*	*%*	Variable	*N*	*%*
Occupational Status			Civil Status		
Student	1	7.1	Single	11	78.6
Employed	11	78.6	Married	1	7.1

Unemployed	2	14.3		Divorced	2	14.3
Education level				**Has Dependents**		
Primary	3	21.4		No	10	71.4
Secondary	2	14.3		Yes	4	28.6
Bachelor's Degree	6	42.9		**Abusive Relationship Length**		
Master's Degree	2	14.3		Less than 1 year	3	21.4
Other	1	7.1		Between 1 - 5 years	7	50.0
Living Context				Between 6 - 10 years	2	14.3
Urban	11	78.6		Over 10 years	2	14.3
Rural	2	14.3		**Filed a Criminal Complaint**		
Mixed	1	7.1		Yes	8	57.1
Sexual Orientation				No	6	42.9
Heterosexual	6	42.9				
Gay	5	35.7				
Bisexual	2	14.3				
Not Disclosed	1	7.1				

5.3.2. Interview Protocol

The interview protocol was semi-structured, and its development was based on the existing literature on IPV, its dynamics and processes, and additional stressors that men in same-sex relationships may experience. It also considered research on effective health campaign design and the ELM and the EPPM. We opted for the use of a semi-structured approach given the novelty of this topic and to allow for the emergence of other topics that could significantly contribute to our data.

After a final draft was concluded, the protocol was reviewed by three stakeholders: a clinical psychologist, a victim support technician, and an LGBTI activist. The protocol was then pre-tested with two males and a female who were Psychology researchers and were not part of our sample. These researchers imagined being in a hypothetical IPV situation to further improve clarity and the flow of the script. After this process was concluded, a Portuguese and an English version of the protocol were finalized and were used in all interviews without further changes. The protocol was comprised of both open-ended (e.g., "In your opinion, how is intimate partner violence directed at men seen in today's society?) and more specific questions (e.g. "How long did this relationship last?). The interview protocol is presented in Annex D.1.

5.3.3. Materials

As part of the assessment of impressions on specific Portuguese IPV campaigns, three pictorial campaigns were presented to participants. The posters were printed on an A4 sheet of paper in color and were provided to participants during the corresponding section of the interview. To the best of our knowledge, the authors of this study did not contact the campaigns' promoting entity, and no information about the campaign development and testing was publicly available.

One of the campaigns, henceforth entitled "X-Ray", portrayed an X-ray of a person's skull, highlighting that feeling shame is an invisible yet significant part of being a male and being victimized. Another campaign, "Friends", presents a "selfie" taken by three people (two men and one woman), in which one of the men has a bruised cheek. Lastly, the campaign "Sweatshirt" portrays a sweatshirt with the word "victim" written on it, stating that anyone can be a "victim" of crime (APAV, n.d.). See Annex D.2 for more details on the materials. These pictorial campaigns were specifically chosen because they presented information that was key

to men's abusive processes, and the information was commonly presented in more generic IPV campaigns, potentially maximizing the external validity of our findings. We highlight that the authors of this study attributed names to each campaign to improve clarity when describing our findings. These names do not represent the actual title or name of the campaigns. Furthermore, to our knowledge, the campaign designated as "X-Ray" is the only IPV campaign in Portugal that has been created exclusively for victimized males. The campaign "Friends" was chosen because it visually depicts bruises on a man while referencing victimization. Finally, the campaign "Sweatshirt" was chosen because we aimed to understand how a more ambiguous message (i.e., not specifically identifying male victimization) was perceived by victimized males.

5.3.4. Coding taxonomy development

The coding taxonomy was both deductively and inductively developed. On a deductive level, we considered the literature on IPV and research on health campaign design, to formulate themes such as the perceived impact and targets of the campaigns. Literature on the EPPM (Witte et al., 2001) and ELM (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) was also key to inform the creation of specific questions about the four constructs of the EPPM, and the characteristics of the person portrayed in the campaign (i.e., a potential heuristic as stated in the ELM).

On an inductive level, the initial coding taxonomy was applied to a small sample of interviews which allowed for the identification of new categories that better represented the data. This inductive level coding was essential to identify constructs that emerged and were not considered in the scopes of the considered theoretical models. By doing so, the plurality of perspectives on these topics was more adequately represented. A final version of the taxonomy was created after its application to all data, as a result of an iterative process of organization and distinction between the categories and their meanings.

5.3.5. Taxonomy categories

Our analysis generated 30 categories, 57 subcategories, and 13 (sub) subcategories, applied to 14 units of analysis. These represent a wide range of constructs, such as the needs men had when they were being victimized (i.e., "Men's needs") or men's impressions of the perceived

effectiveness of IPV campaigns for the general public (i.e., "Perceived Effectiveness General Public"). A full description of all categories is provided in the Annex D.3.

Firstly, we addressed the overall awareness about existing campaigns in Portugal, including participants' recollections of specific characteristics in these campaigns. Our second main group of questions focused on impressions about three specific pictorial Portuguese campaigns. Our categories in this group encompass general evaluation as well as specific impressions about each of these campaigns. We considered the four theoretical constructs of the EPPM and the characteristics of the person portrayed in the message as a possible heuristic from the ELM (i.e., to assess the potential importance of credibility and similarity in persuasion). The last group of questions corresponds to men's contributions to the development of new campaigns. This group included both general and specific aspects of the campaigns and presented links with previously discussed concepts of the theoretical models under study.

5.3.6. Coding process

The coding process followed a post-positivist approach, which highlights the constructivist role that data observation and interpretation have in the sense-making of a given phenomenon, as well as the importance of anchoring data analysis in theoretical perspectives to achieve a more objective, consensual, and verifiable representation of reality (Panhwar et al., 2017). Thematic analysis was used to code the textual content of the interviews, aiming to identify, analyze and report patterns within data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The explicit written content of the interviews was coded, with one researcher coding all interview materials, and the second independent rater coding 50% of these materials. The researcher who conducted the interviews and coded the totality of data has a background in Social Psychology, having obtained specific training in IPV and LGBT-related topics. The other researcher was not familiarized with the topics under study and was provided with the coding taxonomy and its descriptions. Discussions were had to clarify the meanings of certain categories, but we aimed to reduce the potential bias of familiarity with the topic that the second researcher could have. Data were coded using QSR Nvivo 12 software and complementarily organized with Microsoft Excel.

5.3.7. Risk of bias assessment

Interrater reliability was calculated considering different reliability indexes (Cohen's K; Prevalence and Bias Adjusted Kappa – PABAK and Maximum Kappa – K_{max}, when applicable). These indexes complement the commonly used Cohen's K and provide information about how interrater reliability may be impacted by variations in prevalence and bias between raters (i.e., PABAK), and how the maximum possible K (i.e., $K_{max)}$ may be affected by marginal values (Flight & Julious, 2015). In summary, all the previously mentioned measures should be considered when analyzing interrater reliability as they provide different types of information about the same process (Sim & Wright, 2005). For the extrapolation of these indexes, both IBM SPSS (v25) software and the DAG_Stat tool (Mackinnon, 2000) were used. Overall, the mean interrater agreement in our study as stated by Cohen's K was considered to be very strong (Cohen's K = .93) according to Landis & Koch's cutoff proposal (Landis & Koch, 1977). A comprehensive view of these indexes is presented in Annex D.4 showing that overall interrater reliability was very good.

5.3.8. Procedure

Interviews took place in different locations in Portugal, and in each session in which only the interviewer and the interviewee were present, participants provided their written informed consent after being explained the study's conditions. All participants consented to the sound recording of their interviews a priori, and the recording equipment was always visible. Firstly participants were first inquired about their general awareness and recollection of public awareness campaigns that focused on IPV and domestic violence in Portugal. Afterward, they were presented with the three different pictorial campaigns and asked about their impressions. Lastly, participants were questioned about their suggestions for the development of new campaigns. After the end of the interviews, and to avoid potentially negative effects of discussing a sensitive topic, participants were provided with information about help resources. The sessions recorded in audio were transcribed and anonymized for data coding by the independent coder. Only the main researcher had access to and transcribed the sound files that resulted from the interviews. The average duration of the interviews was 2 hours, ranging between 1 hour 30 minutes and 2 hours and 30 minutes.

5.4. Results

The findings of the analysis will be presented in three main sections: knowledge and beliefs about IPV campaigns, impressions about this study's three poster campaigns, and recommendations for the development of targeted campaigns. Understanding how victimized men viewed and thought of general IPV campaigns before being exposed to the three posters allowed us to make a "baseline" assessment of their beliefs on this topic. It also provided key information about the campaigns' perceived effectiveness and impact, and what characteristics stood out and were more easily recalled, even if years had passed since the moment of exposure.

5.4.1. Knowledge and beliefs about IPV campaigns and their outcomes

This section aims to depict pre-existing knowledge and beliefs about the characteristics of Portuguese campaigns on domestic violence/IPV and their potential effects.

5.4.1.1. Lack of awareness about public IPV campaigns directed at victimized men

A small number of participants recalled having seen a campaign on domestic violence or IPV at the time of their victimization, remembering campaigns that focused on female victims of male perpetrators (n = 5). For those who remembered being exposed to these campaigns, they considered that the targets were the bystanders since campaigns asked to act when violence is detected by calling a helpline or reporting to the police. Only one participant recalled a campaign specifically directed at victimized men. They recalled seeing these campaigns being shared mostly on television and social media, but billboards, magazines, hospitals, local health clinics, and police stations were also reported.

5.4.1.2. Low perceptions of effectiveness and impact on victimized individuals

Overall, participants felt that the global perceived effectiveness of IPV campaigns was lacking, and different contributing factors were provided. Some participants stated that they did not perceive beneficial outcomes of existing campaigns on their abusive process (n = 5), mostly because in their views the campaigns do not lead victimized individuals to act. Additionally, victimized males felt that campaigns did not result in an overall reduction of domestic violence or IPV, but this observation was also attributed to perceptions of ineffectiveness from the legal system to respond to and accommodate those who experience IPV.

5.4.1.3. Campaigns' potential to break the silence and facilitate help-seeking

Nonetheless, some participants found that campaigns can have some effectiveness in improving different outcomes. For instance, several men mentioned that campaigns could potentially break the silence surrounding male victimization, and facilitate help-seeking, namely for those who are at extreme points in their victimization process (e.g. physical violence) (n=10). In this sense, campaigns could work as a starting point, but not as a solution to the problem. Only one participant stated that campaigns let him know there was a way out, informing him that there was someone trained to deal with the issues of IPV.

5.4.2. Impressions about the three pictorial campaigns

This section aims to depict participants' impressions about the three pictorial campaigns they were exposed to as part of this study. Only one participant had ever seen one of these campaigns before participating, with the remaining participants not recalling ever being exposed to them previously.

5.4.2.1. Differing perceptions on perceived effectiveness for victimized individuals

Regarding the perceived effectiveness of these specific campaigns for male targets of violence, opinions were evenly mixed. On one hand, some men (n = 7) thought that they were effective because they drew attention to male victimization, especially a campaign that specifically stated that men were "victims". This approach could signal that the organization is aware and prepared to handle male victimization, which along with consistently providing information on helplines might encourage help-seeking. On the other hand, several men (n = 5) indicated that they did not strongly believe campaigns would lead targets of violence to act.

5.4.2.2. Clearly directed and explained campaigns that feature "real people"

Abused men praised messages and slogans that were direct and clear in their purpose and recommended response, in contrast with those which were ambiguous or required more elaboration (n= 7). Portraying realistic 'everyday people' was rated as best given that it had a higher potential for identification (n= 5). Campaigns that looked more modern and featured an overall eye-catching design were evaluated as better. Participants found that campaigns that did not stand out or were poorly executed had reduced appeal (n= 4). These findings can be linked

to some of the tenets of the ELM and their role in facilitating persuasion. Additionally, some men voiced praise for the depiction of psychological violence, as it remained an under-discussed type of violence (n= 3). When faced with a campaign that did not state which type of violence people can experience, one man nevertheless pointed out that this could be beneficial to allow more people to identify with the campaigns.

Not directly stating who was the aggressor was pointed out as a potential drawback by one participant because it often led the viewer towards pre-established notions that did not consider situations such as violence in same-sex relationships. This was further highlighted by the fact that two of the slogans used had considerably different interpretations. Furthermore, one participant specifically expressed his dissatisfaction with the design company that developed the campaign, stating that campaigns should be designed in collaboration with people who had gone through experiences of IPV.

"[name of design company]… this cannot be done by people who did not go through this, this has to be done by people who went through this because it has to convey a feeling (…) this does not convey a feeling." (G, 36 years old)

5.4.2.3. Dissonant views about evoking shame, victimhood, and bruises in campaigns

Several participants commended the portrayal of shame as a mark of the abuse as they felt it adequately represented the experiences victimized men have (n = 6).

"In the first poster shame as something 'normal' in a person, in a man who is a victim of domestic violence helps to understand that it is not needed, or this feeling of shame is not that important to call that number because on the other side there will certainly be a comprehension about all this, something that already helps the person overcome that barrier to be able to call" (E, 35 years old)

In contrast with participants who saw it as a positive aspect, some participants stated that mentioning shame could further stigmatize victimized men, perpetuating stereotypes about masculinity and hindering help-seeking (n= 6).

"I think it trivializes the matter a lot (…) shame isn't just shame, it is fear, it is depression, it could really be physical marks, so… (…) it doesn't correct anything (…) if I see this it will not improve my life in any way." (A, 26 years old)

Presenting the word 'victim' in the piece of clothing in the "Sweatshirt" campaign also elicited several negative reactions that focused on how the identity of "victim" is something seen as pejorative and that men would not want to be (n= 4).

"*I don't want to be part of a club (...) nobody wants to wear a sweatshirt that says victim so... it might fit any person (...) but nobody wants to use it, so this doesn't make sense in my opinion (...) it is aggressive*" (G, 36 years old)

"*I think a problem is created with the word victim (...) it being associated with a pejorative and an inferior thing, a victim is a person who is below [others] (...) a man will not want to be a victim*" (B, 23 years old)

Furthermore, the depiction of actual bruises was seen by some as too aggressive or reductive of the entire experience of violence that usually includes psychological violence as well, potentially leading to the invisibility of other types of violence (n= 3).

5.4.2.4. Extended Parallel Process Model – Lack of information on the effectiveness of recommended responses

Self-efficacy-related information was provided in all campaigns as perceived by most participants, but three participants stated that no self-efficacy information was presented. When asked about whether there was a recommended response to avert the threat present in the campaigns, most participants stated that helplines were suggested (n= 9). Nevertheless, a small number of participants considered that no information in the campaigns represented a recommended response to overcome IPV. Subsequently, when asked if there was information available in the campaign about how effective the recommended response was in dealing with the threat, all but one participant indicated that none of the campaigns provided this type of information. The single participant who indicated that there was information on this aspect interpreted the entire campaign as an efficacy source. Another participant voiced concerns that were interpreted as part of this topic when discussing the effectiveness of the campaigns, by questioning what he would gain and what would happen if he called.

"*What will I gain by contacting [organization]? (...) I don't know what is going to happen, will I stop being a victim? What will I become then? What will I contact you for?*" (I, 28 years old).

Participants felt that conveying information about statistics could convey threat susceptibility (n = 4), but most participants did not recall seeing this information in the campaigns. Threat severity was mostly seen as being present via the bruise in the "Friends" campaign as well as the "X-ray" campaign as it alluded to a clinical situation and suggested psychological suffering (n= 6). Conversely, essentially half of the sample did not find that information of victimization severity was present.

5.4.3. Participant's recommendations for the creation of new campaigns

When asked about their recommendations for the design of new campaigns targeting victimized men, considering their needs and experience of victimization, men offered different perspectives that will be addressed in the following sub-sections.

5.4.3.1. Providing clear information about violence that is representative of diversity

Explicit information about the different types of violence was considered one of the most relevant types of information across participants (n= 7). It could be conveyed in the form of testimonies, reenactments, or simple checklists that would make it easier for victims and bystanders to identify with the situation or have concrete information available. Due to the complex nature of victimization, specific information should address how hard it is to identify violence as violence, and what are its early signs. Mainly gay and bisexual participants emphasized the importance of portraying non-heterosexual realities, to increase public awareness about violence in same-sex relationships (n= 4).

"(...) the most important is (...) for the campaigns to have an instructive impact and educate people that these cases exist (...) be it [violence] from a man to a woman, a woman to a man, a man to another man, a woman to another woman" (E, 35 years old)

Information regarding legal rights was not found very adequate by some participants (n=4). In what concerns the type of channels to be used, video formats were emphasized as potentially more appealing than pictorial formats by three participants.

5.4.3.2. Portraying normative men. As postulated in the ELM about the potential role of message source similarity and credibility as a persuasion heuristic, most participants would

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portray males similar to them on the campaigns, providing testimonies, for example, to not only improve the credibility of the campaign but also to improve identification (n= 8).

"*(...) testimonies, people who went through this and lost their shame, to help others*" (L, 42 y.o.)

"*(...) there had to be a resemblance, (...) a person could look and identify with that character, that man, and have some empathy and think, I look like him*" (G, 36 years old)

Other suggestions were using physicians who advised or recommended something (n=4), and lastly, two participants mentioned the possible use of celebrities. The people portrayed should represent the LGBT community as well, as stated by gay and bisexual participants (n= 4).

5.4.3.3. Appealing to emotions. Some participants preferred a more emotional message when compared with a more logical or rational one (n=5). This would mean that campaigns would have to capture participants' attention by triggering pertinent emotions in their processes. Three participants preferred a mixed approach with both types.

5.4.3.4. Extended Parallel Process Model – Feeling susceptible, empowered, and understanding what happens when help is sought is key

Participants' suggestions about the content of future campaigns were also in line with the four theoretical constructs of the EPPM, which will be presented in the following sub-sections.

Threat susceptibility was seen by most men as an important factor of the EPPM to be present in new campaigns (n= 8). Men suggested that statistics on the prevalence of violence directed at men could inform not only men that they are not the only victimized ones, but also inform bystanders. Self-efficacy was highlighted as an important resource and oftentimes crucial in determining help-seeking efforts (n=8). Other participants mentioned that information regarding self-efficacy should be more noticeable in comparison with other elements of the campaign (n= 3).

"*(...) give power to the person to at least know where to call to help deal with the situation.*" (M, 38 years old)

"(...) the empowerment to call a helpline or the empowerment to leave these situations would be really important because that's the turning point for any person that may be going through a situation like this" (E, 35 years old)

Several participants reported that it was important to provide information on helplines (n= 8). Efficacy of recommended response was stated as an important component of future campaigns, explaining the psychological benefits of calling, what happens when people seek help, and in what circumstances it applies. One participant felt that recommended responses were not that important, and another mentioned that conflating information on violence and helplines might hinder its capacity.

Several participants indicated that presenting information on the serious physical, psychological, social, and financial consequences of violence was important (n= 6). Social isolation was highlighted as a particularly important consequence given that it was felt by several participants and impacts the sense of invisibility of the violence experienced, which leads to more invisibility of men who are victimized. Consequences on future relationships, dependents, and job performance were also mentioned.

5.5. Discussion

This qualitative study aimed to conduct formative evaluation research with victimized men in different-sex and same-sex relationships to understand their overall knowledge, and impressions about existing Portuguese pictorial IPV campaigns. Additionally, it collected their needs and recommendations for the development of new campaigns targeting victimized males. Our analysis, which took into consideration the literature on IPV, the ELM, and EPPM, provides important results that are the first of its kind, and are a significant contribution to the field of male victimization and public awareness campaigns for this population.

In what concerns overall awareness and beliefs regarding IPV campaigns in Portugal, only one of our participants recalled ever seeing a campaign directed at victimized men. Additionally, men voiced that they did not see campaigns as effective in leading to actual behavior change nor did they feel that these campaigns helped them in their abusive process. This may be due to the lack of visibility surrounding male victimization in different-sex and same-sex relationships (Edwards et al., 2015; Laskey et al., 2019), something expressed in this

study as an issue campaigns could intervene on. Furthermore, there is a documented lack of awareness-raising efforts towards victimized males (Hine et al., 2020; Martín et al., 2019), which may be reflected in Portugal due to the small number of campaigns focusing on victimized men (Commission for Citizenship and Gender Equality, n.d.-b; APAV, n.d.). Thus, future campaigns could be directed at victimized men in different-sex and same-sex relationships, informing targets of violence as well as increasing awareness in society about this issue. By doing so, crucial information on topics such as what help resources are available, as well as how effective they are in helping those victimized could be provided. This could lead to the correction of misconceptions (e.g., perceptions of the ineffectiveness of the legal system in handling IPV cases), which in turn could potentially lead to better attitudes, perceived effectiveness, and actual help-seeking behaviors. We must nevertheless highlight that to our knowledge a unified and consensual definition of "perceived effectiveness" in the covered literature remains to be developed. This is due to discrepancies in the theoretical underpinnings, study designs, and methodologies used in this field, which limit the comparison of results across studies (Noar, 2006).

Regarding the impressions on specific campaigns, on one hand, it should be highlighted that many positive aspects were found, and that if adequate, could be replicated in future campaigns. Overall men seem to prefer messages that are clear and direct, and that identify the different possible types of violence. Importantly, most participants perceived that self-efficacy was present in all campaigns. This construct is central in leading to attitude and behavior change by theoretical frameworks such as the EPPM (Witte et al., 2001) and the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991), and has been previously suggested to be central in campaigns directed at victimized women (West, 2013). On the other hand, some topics are deserving of more attention by future intervention developers, namely when covering topics such as shame, using the word "victim" and depicting explicit bruises or wounds.

Regarding shame, the literature has highlighted it to be a common experience in victimized females (McCleary-Sills et al., 2016) and males (Hine et al., 2020). Developers should be cautious not to further stigmatize those who have and could be currently struggling with this issue, as previous research with victimized women suggests (West, 2013). The use of the word "victim" should also be thought of carefully, as previous literature on IPV reveals the struggles of those who experience stigma and in coming to terms with their identities (Eckstein, 2010). The intersection of stigmatized identities, hegemonic masculinity norms and LGBT-specific

processes (Stiles-Shields & Carroll, 2015) plays an important role in men's abusive and help-seeking processes (Eckstein, 2010) and should be considered when designing interventions.

Presenting explicit bruises and wounds also received mixed responses, and this may echo the findings by West (2013) with female targets of violence, and previous analyses of campaigns directed at the same population (Magaraggia & Cherubini, 2017). If for once it could be used as an attention-grabbing visual cue according to the ELM (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986), without further testing researchers should be mindful of how these graphic depictions might be more harmful than beneficial, leading people to deny or avoid the message (Witte et al., 2001). Nevertheless, researchers and designers can investigate what other types of information could be efficient to elicit threat severity in the target audience without the need for actual depictions of violence.

Formative evaluation research should also be conducted to pretest the slogans and information presented, as in our study men did not entirely agree on a single interpretation, leaving room to improve their clarity and degree of understanding (Lee & Kotler, 2019). This can also potentially be an heuristic cue, as stated in the ELM, given that complex arguments may require higher cognitive elaboration, and as a consequence may discourage viewers to process and integrate the message (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). All of this may have contributed to the mixed perceived effectiveness of these campaigns for male targets of violence, which is in line with previous qualitative (West, 2013) and quantitative findings (Campbell & Manganello, 2013).

Most participants did not perceive several constructs of the EPPM to be present, such as the effectiveness of the recommended response (i.e., helplines), which is in line with Reis et al. (2020) conclusions and could be crucial in improving awareness about help services and what they can provide. The fact that men felt that campaigns do not lead people who experience IPV to act may also be explained by many factors that are independent of campaigns. Leading people to act based on messages is a multifaceted issue that has been the focus of decades of research in health promotion (Abroms & Maibach, 2008), and the fact that people are in a situation of added vulnerability and potential danger adds a layer of complexity to this topic.

Nevertheless, on a more subjective level, but that is inherently linked with the principles of formative evaluation research, we highlight that one man voiced that efforts such as campaigns should be developed "by people who went through" violence. Not only does this potentially

add to the effectiveness of the campaigns, potentially reducing unwanted negative effects, but it is an important ethical consideration when researching populations who have been consistently victimized and made invisible (Roffee & Waling, 2017).

Finally, our sample of men who were the targets of IPV offered their insights regarding the development of new campaigns directed at victimized men. Men would design these campaigns to feature information on different types of violence, and how to identify its early signs. One crucial aspect that could potentially serve as a cognitive heuristic according to the ELM (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) is their suggestion for the portrayal of men "like them", someone whom they could see themselves in. The role of message source similarity and credibility in potentially increasing persuasion has been documented previously and could be explored in future research (Atkin & Rice, 2013; Jones et al., 2003). Previous research of pictorial campaigns directed at victimized men highlighted that mostly normative, young, and white males were represented (Reis et al., 2020), but this is a very limited representation of males who experienced IPV. Thus, we highlight the need for adequate and meaningful representation that encompasses men who are in same-sex relationships, men of different ages, ethnicities, degrees of functionality, as well as other individual or cultural characteristics. Considering different languages other than the countries' native language is also important as one man did not speak Portuguese and did not understand the campaigns' content until it was translated to him.

Regarding the constructs of the EPPM, victimized men found essentially all to be important to be presented in future campaigns, with an emphasis on threat susceptibility, which is in line with recommendations by Reis et al. (2020). Nevertheless, pushing for these constructs should be done while pre-testing these stimuli in order not to generate unwanted negative responses.

5.5.1. Limitations

This study has different limitations that could be improved upon in future research. Firstly, in our data collection we could not gather the impressions of older victimized males and/or trans men. This may be due to the added invisibility and stigma of IPV in these populations, but gathering their impressions is central for understanding their specific circumstances of violence and the development of specific interventions for these populations. Secondly, participants' victimization frequency and severity ranged considerably, which could influence their impressions. Future studies could try to discern how different degrees of victimization

frequency and severity influence perceptions of campaigns. In line with this, participants were asked to recall memories in negative circumstances of their lives, which may have impacted the accuracy of recall. Thus, a third limitation pertains to our retrospective methodological approach, which could be improved by including the specific assessment of how memory may be impacted by IPV. Fourthly, our study allowed participants to view all aspects of each campaign without a time limit, which may not be representative of actual real-life contexts. Future studies could study recollection of campaigns in real-life contexts after implementation and select different types of campaigns. Additionally, other theoretical models such as the Health Belief Model (Rosenstock, 1974) could be pertinent for the study of the topics at hand. Lastly, we would like to highlight that the authors did not contact the campaigns' promoting entity and were not aware of the different considerations taken during campaign development, or if any evaluation research was carried out. It is possible that some aspects of the campaigns design, mentioned in this article, were covered during the development of the campaigns under study.

5.6. Conclusion

Intimate partner violence negatively impacts the lives of women and men worldwide, but research thus far has scarcely addressed the victimization of males and the development of targeted interventions for them. This study presented formative evaluation research conducted with victimized males in abusive different-sex and same-sex relationships to collect information about their awareness, beliefs about IPV campaigns directed at men who were targets of IPV, and recommendations for the creation of new campaigns. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first research to investigate awareness campaigns targeted at abused men taking into account their feedback.

Overall participants did not recollect IPV campaigns, nor did they feel these campaigns had any influence on their abusive process. In terms of campaign content, men seem to prefer direct and concise information related to different types of violence, the portrayal of realistic men such as them, and the presence of information regarding threat susceptibility, self-efficacy, and efficacy of the recommended response in the campaign. Our findings seem to corroborate some results obtained with abused women, but also add a significant amount of theoretically grounded considerations that campaign developers should consider in future efforts.

It is not possible to create universally accepted campaigns, but our findings suggest the multiplicity of perspectives the same pieces of information may have. Our results highlight the need to continue using theory-based formative evaluation research and pre-test of materials before dissemination in a population that is already victimized and in a situation of added vulnerability. Future research could aim to improve on the lack of research on this topic and population and investigate if and how to frame more sensitive topics such as shame and victimhood while exploring how to address samples of diverse men.

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CHAPTER VI | Campaigns on Intimate Partner Violence: The Role of Social Norms and Health Risk Perception on Help-Seeking Behavior

6.1. Abstract

Research shows that Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) affects both men and women in abusive relationships. IPV awareness campaigns have had mixed results in these populations, and few have incorporated theoretical frameworks such as the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) and the Extended Parallel Process Model (EPPM) into their development and testing. This study was conducted to examine how the salience of subjective norms in IPV campaigns impacts TPB constructs, specifically in regard to calling a helpline, among men and women. This study comprised a two-part approach. Initially, a pretest of IPV campaign stimuli was conducted to evaluate their appropriateness based on participant's gender. The main experimental study followed, in which participants were randomly assigned to one of three conditions: high salience or low salience of subjective norms, or a control group. We compared these groups in terms of perceived effectiveness and TPB constructs regarding calling a helpline. We measured processes of IPV victimization, danger control (i.e., adaptive, feeling empowered to act) and fear control (i.e., maladaptive, feeling overwhelmed with fear). The campaigns' perceived effectiveness was greater in the high salience condition when compared with the control condition. Additionally, fear and danger control processes were associated with attitudes and perceived effectiveness of campaigns in men and women who are targets of IPV. Nevertheless, no significant differences were found in attitudes and subjective norms when compared with other conditions. Norm salience in IPV campaigns does not seem to impact attitudes and subjective norms for calling a helpline, however, processes of danger and fear control seem to be key in influencing the determinants of help-seeking, paving the way for more effective future interventions.

Keywords: Intimate partner violence, Theory of planned behavior, Extended parallel process model, Help-seeking, Campaign.

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6.2. Introduction

Every year, Intimate partner violence (IPV) negatively impacts the health of millions of men and women worldwide, independently of age, marital status, or sexual orientation (Heise & García-Moreno, 2002; Longobardi & Badenes-Ribera, 2017). Research has shown that women are more likely to be targets of more frequent and severe violence than men; however, violence experienced by men can also be significant and have long-lasting negative health consequences (Roebuck et al., 2023). Moreover, men and women in same-sex relationships also seem to experience similar or even increased rates of IPV compared to those in different-sex relationships (Rollè et al., 2018). This could be partly due to minority stressors, such as internalized stigma and discrimination (Meyer, 2003), and a lack of awareness about IPV towards people in these social groups (Longobardi & Badenes-Ribera, 2017).

Research has also shown that women who experience IPV tend to seek help more frequently than men in similar circumstances (Morgan et al., 2016). Evidence suggests that bisexual targets of violence may seek help more frequently than gay and lesbian targets (Martin et al., 2023), and that gay men may seek help more often than heterosexual men (Edwards et al., 2015). In addition, men seem to seek help informally more frequently via their friends and family members, with formal help resources being sought for more severe or inescapable cases of violence (Machado et al., 2017). Moreover, studies have found that helplines are perceived to be more useful and empowering for women who are targets of violence than for men (Bennett et al., 2004), as helplines are scarcely sought by men who are targets of violence, and sometimes are perceived as unhelpful or discriminatory towards them (Hines et al., 2007).

6.2.1. Social Marketing and IPV Campaigns

Some of the negative perceptions about helplines could be tackled via IPV campaigns that raise awareness about what constitutes IPV and what helplines can provide to targets of violence, which has been suggested to be key in fostering help-seeking (Bennett et al., 2004). Developing these campaigns according to social marketing design principles, such as conducting formative evaluation research, may help improve campaign effectiveness and prevent its unintended negative side effects (Lee & Kotler, 2019). Through formative evaluation, researchers can understand the target audience's specificities, tailor a message according to them based on pretested theoretical frameworks, and test potential effects on preferred outcomes (Shen &

Coles, 2015). However, despite its potential to adaptively intervene in domestic violence and IPV contexts (Atkin & Rice, 2013), research addressing these principles in IPV campaigns is still scarce and IPV campaign development is often not anchored on pertinent theoretical models (Campbell & Manganello, 2013; Donovan & Vlais, 2005).

Concerning qualitative research on IPV campaigns, research suggests that explicitly portraying graphical depictions of violence towards women (Binik, 2020; West, 2013) and unwillingly attributing the identity of "victim" in campaigns to targets of IPV may lead to unwanted negative effects due to re-stigmatization of its intended audience (McCleary-Sills et al., 2016). In contrast, campaigns that are easily understood and empowering and that portray "normative" men who are seen as credible and similar to "everyday men" may yield adaptive effects by eliciting persuasive cognitive heuristics and avoid unintended negative consequences for audiences (Magaraggia & Cherubini, 2017; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Reis et al., 2020, 2022; West, 2013).

In addition, quantitative research suggests that IPV campaigns may increase helpline calls and adaptive public perceptions of IPV (Campbell & Manganello, 2013; Garnelo et al., 2019). Campaigns featuring women who are targets of violence also seem to be more effective than men who are considered targets of violence (Shortland & Palasinski, 2019). Nevertheless, campaigns targeting men who experience IPV are scarcer when compared with campaigns that target women (Reis et al., 2020), and more efforts should be conducted to improve this (Campbell & Manganello, 2013).

6.2.2. Theoretical Frameworks

6.2.2.1. The Extended Parallel Process Model

The EPPM focuses on how individuals interpret information about health risks. Its four core theoretical constructs are susceptibility and severity of a threat, self-efficacy, and efficacy of the recommended response to avert it. Individuals first assess how susceptible they are and how severe that specific health risk is. Subsequently, they evaluate both their own self-efficacy and the efficacy of the recommended response to avert the threat (Witte et al., 2001). On one hand, if perceptions of the threat outweigh perceptions of efficacy, they may engage in fear control processes such as denial of the threat, defensive avoidance, or reactance (Shen & Coles, 2015;

Witte et al., 2001). On the other hand, if perceptions of the threat are sufficiently high and perceptions of efficacy are even higher, then they may engage in danger control processes, which are adaptive and lead to processing the message adaptively (Witte et al., 2001). The authors postulate about the "discriminating value", a result of the subtraction of threat perception levels from efficacy perception levels, and that distinguishes individuals in fear or danger control processes. If this value is positive, individuals are most likely engaging in adaptive danger control processes (Witte et al., 2001).

Quantitative research highlights the importance of presenting self-efficacy and response efficacy information in health risk appeals to foment danger control processes and potentially influence behavioral outcomes (Bigsby & Albarracín, 2022; Ruiter et al., 2014). In the field of IPV, the EPPM was used as a framework to qualitatively assess the impressions of women and men targets of violence as part of formative evaluation research (Keller & Honea, 2016; Reis et al., 2022). The findings suggest that presenting information on threat susceptibility, self-efficacy and the efficacy of the recommended response in these campaigns may be crucial in fostering adaptive message processing and subsequent help-seeking (Reis et al., 2022). To our knowledge, however, no research has applied its principles in the creation and quantitative assessment of messages targeted at men who are the targets of IPV.

6.2.2.2. The Theory of Planned Behavior

The TPB is an extension of the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2011). The TPB postulates that attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control towards a certain behavior can predict behavioral intentions (Ajzen, 1991). Perceived behavioral control has been suggested as being analogous to self-efficacy in the author's model (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2011). Subjective norms have been found to be important in messages, as a meta-analysis on the use of messages that appeal to subjective norms revealed that they seem to be effective in improving attitudes, descriptive norms, and behavioral intentions across different behavioral outcomes (Rhodes et al., 2020). Additionally, one possible manifestation of subjective norms is dynamic norms, which refer to subjective norms that change over a certain time frame (Sparkman & Walton, 2019), and they seem to be more effective in fomenting intentions to change behavior when compared with "static" norms and control conditions (Sparkman & Walton, 2017, 2019).

In the field of IPV, evidence suggests that this model is useful in explaining the real use of help-seeking tactics by women who are targets of violence (Fleming & Resick, 2017). The theory of reasoned action has been used to analyze participants' hypothetical reporting behaviors in men and women who have experienced IPV, with findings indicating that attitudes and subjective norms predicted intentions to report IPV (Sulak et al., 2014). In this study, subjective norms showed the largest effect size in explaining behavioral intentions when compared with attitudes towards reporting (Sulak et al., 2014). Furthermore, descriptive norms seem to lead to increased attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control to intervene in circumstances of dating violence (Lemay et al., 2019). Lastly, several interventions point to the potential of general subjective norms in leading to positive changes in beliefs, attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control and behavioral intentions to seek help in the contexts of IPV and Domestic Violence (Deitch-Stackhouse et al., 2015; James et al., 2021). Nevertheless, to the best of our knowledge, no research has studied the influence of dynamic norms on help-seeking intentions in men and women who are targets of IPV.

6.2.3. Objectives of the current research

Considering the literature on IPV, social marketing, and the above stated theoretical models, this study aims to:

- Investigate the effects of high and low salience of subjective norms regarding calling helplines in campaigns on individuals' attitudes, subjective norms, behavioral control, intentions to call a helpline, and their perceptions of the campaign's effectiveness;

- Assess whether the cognitive processes generated contribute to explaining potential changes in attitudes, intentions to call a helpline, and perceptions of the campaigns' effectiveness;

- Investigate possible differences in campaign evaluations, attitudes, subjective norms, behavioral control, and intentions to call a helpline as a function of whether or not one has experienced IPV.

We hypothesize that participants exposed to a condition of high salience subjective norms will report more favorable attitudes (H1) and subjective norms (H2) about calling a helpline than participants in a low salience and control condition (i.e., generic information about vegetarian products). Additionally, participants exposed to the high salience condition will

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report higher perceived effectiveness of the campaigns (H3) compared with participants in the control condition.

6.3. Method

The two studies described in this paper were approved by the Ethics Review Board of the host institution (38/2021). The first study aimed to pretest the stimuli to assess their suitability for the second experimental study, in terms of credibility and similarity of the faces presented in the campaigns, and the danger and fear control processes that they elicited. The second study aimed to test whether manipulating the salience of subjective norms about calling a helpline impacted attitudes, subjective norms, and effectiveness of the campaigns.

6.4. Pretest Study on Gender-based Appropriateness of IPV Campaign Stimuli

6.4.1. Design

To pretest the appropriateness of IPV campaign stimuli, an experimental design was used, by randomly assigning participants to one of two between-subject conditions: 2 (information: efficacy information, no efficacy information) x 2 (participants' sex: male, female). As outcomes, participants' danger and fear control processes were measured within subjects before and after exposure to the campaigns. Each participant was exposed to three campaigns, all either with or without efficacy information. Each campaign featured a different face of a person whose sex corresponded with that of the participant. Text information on threat susceptibility and severity also differed slightly between campaigns.

6.4.2. Sample

A total of 296 participants were surveyed. However, after removing participants who did not complete at least 75% of the survey and whose participation lasted less than 60 seconds, a final sample of 236 participants was obtained. Of these, 148 were women (62.7%) and 88 were men (37.3%). Mean age was 33 years old ($SD = 13.74$), ranging from 18 to 69 years old.

6.4.3. Stimuli

Different campaigns were developed with the aid of a graphic designer for improved consistency and structure across the stimuli. Six campaigns were created: three depicted men and three depicted women, all with unique faces and text messages. The depicted faces were obtained from a pretested database developed by DeBruine and Jones (2017). To control for the

level of attractiveness, only faces rated as average in perceived attractiveness were selected for the study. The text messages contained information on threat susceptibility and severity, self-efficacy, and efficacy of the recommended response. Additionally, six other campaigns were developed, in which only the efficacy information was removed. The information presented in these campaigns considered the EPPM (Witte et al., 2001) and the literature about men who are targets of IPV and their characteristics (Hamberger & Larsen, 2015). The helpline presented in all the campaigns stimuli was fictional, and the term "victim" was never used to avoid stigmatizing targets of IPV (McCleary-Sills et al., 2016; Reis et al., 2022). The stimuli can be consulted in Annex E.1.

6.4.4. Measures

Sociodemographic characteristics. Participants' age and sex were measured.

Danger and fear control processes. The Risk Behavior Diagnosis Scale (RBDS) (Witte et al., 2001) was adapted, following the authors' recommendations. This scale measures participants' possible danger and fear control processes concerning IPV and calling a helpline. One of its main scales, Threat, was composed of two sub-scales: Threat Susceptibility (three items) and Threat Severity (three items) (e.g., "Intimate partner violence is a serious threat"). The other main scale, Efficacy, was comprised two subs-scales: Effectiveness of the Recommended Response (three items) and Self-efficacy (three items), e.g., "I can call a helpline to prevent the consequences of intimate partner violence"). Threat and Efficacy perceptions were responded to on a five-point scale ranging from 1 ("Strongly Disagree") to 5 ("Strongly Agree"). Reliability analyses of our scales showed adequate internal consistency for our measures. However, it was necessary to remove two items pertaining to threat severity due to their lack of intercorrelation. Therefore, for this dimension in particular, only one item was kept (i.e., "I believe the consequences of intimate partner violence to be a serious threat to my health"). Internal consistency for the pre-exposure measures of self-efficacy ($\alpha = .82$), efficacy of recommended response, ($\alpha = .80$), threat susceptibility ($\alpha = .78$), and global efficacy ($\alpha = .78$) were satisfactory. Internal consistency for the post-exposure measures of self-efficacy ($\alpha = .89$), efficacy of recommended response, ($\alpha = .79$), threat susceptibility ($\alpha = .85$), and global efficacy ($\alpha = .81$) were good.

Feelings toward the campaigns. Two items were created to measure how positive and how negative the campaign made participants feel, with one item for each construct. Response for negativity ratings was provided on a five-point scale that ranged from 1 ("Not negative at all")

to 5 ("Extremely negative"). For the measurement of positive affect, the endpoints of the scale stated 1 ("Not positive at all") to 5 ("Extremely positive").

Source similarity and credibility. According to the elaboration likelihood model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) and its postulations about how the credibility of the message source and similarity can be cognitive heuristics that facilitate persuasion, participants were asked about the levels of similarity and credibility of the faces depicted in the campaigns. One item was provided for similarity (e.g., "How similar do you feel you are to the people shown in the pictures you just saw?"), ranging from 1 – "Not at all similar" to 5 – "Very similar". Two items were created for credibility (e.g., "How credible do you find the person presented in the pictures you just saw?"), with the response scale ranging from 1 – "Not at all credible" to 5 – "Very credible".

Emotional states. The Differential Emotions Scale (DES) (Fredrickson, 2013) was adapted in this study for the Portuguese language. It is composed of 10 items that assess positive (five items, e.g., "Inspired, excited, elevated") and negative (five items, e.g., "Stressed, nervous, overwhelmed") emotions. Participants were asked to report how their experience of different emotions changed in comparison with the moments before exposure to stimuli. Response was provided on a five-point scale that ranged between 1 – "Much less" and 5 – "Much more". Internal consistency was very good for both negative ($\alpha = .88$) and positive ($\alpha = .83$) emotions.

Overall campaign credibility. Global campaign credibility was measured with one item (i.e., "Globally, how credible do you consider the campaigns you just saw?"). The response scale ranged from 1 – "Not at all credible" to 5 – "Very credible".

Overall perceived campaign effectiveness. Global perceived campaign effectiveness was measured with one item (i.e. "Globally, how effective is this message for the people it is aimed for?"). The response scale ranged from 1 – "Not effective at all" to 5 – "Extremely effective".

6.4.5. Procedure

This study was preregistered (Reis et al, 2023). The survey was administered online via the Qualtrics platform. After filling out the informed consent form, participants firstly completed the EPPM scale. Subsequently, they were randomly exposed to three campaigns of the same condition (with or without efficacy information). Participants were exposed to messages depicting faces that matched their sex, and reported on similarity, credibility, and emotional

valence. To compare the changes in perceived danger and fear control processes, they filled out the EPPM measure again after exposure. Lastly, they filled out the DES, and the perceived effectiveness measure. Participants were provided a debriefing that gave information on IPV helplines and other help resources to mitigate possible negative outcomes derived from participation. On average, participants spent 7 min completing the survey.

6.4.6 Results

Descriptive statistics for the mean pre-exposure levels of the EPPM variables are presented as a function of sex and condition in Annex E.2. Mean pre-exposure levels of the discriminating value revealed non-adaptive danger control processes for men (M = -0.68, SE = 0.87), and women (M = -0.97, SE= .07). Overall, the depicted faces were rated as above the midpoint of the scale in terms of credibility and negativity, and below the midpoint of the scale concerning similarity and positivity. Moreover, no significant differences were found between the selected faces in these dimensions, allowing us to use them in the main study (see Annex E.3 for a complete description).

When comparing campaigns with efficacy messages to those without, men in our sample perceived the former as more positive (M = 2.62, SE = 0.17 vs M = 1.88, SE = 0.17), $F(1, 107.27) = 10.36$, $p = .002$), as inducing lower levels of positive emotions (M = 2.95, SE = 0.09 vs M = 3.52, SE = 0.09), $F(1, 168.12) = 331$, $p < .001$), higher levels of negative emotions (M = 3.13, SE = .08 vs M = 2.53, SE = 0.08, $F(1, 237) = 539.52$, $p < .001$), and were rated as more effective overall for IPV targets (M = 3.84, SE = 0.01 vs M = 2.89, SE = .14), $F(1, 157.58) = 184.44$, $p < .001$). Concerning women's perceptions, when compared with efficacy information, no efficacy information was considered more negative (M = 3.51, SE = 0.13 vs M = 3.13, SE = 0.13, $F(1, 351.49) = 6.47$, $p = .011$), as inducing lower levels of positive emotions (M = 1.38, SE = 0.09 vs M = 1.82, SE = 0.09, $F(1, 357.73) = 16.06$, $p < .001$), but generally more effective for targets of IPV (M = 3.22, SE = 0.12 vs M = 2.97, SE = 0.12, $F(1, 358.51) = 4.37$, $p = .037$). There were no significant differences between information conditions on perceived credibility and similarity to the person portrayed, negative or positive emotions elicited, and general credibility of the campaigns.

In terms of the global discriminating values among men following exposure, a consistent negative trend remained of a non-adaptive fear control process in both no efficacy (M =-0.53, SE = 0.13) and efficacy (M = -0.48, SE = 0.13) conditions. Among women, the discriminating

value following exposure was the highest in the condition of threat information only, and this value was significantly higher than the lower discriminating value in the efficacy information condition ($M = -0.54$, $SE = 0.11$ vs $M = -0.86$, $SE = 0.11$, $F(1, 650 = 4.67$, $p = .031$). Nonetheless, women in both conditions also remained in non-adaptive fear control process post-exposure (see Annex E.4 for a complementary detailed description of pre-post exposure changes in the EPPM constructs as a function of sex and condition).

6.4.7. Discussion

Our results suggest that the stimuli used are suitable for application in a subsequent experiment given their ratings in terms of face credibility and similarity presented in the campaigns. Additionally, the presence or absence of efficacy information in IPV campaigns seem to affect participants' positive and negative emotional responses. The seemingly paradoxical emotional ratings in the efficacy condition may be a consequence of non-adaptive fear control processes, confronting participants with a difficult topic, possibly leading to the observed changes. Moreover, our manipulation did not seem to lead to significant changes in most danger and fear control processes. In fact, examination of post-exposure global discriminating values reveals that, regardless of the condition, participants remained with scores indicating non-adaptive fear control processes. Despite these findings, our manipulation appears to have triggered different responses about threat susceptibility in men, and about efficacy of recommended responses in women (see Annex E.5 for a graphic depiction of changes).

Some of these changes may be partly attributed to public perceptions about who recommended responses targeting IPV are for, as there could be a spillover effect of socialization about victimhood, help-seeking and IPV help resources directed at women who are targets of IPV in Portugal, which at this point has not happened to the same degree with men who are targets of IPV. the effects of subjective norms' salience on helpline usage. However, we excluded the presentation of threat information in this study. Given the appropriateness of the stimuli in terms of credibility and similarity of the faces depicted, along with the absence of relevant changes as a function of condition, we designed the main study to examine the effects of subjective norms' salience on calling a helpline.

6.5. Subjective Norm Salience Experiment

6.5.1. Design

This experimental study used a 3 (norm salience: high salience, low salience, control) x 2 (participants' sex: male, female) between-subject design, with danger and fear control processes measured as within participants. Each participant was exposed to one campaign only, which depicted a person whose face matched the participant's sex. The only difference within each condition was the face people were exposed to, as each condition randomly presented one of two faces, per sex of participant.

6.5.2. Participants

A total of 542 participants were surveyed. After removing participants who had completed less than 70% of the questionnaire, who had not indicated their relationship status, and who failed attention checks, a final sample of 393 participants was obtained. Sex distribution was essentially similar, with men composing almost 54% of the sample ($n = 212$), and women the remaining 46% ($n = 181$). Mean age was 32 years old ($SD = 9.5$ years, range: 18 - 69). The vast majority identified as heterosexual ($n = 329$, 83.7%), followed by gay (n = 26, 6.6%), bisexual ($n = 25$, 6.4%), lesbian ($n = 6$, 1.5%), and other identities such as pansexual ($n = 7$, 1.8%) For a detailed description of all sociodemographic characteristics see Annex E.6. Considering the global sample, 110 men and 111 women were victimized at least once in their lifetimes. Victimization severity was significantly higher in women than in men ($M = 4.41$, $SD = 6.93$ vs $M = 2.56$, $SD = 4.00$), $t(391) = -3.30$, $p < .001$.

6.5.3. Stimuli

For each of the conditions, four messages were created: two containing information about men, and two about women. The texts that aimed to induce high and low salience of norms regarding calling a helpline provided information on how calling a helpline is one way to seek help. They included fictional statistics about the annual number of callers, which differed based on the norm salience. These campaigns included dynamic norms information, indicating how the number of calls had increased over time in the high salience condition, and how they did not in the low salience condition. We chose to depict information about descriptive subjective norms on calling a helpline as previous findings suggest that social norms are a predictor of intentions to call a helpline in males and females who experienced IPV, and how dynamic norms may

hold potential for adaptive changes (Reis, 2023, Rhodes et al., 2020). Representative information on self-efficacy and efficacy of the recommended response was provided in all campaigns except for those in the control condition. All campaigns in the control condition were informed on how a vegetarian diet may benefit the environment. The faces that were best rated in terms of credibility and similarity in the pretest were selected for these stimuli. All stimuli can be consulted in Annex E.7.

6.5.4. Measures

Experiences of IPV. The Conjugal Violence Inventory – 3 (CVI-3) (Costa & Machado, 2007) was adapted for this study. It is originally composed of 21 items that list possible abusive behaviors experienced in current and/or past relationships. We added one item referring to the unwanted disclosure of the target's sexual orientation (as in Costa et al., 2006) and another item about threatening to hinder contact with dependents, due to the perpetrator having legal custody. Participants were asked about the frequency with which each behavior occurred ("Has never done it to me", "Has done it to me only once", and "Has done it to me more than once"). Participants were identified as targets of violence if they reported experiencing at least one instance of the specified abusive behaviors. We created the variable *Experiences of IPV* to represent the frequency and severity of the violence experienced, which derived from the cumulative scores of the 23 items in this inventory. Scores were coded as 1 = "Only once" and 2 = "More than once", with higher scores corresponding to higher frequency/severity of the violence experienced (Foshee et al., 1998).

Danger and fear control processes. As outlined in the pretest, the same measures were used in this study to evaluate threat (severity and susceptibility) and efficacy (self-efficacy and efficacy of recommended response), employing a total of 4 items for threat and 6 items for efficacy. Internal consistency for the pre-exposure self-efficacy, (α = .78), efficacy of recommended response, (α = .77), threat susceptibility, (α = .84), and the global measure of efficacy (α = .78) were satisfactory. Additionally, internal consistency for the post-exposure self-efficacy, (α = .89), efficacy of recommended response, (α = .86), threat susceptibility, (α = .89), and the global measure of efficacy (α = .85) were very good.

Source credibility and Perceived Effectiveness. Measured as described in the pretest.

Theory of planned behavior constructs. For the constructs of the theory of planned behavior (TPB) (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2011), two questions were applied for each of the following variables: attitudes, subjective norm, behavioral control, and intentions to call a helpline. The response is indicated on a seven-point scale, whose extreme points vary according to the

variable under study, namely for: attitudes (e.g., 1 "Very Bad" to 7 "Very Good"), subjective norms, perceived behavioral control and intentions to call a helpline (e.g., 1 "Totally Disagree" to 7 "Totally Agree").

6.5.5. Procedure

This study was preregistered (Reis & Arriaga, 2023), and the Qualtrics platform was used to administer the survey. After completing the informed consent form, participants first provided sociodemographic data that was needed to operationalize the experimental manipulation. Subsequently, they filled in the CVI-3, and the EPPM measure. Afterward, they were attributed to one of the conditions, being exposed either to a high norm salience, low norm salience or a control campaign. Participants were exposed to campaigns that presented faces corresponding to the gender they identified with. Then, participants filled in the EPPM measure again, followed by the questions about credibility of the campaigns and their perceived effectiveness for targets of violence. Subsequently they filled out the theory of planned behavior measures, and lastly, the remaining sociodemographic data. At the end of participation, a debriefing was provided with information on important help resources related to IPV (e.g., helplines) that aimed to counter any possible negative effects that arose from participation. Survey duration was approximately 10 minutes.

6.5.6. Results

As regards the global pre-exposure discriminating values, all groups (i.e., men and women, independently of IPV experiences) had non-adaptive fear control processes (see Annex E.8 for descriptive statistics for each of the EPPM constructs).

Considering the global sample, correlation analyses indicate that attitudes are positively correlated with subjective norms, $r(393) = .26$, $p < .001$, and with perceived behavioral control, $r(392) = .54$, $p < .001$, while subjective norms are positively correlated with perceived behavioral control, $r(392) = .21$, $p < .001$. Furthermore, attitudes, $r(391) = .27$, $p < .001$, subjective norms, $r(391) = .59$, $p < .001$, and perceived behavioral control, $r(391) = .31$, $p < .001$, are positively correlated with intentions to call a helpline. Victimization severity is negatively correlated with attitudes, $r(393) = -.21$, $p < .001$, perceived behavioral control, $r(392) = -.22$, $p < .001$, $p = .005$, and post-exposure discriminating values, $r(386) = -.30$, $p < .001$. Perceived effectiveness is also positively correlated with attitudes, $r(392) = .41$, $p < .001$, subjective norms, $r(392) = .26$, $p < .001$, perceived behavioral control, $r(392) = .26$, $p < .001$,

intentions to call a helpline, $r(391) = .23$, $p < .001$, and post-exposure discriminating values, $r(386) = .26$, $p < .001$ (a detailed view of the correlations is presented in Annex E.9).

Concerning the levels of TPB constructs as well as the perceived credibility and effectiveness of the campaigns, see Annex E.10 for descriptive statistics as a function of condition, participants' sex, and victimization status. When investigating the impact of different types of content in campaigns on individuals' attitudes towards calling a helpline, we conducted a three-way ANOVA that did not support H1. More specifically, no significant differences were registered between participants as a function of whether they were exposed to the high salience condition in comparison with the low salience condition and the control condition, $F(2, 381) = 2.34$, $p = .100$, $h^2 = .012$. A similar finding was observed when comparing the high salience condition with other conditions on subjective norms, $F(2, 381) = .56$, $p = .572$, $h^2 = .003$, and thus H2 was not supported.

Only in the high salience condition did women who were targets of IPV report significantly worse subjective norms about calling a helpline than non-victimized women, $F(1, 381) = 5.32$, $p = .022$, $\eta^2 = .014$ ($M = 3.39$, $SE = 0.33$ vs $M = 4.58$, $SE = 0.40$). Our hypothesis regarding the impact of the high salience condition on campaigns' perceived effectiveness was supported (H3). Perceived effectiveness was similar in the high and low salience conditions ($M = 3.74$, $SE = 0.08$) and was significantly higher than in the control condition ($M = 3.05$, $SE = .10$), $F(2, 380) = 17.50$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .084$. Additional analyses revealed that differences in the levels of perceived behavioral control emerged as a function of previous experience of IPV and participants' sex, with male targets of violence reporting significantly lower levels when compared with non-victimized men ($M = 5.72$, $SE = 0.13$ vs $M = 6.20$, $SE = 0.14$), $F(1, 380) = 6.75$, $p = .010$, $\eta^2 = .017$. Similar results were found for women, with those who had been victimized reporting lower levels of perceived behavioral control than women who had not been victimized ($M = 5.87$, $SE = 0.13$ vs $M = 6.29$, $SE = 0.17$), $F(1, 380) = 4.06$, $p = .05$, $\eta^2 = .011$.

In addition, we aimed to understand if danger or fear control processes contributed to explaining changes in attitudes, intentions to call a helpline, and perceived campaign effectiveness in men and women who were targets of violence (for descriptives and graphical representation of changes in pre-post exposure discriminating values as a function of condition, sex and victimization status, see Annexes E.11 and E.12). Considering only men targets of IPV, linear correlation analyses indicated that the post-exposure discriminating value was positively correlated with attitudes towards calling a helpline, $r(109) = .37$, $p < .001$, and perceived effectiveness, $r(109) = .23$, $p = .016$, but not with intentions to call a helpline, $r(109) = -.12$, p

= .201. In what concerns women targets of IPV, linear correlation analyses indicated that the post-exposure discriminating value was positively correlated with attitudes towards calling a helpline, $r(108) = .55$, $p < .001$, and perceived effectiveness, $r(108) = .31$, $p = .001$, but not with intentions to call a helpline, $r(107) = -.09$, $p = .339$. Complementarily, victimization severity was negatively correlated with post-exposure discriminating values in men, $r(109) = -.26$, $p = .006$, and women targets of IPV, $r(108) = -.41$, $p < .001$.

6.6. Discussion

One of the main aims of this research was to better understand how the salience of subjective norms about calling a helpline would impact the core constructs of the Theory of Planned Behavior as well as the perceived effectiveness of campaigns. Our first two hypotheses predicted that the high salience condition would result in more favorable attitudes (H1) and increased subjective norms levels (H2) towards calling a helpline, compared to the low salience and control conditions. However, our findings do not corroborate these hypotheses. Although our approach was based on previous findings suggesting an increased effectiveness of written text appealing to descriptive norms with information on dynamic norms aimed at health outcomes, our experimental manipulation did not achieve the expected result. This occurred despite comparisons with other types of information (as in Rhodes et al., 2020; Sparkman & Walton, 2017, 2019).

We found that women who are targets of IPV in the high salience condition registered significantly lower levels of subjective norms when compared with non-victimized women. Part of the information that aimed to convey high salience of subjective norms indicated that around 12 000 people (the gender of callers was not specified in the campaigns) called a support helpline yearly, which is representative and accurate for the Portuguese context. Possibly due to a lack of awareness on this subject, this number may not have seemed real, which may have led to the undesired outcome on subjective norms. Nonetheless, much more research is needed to understand how salience of subjective norms can impact IPV targets' perceptions of who calls an IPV helpline and who would recommend doing so. One plausible explanation lies in the often change-resistant nature of subjective norms, and how text/pictorial stimuli may not be sufficient to foment such a change in this topic (Rhodes et al., 2020).

Literature in this field suggests that different behavioral outcomes (e.g., substance and alcohol abuse prevention) may be differentially susceptible to the effects of subjective norms manipulations (e.g., effects from descriptive, injunctive and dynamic norms), and that message

features, such as presenting information via written text or video, can impact these effects (Rhodes et al., 2020). Moreover, it has been suggested that changing beliefs, attitudes, and subjective norms associated with IPV behavioral outcomes is challenging. These changes tend to be better achieved through multi-channel interventions, using formats such as text, video, audio, and live modeling (Keller & Honea, 2016). Also, in our study, participants regardless of gender and IPV victimization status, displayed average subjective norms and very favorable attitudes. This could potentially explain the absence of observable changes due to our manipulation. Future studies might consider testing alternative manipulations to investigate whether less favorable attitudes could potentially result in more pronounced changes. It would be relevant to study the impact of different types of information in campaigns, as well as the use of distinct channels of information, on IPV help-seeking behavioral outcomes. Additionally, indicators should be measured longitudinally and taking into account the specificities for gender, different-sex, same-sex or other type of relationship, ethnic-racial belonging, and disability status, among other characteristics.

We also found that participants in the high salience condition perceived the campaigns as high in effectiveness compared with those in the control condition, which supports our third hypothesis. It is also important to highlight that similar effectiveness was perceived in both low and high salience conditions, with positive values (above the midpoint of the scale). These findings suggest that our IPV campaigns were effective for targets of IPV, which contrasted with our campaigns in the control conditions. Future IPV campaign developers may derive indications from our design in terms of information and graphics which may potentially lead to increased perceptions of effectiveness (Noar, 2006).Our results also suggests that differences in norm salience may not impact perceived effectiveness, which points to the relevance of other aspects of the campaigns that were kept constant across IPV campaigns in our study, namely the depiction of "normative" people, the presence of self-efficacy, and the efficacy of recommended response information in text format. These foundational aspects could be replicated in future research, and experimental manipulations could be used to try to understand which aspects contribute to perceptions of campaign effectiveness.

We also found that post-exposure discriminating values were associated with attitudes and perceived effectiveness in both men and women who are targets of IPV These findings support the Extended Parallel Process Model assumptions about its role in attitude formation (Ruiter et al., 2014; Witte et al., 2001), offering new insights into how these cognitive processes might influence help-seeking outcomes in targets of IPV. However, we found no evidence to suggest that post-exposure discriminating value predicted behavioral intentions. This suggests that the

intention to call a helpline is dependent on factors beyond these cognitive processes, and that the relationship might be more complex, potentially depending on other contextual and specific help-seeking outcomes. Moreover, victimization severity was negatively associated with this discriminating value in men and women targets of IPV. This suggests that increased violence experiences may lessen the person's propensity to use adaptive cognitive processes to seek help, which we believe is a key addition to the literature in this field. Nevertheless, further research is needed to fully understand the relationship between the EPPM constructs and potential help-seeking outcomes in IPV contexts.

Our findings also revealed a relation between higher engagement in adaptive danger control processes after exposure to the campaigns and improvements in attitudes, perceived behavioral control, credibility, and perceived effectiveness of these campaigns. This suggest that encouraging adaptive danger control processes by empowering individuals through campaigns may be crucial for future health risk interventions in this field. It is important to note that some of the post-exposure discriminating values were calculated by subtracting threat perceptions from efficacy perceptions. Therefore, in our sample, positive post-exposure discriminating values are a result of reductions in constructs such as threat severity and susceptibility. As such, it is important to understand how health risk cognitive processes occur and evolve. Previous research suggests that temporarily reducing threat perceptions may have an adaptive spill-over effect in encouraging adaptive danger control processes (Witte et al., 2001). Future research could aim to specifically identify the minimum cognitive processing threshold for risk information, and understand how each of the self-efficacy, efficacy of the recommended response, threat susceptibility and severity can foster adaptive changes that lead to increased help-seeking in IPV settings.

Additionally, our exploratory analyses suggested that men and women targets of IPV had lower levels of perceived behavioral control when compared with people who were not targets of IPV. These findings corroborate previous research (Dardis et al., 2015; Fleming & Resick, 2017; Reis et al., in press) and highlight the negative impact of violence on individuals' sense of agency. Thus, ensuring that self-efficacy information is present in campaigns and in other interventions seems to be key in tackling IPV and help-seeking and will more likely foment adaptive danger control processes. It is also important to acknowledge the numerous barriers that exist to help-seeking among targets of IPV. Tailoring approaches to consider specific sociodemographic characteristics of diverse audiences may enhance adaptive effects and minimize unwanted negative consequences (Lee & Kotler, 2020).

6.6.1. *Limitations*

Our work is not without limitations. Firstly, the internal consistency for the Threat Severity sub-scale was suboptimal, which could be due to the specific nature of the behavior in question or the construction of item subscale according to the EPPM's authors recommendations. Secondly, a more comprehensive approach could involve measuring both IPV victimization and perpetration to explore the possible bidirectional impact of IPV on campaign assessment. Thirdly, the limitations of our sample prevented comparisons based on sexual orientation, which could be an important variable to consider in future studies. We also did not measure other pertinent sociodemographic characteristics such as ethnic-racial identity and disability status, which would provide additional insights into these often under-researched populations.

6.7. Conclusion

The aim of this study was to understand the impact of different salience of subjective norms on the constructs of the theory of planned behavior (TPB), perceived effectiveness of campaigns, and help-seeking behaviors in targets of IPV. We did not find support for the hypothesis that higher salience of subjective norms would lead to more favorable attitudes and subjective norms for calling helplines. However, this high salience led to higher perceived effectiveness of the campaigns. The study also found that danger and fear control processes were associated with attitudes and perceived effectiveness of campaigns. The results of the study suggest that promoting adaptive danger control processes is crucial for future health risk interventions in this field and also point to new avenues of research on IPV campaigns.

6.8. References

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CHAPTER VII | General Discussion

This thesis aimed to enhance the understanding of how to facilitate help-seeking among men who are targets of IPV in different-sex and same-sex relationships (DS/SSR), and how IPV campaigns may benefit this process. One way to develop effective IPV campaigns is to conduct the Formative Research process with the target population. This approach enables a campaign developer to understand the target audience's characteristics, construct representative messages, and conduct preliminary tests according to theoretical guidelines (Atkin & Rice, 2013).

In this thesis, we aimed to 1) understand men's experiences of IPV and help-seeking in DS/SSR; 2) examine existing IPV campaigns targeted at men in DS/SSR, analyze the applicability of relevant theoretical models to these campaigns, and understand men's suggestions for the development of new IPV campaigns; 3) test the effects of different theoretically-based content in IPV campaigns on intentions to seek help via a helpline.

In our research, we employed a mixed-method approach, that included both quantitative and qualitative methods, while considering the target populations' contributions. We grounded our methodologies on theoretically based approaches derived from the fields of behavior change, health risk communication, and persuasion.

A summary of the aims of this thesis, its research questions, studies conducted, and main findings is presented in Table 7.1. In this section, we cover the main findings in an integrative approach that considers the literature on the topics under investigation and summarize its limitations and implications.

Table 7.1.

Summary of the thesis aims, research questions, studies performed, and main findings

Aims, Research Questions, Studies Performed and Main Findings	
Aim: Understand men's experiences and dynamics of IPV and help-seeking in DS/SSR	
RQ: What are the processes and determinants of help-seeking intentions in victimized men in different-sex and same-sex relationships?	**RQ:** How does gender role conflict impact men's trajectories of victimization?
Chapter II. Intimate Partner Violence directed at Men: Experiences of Violence, Help-seeking, and potential Gender Role Conflict **Chapter III.** Intentions to call a helpline among targets of Intimate Partner Violence: The role of the Theory of Planned Behavior and Gender Role Conflict	

Main Findings:

Violence derives mostly from unbalanced power and control dynamics, as well as substance abuse, resulting in negative psychological, physical, sexual, and economic consequences for men;
Lack of awareness about support services, emotional dependence, and expectations of discrimination from service providers hindered men's help-seeking;
GRC influences men's IPV processes, being associated with decreased self-efficacy to call a helpline. Attitudes and subjective norms predict intentions to call a helpline.

Aim: Characterize existing IPV campaigns directed at men in DS/SSR and their articulation of theoretical models, as well as understand men's insights about the development of future IPV campaigns

RQ: How are campaigns targeting victimized men in different-sex and same-sex relationships characterized? And how do they represent constructs from different theoretical models?

Chapter IV. Pictorial campaigns on intimate partner violence focusing on victimized men: a systematic content analysis

Main Findings:

Most campaigns aimed to change attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors about IPV;
Very few adequately articulated constructs from different theoretical models;

RQ: What are victimized men's impressions of campaigns targeting victimized men, and what are their insights for the creation of new campaigns?

Chapter V. Men who experienced Intimate Partner Violence: Impressions about existing public campaigns and recommendations for new ones

Main Findings:

Most participants were not aware of campaigns in Portugal, and their impressions about the ones they recalled were mixed;
They also considered that future campaigns targeting men should portray "real people" like them and provide information on self-efficacy, the efficacy of recommended responses, and threat susceptibility.

Aim: Test the effects of IPV campaigns with different theoretically based types of information on intentions to seek help

| **RQ:** What is the effect of efficacy information on campaigns perceived effectiveness? | | **RQ:** What is the effect of salience of subjective norms about helplines on intentions to call? |

Chapter VI. The role of presence or absence of efficacy information in IPV campaigns on campaigns' perceived effectiveness & The role of subjective norm salience and health risk processing on help-seeking determinants

> **Main Findings:**
>
> Presence of efficacy information did not lead to differences in danger or fear control processes.
>
> Norm salience in campaigns did not lead to differences in attitudes and subjective norms when compared with a control condition, but did so in terms of perceived effectiveness of campaigns;
>
> Fear and danger control processes contribute to explain attitudes and perceived behavioral control towards calling a helpline, and victimized men and women have significantly lower levels of perceived behavioral control.

7.1. Experiences of violence and help-seeking

Formative research suggests that understanding the target audience of a message is key to potentially improving its effectiveness (Kubacki & Rundle-Thiele, 2016; Noar, 2006). The findings from Chapter II and Chapter III provide an in-depth look at men's experiences of IPV, the processes and determinants of help-seeking, and how GRC may impact men's trajectories of victimization.

Essentially, the results indicate that men in different-sex and same-sex relationships experience of IPV in their relationships, is manifested through significant physical, psychological, sexual, and economic violence that often co-occurred. The range of these experiences varied broadly, extending from isolated incidents to continuous acts of violence spanning several years. These results corroborate previous research with men targets of IPV in international settings (Cho et al., 2022; Hines & Douglas, 2022; Roebuck et al., 2023; Scott-Storey et al., 2023) and adds to the scarce literature on this topic in the Portuguese context (Machado et al., 2017, 2018, 2020; Matos, 2021). Some men in same-sex relationships experienced specific types of violence, such as threatening to disclose the participant's sexual orientation to his family without consent, which has also been previously described in the literature and highlights the importance of recognizing the specificities of different populations in what concerns IPV dynamics and help-seeking (Badenes-Ribera et al., 2019; Butler et al., 2023; Edwards et al., 2015; Laskey et al., 2019; Meyer, 2003). Once again, our findings corroborate the literature on IPV in same-sex dyads in the Portuguese context (Cañete et al., 2022; Carvalho et al., 2011; Costa et al., 2006; Moleiro et al., 2016).

Additionally, the findings suggest that the consequences of these episodes of violence range in nature and extent, often significantly conditioning the lives of men, their children, their friends, and family, among others. Examples of IPV consequences are emotional exhaustion, diminished sense of self-worth, increased shame and economic strain, and social isolation from

friends and family. This evidence highlights how the experiences of victimized men can, at their core, share certain characteristics independently of culture, age, and sexual orientation. Previous research suggests similar negative consequences (Bacchus et al., 2017; Coker et al., 2021; Hines & Douglas, 2022; Scott-Storey et al., 2023). Furthermore, according to the results of Chapter III, essentially half of the global sample experienced some form of IPV in their lifetime. Among those victimized, the prevalence of victimization at the moment of participation was similar between men and women. More men than women were targets of IPV at the moment of participation, and such findings could be interpreted as supporting the "gender symmetry" hypothesis of IPV (Kimmel, 2002).

Nevertheless, according to our results, it is very important to consider that women's past victimization severity was significantly higher than men's. These findings also suggest that men and women may perpetrate and experience IPV dynamically, and part of our results may stem from the bi-directionality of IPV. Previous research has suggested that IPV bidirectionality (i.e., both partners perpetrating violence against each other) is more prevalent than previously assumed on a global scale (Bates, 2016; Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al., 2012) and in Portugal (Machado et al., 2019). However, given that IPV perpetration was not measured in our studies, no inferences can be made at this point from this evidence. It can nonetheless be postulated that it is possible that some men and some women reporting victimization reported it as a result of retaliation of violence they perpetrated, and vice-versa. This postulation is partly anchored in the assumption that men perpetrate more severe, more frequent, and often irreversible violence directed at women, partly due to overarching gender norms and power attribution unbalances in society (Amâncio, 2004; Larsen & Hamberger, 2015; McCarry, 2010; Roebuck et al., 2023). Nonetheless, bi-directionality of violence and violence severity/frequency can occur in many different configurations (e.g., less severe and unidirectional, severe and unidirectional, less severe and bidirectional, severe and bidirectional), and thus more research is needed to further understand how these configurations impact intimate relationships (Bates, 2016).

These episodes of violence seem to operate under the cycle of violence and be derived from factors such as unbalanced power and control dynamics, gender role conflicts, and masculinity threat dynamics, such as the invisibility of violence in same-sex relationships. Individuals seem to remain in their violent relationships mostly due to emotional dependence, social isolation, and lack of awareness about what constitutes violence and what help resources are available, which is in line with previous literature (Carvalho et al., 2011; Longobardi & Badenes-Ribera, 2017; Rozmann & Ariel, 2018). Most men reported a lack of awareness regarding IPV directed

at men in DS/SSR. This finding indicates the prevailing stigma associated with this problem within Portuguese society. It also suggests that traditional concepts of the masculine gender role intersect with the stigma, which dictates how men should perform to gather societal approval. These concerns have been voiced for several years in qualitative studies with Portuguese men targets of IPV (Machado et al., 2016, 2020; Matos, 2021). These studies highlight the potential ineffectiveness of existing awareness interventions and the gradual, but slow, recognition of IPV directed at men in DS/SSR in this context.

In line with the above, the concept of "victim" to some men did not apply to their circumstances, as it is often associated with something pejorative, passive, and weak, which is incompatible with traditional masculine gender roles. This identity that can be involuntarily imposed can have negative consequences and can hinder help-seeking behaviors, even if concealable (Eckstein, 2010; McCleary-Sills et al., 2016; Quinn & Earnshaw, 2011). We believe this is a crucial piece of evidence and contribution to this field that has scarcely been pointed out. It suggests that awareness efforts and interventions aiming to reach men who are "victims" of IPV may not reach their intended audience. A descriptive account of behaviors perpetrated and experienced may be preferable to one that prioritizes an identity that has not been voluntarily endorsed and/or disclosed, and which may entail negative consequences for those targeted (Burcar & Åkerström, 2009; Durfee, 2011; Eckstein, 2010; Hollander & Rogers, 2014). This could safeguard the well-being of those who struggle with such stigmatized identities and increase the effectiveness of awareness initiatives. Focusing on describing behaviors is a strategy that applies to essentially any circumstance in which IPV occurs. In contrast, identifying targets of IPV as "victims" may not always be applicable or appropriate. Changing the strategy could make awareness initiatives more inclusive and relevant to those experiencing IPV.

In a process that may be related to these feelings, our qualitative and quantitative findings indicate that men voice feelings in line with the experience of GRC after they were targeted with IPV. Moreover, GRC levels for victimized men were above the midpoint of the scale, whereas non-victimized men are on the midpoint of the scale. The difference in global GRC levels between these two populations was significant, and higher GRC in the global sample of men was negatively associated with self-efficacy to call a helpline. Previous research has indicated that low self-efficacy can reduce men's willingness to seek help (Huntley et al., 2020), and its relevance in different theoretical perspectives on behavior change highlight its importance in these men's trajectories (Anderson & Kras, 2007). Taken together, our findings

resonate with the literature suggesting that IPV is a gender-specific process (Åkerström et al., 2011; Arnocky & Vaillancourt, 2014). It also suggests that men may experience gender role violations and devaluations when targeted with IPV, as proposed by O'Neil (2015) in his postulations about GRC. Our findings add to the literature on the possible impact of gender role violations and devaluations within the self and caused by others (O'Neil, 2013, 2015), but our research design does not allow for causal inferences. Therefore, more research is warranted on this topic. Nonetheless, our studies bring entirely novel findings by considering the perspectives of men targets of IPV in DS/SSR in the form of the first peer-reviewed publication on this topic, to the best of our knowledge.

Most men sought help from informal sources, such as friends and family members, and their support was mostly helpful. However, some participants reported remaining silent due to fear of repercussions from their loved ones. Moreover, formal help sources were sought mostly when violence severity was very high, which is in line with previous literature on informal and formal help-seeking in this population (Arnocky & Vaillancourt, 2014; Hines & Douglas, 2022; Machado et al., 2016). Some men in violent same-sex relationships indicated that the "double closet" (i.e., having to disclose one's sexual orientation/gender identity as well as disclosing being the target of IPV) was a factor that hindered help-seeking behaviors and intentions. Although some of the specificities in the help-seeking experiences of LGBT targets of violence have been previously described (Calton et al., 2016), our findings supplement and expand the existing research on this topic within the Portuguese context.

The experiences of those who filed a formal complaint were mixed. To some, adequate support was provided, but others were subjected to discrimination, and prejudice, and were even considered as the perpetrators when they initially asked for help themselves as targets of IPV. These negative experiences reveal the prejudice and discrimination that persist in Portuguese society about the traditional roles of perpetrator and "victim". In fact, even Portuguese police officers state that fear of repercussions from the Portuguese justice system could hinder help-seeking in men targets of IPV (Machado et al., 2021). On a different level, one participant filed a formal complaint because his partner threatened to file a false IPV complaint against him under the assumption that she would be believed, and he would not. Previous research has also pointed out the double standards to which men targets of IPV are subjected when seeking help (Hines & Douglas, 2022; Larsen & Hamberger, 2015). This could be tackled with more visibility surrounding the diverse array of targets of IPV in society.

These factors, along with a lack of awareness of help resources, and negative perceptions about service providers hindered men's capacity to recognize themselves as targets of violence and seek help. As suggested by previous research, these issues can be surmounted with the dissemination of robust information about which help resources exist, who provides this support, and what IPV targets can expect when seeking help, (Huntley et al., 2020; Santoniccolo et al., 2021) (see Table 7.2. for a summary of hindering and facilitating factors of help-seeking in men targets of IPV in SS/DSR).

Regarding the specific case of IPV helplines, most participants did not know about them, and if they knew, they had never thought to call. Some participants suggested that these helplines are traditionally associated with women targets of IPV and not men and that there were expectations of prejudice from these service providers. Once again, these negative perceptions about health service providers have been observed in different cultural settings, but our findings are to the best of our knowledge the first to specifically assess the opinions of men targets of IPV about helplines in Portugal (Douglas & Hines, 2011; Hines et al., 2007; Tsui, 2014). Furthermore, Chapter III showed that participants who know helplines have better attitudes about calling a helpline when compared with those who do not know them. This novel finding reveals yet again the important role of awareness raising about these resources (Bennett et al., 2004; Garnelo et al., 2019). Men were found to be more compliant with social referents than women, which was associated with higher subjective norms about calling a helpline. The importance of subjective norms in the field of IPV help-seeking has been highlighted previously, but our findings are novel as they pertain to the Portuguese context and suggest that help-seeking can have gendered specificities (Fleming & Resick, 2017; Sulak et al., 2014).

Our findings may inform future IPV campaigns directed at men, suggesting that campaigns could portray men's social referents as heuristics to facilitate help-seeking, in line with the postulations of the ELM and our findings from Chapter V (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). In turn, better attitudes and subjective norms about calling a helpline predicted higher intentions to call a helpline in men and women targets of IPV, which partially mirrors existing findings on the applicability of the TPB to IPV target help-seeking (Fleming & Resick, 2017; Sulak et al., 2014). Nevertheless, we highlight that the survey used in Chapter III was more closely aligned with the recommendations of the TPB authors for measuring constructs within this framework, as compared to previous studies on this topic (Ajzen, 2006). This innovative approach is a contribution to the field, potentially guiding future research to be more aligned with theoretical concepts.

Table 7.2.

Summary of hindering and facilitating factors of help-seeking in men targets of IPV in DS/SSR

Hindering	Facilitating
Lack of awareness about violence and help-seeking resources	Access to quality information about violence and help resources
Negative perceptions about the justice and police systems	Awareness of helplines was linked with better attitudes towards helplines and less likelihood of negative outcomes of calling occurring
Feelings of shame and stigma, being attributed to the term "victim"	Being provided with adjusted emotional support from friends, family, and service providers
Fear of negative repercussions from family and friends	Experiencing higher severity of violence
Emotional dependence on the perpetrator	Men's higher compliance with social referents leads to better subjective norms about calling a helpline, which in turn results in higher intentions to call a helpline
Gender Role Conflict was higher in men who experienced violence when compared with those who hadn't	Having more favorable attitudes toward calling a helpline leads to higher intentions to call a helpline
Lack of self-efficacy, which decreased as violence severity and gender role conflict increased	
Same-sex specificities, such as the "double closet"	
Ensuring the well-being of their dependents	

It is crucial to highlight that, in the global sample of Chapter III, mean levels of subjective norms and behavioral intentions were below the midpoint of the scale, which reveals that

participants had an overall perception that other people in their circumstances would not call a helpline. These perceptions are counterbalanced by very favorable attitudes and moderately favorable subjective norms in men and women targets of IPV in Chapter VI. Perceptions that undervalue the impact of IPV could potentially be changed by publicly sharing information about calls to helplines by considering the caller's sex and the motives behind their call. Such an approach could be part of an integrated IPV campaign that takes into account other pertinent variables related to help-seeking.

We tested the TPB as a potential explicative model of help-seeking in victimized men and women. Our findings corroborate previous research in this sense, expanding the potential of TPB in this field and cultural context (Fleming & Resick, 2017; Sulak et al., 2014). In Chapter III, the multiple regressions that tested the prediction of attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control by their belief-based antecedents suggest an adequate fit. We highlight that these results are among the first contributors in the field of men and women targets of IPV with this degree of specificity. Thus, we were able to not only test the four core constructs of the TPB but also the underlying constructs that theoretically contribute to each one of them. Additionally, the results mirror some postulations of the TTM, as participants indicated that processes akin to consciousness raising, dramatic relief, helping relationships, self-liberation, self-reevaluation, social liberation, and stimulus control played an important role in their experiences of IPV and their help-seeking behaviors. This aligns with the implications drawn from previous research (Burke et al., 2001; Burkitt & Larkin, 2008; Choden et al., 2021; Frasier et al., 2001; Reisenhofer & Taft, 2013).

7.2. Characterization of existing IPV campaigns and insights for the development of new ones

After understanding the characteristics of our target populations, it was crucial to fully comprehend the state of IPV campaigns directed at men in violent DS/SSR and obtain feedback from the target population. Various elements, categorized as either positive or negative, emerged from Chapter IV and Chapter V (see Table 7.3. for a summary of the negative and the positive aspects associated with the campaigns).

The results of Chapter IV and Chapter V indicate that IPV campaigns directed at men in DS/SSR are still scarce in comparison with campaigns directed at women.

Table 7.3.

Summary of negative and positive aspects of campaigns directed at men targets of IPV in DS/SSR

Negative aspects	Positive aspects
Poor integration of the EPPM, with little information about the efficacy of recommended response and threat susceptibility	Raise awareness about helplines and violence and explain different types of IPV
Explicit depiction of violence	Applicability of the Transtheoretical Model and Theory of Planned Behavior
Mention of shame	Use of social referents, as mentioned in the Elaboration Likelihood Model
No specification of the type of relationship	Some mention specific stressors of IPV in SS relationships
Lack of focus on social norms and help-seeking and masculinity	Presenting threat susceptibility, the efficacy of recommended response, and self-efficacy information

IPV campaigns directed at men are a relatively recent effort by Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and Governmental Organizations (GOs), and there is ample scope for improvements, as suggested by the participants' low perceptions of effectiveness in leading victimized men to seek help. This could be linked with unfavorable attitudes towards helplines, reflecting concerns voiced by targets of IPV in the literature about help-seeking (Lysova & Dim, 2020; Machado et al., 2017).

On one hand, as some of its main negative aspects, our findings support that these campaigns often depict explicit violence, mention shame and the identity of "victim", and do not specify which type of relationship the portrayed men are in. These factors may add unnecessary barriers to men's help-seeking behaviors by further stigmatizing and making same-sex IPV invisible. Furthermore, our analysis is also suggestive that these current campaigns also do not integrate the constructs of the EPPM adequately, mainly lacking information on the efficacy of the recommended response and threat susceptibility. The presentation of explicit violence could aim to provide threat severity information and be perceived as a heuristic cue

from the ELM (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986), but there have had conflicting results regarding the depiction of bruises in IPV campaigns (Binik, 2020; West, 2013). Thus, future campaign developers should safeguard the well-being of targets of IPVs and pre-test stimuli of this nature.

Not articulating the EPPM constructs adequately may also result in fear control processes, which could lead to unwanted negative consequences such as defensive avoidance of threats, denial, or reactance (Witte et al., 2001). The literature on stigmatized identities and the unwanted negative impact of some IPV campaigns directed at women may be in line with this, regarding the potentially harmful use of terms such as "victim" and shame, as previously stated (Eckstein, 2010; Magaraggia & Cherubini, 2017; McCleary-Sills et al., 2016; West, 2013). Thus, campaign designers should be mindful of the potential implications of different types of content on targets of IPV. Considering the TPB, they also do not highlight social norms about help-seeking and masculinity as they could, given that social norms have been found to predict help-seeking intentions and could simultaneously reframe the social discourse on these topics (Sulak et al., 2014; Fleming & Resick, 2017).

On the other hand, some positive aspects of these campaigns pertain to raising awareness about what constitutes violence and that helplines are available, while some specifically mentioned stressors that apply to IPV in same-sex relationships. This is very important as perceptions of IPV targets suggest that low awareness of resources is a key hindering factor of help-seeking behaviors (Huntley et al., 2020; Santoniccolo et al., 2021) and that same-sex IPV is still a relatively emergent topic in society (Garnelo et al., 2019; Longobardi & Badenes-Ribera, 2017; Santoniccolo et al., 2021). Many campaigns used social referents in the form of portraying what were perceived to be "everyday men", which could be a heuristic cue as stated in the ELM (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986), and mostly adequately integrated the constructs of the TTM and TPB.

Verifying that most constructs of these theoretical approaches were in some way represented in IPV campaigns directed at men suggests that campaign developers may have, voluntarily or involuntarily, been targeting such aspects to promote effective health communication. Another possibility is that the theoretical approaches suit the study of IPV campaigns in this format and are over-arching in their applicability. This at least points out that future research could anchor their analyses of campaigns in these frameworks to establish grounds of comparison based on the same theoretical variables. Either way, our findings

indicate that there is pertinence and potential in applying these established theoretical perspectives to the field of IPV campaigns directed at men, expanding this field in the process.

When asked about future campaigns, men stated that they should be clear, direct, and representative of different men, while informing of different types of violence besides physical violence. Additionally, future campaigns could provide testimonials from "everyday men", and present essentially all constructs of the EPPM, namely threat susceptibility, efficacy of recommended response, and self-efficacy information. The importance of constructs from different theoretical perspectives is yet again reinforced, as they are postulated to be key grounding principles in the development and evaluation of health communication campaigns, and simultaneously can boost their effectiveness (Noar, 2006; Witte et al., 2001). The role of potential source similarity and credibility are also highlighted as potential heuristics of persuasion as previously stated (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Future campaigns should assess what social referents can lead to greater persuasion of men targets of IPV in different relationship types and with different characteristics (e.g., age, ability status, socioeconomic status).

Besides pictorial IPV campaigns, men suggested that information about IPV and help resources could be conveyed through different means, such as radio and video messages, on TV, the internet, and in public spaces. These means of communication were found to be more dynamic than static images and could be key interventions in the field of IPV campaigns. The importance of other means of communication besides the use of static pictorial formats has been highlighted in the general literature about health communication (Willoughby & Noar, 2022) and cannot be understated in interventions that consider multiple media formats. Nevertheless, video formats entail different requirements in their development and assessment, as their content on an emotional and information level can shift dramatically as they are being played (Nabi, 2015; Reis et al., 2019). Thus, considering their complex nature and the limited cognitive capacity of individuals to process stimuli, it is important that video IPV campaigns are developed with an elevated degree of care (Lang, 2000) to ensure that the content is effectively conveyed and cognitively accessible to the audience.

To the best of our knowledge, the applicability of the EPPM, TPB, TTM, and ELM in the context of IPV campaigns directed at men in DS/SSR has never been tested. Our approach has added relevance in the sense that it analyzed constructs from these theoretical approaches simultaneously, signaling the importance of development, testing, and analysis approaches that are anchored in a holistic perspective about health behavior change, health risk appeals, and

persuasion. Thus, we believe that it pushes for new standards in the conduct of research and theorizing about IPV campaigns and associated behavior change, and is in line with recommendations in this field (Noar, 2006; Witte et al., 2001)

7.3. The effects of different IPV campaigns on help-seeking intentions

Deriving from the knowledge gathered about the characteristics of the target populations and existing IPV campaigns, we developed and tested the effects of different types of IPV campaigns directed at men in DS/SSR on intentions to seek help in Chapter VI. The main focus was to understand how different salience of subjective norms regarding calling a helpline impacted attitudes and subjective norms towards calling, as well as the perceived effectiveness of campaigns. This follows evidence gathered in our studies about the key role of subjective norms about violence, help-seeking, and masculinity in men's processes of IPV, and thus, IPV campaigns could aim to change these subjective norms directly or indirectly.

In the pretest of stimuli, we found that the participant's perceptions about the prototypical campaigns did not differ significantly as a function of whether efficacy information was presented. These results were not expected. The importance of presenting self-efficacy information in health risk appeals has been previously debated due to its predictive power for protective behaviors related to sexual health, heart disease, physical activity, and anti-smoking, among other concerns (Agha, 2003; Bigsby & Albarracín, 2022; Maibach et al., 1991; Manyiwa & Brennan, 2012; Ruiter et al., 2014). The evidence thus far is conflicting, however, our results may be explained by Bigsby and Albarracín's suggestions that adding self-efficacy information to an appeal that already contemplates response efficacy information does not result in significant changes in behavior-related outcomes (Bigsby & Albarracín, 2022). Another possible explanation lies in the dose-response relationship, by which higher degrees of exposure to a message may lead to adaptive changes in self-efficacy (Agha, 2003). It is also possible that our research design could have affected the results since participants were exposed to three very similar campaigns in a very short period of time. However, more research is warranted to better explain our findings.

Contrary to what was hypothesized, in our subsequent experimental study, the effects of the campaigns on attitudes and subjective norms did not differ significantly as a function of the salience of norms about calling a helpline. Firstly, in diverse topics of health promotion, presenting dynamic norms in comparison with no-norm control conditions led to increased

intentions to change one's behavior, with other beneficial changes related to increased self-efficacy (Sparkman & Walton, 2019). Additionally, literature on dating violence suggests that manipulating descriptive norms leads to significant changes in attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and intentions to intervene in a circumstance of violence (Lemay et al., 2019). Our manipulation of dynamic norms is different and thus limits the possibility for comparisons but highlights the need for more research in this area. One possible explanation lies in the combination of dynamic and static norms in the same stimuli, which was not done in previous literature (Lemay et al., 2019, Sparkman & Walton, 2019), and which may have contributed to diluting the specific separate effects of each type of information. Another explanation may be that our experimental manipulation by design was not sufficient to elicit the intended changes, which could also be due to the overarching stability of subjective norms about violence and help-seeking, and the potentially increased effectiveness of other means of communication (Keller & Honea, 2016).

It is important to highlight that baseline levels of the pre-exposure discriminating value were negative for all groups. This means that our samples had non-adaptive fear control processes (i.e., being overcome with fear instead of feeling empowered to act) in what concerned calling a helpline in the face of IPV before exposure to the campaigns. This baseline was negative but only slightly, meaning that participants' perception of how much IPV is a threat to them was marginally higher than their efficacy to call a helpline to counter this threat. This may be due to the perceived lack of effectiveness that calling a helpline may have in helping in an IPV situation as stated in Chapter II, as well as years of public advocacy about the effectiveness (or lack thereof) of the police and judicial systems in dealing with IPV complaints (Machado et al., 2017).

Nonetheless, it could be argued that calling a free and anonymous helpline is a relatively attainable achievement if one sets their mind to it. This holds especially true when compared with other possible actions of divulging one's IPV situation, which includes going in person to victim support officers or police forces to file a complaint and could be argued that involve a higher degree of personal disclosure. This could also mean that other possible recommended responses (e.g., filing a formal complaint, or seeking psychological or psychosocial help) could yield more adaptive results in the form of increased efficacy perceptions. Nevertheless, more research is needed on this given that our findings and the literature suggest that, even before ever seeking help, men's perceptions about seeking formal help are mostly negative.

In any case, it can be stated that according to the EPPM tenets, participants' threat perception was not so low as not to trigger health threat assessment, which according to the model is essential to foster behavior change (Ruiter et al., 2014; Witte et al., 2001). Only by considering IPV a real threat to their health can people assess possible courses of action to avert it. Not pretesting campaigns directed at men and women targets of IPV may lead participants to resort to non-adaptive mental schemas, such as defensive avoidance, denial, and even reactance (Witte et al., 2001). Reactance, essentially defined as a threat to one's freedom (Ratcliff, 2021), could for example lead individuals to focus only on news pieces that highlight the lack of effectiveness of the police forces and judicial systems to respond to the needs of those affected. Thus, future investigations should understand which type of information elicits sufficient, but not over-cumbering, threat information regarding IPV.

Our results once again highlight that it is extremely important to follow existing theoretical and empirical guidelines on the development and testing of health communication campaigns, based on previously tested theoretical frameworks while considering the insights of the target populations (Atkin & Freimuth, 2013; Rice & Atkin, 2013; Willoughby & Noar, 2022). Doing so aims to avoid, or sometimes ameliorate, possible negative and unwanted effects of these forms of communication (Gadomski et al., 2001; Magaraggia & Cherubini, 2017; West, 2013). Additionally, by doing so we follow the guidelines for the development of interventions for populations in circumstances of added vulnerability and the ethical principles inherent to responsible research practices (Cerulli, 2011; Hastings et al., 2004).

This study mainly operationalized constructs of the TPB, EPPM, and ELM. It considered intentions to call a helpline and their antecedents, the four constructs of the EPPM as perceived by participants and portrayed "everyday men and women" to appeal to the similarity and credibility of the sources of the message. The TTM is not explicitly considered but as stated previously, exposing participants to campaigns may be a form of eliciting relevant processes of change such as consciousness-raising and self-reevaluation. Independently of this, explicitly integrating these three theoretical frameworks is scarcely ever achieved in the field of health communication and brings entirely novel findings to the field of IPV, and IPV directed at men in DS/SSR.

7.4. Limitations

7.4.1. Samples

In what concerns this thesis' samples of participants, they could be further improved to be more representative of diverse realities, namely older people, who are non-white, and/or non-cis, and/or non-heterosexual and with different cultural backgrounds. Doing so would significantly add to the relevance and novelty of our findings, but due to the composition of Portuguese society, the existing stigma about IPV and help-seeking, and methodological constraints, this was not possible. We would like to bring to attention the specific need to consider the realities of trans people in IPV research, as evidence points to IPV prevalence rates that are considerably higher than other cis populations (Peitzmeier et al., 2020). The samples also did not consider enough participants to allow for more in-depth analyses about GRC and sexual orientation, and sex and intentions to call a helpline, which would be important contributions to this field. Furthermore, participants' victimization frequency and severity differed considerably among themselves, with previous lifetime victimization in women found to be higher in our quantitative studies. Nonetheless, despite not being linearly linked to violence severity, the bi-directionality of violence could partly explain why our samples of men experienced violence in the past. Future studies could measure the bi-directionality of violence in some sense to better understand this possibility. When measured, GRC was moderate, which could impact men's impressions about campaigns, attitudes, and intentions to call a helpline. Lastly, almost half of our interview sample had filed a formal complaint to police forces, which is not representative of most men in circumstances of IPV, independently of the type of relationship.

7.4.2. Instruments

Regarding the instruments used, the TPB questionnaire was developed considering the realities of men targets of IPV but was also applied to women targets of IPV. This was one approach to studying IPV and help-seeking in this population given that, to the best of our knowledge, there are no quantitative measures of gendered IPV processes for men (Costa & Barros, 2016). Additionally, the Conjugal Violence Inventory was used in favor of other measures that are widely applied in the field of IPV, such as the revised Conflict Tactic Scale-2 (CTS-2) (Straus et al., 1996). The CTS-2 has been subjected to some criticism, including its limited clinical utility if used without other complementary measures (Jones et al., 2017). However, its use could have allowed for a comparison ground with many other studies that internationally use

this measure. Additionally, this measure is ideally applied to both individuals in a violent relationship, to understand the conflict tactics employed by both partners, which is akin to addressing the bi-directionality of IPV. In our studies we did not ask about the bi-directionality of violence, nor did we inquire about the alleged perpetrators of IPV. Lastly, the concept of GRC is constantly evolving as societal gender norms change. Considering that we used the GRC scale that has not been updated since 1986 (Ó Beaglaoich et al., 2015), our findings may not fully capture the contemporary representation of gender norms in Portuguese society.

7.4.3. Procedures

In terms of procedures, most of our sample was collected either via formal help sources or via the administration of online questionnaires. All participants provided their replies via self-report measures, mostly through a retrospective methodological approach. Considering the negative impact that IPV can have on memory recall (Billoux et al., 2016), our findings may have been affected by this factor. Additionally, in quantitative studies, we have inquired about the sex of participants, and not their gender identity, which limits the possibility of identifying some participants as transgender. These matters limit the generalization of our findings for people and procedures that do not match our approach. Moreover, the IPV campaigns under study and tested were selected because they were pictorial, and used English, Spanish, and Portuguese languages. Nonetheless, there are many other campaigns that can be relevant to address our research questions. Lastly, in our research design, participants were able to view the existing IPV campaigns and the prototypical IPV campaigns without a time limit. This is not representative of real-life circumstances and conditions the external validity of our findings. In terms of internal validity, our findings regarding the impressions about existing IPV campaigns may not be generalized to men who are in different parts of the help-seeking process, as almost half of the interviewed participants had filed a formal complaint. Lastly, we did not investigate campaign designers' perspectives which may condition our perspective on these data.

7.4.4. Theory

On a theoretical level, besides the core theoretical frameworks used in this thesis, other framework models in the fields of health behavior promotion and communication might be pertinent to address our research questions. Examples of these models are the Protection Motivation Theory (Rogers, 1975), and the Health Belief Model (Rosenstock, 1974).

Additionally, Johnson's typology has been subjected to criticisms that are specifically relevant when studying forms of violence other than physical IPV, as well as IPV dynamics in same-sex couples. However, the author of the typology indicates that it has the potential to accommodate different types of violence and relationships, highlighting its re-conceptualization by Bermea and van Eeden-Moorefield that at this point lacks evidence to support it (Johnson, 2023; Bermea & van Eeden-Moorefield, 2023). Moreover, attempting to integrate all four theoretical models in an encompassing approach results in the duplication of variables (e.g., self-efficacy in the EPPM and perceived behavioral control in the TPB), while lacking others that may be specific to IPV and help-seeking in this context. Lastly, recent research has postulated the adequacy of labels such as "perpetrator" and "victim" of violence, highlighting the need for an integrated approach to studying violence within an intimate dyad, that considers all of its dynamics and processes (Bates, 2016; Cannon & Buttell, 2016; Schokkenbroek, 2022). This is linked to emerging evidence that suggests that bidirectionality of violence may be very prevalent within violent relationships, but more research is needed to understand the extent of such postulations (Bates, 2016). Despite the relevance of challenging existing paradigms to better account for reality, it is paramount that such new systems safe keep the integrity and well-being of those who are legitimate targets of IPV, and the moral obligation to make accountable those who perpetrate it in varied circumstances.

7.4.5. Other contextual aspects

In addition to the aforementioned constraints, other limitations may pertain to the timing of our data collection, which occurred before and during the COVID-19 pandemic. On one hand, the data collected about the effects of different IPV campaigns on intentions to seek help is relevant because it is representative of populations during the COVID-19 pandemic. On the other hand, the external validity of findings might be conditioned to non-pandemic circumstances. Furthermore, the pandemic was a period of additional instability for targets of IPV, which may have influenced the reports provided by most participants in circumstances of IPV (Alvarez-Hernandez et al., 2022; Lyons et al., 2022). It is also very difficult to establish causal relationships in IPV studies, which restricts the conclusions that can be drawn from this thesis and the research in this area in general.

7.5. Implications

7.5.1. For future research

As employed in this thesis, applying both quantitative and qualitative methodologies benefit the comprehension of IPV and campaigns (Noar, 2006). This more holistic approach can capture the nuances provided in oral testimonials and assess statistical significance in larger samples. Future research on campaigns and formative research could make clear the theoretical underpinnings of their investigations, to allow for comparison with existing interventions and inform the literature on the potential applicability of different theoretical models (Noar, 2006). Additionally, pre-registration of all studies, especially those that involve human subjects should be conducted as practiced in this thesis.

Additionally, newer studies could consider the possible influence of GRC in the experiences of IPV and help-seeking on men in violent DS/SSR and assess possible mediators and moderators of effects between GRC and help-seeking outcomes (O'Neal, 2015). This must also take into consideration the potential role of intersectionality, and how GRC may manifest in men from different cultures, ages, ethnicities, sexual orientations, and ability statuses, and may impact trans men specifically. They may also consider that trans men experience IPV at very high rates but at this point, very little research has been conducted on them (Peitzmeier et al., 2020).

It would be important to assess samples that have different danger and fear control perceptions, and different attitudes towards calling helplines or other help resources. Also, understanding and measuring reactance, denial and defensive avoidance is key to developing target interventions for individuals who resort to these strategies (Witte et al., 2001). Future studies could also aim to be representative of the issue at hand and avoid convenience sampling that may result in overrepresented portions of the sample, such as men who had filed formal complaints. It is nevertheless very challenging to access this population and so proper integration with governmental and non-governmental organizations is key to improving the likelihood of success.

Moreover, ethical principles for the conduct of research with people in circumstances of added vulnerability must be followed, to comply with standards and reduce possible negative unwanted effects in these populations (Roffee & Waling, 2017). Respecting participants' self-determination in what concerns stigmatized identities is paramount, and one possible alternative could be describing behaviors instead, when applicable. Surveys should be constructed in a way

that does not further victimize the populations of interest and should be developed in coordination with experts on the subjects, and pre-tested with participants from the target populations. The selection of outcomes should also be in line with the literature on the phenomenon under study and a clear definition of their meaning should be provided.

When constructing specific questionnaires, such as the TPB survey, it is important to construct them according to theoretical guidelines for maximum specificity and effectiveness (Ajzen, 2006). Our approach considered the outcome "calling a helpline in the following 6 months", according to the authors of the theoretical model, but other researchers used only hypothetical behaviors, or retrospective methods that do not fit the framework's aims and nature. Thus, a proper integration between theoretical frameworks, key metrics, and measurement principles must be ensured.

An additional suggestion could be the development of gender-specific measures of IPV for men and trans people, to adequately measure this phenomenon (Stephenson et al., 2020). This could be implemented in line with a more holistic approach to studying IPV, by measuring different help-seeking methods, victimization, perpetration, initiation, and retaliation of violence.

7.5.2. For practices

When considering the more practical implications of this thesis, clinical practitioners as well as service providers may take into consideration the potential role of GRC and its associated negative health outcomes when providing psychological support (O'Neil, 2015). Service providers should also receive training on the possible gender-specific processes that men in violent DS/SSR go through, and how men in same-sex relationships experience specific minority stressors that condition their process (Edwards et al., 2015). They should receive training in different types of implicit attitudes that may condition the way they assist a man who has been the target of IPV.

Additionally, campaign developers should consult with the target population to inform their efforts and should pre-test their materials beforehand (Rice & Atkin, 2013; Noar, 2006). They could also create campaigns that feature different types of men, informing of different forms of violence, and emphasizing the effectiveness of their recommended responses, such as helplines. These campaigns should be anchored on theoretical models that provide a basis on which to develop and assess their impact (Atkin & Rice, 2013; Noar, 2006; Witte et al., 2001). More

awareness campaigns should be conducted to improve knowledge about what constitutes IPV, and what help-seeking resources are available to whom, especially directed at men because they are so scarce (Bennett et al., 2004; Hines et al., 2007; Tsui, 2014). Doing so may increase attitudes and subjective norms towards calling, which were found to be significant predictors of intentions to seek help among targets of IPV (Byrne & Arias, 2004; Dardis et al., 2015; Fleming & Resick, 2017; Sulak et al., 2014).

These campaigns could avoid terms that have not been pre-tested and avoid referring to the term "victims" as men targets of IPV, even when compared with women targets of IPV, which may have positions of added stigma in what concerns this stigmatized identity (Burcar & Åkerström, 2009; Eckstein, 2010). Furthermore, they may refrain from portraying explicit violence that may reinforce physical violence as the most common one, and simultaneously re-victimize those who experience IPV (Magaraggia & Cherubini, 2017; West, 2013). Efforts directed at men targets of IPV in DS/SSR should be holistic, considering inputs from men themselves, civil society, OG, researchers, clinical practitioners, and the police/justice systems.

7.5.3. For policy-making

Overall, awareness efforts should be promoted at all levels of society, from the workplace to the education sector, to inform targets of violence, perpetrators, and bystanders of what constitutes IPV, what resources are available to seek help, and what the rights and duties of all individuals involved in the process (Heise & García-Moreno, 2002). This approach should aim to ameliorate the stigma surrounding being a target of IPV in society and seeking help.

In terms of public communication, more specific and clear guidelines could be made available about how to communicate about IPV and help-seeking. In tandem with this, more incisive regulation of these means of communication should be fostered. This could bring accountability to those who may purposefully frame IPV as a sensationalist topic for economic gain while disregarding the potential negative impacts that such news pieces may have on targets of violence, perpetrators, and bystanders of IPV (Rollè et al., 2020). Moreover, primary, and secondary prevention efforts such as public awareness campaigns should be developed as part of holistic efforts to tackle IPV. These efforts could be composed of different types of targeted content, disseminated through different media channels, following theoretical principles of health communication design. Other efforts could be promoted from an early age through the education system, via awareness raising about gender equality, the deconstruction

of traditional and non-adaptive masculinities, and combating homophobia, biphobia, and transphobia (UN Women, 2016; UNGEI, 2019). Furthermore, education for citizenship that promotes a culture of constructive dialogue and adaptive conflict resolution could have long-lasting and significant impacts, helping to dismantle broader systems of power, authority, and violence (Zambeta et al., 2016).

7.5.4. For theory

New theoretical considerations emerge from this work. For instance, it proposes a reevaluation of existing violence typologies and suggests the possibility of developing new ones that better represent the experiences of violence of men in violent same-sex relationships. Johnson's typology could be expanded to explain all the instances and dynamics of IPV directed at men, or at least discern more specifically the variables that pertain to the gendered experiences of men. It is also important that new theorizations of such typologies consider the ever-increasing importance of cultural variables and how violence may be linked to them. Other theoretical models that aim to describe violence and its origins such as the Duluth model are challenged, but it can be argued that these models were created to explain violence directed at women perpetrated by men in different-sex relationships (Bohall et al., 2016). All in all, our findings indicate that such typologies may not be suitable for men targets of IPV, and more research is needed to better theorize the dynamics and processes of IPV directed at men in different-sex and same-sex relationships.

The theorization about GRC can also follow new avenues of thought given that this thesis provided the first peer-reviewed quantitative study to describe GRC of men in violent DS/SSR, to the best of our knowledge. Future conceptualizations of GRC should, thus, consider how men in these circumstances experience GRC, and how men in their experiences relate to the non-adaptive outcomes already listed to be associated with GRC. This work expanded the conceptualization of this construct that is central in the studies of men and masculinities, and the understanding of how to better their health worldwide.

Moreover, the suitability of the four theoretical models to the study of IPV experiences, help-seeking, and IPV campaigns seems to be supported, but improvements could be achieved via adaptations of some of these models to consider the specific nature of IPV. Namely, the consideration of contextual factors such as environmental and economic factors and specifying a time frame within which certain behavior changes can occur.

Despite not being consensual, we argue as well that IPV directed at men translates a form of gender-based violence as it can materialize in the form of the exploitation of traditional gender roles Traditional masculine gender roles can not only condition men's help-seeking experiences as targets of violence but can also foster specific types of violence. For instance, men can be threatened with a disclosure of false aggressor status by their girlfriends or wives, given that historically society and police forces are more accustomed to framing men solely as the perpetrators of violence (Hines & Douglas, 2022). Thus, IPV directed at men can materialize in the form of the exploitation of traditional gender roles and expectations about them. These notions are also suitable to theorize about men in violent same-sex relationships, with the added consideration that minority stressors can exacerbate IPV dynamics and forms, and intersect with existing restrictive masculinity norms (Edwards et al., 2015).

Lastly, our proposed model that integrates the TPB, EPPM, ELM, and TTM anchored in gender roles and their possible influence could be further tested to understand its suitability to explain the impact of different stimuli in IPV help-seeking in men and women. We highlight that a visual depiction of the tested variables of each theoretical model and main conclusions is presented in Figure 7.1. This thesis allowed for the corroboration of previous evidence that suggested the TPB as a suitable model to explain help-seeking intentions in targets of IPV (Fleming & Resick, 2017; Sulak et al., 2014). It also brought novel findings about the applicability of the EPPM and ELM in the IPV context, which we believe to be of crucial importance henceforth when researching these topics. Much more research is needed to understand if this integrated model can explain intentions to seek help in other contexts (e.g., filing a formal complaint with police forces), with different types of stimuli (e.g. video campaigns), and with more integrated constructs of the TTM (e.g., measuring readiness to change, and specific processes of change throughout time). As stated previously, the potential role of Gender Role Conflict as well other gender norms related constructs and processes on the aforementioned variables should be the target of more investigation in the future. Nonetheless, this proposed integrated model follows guidelines for the development and evaluation of campaign effects (Witte et al., 2001; Noar, 2006) and is a significant contribution to a field that is scarcely researched.

7.6. Conclusions

This thesis aimed to investigate how to facilitate help-seeking intentions in men who were targets of IPV in different-sex and same-sex relationships DS/SSR, and how targeted IPV campaigns may aid in this purpose. To do so, we conducted formative evaluation research with populations of men in DS/SSR, which allowed for an in-depth understanding of the victimization and help-seeking processes they went through, how they viewed existing and future IPV campaigns directed at them, and how different types of information in campaigns impacted them.

Our results shed light on often underrepresented livelihoods that are still the target of severe stigma, and that are anchored in social norms regarding gender, violence, and help-seeking. It is key to recognize that the experiences of men who are targets of IPV are valid, that they are heterogeneous, and that gender-specific factors can play a significant role. Help-seeking in IPV is a complex issue that derives from societal, group, and individual variables, but fomenting more inclusive and targeted prevention and intervention efforts hold the potential for adaptive changes in these populations.

Nonetheless, campaigns must represent the diversity of individuals and existing relationships and should be developed and tested according to established theoretical perspectives. No solution will work adaptively in every target group, but by developing structured, holistic approaches that consider behavior change, health risk processing, and persuasion principles, we can increase their likelihood of success in changing individuals in situations of increased vulnerability for the better.
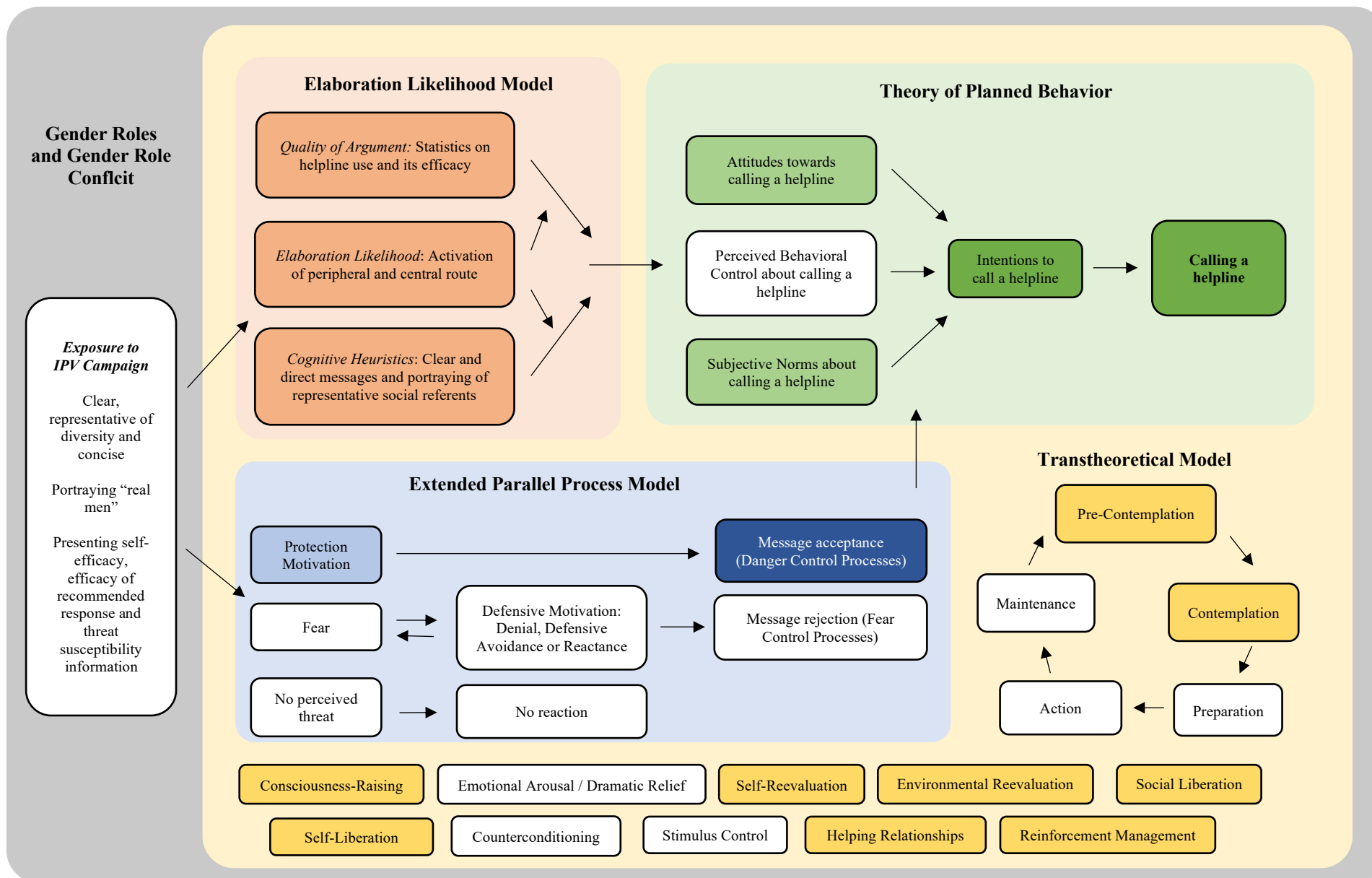
Figure 7.1. *Graphic depiction of the variables that play a role in the help-seeking experiences of men targets of IPV*

7.7. References

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Annex A | Intimate Partner Violence Directed at Men: Experiences of Violence, Help-seeking, and potential Gender Role Conflict among Portuguese Men

Annex A.1 - Interview Protocol

Table A1.

Interview protocol

Main (and follow-up) Questions

1. In your opinion, how is intimate partner violence directed at men seen in today's society?

2. Could you tell me more about your relationship?

    2.1. Duration of the relationship?

    2.2. Did/do you live / live together?

    2.3. Do you have any dependents with this person?

    2.4. Civil status?

3. Could you tell me about a moment of violence that you consider significant? What other moments?

    3.1. Was it an isolated or repeated event?

    3.2. How long did it last?

    3.3. What types of violence?

    3.4. Cycle of violence?

    3.5. Threat of outing, disclosure of serological status, manipulation of dependents?

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4. Can you describe in detail what you think (in terms of the people, the social, the context) that, in your opinion, originated and contributed to violence?

   4.1. Substance use? Alcohol, drugs?

   4.2. What factors mitigated violence?

5. And when you found yourself in this situation, do you remember how you felt? And how did you react?

   5.1. Support of friends, family, co-workers?

   5.2. How did this process develop?

   5.3. How was this support?

   5.4. What made you stay in the relationship?

6. To you, what were the main consequences of this violence in your life?

   6.1. Individual?

   6.2. Social?

   6.3. Family?

   6.4. Economic?

7. When the first situations of violence occurred, did you feel informed about violence directed at men by their partners?

   7.1. What different types of violence did you recognize?

8. Was there anything that hindered your own recognition as a target of [various] violence (on an individual, social, context) level?

    8.1. What made it easier?

9. Could you tell me what your main needs during this whole process were, whatever they were?

10. During this process, did you contact or seek formal help?

    10.1.   How did this process develop?

    10.2.   How did you feel in this experience?

    10.3.   (If not established) what were the reasons for not contacting?

11. What do you think of helplines?

    11.1.   Main reasons not to call?

    11.2.   Intentions to call?

    11.3.   If you called, how did you get to this moment?

12. At any point did you file a complaint with the police force?

    12.1.   Where?

    12.2.   What led you to file a complaint?

    12.3.   How did this process go? (Including positive and negative aspects if any)

    12.4.   (If not) Could you explain why you did not file a complaint?

12.5.	Did someone file a complaint for you? (Neighbors, co-workers, friends)

Annex A.2 - Coding Taxonomy

Table A2.

Coding Taxonomy

Theme	Category	Subcategory	Definition
Opinion on Society, Victimization and Stigmatized Identities	Perceptions about violence in society		Overall perceptions about how violence is portrayed in society, specifically from the point of view of the participant at the moment of the interview. E.g. "*Although there is a greater awareness that men are also victims of violence for example in [unnoticeable] or in intimacy [...] I think that there is still some lack of knowledge of the seriousness and depth that this form of violence can have in men, on the part of society is not*".

Masculinity, victimization, and gender role conflict	Encompasses men's insights into what being a man means, how it intersects with being a "victim" or not, among other topics related to identities and how not aligning with gender norms may have consequences for victimized men. Gender roles refer to expected roles that society imposes on men and women. E.g. "...*I think it is still very difficult for men to identify themselves as such, to recognize themselves as such [...] I think we still need to do a lot of work to demystify that men can also be victims and not always the aggressors*"
LGBT+ topics	Specific insights about LGBTI+ people and how violence could express itself through specific processes in this population. E.g. "…*and since this was also a relationship between two men at the time I was in the closet, so to speak, it was not publicly out, no one knew, not even my closest friends, it was a relationship lived in secret, and the secrecy also contributed to not being able to talk about situations with friends, because otherwise people would know that we were in a relationship and this was always something that no one could ever know…*".

	Other		Other examples
Relationship Characterization	Duration		How long the relationship lasted (in years and months). E.g. "…*at some point in that relationship that lasted about two years, right, until about your 20s, about 21? Yes, between 19 and 20 and 21*".
	Maintain Contact		If the interviewee still keeps in contact with the aggressor or not.
	Dependents		If the interviewee has any children with the aggressor.
	Shared living		If the interviewee has lived or is still living with the aggressor.
Experience of Victimization	Types and nature of suffered violence	Emotional/Psychological	Suffered emotional/psychological violence, such as diminishing a person's sense of self-worth, manipulating him/her, controlling behavior, insults, and others. E.g. "....*and this was in a constant way, I think when it starts to be more evident to me was when he starts criticizing and judging the way I was behaving, a normal person doesn't do that, a normal person doesn't behave like that....*"

Physical	Suffered physical violence, that includes or not the use of weapons or instruments and may or may not leave bruises or require medical attention. E.g. "*At that moment as he was disarmed, and his reaction was to hit me, well I was there at the time, he punched me, I was a little more or less (unnoticeable), I hadn't even, thinking that he could ever do that but he did, and I as a response said that I would never do that again*".
Sexual	Suffered sexual violence, that includes rape, being forced to penetrate someone, sexual coercion and unwanted sexual contact. E.g. "*Until one day he was the one who wanted more than he was pressuring me to want relations and I did not want to because I was tired he was often pressuring me to have sex. And at one point I suffered an injury and he turns to me and looks at me, look, I've had enough of this, he didn't realize that I was in pain and we didn't go to the emergency room or anything like that the next day*".

Economical	Suffered economical violence, such as retention of the victim's salary, manipulating private funds, and overall limitation of the person's economic autonomy and integrate against his/hers will. E.g. "*Right now you lost everything because he left me with 1 euro in the bank. I ran out of money completely*".
Social	Includes stalking and limitations to the social well—being of the victims, such as limiting access to friends, family and work. E.g. "…*yes yes, sometimes it wasn't even the relationship was bad in that sense but what happened in the next 5 years was constant harassment, of super situations, of going to my university to confront me*".

	LGBT+ specificities	Specific forms of victimization that may occur in LGBT+ people, such as outing someone's sexual orientation against his/her will, revealing a positive HIV status against their will, threatening or actually impeding the person to see or be with dependents given that the aggressor holds legal custody of the child and reinforcing stigma about sexual orientation and/or gender identity. E.g. "*Because he said I had to be a more discreet person. He didn't want me to assume any of that, but then I would turn on myself: ah, I want to assume, I want to walk hand in hand. But I always want you to be the first to make the step, I always wanted me to be the first to make the step*".
	Other	Other types of violence
Consequences of violence	Emotional/Psychological	Consequences of violence on an emotional/psychological level
	Physical	Consequences of violence on a physical level
	Sexual	Consequences of violence on a sexual level
	Economical	Consequences of violence on an economical level
	Social	Consequences of violence on a social level
	LGBT+ specificities	Consequences of violence specific to the LGBTI+ community, resulting from specific violence towards this population
	Other	Other consequences

Duration of violence		For how long did the violence occur (in years and months)
Cycle of victimization		Highlights specific processes commonly inherent to the victimization: 1. Build up of tension 2. Victimization/Outburst 3. "Honeymoon Phase", in which the aggressor/victim return to a false sense of normalcy. E.g. "... *And one hypothesis is, and maybe if I heard someone telling me this, it would help me to identify and interrupt that cycle of violence earlier*".
Violence facilitating factors	Power/Control dynamics	Identifies dynamics of power and control that could impact how the violence occurs. Includes manipulation, blackmailing, or an overall sense of imbalance of power in the relationship. E.g. "it wasn't really, control, it wasn't I'm from [football club] you're from [football club], I'm now going to keep insisting every time there's a game you can't, there's no, there's no compromise because this is aggressive behavior"
	Substance consumption/abuse	If and how substance abuse affected the relationship. E.g. " *There was, but it wasn't me, it was him*".
	Gender roles	If traditional mentalities about what a men should be or a woman should impacted the relationship and the violence. E.g. "... *he always tried to make himself look like someone he wasn't, more in line with the concept that a man has to be serious, masculine*".

	Other	Other facilitating factors
Violence appeasing factors	Passivity	Identifies the lack of action from the target as one of the things that eased the violence
	Distance	Identifies increasing the distance from the target of violence to the aggressor as one of the things that eased the violence
	Other	Other violence appeasing factors. E.g., "*Having sex, for instance*"
Social support	Friends, family, work colleagues	Lists experiences of social support from friends, family and work colleagues when victimization was occurring or afterwards. E.g. "*they were 100%*"
	Development of the support process	Describes how victimized men sought help from their social support sources. This may include feelings of shame, reaching out without telling the entire truth, among others.
	Critical evaluation of the support	Men's impressions about how this social support was good/bad, harmful, beneficial, among other considerations.
Motives to stay in the relationship	Individual	Individual motives to stay in the relationship, such as shame, lack of motivation, fear, among others.

		Social	Socially driven motives to stay in the relationship, such as fear of repercussions among friends and social context
		Familiar	Familiar driven motives to stay in the relationship, such as lack of acceptance from family.
		Other	Other motives
Knowledge about IPV when victimized	General information about IPV/DV		Overall knowledge and impressions about IPV at the time of victimization, specifically including not having much knowledge at all, types of violence, or biased notions. E.g. "*I only know what is on the news, I don't know anything else*".
	Factors involved in the recognition of aggressions as violence	What facilitated	What facilitate men's recognition that the aggressions they suffered were actually violence. E.g. "*Testemonies, interviews about… the topic of violence within a marriage, it made me think about it at the time*".
		What hindered	What made it more difficult for men to recognize that the aggressions they suffered were actually violence. E.g. "*Ignorance, it was ignorance*".
	Main needs		Men's main needs during their victimization process. Could be psychological, physical, sexual, economic, social, or more abstract concepts. E.g. "*Being quiet, not bothering me, I isolated myself perhaps*".

Formal Help	Development of the process		Details about how men sought formal help. E.g. "*The police asked me 'do you want to go to [victim support unit], do you need help at the [victim support unit]?'*"
	How men felt		How men felt while seeking formal help, with impressions on good and bad aspects. E.g. "*I think well, I think it's been well, it's been well run by everybody, and I've been well supported, I think yes as a matter of fact I think it's going well and I feel improvement*"
	Motives not to contact		Motives not to contact formal help.
	Other		Other references that do not fit pre-existing categories
	Helpline	Overall impressions	References to general beliefs about helplines. E.g. "*Never heard of them, I hadn't even heard of this* even".
		Motives not to contact	Reasons not to contact. E.g. "*Total lack of awareness*"
		Intentions	Insights on whether men had or did not have intentions to call. E.g. "*I never thought about it*"
Formal Complaint	Yes/no		If a formal complaint was filed or not. E.g. "*It wasn't here, it was at the police station in [town], then they sent me here*".
	Where		Institution in which this complaint was filed.

Motives	To file a complaint	Motives to file a complaint.
	Not to file a complaint	Motives not to file a complaint.
Process evaluation	Positive and Negative aspects	Evaluation of the formal complaint process in the institution including positive and negative aspects. E.g. " *Excellent (…) it was great*"
Complaint made by another person		In case the complaint was filed by someone other than the victim

Annex B | Intentions to call a helpline among victims of Intimate Partner Violence: The role of the Theory of Planned Behavior and Gender Role Conflict

Annex B.1 - Sociodemographic characteristics

Table B1

Sociodemographic characteristics

	N	Percent
Sex		
Male	290	51.9
Female	269	48.1
Sexual Orientation		
Heterosexual	435	77.8
Lesbian	14	2.5
Gay	52	9.3
Bisexual	57	10.2
Trans		
Relationship Status		
Currently in a relationship	93	16.6
Not in a relationship, but had previous ones	148	26.5
Currently in a relationship, having been in previous ones	318	56.9
Education level		

Primary education	2	.4
Secondary education	169	34.2
Bachelor's	203	41.1
Master's	112	22.7
Doctorate	8	1.6
Occupation		
Employed	223	45.1
Unemployed	71	14.4
Student	149	30.2
Working student	35	7.1
Formal Help-seeking		
Psychologist	242	-
Psychiatrist	101	-
Support Center	16	-
Police Force	49	-
Hospital	32	-
Knowledge of Helplines		
No	393	70.3

	Yes	166	29.7			

Called a helpline

		N				
No		146	88			
Yes		20	12			

	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Age	558	18	72	30.16	11.13
Current Relationship Duration	335	.05	40	5.19	6.67
Duration of the Longest Past Relationship	90	.08	43	3.96	6.07

Annex B.2 - Descriptives for positive and negative outcome evaluations

Table B2.

Descriptives for positive and negative outcome evaluations

	Global Sample			Men			Women		
	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD
Being able to clarify doubts is…	95	6.58	1.06	55	6.40	1.27	50	6.86	.54
The call being free is…	93	6.78	.75	55	6.65	.95	48	6.98	.14

	Global Sample			Men			Women		
	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD
Having conditions that ensure my anonymity is…	93	6.45	1.41	55	6.35	1.55	48	6.67	1.06
Providing me with psychological/emotional support is…	93	6.51	1.08	55	6.44	1.12	49	6.61	1
Recognizing my situation as legitimate is…	93	6.17	1.54	55	6.13	1.53	48	6.35	1.45
Obtaining important information and clear indications about what I should do to resolve my situation is…	93	6.29	1.37	55	6.05	1.47	48	6.63	1.08
Not considering my situation as legitimate is…	93	1.59	1.21	55	1.58	1.13	48	1.50	1.20
Being discriminated by my sexual orientation and/or gender identity is…	94	1.61	1.43	55	1.76	1.60	49	1.31	1.03
Publicly revealing my personal data against my will is…	93	1.43	1.26	55	1.56	1.44	48	1.19	.84
Publicly revealing my sexual orientation and/or gender identity against my will is…	93	1.66	1.40	55	1.75	1.39	48	1.50	1.38
Judging me because I am a man/woman in this situation is…	93	1.82	1.58	55	2.15	1.86	48	1.27	.79

Annex B.3 - Descriptives for positive and negative behavioral beliefs

Table B3.

Descriptives for positive and negative behavioral beliefs

	Global Sample			Men			Women		
	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD
I will be able to clarify doubts	92	5.84	1.54	52	5.81	1.53	40	5.88	1.56
The call will be free	92	5.28	1.94	52	5.31	1.91	40	5.25	2.01
There will be conditions that ensure my anonymity	92	5.32	2.05	52	5.21	2.14	40	5.45	1.96
I will be provided with psychological/emotional support	92	5.42	1.75	52	5.38	1.72	40	5.48	1.81
My situation will be recognized as legitimate	93	5.15	1.89	52	5.17	1.86	41	5.12	1.95
I will obtain important information and clear indications about what I should do to resolve my situation	93	5.19	1.81	52	5.21	1.70	41	5.17	1.96
My situation will not be considered as legitimate	92	2.72	1.87	52	2.50	1.69	40	3	2.08
I will be discriminated by my sexual orientation and/or gender identity	93	1.97	1.54	52	2.02	1.20	41	1.90	1.59
My personal data will be publicly revealed against my will	93	1.84	1.48	52	1.75	1.49	41	1.95	1.48

	Global Sample			Men			Women		
	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD
My sexual orientation and/or gender identity will be publicly revealed against my will	93	1.80	1.44	52	1.95	1.47	41	1.73	1.41
I will be judged because I am a man/woman in this situation	93	2.41	1.89	52	2.33	1.82	41	2.51	1.99

Annex B.4 - Descriptives for Injunctive Norms and Motivation to Comply with Referents

Table B4.

Descriptives for Injunctive Norms and Motivation to Comply with Referents

	Global Sample			Men			Women		
	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD
My father thinks that I should call a helpline in the next 6 months	59	1.57	1.39	38	1.76	1.65	31	1.32	.95
My mother thinks that I should call a helpline in the next 6 months	71	1.70	1.53	38	1.95	1.75	33	1.42	1.17
My brother/sister thinks that I should call a helpline in the next 6 months	69	1.64	1.51	38	1.92	1.73	31	1..29	1.13

	Global Sample			Men			Women		
	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD
My best friend thinks that I should call a helpline in the next 6 months	72	2.22	2.03	41	2.10	1.90	31	2.39	2.22
I want to do what my father thinks I should do	70	2.33	1.91	39	2.54	2.05	31	2.06	1.71
I want to do what my mother thinks I should do	70	2.54	1.92	38	2.82	1.98	32	2.22	1.83
I want to do what my brother/sister thinks I should do	69	2.45	1.86	38	2.95	2.07	31	1.84	1.37
I want to do what my best friend thinks I should do	74	2.43	1.75	42	2.86	1.87	32	1.88	1.43

Annex B.5 - Descriptives for Descriptive Norms and Identification with Referents

Table B5.

Descriptives for Descriptive Norms and Identification with Referents

	Global Sample			Men			Women		
	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD
My father would call a helpline	76	1.99	1.92	42	2.17	2.01	34	1.76	1.81

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	Global Sample			Men			Women		
	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD
My mother would call a helpline	79	2.65	2.24	45	2.76	2.23	34	2.50	2.27
My brother/sister would call a helpline	73	2.79	2.17	43	3.19	2.20	30	2.23	2.03
My best friend would call a helpline	80	3.59	2.32	48	3.73	2.26	32	3.38	2.43
How much do you want to be like your father?	77	2.96	1.84	43	3.12	1.80	34	2.76	1.89
How much do you want to be like your mother?	77	3.83	2.09	45	3.82	2.03	32	3.84	2.20
How much do you want to be like your brother/sister?	65	3.52	2.06	39	3.67	1.97	26	3.31	2.21
How much do you want to be like your best friend?	73	3.75	1.91	43	3.98	1.61	30	3.43	2.25

Annex B.6 - Descriptives for Control Factor Beliefs and Power of Control Factors

Table B6.

Descriptives for Control Factor Beliefs and Power of Control Factors

	Global Sample			Men			Women		
	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD
I will have helplines adapted to my needs	84	5.29	1.85	49	5.22	1.84	35	5.37	1.88
I will have conditions that guarantee my anonymity	83	5.58	1.94	50	5.76	1.79	33	5.30	2.14
I will have access to public awareness campaigns about helplines	84	5.17	1.86	50	5.32	1.70	34	4.94	2.07
The helpline service providers will have skills to help me	85	5.73	1.60	50	5.76	1.61	35	5.69	1.61
If I have helplines adapted to my needs	84	6.23	1.44	49	6.18	1.25	35	6.29	1.69
If there are conditions that guarantee my anonymity	85	6.51	1.24	50	6.52	1.17	35	6.49	1.36
If I have access to public awareness campaigns about helplines	84	5.90	1.69	50	6.22	1.36	34	5.4	2.02

	n	Mean	SD
If I believe the helpline service providers have skills to help me	85 6.49 1.16 50 6.50 1.02 35 6.49 1.36		

Annex B.7 - Descriptives for Attitudes, Subjective Norms, Perceived Behavioral Control and Intention to call a helpline

Table B7.

Descriptives for Attitudes, Subjective Norms, Perceived Behavioral Control and Intention to call a helpline

	Global Sample			Men			Women		
	n	**Mean**	**SD**	**n**	**Mean**	**SD**	**n**	**Mean**	**SD**
Calling a helpline is [very bad-very good]	89	4.53	2.05	52	4.77	1.86	37	4.19	2.27
Calling a helpline is [harmful-beneficial]	89	6.08	1.39	52	6	1.34	37	6.19	1.47
Most people that are important to me think that I should call a helpline	89	2.34	1.91	52	2.44	1.89	37	2.19	1.94
Most people like me called a helpline in the 6 months following an experience of conflict in their relationships	89	2.66	1.84	51	2.92	1.79	37	2.30	1.87
I am confident that I can call a helpline	89	4.90	2.11	52	5.29	1.87	37	4.35	2.32

	Global Sample			Men			Women		
	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD
To me, calling a helpline is under my control	89	5.66	1.87	52	5.96	1.55	37	5.24	2.20
I plan to call a helpline	88	2.09	1.68	52	2.15	1.63	36	2	1.77
I am willing to call a helpline	88	4.14	2.18	52	4.65	2.03	36	4.39	2.21

Annex B.8 - Descriptives and Cronbach alphas for the Theory of Planned Behavior global indirect and direct measures

Table B8.

Descriptives and Cronbach alphas for the Theory of Planned Behavior global indirect and direct measures

	Global Sample			Men			Women			
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	α
Positive Outcome Evaluations	95	6.47	.88	51	6.31	1.06	44	6.66	.57	.81
Negative Outcome Evaluations	94	1.66	1.11	51	1.80	1.14	43	1.49	1.07	.80
Positive Behavior Beliefs	93	5.37	1.41	52	5.35	1.45	41	5.37	1.38	.85
Negative Behavior Beliefs	94	2.15	1.27	52	2.09	1.25	42	2.24	1.30	.81

	Global Sample			Men			Women			
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	α
Injunctive Norm	75	1.83	1.48	42	1.99	1.73	33	1.64	1.08	.91
Motivation to Comply	75	2.48	1.73	42	2.86	1.87	33	2	1.41	.94
Descriptive Norm	84	2.82	1.83	49	3.10	1.97	35	2.44	1.57	.82
Identification with Referent	80	3.51	1.61	45	3.62	1.59	35	3.37	1.66	.81
Control Beliefs	85	5.44	1.45	50	5.52	1.59	35	5.38	1.25	.85
Power of Control Beliefs	85	6.28	1.16	50	6.36	1.05	35	6.17	1.32	.86
Attitudes	89	5.30	1.44	52	5.38	1.43	37	5.19	1.49	N/A
Subjective Norm	89	2.49	1.55	52	2.66	1.64	37	2.24	1.40	N/A
Perceived Behavioral Control	89	5.28	1.74	52	5.63	1.45	37	4.80	2.02	N/A
Behavioral Intentions	88	3.11	1.60	52	3.40	1.38	36	2.69	1.81	N/A

N/A – Non-applicable

Annex B.9 - Victimization rates for participants in an abusive relationship at the moment of participation

Table B9.

Victimization rates for participants in an abusive relationship at the moment of participation

	Never	Once (Present)	More than once (Present)	Once (Past)	More than once (Past)	Total
Pull hair	75	7	11	3	7	28
Insult, defame or make serious statements to humiliate or "hurt"	43	17	32	8	11	68
Slap	66	20	11	5	3	39
Strangle neck	78	6	14	6	1	27
Threaten with weapons (e.g. knife, pistol, sharp objects) or using physical force	88	6	4	1	2	13
Intentionally break or damage things (e.g. furniture, personal effects) or throw food on the floor to cause fear	67	17	5	6	1	19

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	Never	Once (Present)	More than once (Present)	Once (Past)	More than once (Past)	Total
Wake up in the middle of the night to cause fear	92	4	2	1	1	8
Punch	91	2	6	1	0	7
Prevent contact with other people (e.g. take keys, force the person to stop working / study, prevent them from leaving the house)	83	6	10	1	3	14
Throw objects at the other person	86	5	8	2	1	16
Beating	97	2	0	0	0	2
Kick or Headbutt	91	5	3	2	0	10
Push violently	75	15	9	3	2	29
Stalk on the street, at work or at the study site, to cause fear	90	1	2	3	4	10
Bang the other person's head against the wall or the floor	97	1	0	1	0	2

	Never	Once (Present)	More than once (Present)	Once (Past)	More than once (Past)	Total
Cause injuries that do not require medical attention	84	7	7	1	2	17
Cause injuries that require medical attention	95	4	0	0	0	4
Force the other person to engage in sexual acts against their will	91	0	3	3	3	9
Keep the other person's salary or not giving him/her the money needed for everyday expenses	96	2	1	1	0	4
Scream or threaten, to scare	60	14	23	3	5	45
Threaten to reveal, or effectively reveal, sexual orientation against one's own will	95	1	1	0	3	5
Threaten to prevent contact with their child	93	2	3	1	1	7

Annex B.10 - Correlation among indirect and direct measures of the Theory of Planned Behavior

Table B10.

Correlation among indirect and direct measures of the Theory of Planned Behavior

Variable	BBA	A	BBIN	BBDN	SN	BBPBC	PBC
Belief Based Attitudes (BBA)	-						
Direct Attitudes (A)	**.34****	-					
Belief Based Injunctive Norms (BBIN)	**-.31****	.04	-				
Belief Based Descriptive Norms (BBDN)	-.08	.20	**.55****	-			
Direct Subjective Norm (SN)	-.08	**.22***	**.53****	**.45****	-		
Belief Based Perceived Behavioral Control (BBPBC)	**.54****	**.48****	.12	.17	.14	-	
Direct Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC)	.19	**.49****	.05	.04	.09	**.33****	-

* *p* < .05; ** *p* = .000

In order to test if the belief-based antecedents contributed to explain their corresponding intention' predicting variables, two simple linear regressions and one multiple regression analysis were conducted. All predictor variables were centered. Pertaining to the simple linear regressions, it was found that belief-based attitudes significantly predicted attitudes towards calling a helpline, $F(1,86)=10.52$, $p=.002$, explaining 9.9% of the explained variability in attitudes. Additionally, belief-based behavior control predicted perceived behavioral control, $F(1,82)=13.04$, $p=.001$, accounting for 12.7% of total variability. Finally, regarding the multiple regression model for subjective norm, the model was statistically significant, $F(2,62)=16.94$, $p<.001$, Adj. $R^2=.332$. Both belief-based injunctive norms, B=.016, $se=.006$, $t=2.59$, $p=.012$, and belief-based descriptive norms, B=.012, $se=.004$, $t=2.80$, $p=.007$, contributed to explain the subjective norm. Results of these regression analysis are presented in Table B11 and B12.

Annex B.11 - Regressions of the Attitudes and Perceived Behavioral Control antecedents on their corresponding direct predictors

Table B11.

Regressions of the Attitudes and Perceived Behavioral Control antecedents on their corresponding direct predictors

Variable	*B*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	95% CI
Belief Based Attitude -> Direct Attitudes	.004	.001	3.243	.002	[.002, .007]
Belief Based Behavior Control -> Direct Perceived Behavior Control	.014	.004	3.611	.001	[.006, .022]

Note. CI = confidence interval.

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Annex B.12 - Regressions of Subjective Norms antecedents on their corresponding direct predictors

Table B12.

Regressions of Subjective Norms antecedents on their corresponding direct predictors

Variable	*B*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	95% CI
Belief Based Injunctive Norm	.016	.006	2.587	.012	[.004, .029]
Belief Based Descriptive Norm	.012	.004	2.797	.007	[.003, .020]

Note. CI = confidence interval.

Annex B.13 - Gender Role Conflict for the global sample and as a function of victimization

Table B13.

Gender Role Conflict for the global sample and as a function of victimization

	Global Sample			Victimized Men			Non-Victimized					
	n	**M**	**SD**	**n**	**M**	**SD**	**n**	**M**	**SD**	*t*	*p*	*d*
Success and Power	245	3.80	.91	52	4.11	.89	131	3.53	.84	**-4.16**	**<.001**	.672
Restricted Emotionality	245	3.21	1.19	52	3.40	1.26	131	2.99	1.08	-2.20	**.029**	.349

	Global Sample			Victimized Men			Non-Victimized					
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	*t*	*p*	*d*
Restricted Affectionate Behavior between Men	244	2.66	1.16	52	2.77	1.27	130	2.57	1.09	-1.09	.277	.173
Conflict between Work and Family	243	3.59	1.21	52	4.10	1.24	129	3.15	1.09	**-5.11**	**<.001**	.815
Global Conflict with Gender Role	245	3.34	.86	52	3.61	.92	131	3.11	.75	**-3.84**	**<.001**	.602

ANNEX C | Pictorial campaigns on Intimate Partner Violence focusing on Victimized Men: A Systematic Content Analysis

Annex C.1 - Detailed overview of search terms and boolean operators

Table C1.

Detailed overview of search terms and boolean operators

Language	Search Terms
English	(Campaign*) OR (Prevention) OR (Poster) AND (*Violence) OR (IPV) OR (*Abuse) OR (Victim) AND (Men) OR (LGBT) OR (Gay) OR (Bisexual) OR (Transgender) OR (Heterosexual)
Spanish	(Campaña*) OR (Prevención) OR (Poster) AND (*Violencia) OR (VRI) OR (*Abuso) OR (Víctima) AND (Hombre) OR (LGBT) OR (Gay) OR (Bisexual) OR (Transgenero) OR (Heterosexual)
Portuguese	(Campanha*) OR (Prevenção) OR (Poster) AND (*Violência) OR (VRI) OR (*Abuso) OR (Vítima) AND (Homem) OR (LGBT) OR (Gay) OR (Bissexual) OR (Transgénero) OR (Heterossexual)

Annex C.2 – Coding Taxonomy

Table C2.

Coding Taxonomy (adapted from Velez, 2014)

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Quote (Campaign Number)
Perceived main target of the message	Victimized man/men	Different-sex relationship		"Statistics show that 1 in 6 men will be victims of domestic abuse" (#27)
		Same-sex relationship		"40% of gay and bisexual men have experienced domestic abuse from a family member or partner" (#27)
		Relationship type / gender identity / sexual orientation not specified		"Domestic abuse can affect any man, regardless of ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation, gender identity…" (#57)

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Quote (Campaign Number)
	Perpetrator(s)	Female		"I don't let my boyfriend talk to other females at parties" (#5)
		Male		N/E
		Gender identity not specified		"If you're being abusive to your partner get help to stop by calling…" (#15)
	Bystander(s)	Friends		"When you see a red flag in your friend's relationship, say something" (#3)
		Family		N/E
		Work colleagues		N/E
		Public witnesses		N/E
		Not specified		"If this is happening to you or someone you know call…" (#17)

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Quote (Campaign Number)
	Institutional Agents	Police Forces		N/E
		Health Professionals		N/E
		Schools/Universities		N/E
		Policy-Makers		N/E
		Not specified		N/E
	General Population	Teenagers		N/A
		Older adults		N/E
		Females		N/E
		Males		N/E
		Not specified		"Donate to our programs for boys and men" (#23)
	LGBTI Population	Teenagers		N/E
		Older adults		N/E
		Females		N/E

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Quote (Campaign Number)
		Males		N/E
		Trans and Gender Diverse people	N/E	
		Not specified		"Same-sex domestic violence / we won't turn our back" (#8)
Perceived message objective (adapted from Buunk & Van Vugt, 2008)	Remind of the existing problem (i.e. bring awareness to the existing problem)			"Any man can experience domestic abuse" (#57)
	Provide new knowledge (i.e. provide articulate information regarding the nature, processes and consequences of IPV, as well as inform of available resources)			"Emotional Control. Being trapped in a relationship by someone else's insecurities is domestic abuse" (#21)
Approach (Rappaport & Seidman, 2000)	Prevention (i.e. encourages the population to consider their behavior and intervene preemptively)			"Domestic violence is not always this ease to see. Domestic violence is a pattern of behavior…" (#9)

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Quote (Campaign Number)
	Intervention (i.e. aimed at men at risk, highlighting the recognition of the need for help, and the use of formal resources available before violence escalates further)			"You are not alone / Break the silence / Report it" (#51)
	Treatment / Post-violence (directed at men and/or their families/friends after abuse has occurred, suggesting support and treatment if necessary)			"No domestic violence shelters are dedicated to us" (#23)
Method (adapted from Buunk & Van Vugt, 2008)	Descriptive information	About the existence of violence directed at men (e.g. statistics)		"The Brutal Truth / 40% of domestic abuse victims are male; that's 2 of every 5 victims" (#51)
		About the particularities of violence directed at GBTI men (e.g. threatening to "out" the partner)		"He threatened to out her gender history" (#19)

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Quote (Campaign Number)
		About the privacy of the phenomenon (i.e. occurrence of violence mostly in the private space of a home)		"Derek makes sure the neighbors don't hear the smashing…" (#57)
		About the silence/powerlessness of the victims (e.g. men can stay silent for years)		"Break the silence. Break the cycle" (#18)
		About the legal rights of the victim		"Domestic violence between same-sex people is a crime" (#7)
		About the consequences of violence for the victim	Physical (e.g. wounds, cuts)	"Mas knows all about keeping bruises hidden" (#53)
			Psychological (e.g. insults, manipulation)	"You might feel ashamed, embarrassed or worried you'll

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Quote (Campaign Number)
				be viewed as less of a man" (#11)
			Sexual (e.g. rape)	"What's your degree? Masters in Forced Sex?" (#34)
			Social (e.g. forced social exclusion)	"She gets pissed when I hang out with my friends. She says she should be enough" (#3)
			Economic (e.g. manipulation of funds by the perpetrator)	"He controls his money" (#20)
			Legal (e.g biases towards the perpetrators in the legal system)	N/E

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Quote (Campaign Number)
			Moral (e.g. going against the victim's moral principles)	N/E
		About the formal mechanisms for help and support (e.g. hotlines, NGO's)		"Call our confidential advice service… for more information visit…" (#22)
		About the informal mechanisms for help and support (e.g. friends, family)		"I talked to a friend in an abusive relationship about domestic violence. It was hard, but they knew they could come to me" (#19)
	Valence of the appeal (Henley, Donovan & Moorhead, 1998, Paek, Kim & Hove, 2010)	Negative (i.e. elicits negative emotions and sensations, is unpleasant)		N/A

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Quote (Campaign Number)
		Neutral (i.e. does not elicit any relevant sensations or emotions, is neutral)		N/A
		Positive (i.e. elicits positive emotions and sensations, is pleasant)		N/A
Extended Parallel Processing Model (Witte, Meyer & Martell, 2001)	Threat Severity (i.e. The magnitude of harm expected from a threat. The significance or seriousness of a threat. The degree of physical, psychological, or economic harm that can occur.)	Framing of the Violence	Explicit (i.e. images of victimized men with wounds, bruises and other physical repercussions)	N/A
			Implicit (i.e. identifying that violence occurs to men in general, no visual representation of violence and/or its	"We broke up 6 months ago. Why can't he just leave me alone? That's really disturbing, I think we should get some help" (#4)

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Quote (Campaign Number)
			consequences on the victims)	
	Threat Susceptibility (i.e. The likelihood that a specific person or audience will experience a threat. The degree of vulnerability, personal relevance, or risk of experiencing a threat.)			"1 in 6 men will be a victim of domestic abuse in their lifetime" (#51)
	Self-Efficacy (i.e. The degree to which the audience perceives they are able to perform the recommended response to avert the threat. Sometimes self-efficacy is called "efficacy expectations", and answers the question "what do you expect will happen if you attempt to perform a certain behavior?")			"If you are in any way worried about domestic abuse just give us a call. We are to help you" (#53)

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Quote (Campaign Number)
	Efficacy of the Recommended Response (i.e. The degree to which the recommended response effectively averts the threat. Sometimes it is called "outcome expectations", and answers the question "if you perform a certain behavior, what do you expect the outcome to be?")			"A confidential and specialised LGB&T domestic abuse service centred around you and your needs in Cardiff" (#25)
Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991)	Generate attitude and belief change (i.e. change the evaluations that viewers make on determined questions and topics related to IPV)			"Domestic Abuse, There's No Excuse" (#49)
	Generate behavior change (i.e. change behaviors, and in this sense, elicit help-seeking, information gathering, and/or other related			"Please call the ManKind Initiative's helpline and speak to our dedicated team who can provide support and information" (#47)

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Quote (Campaign Number)
	topics in IPV processes such as leaving the abusive relationship)			
	Need for change in gender roles (i.e. information that elicits critical thinking regarding what men and women are traditionally thought to be and how to behave; aims to question different forms of conditioning that may hamper the well-being of men in IPV situations)			"Domestic Abuse know no gender" (#52)
	Highlight the importance of well-being despite social norms (i.e. reinforce that despite any given social context and its associated norms regarding, the well-being of the victim is what matters most;			"Remember, if you are being abused, your are not to blame and you are not alone – help is available!" (#54)

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Quote (Campaign Number)
	confronts topics such as guilt and shame to report the victimization)			
35)Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986)	Dissonances that facilitate the dissolution of violence (i.e. highlighting the contrast between the state the victim is in with the state that he could be in if a given attitude or action is adopted; uses a gain frame approach)	Previously biased notions about violence VS up-to-date and correct information provided by the campaign		"If she hits you, this is abuse and is never acceptable. You don't have to put up with it." (#56)
		Victim status applied only to women VS violence is genderless		"Domestic violence know no gender. Be the change" (#39)
		Love VS abuse		"She puts me down every chance she gets. Know this isn't love" (#22)
		Powerlessness of the victim to act VS empowerment of the victim to act		"As a man, telling somebody that your partner is abusing you is difficult. / You might feel ashamed, embarrassed or

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Quote (Campaign Number)
				worried you'll be viewed as less of a man. / But for all victims of domestic abuse the advice is the same, you are not alone and there is help available" (#11)
	Colloquialisms (i.e. Informal reference used to describe something with an attached symbolism or meaning within a certain cultural group)			"Does that sit right with you?" (#35)
	Violence Portrayed	Masculine gender-expression victim	Different-sex relationship	N/A
			Same-sex relationship	N/A
			Relationship type / gender identity /	N/A

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Quote (Campaign Number)
			sexual orientation not specified	
		Perpetrator	Person with feminine gender expression	N/A
			Person with masculine gender expression	N/A
			Person with gender expression not specified	N/A
	People represented in the campaign	Just the victim		N/A
		Just the perpetrator		N/A
		Victim and perpetrator		N/A
	Types of emotions/situation represented on the people present in the campaign	Demonstrations of suffering (e.g. crying, laying head down)		N/A

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Quote (Campaign Number)
		Intimate (e.g. close-ups)		N/A
		Reenactment of acts of violence (e.g. slap on the face, use of knife aimed at victim)		N/A
Transtheoretical Model (Prochaska & Velicer, 1997; adapted from Cismaru & Lavack, 2010)	Pre-Contemplation (i.e. susceptibility and severity to the threat should be increased by encouraging people to recognize the signs of an abusive relationship and the consequences of being in an abusive relationship.)			"No matter what you did or what you said, it's never okay. Emotional abuse by your partner never again, no matter what! Emotional abuse is verbal abuse, constantly blaming or criticizing, humiliating, isolating from friends and family." (#12)
	Contemplation (i.e. campaigns should frame change as beneficial and increase self-efficacy, while highlighting the severity of being in			"The Brutal Truth / 40% of domestic abuse victims are male ; that's 2 of every 5 victims / 1 In 6 men will be a

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Quote (Campaign Number)
	an abusive relationship and be given confidence in their ability to make changes (higher self-efficacy.)			victim of domestic abuse in their lifetime / 1 men is killed every fortnight by a current or ex-partner/ You are not alone / Break the Silence / Report it / If you don't know what to do, get in touch and we will help you" (#51)
	Preparation (i.e. messages should communicate that people can improve their lives and that there are significant benefits in doing so. People should be told to accept the inevitable anxiety that accompanies the recognition that they might fail with their efforts. Planning small steps leading to a course of action that prepares for behavioral change is recommended)			"When she gets angry she hits me. She knows I won't hit her back. But I'm scared. I can't tell my mates. / If she hits you, this is abuse and is never acceptable. You don't have to put with it. We have specially trained officers who can help. / If you don't want to talk to the police, these organisations can also help…" (#56)

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Quote (Campaign Number)
	Action (i.e. campaigns should increase the perceived benefits associated with ending domestic violence situations. They should also increase confidence in performing the recommended behaviors, as well as overcoming the discomfort associated with change. Campaigns should also encourage people to commit to ending domestic violence.)			"Remember, if you are being abused, you are not to blame and you are not alone – help is available! Start by telling someone about the abuse, whether it is a trusted family member, friend, or health care provider. At first it might seem difficult to talk about the abuse, you will however feel relief receive much needed support" (#54)
	Maintenance (i.e. Campaigns should focus on making people feel rewarded for sustained behavior. They should be reminded of the dangers associated with their former behavior.)			"Drop in Seek help Take action Our Door Is Open / Our drop-in service helps men who are experiencing violence and abuse. /We offer a welcoming environment. We'll listen to you, support you and provide

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Quote (Campaign Number)
				information to help you safely leave the relationship. / You don't need to be referred to use our service. Simply drop in to our weekly session." (#38)

N/E – Non-existent; N/A – Non-applicable (e.g. visually represented)

Annex C.3 - Detailed overview of interrater reliability information for each code

Table C3.

Detailed overview of interrater reliability information for each code

Code Definition	Cohen's Kappa	(Lower 95% CI, Upper 95% CI)	Observed Agreement	Chance Agreement	Positive Agreement	Negative Agreement	Prevalence & Bias Adjusted Kappa	Byrt's Prevalence Index (PI)	Byrt's Bias Index (BI)	K_{max}
Campaign aimed at men in different sex relationships	1	1	1	.592	1	1	1	-.430	0	1
Campaign aimed at men in same-sex relationships	.774	(0.353 – 1.195)	.952	.789	.800	.973	.905	-.762	-.048	.774
Campaign aimed at men in relationships (not defined / no information)	.901	(0.714 - 1.089)	.952	.517	.960	.941	.905	.191	.048	.901
Campaign addressed to	.644	(0.008 – 1.280)	.952	.866	.667	.974	.905	-.857	-.048	.644

Code Definition	Cohen's Kappa	(Lower 95% CI, Upper 95% CI)	Observed Agreement	Chance Agreement	Positive Agreement	Negative Agreement	Prevalence & Bias Adjusted Kappa	Byrt's Prevalence Index (PI)	Byrt's Bias Index (BI)	K_{max}
bystanders (Friends)										
Campaign addressed to bystanders (not defined)	.351	(-0.167 – 0.868)	.857	.780	.400	.919	.714	-.762	-.143	.351
Campaign addressed to female perpetrators	0	0	.952	.952	0	.976	.905	-.452	-.048	0
Campaign aimed at perpetrators (not defined)	.774	(0.353 – 1.195)	.952	.789	.800	.973	.905	-.762	-.048	.774
Objective: To remind of the existing problem	-.050	(-0.012 - 0.019)	.905	.909	.950	0	.810	.905	0	N/A
Objective: to introduce new knowledge	.741	(0.411 – 1.071)	.905	.633	.938	.800	.810	.524	.095	.741

Code Definition	Cohen's Kappa	(Lower 95% CI, Upper 95% CI)	Observed Agreement	Chance Agreement	Positive Agreement	Negative Agreement	Prevalence & Bias Adjusted Kappa	Byrt's Prevalence Index (PI)	Byrt's Bias Index (BI)	K_{max}
Approach: Prevention	.712	(0.412 – 1.012)	.875	.503	.842	.870	.714	-.095	-.048	1
Approach: Intervention	-.050	(-0.012 – 0.019)	.905	.909	.950	0	.810	.905	0	N/A
Approach: Treatment	.859	(0.592 – 1.126)	.952	.662	.889	.970	.905	-.571	.048	.859
Inform of violence against men as a serious threat	.738	(0.395 – 1.080)	.905	.637	.938	.800	.810	.524	0	1
Inform of psychological consequences	.800	(0.542 – 1.058)	.905	.524	.923	.875	.810	.238	-.095	.800
Inform of social consequences	.809	(0.557 – 1.061)	.905	.501	.900	.909	.810	-.048	0	1
Inform of physical consequences	.901	(0.714 – 1.089)	.952	.517	.941	.960	.905	-.191	.048	.901

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Code Definition	Cohen's Kappa	(Lower 95% CI, Upper 95% CI)	Observed Agreement	Chance Agreement	Positive Agreement	Negative Agreement	Prevalence & Bias Adjusted Kappa	Byrt's Prevalence Index (PI)	Byrt's Bias Index (BI)	K_{max}
Inform of economic consequences	0	0	1	.952	0	.976	.905	.952	.048	0
Inform of legal consequences	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Inform about powerlessness to act	.806	(0.549 – 1.062)	.905	.510	.889	.917	.810	-.143	0	1
Inform of how the issue is usually private	.829	(0.508 – 1.151)	.952	.721	.857	.971	.905	-.667	-.048	.829
Inform of LGBTI stressors	0	0	.952	.952	0	.976	.905	.952	.048	0
Inform of formal support	.774	(0.353 – 1.195)	.952	.789	.973	.800	.905	.762	-.048	.774
Recommended Response	0	0	.905	.905	.950	0	.810	-.905	-.095	N/A

Code Definition	Cohen's Kappa	(Lower 95% CI, Upper 95% CI)	Observed Agreement	Chance Agreement	Positive Agreement	Negative Agreement	Prevalence & Bias Adjusted Kappa	Byrt's Prevalence Index (PI)	Byrt's Bias Index (BI)	K_{max}
Efficacy of the Recommended Response	.811	(0.566-1.056)	.905	.497	.909	.900	.810	-.048	-.010	.811
Severity of Threat	.640	(0.288 – 0.992)	.857	.603	.903	.727	.714	.476	.143	.640
Explicit Framing of Violence	.811	(0.566 – 1.056)	.905	.497	.900	.909	.810	-.048	-.095	.811
Implicit Framing of Violence	.715	(0.418 – 1.012)	.857	.499	.857	.857	.714	0	.048	.905
Self-Efficacy	.807	(0.558 – 1.057)	.905	.506	.917	.889	.810	.143	.095	.807
Susceptibility to Threat	1	1	1	.692	1	1	1	-.619	0	1
Change behavior	.691	(0.292 – 1.090)	.905	.692	.941	.750	.810	.619	0	1
Change attitudes and beliefs	.767	(0.461 – 1.073)	.905	.592	.933	.833	.810	.429	0	1

Code Definition	Cohen's Kappa	(Lower 95% CI, Upper 95% CI)	Observed Agreement	Chance Agreement	Positive Agreement	Negative Agreement	Prevalence & Bias Adjusted Kappa	Byrt's Prevalence Index (PI)	Byrt's Bias Index (BI)	K_{max}
Well-being despite social norms	.417	(-0.001 – 0.834)	.810	.674	.500	.882	.619	-.619	-.191	.417
Need to change gender roles	.829	(0.508 – 1.151)	.952	.721	.857	.971	.905	-.667	.048	.829
Diss: Powerlessness vs. Empowerment	.769	(0.473 - 1.065)	.905	.587	.933	.833	.810	.429	-.095	.769
Diss: Love vs. Abuse	1	1	1	.692	1	1	1	-.619	0	1
Diss: Violence exclusively directed at women vs violence is genderless	.488	(-0.007 – 0.983)	.857	.721	.571	.914	.714	-.667	-.048	.829
Colloquialisms	1	1	1	.501	1	1	1	-.048	0	1
Violence represented: type of	.809	(0.557 – 1.061)	.905	.501	.909	.900	.810	.048	0	1

Code Definition	Cohen's Kappa	(Lower 95% CI, Upper 95% CI)	Observed Agreement	Chance Agreement	Positive Agreement	Negative Agreement	Prevalence & Bias Adjusted Kappa	Byrt's Prevalence Index (PI)	Byrt's Bias Index (BI)	K_{max}
relationship not defined										
Violence represented: different sex relationships	.877	(0.644 – 1.110)	.952	.612	.909	.968	.905	-.048	.048	.877
Violence represented: same sex relationships	.618	(0.153 – 1.083)	.905	.751	.667	.944	.810	-.714	-.095	.618
Person represented: only the victim	.788	(0.515 – 1.061)	.905	.551	.929	.857	.810	.333	-.095	.788
Person represented: victim and perpetrator	1	1	1	.755	1	1	1	-.714	0	1
Style: Demonstration of Suffering	.798	(0.532 – 1.064)	.905	.528	.923	.875	.810	.238	0	.798

Code Definition	Cohen's Kappa	(Lower 95% CI, Upper 95% CI)	Observed Agreement	Chance Agreement	Positive Agreement	Negative Agreement	Prevalence & Bias Adjusted Kappa	Byrt's Prevalence Index (PI)	Byrt's Bias Index (BI)	K_{max}
Style: Intimate portrayal	.807	(0.558 – 1.056)	.905	.506	.889	.917	.810	-.143	-.095	.807
Style: Reenactment of violence	.462	(-0.137 – 1.060)	.905	.823	.500	.947	.810	-.810	-.095	.462

N/A – Non-applicable

ANNEX D | Men who experienced Intimate Partner Violence: Impressions about existing public campaigns and recommendations for new ones

Annex D.1 – Interview Protocol

Table D1.

Interview protocol

Main Questions	Follow-up questions
During your circumstances of violence had you ever seen / heard of IPV campaigns?	What do you remember?
	Do you remember any campaigns for men who are targets of violence?
	Who was the person portrayed as the target of violence?
	Through what channels did you have access to these campaigns?
	Did these campaigns provide a way to solve the problem presented in the campaign?
	Have these campaigns played any role in your situation of violence?
Do you feel that these campaigns result in different outcomes?	Do they translate into something objective in the targets of violence?
What do you think of each of these images?	What are the positive aspects for a man who is being targeted with violence?
	What are the negative aspects for a man who is being targeted with violence?

Main Questions	Follow-up questions
	What are the positive and negative aspects for the general public?
Do any of these campaigns recommend a recommended response to help you resolve the situation described in the campaign?	
Do any of these campaigns give you information about how effective this recommended response is in solving the problem?	
Do any of these campaigns enhance the feeling that you are capable of performing this recommended response?	
Do any of these campaigns inform you of the susceptibility to the problem portrayed?	
Do any of these campaigns inform you of the severity of the presented problem?	
Do you consider them effective in giving men who are targets of violence important information to assist them in the process of violence?	And for the general public?
What attributes would the new campaign that you would create have?	What kinf of information should it have?
	Should people be portrayed? If so, who?
	More emotional, or rational?

Main Questions	Follow-up questions
	Regarding the previously discussed topics on efficacy and risk, are there any that you think are important for men who are being targets of violence? Could you provide examples of content for these topics?

Annex D.2 – Characteristics of pictorial campaigns presented

Table D2.

Characteristics of pictorial campaigns presented

Denomination used in this study	Promoting organisation	Year of release	Multi-channel (e.g. pictorial, video, audio)	Description
"X-Ray"	APAV – Portuguese Association for Victim Support	2016	Yes, video format available	This campaign features a white background that has a presumed x-ray film on top of it. Inside this x-ray film that is deep black, at the top and centre a sentence states in blue bold font "This is the mark of a man who is a victim of domestic violence". Bellow it there's an x-ray of skull with a red spot/stain in it, close to the base of the skull. A white line points towards this red spot and presents the word "Shame". At bottom of the campaign, in the white background, a sentence states "If you recognize it,

Denomination used in this study	Promoting organisation	Year of release	Multi-channel (e.g. pictorial, video, audio)	Description
				call." Next to it the helpline logo (informing that the call is free and its working hours) as well as the logo for the promoting organisation are featured.
"Sweatshirt"	APAV – Portuguese Association for Victim Support	2018	Yes, video format available	This campaign has a grey background. At the top left corner, the logo for the entity responsible for its design is displayed. At the top centre the sentence "This sweatshirt may fit any person." Is presented in black and bold, and below it, in smaller font, the sentence "Any person can be a victim of crime or of violence. If you are a victim of crime, contact APAV. Call 116 006." Can be found. At the very centre of the image a grey sweatshirt is displayed unfolded, an on it, the word "Victim" is presented in red bold font. At the left lower end of the campaign the website, helpline logo (informing that the call is free and its working hours) as well as the logo for the promoting organisation are presented.
"Friends"	APAV – Portuguese	2016	No	Stylistically this campaign appears to be a direct shot from a camera without significant visual alterations. It portrays a "selfie" of a group of three people side by side (two men and one woman). The man on the left

Denomination used in this study	Promoting organisation	Year of release	Multi-channel (e.g. pictorial, video, audio)	Description
	Association for Victim Support			is smiling, and so is the woman who is in the middle, but the man on the right has a serious expression on his face. Additionally, this last man has a bruise on his left cheek. Each of the faces in the image are framed by a square with a corresponding name, simulating features found in social networks. The bruise in the man's face is also framed by a square but does not have a description or name. On the top left of the campaign the website of the promoting organisation is presented, and on the bottom right it indicates that "If they leave a mark on you, you know with whom you can share". This message could be interpreted as a play on words given that the Portuguese expression used to convey that you could be the target of some kind of violence (i.e. "marcam", to be the target of) is also used in Portuguese to describe mentions in social networks (i.e. tags in the English language). Below the promoting organisation logo and the helpline's logo (informing that the call is free and its working hours) are featured.

Annex D.3- Coding Taxonomy

Table D3.

Coding Taxonomy

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Definition
	Identities			Encompasses men's insights into what being a man means, how it intersects with being a "victim" or not, among other topics related to identities in this specific part of the interview. E.g. "*Victim just on its own I think it doesn't work well, because here we say, this is a mark of a man who is a victim of domestic violence, and says, who is, is the man, what was the victim, domestic violence, only victim, victim is a weak person, the idea is still that idea that the victim is weak* (…)"
Knowledge of Previous Campaigns	Beliefs about Masculinity Identities			References to general beliefs about what it means to be masculine in society, what sort of expectations are associated with it and what consequences it might have in people's lives. E.g. " (...) *we should let go of prejudice, or manage to take it away, or facilitate things a bit more, in a way that men can denounce or have the courage to, I suffer this and this* (…)".
	Beliefs about Society and Victimization			References to general beliefs about what abuse entails and identities such as victim and survivor. Perceptions about the current state of society in what concerns gender, violence, media and more. E.g. "*yes, after it was, but I always saw related to domestic violence against women, I never saw in relation to men, because as well, just like I said to [organization], the news are only focused on women, but I have never seen a news piece about a man who was killed by his wife* (…)"

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Definition
	Characterization of Previous Campaigns	Channels		References to which channels were used to convey the campaigns participants recalled. E.g. "(…) *television, outdoors on the street*"; "*I only saw not so long ago, some posters on Facebook, I think on Instagram too.*"
		Perceived Targets		References to who were the perceived targets of the campaigns participants recalled. Could be women, men, or others. E.g. "(…) *for men no, I don't really remember anything*"
		Target of Violence Portrayed	Children	This code encompasses references to children as the target of violence portrayed in the campaigns participants recalled.
			Men	References to men as the target of violence portrayed in the campaigns participants recalled.
			Women	References to women as the target of violence portrayed in the campaigns participants recalled. E.g. "(…) *women being battered and that they can denounce*"; " (…) *the man and the woman* (…) *yeah, different posters, two posters if I'm not mistaken.*".
			Other	References to other people as the target of violence portrayed in the campaigns participants recalled. E.g. "(…) *campaigns also for children and elders.*".
		Recollection and characteristics		References to recollected characteristics of the campaigns participants mention. E.g: "*No, at the time it wasn't like this, booming like it is now. Even if it were perhaps I wouldn't pay much attention*".
		Evaluation		References to positive or negative aspects of the campaigns participants recalled. E.g. "*I think that the fact that it is starting to get talked about I think it is very little...*"; "(…) *yes, facilitates. [imperceptible] to deal with the matter.*"

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Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Definition
		Recommended Response		References to the recommended response provided in the campaigns participants recalled. E.g: " (…) *it would be more the existence of a helpline, if I need anything the number is there*";
		Suggestions for Improvement		This code encompasses references to suggestions for improvement of future or existing campaigns.
	Perceived Campaign Effects	Outcomes on General population and targets of DV and IPV		References about the general impressions on the effectiveness (or lack thereof) of DV or IPV campaigns on female and male targets of violence. E.g. "(…) *at least bring it to your attention, yes* (…)"
		Outcomes on Interviewee's Abusive Process		References to how campaigns impacted the participants' own abusive process. Specific outcomes such as information about helplines can be considered. E.g. " (…) *know what I can do, know that I have a choice there, the alternative, that someone specialized exists to help*"
		Perceived Effectiveness		References to the general perceived effectiveness of the campaigns participants recalled. E.g. "(…) *men and women, I don't think so*."
Impressions on existing campaigns	Knowledge			References to general knowledge on campaigns, such as recalling their existence and other aspects related to public prevention efforts. E.g. "(…) *no, because it is [organisation], I trust there are good people there*."
	Aspects for the General Public	Negative		References to negative aspects that the campaigns may have for the general public. E.g. "(…) *indeed, it makes it seems, I think it reinforces the view that a man is strong and can defend himself if he wants to, and if he doesn't defend himself feels ashamed because of it*."

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Definition
		Positive		References to positive aspects that the campaigns may have for the general public. E.g "(…) *having awareness that this happens, for example this one with the sweatshirt that can fit any person, I say that it is generic, that it is a man or a woman*."
		Other		References to other aspects that the campaigns may have for the general public, that cannot be listed as entirely positive or negative. E.g. "*Ok, maybe this one will go like, the one with the shame, x-ray, going towards that idea that men do not denounce because they are ashamed to do so*"
	Aspects for Targets of Violence	Negative		References to negative aspects that the campaigns may have for the targets of violence. E.g. "*The first one, it makes it seem like there is no physical damage, the x-ray one*"; "*I don't see negative aspects*".
		Positive		References to positive aspects that the campaigns may have for the targets of violence. E.g. "*Having someone that is also going through this, which is destigmatizing, that I am not the only one, there are more men*".
		Other		This code encompasses references to other aspects that the campaigns may have for the targets of violence, that cannot be listed as positive or negative. E.g. " (…) *that for the person him/herself, to others, having indicators, have a sort of checklist where there are symptoms, what the person displays...*"
	Campaigns	"Friends"	Negative	References to negative aspects that the campaign that portrays three people. These references might be the result of a direct question, or general impressions provided by the participant that are considered to be negative.
			Positive	References to positive aspects that the campaign that portrays friends. These references might be the result of a direct question or general impressions provided by the participant that are considered to be positive.

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Definition
			Other	References to other aspects of the campaign that portrays three friends. These references might be general impressions provided by the participant that aren't considered to be negative or positive. E.g. "*This is a bit of marketing, that is, it is a marketing perception, I understand that here you have to send the message across to both sides, I'm not even saying...*"
		"Sweatshirt"	Negative	References to negative aspects that the campaign that portrays a sweatshirt. These references might be the result of a direct question, or general impressions provided by the participant that are considered to be negative.
			Positive	References to positive aspects that the campaign that portrays an x-ray. These references might be the result of a direct question or general impressions provided by the participant that are considered to be positive.
			Other	References to other aspects of the campaign that portrays a sweatshirt. These references might be general impressions provided by the participant that aren't considered to be negative or positive. E.g. "*The third one, the third one with the shirt of the victim, encompasses all kinds, all kinds of violence in this case, all genders, of the people who can be victims*".
		"X-Ray"	Negative	References to negative aspects that the campaign that portrays an x-ray. These references might be the result of a direct question, or general impressions provided by the participant that are considered to be negative.
			Positive	References to positive aspects that the campaign that portrays an x-ray. These references might be the result of a direct question or general impressions provided by the participant that are considered to be positive.

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Definition
			Other	References to other aspects of the campaign that portrays a x-ray. These references might be general impressions provided by the participant that aren't considered to be negative or positive.
	Extended Parallel Process Model	Threat Susceptibility		Definition: An individual's perception of the likelihood of being adversely affected by the occurrence of a threat. E.g."*I think so, I think so. Statistics and all that, they don't mean anything. People are told their mortgage is 60% and they don't care*"
		Threat Severity		Definition: An individual's perception of the seriousness or significance of a threat. E.g. "*Yes, that it is not an uncommon situation, that it has consequences, and it would be more in the sense of, ok always having the number right, but of creating more awareness for the people surrounding the victims...*"; "*I think at that time probably, the last one you said, you can do it, but now looking back I think it was more important to understand the consequences that this brings*"
		Self-Efficacy		Definition: The individual's perceived ability to perform the recommended response. E.g. "*I think so, I think because people in these phases feel that they have none of that, but at the same time it can also repel, I'm thinking, ok, I feel like crap, I feel like I can't do it nothing and they are telling me, and it depends on the message, it depends on the message that will be there*"
		Recommended Response		Definition: specific responses that could be recommended to overcome the threat. E.g. "*Yes, it is not an unusual situation, it has consequences, and it would be more in the sense of ok always the number right, but more of creating awareness for the people surrounding the victims ...*"; "*What will I gain by contacting [organization]? (…) I don't know what is going to happen, will I stop being a victim? What will I become then? What will I contact you for?*"

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Definition
		Efficacy of Recommended Response		Definition: The perceived effectiveness of the recommended response in averting the threat. E.g. "*Yes, and maybe i can call because i have a friend who is probably doing that, what should i do...*"; "*I don't care that 90% of the cases we deal with have been successful, I don't care about that, I'm interested in my case, I in particular, who is yours to contact, what will I have?*"
	LGBT			References about any LGBT related topics or subjects for this part of the interview. E.g. "*No no. I think that if a man is victimized by another man he will understand the message here.*"; "*Yes I think that they should, they should make campaigns about that, people who are homosexuals, LGBT they should do that, to allow so that other people can open a bit of...*"
	Other			References that could not be attributed to other existing codes for this portion of the interview. E.g "*[name of design company]... this cannot be done by people who did not go through this, this has to be done by people who went through this because it has to convey a feeling (...) this does not convey a feeling.*"
	Perceived Effectiveness	General Public		References to the campaign's perceived effectiveness for the general public. May include information regarding their outcomes on this population. E.g. "*Yes, this one has anyone can be a victim of crime and its seems to me more directed at empowering, but still...*"
		Targets of Violence		References to the campaign's perceived effectiveness for the targets of violence. May include information regarding their outcomes on this population.
	Person	Celebrity		References about the use of celebrities as persuasive agents in campaigns, whether in favour or against. E.g. "*Perhaps a celebrity that supports the cause...*".

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Definition
		Medic		References about the use of medics as persuasive agents in campaigns, whether in favour or against. E.g. "*Someone that works at [organisation], a psychologist, a physician*".
		Regular Person		References about the use of regular persons as persuasive agents in campaigns, whether in favour or against. E.g. "*So it could really be me here, or a friend I: ok so what kind of people should be present in these campaigns in your opinion?*; "(…) *people that I find in my daily routine.*"
		Other		References about the use of entities other than celebrities, medics or regular persons as persuasive agents in campaigns, whether in favour or against. E.g. "*Yes, or someone from [organisation], or someone from the police, or someone that effectively deals with this*".
	Type of Appeal	Emotional		References to the impressions on emotional content present or not in the campaigns. E.g. "*Yes, maybe on the side of, go more for the emotional side, I don't know if with the person that is going through this and I'm once again trying to go back to then once again...*"
	Type of Information	Isolation		References to isolation and how it may affect men who are targets of violence, and how it could play a role in campaigns. E.g. "*Yes, because that is psychological violence...*"

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Definition
		Nature and Types of Violence		References to the nature and types of violence how they could play a role in campaigns. E.g. "*Show that everyone is a victim, or that anyone could be a victim, because I think what I couldn't understand at that time, was that that was violence, that was me being a victim*"; "(…) *one day I had black eyes and I remember that I took a photo because some friends of mine were taking a photo for [social media] but we didn't even publish it because I asked them not to publish it* (…) *I took the photo, I have black eyes and I am laughing, you get it?*".
		Social Processes		References to social support, social influence and its processes, such as stigma, discrimination, considering the subjective norm, and how it could play a role in campaigns. E.g. "(…) *In that, the social support of the person, it is highlighted that this happens, this issue occurs... So that people can, so that it can open their eyes, have the consciousness of what is going on to be able to look at things and identify them.*"
	Visual Components	Captivating		References to how and which campaigns were most captivating for the participants. E.g. "*The one with the bruises, of the 'tags', yes.*"
		Color Variation		References to colour variation and its possible contribute to campaign design. E.g. "*The x-ray maybe draws more attention* (…) *it is something that we associate with cases of extreme violence, going to the hospital*".
		Image Composition		References to how the different campaigns framed the information in text and images, and other aspects such as ideas about possible articulations of these concepts. E.g. "(…) *it is a funny image, because of the way it is constructed, now I don't believe that it has an effect...*"

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Definition
		Type of text		References to text size and its variation in the campaigns. E.g. "*It's on a correct level. Yes*".
Creation of New Campaigns	Beliefs about Masculinity and Victimization			References to men's insights into what being a man means, how it intersects with being a "victim" or not, among other topics related to identities. E.g. "*Victim just on its own I don't think it works well, because here we say , this is the mark of a man victim of domestic violence, and it says, who is, the man, was victim of what, domestic violence, just victim, victim is a weak person, that's the idea that we still hold that the victim is weak...*"; "*I don't want to be part of a club (...) nobody wants to wear a sweatshirt that says victim so... it might fit any person (...) but nobody wants to use it so this doesn't make sense in my opinion (...) it is aggressive*"; "*I think a problem is created with the word victim (...) it being associated with a pejorative and an inferior thing, a victim is a person who is below [others] (...) a man will not want to be a victim*".
	Extended Parallel Process Model	Threat Susceptibility		Definition: An individual's perception of the likelihood of being adversely affected by the occurrence of a threat. E.g."*I think so, I think so. Statistics and all that, they don't mean anything. People are told their mortgage is 60% and they don't care*"
		Threat Severity		Definition: An individual's perception of the seriousness or significance of a threat. E.g. "*Yes, that it is not an uncommon situation, that it has consequences, and it would be more in the sense of, ok always having the number right, but of creating more awareness for the people surrounding the victims…*"; "*I think at that time probably, the last one you said, you can do it, but now looking back I think it was more important to understand the consequences that this brings*"

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Definition
		Self-Efficacy		Definition: The individual's perceived ability to perform the recommended response. E.g. "(…) *give power to the person to at least know where to call to help deal with the situation*."; "(…) *the empowerment to call a helpline or the empowerment to leave these situations would be really important because that's the turning point for any person that may be going through a situation like this*"
		Recommended Response		Definition: specific responses that could be recommended to overcome the threat. E.g. "*Yes, it is not an unusual situation, it has consequences, and it would be more in the sense of ok always the number right, but more of creating awareness for the people surrounding the victims ...*"; "*I think it should appear in a second moment, not appear all at once, that is, for example, there are these three or four types of violence, it appears right after contacting ...*"
		Efficacy of Recommended Response		Definition: The perceived effectiveness of the recommended response in averting the threat. E.g. "*Yes, and maybe i can call because i have a friend who is probably doing that, what should i do…*"; "*I don't care that 90% of the cases we deal with have been successful, I don't care about that, I'm interested in my case, I in particular, who is yours to contact, what will I have?*"
	LGBT			References about any LGBT related topics or subjects for this part of the interview. E.g. "*Here when I'm imagining people but with, that you could notice bodies and not necessarily Manuel or Luís...*"; "(…) *the most important is* (…) *for the campaigns to have an instructive impact and educate people that these cases exist* (…) *be it [violence] from a man to a woman, a woman to a man, a man to another man, a woman to another woman*"

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Definition
	Other			References that could not be attributed to other existing codes for this portion of the interview. E.g "*I continue to have my opinion that I will repeat again, I think we in this, should have a specialized department, be it in the police force...*"; "[*name of design company]… this cannot be done by people who did not go through this, this has to be done by people who went through this because it has to convey a feeling (…) this does not convey a feeling.*"
	Person	Celebrity		References about the use of celebrities as persuasive agents in campaigns, whether in favour or against. E.g. "*Perhaps a celebrity that supports the cause...*".
		Medic		References about the use of medics as persuasive agents in campaigns, whether in favour or against. E.g. "*Someone that works at [organisation], a psychologist, a physician*".
		Regular Person		References about the use of regular persons as persuasive agents in campaigns, whether in favour or against. E.g. "*So it could really be me here, or a friend I: ok so what kind of people should be present in these campaigns in your opinion? P: people that I find in my daily routine.*"; "(…) *testimonies, people who went through this and lost their shame, to help others*"; "(…) *it had to be an identification, (…) a person could look and identify with that character, that man, and have some empathy and think, I look like him*"
		Other		References about the use of entities other than celebrities, medics or regular persons as persuasive agents in campaigns, whether in favour or against. E.g. "*Yes, or someone from APAV, or someone from the police, or someone that effectively deals with this*".

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Definition
	Type of Appeal	Emotional		References to the impressions on emotional content present or not in the campaigns. E.g. "*Yes, maybe on the side of, go more for the emotional side, I don't know if with the person that is going through this and I'm once again trying to go back to then once again...*"
		Rational		References to the impressions on rational content present or not in the campaigns. E.g. "*Well, I like numbers right, so...*"; "*It is not something completely deprived of emotionality, but yes, informative and less emotional sure*".
		Other		References to including other kinds of content in campaigns.
	Type of Information	Isolation		References to isolation and how it may affect men who are targets of violence, and how it could play a role in campaigns. E.g. "*Yes, because that is psychological violence...*"
		Legal Components		References to the legal components involved in domestic violence/intimate partner contexts, and how it could play a role in campaigns. E.g. "S*o the person talking about going to courts and such things, I think, I think that's a step backwards*."
		Social Support, Influence and Processes		References to social support, social influence and its processes, such as stigma, discrimination, considering the subjective norm, and how it could play a role in campaigns. E.g. "(…) *in that, the social support of the person, it is highlighted that this happens, this issue occurs... So that people can, so that it can open their eyes, have the consciousness of what is going on to be able to look at things and identify them.*"

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Definition
		Types and Nature of Violence		References to the nature and types of violence how they could play a role in campaigns. E.g. "*Show that everyone is a victim, or that anyone could be a victim, because I think what I couldn't understand at that time, was that that was violence, that was me being a victim*".
	Visual Components	Color Variation		References to colour variation and its possible contribute to campaign design. E.g. "*The x-ray maybe draws more attention I: the black - P: it is something that we associate with cases of extreme violence, going to the hospital*".
		Image Composition		References to how the different campaigns framed the information in text and images, and other aspects such as ideas about possible articulations of these concepts. E.g. "... *it is a funny image, because of the way it is constructed, now I don't believe that it has an effect...*"
		Type of Text		References to text size and its variation in the campaigns. E.g. "*It's on a correct level. Yes*".
Helplines	Beliefs			References to general beliefs about helplines, their outcomes and effectiveness in aiding those who use them. E.g. "(…) *the first action will go this way, and if on the other side there is someone that empowers us to denounce, someone that properly explains, of how we should do things, maybe we will do*".
Abuse	Men's needs			References to the different needs expressed by men in their situations of abuse, or what would have helped them in retrospective. E.g. "*To me what was really necessary was talking with someone and that person at the that time recognize that the problem was valid*".

Theme	Category	Subcategory	(sub) Subcategory	Definition
	Shame			References to feelings of shame by the targets of violence, or other considerations regarding how shame played a role in their process. E.g. "*I don't know, well, I was never ashamed of what happened right, but it was something I hid because I wanted to, so...*"; "*In the first poster shame as something 'normal' in a person, in a man who is a victim of domestic violence helps to understand that it is not needed, or this feeling of shame is not that important to call that number because on the other side there will certainly be a comprehension about all this, something that already helps the person overcome that barrier to be able to call*"
	Victimhood			References to the nature and processes associated with victimhood, considering or not its adequacy in explaining the participants' experiences as they were abused. E.g. "*I don't feel like a victim just because I allowed it to happen to myself*".
	Other			References that do not fit the other categories. E.g. "(…) *I was provoked for physical violence by psychological violence.*"

Annex D.4 - Detailed overview of interrater reliability indexes for each code

Table D4.

Detailed overview of interrater reliability indexes for each code

Code Definition	Cohen's Kappa	Observed Agreement	Chance Agreement	Positive Agreement	Negative Agreement	Prevalence & Bias Adjusted Kappa	Byrt's Prevalence Index (PI)	Byrt's Bias Index (BI)
Abuse – Mens' Needs	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Abuse - Shame	1	1	.01	.01	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Abuse - Victimhood	1	1	.01	.01	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Abuse - Other	1	1	.01	.01	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Creation - Beliefs about Masculine Identities and Victimization	.67	.67	.67	.80	0	.33	-.67	.33
Creation - LGBT	.50	.50	.50	.67	0	0	-.50	.50
Creation - Other	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0

Code Definition	Cohen's Kappa	Observed Agreement	Chance Agreement	Positive Agreement	Negative Agreement	Prevalence & Bias Adjusted Kappa	Byrt's Prevalence Index (PI)	Byrt's Bias Index (BI)
Creation – EPPM Efficacy of Recommended Response	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Creation - EPPM - Recommended Response	.90	.90	.90	.95	0	.80	-.90	-.10
Creation - EPPM - Self-efficacy	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Creation – EPPM - Threat Severity	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Creation – EPPM - Threat Susceptibility	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Creation – Person - Celebrity	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0

Code Definition	Cohen's Kappa	Observed Agreement	Chance Agreement	Positive Agreement	Negative Agreement	Prevalence & Bias Adjusted Kappa	Byrt's Prevalence Index (PI)	Byrt's Bias Index (BI)
Creation – Person - Medic	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Creation – Person - Other	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Creation – Person - Regular Person	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Creation – Appeal - Emotional	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Creation - Appeal - Rational	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Creation – Info - Isolation	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Creation – Info - Legal	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0

Code Definition	Cohen's Kappa	Observed Agreement	Chance Agreement	Positive Agreement	Negative Agreement	Prevalence & Bias Adjusted Kappa	Byrt's Prevalence Index (PI)	Byrt's Bias Index (BI)
Creation – Info - Social Support	.92	.92	.92	.96	0	.83	-.92	.08
Creation – Info - Types of Violence	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Creation – Visual - Colour	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Creation – Visual - Image	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Creation – Visual - Text	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Helplines - Beliefs	.67	.67	.56	.75	.5	.33	-.33	0
Impressions – General - Negative	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0

Code Definition	Cohen's Kappa	Observed Agreement	Chance Agreement	Positive Agreement	Negative Agreement	Prevalence & Bias Adjusted Kappa	Byrt's Prevalence Index (PI)	Byrt's Bias Index (BI)
Impressions – General - Other	.83	.83	.83	.91	0	.67	-.83	.17
Impressions – General - Positive	1	1	1	1	1	N/A	-1	0
Impressions – Target - Negative	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Impressions – Target - Other	.67	.67	.67	.80	0	.33	-.67	.33
Impressions – Target - Positive	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Impressions – Friends - Negative	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Impressions – Friends - Other	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	1

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Code Definition	Cohen's Kappa	Observed Agreement	Chance Agreement	Positive Agreement	Negative Agreement	Prevalence & Bias Adjusted Kappa	Byrt's Prevalence Index (PI)	Byrt's Bias Index (BI)
Impressions – Friends - Positive	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Impressions – Sweatshirt -Negative	.92	.92	.92	.96	0	.83	-.92	.08
Impressions – Sweatshirt -Positive	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Impressions – Xray - Negative	.86	.86	.86	.92	0	.71	-.86	-.14
Impressions – Xray - Positive	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Impressions - Identities	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Impressions – EPPM - Efficacy of Response	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0

Code Definition	Cohen's Kappa	Observed Agreement	Chance Agreement	Positive Agreement	Negative Agreement	Prevalence & Bias Adjusted Kappa	Byrt's Prevalence Index (PI)	Byrt's Bias Index (BI)
Impressions – EPPM - Recommended Response	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Impressions – EPPM - Self-Efficacy	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Impressions – EPPM - Threat Severity	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Impressions – EPPM - Threat Susceptibility	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Impressions - Knowledge	1	0	0	0	0	-1	0	1
Impressions - LGBT	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Impressions - Other	.33	.33	.33	.50	0	-.33	-.33	.67
Impressions - Perceived Effectiveness - Public	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0

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Code Definition	Cohen's Kappa	Observed Agreement	Chance Agreement	Positive Agreement	Negative Agreement	Prevalence & Bias Adjusted Kappa	Byrt's Prevalence Index (PI)	Byrt's Bias Index (BI)
Impressions - Perceived Effectiveness - Target	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Impressions – Person - Celebrity	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Impressions – Person - Medic	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Impressions – Person - Other	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	1
Impressions – Person - Regular Person	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Impressions – Appeal - Emotional	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Impressions - Type of Info - Isolation	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0

Code Definition	Cohen's Kappa	Observed Agreement	Chance Agreement	Positive Agreement	Negative Agreement	Prevalence & Bias Adjusted Kappa	Byrt's Prevalence Index (PI)	Byrt's Bias Index (BI)
Impressions - Type of Info - Types of Violence	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Impressions - Type of Info - Social Processes	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Impressions – Visual - Captivating	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Impressions – Visual - Colour	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Impressions – Visual- Composition	.77	.77	.77	.87	0	.54	-.77	.23
Impressions – Visual - Text	.94	.94	.94	.97	0	.88	-.94	.06
Knowledge – Beliefs about Masculinity	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0

Code Definition	Cohen's Kappa	Observed Agreement	Chance Agreement	Positive Agreement	Negative Agreement	Prevalence & Bias Adjusted Kappa	Byrt's Prevalence Index (PI)	Byrt's Bias Index (BI)
Knowledge – Beliefs about Society	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Knowledge – Characterization - Channels	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Knowledge – Characterization – Perceived Targets	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Knowledge – Characterization - Positive	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Knowledge – Characterization - Recollection	.88	.88	.88	.93	0	.75	-.88	-.13

Code Definition	Cohen's Kappa	Observed Agreement	Chance Agreement	Positive Agreement	Negative Agreement	Prevalence & Bias Adjusted Kappa	Byrt's Prevalence Index (PI)	Byrt's Bias Index (BI)
Knowledge – Characterization – Recommended Response	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Knowledge – Characterization - Suggestions	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Knowledge - Characterization - Target - Children	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Knowledge - Characterization - Target - Men	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Knowledge - Characterization - Target - Other	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0

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Code Definition	Cohen's Kappa	Observed Agreement	Chance Agreement	Positive Agreement	Negative Agreement	Prevalence & Bias Adjusted Kappa	Byrt's Prevalence Index (PI)	Byrt's Bias Index (BI)
Knowledge - Characterization - Target - Women	1	1	1	1	N/A	N/A	-1	0
Knowledge – Campaign Effects – General Population	.89	.89	.89	.94	0	.78	-.89	.11
Knowledge - Campaign Effects - Interviewees	.86	.86	.86	.92	0	.71	-.86	.14
Knowledge - Campaign Effects - Perceived Effect	.86	.86	.86	.92	0	.71	-.86	.14

ANNEX E | Campaigns on Intimate Partner Violence: The Role of Social Norms and Health Risk Perception on Help-Seeking Behavior

Pre-test

Annex E.1 - Stimuli for the Pre-test

     All faces were obtained from a pre-tested database developed by DeBruine and Jones (2017) and are presented here under the CC BY 4.0 license which states that individuals are free to copy and redistribute the material in any medium or format, and transform them for any purpose, even commercially. To do so, credit must be attributed to its authors. Only the faces from this database were used which were superimposed on the campaign structure presented below. Image properties such as contrast, brightness and saturation were adapted to better suit the tone of the campaign.

Table E1.1

Stimuli characteristics for the Pre-test

Versions of Text	Type of information in the message (Random distribution, between-subjects)	
	Efficacy Information condition	**No Efficacy Information condition**
1	"Any man can suffer psychological, physical and/or sexual aggressions in his intimate relationship" (gender specific)	"Any man can suffer psychological, physical and/or sexual aggression in his intimate relationship"(gender specific)
	"If you are a target of violence, you are not alone! Call 800 200 400 - specialized and fair support. Free, anonymous, and confidential. 800 200 400"	"800 200 400"

Versions of Text	Type of information in the message (Random distribution, between-subjects)	
	Efficacy Information condition	**No Efficacy Information condition**
2	"1 in 3 women is subjected to psychological, physical and/or sexual violence in their intimate relationship" (gender specific) "You are not alone, you can count on us! Call 800 200 400 - specialized and fair support. Free, anonymous, and confidential. 800 200 400"	"1 in 3 women is subjected to psychological, physical and/or sexual violence in their intimate relationship" (gender specific) "800 200 400"
3	"Every year hundreds of men suffer the serious consequences of violence in an intimate relationship" (gender specific) "If you are a target of violence, we can help! Call 800 200 400 - specialized and fair support. Free, anonymous, and confidential. 800 200 400"	"Every year hundreds of men suffer the serious consequences of violence in an intimate relationship" (gender specific) "800 200 400"

Table E1.2

Visual depiction of message variation as a function of sex

	Message variations	Campaign 1	Campaign 2	Campaign 3
Message (random order of face presentation, but corresponding to the sex of the participant)	Men	Qualquer homem pode sofrer agressões psicológicas, físicas e/ou sexuais na sua relação íntima Se é alvo de violência não está sozinho! Ligue-nos para apoio especializado e justo. Linha gratuita, anónima e confidencial: ℡ 800 200 400	1 em cada 4 homens é alvo de violência psicológica, física e/ou sexual na sua relação íntima ℡ 800 200 400	Centenas de homens sofrem anualmente as consequências graves da violência numa relação íntima Se é alvo de violência, nós ajudamos! Ligue-nos para apoio especializado e justo. Linha gratuita, anónima e confidencial: ℡ 800 200 400

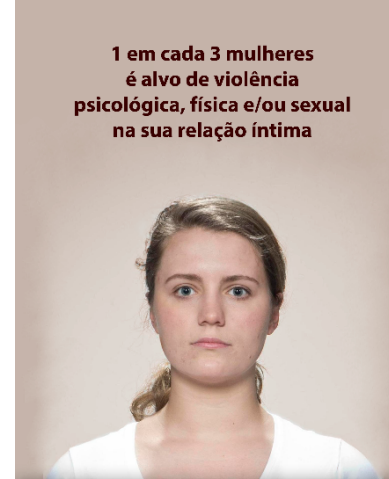| Message variations	Campaign 1	Campaign 2	Campaign 3
Women			

Table E2.

Descriptive statistics for the pre-exposure EPPM variables as a function of sex and condition

		Self-Efficacy				Efficacy of Recommended Response				Threat Susceptibility				Threat Severity				Global Discriminating Value			
		M	*SE*	F	*p*	*M*	*SE*	F	*p*	*M*	*SE*	F	p	*M*	*SE*	F	*p*	*M*	*SE*	F	*p*
Men	Efficacy	3.56	.09			3.50	.08			2.20	.09			4.21	.10			-.68	.12		
	No Efficacy	3.60	.09	.10	.750	3.28	.08	3.63	.057	2.10	.09	.62	.432	4.12	.10	.41	.521	-.68	.12	0	.996
Women	Efficacy	3.73	.07			3.26	.07			2.16	.07			4.46	.08			-.97	.10		
	No Efficacy	3.52	.07	4.64	**.032**	3.30	.07	.18	.668	1.87	.07	8.60	**.003**	4.38	.08	.49	.486	-.98	.10	0	.960

Annex E.3 – Descriptive statistics and F-tests for credibility, similarity, negativity and positivity of each face presented in the pre-test stimuli

Table E3.

Descriptive statistics and F-tests for credibility, similarity, negativity and positivity of each face presented in the pre-test stimuli

		Credibility				Similarity				Positivity				Negativity			
		M	*SE*	F	*p*	*M*	*SE*	F	*p*	*M*	*SE*	F	p	*M*	*SE*	F	*p*
Men	Face 1	2.92	.13	1.08	.342	1.84	.12	.52	.596	2.29	.13	.46	.629	2.55	.13	2.02	.135
	Face 2	3.01	.13			1.92	.12			2.24	.13			2.57	.14		
	Face 3	3.07	.13			1.83	.12			2.18	.13			2.77	.14		
Women	Face 1	3.14	.10	1.11	.33	1.87	.10	.78	.459	1.60	.09	.96	.383	3.35	.12	.21	.811
	Face 2	3.03	.10			1.93	.10			1.65	.09			3.31	.12		
	Face 3	3.09	.10			1.97	.10			1.56	.09			3.29	.12		

Annex E.4 – Summary of Means, Standard Errors, F-tests and p-values for the global discriminating values (pre-exposure subtracted to post-exposure) of all EPPM constructs as a function of Condition and Sex

Table E4.

Summary of Means, Standard Errors, F-tests and p-values for the discriminating values (pre-exposure subtracted to post-exposure) of all EPPM constructs as a function of Condition and Sex

		Self-Efficacy				Efficacy of Recommended Response				Threat Susceptibility				Threat Severity				Global Discriminating Value			
		M	*SE*	F	*p*	*M*	*SE*	F	*p*	*M*	*SE*	F	p	*M*	*SE*	F	*p*	*M*	*SE*	F	*p*
Men	Efficacy	.11	.05			-.14	.05			-.05	.06			-.21	.09			.20	.10		
	No Efficacy	.10	.05	.01	.913	-.10	.05	.46	.500	.01	.06	.41	.52	-.12	.09	.54	.46	.12	.10	.28	.598
Women	Efficacy	.13	.04			.08	.04			-.03	.05			-.02	.07			.12	.08		
	No Efficacy	.03	.04	2.73	.099	-.01	.04	2.43	.120	-.01	.05	.09	.77	-.37	.07	12.25	**<.001**	.39	.08	5.82	**.016**

Annex E.5 – Graphical depiction of pre-post exposure differences in the EPPM variables as a function of sex and condition

Table E5.

Overview of pre-post exposure differences in the EPPM variables as a function of sex and condition

	Men		Women	
	No Efficacy Condition	Efficacy Condition	No Efficacy Condition	Efficacy Condition
Self-efficacy	↑ (green)	↑ (green)	↑ (green)	↑ (green)
Efficacy of recommended response	↓ (red)	↓ (red)	↓ (red)	↑ (green)
Threat susceptibility	↑ (green)	↓ (red)	↓ (red)	↓ (red)
Threat severity	↓ (red)	↓ (red)	↓ (red)	↓ (red)
Global discriminating value	↑ (green)	↑ (green)	↑ (green)	↑ (green)

Subjective Norm Salience Experiment

Annex E.6 - Sociodemographic characteristics

Table E6.

Sociodemographic characteristics

	N	Percent
Sex		
Male	212	53.9
Female	181	46.1
Sexual Orientation		
Heterosexual	329	83.7
Gay	26	6.6
Bisexual	25	6.4
Other	7	1.8
Lesbian	6	1.5

	N	Percent
Education level		
Primary Education	14	3.6
Secundary Education	178	45.4
Bachelor's	130	33.2
Master's	63	16.1
Doctorate	7	1.8
Occupation		
Employed	204	51.9
Student	64	16.3
Unemployed	54	13.7
Working student	48	12.2
Other	23	5.9
Civil status		

	N	Percent
Married	125	31.9
Intimate relationship	114	29.1
Single	94	24
Civil union	51	13
Divorced	8	2
Relationship status		
Currently in a relationship, having been in previous ones	251	63.9
Not in a relationship, but had previous ones	80	20.4
Currently in their first relationship	62	15.8
Knowledge of Helplines for people in situations of IPV		
No	260	66.2
Yes	133	33.8
Called a helpline for people in situations of IPV		

	N	Percent			
No	374	95.2			
Yes	19	4.8			
	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Age	393	18	69	32.11	9.55
Current Relationship Duration (years and months, in percentage)	291	0.3	32	4.5	6.62
Duration of the Longest Past Relationship (years and months, in percentage)	73	0.55	17	2.08	3.25

Annex E.7 - Stimuli for the Salience of Subjective Norm experiment

All faces were obtained from a pre-tested database developed by DeBruine and Jones (2017) and are presented here under the CC BY 4.0 license which states that individuals are free to copy and redistribute the material in any medium or format, and transform them for any purpose, even commercially. To do so, credit must be attributed to its authors. Only the faces from this database were used which were superimposed on the campaign structure presented below. Image properties such as contrast, brightness and saturation were adapted to better suit the tone of the campaign.

Table E7.1

Stimuli characteristics for the Pre-test

Versions of Text	Type of information in the message (Random distribution, between-subjects)		
	High Salience	**Low Salience**	**Control**
1	"Calling a helpline is one of the most frequently used resources by men who are targets of intimate partner violence."	"Calling a helpline is one of the resources used by men who are targets of intimate partner violence."	"The consumption of vegetarian products is an alternative to meat consumption."
	"Over 12 000 calls are made annually. This number has increased 60% in the last years."	"300 calls are made annually. This number has remained constant in the last years."	"A meat-based diet produces 2 times more carbon emissions than a vegetarian diet."
	"If you are a target of violence, you are not alone! Call us for specialized and fair support. Free, anonymous, and confidential helpline. 800 200 400"	"If you are a target of violence, you are not alone! Call us for specialized and fair support. Free, anonymous, and confidential helpline. 800 200 400"	"One year of a vegetarian diet could save the amount of emission produced by driving a sedan for 6 months."

Table E7.2

Message content variation as a function of sex and condition

Condition	High Salience	Low Salience	Control
Men			

Condition	High Salience	Low Salience	Control
Women			

Annex E.8 - Descriptive statistics for the pre-exposure EPPM variables as a function of sex and having ever been victimized in an intimate relationship

Table E8.

Descriptive statistics for the pre-exposure EPPM variables as a function of sex and having ever been victimized in an intimate relationship

		Self-Efficacy				Efficacy of Recommended Response				Threat Susceptibility				Threat Severity				Global Discriminating Value			
		M	*SE*	F	*p*	*M*	*SE*	F	*p*	*M*	*SE*	F	p	*M*	*SE*	F	*p*	*M*	*SE*	F	*p*
Men	Non-victim	4.08	.10	5.76	**.017**	3.87	.11	7.02	**.008**	1.85	.12	1.43	.233	4.33	0.13	1.84	.176	-0.35	0.15	.37	.541
	Victim	3.75	.10			3.48	.10			2.04	.11			4.08	0.13			-0.47	0.14		
Women	Non-victim	4.07	.12	2.03	.155	3.68	.13	.05	.827	1.74	.14	4.73	**.03**	4.37	0.16	.28	.600	-0.50	0.18	0	.939
	Victim	3.85	.10			3.65	.10			2.14	.11			4.27	0.13			-0.51	0.14		

Annex E.9 - Pearson correlations for the study's variables

Table E9.

Pearson correlations for the study's variables

Variable	PREDV	VS	A	SN	PBC	BI	POSTDV	C	E	GDV
Pre-Exposure Discriminating Value (PREDV)	-	-.10*	.23**	.04	.34**	.01	.42**	.06	.18**	-.61**
Victimization Severity (VS)	-.10*	-	-.21**	-.04	-.22**	.05	-.30**	-.01	-.04	-.15*
Attitudes (A)	.23**	-.21**	-	.26**	.54**	.27**	.42**	.38**	.41**	.14
Subjective Norms (SN)	.05	-.04	.26**	-	.21**	.59**	.09	.19**	.26**	-.12
Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC)	.34**	-.22**	.54**	.21**	-	.31**	.47**	.31**	.26**	.09
Behavioral Intentions (BI)	.03	.05	.27**	.59**	.31**	-	-.11*	.15**	.23**	-.12*
Post-Exposure Discriminating Value (POSTDV)	.42**	-.30**	.42**	-.09	.47**	-.11	-	.24**	.26**	.47**
Credibility	.06	-.01	.38**	.19**	.31**	.15**	.24**	-	.61**	.16**
Effectiveness	.18**	-.04	.41**	.26**	.26**	.23**	.26**	.61**	-	.07

Variable	PREDV	VS	A	SN	PBC	BI	POSTDV	C	E	GDV
Global Discriminating Value	-.61**	-.15**	.14**	-.12*	-.09	-.12*	.47**	.16*	.07	-

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .001$, $n=387$.

Annex E.10 - Descriptive statistics for the TPB constructs, perceived credibility and effectiveness as a function of sex and having ever been victimized in an intimate relationship

Table E10.

Descriptive statistics for the TPB constructs perceived credibility and effectiveness as a function of sex and having ever been victimized in an intimate relationship

			Attitudes		Subjective Norms		Perceived Behavioral Control		Behavioral Intentions		Credibility		Effectiveness	
			M	*SE*	*M*	*SE*	*M*	*SE*	*M*	*SE*	*M*	*SE*	*M*	*SE*
Control	Men	Non-victim	5.97	.21	3.47	.37	5.90	.25	3.00	.36	3.76	.19	2.86	.19
		Victim	5.89	.19	3.44	.35	5.64	.23	3.33	.34	3.73	.18	3.00	.18
	Women	Non-victim	6.09	.27	3.06	.48	6.09	.33	3.26	.48	3.35	.25	3.12	.25
		Victim	6.49	.18	3.43	.31	5.99	.21	3.59	.31	3.90	.16	3.22	.16
Low Salience Norms	Men	Non-victim	6.35	.19	3.59	.34	6.38	.23	3.73	.34	4.26	.18	3.70	.18
		Victim	6.15	.17	3.79	.31	5.67	.21	3.80	.31	4.27	.16	3.68	.16

| | | | Attitudes | | Subjective Norms | | Perceived Behavioral Control | | Behavioral Intentions | | Credibility | | Effectiveness | |
			M	SE	M	SE	M	SE	M	SE	M	SE	M	SE
High Salience Norms	Women	Non-victim	6.68	.21	3.32	.38	6.52	.25	3.50	.37	4.14	.19	3.75	.19
		Victim	6.09	.19	3.06	.34	5.79	.23	3.26	.34	4.33	.18	3.82	.17
	Men	Non-victim	6.44	.18	3.59	.32	6.33	.22	3.95	.31	3.97	.16	3.69	.16
		Victim	6.29	.19	2.89	.33	5.85	.22	2.96	.33	3.97	.17	3.61	.17
	Women	Non-victim	6.76	.22	4.58	.40	6.26	.27	3.92	.39	4.60	.21	4.04	.20
		Victim	6.19	.18	3.39	.33	5.82	.22	3.45	.32	4.03	.17	3.59	.17

Annex E.11 - Summary of Means, Standard Errors, F-tests and p-values for the global discriminating values (pre-exposure subtracted to post-exposure) of all EPPM constructs as a function of condition, sex and victimization status

Table E11.

Summary of Means, Standard Errors, F-tests and p-values for the global discriminating values (pre-exposure subtracted to post-exposure) of all EPPM constructs as a function of Condition, Sex and Victimization Status

| | | | Self-Efficacy | | | | Efficacy of Recommended Response | | | | Threat Susceptibility | | | | Threat Severity | | | | Global Discriminating Value | | | |
			M	SE	F	p	M	SE	F	p	M	SE	F	p	M	SE	F	p	M	SE	F	p
Control	Men	Non-victim	.13	.10	.01	.932	-.11	.13	.09	.762	.20	.15	1.17	.281	.17	.23	3.43	.065	1.58	.28	.14	.71
		Victim	.11	.10			-.06	.12			-.03	.14			-.41	.22			1.72	.27		

			Self-Efficacy				Efficacy of Recommended Response				Threat Susceptibility				Threat Severity				Global Discriminating Value			
		Non-victim	.10	.13			-.31	.16			-.20	.20			.12	.30			1.73	.37		
	Women				.03	.88			2.15	.143			.87	.352			.01	.924			0	.99
		Victim	.12	.09			-.03	.11			.02	.13			.08	.20			1.73	.25		
		Non-victim	.17	.10			-.03	.12			.12	.15			.45	.22			1.75	.27		
	Men				2.08	.15			1.36	.245			.96	.327			4.60	**.033**			.37	.54
		Victim	.36	.08			.15	.11			-.07	.13			-.17	.19			1.97	.24		
Low Salience Norms		Non-victim	.10	.10			.39	.13			.07	.15			.21	.23			2.24	.29		
	Women				.01	.917			6.28	**.013**			1.82	.179			.61	.44			.81	.37
		Victim	.08	.09			-.04	.12			-.21	.14			-.03	.21			1.89	.26		
		Non-victim	.11	.09			.03	.11			.15	.13			.08	.20			1.90	.24		
	Men				.02	.882			.44	.506			1.13	.289			1.97	.16			1.85	.18
		Victim	.13	.09			.13	.11			-.06	.14			.47	.20			1.43	.25		
High Salience Norms		Non-victim	.39	.11			.15	.14			.01	.16			-.36	.24			2.35	.30		
	Women				.59	.444			0	.965			.08	.776			2.47	.12			3.08	.08
		Victim	.28	.09			.14	.11			.07	.14			.14	.20			1.66	.25		

Annex E.12 - Graphical depiction of global discriminating values in the EPPM variables as a function of sex, condition, and victimization

Table E12.1

Overview of pre-post exposure differences in the EPPM variables as a function of condition and victimization in men

	Control		Low Salience		High Salience	
	Non-Victim	Victim	Non-Victim	Victim	Non-Victim	Victim
Self-efficacy	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑
Efficacy of recommended response	↓	↑	↓	↑	↑	↑
Threat susceptibility	↑	↓	↑	↓	↑	↓
Threat severity	↑	↓	↑	↓	↑	↑

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Global discriminatory point	⬆	⬆	⬆	⬆	⬆	⬆

Table E12.2

Overview of pre-post exposure differences in the EPPM variables as a function of condition and victimization in women

	Control		Low Salience		High Salience	
	Non-Victim	Victim	Non-Victim	Victim	Non-Victim	Victim
Self-efficacy	⬆	⬆	⬆	⬆	⬆	⬆
Efficacy of recommended response	⬇	⬇	⬆	⬇	⬆	⬆
Threat susceptibility	⬇	⬆	⬆	⬇	⬆	⬆

Threat severity	⬆	⬆	⬆	⬇	⬇	⬆
Global discriminatory point	⬆	⬆	⬆	⬆	⬆	⬆

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EDUCATION

- **PhD in Social Psychology**
  ISCTE-IUL, Portugal
  2017- expected 2023

- **Master's in Social and Organizational Psychology**
  ISCTE-IUL, Portugal
  2013-2015

- **Bachelor's in Psychology**
  ISCTE-IUL, Portugal
  2010-2013

TRAINING

- **Gender & Diversity Summer School**
  Radbound University, The Netherlands
  2018

- **Intimate Partner Violence**
  University of Minho, Portugal
  2018

OTHER ROLES

- **Teaching Assistant**
  CIS-IUL/ISCTE-IUL, Portugal
  2016-2017
- **PhD Students' Representative**
  CIS-IUL/ISCTE-IUL, Portugal
  2019-2020
- **Support to Supervision of Dissertations**
  CIS-IUL/ISCTE-IUL, Portugal
  2019-2020
- **Member at the Portuguese Psychologists Association, Portugal**
  2016-2017

EDUARDO REIS

OBJECTIVE

I am a highly adaptable team player with in-depth experience in gender-based violence, LGBTQ+ topics, project management, and attitude/behavior change. I have worked on cross-cultural initiatives in Subsaharan Africa, and am proficient in quantitative and qualitative research methods (e.g. SPSS, NVivo). I am interested in research for the development and evaluation of solutions for societal change.

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ROLES

Project Manager
APPDI | Lisbon | Mar 2022 - present

- Management and implementation of the project "Divers@s e Ativ@s", via the collaborative development of transformational resources for stakeholders
- Co-development of European Union-wide tools and solutions for Diversity and Inclusion with stakeholders from 25 countries as part of the European Commission's workgroups
- Recruitment and selection of HR

Intern at the Education for Health and Well-being Sector
UNESCO Dakar | Lisbon | Jun 2021 - Dec 2021

- Supported the implementation of projects to address HIV and SRGBV through comprehensive sexuality education (CSE)
- Developed a theoretical model that explains help-seeking in school-related gender-based violence (SRGBV)
- Produced content about masculinities and health for Hello Ado, an app available in 10 countries in Sub-Saharan Africa

Consultant at the Social Food Enterprise Programme (in partnership with EIT Food - co-funded by the EU)
Bios | Lisbon | Oct 2021 - Dec 2021

- Consulted as part of the team, integrating a psychodynamic approach with applied systemic team outcomes
- Advised on system and individual level role take-up, providing approaches for the improvement of team synergies

English Teacher at Shape Colombia social initiative
AIESEC | Bogota | Jan 2016 - Jun 2016

- Lectured to over 250 students every week
- Prepared classes and interactive content about emerging societal issues
- Coordinated and implemented a complementary cultural agenda with events

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LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

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Reis, E., Moleiro, C. & Arriaga, P. Intimate Partner Violence Directed at Men: Experiences of Violence, Help-seeking, and Potential Gender Role Conflict Among Portuguese Men. Sexuality & Culture (2023). DOI:10.1007/s12119-023-10108-9

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 DOI: 10.1037/cfp0000227

Fernandes, M., **Reis, E.**, & Moleiro, C. (2021). Conflict between religious/spiritual and LGB identities in Portugal: How is it related to coming out experiences, LGB identity dimensions, and well-being?. Psychology of Religion and Spirituality. DOI:10.1037/rel0000455

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