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Domestic Violence Against Men: Their Report Decision Making Process

A thesis

presented to

the faculty of the Department of Criminal Justice & Criminology

East Tennessee State University

In partial fulfillment

of the requirements for the degree

Master of Arts in Criminal Justice & Criminology

by

Ngozi Tracy Aleke

December 2022

Nicole Prior, Ph.D., Chair

Dustin Osborne, Ph.D.

Chris Rush, Ph.D.

Keywords: domestic violence, decision to report, intimate partner violence, male victimization

ABSTRACT

Domestic Violence Against Men: Their Report Decision Making Process

by

Ngozi Tracy Aleke

Little or nothing is really known about a man's victimization in a domestic violence situation. Generally domestic violence is viewed from the lens of a women with the typical idea that women are the victim while men, the perpetrators of violence. Overtime, this societal perception is beginning to subside as researchers have proven that men are also victims of domestic violence (Straus, Gelles, & Steinmetz, 1980). Despite this revelation, not much is known about male victimization as most men prefer not to report their victimization. This study seeks to examine the reasons for not reporting victimization and the effect of this decision on men. The study does so by employing a cross sectional research carried out in 1994-1996, that was designed to assess the prevalence and impact of violence and threat of violence on women and men across the United States.

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DEDICATION

To my siblings Elizabeth and John who though I barely knew, have had a lasting impact in my life. It's been 20 years, but the memories we created live on.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank God almighty for his love and grace towards me throughout the period of my program, on those days I tell myself this is not for me, I remember his promises towards me. Also, a big thank you to my amazing super mum, Mrs. Gloria Akande who has been my backbone all these years, for all her love and care towards me, her constant support and for allowing me pursue my dreams. To my siblings, family and friends for their support and encouragement, always seeing the best in me, encouraging, and making me understand that I just need to take one step at a time, I am entirely grateful. My appreciation also goes to my thesis chair, Dr. Prior, for all the guidance and help in making this study a success, Dr. Osborne, for always believing in me and reassuring me that I can do anything I set my mind on, Dr Rush, for her support and encouragement, my graduate coordinator, Dr. Brad, for always giving a listening ear to all my questions, the entire Criminal Justice and Criminology faculty for making the department the best place to be on campus.

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Chapter 1. Introduction

The image of domestic violence (DV) or intimate partner violence (IPV) portrayed in the minds of many would ordinarily involve violence committed against a woman; few people understand domestic violence from the perspective of male victims. What is not often understood by the public is that men are casualties of DV and IPV at approximately equal rates as women (Adebayo, 2014; NIJ, 2007). However, the reporting figures for each gender differs greatly (Straus, 2010). Generally, under reporting of DV is almost universal across age groups, gender, and social economic status (Concannon, 2013; Strong et al., 2010; Watts & Zimmermann, 2002). Nevertheless, this becomes more significant if a man is the victim of abuse (Brown, 2004; Stets and Straus, 1992). According to the United States National Coalition Against Domestic Violence (2014), one in four men has experienced some forms of physical violence by an intimate partner at one point in their lifetime through behaviors ranging from slapping, shoving, or pushing. Often these behaviors may not even be termed domestic violence by both the victim and the perpetrator (Morgan & Wells, 2016). Additionally, one in nine men undergo a severe physical violence or injury caused by an intimate partner (CDC, 2010).

In this study, factors associated with reporting domestic violence carried out against men would be explored, why this type of violence is often not reported and, if reported, to whom the victim would report the offence, a law enforcement agent, psychologist, or a family member. The topic of underreporting domestic violence against a man has received limited to no research interest. A preliminary analysis of prior literature related to the topic reveals that male victims of domestic abuse deemed their experience of IPV as unmanly (Morgan & Wells, 2016), and as such, would rather remain in the abusive relationship in a bid to uphold the stereotypical masculinity with which they are associated (Eckstein, 2010). The different attributes and

qualities of each gender, such as the stereotypical submissive nature of women and the domineering nature of men, also impact the willingness of a victim to report abuse that has been carried out against them (Smith, 2011). Also, the threat, or stigma, that accompanies victimization in IPV (Dutton, 1992) that causes fear and shame decreases the willingness of victims to seek help. However, no study has quantitatively looked at the actual reason(s) victims give for not reporting their victimization to either law enforcement, a mental health practitioner, or even family. This void has created a research gap in the knowledge of the system surrounding the decision-making process of a male victim of IPV. The premise of this thesis is focused on the reasons a male IPV victim would not report their victimization despite the impact of the perpetrator's actions to their physical, emotional, and mental health.

The broad aim of this research is to shift attention to an aspect of IPV that is often either neglected or assumed by many to not exist. Domestic violence perpetrated against men is one of the most controversial issues in family violence as the magnitude and the extent to which a significant assault committed against a male victim is usually unknown (Muelleman & Patricia, 1998). This is mostly because the majority of the evidence of male victimization often comes from self-report surveys or homicide data (Muelleman & Patricia, 1998). Despite the statistics presented in these data the *whole picture* is not perceptible, as many male victims do not prefer to reveal or discuss their victimization and it is only exposed after their death and at times not even then.

As earlier noted, the issue of masculinity also plays a significant role in society's perception of male DV victims. In this study, the researcher argues that DV against male victims does exist and that the known statistical data that portray the contrary cannot be relied on; men do not report their victimization because most would rather endure on grounds that society will

not believe them when a report is made. Some believe that they could get in trouble because it is often assumed that a man is always the perpetrator of an IPV case and the woman may have acted based on self-defense, or that they should be able to handle their victimizer by themselves. For others, it is mostly the stigma that comes with being a victim that worries them the most (Arnocky & Vaillancourt, 2014). These reasons relate to the ideology behind male masculinity and how most men tend to uphold this idea of masculinity even in the face of adversity.

What Is Domestic Violence Viz – a - Viz Intimate Partner Violence

This study focuses mainly on the tolerance of domestic abuse by male victims, a full understanding of the study cannot be reached if the clear meaning of domestic violence and intimate partner violence is not explained. According to the World Health Organization (2005), DV is defined as a pattern of behavior a perpetrator exhibits to maintain control and exact power over an intimate partner with whom they are in a dating or family relationship. These behaviors can be mental, physical, economical, or sexual in nature. On the other hand, The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC, 2020) similarly describes Intimate Partner Violence, IPV, as physical or sexual violence, or psychological harm carried out by a current or former partner. Taken at face value, there is an overlap between the two concepts; however, they are distinguishable.

Cronholm et al. (2011) define domestic violence as an assaultive and coercive pattern of behaviors that may include physical injury, psychological abuse, sexual assault, enforced social isolation, stalking, deprivation, intimidation, and threats. Additionally, the authors further defined Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) to be a form of domestic violence. According to them, IPV is a type of domestic violence where the perpetrator of the violence is, was, or wishes to be in an intimate or dating relationship with the adult or adolescent victim (Cronholm et al., 2011).

From this latter definition, it is safe to say that DV and IPV are similar in nature as both are forms of willful violence against another person (known). DV, however, covers a border scope. While IPV can only be carried out between intimate partners (spouse and dating partners), DV extends to family relations.

Despite the difference in both concepts of DV and IPV, the central theme in both is intimacy and abuse that is evident in the pattern of behaviors exhibited by the perpetrator (Adebayo, 2014). Therefore, DV and IPV are both a mix of physical and coercive behavior that is designed to manipulate and subdue the behavior of another competent adult or an adolescent in a bid for them to behave in a way prescribed by the abuser (Kerr et al., 2007). Victims experience consequences including physical bodily injuries, and sometimes even mental health problems. Aside from the immediate impact experienced by victims of DV and IPV, there are lifelong effects, such as depression and low self-esteem, a victim undergoes even when their attackers are no longer with them (Breiding et al., 2015). Beyond the consequence of injury and possible death that a victim may face, studies have also shown that victims of DV/IPV are more likely to report a variety of negative mental and psychological health challenges that are both chronic and acute in nature. These diseases sometimes include hypertension, alcohol and substance abuse, and even sexually transmitted diseases like HIV and AIDS (Black, 2011; Breiding et al., 2005).

Gender Symmetry

Until the 1970s, IPV was primarily viewed as an abuse committed by men against women. The acknowledgment of male abuse by women (Straus, 1976), or abuse by same sex partners in a marital or cohabiting relationship (Cruz, 2003) did not emerge until recently. Empirical investigation into the symmetry of offenders and victims of intimate partner violence

gained prominence following the 1975 National Family Violence Survey, carried out by Murray A. Straus and Richard J. Gelles on a nationally representative sample of 2,146 intact families, that subsequently revealed that the perpetration rate of assault committed by men against their female partners was 12% and those committed by women against their male partners to be 11.6%. Despite the similarity in these two rates, with only an 0.4% difference, society customarily only sympathizes with a battered woman while disregarding abuse committed against a man. The study also showed that the rate of serious physical assault such as kicking, punching, choking, and attacks with objects was also committed about the same rate for men and women: 3.8% by men and 4.6% by women respectively. This revelation has been met with great criticism from various groups.

The acceptance of male victimization was not beneficial for those who wanted to use the perpetration of domestic violence by men as a lever to reduce patriarchal power or terrorism in the society. Patriarchal terrorism, according to Johnson (1995), is a product of patriarchal tradition of men's right to control women through the systematic use of violent force, threats, isolations, and other control techniques. This view is lacking validity as gender in marriages or domestic relationships is no longer restrictive to the traditional female and male pairing. A broader definition of marriage or dating relationship would include partners within both heterosexual and non-heterosexual relationship. Therefore, the power and control attributed to men would not apply in a homosexual or non-traditional relationship. On the other hand, men who wanted to uphold the patriarchal power also frown at the findings of the 1975 survey, as society see an abused man as a weakling and a shame to manhood. Accepting an occurrence of male victimization for this set of men would mean relinquishing their masculinity.

Steinmetz (1978), in her famous “The battered husband syndrome,” concluded that men’s abuse is not an unknown or uncommon phenomenon, but an example of a selective inattention. According to Steinmetz, this type of domestic violence is a shared experience among most men, yet it is a social custom that is strictly prohibited or forbidden from being discussed. Upon speaking up about domestic violence, a man is often stigmatized and shamed for allowing himself to be a victim. For example, in ancient France, a charivari parade was staged against any man who allows his wife to beat him. Such a man was made to wear an outlandish outfit, and ride backwards on a donkey while holding its tail around the village. Similar customs played out in Britain, where battered husbands were strapped to carts and marched disgracefully through a booing crowd. Even though the husband beater was also punished in an almost similar way, the shame and stigma associated for a man admitting victimization made this type of offense unpopular (Steinmetz, 1978).

Straus (2010) established claims against many feminist movements, stating that domestic violence was not an instrument of patriarchal control nor was it a gender-based crime, as stated in the Violence Against Women’s Act, but that it is a crime that a disturbed man or woman can commit against their partner at a roughly equal rate. Straus further opined that injuries against a woman are only more visible because of the physical strength and energy of men. In other words, a woman may conduct and initiate violence as often as a man; however, a man would do more physical damage than a woman.

Forms of Domestic Violence

According to the Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC, 2014), domestic violence and intimate partner violence can be carried out in various forms. Behaviors including physical violence, stalking, sexual violence, psychological aggression, or manipulation are

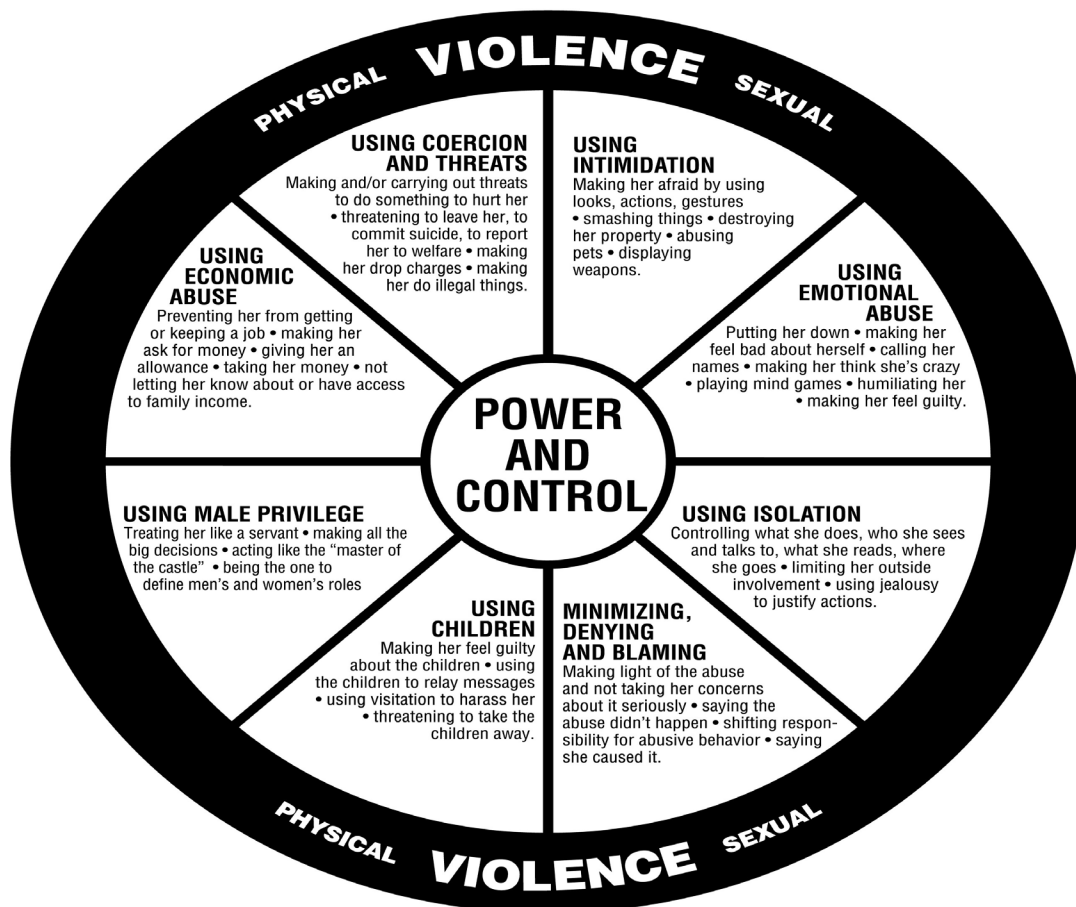
classified as forms of DV and IPV. Physical assault, conceivably the most distinguished form of intimate partner violence, is when a person hurts or tries to hurt a partner by hitting, kicking, strangulation, refusing medical care to the victim, controlling their medication, or by using any other means of physical force to compel the victim to submission. Another form of IPV is sexual violence. For a perpetrator, it is not necessarily about the sexual pleasure they derive from the victim, but the power and control they have over the victim. This violence can occur by the perpetrator forcing or attempting to force a partner to take part in a sexual act or behavior without their consent. Acts such as forcing a partner to have sex with either the perpetrator or other people, hurting their partner physically during sex, sabotaging birth control or coercing a partner to have sex without protection, sexual touching without the partner's consent, or even known physical events such as sexting when the partner does not consent to it (CDC, 2014).

Intimate partner violence can also take the form of stalking. The relationship between stalking and IPV cannot be overemphasized, as the lion share of the total number of stalking cases are perpetrated by intimate partners (Mohandie et al., 2006; Roberts & Dziegielewski, 2006; Tjaden, & Thoennes, 1998). Stalking is often an indicator or prelude to other forms of violence and perpetrators use it to control and intimidate their victims (Roberts, & Dziegielewski, 2006). Stalking includes behaviors such as unwanted contacts or attention that causes fear or concerns for the safety of the victim or someone close to them. Stalking can sometime result to psychological abuse which is another form of IPV that is often difficult to identify because of its unique nature. When in use, the perpetrator uses verbal and/or non-verbal communication with the intention to hurt their victim mentally, emotionally, and ultimately to exercise control over the victim. Behaviors such as name calling, insult, blames, humiliation, and isolation are some of the characteristics a perpetrator would exhibit.

Physical and sexual assault or threat of such victimization against a person, are often the most common forms of domestic violence. These forms of violence are also usually the actions that makes others aware of the problems. However, a larger system of abuse is created and maintained when a constant use of other abusive behaviors that may not be physical or visible by the abuser is reinforced by an act of physical violence. The fear of future occurrence of a violent attack often brings the victim to conformity and this allows an abuser to take control of the victim's life. The power and control wheel is a tool that provide an in-depth understanding of the overall pattern on how the abuser carry out their violent and abusive behavior in order to instill and maintain control over their victim see below.

Figure 1

Power and Control Wheel



Statement of the Problem

The danger of intimate partner violence against men is a phenomenon that occurs globally in both developed and underdeveloped societies. This problem is strengthened by both law and cultural values that encourage men to always be the bigger person in relationships. Phrases such as “suck it up”, “men don’t cry”, and “you are a man” have allowed most men to remain in abusive relationships with some even ending in death. While resources, such as psychological help and shelters, are available to women who face violence, men are rarely or never availed such resources (Tsui et al., 2010). For example, the New York Post on October 29, 2017, reported that a Dallas group had opened what was believed to be the second shelter in the United States exclusively for men with the first being Valley Oasis in Lancaster California which was opened in 2015.

Though this development may have created a sense of relief for some men, the fact that this progress came four decades after the report showing that rates of abuse towards men are comparable to that against women (Steinmetz, 1978) is quite disturbing. This study does not discredit the fact that there were and still are shelters that accommodate both genders. However, when questions on why men do not report victimizations are raised, these are some of the mediating factors to look out for, such as the fact that a man likely does not want to be considered a coward for allowing his wife or partner beat or abuse him and therefore, he may not allow himself seek solace in a facility that houses both genders.

Goal of the Study

The primary aim of this study is to identify and explain the factors that affect the decision-making process of an abused man in disclosing his victimization in order create a safe

place for male victims to report their abuse, create programs that support male victims, and to educate society about male victims of DV/IPV.

Identifying these factors would expand the scope of the literature on the underreporting of abuse directed at male victims of IPV. The researcher's intention for this study is to contribute to the existing knowledge on the impact of the trauma male victims of domestic violence face and how they are resilient in their plight by displaying a façade that is different from what they feel or what they have been through because of their victimization.

Chapter Summary

This chapter sought to give a basic understanding of domestic violence against men by defining the offense in general, narrowing it down to its peculiarity with regards to men, the stigma associated with male victimization, as well as how it impacts reporting.

The following chapter will discuss the relevant literature relating to the stigmatization of male victims of IPV as well as the decision to report an abuse or not. The chapter will also review how men perceive crime in general and what they term to be violent crime. The chapter will also discuss the various forms of domestic violence. This is necessary to give a better understanding of why most abused men tolerate their abuses. Chapter three will discuss the methodology of the current study, including the discussion of data sources and statistical analysis. Chapter four will summarize the results of the analysis while chapter five will provide a discussion of the findings as they relate to the hypotheses.

Chapter 2. Review of Literature

As stated in the previous chapter, the literature about DV/IPV against men is particularly underdeveloped (Corbally, 2015; Chynoweth et al., 2017; Steinmetz 1977-1978; Thobejane & Luthada, 2019). Meanwhile, issues concerning domestic violence in the United States and across the world are often met with various quotes of statistics given by the World Health Organization and National Coalition Against Domestic Violence among other agencies. These figures tend to have the central focus on women as the primary victims and men as the abusers (Ruth, 2012). However, various surveys and literatures on the subject has shown that men are almost as abused as women (Allen-Collinson, 2009; Douglas & Hines, 2011; Fiebert, 2014; Straus & Gelles 1975), and in some cases even more (Archer, 2002; Cook, 1997; Dutton, 2007; Morse, 1995; Straus, 2006; Straus, 1997). This later finding however, have been strongly criticized by researchers such as Pagelow (1985) and Kimmel (2002). Continuous disregards of domestic violence perpetrated against men may result to an irreversible breakdown in the society. This chapter would look at the various theories that have been used to explain domestic violence as well as review literature findings from various researchers on the prevalence of the forms of domestic violence against men, and what influences male victim's reporting decision making.

Theoretical Framework

Researchers have tried to explain the concept of the commission of DV/IPV by theorizing why the offenses are committed. For example, some researchers believe that DV/IPV happen because of the socioeconomic inequality within the society (Hogan, 2016; Jekwe, 2002), others believe that DV/IPV is the channel men use to subdue the behavior of others while they exhibit power and control over that person (Straton, 1994). This chapter is dedicated to looking at

previous literatures that have analyzed the prevalence and reporting decisions of male DV/IPV victims. However, before delving further into this, it is imperative to first discuss some theories that would better help understand the concept of DV/IPV. With the admission of DV/IPV being a gender-neutral violence (Eckstein 2010; Johnson, 2005; Morgan & Wells, 2016; Straus 1990), that is, both genders are almost as equally abused (Straus & Gelles, 1975; Steinmetz, 1978; Tsui et al., 2010), different theories have been used to explain the cause(s) of family violence.

Theories such as socioeconomics, feminism, individual and background/situational theories have been applied by various researchers in order to give a good understanding on its prevalence and ways to mitigate or even eradicate the offense. Gaining knowledge on the sociological theories of domestic violence would help victims, law enforcement agency and ultimately the public know when to intervene in a brewing violent situation. For instance, creating more jobs and opportunities for victims might help them advance their socioeconomic status, sensitizing the society on the need to jettison gendered prescribed roles but to carry on their duties based on what both parties have agreed upon, might also help curb the power and control theory as proscribed by the feminist groups.

Furthermore, information from the individual theories would create an enlightenment on when an individual ought to remove themselves from a situation for it not to degenerate into becoming a DV/IPV case. For example, the theory of social learning would aid parents to become informed with regards to the impact of their actions on their children, armed with this information, most parents may be wary before becoming violent when children are around and even if that is the case, the Criminal Justice System may become more proactive in removing children from violent environments. Finally, the behavioral and situational theory would give an in-depth knowledge on how people can involve themselves in DV/IPV based on their

background and the situation they find themselves. This information would encourage victims to make informed decisions when they find themselves in such situations.

Sociological Theories of Domestic Violence / Intimate Partner Violence

This theory seeks to explain DV/IPV as a function of the social structure of the society rather than from an individual perspective. For example, the socioeconomic theory explains DV/IPV as a manifestation of dispute and conflicts within the family that can only be explained by examining the subcultures that contribute to violence (Wolfgang and Farracuti, 1967) within the society. This theory also believe that the occurrence of violence is sparsely distributed among groups within the social structure, that is, violence is more concentrated in poor urban areas than in area where there are more economic resources. This goes to explain that violence is majorly associated with an individual's standing in the society.

Feminist group theorize, gender to be the primary component of family violence.

Proponent of this theory are of the opinion that DV/IPV is an expression of power and control by men over women in order to dominate the female gender (Lawson, 2013)

Socioeconomic Theories

An individual's standing in the society is often measured by their economic and sociological achievement. These accomplishments could include their work experience, the social or economic position they hold in the society. This sometimes, is due to the kind of influence they have on others based on their income, occupation, or popularity, among other things. Beside the influence and economic standing possessed by these individuals, they are less at risk of victimization in the society (Hogan, 2016). The socioeconomic status of an individual greatly influences their risk of victimization, as those with lesser status are more prone to becoming victims (Hogan, 2016). This assertion supports Hoffman, Demo, & Edwards, (1994)

and Hotaling & Sugarman (1986) arguments that lower economic status is significantly linked to a high risk of victimization. For example, abusers are more inclined to target a victim who they know are less likely to report their victimization, victims with low socioeconomic status are probably not going to report a crime committed against them because of their access to fewer resources and the fact that they already face a social and economic hardship, this makes the risk of victimization and repeat victimization and/or multi victimization very high for those sets of individuals. While DV/IPV can be perpetrated against anyone, not minding their socioeconomic status, many studies have shown that both perpetrators of IPV and their victims are more likely to come from a disadvantaged background (Breiding et al., 2008; Coker & Davis, 2002; Gunradi et al., 2002) making socioeconomic status a high-risk factor for domestic violence (Kyriacou et al., 1999). In like manner, Centerwall (1995) in trying to see if there was a relationship between race, socioeconomic status and DV, conducted a study involving families who had experience DV in New Orleans. The researcher aimed to replicating or not to replicate as the case may be an earlier study carried out in Atlanta Georgia that sought to understand the effect of race (Whites and Blacks) and socioeconomic status on the rate of domestic homicide among families in the city, at the end of the study, findings revealed that race and cultural differences did not play a role in domestic homicides in both cities, however, the socioeconomic difference among the families was the major predictor of these homicides.

According to Jewkes (2002), poverty and low financial income often drive family members to fight over the family's income and how it should be distributed, this conflict may sometimes lead to a violent outcome, which results to domestic abuse. This type of family conflict sometimes can be both physical, emotional, and psychological. Behaviors such as

resentments, name calling, or refusal of sex may develop into emotional abuse, psychological abuse, or even sexual abuse.

Antai (2011) argued that financial freedom or independence does not provide protection from violence. This later claim was based on a study the author conducted on Nigerian women who were victims of domestic violence. It was found that women who were more financially independent than their partner were more likely to be physically and sexually abused. Similar result was found by Burazeri et al. (2005), where they found that more empowered women were at a higher risk of victimization depending on their setting. This means that the environment and setting the parties live in (victim and perpetrator) plays a crucial role on whether violence and abuse will occur. For example, a couple that live in an environment where the act of family violence is acceptable may be involved in the act whether or not they are financially independent.

Feminism

The argument of this perspective is that domestic violence is closely related to gender and power inequality between opposite sexes in a relationship. The theory is based on the societal messages that supports a man's use of violence and force throughout their lifespan, and the required roles such as the man's exhibition of control over his family and the woman's unequivocal submission to the man which is expected from both gender when in an intimate relationship (Pence & Paymar, 1993). Dutton et al. (2010) argued that there is a gender paradigm in relation to the commission of IPV. A paradigm is a set of guiding beliefs or a worldview that is usually shared within a group, with a belief that all other contrary data that does not follow the group's views should not be recognized (Dutton, 2006). This paradigm describes IPV as an offense only perpetrated by men against women. Following this definition, Dutton et al. (2010)

stated that the feminist theory sees IPV as a crime against women only and that when a woman is the perpetrator it is only because a man made her violent. Researchers who support this view have argued that violence in general, whether domestic or not, is usually perpetrated by men (Straton, 1994). Relying on the 1973-81 US National Crime Survey, only three to four percent of marital assault involved a female attacker, Straton (1994) opined that the society should not be side-tracked by the relatively tiny problem of male victimization, but that society should focus more on eradicating victimization against women. Straton (1994) called male victimization a false issue that seeks to derail the society from the main issue.

Supporting the above notion, Thobejane & Luthada (2019), argued that feminists see the commission of IPV and DV against women as society's way of accepting aggressive behaviors perpetrated by men, while reassuring women to be compassionate and non-violent. Radical feminist does not believe that a woman can be violent, consequently, women who exhibit violent behaviors against their spouses do this as a response to an earlier abuse perpetrated by the man. The theory does not believe that violence can originate solely from the women and as such, violence committed by women against men should not be put on the same scale as violence committed by men (kwaramba, 2000). The goal of radical feminism is for society to be changed at its core in order to break the patriarchy (Thobejane & Luthada, 2019), and doing otherwise, such as blaming women for their violence is deviating from what society should be doing and further reinforcing the patriarchy. Additionally, Burelomova et al. (2018) added that women's violence against men should be considered as self-defense, preemption of a violence to be perpetrated by a man, or retaliation for a violence already perpetrated. They further agreed with the assertion that female violence against men is a special type of violence that should be viewed as a unique case different from other forms of violence (Dobash & Dobash, 2004) and concluded

that the only treatment for female violence against men would depend on the manner of education addressing patriarchy a man receives and the way women are being treated by men. This conclusion once again reiterates the fact that the true and only goal is to overturn the structure of patriarchal which will in turn prevent, reduce, and eliminate violence directed at women by men (Dutton, 2011), once again blaming men for violence committed against them.

One of the major criticisms of the feminist theory has been with the samples used whenever researches on DV/IPV are conducted. Recruitments of most participants in DV/IPV research have widely been carried out in shelters, refuges, or emergency care departments that house female DV/IPV victims (Dutton, 2011) thereby eliminating any research on male victims. Usually, only women who have been victimized or are currently undergoing DV/IPV victimization make use of these shelters. Having to rely on data from research conducted with these samples for the general population (Dixon & Graham-Kevan, 2011) may greatly affect the validity of the finding. Another major criticism is the argument that the feminist theory does not consider the emergence of violence within same sex marriages (Lawson, 2003). Though the man's exhibition of power and control is said to be one of the major concerns associated with the commission of IPV against women, the theory is however silent as to what causes dispute in a same sex relationship.

Finally, researchers have criticized the feminist's movement on grounds that their principles are focused on the wellbeing of women alone even when these principles are clearly detrimental to men. For example, Adebayo (2014) sees the feminist theory of IPV as discriminatory against men and their victimization. For Adebayo, most female perpetrators of DV/IPV hide under the guise of self-defense, however, self-defense by a male is likely to be highly stigmatized and this knowledge tends to play a role in female perpetrated abuse (Allen-

Collinson, 2009). Most women knowing the effect of the law on a man who has been convicted of DV/IPV, also armed with the knowledge that abuse against men is rarely believed, would provoke the man to violence. The theory that DV/IPV relates to power and control, with regards to societal views on patriarchy can sometimes create an opportunity for female abusers to goad their victims into retaliation (Gadd et al., 2003; Hines et al., 2014) or when abuse has not occurred allow false accusations to uphold the narrative in order to involve the legal system (Tilbrook et al., 2010). Adebayo concluded that this discrimination against men from feminists hinders most male victims from getting the help they need when facing their victimization.

Individual Theories of Domestic Violence / Intimate Partner Violence

The individual theories seek to explain DV/IPV from an individual's view. Most research that subscribes to this theory are of the opinion that DV/IPV commission or acceptance is peculiar to individual experience. This means that people make decisions to be either victims or perpetrators base on their prior person experience. Some of the theories that will be described would talk more on how an individual situation can influence their involvement in DV/IPV, the background and childhood also play a big role on how they view DV/IPV.

Social Learning Theory

The Social Learning theory posit that new behavior are learned or acquired by observing and imitating others carry out those behaviors (Bandura, 1971). Akers (1973) who is one of the major proponents of Social Learning Theory, stated that criminal behaviors are generally learned. When the reward of delinquent behavior is stronger than the influence of normative behavior, a person maybe more inclined to take on the delinquent behaviors. This theory suggests that family violence in general is learned behavior from observing one's parent(s) or peers during childhood (Bandura, 1973; Mihalicet et al., 2005). The decisive factors that impact

the delinquent behaviors are the reinforcing mechanisms available, the effectiveness of these factors, and the frequency at which they occur. Researchers of this theory opined that victims as well as perpetrators of DV/ IPV have either witnessed DV/IPV being perpetrated against someone or have experienced abuse themselves during childhood (Gulina, et al., 2018), which results in the ability to accept or tolerate violence within the family both as perpetrator and as victim (Jin et al., 2007; Lewis & Fremouw, 2001; Vung & Krantz, 2009). Following the National Survey of 1975, Straus, Gelles, and Steinmetz (1980) found that boys were more likely to be abusive towards their wives in adulthood if they were raised in an abusive home, in addition, children who were physically abused growing up were more likely to be abusive later in life.

In addition to the above, children who have experienced violence both as victims or as witness are often susceptible to long term adverse impacts to both their health and the way they relate with other people. A United States, Department of Justice 2009 study on children and violence in the United States, shows that over 60% of the children were either directly or indirectly exposed to violence in the previous year (Finkelhor et al., 2009). The study further found that exposure of children to violence, whether as witnesses or as victims, is often associated with long term, negative physical, emotional, and psychological effect. This may include a higher risk of child abuse and neglect, depression, as well as other trauma, such as having parents with substance abuse, have been incarcerated, or experienced mental illness (Dube et al., 2002), and even suicide (Ireland & Smith, 2009). Some physical health outcomes may include lack of sleep, social withdrawal and even delinquency (Bensley et al., 2003; Ireland & Smith, 2009; Martin, 2002). Additionally, children are at a higher risk of engaging in deviant behavior if exposed to violence at a young age (NIJ, 2009). Meanwhile, Dargis and Koenigs (2018) in a bid to understand the effect of exposure of domestic violence on a child even as a

witness and not the victim, and whether such experience, would influence subsequent psychopathic traits in adulthood, examined a sample of 127 male prison inmates, ranging from 18 to 55 years of age, from a medium-security prison in Wisconsin. Results from the study showed that witnessing domestic violence was significantly correlated with an overall level of psychopathy.

As a way of testing the principle of social learning and involvement in DV/IPV, Wareham et al. (2009) conducted a study on men participating in a family violence program in an urban community. The researchers hypothesized that perpetrators of DV/IPV associated more frequently with others who approve of and engage in the perpetration of DV/IPV. The researchers found support for the influence of primary and secondary association, specifically establishing that the more perpetrators observed people around them engage in IPV, the more likely it was for them to engage in IPV/DV. Several studies have also reported that experiencing abuse during childhood may be associated with future involvement in DV/IPV whether as a perpetrator or a victim in adulthood (Berzenski & Yates, 2010; Parks et al., 2018; Whitfield et al., 2003). However, the continuation of violence into adulthood greatly depends on the associated influence of peers and dating relationships during youth (Daigneault et al., 2009).

Another study that has examined the relationship between learned childhood behavior and involvement in DV/IPV and the subsequent impact on the child, is the research done by Forke et al., (2018). The researchers, as a way of testing the involvement of learned behavior at early childhood with regards to DV/IPV experienced as adults, administered a survey to 907 undergraduate students from three different colleges in the U.S. They screened for associations between witnessing violence, being a victim of violence, and a perpetrator of violence in addition to the common types of adolescent relationship violence such as physical, sexual, and emotional

violence. The researchers also assessed if students experienced multiple outcomes, such as being a victim as well as a perpetrator. The results showed that nearly one in four respondents reported witnessing adult violence as children and almost 50 percent of the participants reported being involved in an adolescent relationship that included violence, either as perpetrators or victims. The researchers also found a strong relationship between witnessing violence and subsequent adolescent relationship violence. This finding gives credence to the fact that the environment in which a child is raised will impact the child's involvement in DV/IPV.

Background/Situational Theories

This theory was originally developed by Riggs and O'Leary (1996). They sought to expand the social learning theory to include the "model of courtship aggression" in terms of explaining DV/IPV. The model suggests that the background and the situational barriers faced by an individual is the major predictor of involvement in a DV/IPV (Gulina et al., 2018). The background component of the theory refers to an individual's history, characteristics, and the society they reside, as this sometimes might influence involvement in violent behaviors. The situational component of the theory looks at the factors and circumstances that set the stage for aggression to occur. This can include interpersonal conflict, substance use and abuse, lack of emotional intelligence, lack of problem-solving skills, and level of intimacy between the perpetrator and the victim. The congruency of these factors might affect the intensity of a conflict between the parties involve and this might determine whether violence will occur or not (Riggs & O'Leary, 1996). For example, the perpetrator's inability to diffuse an interpersonal conflict with a victim who abuses drugs and alcohol may led to violence and this could occur both ways.

In conclusion, the various theories discussed have created a broader understanding of DV/IPV and why it is perpetrated against a victim, and by the perpetrator. For example, the theories showed that DV/IPV is often carried out by the perpetrator to gain power and control as theorized by the Feminist group, to influence the behavior of another because of the social and economic resources wield by the perpetrator in the society, because the behavior to perpetrate violence or condole it has been learned from peers and role models as children. Finally, the discussions in this section also explained that family violence can occur due to some situational and background influences that may be beyond the control of a perpetrator/victim.

Forms of Domestic Violence/ Intimate Partner Violence

Rape

The word rape is derived from the Latin word *rapere*, which refers to the act of seizing or taking by force (Alston & Goodman, 2013). Rape is usually defined as a form of sexual intercourse or other form of sexual penetration committed by a perpetrator against the will of the victim (Smith, 2004). The definition of rape has varied through jurisdictions, professions (Maier, 2008), and both historically and culturally (Maier, 2008; Smith, 2004). According to the World Health Organization (2002), rape is the penetration of the vulva or anus, through the means of force or coercion, using a penis, any other body parts, or an object, notwithstanding how slight the penetration may be (Krug et al., 2002). The CDC, however, does not have an expressly defined meaning for rape and simply explained rape to be a form of sexual violence. However, the Center in explaining forms of sexual violence, further listed other coercive, non-consensual activities such as being pinned or held down violently by the perpetrator, or engaging in aggressive sexual acts, that may or may not include penetration as what constitute rape. In terms of penetration, the CDC has a broader scope of what it contains. Penetration could involve

physical insertion of the penis into the vulva; contact between the mouth and the penis, vulva, or anus; or physical insertion of a finger, hand, or any object into the anal or any form of genital opening of another (Basile et al., 2014; CDC, 2014; Markovchick, 2016) without the consent of the victim.

Until January 2012, the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) considered rape to be an offense carried out against women alone. Prior to 2012, forcible rape had been defined by the FBI's Uniform Crime Report to mean the carnal knowledge of a female, by a man against her will. This definition of rape has been in use since 1927. However, the definition changed in 2012 to include the penetration of the vaginal/vulva or anus no matter how slight, with any body part or other objects or oral penetration of a victim by another person/perpetrator, without the consent of the victim. This updated definition of rape by the FBI, recognized both genders as victims and perpetrators (Savage, 2018).

Generally, sexual offenses are the least reported offenses in the United States (DOJ, 2020; FBI 2017), among the offenses that constitute sexual offenses, rape has the lowest reporting rate (FBI, 2020). Even though most sexual crime is believed to be committed by male perpetrators against female victims, a proportion of sexual offenses committed are carried out against men (Turchik & Edward, 2012). About 3% to 8% of the total male American population have reported experiencing an adulthood incidence of sexual victimization in their lifetime (Coxell et al., 1999; Elliott et al., 2004; Sorenson et al., 1987; U.S. Department of Justice, 2000). Meanwhile about 5% to 10% of the total rapes recorded in the US are perpetrated against men (U.S. Department of Justice, 2000). Despite the above statistics, most researchers have failed to capture the full range of sexual violence by ignoring violence against men due to the assertion that rape and other sexual violence cannot be carried out against a man (Robertson, 2010;

Struckman-Johnson & Anderson, 1998). This notion and perception greatly undermine the magnitude of the problem of male rape, given that most men are unwilling to report their victimization and sexual assault experience (Turchik & Edward, 2012; Walker, Archer, & Davies, 2005). Coxell et al., (1999) in a bid to assess the prevalence of rape among male victims and their reporting rate, conducted research on 2,474 men, and found that 3% of the sample had experienced non-consensual sex as adults and 5% had also experienced non-consensual sex as children. Upon analysis, only two of the 40 men who reported having a non-consensual sex reported their victimization to law enforcement.

On why rape against a man does not meet the same research interest and societal input as a rape committed against a woman, Turchik & Edward (2012), argued that the prevalence of male rape is often downplayed because of the various myths associated with it. These beliefs not only trivialize the offense itself, but also silences the victims from discussing their experiences and seeking the needed help. While the vast majority of rape myths have been directed towards female victims; because females have always been believed to be the only victims of rape, more recent myths are rooted in expressions such as “men cannot be raped”, “only gay men can be victims of rape”, “real men would defend themselves against rape”, “rape does not affect men as it does women,” male rape can only be carried out in a prison”, “homosexual and bisexual males deserve to be raped”, “victims of rape asked for it”, and “sexual assault by one’s sex causes homosexuality” (Anderson, 2007; Donnelly & Kenyon, 1996; Garnets et al., 1990; Kassing & Prieto, 2003; Sarrel & Masters, 1982; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992; Yeager & Fogel, 2006). Turchik & Edward (2012) further argued that these rape myths against the male gender are prevalent because of gender stereotypes and societal norms regarding masculinity and the sexuality of a man. Complicating matters further, many states and countries do not consider

male sexual victimization by females to be a prosecutable offense (Turchik & Edward (2012). This societal perception, according to Fisher & Pina (2013), aim to trivialize the severity of sexual violence against men, which in turn impacts the reporting rates of rape and/or victimization by male victims (Hammond et al., 2016).

Two studies have examined the rate of male rape myth acceptance; the first being a study conducted by Struckman-Johnson and Struckman-Johnson (1992). The researchers conducted a study on 315 college students who were asked to rate their agreement to three general rape myth beliefs: (a) that male rape does not happen; (b) that rape is the victim's fault; and (c) that men would not be traumatized by rape victimization. The researchers found that a good number of the respondents disagreed with the stated beliefs. Respondents disagreed most strongly with the myth surrounding traumatization. On one hand, the study found that female respondents had a considerably greater degree of disagreement across the said beliefs than men. It also showed that the respondents were most likely to accept a myth if the rape perpetrator was a female and the victim male. This is linked to the fact that most men would rather protect the idea of masculinity rather than accept the fact that they have been victimized by a woman.

The second study examined the rate at which rape myth(s) are accepted by the public (Chapleau et al., 2008). In order to achieve this, the researchers conducted research on 423 college students, presenting them with a range of male rape myths, and asking the respondents to identify the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the presented myths. Chapleau et al. (2008) found that male respondents were considerably in agreement with the male rape myth than the female respondents. Specifically, male respondents were more supportive of the myths that reflected the ideas that male rape victims are responsible for their victimization. The lowest level of agreement was observed with the statement, "Men cannot be raped". Statistically, the

findings from this study correlate with the study done by Struckman-Johnson and Struckman-Johnson in 1992. It is quite surprising to see that people disagree with these myths considering the usual stereotypical views about male rape victims the public have and the lax attitude the media and educational forums (Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992) have towards sensitizing the public. Additionally, Chapleau et al. (2008) shared that male rape myths are embodied in our everyday society. The researcher suggested that even though these myths are untrue, if not challenged, they could escalate and hinder men from reporting their victimization and seeking help. This barrier, according to Chapleau et al. (2008), can manifest two-fold. First being that the male victim may not perceive their victimization as a sexual violation. Some may deem it not important or serious enough to report to law enforcement. Also, they may fear that they might not be believed by the society or may be judged as weak or not masculine enough.

An empirical study supporting the first fold of Chapleau et al. (2008) reasons for men's refusal to report their victimization, was conducted by Artime et al. (2014) where 323 men were made to complete an online survey in which they were asked questions relating to their victimization, Artime et al. (2014) found that only 24% of rape victims used the term or labels of sexual abuse and rape when referring to their experience. Much of the respondents did not view or consider their experiences as a serious sexual violation that warranted reporting and/or investigative legal action against the perpetrator.

With regards to the above set back mentioned by Chapleau et al. (2008), Davis et al. (2009) argued extensively that the male victim's fear of not being believed coupled with society's perception about his masculinity has been the major reason why men do not report or speak about their victimization. Fisher and Pina (2013) argued that a biased legal definition of sexual violence, the various myths associated with rape, various feminist theories, and

stereotypical societal perception of masculinity or unfounded negative beliefs are what create problematic social environments for male victims of sexual assault to report their victimization. The above argument is mostly correct when the rape act was carried out by a woman against a man (Hammond et al., 2016). Also, in line with the above argument, Davis et al. (2009) opined that many male rape victims avoid reporting offenses committed against them as they mostly consider their assault as 'not being serious enough' to warrant law enforcement intervention.

This proposition by Davis et al. (2009) is corroborated by the outcomes of studies that have indicated that men are more inclined to report their sexual victimization when they can show that despite trying their best, there was no way they would have been able to protect themselves against the perpetrator (Ellis 2002; Hammond et al., 2016). For example, sexual assault victims, both male and female, have been found to be motivated to report victimization when there is physical proof of the offence. For example, the evidence of use of force such as scratches on the body of the victim, and DNA sample of the assailant, found in the body of the victim would help corroborate the victim's claim (Pino & Meier, 1999; Tewksbury 2007). Also, the attitude of society and, most especially, law enforcement can also impact on whether a man will report his victimization.

Rape against men is not often discussed by the public not because it is not prevalent, but because it is seldom reported. King and Woollett (1997) were one of the foremost researchers to directly study the reason(s) why male victims do not report their sexual victimization. In their study, the researchers examined the cases of 115 male victims of sexual violence, including rape and sexual assault. Their findings indicated that only 17 victims reported their victimizations to law enforcement. Of the 17 that reported, eight of them noted that the police were helpful. However, five of them viewed their interactions with law enforcement as negative and not

helpful in any way. Another study done by Walker et al. (2005) had similar findings. Of the 40 male rape victims that were studied, only five reported their victimization to law enforcement. Of the five, only one of the victims found his interaction with the police to be helpful; the other four victims who reported the offenses noted that the police behavior towards them was homophobic, uninterested, and unsympathetic, and that their complaints were never taken seriously. These studies all point to the fact that the Criminal Justice System play a great role in a man's decision to report their sexual victimization, as the fear of not be believed or even being embarrassed and shamed by law enforcement limits a limits willingness to report their victimization.

Accordingly, Hammond et al. (2016), argued that men may not report sexual offenses carried out against them because they do not believe that the Criminal Justice System will take their case(s) seriously and as such, the offender may not be prosecuted and/or convicted. In cases such as these, the victims become more vulnerable to shame and stigmatization. Some of these victims believe that their disgrace can be avoided if they overlook their victimization. The lack of confidence in the Criminal Justice System by victims can sometimes be linked to the prevalence of the various rape myths against male victims (Jamel et al., 2008), most victims believe that the prejudicial believes most agents of law enforcement and the general Criminal Justice System actors has towards them is what influences the decisions most of these law enforcement agents make, when reports and evaluations are made regarding a male victims and not the facts of the case (Conaghan & Russell, 2014). On the contrary, Flowe et al. (2009), argued that the personal beliefs of law enforcement agents do not play a role as to whether an agent will prosecute a case or not but that the media's representation of rape and other associated public beliefs is what influences prosecution on multiple levels, as these potentially determine

whether law enforcement would find the victim believable and the accused perpetrator culpable for the offense.

The lack of appropriate support services directed at male victims (Scarce, 1997), and the lack of information on male sexual assault is another possible factor impacting reporting rates for male sexual offences. Chapleau et al. (2008) opined that these societal gaps, are likely to have a notable impact on the decision of whether to go to the police, seek help for victimization or to remain quiet even in the face of adversity. In conclusion, it is obvious that the offense of rape perpetrated against male victim is not a myth but a fact that ought to be addressed with caution by both the Criminal Justice System and the general public. It is imperative that agents saddled with the responsibility of protecting the citizens of the state, base their reasoning on scientific facts both physiologically and phenomenologically (Bullock & Beckson, 2011) and not on mere myths. Otherwise, male victims would continue to remain silent about their victimization, if they think that those whom they depend on for protection already have false assumption about their predicament.

Physical Assault

The prevalence of physical assault against men cannot be over emphasized. Before now, just like rape and other forms of domestic violence, even though society has always chosen to believe otherwise (Fleming et al., 2015), various empirical studies have proven that domestic violence is not only restricted to male perpetrators and female victims, but can be an offense against both genders, perpetrated by both genders (Adebayo, 2014; Concannon, 2013; Perryman & Appleton, 2016; Watts & Zimmermann 2002). Saunders (2002) mentioned that the question should not be whether domestic violence is perpetrated by women against men, but major emphasis should be placed on the extent to which a violent act by a woman would affect the

man. Saunders (2002) further argued that sometimes, the act of physical assault carried out by both a man and a woman may be the same, however, the physical evidence showing the extent of the abuse may differ. As an example, because of the biological strength a man possesses, the impact of a blow to the body of another will differ from the impact of a blow from a woman to the body of another (Straus, 2010).

Bates (2020) however seems to disagree with the general notion that the impact of a woman's physical assault on men does not commensurate with that of a man against women. In his 2019 study, the researcher found that the men in the sample reported, apart from the usual slapping and punching they experienced in the hands of the perpetrator, weapons were also used during the act of assault against them. Bates (2020) further argue that women's lack of physical strength is compensated for by the use weapons to attack their victims or target them in their most vulnerable areas. For example, while women are more likely than men to be injured during a domestic violence situation (Archer, 2000), men are at a higher risk of being injured by a weapon (Bates, 2020).

Savall et al. (2016), in a retrospective monocentric study in the forensic unit of Toulouse in France, examined all the medico-legal reports filed by male victims of IPV for over 18 years. These reports were filed by victims who consulted the forensic unit for physical violence between the years 2005 through 2014. The researchers also randomly choose women who also consulted for physical violence during the same period. Findings from the research indicated that on one hand, violence against women was more frequent than violence against men as more women reported physical assaulted perpetrated against them. However, the findings also indicated that men when involved in a physical assault violence, are more likely to sustain a

severe injury. This conclusion was based on the result relating to the kind of injuries that were reported by both male, such as vascular injuries, and female (lower limb injuries) in the sample.

The CDC (2010) defines physical assault/violence to mean when a person hurts or tries to hurt a partner by hitting, kicking, or using another type of physical force. This definition is consistent with the WHO's (2010) definition of physical assault. According to the National Coalition Against Domestic Violence (NCADV, 2020), at every given time, about one in four men in the United States experiences physical assault: that is about 29 million men, or 25.7% of the general male population, that have experienced some form of physical violence by an intimate partner. Physical violence, according to NCADV, may include but is not limited to slapping, shoving, pushing, hitting, pulling of one's hair or any other part, strangling, beating, burning etc.

Physical violence is the most common form of violence experienced by male victims (CDC, 2010). The 2010 summary report of the National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence survey showed that among all men who experienced stalking, rape, and physical violence, about 92% of the victims experience physical violence alone. In a qualitative study carried out by Walker et al. (2020), participants described undergoing physical violence caused by their spouses. For example, one of the interview respondents in the study explained that his wife punched him in the face, kicked him, and drove a car towards him. Another respondent noted that the perpetrator grabbed his groins and testicles inappropriately (Walker et al., 2020). Findings from the above study correlates with the views that men also experience abuses and reiterate the severity of these abuses (Savall et al., 2016) committed against men.

As with other DV/IPV offenses carried out against men, even though male victimization has been established, the extent to which these victimizations are being carried out and the actual

prevalence rate cannot fully be ascertained. The statistics above is based on self-reports made by victims. However, various research has shown that most men are unwilling to talk about the verbal, physical, emotional, psychological, and sexual abuse they face in the hands of the perpetrator (Deshpande, 2019; Huntley et al., 2019; Joseph-Edwards et al., 2020; Wright, 2016). Due to the limited research concentrating on male victimization, and the fact that many men do not identify with the term victimization and abuse (Walker et al., 2020), society does not fully understand how men conceptualize and perceive an offensive act that has been carried out against them (McHugh et al., 2013), and until men begin to see themselves as victims, little or nothing can be done by the Criminal Justice System.

Machado et al. (2016) conducted a study focusing on what men think about their victimization and why they do not report it by distributing an online questionnaire to 89 male IPV victims in Portugal. Results from the study showed that 76% of the respondents did not seek help after their victimization. Responses such as “I did not notice that I was a victim” were the most reason the respondents gave for not reporting their victimization. Additionally, Morgan and Wells, in their 2016 qualitative study of seven men who were victims of DV/IPV, found that male victims of DV/IPV tend to describe the actual event that took place during their victimization rather than the emotional impact the victimization has on them. This indicates that a man would rather recount the series of event leading to their victimization and the event that took place during their victimization rather than name or admit that they have been victimized (Morgan & Well, 2016).

Similarly, Durfee (2011) in a narrative analysis of domestic violence protective order cases filed by 48 men showed that men explained their abuses in ways and manners that are consistent with hegemonic masculinity by concentrating on their resistance and display of power

rather than the actual victimization they faced. For example, most men when asked to describe their abuse try to minimize or trivialize the injuries sustained during their assault. This they do to portray themselves as self-reliant and masculine (Eckstein 2009; Migliaccio 2001) This resonates with the fact that a man's masculinity and the expectation to be powerful and in control both at home and in public are of more importance to him than any form of abuse he faces (Migliaccio, 2001). To accept being victimized would be to be labeled as a female, and for a man this takes away any form of masculinity that he may attempt to claim (Migliaccio, 2001).

With regards to reporting physical violence perpetrated against men, evidence suggest that the male distrust of the legal system highly impacts their decision to report or not (Tsui, 2014). Also, some studies revealed that some female victims capitalize on society's favoritism of a female victim and a male perpetrator ideology, there by perpetrating secondary abuse by threatening to report the man as the perpetrator of violence because the women know the society is generally sympathetic towards women, when in actual fact, they are the perpetrators (Corbally, 2015; Machado et al., 2017; Morgan & Wells, 2016; Tilbrook et al., 2010).

Because the context of male DV/IPV victimization is still unclear, little is known with regards to how men cope with their victimization. However, Hines & Douglas, (2010) mentioned that as a way of coping, male victims of physical assault usually step away from the partner, yell, curse or sometimes call a friend or family member to alleviate the situation. Other qualitative studies show that some men isolate themselves or engage in physical exercise, while others seek support from third parties (Gadd et al., 2002). Allen-Collinson (2009) in his study mentioned that some of the victims stay away from their partners by remaining in their cars for hours, or even staying at work in order to not have to face their perpetrator when they are being

abused. Conclusively, one can only quantify the physical assault against men when these offenses are reported by the victims.

Stalking and Harassment/Threat of Harassment

The offense of stalking did not become prominent until 1980 following the media frenzy associated with the murder of John Lennon, a former member of a music band, The Beatles by Mark David Chapman coupled with the assassination attempt on President Ronald Reagan by John Hinckley, Jr's following an obsession he had with actress Jodie Foster (Hall, 1998). Even though the offense of stalking became known after these two events, the term stalking only became a household American terminology in 1989 upon the death of Rebecca Schaeffer, an upcoming actress who was murdered by an obsessed fan who had been stalking her. According to the U.S NIJ (1998), stalking generally refers to harassing or threatening behavior that an individual engages in repeatedly. This literarily means a continuous harassing behavior occasioned against someone (Heckels & Roberts, 2010). Harassment, according to Heckels & Roberts (2010), is defined as causing anguish or alarm to someone. Anguish or distress in this case is subject to a reasonable man's test which refers to how the quantum of fear a reasonable man would experience if in such a situation. What may cause distress to one person may not do same to another. There is a fine line between an over-zealous pursuer who carries on his daily routine and a stalker who is out to instill fear or distress on its victim.

In the United States, Acts that constitutes stalking have been subject to major debate by states. This is so because of the ideology that most actions that are classified as activities that constitute stalking could also be considered harmless or even within the stalker's day to day routine activity (Cupach & Spitzberg, 2000; Sheridan & Davies 2001). For an act to be considered stalking, it must meet three legal elements (NIJ, 1994). Nevertheless, the construction

of these three elements differs among states within the United States. For example, stalking must have the element of Course of Conduct, this connotes the perpetrator's involvement in a series of acts, that when viewed collectively presents as a pattern of behavior. Almost all states within the United States requires that the defendant engage in a course of conduct, however, while some states stipulate the number of times a behavior or an act ought to have occurred before it can be tagged as stalking, others designate a variety of different acts as stalking (NIJ, 1994). The second element is Threat Requirement. Most states require that the stalker pose a threat or act in a way that would make a reasonable person to be fearful of the acts experienced by the stalked victim before the act can be termed stalking (VAWA, 1994). The last element is the Intent of the Stalker. To be convicted of stalking, the stalker must have displayed criminal intent to cause fear in the victim.

Most acts of stalking are usually committed by perpetrators known to the victims, such as an ex-partner, current partner, acquaintance, a family member, etc. (CDC, 2014). Ex-partner(s) seems to be the most common perpetrators of stalking (Robert, 2002), and often than not, being stalked by an ex-spouse is more likely to result in violence against the victim than being stalked by a stranger or an acquaintance (Bjerregaard, 2000). This notion correlates with the CDC (2014) report which found that women who have been stalked in America reported that 60% of their stalkers are current or former partners, while 44% of people who stalk men are also current or former partners. Meanwhile, while it is often believed that females are more likely to be victims of stalking (Spitzberg & Cupach 2003), men however, have been found to also become victims of stalking as well (Heckels & Roberts, 2010). According to Coleman (1997), stalking plays a role in the cycle of violence that takes place in a DV/IPV situation. Cycle of violence was

defined by Trimpey (1989) as a three-stage process used to explain DV/IPV, it includes the tension stage, explosion stage, and the honeymoon stage (Coleman, 1997).

Despite various statistics that support the view that stalking can happen to anyone, research on the perception of stalking has revealed that male stalking victimization is considered less dangerous and far less concerning than female victimization (Matos et al., 2019). The majority of studies performed on stalking and harassment have mainly focused on the portrayal of men as perpetrators and women as victims (Sheridan et al., 2001a; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998, Coleman, 1997; Meloy, 1999; Mustaine & Tewksbury, 1999). However, men also suffer victimizations that are both dangerous and traumatizing (Wigman, 2009). Nonetheless, the public has a limited knowledge about the distress most men face because of their stalking experience as most men prefer not to speak about their victimization. Kernsmith et al. (2005) argued that even though there is evidence of post-traumatic stress disorder, depression, and other anxiety related symptoms and/or conditions experienced by victims, not considering their gender, women however, are more likely to report their symptoms and seek help from mental health professionals than men.

The prevailing stereotypes that relate to male commission of crime and in fact DV/IPV, impacts on how some offenses are viewed, especially when a man is a victim. For example, with stalking, a real stalker is always a man while a real victim is usually a female ex-partner (Meloy, 1999), therefore a contrary arrangement may be viewed as untrue. A man is more likely to perceive himself as less victimized when stalked compared to a woman (Sheridan et al., 2002). Corroborating this argument on stereotypes, studies revealed that some men who are stalked by females are relatively unbothered by the behaviors of the women as they see them posing little or no risk (Emerson et al., 1998; Hall, 1998) to them.

Based on the CDC (2014) statistics, about one in 17 men in the United States at some point in their lifetime were victims of stalking. Forty-six percent of the male victims reported being stalked by only female, 43% reported being stalked by male stalkers, while 8% reported being stalked by both genders. Fremouw et al. (1997), in one of the first research on the prevalence of stalking in the United States, found that 34 percent of female and 17 percent of males reported stalking victimization. Because stalking does not have a one acceptable definition in all states, the researchers used the acceptable definition of stalking in the state where the study was carried out. Questions asked included, “Have you ever been stalked, which was defined as having someone knowingly and repeatedly following, harassing or threatening you?” Results showed that male victims who reported haven being stalked were often stalked by a friend or someone known. They further suggested that an increased prevalence rate of stalking may be found in a study where the term “stalking” is not used in the question(s) being asked. They noted that this may carry a negative connotation for respondents.

Recently with the advent of global technological advancements, stalking has transcended the usual traditional methods, such as following, harassing or unwanted phone calls to harassment in a cyberspace. Cyberstalking has become as prominent as traditional stalking. This form of stalking is characterized by repeated and fear inducing actions that take place in cyber space, such as in social medial, chat rooms or via emails (Alexy et al., 2005). Alexy et al. (2005), in an empirical study assessing the rate of cyberstalking in college undergraduates, found that cyberstalking perpetrators were most often former intimate partners of the victims. The research also found that men were more likely to be victims of cyberstalking than females. Earlier research by Novell (1999) found that most males have undergone more harassment online than females. The reason for this however may be because more men are active online than women.

This research will not deny that stalking is predominantly carried out against women with a higher proportion of the stalkers being men, as plethora of research carried out on the subject has proved this assertion to be true. However, the male population should also be given the same attention both by law enforcement and researchers as given to women for this might invariably affect how men perceive their victimization. One thing that has been made clear in all the reviewed literature is the fact that though stalking does not have a generally acceptable definition, its impact on its victim's life is destructive. One constant fact among male victims notwithstanding the state or country where the offense is being carried out, is their determination to uphold their masculinity, not minding the adverse effect of their decision to both their mental and physical health.

The role society and media play when men report their victimization should be revisited. The attitude of the Criminal Justice System towards male victims of DV/IPV which is perceived as lack of empathy and seriousness as well as researchers lack interest in exploring victimization against men, greatly impact what the public think about victimization against a man. And invariably the man's perception and definition of their experience. Until male victimization is seen as a problem in the society, the criminal justice system may not be able to proffer solutions to help accommodate male victims.

Current Study

As already discussed in the preceding sections, male victimization in DV/IPV cases is a phenomenon that is overlooked by society in general. A vast majority of the literature details only the prevalence of male victimization through various forms of domestic violence and intimate partner abuses or the role stereotypes and masculinity play with regards to a male victim's decision to report their victimization. However, this research focuses on establishing

that male victimization, even though not as prevalent as female victimization, is a problem that should be address by the society beyond simply the reasons men refuse to report their victimization. The studies that have focused on reporting of male victimization were only done in relation to one form of DV/IPV at a time (e.g., rape) (Sable et al., 2006). This limits the scope of society's overall understanding of DV/IPV as a man may be eager to report physical assault but may not feel the need to do same when they are raped or stalked.

The question thus remains do men have a particular reason why they do not report their victimization in general or is it safe to assume that their silence is because of the society's expectation of a man's role. This research seeks to add to the previous literature in this field by attempting to answer this question and hope to determine if there is a circle of victimization among male victims. For example, is experiencing one form of abuse with lead to another as well as the effects of DV/IPV theories on the male victims. The research hypotheses for the current study are as follows:

Hypotheses 1: *Men do not report some of their victimization in order to protect their Masculinity.*

Contained in this research is the emphasis previous literature has placed on the influence of masculinity on male victimization. Previous research is silent as to whether the decision not to report their victimization is based on their masculinity or is related to some specific offense or all forms of domestic violence.

Hypotheses 2: *Upon deciding to report, a male victim would rather report to someone known or a family member rather than reporting to law enforcement.*

This hypothesis has become imperative due to the perceptions most male victims of DV/IPV have of police officers. Drijber et al (2013) found that the most important reason for

men not to report the abuse is the belief that law enforcement personnel would not take them seriously.

Hypotheses 3: *Men will not report their victimization if it happens just once.*

Psychologists consider reporting a crime as a type of help-seeking behavior. Two of three individuals who are sexually victimized will be revictimized at some point again (Classen, 2005) it is unclear if their revictimization is because of men's not reporting. The researcher in this study is asserting that there is a circle of victimization where one form of victimization can lead to another, however, men would not want to report their victimization until they have been victimized multiple times.

Hypotheses 4: *The rate of reporting differs with the type of victimization experienced by male victim.*

Using Greenberg and Ruback (1992) reporting model, victims of crime must label an event to be a crime and conclude that it is serious enough to report before they decide to report the event to the police. Until an offense is considered serious, and the individual sees himself as a victim, they may likely not report the crime. Because of the stigma associated with domestic violence, most men may want to report some specific offenses, but not others.

Hypotheses 5: *Men would report their victimization if it first occurred as adults.*

It is often believed that an individual who first witnesses victimization as a child is most likely going to be abused during their adult years (Bjornholt, 2019). This research question is based on this finding. The researcher argues that childhood victimization correlates with non-reporting of victimization. A man would likely not report his victimization if he first experienced victimization as a child.

Hypotheses 6: *There are significant predictors regarding decision to report among men who experienced victimization.*

The researcher believes that the decision to report victimization by a man is usually backed by various predictors. For example, the age of the victim, marital status, educational background, employment status, type of victimization experienced, and number of times such victimization has been experienced. A regression model would be carried out to determine if this hypothesis is true.

Chapter Summary

This chapter served as a review of the literature on male DV/IPV victims. A summary of the theories used in explaining the commission of DV/IPV was discussed as well as the prevalence of various forms of victimization against men. Next, the reporting decisions of male victims as it relates to the forms earlier noted were covered. Even though researchers are seeing the need to direct their DV/IPV research focus towards both genders, the gap in the literature concerning male victimization cannot be overemphasized. The current study seeks to gain an in-depth understanding of the topic through the six hypotheses. The next chapter will discuss the methodology of the study, including the characteristics of the data used and the statistical analytical plan. The final two chapters will show findings derived from the study as well as also discuss the potential effects and limitation of the study's outcome.

Chapter 3. Data and Methodology

This chapter will describe the data that will be employed in the current study. Next, it will explain in detail the various measures that will be utilized to analyze the dependent variable, decision to report, and the independent variables, which include forms of victimization and time of occurrence, whether as a child or as an adult. Finally, the chapter will also serve as an introduction of the methods of statistical analysis carried out in the study and will discuss the various models that will be used in testing the established hypotheses.

Data Source

Data used for this research was sourced from the Violence and Threats of Violence Against Women and Men in The United States of 1994-1996 dataset. The survey originally sampled both men and women who were 18 years of age or older across households in the United States. Interview responses were obtained from 8,000 women and 8,005 men across states within the country during the period under analysis (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1996). During the interview, the researchers asked questions about: (1) the perception of the respondents general fear of violence and the various ways they managed their fears; (2) any emotional abuse respondents had experienced from their marital and cohabitating partners; (3) any the physical assault respondents had experienced as children by adult caretakers; (4) any physical assault respondents experienced as adults by any type of perpetrator; (5) any forcible rape or stalking experienced by any type of perpetrator; and (6) any incidents of threatened violence they had experienced by any type of perpetrator (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1996).

The respondents who disclosed victimization were asked questions about their victimization experiences such as the type of victimization, how the victimization was carried out, and the consequences of the victimization including any injuries sustained. Data were

gathered from male to female partner victimization, female to male partner victimization, and same-sex partner victimization (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1996). Respondents were also asked demographic questions as were their spouses, in addition to their perception of violent crimes, power, control and emotional abuses by their spouses and/or partner as well as their help seeking decision making process (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1996).

The sample selection was a national, random digit dialing sample of households with telephones in the United States to reduce the cost of the survey. The sample was stratified by the United States Census regions. For households that had multiple eligible respondents (more than one person above 18 years of age), the most recent birthday method was used, that is, recruiting an individual whose birthday was the most recent before the survey was commenced, were used to select a designated respondent.

As earlier discussed, this study seeks to extend the research on male DV/IPV victimization and their report making decisions, therefore the Violence and Threats of Violence Against Women and Men in The United States of 1994-1996 survey would be filtered to reflect only responses from men. The four themes of rape, stalking, physical assault, and threat of assault/ harassment would be sectioned accordingly. However, two or more sections relating to one theme would be joined to provide a better understanding of the topic. For example, for the theme of rape, Section F – Rape Victimization would be combined with Section J – Detailed Rape Report. This would help the researcher to get a detailed understanding of the respondent's response on rape as a whole

Definition of Variables

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable to be examined will be *decision to report*, which is operationalized as the reason men give as to why they remain in abusive relationships. Respondents' decisions to report their abuse were gathered from responses to the question "*why did you not report?*" which was asked in relation to the various topics of rape, physical assault, stalking and harassment/ threat of violence. It should be noted that the question *why did you not report?* was only answered by respondents who had acknowledged that they had experienced abuse and said abuse was not reported. As such, reported abuse will be transformed into a binary variable whereas (1) indicates that the respondent reported their victimization to law enforcement while (0) equated that the respondent did not report their victimization to anyone. This research will focus on the population that answered (0) as only these people were asked the *why did you not report question*.

Independent Variables

The first independent variable that will be discussed in the study would be *masculinity*. The concept of masculinity is usually associated to the set of attributes, behaviors, roles and expectations assigned to men in the society. No one definition has been given to the concept. As a way of attempting to gain a true insight on what masculinity is, Spence & Sawin (1984) argued that the concept is vague and had been left undefined and unanalyzed. Nevertheless, they further mentioned that the concept is rich in connotation (Spence & Sawin, 1984). Because of the inability to find a comprehensive definition for masculinity, the researcher would rely on answers provided by respondents when the question "why did you not report" is asked. A man who acts contrary to the definition accorded to masculinity by the Merriam Webster's dictionary

(2022) and the stereotypical definition of masculinity, may be tagged non masculine. Armed with these ideas, when asked why reports of victimization committed against a man was not made, answers such as I did not report because - the offence was too minor, I wanted to keep the incident private, I was ashamed, would not be believed, or do not want anyone to know. (Morgan & Wells, 2016) would be considered.

Adult victimization will be defined as victimization that the victim experienced after attaining the legal age of adulthood and within twelve months prior to when the NVAW survey was carried out. This will be assessed by measuring victimization using appropriate variables such as “when did this incidence first occurred”, “who was the perpetrator when this incidence occurred”, “was the perpetrator a spouse”, in the 1994-1996 survey.

The forms of victimization chosen for this research are not expressly defined in the data source. However, the researcher was able to distinguish these forms by first identifying their components as used in the 1994-1996 survey and then using the various definitions of the topics to explain what component related to a theme. See Table 1 for more details.

Table 1.

Themes of Victimization Outcome Assessed Among 8000 Male Respondents

Type of Violence	Components
Rape	Man/boy ever forced respondent to have sex, Male/female forced respondent to have oral sex, Man/boy forced respondent to have anal sex, M/f forced objects in respondent's vagina/anus Male/female force sex w/r-no penetration.
Physical assault	Throw something at you, push, grabbed shoved Pulled your hair, slapped, or hit you, kicked or bit you, choked attempted to drown you, hit you with some object, beat you up threatened you with gun, threatened you with knife weapon, used gun on you, used knife or another weapon on you
Stalking	Followed/spied on respondent, sent unsolicited letters/written correspondence, made unsolicited phone calls, stood outside home, school or workplace, showed up at places had no business being in, left unwanted items for respondents to find, communicated with respondent in other ways against respondent's wishes, vandalized properties, destroyed something
Harassment/threat of violence	Anyone threatened to harm or kill the respondent

Analysis Plan

Hypotheses

In this chapter, the researcher will discuss the hypotheses listed in Chapter 2, and how they relate to the variables

H₁: Men do not report some of their victimization in order to protect their masculinity.

This hypothesis seeks to address the often-perceived notion of why men do not report their victimization. To test this hypothesis, the researcher will analyze the proportion of respondents *who reported* their victimization while for those respondents who *did not report* their victimization, the reasons for not reporting will be analyzed.

H₂ Upon deciding to report, a male victim would rather report to someone they know or a family member rather than report to law enforcement

Among the respondent that reported, a comparison will be made between who reported to the police and those who reported to other people.

H₃ Men will not report their victimization if it happens just once.

A crosstabulation between decision to report and number of victimizations will be carried out. A Chi square test will be done to determine if there is a relationship between reporting and multiple victimization. Both the Phi and Cramer V test will determine the shared variance between decision to report and multiple victimization.

H₄ The rate of reporting differs with the type of victimization experienced by male victim.

The research will test this hypothesis by first finding the proportion of the decision to report in the various forms of victimization in order to determine if there is a difference in the rate of reporting among the forms of victimization experienced.

H₅ Men would report their victimization if it first occurred as adults

The researcher will check for those respondents that first experienced victimization as a child and those that first experienced victimization as adults. Furthermore, the researcher will check for everybody that has experienced victimization, divided them into first experienced as a child and first experienced as adults. A cross tabulation would be done on the various decision respondent gave on why they did not report. Finally, the researcher will conduct a Chi square, Phi and Cramer V analysis to get the shared variance between men who got victimized at an early age and those who got victimized as adults.

H₆ *There are no significant predictors on decisions to report among men who experienced victimization*

For this hypothesis, a regression model will be done to analyze all the independent variables considered in the study. Demographic variables such as age, education, occupation, marital status type of victimization experienced, number of victimizations, and the time victimization was experienced, whether as a child or an adult, will be considered. Table 2 below shows how these variables are measured. These independent variables will be used to predict the decision to report using multi-variate binary logistic regression.

Table 2.
Independent Variables Measurement

Variables
Age group
< 20
≥ 20
Highest level of education
Less than college degree
College degree and over
Racial background
White
Other races
Marital status
Married/ widowed
Not married/divorced/separated
Multiple Victimization
Yes
No

Chapter Summary

This chapter offers a framework of the methods that will be used in carrying out the current study. In total, this research is a non-experimental study that will analyze the relationship between male domestic violence victims, their perception of crime, experiences as a child, and their reporting decisions. Data used throughout the study were gathered from the National Violence Against Women (NVAW) survey. Results of the statistical analysis will be discussed in the following chapter.

Chapter 4. Results

This chapter will highlight and discuss the various statistical analyses that were conducted during this study. These statistics included descriptive statistics which were accessed to provide a general overview of the data. Chi Square test was also part of the analysis carried out for a better test of the hypotheses. Regression was used to measure and determine the major predictors of the decision to report victimization within the sample.

Descriptive Statistics: For a basic understanding of the data used, a descriptive analysis of the general demographics was conducted. A summary of the results can be found in Table 2 which contains information pertaining to demographic variables such age group, highest level of education, racial background, marital status, and employment status. An initial analysis of the data revealed the various demographics within the sample used indicated that of the 8000 survey participants, in terms of age, 3429 respondents were within the age group of 20 – 39, making the responses of this age group 42.9 percent of the total surveyed population. For the highest level of education attained, respondents tend to be predominantly high school graduate with 30.7 percent. With regards to racial and marital background, 80.3 percent of the respondents were white, and 66.1 percent of the general sample were married. Measures associated with employment status revealed that 69.6 percent of the surveyed sample were in a full-time employment (N = 5568), while respondents that were employed part time and those who were students accounted for 4.3 percent respectively.

Table 3.
Socio-Demographic Variables

Variable	Frequency (n = 8000)	Percent (%)
Age group		
< 20	301	3.8
20 – 39	3429	42.9
40 – 59	2966	37.1
60 – 79	1108	13.9
≥ 80	115	1.4
Refused	81	1.0
Highest level of education		
No schooling	12	0.2
1st-8th grade	214	2.7
Some high school	576	7.2
HS graduate	2453	30.7
Some college	2122	26.5
4-year college degree	1659	20.7
Postgraduate	943	11.8
Refused	21	0.2
Racial background		
White	6424	80.3
Black/African American	659	8.2
Asian/Pacific Islander	165	2.1
American Indian/Alaskan Native	105	1.3
Mixed race	406	5.1
Refused	241	3
Marital status		
Married	5292	66.1
Common-law relationship	38	0.5
Divorced	669	8.4
Separated	141	1.8
Widowed	149	1.9
Single & never married	1677	21.0
Refused	34	0.5
Employment status		
Employed full-time	5568	69.6
Employed part-time	344	4.3
In the military	81	1.0
Unemployed/looking for work	270	3.4
Retired/not working	1044	13.1
Student	345	4.3

The themes analyzed in this study were further broken down in Table 4 to determine the prevalence rate of victimization among men. Within the sample population of 8,000 men, 5314 reported being physically assaulted at one point in their life. This amount accounted for 66.4 percent of the total respondents. Six point two percent (6.2%) of the respondents reported having been stalked at some point, six percent (6%) reported being a victim of threat or harassment, while three percent (3%) reported having been raped. This analysis indicates that physical assault

is the most common form of victimization among men while rape is the least common form of reported victimization experienced by men

Table 4.
Prevalence of Forms of Abuse/Victimization

Variable	Frequency (N= 6529)	Percent (%)
Stalking	498	6.2
Rape	239	3.0
Physical assault	5314	66.4
Threat of victimization	478	6.0

In this study, six hypotheses were formed to test the various antecedents relating to a man’s decision to report victimization in a domestic violence situation Results of the testing are hereby discussed.

Hypothesis 1 *Men do not report some of their victimization in order to protect their masculinity.*

In this study, the researcher asserted that masculinity played a large role in a man’s decision to report a form of victimization carried out against him. As such, a man who thinks reporting would take away or reduce his masculinity may be likely not to report his victimization and that impacts the rate of reporting by men. To test this hypothesis, the rate of reporting each of the discussed forms of victimizations was analyzed in order to draw a pattern. Starting with physical assault, the researcher found that of the 5314 respondents who reported to have been victimized, only 17.7 percent (939) reported their victimization to law enforcement. Upon further inquiry as to why they did not report, the most common reason given was that the offense was *too minor* (29.8 percent). Other reasons given included handled it myself (4.5 percent), did not want involvement with the police (3.4 percent), and did not think police could do anything (3.2 percent). Stalking was the second most reported form of victimization among the respondent with a total number of 498 respondents. Not surprisingly, only 12.7 percent (N = 63) of the

victims reported their victimization to law enforcement. Reasons for not reporting include too minor (15.4 percent), handle it myself (5.1 percent), or did not think the police could do anything (4.4 percent). Results from stalking is similar to the reasons victims gave for not reporting threat of victimization and harassment, specifically, too minor was the highest reason given by respondents (23.2 percent). Handle it myself (5.7 percent), did not want police involvement (4.0 percent) and did not believe the police can do anything (2.7 percent) were some other significant reasons given. Rape was the least experienced form of victimization, with only 239 respondents. However, only 10.9 percent (26) reported rape as a form of victimization to law enforcement, and 213 did not make any report about their victimization. When asked the reason for their refusal, the most common reason given was that I was too young (17.8 percent), the offence was too minor (15.5 percent), shame (11.3 percent), fear of offender (8.9 percent), and did not want anyone to know (7.0 percent).

Hypothesis 2 *Upon deciding to report, a male victim would rather report to someone they know or a family member rather than report to law enforcement*

Across all forms of victimization analyzed, result shows that more victims would rather report their victimization to another person rather than reporting to law enforcement. It was found that out of the 5314 victims who experienced physical victimization, 4375 (82.3 percent) did not report to law enforcement, this indicates that only 17.7 percent of men that experienced this form of victimization reported. A total number of 239 respondents reported experience of rape, however, 213 (89 percent) did not report their victimization. For stalking, 498 respondent reported victimization, while 435 did not report their abuse to the police. 478 respondents reported that they have been either threatened or harassed at one point in their life, however, only 77 (16.1 percent) reported their abuse to a law enforcement agent.

Table 5.
Report Rate

Reasons for not report	Physical assault (N= 4375)	Rape (N= 213)	Stalking (N=435)	Threat of Violence (N=401)
Too minor	29.8	17.8	15.4	23.2
Handled it myself	4.5	2.8	5.1	5.7
Did not want involvement with police	3.4	2.8	2.5	4.0
Did not think police could do anything	3.2	3.8	4.4	2.7
One time incident	1.4	1.4	1.1	0.7
Did not want anyone to know	1.2	7.0	0.5	2.2
Would not be believed	1.1	4.7	1.6	0.5
Did not want him or her arrested	1.0	0.5	1.1	0.7
I would not turn in family member	0.8	1.9	0.5	0.7
Shame	0.7	11.3	0.7	0.2
I reported to someone else	0.6	0.9	0.5	0.2
Military handled it	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.5
Fear of offender	0.5	8.9	0.2	1.0
I was too young	0.3	17.8	0.0	0.0
Was police officer	0.3	0.0	0.2	1.2
Distance I moved	0.3	0.0	0.2	0.0
Assailant was my husband	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.2
Wanted to keep incident private	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<i>Other</i>	<i>1.6</i>	<i>2.8</i>	<i>1.1</i>	<i>2.7</i>

An analysis of other people victims would rather report their abuse to reveals that, male victims who experienced physical assault were more likely to report their victimization to both law enforcement and other people than victims who experienced the other forms of abuse analyzed. Apart from rape victims, male victims within the sample were more likely to report their victimization to a friend/neighbor (physical assault 65 percent, stalking 65.5 percent, threat of victimization 58.8 percent), than any other person; on the other hand, male rape victims are more likely to report their rape victimization to a parent or other family members (40.4percent). The reason for this may be associated to the various rape myths. Despite result showing that a victim would rather speak to someone else than to law enforcement agent, a preliminary analysis

revealed that a victim would rather report a victimization to people with whom they have close ties or associations. See Table 6 below.

Table 6.
Persons Reported to

Persons talked to	Physical assault (N= 1158) %	Rape (N= 89) %	Stalking (N=84) %	Threat of Violence (N=114) %
Friend/Neighbor	65.5	36	65.5	58.8
Parents family	26.3	40.4	19.0	25.4
Husband/ Boyfriend	14.2	31.5	14.3	16.7
Co-worker/ Boss	8.5	3.4	11.9	13.2
Other	2.3	3.4	2.4	1.8
His/her family in-laws	1.8	3.4	0.0	0.9
Minister/Clergy	1.4	2.2	0.0	0.0
Counselor/ Therapist	1.3	5.6	2.4	1.8
Attorney legal aide	0.9	1.1	3.6	2.6
Doctor/ Other health professional	0.8	2.2	1.2	0.9
Community family center	0.4	0.0	0.0	1.8
Court officer	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0
Crisis center	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
Homeless shelter	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
Social services welfare	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Victim advocacy agency	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0

Hypothesis 3 *Men will only report their victimization if they have experienced two or more forms of victimization.*

Chi square test provides an initial understanding of the goodness of fit between observed values and those expected theoretically. In this study, the researcher tested for a relationship between multiple victimization and decision to report. Statistical findings indicate that there is an association between the decision to report and multiple victimization, the purpose of the Chi square analysis was to compare percentages and make an inference as to the significant levels of both variables. Thirty-nine percent (N = 355) of people who experienced multiple victimization took a decision to report compared to only 11 percent of respondents who did not experience multiple victimization.

Table 7.*Association Between Multiple Victimization and Decision to Report to Law Enforcement Agencies*

Variable	Decision to report			χ^2	p-value
	Yes N (%)	No N (%)	Total N (%)		
Multiple victimization					
Yes	355 (39.0)	556 (61.0)	911	514.949	<0.001
No	784 (11.1)	6305 (88.9)	7089		
Total	1139 (14.2)	6861 (85.8)	8000		

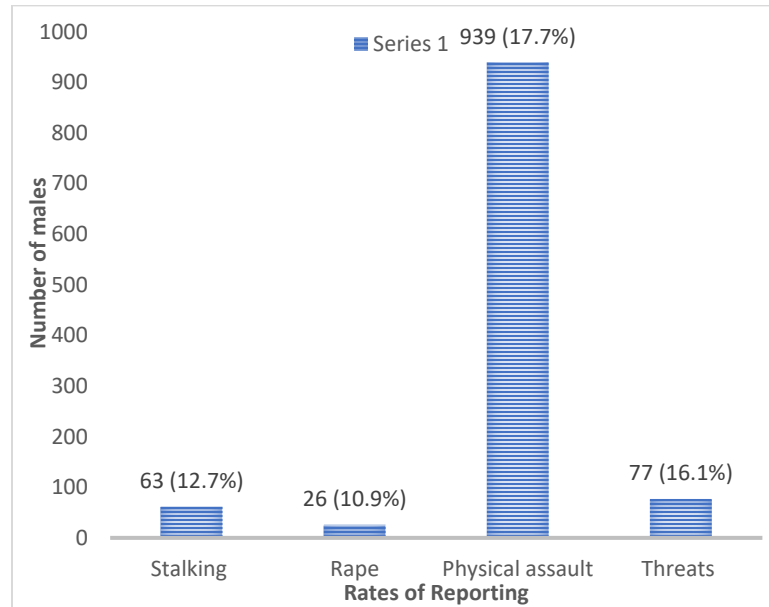
χ^2 : Chi square test, Phi: 0.254; p value: <0.001

Therefore, a higher proportion of those who experienced multiple victimization decided to report. Invariably, 2 of every 5 (39) individuals who experienced multiple victimization made a decision to report as compared to only a tenth of those who did not experienced victimization. The association between multiple victimization and decision to report shows that more people were likely to report victimization when they experience two or more victimizations. This relationship was found to be statistically significant ($\chi^2= 514.95$; P value $\leq .001$).

Hypothesis 4 *The rate of reporting differs with the type of victimization experienced by male victim*

The rate of reporting for each form of victimization among respondents was found to be different. More respondents reported physical assault (17.7 percent) than any other form. The least type of victimization to have been reported to law enforcement was rape, with only 10.9 percent of victims reporting their victimization to either law enforcement or other people. For threat of victimization and stalking, only 16.1 percent and 12.7% report their victimization to law enforcement.

Figure 2.
Rate of Response



Hypothesis 5 *Men would report their victimization if it first occurred as adults*

This hypothesis was tested using a Chi square, the researcher found a statistically significant relationship between decision to report and experiencing victimization first as an adult. As already noted, male victimization is rarely reported, but when reported, analysis shows that 28.5 percent of male who experience victimization first as an adult would report as opposed to 15.1 percent of men who experienced victimization first as a child. This relationship between decision to report and when the victimization was first experienced was found to be Statistically significant ($\chi^2=100.17$; $p<.001$).

Table 8.
Time of Victimization

Variable	Physical assault report			χ^2	p value
	Yes N (%)	No N (%)	Total N (%)		
First experience					
As a child	652 (15.1)	3655 (84.9)	4307	100.172	<0.001
As an adult	287 (28.5)	720 (71.5)	1007		
Total	939 (17.7)	4375 (82.3)	5314		

χ^2 : Chi square test

Phi: -0.137; p value: <0.001

Hypothesis 6 *There are no significant predictors on decisions to report among men who experienced victimization*

For this hypothesis, a binary logistic regression was utilized to support the argument that none of the demographic variables tested impacted a man's decision to report their victimization. For this to be fully understood, a test was carried out to determine these impacts by looking at the various outcomes each independent variable would have on the general decision to report. This method allows for accurate estimation of the impact of the different variables on reporting. The independent variables utilized in the regression model includes age, education, employment, marital status, race, and multiple victimization. Findings showed that education was statistically significant and positive (Exp(B)1.234; Sig.003) indicating that individuals who had a college education were 1.23 times more likely to report their victimization. This variable disproves the hypothesis that asserts that there are no significant predictors of decision to report.

Table 9.
Regression Table

Variables	B	S.E	EXP(B)	SIG
Age	-.036	.063	.964	.562
Education	.211	.070	1.234	.003
Employment	.349	.084	1.418	.000
Marital status	-.165	.075	.848	.027
Race	-.095	.085	.910	.268
Multiple victimization	1.604	.079	4.973	.000

Employment was also a predictor of decision to report that was statistically significant and positive (Exp(B)1.418; p value .000). This indicates that employed individuals were 1.41 times more likely to report their victimization. Another significant variable that largely impacts the decision to report is the number of times the victim was victimized. This variable was statistically significant and positive (Exp(B)4.97; p value.000). The result of the analysis revealed that victims with multiple victimization were 497% chance more likely to report their experience to law enforcement.

In conclusion, the findings for this hypothesis cannot be said to be entirely true as results indicates that more variables disproved the hypothesis, the implication of this being that there are significant predictors of a man decision to report, with the number of victimizations experience playing a statistically significant role in the decision.

Chapter Summary

Carrying out the statistical analysis in this section was important as it has given a true picture of the earlier hypotheses postulated. The descriptive analysis allowed for an in-depth knowledge of the dataset. Since analysis was only carried out on respondents who did not report their victimization, getting the proportion and percentage of the rate of non-reporting by respondent was beneficial to the study. The regression model revealed a few significant

associations between the dependent measure, *decision to report* and the independent measures. The model showed that there were independent variables (education, employment, and multiple victimization) that had a significant positive relationship with the dependent variable (decision to report). Having given an overview of the analysis that were computed, the next chapter will provide a more detailed discussion on the findings. This discussion will include both the implication of these finding on theory and policy initiatives, and as an extension, it will also give a layout of the limitations of the study as well as propose a guideline for future research on this topic.

Chapter 5. Discussion

The aim of this study was to explore domestic violence from the lens of a man. The study sought to delve into a man's decision to report victimization carried out against him. The framework included two prominent perceptions that have often been believed to be the cause of low reporting rate among men, Masculinity and distrust in the criminal justice system which is occasioned by the societal narrative that men are strong and cannot be victimized. To theorize the various hypotheses being tested in the study, male victimization and threat of victimization data was gathered from the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS). In this chapter, further explanation and discussion will be carried out on the findings gathered in the preceding chapter. In addition, the chapter will also discuss the limitation faced during the study, outline the implications of the study as well as offer recommendations for future research on male domestic violence victimization.

Generally, there is a lacuna in the exploration of men's experiences of violence (Stanko & Hobdell, 1993), which is often attributed to a man's reluctance to report their victimization. This reluctance as seen in the literature is often because of the man's hesitation in disclosing his vulnerability (Deshpande, 2019; Huntley et al., 2019; Joseph-Edwards & Wallace, 2021; Ranapurwala et al., 2016). For example, in victimology, while more women report being afraid that a crime will be committed against them, findings indicate that men are the more likely to be victims of crime even though they did not report an increased fear of crime (Lagrange & Ferraro, 1989).

Originally conceptualized by Connell (1995), masculinity, mostly hegemonic masculinity, seeks to explain why and how a dominant social role over women is maintained by men in society. Most western countries have tried to refine the meaning to not portray an

acceptance of male dominance; however, the generally perceived definition of masculinity does not differ. In modern societies, hegemonic masculinity is synonymous with qualities that are usually considered “Macho;” (McVittie et al., 2017) specifically being assertive, aggressive, and invulnerable (Maxfield, 1984), not minding the circumstances, they must always exhibit firmness, steadfastness, and brevity in the face of adversity. The hegemonic masculinity is a concept that closely relates to exhibition of behaviors that display courage, strength, rejection of the admission of weakness. The idea also discourages the expression of wanting help from others or the showing of emotion no matter how slight. This attribute, when placed side by side, with a man’s decision to report plays a big role in the decision-making process.

For the most part, the findings in this study were supportive of the concept of masculinity being a reason why men do not report their victimization. Hypothesis one stated that men do not report some of their victimization because they seek to protect their masculinity. Here, masculinity was measured using NCVS data to capture responses to the question “why did you not report.” Most men responded to this question with answers such as that; the offense was too minor, they handled it themselves, they would not be believed, and shame. These findings correlate with society’s perceptions on what an ideal man should be and how they should behave. So much pressure is put on men to behave in a specific way, and these pressures can sometime translate into normalizing power and control as perpetrators and when victims, ignoring or not recognizing their victimization as an abuse (Machado et al., 2016). The reason for this may be that at an early age, society teaches men to believe that they could handle emotional and physical abuse themselves. This is not far from the reason for not reporting victimization given by men in the study.

The male distrust of the criminal justice system (Anderson, 1999; Baumer, 2002) also plays a key role in a man's decision to report. In this study, the researcher hypothesized that *a male victim would rather report to someone they know or a family member rather than report to law enforcement*. The result showed that more people reported their victimizations to persons known to them rather than reporting to the police. For example, while only 939 men who had experienced physical assault reported their assault to the police, 1158 reported their victimization to other persons instead. This difference cuts across all forms of victimization examined, as more people were willing to talk to persons known to them, mostly family members, neighbors, friends, and others about their abuse. Galdas et al. in 2005 found that men who seek help overcome both internal and external obstacles to do so. These external and internal obstacles (Addis & Mahalik, 2003) are the result of the fact that men in general are less likely to seek help for problems that their larger communities deem abnormal for a man, or that the man should be able to handle. A plethora of studies have shown how men have been ridiculed, blatantly told that there is no help for them, or they are accused of being instigators of the violence against them or even arrested as the aggressor when they report victimization (Cook, 2009, Douglas & Hines, 2011, King and Woollett 1997). This may be the reason for the distrust against the justice system.

Furthermore, with regards to reporting and multiple victimization, results showed that men who had faced multiple victimizations were more willing to report subsequent abuses than men who had only one victimization. As earlier noted, men in general are expected to behave in a specific way within the society, specifically though, aggressive, assertive, and brave. These attributes of men may hinder a man from reporting a victimization that has been carried out against him if it only occurs once, however, this may not be the case if the victimization or other

forms of offenses are continuously carried out against the victim. Previous research had focused on the impact of reporting on repeat victimization, Ranapurwala et al. (2016), found in their study that there is an association between reporting victimization to police and fewer future victimizations. It is unclear if non reporting played a role in the victims in the current study, however, having multiple victimization did play a role in the victim's willingness to report.

The fourth hypothesis tested the rate of reporting in each of the forms of victimization. findings indicated that even though the general rate of reporting was low among all the offenses, there is a difference in the rate at which each offense are reported, which could be related to the uniqueness of each offense. For example, physical assault had the highest rate of reporting even though it could be argued that the offense had a higher report rate because it was the most perpetrated form of violence against a man. The findings from this study correlate with previous research that has found that physical assault, in terms of personal victimization, is usually the most reported form of violence (CDC, 2010; Machado et al., 2016; Morgan & Wells, 2016), as this form of violence most times leave proof of victimization on the body of the victim and, as such, the victim has less burden of proof as to whether the offense has actually occurred. This is readily true in the case of a male victim that has the fear of not being believed as they could show proof of their victimization (Fisher et al., 2021). Rape on the other hand had the least reporting rate in this study. This finding also correlates with other findings on rape victimization. Rape usually is the least reported sexual offenses (Pino & Meier, 1999). Most men in the current study noted that the reason they did not report their rape victimization was because, they were too young when they experienced the victimization, they thought the victimization was too minor to report, they were ashamed, did not want anyone to know, would not be believed and the fear of the offender. These answers lead to the conclusion that a potential reason for a low rate of

report of male rape has to do with the offender's perception of crime and the fear of how the society would react when meeting with news of a male rape.

Adult victimization was another concept tested. It was hypothesized that victims were more likely to report victimization if it was first experienced as an adult. This hypothesis was correct and in line with the findings of an earlier report by the United States Department of Justice in 2020 which stated that violent victimization of juveniles was less likely to be reported to law enforcement or someone else than violence against adults. Findings from this study revealed that victims of the various forms of victimization examined gave "*too young*" as the reason for their non reporting of a victimization experienced.

The last hypothesis tested the likely predictors in the decision to report. Multiple victimizations were found to be the most statistically significant factor that influences a man's decision to report. Findings from the analysis indicate that a man was 497% more likely to report their victimization to police if they had experienced the victimization or other forms of victimization more than once. Societal expectation of men and their perception of crime may be why men do not report their first victimization because they think they will not be believed, it is too minor, or fear of what the society would say about them. However, this may become different if they experience victimization more than once or if they realize the implication of not reporting victimization to their health, the people around them, and the society in general. Other predictors of men reporting their victimization from the current study are education, specifically victims who had a college education or more were more likely to report their victimization. Also, men who were employed, whether full or part time were likely going to report their victimization. However, married men were 15.2% less likely to report, age and race were not statistically significant in the model.

In conclusion, findings from this study were able to shed light on the reasons why men rarely report their victimization and the predicting factor that would impact reporting when they chose to reply. The next section would outline the various limitations of the current study and possible recommendation for future study.

Limitations and Implication of the Study

The study contained various limitations which are important to look at when analyzing the findings and their implications. The first limitation is that this study was carried out on a secondary data with the researcher not being a part of the original collection team. Due to this fallback, great reliance cannot be placed on the accuracy of the methodology that was used in sourcing and coding the data. Another major limitation which is also common with this type of study relates to the type of data used, domestic violence is one of the most underreported crimes globally and reliance on data gotten is often an issue (Adebayo, 2014). The study's use of the NCVS makes it even less reliable as some of the claims made by respondents could not be verified by law enforcement because of the NCVS dependence on self-reported data. The use of the single dialing code method to source for respondents and the use of birthdays to determine which household and who within the household, respectively, could take part in the study could have greatly skewed findings to limit responses from households who do not have a house telephone and households who either have more than one male in the house or males who are below the 18 years benchmark but have been victimized. The age of the data is also a big flaw to this type of research as a lot has changed in the past 28 years, and people's perception of crime and reporting could have also changed within this period. The implication of this is that the findings from this research should not be used to suggest that the results can be applied to all men in America, instead, these results should be used in the context of analysis.

Future Research and Conclusion

The current research's primary aim was to try and understand why men did not report their victimization when in a domestic violence situation. Findings indicated that the preservation of their masculinity, distrust of the criminal justice system, and society's perception of what an ideal man should be, were the most useful reasons. Nevertheless, the findings had many limitations. Future research that analyzes male's victims' decision to report in a domestic violence situation may achieve contrary findings with different methodologies and statistical approaches.

Researchers should consider collecting primary data so that variables can be isolated and questions that are offense specific can be asked. Future research could also include younger victims as some offenses such as rape, are mostly carried out against the younger populations (Miller, 2013). Excluding this population because of their age may have an implication on the type of findings reached.

In conclusion, the major motivation of this study was to highlight the little or no attention that scholars and law enforcement had given to male victims of domestic violence, despite the known implications of domestic violence on victims. Notwithstanding the discussed limitations, the distinct nature of this study and its results may serve to advance our understanding of why male victims refuse to report domestic violence victimizations. Furthermore, this will provide a framework for further research into male victims of domestic violence and ways to get them the help that they need. Research like these would also give this kind of victim's reassurance that the society is aware of their plight and that by speaking up, they are doing the right thing.

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VITA

NGOZI TRACY ALEKE

Education: M.A. Criminal Justice and Criminology, East Tennessee State
University, Johnson City, Tennessee, 2022
B.L. Law, Nigerian Law School,
Victoria Island, Lagos, Nigeria, 2015
LL.B. Law, Ambrose Alli University,
Ekpoma, Edo State, Nigeria, 2014
SSSCE, Ase Secondary School,
Afuze, Edo State Nigeria, 2007

Professional Experience: Legal Associate, Akabogu and Associates, Lagos, Nigeria,
2017-2019
Recovery Officer, Heritage Bank Nigeria PLC, Lagos, Nigeria,
2019-2021
Graduate Assistant, East Tennessee State University, College of
Arts and Sciences, 2021-2022

Professional Affiliations: Nigerian Bar Association
Institute of Chartered Secretaries and Administrators
Criminal Justice Honor Society (Alpha Phi Sigma)