

PREDICTORS OF INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE (IPV) IN ETHIOPIAN COUPLES  
LIVING IN HAWASSA CITY

BY

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**DECLARATION OF THE RESEARCHER**

I declare that *Predictors of intimate partner violence (IPV) in Ethiopian couples living in Hawassa City* is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at Rhodes or other higher education institutions for another qualification.

**Name of Student****Signature****Date**

Adane Wako Jarsso



FEBRUARY 2026

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## ABSTRACT

Despite the Ethiopian state's prescription of constitutional and legal protection of marriages and couple relationships from violent acts, the country continues to struggle with high rates of Intimate Partner Violence (IPV). This study aimed to explore relational predictors of IPV in Ethiopian couples using a quantitative research design. A total of 318 participants were recruited for the study from the Hawassa City of Ethiopia. Teachers from two primary schools, two secondary (high) schools, and academic staff from Hawassa University, College of Social Sciences and first-year Natural Science students at Hawassa University were purposefully selected based on their close proximity to and acquaintance with Hawassa University. Participants completed a lengthy survey questionnaire which included four data-gathering instruments which had been translated into Amharic using a five stage translation design aligned with WHO guideline. The instruments included a demographic questionnaire, the Experiences of Close Relationships (ECR) scale; the Conflict Inventory (CI); the Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS) and the Composite of Abuse Revised Short Form (CASR-SF). Results from binomial logistic regression identified relationship dissatisfaction, withdrawal as a conflict resolution strategy, and workplace as significant predictors of violence in this Ethiopian sample. These findings have valuable implications for the design of IPV prevention and intervention strategies for practitioners and policy-makers. The findings could be used to mitigate and minimize IPV in Ethiopian community settings, particularly when considered from an attachment theory lens.

**Keyword:** Attachment style, conflict resolution strategy, Ethiopia, Intimate Partner Violence (IPV), Relationship satisfaction.

## ACRONYMS

AYW: Adolescent Young Women

CASr-SF: Composite Abuse Scale Revised Short Form

CI-R: Conflict Inventory Revised

CI: Cognitive Interviews

CoEBS: College of Education and Behavioral Sciences

CSA: Central Statistical Authority

CSSH: College of Social Sciences and Humanities

DHS: Demographic and Health Survey

DV: Dependent Variable

ECR: Experiences in Close Relationships Scale

EDHS: Ethiopian Demographic and Health Survey

ER: Emotional Regulation

ETB. : Ethiopian Birr

FDRE: Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia

FDRE, MOE: Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, Ministry of Education

HHDC: Humanities Higher Degrees Committee

HURERC: Hawassa University Research Ethics Review Committee

HU-CSSH: Hawassa University, College of Social Sciences and Humanities

HSD: Honestly Significant Difference

ICF: International Development Consulting

IGT: Inter-Generational Theory

IPSV: Intimate Partner Sexual Violence

IPV: Intimate Partner Violence

KMO: Kaiser Meyer Olkin

NIHSS: National Institute of Humanities and Social Sciences

NRF: National Research Foundation (South African)

OR: Odd Ratio

RAS: The Relationship Assessment Scale

SL: Source Language

SLT: Social Learning theory

SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Science

SSA: Sub-Saharan Africa

SSC: Strange Situation Classification

TL: Target Language

WHO: World Health Organization

UNFPA: United Nations Population Fund

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## CHAPTER ONE

### 1. CONTEXT AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

#### 1.1 CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

Ethiopia is a landlocked country in Northeast Africa, located between approximately E 32°58'00" to E 48°00'00" and 3°25'00" N to 14°55'00" N. (Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (hereafter cited as FDRE), Ministry of Environment and Forest, 2015). Ethiopia is the second most populous country in Africa and it has been estimated that the country has a population over 112 million people in 2019, with an annual population growth rate of 2.6% (World Bank Open Data, 2021), and its population is projected to reach 139.6 million by 2030 and 190.8 million by 2050 (World Bank, 2021). In addition, the country has a land mass of 1,104,300 km<sup>2</sup> and shares borders with Eritrea to the north, Djibouti and Somalia to the east, Sudan and South Sudan to the west, and Kenya to the South (World Bank, 2021).

As specified in Article 1 of the Ethiopian Constitution, the political governance of Ethiopia was established by the Constitution on the basis of a federal and democratic state structure called the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (FDRE); and Article 45 indicates that the country has a parliamentary form of government (FDRE constitution, 1995). The federal government is responsible for establishing and implementing national standards and basic policy criteria for public health, education, science and technology, as well as for the protection and preservation of cultural and historical legacies (FDRE constitution, 1995). Regional administrative states are responsible for formulating and executing economic, social and development policies, strategies and the plans of the state (FDRE constitution, 1995).

The Ethiopian Constitution states that the family is the natural and fundamental unit of society and is entitled to protection by society and the State, and marriage shall be entered into

only with the free and full consent of the intending spouses (FDRE constitution, 1995; the Revised Family Code, 2000). Thus, marriage partners shall in all cases, co-operate, to protect the security and interests of the family to bring up and ensure the good behavior and education of their children in order to make them responsible citizens ( FDRE, The Revised Family Code, 2000). Furthermore, the Revised Family Code Article 49(1) notes that marriage partners owe each other respect, support, and assistance. The Code recommends that all disputes arising in the family system be resolved by a competent organ in a just and efficient manner for the sake of generational continuity.

However, despite such legal dictates and protections of the institution of marriage and the family, the World Health Organization (WHO, 2021) reports that Ethiopia has one of the highest rates of Intimate Partner Violence (here after, IPV) globally. IPV is a global phenomenon that affects most women. For instance, WHO (2021) reported that 27% of ever-married/partnered women aged 15–49 years are estimated to be subjected to physical and/or sexual violence from a current or former husband or male intimate partner at least once in their lifetime. In Africa this figure rises to 33 % with an Ethiopian prevalence rate of around 37 % (WHO, 2021).

In fact, despite the Ethiopian state's prescription of constitutional and legal protection of marriage and couple relationships from any types of violent acts (FDRE Constitution, 1995; the Revised Family Code, 2000), the lifetime prevalence of IPV has been estimated at between 20% to 78%, depending on the region (Semahegn & Mengistie, 2015; WHO 2013), affecting all spheres of peoples' lives (García-Moreno et al, 2005).

In Hawassa, the research site for this PhD project, research indicates a concerning prevalence of Sexual Violence against Women and Girls (SVAWG) within the city. For example, a recent study by Deribe et al. (2022) conducted among 199 randomly selected

respondents revealed that 50.8% of women and girls had experienced multiple forms of violence while utilizing public transportation. Factors such as age, marital status, mode of public transport, travel duration, facilities, and management were identified as predictors of gender-based violence (GBV) in the transport sector. Similarly, another study among 599 evening programme students employed as housemaids in Hawassa City reported that 20.9% had encountered some form of gender-based violence in their workplaces, with 16.9% experiencing physical violence and 11% reporting instances of sexual violence (Kassa et al., 2023). Moreover, a study by Sendo and Melaku (2015) involving 336 female students enrolled in their second year or above at Hawassa University revealed that 14.3% of respondents reported experiencing completed rape since joining the university, with 3% having been raped in preceding years. Furthermore, a comparative cross-sectional study by Beletu (2022) examining IPV among women living with and without HIV in public health facilities of Hawassa City found that the lifetime prevalence of IPV was 41.9% among HIV-positive and a 33.8% among HIV-negative women, respectively. Additionally, IPV within the past 12 months was reported at 20.4% among HIV-positive and 17.1% among HIV-negative women, respectively. These findings underscore the pervasive nature of violence within the city, with limited research addressing some of the underlying relational predictors of this IPV which could be used to inform violence prevention and intervention programmes. Challenges persist as IPV often goes unreported, and service providers' exhibit limited readiness to address IPV in the Hawassa area (Teshome et al., 2023).

While much has been written on the socio-demographic predictors of IPV, far less literature is available on relational predictors of IPV. Such relational predictors would include couples' individual attachment styles, their preferred conflict resolution strategies and even their subjective appraisals of relationship satisfaction.

IPV is born out of conflict in romantic relationships, however, since conflict is often unavoidable, it makes sense that conflict resolution strategies have been shown to be the most significant elements that predict satisfaction in couples' romantic relationships, along with couples' individual attachment styles (Banes, 2004). Within couples' relationships, attachment styles, conflict resolution styles, and more individualistic or collectivist conceptions of self has been identified as important factors that impact on relationship satisfaction and the risk of violence (Bretaña et al., 2019; 2020).

In these romantic relationships, attachment bonds can be threatened by diverse circumstances, including the perception that one's partner is becoming overly attached or detached, which may escalate to violence as a response to attachment disruption (Finkel & Slotter, 2007). Similarly, Simpson and Rholes (1994) asserted that IPV in romantic relationship is a dysfunctional attempt to maintain proximity to an attachment figure when attachment needs are threatened. Other studies on IPV and attachment styles also reported that more anxious and preoccupied attachment are risk factors for IPV (Lewis et al., 2017; McClure & Parmenter, 2017; Ponti & Tani, 2019; Shechory, 2013). Similarly, Shaver and Mikulincer (2011) asserted that people with anxious attachment would tend to be ambivalent toward power and domination; and people with an avoidant attachment style would instead tend toward autonomy and distance. However, a systematic review by Velotti, et al, (2018) on attachment and IPV concluded that the association between specific attachment dimensions and violence was inconclusive and suggested further investigation particularly in contexts that are underrepresented in the current research such as African countries like Ethiopia

Thus, a better understanding of the predictive value of relational factors in IPV among Ethiopian couples would make a valuable contribution to the current literature, while providing

insights into how these factors may be used to improve violence prevention and intervention strategies for Ethiopian couples.

### **1.1.1 Interaction between attachment styles, conflict resolution styles and IPV**

Attachment is the emotional connection between partners; and attachment styles are ways of interacting and behaving in relationships that have the potential to influence couple's conflict resolution strategies (Mikulincer & Shaver 2016). People with secure attachment styles are more likely to express affection towards their partners and are less likely to use coercive, aggressive, or withdrawal strategies during conflict (Heene et al. 2005; La Valley & Guerrero, 2012). Cann et al. (2008) found that anxious and avoidant attachment styles were negatively related to the use of adaptive conflict resolution strategies; and individuals with an anxious attachment style were more likely to oblige their partner; while those with avoidant attachment styles were more likely to be dominating and use avoidance as a conflict resolution strategy.

Some cross-cultural work has already been done in this area. For example, Bonache et al. (2019) in an online survey of 216 Spanish undergraduates found that anxiously attached participants reported a higher use of maladaptive engagement behaviours like coercive and abusive strategies; and avoidant attachment was linked to higher withdrawal in conflict situations. Similarly, Ayenew (2021) in a sample of 306 Ethiopian participants found that attachment avoidance predicted behaviours that included integrating, compromising, obliging, and dominating styles of conflict resolution styles; while attachment anxiety predicted obliging, dominating and avoiding conflict resolution styles. Moreover, González-Ortega et al. (2021) in a sample of 405 young Spanish couples found that partners with higher attachment anxiety and avoidance reported more dysfunctional conflict resolution styles.

However, Banse (2004) cautions that cultural norms play an important role in romantic relationships and must be considered in order to develop a better understanding of the function of attachment styles and conflict resolution strategies. Conducting cross-cultural studies on the interplay between different dynamics within the couple relationship and IPV will help to assess the impact of these different norms and cultural values (Halford et al., 2018). Current research on attachment styles, relationship satisfaction, conflict resolution strategies and their correlates has been investigated almost exclusively from Eurocentric perspectives (Bradbury et al., 2000; Madathil & Benschhoff, 2008). Such research in African context has essential value for intervention strategies since profound marital relationship changes are being witnessed in Sub-Saharan African marriages (Cherlin, 2014), with a move away from more traditional norms in governing these relationships. For instance, Ofole (2013) noted that religiosity was the highest predictor of marital satisfaction amongst a sample of 682 young Nigerians who had been married for less than 5 years. In South Africa autonomous marriages are correlated with higher marital satisfaction than arranged marriages (Manisha, 2005), while in Ghana open communication and less traditional decision-making were strong predictors of marriage quality (Miller & Kanae, 1999).

In order to resolve couples' conflicts, many African communities use both psychosocial and cultural strategies. For example, Spaumer (2017) explained that in South Africa couples invite family members, friends, pastors or third parties to mediate their conflicts as an external intervention strategy. In Kenya, marital and couple counselling with an independent, external therapist was commonly reported as a means of reducing marital conflict (*Barongo & Onderi, 2018*). These varied findings suggest that couples' relationships are impacted on by cultural

context; and African scholars (e.g., Odhiambo, 2012; Okello, 2005) are calling for a better understanding of conflict resolution styles in African contexts.

While factors contributing to relationship (dis)satisfaction in Ethiopia may have some commonalities with situations in other cultures on the African continent, the differences in the socio-cultural system, beliefs and values, influencing relationship satisfaction remains unique and requires further research (Girma & Zewdu, 2019). This is particularly important in light of the prevalence of high IPV that characterizes many Ethiopian couples' relationships (Agumasie & Bezatu, 2015; WHO, 2021); and the increasing rate of divorce. Like many Sub-Saharan Africa countries (Afary, 2004), divorce is not well-documented in Ethiopia. Thus, the existing figures are contradictory and somewhat outdated. But a community-based nationwide survey among 8,663 households by Ethiopian Public Health Institute (EPHI) and International Development Consulting (hereafter cited as ICF) (2021) reported that 6% of the participant were divorced or separated. However, in their analysis for 33 countries in sub-Saharan Africa based on the Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) Clark and Brauner-Otto, (2015) has found that 39.6 % of Ethiopian marriages will dissolve and 30.6% will end up in divorce for those aged between 15-19 years. This figure is considerably higher than the Sub-Saharan African average of 24.8%. Similarly, Tilsen and Larson (2000) estimated that 45 % of first marriages in Ethiopia end in divorce within 30 years, 40 % within 20 years, 34 % within 10 years and 28% within the first 5 years. These figures imply considerable relationship dissatisfaction.

Though research to date has identified important socio-economic variables that impact on relationship satisfaction in Ethiopia (Agumasie & Bezatu, 2015; Bayle et al., 2017) along with some evidence relating to attachment styles (Ayenew, 2016), the impact of these relational factors on IPV remains unexplored, as does the influence of cultural factors, and a broader

understanding of emotional processes that could be linked to health and well-being of Ethiopian couples (Neetu et al., 2017).

## **1.2 RATIONALE FOR THIS STUDY**

According to Hofstede (2001), individualistic societies and culture promote individuals' personal autonomy and independence leading to developing avoidant relational styles more often, while collectivistic societies reinforce the development of harmony, altruism and consideration of others and interdependence among people, groups, and their needs as groups. Hofstede et al. (2010) explain that societies can be described as more masculine when emotional gender roles are clearly distinct, implying men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success, whereas women are supposed to be more modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life. On the other hand, a society is described as more feminine when emotional gender roles overlap, denoting both men and women are supposed to be modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life. Moreover, scholars (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede et al., 2010; Tsirigotis et al., 2014) have added that in masculine societies, gender roles are clearly distinct for women and men. In contrast, femininity as a cultural dimension is a characteristic associated with helping behavior, accommodation in relationships, and efforts to cope with the conflict with a lower presence of auto-destructive behaviors.

Bretana and colleagues (2019) conducted a cross-cultural study on attachment styles, conflict resolution styles, and perceptions of partner's conflict resolution strategy using individualism-collectivism (IND-COL) and masculinity-femininity (MAS-FEM) dimensions. Their sample included women aged 18 to 68 years from Israel, Turkey, USA, and Spain using Hofstede's (2001) country-level individualism-collectivism (IND-COL) and masculinity-

femininity (MAS-FEM) measures. They found that women from the USA and Spain which were characterized as more individualistic reported using conflict withdrawal more often than women from Turkey and Israel which were characterized as more collectivistic cultures. The women from Turkey and Israel showed higher levels of avoidant attachment styles and used demand strategy more often to resolve marital conflicts (Bretana et al., 2019).

Bretana and colleagues (2019) concluded that there is a significant relationship between attachment styles and how individuals manage and resolve conflict in their romantic relationships, further influenced by broader cultural and societal factors. More securely attached individuals tended to draw more from positive conflict resolution approaches (for example, initiating discussion, active listening), while those who were more anxiously attached or avoidant relied more on maladaptive conflict resolution approaches (for example, stopping discussion early, blaming, domineering). More individualistically orientated communities appeared to promote personal autonomy, independence and more avoidant attachment (withdrawal); while more collectivist communities appeared to promote harmony, altruism, interdependence and more anxious attachment (Hofstede et al., 2010). More masculine communities like USA and Israel had clearer definitions of gender roles while more feminine communities like Turkey and Spain tolerated more overlapping behaviour across gender roles (Bretaña et al., 2020).

These results speak to the importance of exploring relational factors like attachment styles, conflict resolution strategies and relationship satisfaction in context-specific places outside of the Eurocentric samples most of the current relationship science is based on. Ethiopia is a multi-ethnic country with diverse cultural values and practices. As an East African Nation, Ethiopia is characterized in Hofstede's (2001) model as having more collectivistic and masculine characteristics. In support of this assertion, Habtamu (2002) has identified some of dominant

societal values across Ethiopian ethnic groups such as aggression (violence), bravery (heroism), low tolerance for differences of opinion, conservatism, fatalism (pessimism), non-delay of gratification, ethnocentrism, jealousy, patriarchy, and hierarchy, some of which may contribute to the high prevalence of IPV in the country. However, more focused research on the topic of IPV and its association with relational factors may prove useful as predictors of violence in romantic couple relationships. The findings would be of considerable value in informing violence prevention and intervention work in the country.

Bretaña and colleagues (2019, 2020) provide an excellent foundation for such research to be done in Ethiopia. Drawing on some of the tools used in their work, this study examines the relational relationship between attachment styles, conflict resolution strategies, and relationship satisfaction, as relational predictors of IPV among Ethiopian couples. This broad research aim is operationalized to answer the research question:

*What are the relational predictors of IPV in an Ethiopian sample?*

Moreover, this project has tested the following hypotheses:

1. Increased endorsements of anxious or avoidant attachment styles will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.
2. More frequent use of demand and withdrawal conflict resolution strategies will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.
3. Lower relationship satisfaction will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.

### 1.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Despite important protections of marriage and family in the Ethiopian Constitution and Family Code, IPV remains a concerning public health risk. A better understanding of the relational factors that predict IPV among Ethiopian couples would better inform current violence prevention and intervention programmes. Thus, it is important to understand the driving factors that impede healthy relationships among Ethiopian couples.

In addition, identification of empirically validated victim-related risk factors may help practitioners guide victims of IPV in decision-making and safety planning (Cattaneo & Goodman, 2005) and inform the prevention of future relationships where IPV is present. Furthermore, it will help to serve as an input for policy makers to improve and modify the existing policy documents in relation to marital and family health and wellbeing. For example, findings may better inform Ethiopian family laws that currently address familial conflict. At an individual level, findings from this work may be used strategically to address attitudes that justify IPV and challenge gender-stereotypical roles within the family. Finally, this study may serve as a reference for other researchers and provides insights into relational predictors of IPV from the African continent.

### 1.4 OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

**Attachment:** Emotional bond that connects one person to another person across time and space (Bowlby,1969).

**Attachment Styles:** while attachment styles are commonly referred to in the context of infant and child development, for purposes of this thesis the term is used in the context of adult relationships to refer to the dyadic bond in romantic relationships, including the capacity for

intimacy, partner caretaking and support, sexual behavior, conflict management, and relational aggression (Riggs, 2010).

**Cohabitation:** Romantic partners who live together and engage in sexual relations with one another (FDRE, Family code, 2000).

**Conflict Resolution:** The skills that deal with attempting to end the conflict that arises in relationships in such a way that both parties are satisfied with the process (Mayer, 2000).

**Controlling behaviors:** Such behavior includes isolating a person from family and friends; monitoring their movements; and restricting access to financial resources, employment, education or medical care (WHO, 2010).

**Couples:** Those who are married, living together, or share a romantic relationship with each other.

**Domestic Violence:** A form of abuse that occurs in romantic relationships, by current or former partners or spouses.

**Intimate partner:** Both current and former spouses and dating partners who have been involved in a romantic relationship together.

**IPV:** Violent behavior by a current intimate partner or ex-partner that causes physical, sexual, or psychological harm, including physical aggression, sexual coercion, psychological abuse and controlling behaviors (UN, 1993).

**Predictor:** A term used for any individual, household, or community-level exposure that increases or decreases the risk associated with IPV (Ajowi, 2023).

**Relationship Satisfaction:** The subjective attitude that individual partners have towards their romantic relationship. This includes the mental state that represents the benefits and sacrifices in the current relationship that are different for each partner (Rosalina et al., 2019).

**Romantic Relationship:** Relationships based on emotional and physical attraction that could potentially lead to long-term intimate relationships (WHO, 2017).

## **1.5 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

Ethics approval for this project was obtained from Rhodes University Human Research Ethics Committee - Registration Number: RC-241114-045, Approval number: 2022-54816723 (cf. Appendix A). Ethics approval was also obtained from Hawassa University Research Ethics Committee (cf. Appendix B) with approval Reference Number: RERC13, 2023. Informed consent was obtained from all respondents (cf. Appendix G. Consent form & appendix R). Moreover, permission for use of the psychometric tools in this study was obtained from the original developers of these instruments. Further information is presented in Chapter 4.

## **1.6 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY**

This is a quantitative study that drew from a purposive sample living and working in Hawassa, Ethiopia. Most of the participants were teachers in primary schools and secondary public schools in Hawassa City administration, academics working at Hawassa University and first-year university students attending their educational program in natural science at Hawassa University. Therefore, the results are not representative of the broader Ethiopian population and cannot be generalized as such. However they do provide valuable insights into relational predictors of IPV in a fairly well-educated Ethiopian sample, protected to some extent from the impact of poverty and unemployment and related financial stressors on IPV. Moreover, advanced statistical procedures were employed to overcome such limitations.

The study focused on participants who were currently in or had been in past romantic relationships. People who had never been in a romantic relationship were excluded from the study as participants needed this lived experience and insight in order to engage with the survey

questionnaire. The study also focused exclusively on heterosexual relationships where experiences of IPV were predominantly reported by female participants.

## **SUMMARY**

Chapter one provided a brief overview of this project which sought to measure relational predictors of IPV in an Ethiopian sample. The chapter provided some contextual information about Ethiopia and highlighted the significance of this study locally in providing data that can inform violence prevention and intervention programmes, addressing the high prevalence of IPV nationally. A key limitation of the study includes its convenience sample, consisting mostly of teachers and academics, or university students. However the results still speak powerfully to the predictive value of attachment styles, conflict resolution strategies and relationship satisfaction when it comes to IPV. The next chapter (Chapter 2) presents a review of the salient literature in this area.

## CHAPTER TWO

### 2. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### INTRODUCTION

Having provided an introduction and overview of the current study, Chapter 2 will provide a working definition of Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) and discuss the prevalence and predictors of IPV. The roles of culture and societal influences on IPV are considered, particularly in the Ethiopian context. Current literature on attachment styles, conflict resolution strategies and relationship satisfaction is reviewed and these concepts are discussed as possible relational predictors of IPV.

#### 2.1 DEFINITION OF INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE (IPV)

Different terms are used interchangeably to convey the experience of violence in romantic relationships. These include domestic violence, domestic abuse, intra-family violence, wife abuse, spousal abuse, wife battering, courtship violence, battering, violence against women and intimate partner abuse, among others (Ali et al., 2016). Some of these terms are very specific in their description of IPV, whereas others are broad in their scope. For purposes of this thesis, the term IPV is used to describe violence between intimate partners in romantic relationships, enacted by the current partner, or a past/ex-partner. This definition is drawn from the United Nations' (UN) Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (1993), which defines IPV as violent behavior inflicted by one intimate partner on another, that causes physical, sexual, or psychological harm, which includes physical aggression, sexual coercion, psychological abuse and controlling behaviors. Saltzman et al. (1999) add that IPV is actual or threatened physical, sexual, psychological, or emotional abuse by a current or former spouse (including a common-

law spouse), dating partner, boyfriend or girlfriend who can be of the same or opposite sex. Black et al. (2011) explain that IPV is a form of coercive behavior that uses power and controlling behavior by one partner against another. This may include physical, emotional, sexual, reproductive, and economic forms of exploitation and abuse. Corresponding to this assertion and its negative consequences, Park (2016) notes that IPV includes physical and sexual violence, stalking, and psychological aggression (including coercive tactics) by a current or former intimate partner, which results in significant health, social, and economic costs to individuals, families, and society.

For these reasons, this thesis includes in its definition of IPV, the United States Center for Disease Control and Prevention's (CDC, 2010) understanding that IPV includes both enacted and threatened violence in the form of physical, sexual, psychological, emotional, and financial acts or stalking violence that includes, among others, willful intimidation. The CDC (2010, 2012) adds that such violence may occur in various intimate relationships such as marriage, dating, or the co-parenting process; affecting both women and men, in heterosexual and same-sex relationships (CDC, 2010). This definition aligns closely with that of the World Health Organization (WHO, 2010) which defines IPV as a pattern of abusive behavior within an intimate relationship that causes physical, sexual or psychological harm. Such abusive behaviors include acts of physical aggression, sexual coercion, psychological abuse and controlling behaviors. More recently, the WHO (2021) has amended this definition to include any behavior performed by a current or former intimate partner within the context of marriage, cohabitation or any other formal or informal union that causes physical, sexual, or psychological harm. Macassa et al. (2022) add that IPV includes acts of violence in any romantic and/or intimate relationship, which includes two or more individuals. This aligns with the UNFPA (2021: p5)

statement that IPV includes any abuse perpetrated by a current or former partner within the context of marriage, cohabitation or any other formal or informal union that is currently measured by the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) indicator 5.2.1, under Goal 5 (“Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls”) and Target 5.2 (“Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation”). This thesis recognizes these broad categories of relationships in its definition of IPV.

Cochran et al. (2011) and Smeltzer (2009) note that IPV can take the form of a range of behaviors which include punching, kicking, spitting, controlling finances, sabotaging opportunities, forced sexual acts, deprivation of basic needs, threatening, stalking, burning, possessiveness, coercion, rape, destruction of personal property, and psychological manipulation. They explain that because of the frequency of these acts of violence and the severity of their consequences to those affected, IPV is typically a repetitive act tending to escalate in severity. Breiding et al. (2015) provide a useful explanation of the psychological aspects of IPV, which include verbal (e.g., insulting, humiliating) and non-verbal (e.g., sulking) behaviors aimed at psychologically hurting the romantic partner. Velotti et al. (2020) differentiate between physical and sexual forms of IPV by noting that physical IPV includes the intentional use of physical strength that can lead to injuries, physical harm, disability, or death; whereas the sexual element of IPV is focused on sexual behaviors or attempts directed at the romantic partner, without the consent of the partner.

From these definitions, it is clear that IPV is a serious public health problem that is characterized by coercive, violent, and controlling behavior in a union or romantic relationship

that uses power to result in physical, sexual, or emotional/psychological harm by a current or former intimate partner.

## **2.2 PREVALENCE OF IPV**

In this section, the prevalence of IPV will be discussed, first globally, then in the African context and, finally, more specifically focused on Ethiopia. Within Ethiopia, regional and in-country differences are highlighted.

### **2.2.1 Global IPV Prevalence**

While the UN seeks to eliminate all forms of violence against women and girls in the public and private spheres by 2030 (WHO, 2021), the prevalence of IPV remains unacceptably high globally and has continued as a major human rights violation and a global public health problem, despite generating considerable interest from scholars, social activists, and the public (Capaldi et al., 2012). The latest WHO (2021) report indicates that 31% of women aged between 15–49 years, globally, have been subjected to physical and/or sexual violence from a current or former husband or intimate partner; or sexual violence from a non-partner; or both types of violence in their lifetime. The report reveals that 26% of ever-married/partnered women aged 15 years and older, globally, have been subjected to physical and/or sexual IPV at least once in their lifetime (WHO, 2021).

However, rates of IPV differ across country regions. Based on the United Nations SDG regional and sub-region classifications, the lifetime prevalence of physical and/or sexual IPV among ever-married/partnered women aged 15–49 years was highest among the least developed countries, at 37% in the three sub-regions of Oceania (WHO, 2021). This is followed by the regions of Southern Asia (35%), and Sub-Saharan Africa (33%) respectively. While IPV

prevalence is lower than the global average (of 27%) in Northern America, Latin America and the Caribbean. The prevalence estimates for Australia and New Zealand are at 23%, and South-Eastern (21%), Eastern (20%) and Central Asia (18%) have comparatively lower prevalence estimates. Finally, the report indicates that in each of the sub-regions of Europe, the estimated lifetime prevalence of IPV ranges from 23% in Northern Europe to 16% in Southern Europe (WHO, 2021), indicating higher regional variations at the global level.

One challenge in measuring IPV prevalence is that the experience of IPV takes place within private settings and beyond the reach of policymakers, health, and other service providers (WHO, 2021), and for this reason, it is difficult to accurately estimate the prevalence and take preventive and intervention actions. Ikekwuibe and Okoror (2021) concur, and note that the prevalence of IPV varies, depending on the data collection instruments used, whether these surveys are conducted in rural and/or urban, community- and hospital-based settings, within developing and/or developed countries.

To this point, the prevalence of IPV varies amongst countries but also within countries' administrative regions (UNFPA, 2021). For instance, according to the UNFPA (2021) rates of IPV have increased in some parts of India like Tamil, Chhattisgarh, Andhra Pradesh and Manipur over the past 10 years (2006 -2016), but decreased in others such as in Rajasthan, Uttaranchal, Kerala, Assam, Arunachal Pradesh and Tripura. Reported rates of IPV also vary between urban and rural areas within countries. In Zimbabwe, IPV prevalence is higher in more rural areas in comparison with urban contexts. In Kenya, the North-Eastern province reported a substantial decrease in reported IPV prevalence, from 21.5% in 2003 to 5.8% in 2014, while IPV prevalence increased in Nairobi from 21.2% in 2003 to 34.5% in 2014. Overall, the UNFPA (2021) reported that IPV prevalence tends to be higher in rural areas when compared to urban

areas. However, 15 of the 45 countries sampled by the UNFPA in its 2021 survey showed higher IPV prevalence in urban areas. Some of the reasons for this high IPV disparity between rural and urban contexts could be attributed to the low socio-economic status of rural women and girls where there is a more tolerant attitude and perception towards IPV, compared with urban areas where women are more likely to actively seek interventions from legal authorities when needed (UNFPA, 2021).

In the United States, the CDC (2020) reports that 36.4% of women and 33.6% of men experience sexual violence, physical violence, and/or stalking by their intimate partner at some point in their lifetime. Likewise, Smith et al. (2018) using data from the US National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey show that half of both women and men report experiencing at least one form of psychological aggression (i.e., insults, coercive control, etc.) by a partner over their lifetime, and 36% of women and 21% of men will experience a form of IPV in their lifetime. Similarly, a report by Canadian Statistics found that in Canada, many adults report having experienced at least one act of psychological (women: 43%, men: 35%), physical (women: 23%, men: 17%), or sexual (women: 12%, men: 2%) violence from their intimate partner during their lifetime (Statistics Canada, 2018).

These statistics speak to a high prevalence of IPV globally, but also considerable variation across regions, countries and within countries. The UNFPA (2021) acknowledges that the data might likely have been under-reported, and that prevalence could be higher than currently estimated.

### 2.2.2 Prevalence of IPV in Africa

Over the past 20 years, a growing number of population-based surveys from representative samples have improved scholars' understanding of the scope and determinants of IPV on the African continent (McCloskey et al., 2016). However much of the available data speaks to the experiences of IPV by women and girls, especially on the African continent (A discussion of gender as a predictor of IPV follows in section 2.3.1 A of this chapter). In its latest summary report based on Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) results, WHO (2021) reported that the prevalence of lifetime IPV in sub-Saharan Africa is 33% which is higher than the global figure of 27%. The past 12 months of IPV estimate in sub-Saharan African countries is 20%, which is also above the global rate of 13% (WHO, 2021).

However, variation in IPV prevalence is considerable across and within African countries. For instance, Wado et al. (2021) conducted an analysis across 27 sub-Saharan African countries. They found that prevalence varied from 6.5% in Comoro to 43.3% in Gabon. Yaya et al. (2019) also found considerable variations in IPV prevalence across sub-Saharan Africa, ranging from 28% in Madagascar to 74% in Ethiopia. In a multi-country study across sub-Saharan Africa, the WHO (2021) concluded that the lifetime prevalence of experiencing physical or sexual IPV among ever-partnered women was between 15%-71%. Past research findings have documented this similar trend with considerable variation across African countries, but also high IPV prevalence, estimated at between 20% - 71% (Ezechi et al., 2004; WHO, 2005), with several sub-Saharan African countries ranking among the highest globally affected by IPV (36% prevalence) (McCloskey et al., 2016).

In Nigeria, a study conducted on 400 adult women aged 18-73 who have been in an intimate relationship for at least a year revealed that the lifetime prevalence of IPV was 73.3%

(Esther et al., 2020). Similarly, Ikekwuibe and Okoror (2021) found an overall IPV prevalence of 79.4% in their sample of 209 ever-married or cohabited Nigerian females. In contrast Ogum et al. (2018) reported an IPV prevalence of 41.1% in their Angolan sample; while Benebo's (2018) study in Ghana found an IPV prevalence of 34%. Furthermore, Shamu et al. (2011) made a sub-regional analysis of Africa and found that the overall prevalence of IPV was 32.66% in East African countries (32.66%), with the highest figure of IPV occurring in Uganda (14.93%), and the lowest IPV recorded in Comoros (0.87%). In another study, García-Moreno et al. (2005) found that IPV prevalence rates in Africa ranged from a low of 18% in Nigeria to 49% in South Africa, with uniform measurement and sampling approaches applied.

In accounting for these considerable variations in IPV prevalence rates across African countries, Wado and colleagues (2021), noted that IPV prevalence varies by place of residence, education and wealth, with no clear pattern of inequalities, influenced by contextual and structural factors that shape vulnerability to IPV. In many of the countries with a high prevalence of IPV, Wado et al. (2021) found a high proportion of Adolescent Young Women (AYW) from rural areas, with low education and from the poorest wealth quintile reporting IPV. They also noted that IPV tended to be higher in countries found in the Central African region (39.8%), and Southern Africa (28.4%), than in other sub-regions of the continent. In the West African sub-region, IPV perpetrated against women remains high and is exacerbated by societal attitudes towards violence (Ogum et al., 2018). Yet, little evidence exists on the population-based prevalence and the risk factors for IPV in this region of Africa. In their examination of the association between women's lifetime experiences of physical, sexual, and emotional/psychological IPV and undernutrition among ten Western African countries, Gayawan et al. (2023) found that women who attained primary or secondary level education, and were

working, had a higher likelihood of experiencing IPV, compared to those with no education; those from wealthier households and those who were not working.

In a past report the UN (2012) indicated that violence against wives and sexual partners is so common in some African countries, such as Zambia (with an estimated 90% IPV prevalence) and Ethiopia (with a 71% IPV prevalence) that it is virtually ubiquitous. Garcia-Moreno and Watts (2011) argue that these extreme rates of IPV are adversely impacting the continent's development agenda and one of the major obstacles that prevent the attainment of the Millennial Development Goals (Garcia-Moreno & Watts, 2011).

Interestingly, the UNFPA (2021) identified similar patterns in IPV prevalence among people across borders of countries who share similar psychological make-up. For instance, at the border of Ethiopia and Kenya, similar levels of IPV between the Kenyan North-Eastern province (5.8%) and the Ethiopian Somali province (5.8%) were reported, as well as between the Kenyan Eastern province (25.1%) and the Ethiopian Oromia province (25.3%). These findings again demonstrate considerable variation across countries, but may also speak to societal attitudes about how IPV is defined, understood and condoned in societies who share geography across borders. Some of the risk factors for IPV in Africa mirror those found in other regions of the world, such as individual-level characteristics (excessive drinking or a history of child abuse) or socioeconomic conditions such as unemployment. Such factors are explored in more detail in section 2.3. In addition, long-standing patriarchal traditions play a role. African cultural beliefs and traditions promote men's hierarchical role in sexual relationships and especially marriage (Morrell et al., 2012) and likely play a powerful role in how IPV is understood and spoken about. This topic is addressed in more detail in section 2.3.2 below.

Based on DHS survey results, the UNFPA (2021) reported that seven out of the nine sub-Saharan countries show declines in IPV prevalence among 15-49 year-old women over time. The largest decline between two time points was observed in Rwanda, where IPV prevalence declined by over 23 percentage points, from 44.3% in 2010 to 20.7% in 2015. Overall declines were observed in Cameroon (9.9%), Kenya (7.3%), Mali (6.2%), Zambia (6.0%), Uganda (3.4%), and Kenya (1.4%). But the trend in Malawi and Nigeria showed an increase of 2.2% and 2.8% respectively. These imply that it is difficult to interpret these figures as they may speak to the challenges in accurately measuring and estimating IPV prevalence in Africa.

### **2.2.3 Prevalence of IPV in Ethiopia**

The government of Ethiopia reviewed its family law in 2000 to improve protection and assurance of the rights of women and children, and to promote gender equality and equity (Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (FDRE) Constitution, 1995; the Revised Family Code, 2000). Despite these laws and policies intended to reduce violence against women and children, research suggests that IPV remains high. The WHO (2021) estimates IPV lifetime prevalence in Ethiopia for physical and sexual violence at approximately 37% among ever-married/partnered women aged 15–49 years. This figure is well above the global (27%) and sub-Saharan African (33%) estimates (WHO, 2021). The Ethiopian Demographics and Health Survey (EDHS) reports that 1 out of 4 (26%) women aged 15-49 years' experience physical and/or sexual violence by an intimate partner or non-partner in their lifetime (Central Statistics Authority [CSA] & International Development Consulting [ICF], 2016). This report also reveals that among ever-married women aged 15-49 years, as many as 1 in 3 (34%) have experienced spousal violence in the form of emotional, physical and/or sexual violence by their current or most recent

husband/partner. However, only 23% of these women sought help, whereas most do not seek help nor disclose the violence they have experienced.

Yitbarek et al.(2019) estimates that 32.5% of Ethiopian women experience at least one type of IPV based on a sample of 2750 women across the country. Of these 22.5% reported physical and emotional violence and the remaining 9.6% of the study participants experienced sexual violence. Similarly, Tsega et al. (2022) found that 30.27% of Ethiopian women experience IPV, based on a sample of 1077 women of reproductive age. A study of 2836 currently married women with at least one live birth, found that the lifetime prevalence of any form of IPV was 30.0% while exposure to emotional and physical IPV among mothers, was approximately 23.0%, while 9.4% of the study participants reported sexual violence. Concordant with these findings, a multi-level analysis carried out by Tiruye et al. (2020) on a sample of 3,897 married women of reproductive age (15–49 years) found that 1,328 (34.1%) reported IPV, with physical violence (23.3%) being most common followed by sexual violence (11.5%).

In line with these findings, researchers estimate that prevalence of lifetime IPV ranges between 20% - 78% in Ethiopia, and varies across regional states (Gracia et al., 2015; Semahegn & Mengistie, 2015). Seid et al. (2021) and Tusa et al. (2022) found a significant clustering of IPV in Oromia, Somali, Sidama, South West Ethiopia, South Ethiopia and Central Ethiopia regions. Seid et al. (2021) report that 34% of Ethiopian women have experienced some form of IPV, with approximately 24% of Ethiopian women experiencing emotional violence, 23.7% physical violence and 10.1% sexual violence at the hands of their intimate partners. In further support of these estimates Zenbaba et al. (2023) note that approximately 33.2% of the 4962 ever-married Ethiopian women they sampled, were currently experiencing at least one type of IPV (physical, sexual, and emotional). This analysis found the Gambella and Oromia regions to be

the geographic regions with the highest reports of IPV. Zenbaba et al. (2023) added that nationally, approximately 16% of ever-married Ethiopian women were experiencing one act of IPV; 11.2% were experiencing two acts of IPV, and 5.9% were experiencing three or more acts in the last 12 months, with physical and emotional abuse being the most frequently reported types of IPV experienced.

Regional studies report a similarly high prevalence of IPV in line with the above multilevel and spatial analyses. For instance, a community-based, cross-sectional study of a sample of 1051 pregnant women, using structured questionnaires in Eastern Ethiopia, showed that 48.57% of women living in this region reported IPV, with sexual violence (31.6%) being the most commonly reported type of IPV (Misgana et al., 2022). Similarly, in Southern Ethiopia of the Gamo Gofa zone, a community-based, cross-sectional study among 1,535 randomly selected pregnant women found that 48% reported IPV (Utaile et al., 2023). Likewise, another cross-sectional study conducted in Southwest Ethiopia on 590 pregnant women revealed an IPV prevalence of 39.2% (Fetene et al., 2022). In this sample physical violence (29.8%) was most frequently reported, followed by sexual violence (26.8%) and emotional violence (22.2%). In Northwestern Ethiopia the prevalence of IPV is estimated at 58.7%, with emotional violence being the most common (57.8%), followed by physical violence (32.2%), and sexual violence (7.6%) (Fekadu et al., 2018). A community-based study in the Amhara regional state of Awi zone (Northwestern Ethiopia), found a 78.0% prevalence of IPV, with emotional violence most commonly reported (73.3%), followed by physical violence (58.4%) and sexual violence (49.1%) (Semahegn et al., 2013). One cross-sectional study in the Oromia regional state of central Ethiopia, sampled 299 pregnant women in a hospital setting, and found IPV reported by

64.6%, with physical violence most commonly reported (44.1%), followed by emotional (39.1%), and sexual (23.7%) violence (Yohannes et al., 2019).

During the COVID-19 pandemic, Shitu et al. (2021) carried out a community-based, cross-sectional study among 462 reproductive-age women in Southern Ethiopia and found that the lifetime prevalence of women with IPV was 42.19% and the previous twelve-month prevalence was 24.11%. About 12.9% of the study participants had experienced all three types of violence. Similarly, Tadesse (2022) carried out a cross-sectional study during the COVID-19 pandemic on 617 married or cohabiting women in Dessie, Northern Ethiopia, where 22.4% of women had experienced at least one form of IPV. Emotional violence was the most commonly reported (20%), followed by sexual violence (13.8%) and physical violence (11%).

These regional findings, while varied, demonstrate a high prevalence of IPV across Ethiopia, with common occurrences of physical, emotional and sexual violence. A qualitative study conducted by Dawit et al. (2019), amongst women living in an NGO safe home for survivors of abuse in Addis Ababa documented painful accounts of physical violence including incidents of being slapped, scarred and bruised on the face, violent attacks that left women with permanent marks, injuries and physical disabilities. Another qualitative study by Temesgen (2017) amongst rural women in Konta Special Woreda (district) of the former Southern Nation, Nationality People Region (SNNPR), documented graphic accounts of physical beatings, being kicked and punched; emotional and psychological violence in the form of painful insults, restricting education and employment opportunities. These findings demonstrate how deep-rooted the problem of IPV is in Ethiopia, across regions. These findings clearly indicate that IPV is a major public health concern in Ethiopia. There is an urgent need for well-coordinated,

comprehensive prevention and intervention strategies to attain the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) set by the international community, to be reached in 2030.

## **2.3 PREDICTORS OF IPV**

Understanding the risk factors of IPV globally, in Africa and Ethiopia more specifically, is important for developing context-based prevention and intervention programmes. In Ethiopia, where IPV prevalence is high, several scholars have made efforts to understand these predictors. A ‘predictor’ is a term for any individual, household, or community-level exposure that increases or decreases the risk associated with IPV (Ajowi, 2023). In this section seven established socio-demographic predictors of IPV are discussed: gender, age, education, wealth index/socio-economic status, employment status, marital status and number of children in the home. The influence of cultural and societal attitudes on IPV is considered in relation to relevant literature. Concepts of attachment styles, relationship satisfaction, and conflict resolution strategies are discussed as possible relational predictors of IPV.

### **2.3.1 Socio-demographic Variables as Predictors of IPV**

The UNFPA (2021) describes IPV as the most common form of violence that affects women and girls globally, due to the existing predominant social norms that sanction male dominance over women. Consequently, violence between intimate partners is often perceived as an accepted occurrence in relationships of marriage or other unions. Global reports and research findings on the relationship between socio-demographic variables and IPV lack consistency. For instance, the UNFPA’s (2021) reports on the association between socio-demographic variables and IPV varies across different parts of the world. Uthman et al. (2009) notes that risk factors of IPV differ because the victims of this violence differ in age, education, gender, relationship status, nationality, income, religion and ethnicity. Wado et al. (2021) highlight that overall; IPV

is pervasive with substantial variations between countries and regions, reflecting the role of contextual and structural factors in shaping peoples' vulnerability to IPV.

### A) **Gender**

Dutton et al. (2010) explain that theory and research on IPV have been mired in debate about whether the causes and consequences of IPV are gendered. Accordingly, different compelling positions have emerged in explaining gender differences in the study of IPV and related incidences.

One of the compelling positions states that there is no gender difference in predicting IPV. This assertion is based on the understanding that IPV is a health problem affecting people of all genders and other social locations. For instance, Archer (2000) argues that both men and women are equally likely to be perpetrators and victims of IPV, contending that gendered theories of IPV are not necessary. However family violence researchers, such as Strauss (2012) note the powerful role that gender systems play in explaining IPV, during conflict in family systems. Corroborative to this argument, Ahmadabadi et al.(2021) state that although much available research on IPV indicates male perpetration, growing recent evidence suggests a gender symmetry model of family violence. In support of this argument, Scott-Storey (2023) noted that a review of findings points towards similar rates for males and females. A review on IPV prevalence in various countries by Desmarais et al (2012) concluded that 19.3% of males and 23.1% of females had been physically assaulted by an intimate partner. Similarly, findings from the National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey (Smith et al. 2018) in the USA revealed that nearly half of both women and men reported experiencing at least one form of psychological aggression (i.e., insults, coercive control, etc.) by a partner over their lifetime. In

their Stress and Health Study, using data from the cross-sectional, nationally representative South African sample, Gass et al. (2011) examined data from 1,715 currently married or cohabiting adults and has found that rates of perpetrating violence were similar for women and men (25.2% and 26.5%, respectively). They explained that common risk factors among men and women reporting perpetration included exposure to childhood physical abuse, witnessing parental violence, and adult-onset alcohol abuse/dependence.

However other IPV studies have revealed a disproportional number of female to male victims and male to female perpetrators. For instance, a national survey conducted in USA investigating victimization estimated that 26% of males in Illinois were victims of IPV or stalking during their lifetimes; but the percentage for females was higher at 42% (Smith et al, 2017). But, in their longitudinal follow-up study on 2,060 young adults over 30 years in the Mater Hospital and University of Queensland Study of Pregnancy (MUSP) in Brisbane, Australia, Ahmadabadi et al. (2021) has found that IPV was more likely to have occurred in relationships that ended than in relationships that persisted. In their study, males more often remained in an abusive relationship and reported experiencing higher rates of IPV in their current relationships compared with females. But Caldwell et al. (2012) in their literature review suggested that negative effects are not equally distributed by gender indicating that women suffer disproportionately from IPV, especially in terms of injuries, fear, and posttraumatic stress. More specifically, Caldwell et al.(2012) has found that due to cultural factors that typically ascribe higher status to the male gender, and men's greater size and strength compared to women on average, women are more likely than men to encounter contextual factors that disempower them and put them in abusive situations that increase their risk of poor outcomes. Gass et al. (2011) argued that men were more likely to report predictive factors for perpetration, whereas women

were more likely to report predictors for victimization. Similarly, Tjaden and Thoennes (2000) reported approximately twenty-five percent of females in the United States and nearly eight percent of males are sexually and/or physically abused by a current or former spouse, cohabitating partner, or someone they have dated, at some point in their lifetime indicating gender disproportionality in the experience of IPV incidence.

Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) are an important source of data to study cross-national and regional inequalities in exposure to IPV because they are nationally-representative and use standardized tools that follow ethical and safety recommendations for research on domestic violence against women in any country, including African countries (WHO, 1999). Ahinkorah et al.(2018) stated that there are various contextual and country-specific drivers of violence in Sub-Saharan Africa countries. They explained that there is a strong link between poverty and violence among young women with those from poor households and communities being at greater risk. But population-based surveys like DHS highlighting differences in IPV by wealth index, residence and education and other individual and community-level determinants of violence, fail to directly and clearly show gender differences. For instance, Gass et al. (2011) has claimed that although the high prevalence of violence in South Africa has been well-documented, questions remain as to how gender differences in society pose a differential risk for IPV in males and females. Thus, although this area of research has received substantial international attention, less effort has been made to investigate the prevalence of violence perpetrated against men in heterosexual relationships. Gass et al. (2011) also argued that there is a dearth of international data examining the different factors that place both genders at risk for perpetration and victimization.

Ethiopia is described as one of the African countries with the highest prevalence of IPV, where the lifetime prevalence has been estimated at 20% to 78% in different administrative regional states (Semahegn & Mengistie, 2015). Pulerwit et al (2015) explain that certain gender norms or social expectations about men's and women's appropriate roles, rights, and responsibilities have been shown to be associated with the risk of IPV. In Ethiopia, the frequency of IPV that indicates gender variations in victims, perpetrators, and witnesses is scarce and little research has been dedicated to examining how gender differences predict IPV across the life course. Previous individually conducted studies ( e.g. Abeya et al., 2012; Belay et al., 2022; Chernet & Cherie, 2020; Fekadu et al., 2018; Fetene et al., 2022; Tadesse) as well as meta-analyses are mainly based on the latest EDHS data(e.g. Biftu et al., 2019; Seid et al., 2021; Tiruye et al., 2020; Tsega et al., 2022) have overlooked gender difference in violence perpetration and victimization. Furthermore, although the high prevalence of violence in Ethiopia has been well-documented, questions remain as to how gender differences in society pose a differential risk for IPV in males and females.

## **B) Age**

At a global level, the UNFPA (2021) reports that in most countries, age is the major factor predicting IPV. But there are inconsistencies across countries. In most countries, IPV prevalence is highest among younger women (aged 15-34 years), compared with older women (35-49 years) with women and girls in the 15–19-year age range at highest risk.

In Ethiopia, findings related to age as a predictor of IPV are inconsistent. For instance, Gebrewahd et al. (2020) found that women younger than 30 years were 23.045 times more likely to experience IPV than older women, while Tiruye et al. (2020) noted that older women were more vulnerable. Chernet and Cherie (2020) found that women aged 25 - 39 years were more at

risk of IPV than younger women (15-24 years). Tusa et al. (2022) reported that younger women were less likely to be physically abused (15-24 years), compared to older women (25-39 years). One explanation put forward by Tiruye and colleagues (2020) for the higher prevalence of IPV in older women is that these women are possibly more likely to report their cumulative experience of IPV over their lifetime; that is, they have more time to be exposed to IPV than younger women. Moreover, older women might be more likely to report IPV because younger women in Ethiopia are often expected to be submissive, quiet, disciplined and loyal to their husbands and hence, may be less likely to report IPV. An important consideration here may be the early age of first marriage, which families often arrange in Ethiopia (Tiruye et al., 2020). Social practices of arranged marriage and/or early marriage are common in Ethiopia where the median age at first marriage for women is 17.1 years, which is 6.6 years younger than the median age at first marriage for men. These practices limit the education and career development of women, and may potentially increase the risk of IPV at an early age (Tiruye et al., 2020). Yet because of the dependency experienced by these younger women on their partners, they may be less likely to report IPV, hence the apparent higher prevalence in older women in some studies.

### **C) Educational Attainment**

As with the variable of age, the UNFPA (2021) notes that the pattern of inequality in education and its relationship with IPV has similarly mixed findings at the global level. Even though in many African countries (79.6%), IPV rates are highest among women with the lowest level of education (i.e. primary schooling only or no education), in a few African and other countries a higher prevalence of IPV was reported among women with higher education (e.g.: Bhutan, Gambia, Lebanon, Maldives, Malawi, Mozambique, Papua New Guinea and Senegal). Similarly, Wado et al. (2021) reports that among the 27 sub-Saharan countries in their analysis,

the prevalence of IPV was highest for those with less education, but differences were only significant in four countries (Burundi, Malawi, Tanzania, and Uganda). Interestingly rates of physical or sexual violence were higher amongst those with higher education in 11 countries, though the differences were not statistically significant, except in Mozambique. Kebede et al. (2022) found that the likelihood of experiencing IPV decreased by 32% among women who had secondary level education, compared to women who had no education, in East African communities, such as Ethiopia. Accordingly, educated women were less likely to experience IPV, compared to women who had no formal education.

One possible explanation is that education is one of the mechanisms to empower and develop a sense of self-esteem, choice and more independence. Ezra (2003) explains that education is the key ‘modernization variable’ in Ethiopia, promoting a later marriageable age, a greater say in mate selection; a reduced risk of being in a polygamous marriage, and more relationship happiness, as indicated by reduced rates of relationship dissolution.

However, Chernet and Cherie (2020) found that Ethiopian women with primary and secondary education were approximately 1.32 times more likely to experience IPV than women with no education. Although tertiary education was not a significant predictor, pregnant women were at higher risk of IPV. Biftu and Guracho (2022) found that the pooled effect of five studies showed that women with no formal education were four times more likely to experience IPV, compared to pregnant women with formal education. Tussa et al. (2020) noted that the probability of experiencing sexual violence was higher among pregnant women, and wives of uneducated husbands/partners. They found the probability of sexual violence decreased by 61% among highly educated husbands/ partners in Ethiopia.

In contrast to these findings both Gebrewahd et al. (2020) and Tiruye et al. (2020) question the significance of education as a stand-alone risk factor for violence. Tiruye and colleagues (2020) note that Ethiopian women who had the same or lower levels of education than their partners, reported less probability of experiencing IPV than women whose education exceeded their partners. They explain that this may be because in instances where women hold more education, men may not accept being dominated by their more educated wives and may try to preserve their gender role through violence. Additionally, in more culturally conservative areas, education, empowerment, and autonomy are not given enough credibility and power to change the rigid normative understanding of IPV.

#### **D) Wealth Index and Socio-Economic Status**

Globally, higher IPV prevalence is associated with lower socio-economic status (UNFPA, 2021). However, this does not mean that IPV does not occur in higher-wealth households, for example, in African countries like Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Lebanon, Mozambique, Papua New Guinea and Sierra Leone, the risk of IPV increases with higher-household wealth (UNFPA, 2021). Yet the general trend implies that there is an association between poverty, stress and an increase in the risk of IPV. Women in the lowest household wealth groups are more likely to face economic insecurities, impeding access to basic goods and services, including response services for IPV (UNFPA, 2021). In support of this finding, Wado et al. (2021) reports that in 17 of the 27 African countries who participated in their analysis, the proportion of adolescent women who did not report wife-beating was significantly higher among the wealthiest quintile. They noted large disparities in IPV prevalence governed by wealth in Angola, Ethiopia, Ghana, Namibia, Nigeria, Senegal and Zambia.

In Ethiopia, Chernet and Cherie (2020) found that low socio-economic status predicted IPV. Women from high-wealth categories were less likely to experience IPV, as were women from middle-wealth categories in comparison with women from low-wealth categories. Consistently, Tussa et al. (2022) noted that wealth was inversely associated with emotional violence in their sample. They found that the probability of emotional violence decreased by 44% among the wealthiest in comparison with the poorest household participants.

### **E) Employability status**

Current research presents conflicting patterns relating to IPV prevalence and employability status globally, and on the African continent (UNFPA, 2021). On one hand, the highest rates of IPV in Asia and sub-Saharan Africa appear to be reported by women who are paid in-kind for their work and services (i.e.: they do not receive cash payments in exchange for their work), in comparison with those in cash employment or unemployed women. Furthermore, women in cash employment are at higher risk of IPV than those who are unemployed (UNFPA, 2021). One potential reason for this may be that women may challenge men's status as head of the household (Vyas & Watts, 2009).

In Ethiopia, unpaid women were found to be more vulnerable, compared to others. For instance, Fekadu et al. (2018) report that housewives and women without a regular income of their own are at greater risk of violence during pregnancy, compared with those employed (salaried women) and those with their own income. In summary while available research provides some insights into possible socio-economic predictors of IPV in Ethiopia, Kebede et al. (2022) highlight the dearth of systematic reviews and meta-analysis to more clearly speak to some of these findings. Much of the available research is focused on individual-level

determinants of IPV within small geographic areas, amongst women (Tiruye et al., 2020). However what does emerge alongside these findings is the pervasiveness and complexity of IPV and its sociocultural determinants in the Ethiopian context (Guruge et al., 2012).

#### **F) Marital status**

Kefalas et al. (2011) has explained that population-based studies have found that most adults will marry at some point in their lifetime. Likely, viewing marriage as a protective means from abuse, Unsar et al. (2016) describe marriage as society's minimum restrictive means of safeguarding the welfare of children. Therefore, it is considered one of the most important forms of social support for adults. As Cherlin (2009) explained, marriage is a phenomenon that most people around the world pass through and is more than being together. It includes the social roles of husband and wife as well as father and mother to any children that their union produces. The association between IPV and marital status among couples has generated a great deal of interest from scholars, social activists, and the public (Capaldi et al., 2012). Like other variables, previous studies have shown mixed results. For instance, in their systematic review, Gunarathne et al. (2023) found that women who have been separated or divorced or involved in a polygamous marriage are at a higher risk of IPV as compared to those who are currently married, widowed, or in a monogamous marriage. Contrary to this, Vatnar, and Bjørkly (2012) found no significant association among the marital status groups pertaining to IPV severity, injury, duration, frequency, mortal danger, and regularity, nor for physical, psychological, or sexual IPV, in their sample of 157 Norwegian women. However, their multivariate logistic regression showed that post-separation women were significantly more likely to have had longer duration since the last psychological and sexual IPV episode, and reported the physical IPV to be more predictable.

Rezey's (2020) findings based on the 1995-2010 National Crime Victimization Surveys in the USA, reported that separated women were more likely than non-separated women to be victims of IPV, and concluded that the status of being separated has the strongest effect on women's risk for IPV. Another study in Canada based on cases documented in Crown Attorney files in one Ontario jurisdiction between 2003 and 2009 by Sutton and Dawson (2021) found that IPV involving marital, vs, dating unions was more severe because of the weapon of choice used in these violent encounters. Moreover, the authors indicated IPV occurring among estranged (separated) intimate partners was less likely to involve physical injury or weapon use, compared with those in intact unions. Manning et al. (2018) found that young adults cohabiting more frequently reported IPV, compared with young adults who were dating or married in their sample of 926 respondents in Lucas County, Ohio, USA. They reported that about one-third (31%) of young adults in cohabiting relationships, 23% in marriages, and 18% in dating relationships experienced IPV in their current or most recent relationship.

In Ethiopia marriage is a culturally accepted and widely practiced norm (CSA & IFC, 2016). Overall, women are more likely than men to be separated, divorced, or widowed, however women are also less likely than men to be single with one in four women (26%) and 42% of men having never been married (CSA & IFC, 2016). The proportion of women who are divorced or separated increases with age, there are no differentials by age in the proportions of men who are divorced, separated, or widowed. The 2016 Ethiopia Demographic and Health Survey (EDHS) indicated that experience of sexual violence is more common among divorced, separated and widowed women (18%) as well as women who are currently married or living with someone (12%). Two percent of never-married women reported experiencing sexual violence (CSA, 2016). Furthermore, women who have more than five children are more likely to have

experienced sexual violence in the past 12 months than women with fewer than five children (11% vs. 2-8%) (CSA, 2016). Drawing on the EDHS data, Chernet and Cherie (2020) found that Ethiopian divorced women are more likely to experience IPV than married women while there is no significant difference between married and widowed women. They suspect the high prevalence of IPV is to be the reason for divorce status in this sample.

### **G) Number of children**

Another risk for IPV identified in the literature is the number of children within a romantic union. Using Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) data from urban women aged 15–49 in 27 SSA countries, Izugbara et al (2020) has found that Intimate Partner Sexual Violence (IPSV) prevalence rate was higher among women with 3 and more living children than for women with no living child. Compared to those without a living child, women with 3–4 and 5 + living children had 35% and 30% higher prevalence rate respectively for IPSV. The authors suggest that large families can be a source of enormous pressure and frustrations that can strain unions and precipitate violence, and the cost of children is rising in SSA at a time of widespread inflation, unemployment, and growing cost of living. In accordance with this finding, Memiah et al. (2021) in their study of adolescent women aged 15-24 years in five East African countries, based on a secondary analysis of DHS data, found that the IPV was a consequence of larger family size.

The Indian National Family Health Survey (Sabri et al., 2014) found that women with more children experienced more physical IPV and IPV-related injuries, in a sample of 67,226 women. Similarly, Iob et al. (2020) reported that the prevalence of IPV was significantly higher among households with children (verbal abuse = 9.8%; physical abuse = 3.3%) compared to

households without (verbal abuse = 7.8%; physical abuse = 2.8%). Similarly, Bair-Merritt et al. (2008) noted an increased risk of IPV with increasing number of children in a household in their US study.

While Peek-Asa et al. (2017) concur that in their cross-sectional study on 957 women seeking elective pregnancy termination at a large Midwestern family-planning clinic, USA, women with children in the home had more than twice the odds of reporting physical and/or sexual IPV in the past year than women with no children. The increased odds of IPV among women with children as compared to women with no children was present across nearly all socio-demographic and lifestyle characteristics, and significantly higher for the youngest women (18–20 years). The highest odds for abuse occurred among women with children living at home, in a current relationship but not living with their current partner, and abused by a former partner.

However, Jetelina et al. (2021) noted no significant effect of children in the home, on the prevalence or severity of IPV during the pandemic among their sample of 2441 US participants. Halford et al. (2020) also found that both IPV and vulnerable child offences decreased as a proportion of all crimes following lockdown, but the authors caution that this decrease could be a result of decreased reporting.

In Ethiopia, population reports of EDHS indicate that the youngest women (age 15-19), and women with no children, are less likely to have experienced IPV. Although Mulatu et al. (2024) in a retrospective analysis of secondary data retrieved from the EDHS conducted among women (15–49 years of age) found that having a lot of living children was a protective factor for IPV. Those women who had  $\geq 5$  children were 52% less likely to experience IPV compared to those women who had no living children. The researchers argued that the responsibility of caring for multiple children may motivate women to seek help or find ways to protect themselves and

their children from abuse. Another possible justification could be in some cultures, having a large family is considered desirable and socially valued. Women with many children may receive more social recognition and respect, which can indirectly reduce their vulnerability to IPV.

To summarize, the socio-demographic variables of age, gender, education attained, wealth-index, employability status, marital status and number of children have all demonstrated influence and importance in the context of IPV in Ethiopia. As a consequence they will be used in this study as demographic variables to describe the sample collected.

### **2.3.2 The Influence of Cultural and Societal Attitudes towards IPV**

Modernization, urbanization and globalization are reforming the nature and structure of romantic unions across the globe, giving rise to the notion of ‘companionate marriage’. A companionate marriage is characterized by a high degree of intimacy, affection and empathy that is assumed to allow for a high-quality and stable, intimate relationship (Wilcox & Nock, 2006). In contrast Dadoo (1988) describes marriage in the African context as one focused on improving the lives of broader family systems by uniting both parties’ whole families, including extended family members. As such, marriage is seen as a concept that supersedes the individual, and is one of the most important social institutions and symbols of adulthood. However, Cherlin (2012) argues that the Western ideology of companionship and romantic love is spreading and challenging this African conception of marriage unions.

Evidence of these shifts in the structure and function of marriage is becoming increasingly visible in the sub-Saharan African context. For instance, Cherlin (2014) argue that women enter into marriage later on, as they pursue higher education and careers, demonstrating more involvement and say in mate selection. To support this observation Mensch and colleagues (2005) note that in comparison to other regions, sub-Saharan Africa has experienced the largest

decline in the proportion of married 15-19-year-old girls between 1970-2000. Clark and Brauner-Otto (2015) add that the increasing divorce rate in sub-Saharan Africa demonstrates this shift towards prioritizing companionship and romantic love, which means divorce, is now the primary driver of union dissolution.

In Ethiopia, marriage is considered by many to be one of the most respected social acts and a rite of passage. For instance, the 2007 Ethiopian census (CSA, 2007) showed that 50% of the population had been married from the age of 10 years and only 3% divorce. However, like other sub-Saharan African countries, a structural shift of the relationship pattern is being observed in Ethiopia, especially in urban and peri-urban settings (Ezra, 2003; Sibanda et al., 2003). For example, family-arranged marriage traditions are changing, influenced by improving economic prosperity and globalization, as individuals select their romantic partners. Sibanda et al. (2003) note how in Addis Ababa, women are postponing marriage and childbirth. However, couple relationships also appear more fragile, and marital breakdown is increasingly common (Girma, 2020). One reason for this may be linked to cultural and societal attitudes about marriage and IPV.

In sub-Saharan Africa, many men and women appear to endorse a man's prerogative to physically discipline his wife (Koenig et al., 2003). The UNFPA (2021) noted that given the prevailing social norms that sanction male dominance over women, violence between intimate partners is often perceived as an acceptable element of relationships, particularly in the context of marriages. The WHO (2014) reports that women in Africa typically do not disclose experiences of IPV when visiting health centres to seek treatment for injuries sustained during such conflicts. In their comparative analysis of factors associated with attitudes towards IPV against women among 17 sub-Saharan countries, Uthman and colleagues (2009) found that more

women than men endorse what they view as justified physical punishment, such as when a wife appears to neglect the children or argues with her husband. Such findings illustrate that patriarchal ideology is often equally shared by men and women in some African contexts, implying that efforts to change ideology need to address both sexes (McCloskey et al., 2016). In Uganda and Kenya, both men and women endorse the use of physical punishment against an “errant” or “rebellious” wife (McCloskey et al., 2016). Koenig and colleagues (2003) explain that in a rural area of South-western Uganda, physical violence is typically justifiable in intimate relationships; by a larger proportion of women in comparison with men. Justifiable behaviors that may incur such punishment would include refusal to have sex with a partner, contraception without permission from a partner, and infidelity by the female partner. Consistent with this finding, Owoaje and OlaOlorun (2012) report that in Nigeria women who endorse the concept of IPV are at risk of experiencing greater physical violence in their intimate relationships. Patriarchal beliefs are not the only explanation for partner abuse, but such attitudes sustain community tolerance of IPV, reducing the chance of a systemic social response.

Wado et al. (2021) reports that amongst their research participants from 27 sub-Saharan African countries, those who rejected all reasons for wife-beating ranged from 17.9% in Mali to 92.5% in South Africa. Their study indicated that in-country inequalities in attitudes towards wife-beating existed and varied by place of residence, wealth quintile, and education. In almost all the 27 countries of their study, a higher proportion of urban dwellers rejected wife-beating, compared to their rural counterparts, with the differences being statistically significant for 18 countries. Wider rural–urban differences of over 20 or more percentage points were observed in countries, such as Ethiopia, Nigeria, Gambia and Namibia. These findings speak to the inability to generalize cultural and social attitudes about IPV across African contexts.

However, Kebede et al. (2022) highlights that in East African countries the probability of IPV among women who endorse wife-beating increases by 71%, compared to women who do not. Similarly, the probability of IPV among women who have decision-making autonomy about their health care and major household purchases decreases by 18%. But women who have decision-making autonomy to visit their families increases the occurrence of IPV by 37% compared to those who do not.

Since as many as 80% of Ethiopians live in rural areas (CSA, 2007), separating communities from the influence of central government or the rule of law prohibiting gender-based violence, is still a challenge. Despite the adoption of strict laws to prevent IPV in the Ethiopian Constitution and family law, law enforcement is elusive when large segments of the population live outside urban centres. Attitudes towards IPV also pose a challenge for prevention and intervention strategies. For instance, the CSA and ICF (2016) population-based study found that one of the reasons for the high prevalence of IPV is that both women and men endorse a husband's right to physically inflict harm or punishment on his wife. Tusa et al. (2022) noted that Ethiopian women who did not support such punishments are more likely to report IP, while other women may accept and expect such violence as typical of their marriage union.

However, Chernet and Cherie (2020) indicated that while IPV in Ethiopia is widely acknowledged to be of great concern from a human rights, economic and health perspective; 63% of women and 28% of men in their sample of 4714 ever-married women in reproductive age participants from 2016 EDHS agree that a husband is justified in beating his wife (Tusa et al., 2022). This finding suggests that IPV is not only a deep-rooted problem but also socially accepted (Tusa et al., 2022). A qualitative study conducted by Abeya and colleagues (2012) in

Western Ethiopia revealed that traditional, social norms encourage women to be tolerant of IPV and avoid speaking about their experiences of violence in their intimate relationships.

Tiruye et al. (2020) found that there was a significant association between the witnessing of inter-parental violence, and an accepting attitude towards IPV. Women, who witnessed inter-parental violence as children, were more likely to experience IPV during adult life, be more accepting of and normalize the violence. Similarly, men exposed to violence as children have an increased risk of being a perpetrator of IPV as adults (Tiruye et al., 2020). In their systematic review, Bifftu and Guracho (2022) found that Ethiopian women who had no decision-making powers were more than 1.3 times more likely to experience IPV, compared to those who had decision-making powers. Moreover, women living in communities with high IPV-accepting-norms were more likely to have an increased risk of IPV. These patriarchal societal attitudes increase the chance of children being exposed to family violence (Ningxin Li, 2019). Chernet and Cherie (2020) also note that divorced women were more likely to experience IPV than married women. Interestingly, there is no significant difference between married and widowed women.

These gender norms create a hierarchy in relationships and inequalities that in turn, impact help-seeking behaviors. For example, a study conducted among 139 health workers in Southern Ethiopia revealed that more than half of the participants (57%) did not feel confident about caring for survivors of IPV (Belay et al., 2022). Almost one-third of these healthcare providers believed that they could not suspect IPV unless they could see physical injuries, such as bruises and scratches.

The research findings presented in this section suggest that the attitudes and beliefs held within cultures and societies about IPV have a powerful influence over how permissible IPV is. Supportive attitudes towards partner violence significantly increase the experience of IPV (Ikekwibe & Okoror, 2021). McCloskey et al., (2016) argue that beliefs about gender roles in relationships have laid the groundwork for IPV in many regions of Africa, including Ethiopia. But, the UNFPA (2021) notes that family, community and societal norms around violence are slow to change.

### **2.3.3 Relational Predictors of IPV**

While the above factors account to some degree for IPV, it's possible that other relational predictors pertaining to dynamics within the couple dyad may also increase the risk of IPV. These may include the attachment styles partners enact in their relationships; the degree of relationship satisfaction experienced by partners; and the conflict resolution strategies they draw from during conflicts.

#### ***A) Attachment styles in Adult Romantic Relationships***

The concept of attachment focuses on relationships and bonds between people, which influence psychological and physical safety, shaping a person's cognitions, attitudes and behaviors, self-esteem and emotional stability (Bowlby, 1969; Fraley, 2019; Sagone et al., 2023; Sperling & Berman, 1994). A more detailed review of the attachment literature is presented in Chapter 3, Section 2, however for purposes of this discussion, key findings suggest the following: Secure attachment in adult romantic relationships is characterized by greater interpersonal engagement and positive internalized perceptions of self (Read et al., 2018). In contrast, insecure attachment is commonly classified under two dimensions: anxious and

avoidant. Anxious attachment relates to a fear of abandonment and rejection, yet there is a desire for closeness from significant others (Pietromonaco & Beck, 2019). Conversely, avoidant individuals are characterized by a fear of intimacy and interpersonal distrust, alongside the expectation that expressions of discomfort or distress will be ignored, resulting in a reliance on self-soothing (Wearden et al., 2003). While there is much debate about the influence of culture and context on the universality of the concept of attachment and these attachment styles, which is also addressed in more detail in Chapter 3, section 2, Mesman et al. (2016) argue for an integrated approach that views attachment as universal but influenced by culturally and contextually-specific factors. This is the position taken in this thesis.

Sokolova and Bakalova (2022) explain that attachment security enhances relationship quality and emotional well-being, whereas attachment insecurity contributes to IPV. This association between attachment styles and emotional and behavioral regulation was first asserted by Bowlby (1973) who explained that threats of separation and other forms of rejection are arousing in a child or adult resulting in anxious and angry behavior within the relationship. Many decades later, Simpson et al. (2021), in their meta-analysis across 33 studies that looked at the association between attachment styles and IPV, found that anxious attachment, avoidant attachment, and a combination of both anxious and avoidant attachment were all significantly associated with IPV, while secure attachment was negatively associated with incidents of IPV. Although, in their systematic review of 113 studies that explored the relationship between attachment and IPV Velotti et al. (2018) found that a number of studies failed to find significant associations between insecure attachment and IPV victimization and perpetration.

A later meta-analysis on IPV perpetrators' behaviors across 52 studies conducted by Velotti et al. (2022) also found a significant association between IPV and both anxiety and

avoidance dimensions of attachment. Anxious attachment was associated with all forms of IPV measured in the analysis (physical, psychological and sexual), while avoidant attachment was significantly associated with sexual violence. However, Velotti et al. (2022) did not find significant associations between avoidant attachment and aggression. They conclude that the results underscore the need for additional research to explore the role of other potential moderating and mediating variables in the relationship between attachment and IPV, in order to better support the development of prevention and treatment interventions (Velotti et al., 2022). Spencer et al. (2021) agree, noting that although insecure attachment styles have been found to be related to IPV, the underlying causes of the IPV might differ, as a result of different attachment styles.

Independent cross-sectional studies have attempted to explore the link between different attachment styles and perpetrating IPV. For example, Babcock et al. (2000), in a sample of twenty-three domestically violent (DV) husbands and 13 distressed in their marriage but non-violent (DNV) husbands in Texas, USA demonstrated that men with more anxious attachment styles were more likely to become violent when their partners attempted to withdraw from them, than more securely attached men or those with more avoidant attachment styles. Similarly, Magorokosho and Mberira (2020), in their study of 159 male and 221 female undergraduate students in University of Zambia, found that being anxiously attached was a predictor of IPV, whilst avoidance was not, and neither were demographic predictors of age and sex.

In contrast to these findings, Genest and Mathieu (2014) in a study of eighty Canadian men enrolled in IPV therapy for intimate partner aggressors found that avoidant styles contributed most to the manifestation of anger. Similarly, Mauricio and López (2009) in their study of 304 heterosexual men with at least an eighth-grade reading level recruited from batterer

intervention programs within a medium-sized urban community in the Midwest, USA, found that avoidant individuals were the most likely to enact IPV. This finding was supported by Lawson and Brossart (2009), in their study of 49 US men who were mandated to treatment for IPV, who found that avoidant attachment styles were good predictors of mild to severe IPV and sexual coercion, while Babcock et al. (2000) found that anxious attachment styles were associated with more psychological and mild physical aggression, in their sample of twenty-three domestically violent husbands and 13 maritally distressed but non-violent husbands.

Osa-Subtil et al. (2022) explored the link between attachment styles and IPV convictions in a sample of 265 Spanish male participants. They found no direct correlation between attachment styles and IPV. But those who reported more secure attachment had a positive model of themselves and others, and were comfortable being alone and in established intimate relationships. More anxiously attached individuals maintained a negative self-image and a positive image of others, with a greater concern for their relationships, a consistent need for approval and a fear of abandonment. This group appeared to depend on others to maintain a positive self-concept and tried to achieve this through control. More avoidant participants were characterized by a positive self-image and a negative image of others. They tended to avoid and deny the need for intimacy and preferred self-sufficiency. Finally, participants with high anxiety and avoidance maintained a negative model of both themselves and others on whom they were highly dependent. They appeared more reserved about intimacy, for fear of rejection.

In terms of attachment styles that predict IPV victimization, in a study of 209 Portuguese women, including victims and non-victims of IPV, Costa and Botelho (2021) found that women who reported IPV also reported more attachment anxiety than those who reported no IPV. They found that attachment anxiety and attachment dependency partially mediated the

association between physical violence with injury and PTSD symptoms. Exploring whether attachment styles predicted violence in a relationship in 41 discordant Canadian couples, Bond and Bond (2005) found that an anxious attachment style was a significant predictor of females being victims of violence and of men not being victims, whereas a dismissive style in men was predictive of men being victims. Moreover, the combination of anxiously attached females and dismissive males was a potent predictor of violence.

In summary, at present, the scientific literature offers inconsistent results on the relationship between attachment styles and IPV. Some studies show a positive relationship between anxious and avoidant attachment styles and IPV, whereas others demonstrate no association between these variables. Still others note that the association and risk factors are unclear. As Dumas et al. (2008) argue, while attachment styles clearly serve as risk factors to adult relationship violence, it is unclear whether an anxious or avoidant attachment style can predict future violence.

In Ethiopia, while much research has focused on the association between socio-demographic variables and IPV (as has been outlined in section 2.3.1), there are very few studies that explore the association between attachment styles and IPV. In his study on the effect of adult attachment style and relationship satisfaction among 306 community participants in Addis Ababa, Ayenew (2016) found that participants who reported lower anxious and avoidant attachment styles reported higher relationship satisfaction. However, the study failed to explore the link between these attachment styles and IPV. Ayenew (2016) notes that while the study of adult attachment and relationship satisfaction, including the occurrence of IPV, has grown in other parts of the world, it remains a fairly unexplored area of focus in the Ethiopian context, highlighting an important gap in the current literature.

## ***B) Relationship Satisfaction***

Relationship satisfaction is defined by Rosalina et al., (2019) as a mental state that represents the balance between the benefits and sacrifices experienced by each partner in a relationship. As the balance between these benefits and sacrifices shifts, partners experience anxieties and pressures that may adversely impact the functioning of the relationship.

Girma (2020), in his sample of 326 households living in Addis Ababa, Nifas Silk Lafto Sub-City, Ethiopia found that relationship satisfaction was strongly correlated with relationship stability, a healthy sexual relationship, constructive communication, and healthy conflict resolution strategies. In support of these findings, Engidasew (2013) notes the experiences of 58 Ethiopian couples sampled from a Marriage and Family Counselling and Training Centre in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. Engidasew found conflict, poor communication and misunderstandings among couples were predominating problems that linked with a gradual decline in sexual satisfaction and reduced relationship satisfaction over time. In another study among a sample of 240 Ethiopians from South Western Ethiopia, Tegegn et al. (2015) noted that relationship dissatisfaction tended to reduce the couple's ability to resolve conflict in healthy ways, and in some cases provoked spousal violence.

Simmons and colleagues (2018) explain that IPV has a detrimental effect on relationship satisfaction. Stith et al. (2008) conducted a meta-analysis of 32 studies investigating the link between relationship satisfaction and IPV among heterosexual couples. They concluded that relationship satisfaction was negatively associated with IPV. Here a cyclical pattern emerges where challenges in communication and sexual dissatisfaction lead to reduced relationship satisfaction which further impacts communication and conflict resolution strategies. Couples in

this dynamic are more likely to experience IPV which further reduces relationship satisfaction. From this position, partners find it difficult to reconnect, communicate more constructively, and find healthier conflict-resolution strategies. This raises the question of whether relationship satisfaction could play a role in predicting IPV. Although, while Hammett et al. (2021) noted that cross-sectionally, less satisfied couples report higher levels of intimate partner aggression and dissatisfied couples are more likely to engage in intimate partner aggression; they argue that being dissatisfied is unlikely to increase the aggression a couple engages in, over time. Rachel et al. (2017) also caution that looking at relationship satisfaction alone may not provide enough insight into the dynamics that lead to IPV in relationships.

Relationship satisfaction is strongly associated with adult attachment styles. For example Martins et al. (2023) conducted a systematic review of the association between adult attachment and relationship satisfaction across 30 studies. They report that 23 studies (79%) found a positive association between partner satisfaction and their spouse's secure attachment and/or a negative association between partner satisfactions with their spouse's insecure style. However, only 6 studies indicated a contrary relationship, in which satisfaction was positively associated with insecure attachment, while 6 found no relationship between satisfaction and any attachment styles. Interestingly, 9 studies found an association between self-reported insecure attachment and lower relationship satisfaction. Similarly, a longitudinal study among married couples without children living in New York, USA, conducted by Crowell et al. (2002), suggests that attachment security co-varies with relationship satisfaction over time.

In their meta-analysis based on 73 studies with 118 independent samples of 21 602 individuals, Li and Chan (2012) found that both anxiety and avoidance were detrimental to the cognitive, emotional, and behavioral aspects of relationship quality. Avoidance was more

negatively associated with general relationship satisfaction, connectedness, and general support, than more anxious attachment, which was more positively associated with general conflict in relationships. But Martins et al. (2023) argue that although many studies point out that secure attachment is associated with greater relationship satisfaction, it is not clear how generalizable this association is, because different individual, contextual, and cultural variables can impact this finding.

In a sample of 562 people living in Midwest USA, Rachel et al. (2017) found that partners who reported secure attachment in their romantic relationships also reported high relationship satisfaction. Hirschberger et al. (2009) reported similar results in their two longitudinal study cohorts of 177 US married couples with children, noting that secure attachment in the adult relationship was related to higher relationship satisfaction for both partners. Thus, individuals who feel more securely attached to their partners, perceive their relationship as more satisfying and have spouses who report feeling more satisfied. Butzer and Campbell (2008) explored adult attachment and sexuality in a Canadian sample of 116 married couples aged 21–75. They found that partners, who reported higher levels of anxiety and avoidance in their romantic relationships, experienced less sexual satisfaction. Their results suggest that attachment is linked in theoretically predictable ways to relationship and sexual satisfaction.

There is also strong evidence for the association between relationship satisfaction, adult attachment styles and IPV. In their meta-analysis of 132 studies, Candell and Turliuc's (2019) found that anxious and avoidant attachment were significantly related to lower relationship satisfaction in adult romantic relationships, and that low relationship satisfaction was associated with IPV in the form of physical violence. Gewirtz-Meydan and Finzi-Dottan (2021) conducted a

cross-sectional study among 128 couples (256 participants) the majority were native Israelis and the remaining participants were immigrants from Europe, the United States, Canada, South America, and South Africa living in Israel. They found that men and women with anxious attachments were at greater risk of perpetrating psychological violence, which in turn, was related to their own lower relationship satisfaction.

Arseneault et al. (2023) suggests that relationship satisfaction might provide insights into why more insecure individuals perpetrate IPV. Godbout et al. (2017) examined the association between the perpetration of relationship violence, and relationship satisfaction among 234 Canadian participants and found that attachment avoidance and IPV were predictors of relationship dissatisfaction. In another study among sample of 88 Canadian couples attending psychotherapy, Lefebvre et al. (2021) demonstrated that an individual's own attachment avoidance was associated with their perpetration of psychological and physical IPV, closely linked with their experience of relationship dissatisfaction.

As part of their International Sexuality Description Project (ISDP) on a total of 17,804 participants from 62 cultural regions including Ethiopia, Schmitt et al. (2004) found that Ethiopia was among those cultural regions that scored higher on insecure (anxious and avoidant) versus secure romantic attachment. However, they failed to explore associations between these attachment styles, relationship satisfaction and IPV. Furthermore, their samples were mainly on Ethiopian university students completing tertiary studies in the US. Previous studies conducted in Ethiopia (Ayenew, 2016; Girma, 2020; Habtamu, 2005; Meaza, 2014; Tegegne et al., 2015) mainly focused on highlighting the association between relationship satisfaction and IPV, but negated the role of attachment styles. This would suggest a gap in the current research, where

enquiry focused on exploring both attachment styles and relationship satisfaction as predictors of IPV in Ethiopian couples would make a valuable contribution to the literature.

### ***C) Conflict Resolution Strategies***

Intimate and romantic relationships are an important part of adult life, and have a direct impact on mental, physical, and occupational health, as well as on the quality of family life (Stroud et al., 2015). In daily and frequent interactions, interpersonal conflict is expected. Thus, couples are more likely than acquaintances to experience frequent and intense disagreements (Cahn, 1990). The opposing needs and interests of partners lie at the core of relationship conflict. Wang (2006) explains that conflict happens naturally, in all settings of our daily activities, and is one of the most common problems in intimate romantic relationships and within families. Navidian and Bahari (2014) highlight a few key areas that lead to conflict in partner relationships. These include finances and the management of money; expectations about the sexual relationship; disagreement on children and parenting; and managing the influences of extended family members.

During such conflict one or both partners may feel unhappy in their relationship and try to resolve the conflict, using different strategies (Hamamci, 2005). Based on the unavoidable nature of relationship conflict, Comstock and Sterzizweick (1990) posit that it is not the absence or presence of conflict that determines a couples' romantic and relationship quality; but rather the way they successfully handle, manage, and resolve this conflict. Gottman and Levenson (1988) noted that the manner in which a couple handles negative conflict determines whether the marriage succeeds or fails. The couple's skill in conflict resolution and the subsequent impact that such resolution has on each partner, hold the key to whether the marriage continues to function in a constructive way or becomes a destructive or malfunctioning system. Conflict

resolution strategies hold important implications for the psychological and physical health of romantic partners and their family systems, as well as general family well-being (Fincham & Beach, 1999) since the couple's relationship satisfaction is related both concurrently and over time, to the type of conflict resolution strategies employed, as well as to the frequency with which those strategies are used (e.g., Kurdek, 1995). Negative conflict resolution strategies place a heavy emotional load on the couple and the broader family unit (Haddad et al., 2016).

Conflict takes different forms, and Hocker and Wilmot (1998) note that different conflict resolution styles hold different strengths and weaknesses. They argue that individuals' personal experiences, knowledge, beliefs, and values offer them various approaches and skills to resolve relationship conflicts, which become patterned responses or sets of behaviors. Constructive conflict resolution is linked with improved relationship satisfaction, while destructive approaches to resolving conflict lead to marked dissatisfaction with the relationship (Newman & Newman, 1987; Meeks et al., 1998). In the context of this research, constructive conflict resolution strategies include interactions involving cooperation, problem-solving behaviors, and intentions to learn about the other's needs, willingness to talk about disagreements, and a focus on the relationship rather than the individual. On the other hand, destructive conflict resolution strategies constitute interactions that involve manipulation, coercion, escalation, and avoidant patterns of domination and subordination.

Conflict management styles differ across cultures and societies (Kirchmeyer & Cohen, 1994). Ohbuchi and Takahashi (1994) and Bartos and Wehr (2002) explain that a desirable conflict resolution style in one context might be seen as maladaptive in another. In Ethiopia, much emotional support is provided to married couples by members of the extended family and close friends. This type of support includes help and advice about child-rearing, household

disputes, and conflict resolution (Tegegne et al., 2015). However, conflict in general is approached and resolved traditionally through mediation and reconciliation systems facilitated by religious educators, community elders, family members, and close friends: a process called “*Shimgelena*” (Wolde, 2018). During the *Shimgelena* process the elders decide how best to resolve the conflict by assessing who is most affected; who should be compensated; who should be punished; what the underlying causes of the problem are (Wolde, 2018). The elders provide counselling, drawing on local social support networks, aiming to strengthen the couple's bond and reunify the couple, arbitrate dissatisfied couples and help them understand the adverse implications of divorce (Wolde, 2018).

Habtamu (2005) explains that asking for elders’ and religious leaders’ mediation, calling on elders or relatives and discussing the problem, are the main coping strategies for relationship conflict in Ethiopia. He describes the typical strategies reported by Ethiopian husbands in his sample of 56 family heads among Addis Ababa kebeles (Lideta and Shiromeda) to include discussing the problem, and asking for elders’ mediation, as well as getting angry with wives, beating wives and removing them from the household. The wives in his sample reported the problem; calling on elders or relatives to assist with mediation; tolerating the problem or leaving the household as the most common strategies they tended to draw on (Habtamu, 2005).

However, Tigist (2011) criticizes the use of these customary practices of conflict resolution because these practices validate the patriarchal agenda, overseen by male elders to regulate problems within individual marriages. In support of this argument Tegegne et al. (2015) highlight that elders typically tend to favor the husband’s position in these mediation processes. In the *Shimgelena* process, wives are expected to be silent about the decision of the elders and act accordingly, though the decision may be quite detrimental to them.

In a longitudinal study among 84 Ethiopian participants, Tafere et al. (2020) found that in more rural contexts, if a marriage was on the verge of divorce, traditional reconciliation mechanisms were adopted most frequently to try to settle the dispute, by involving community elders, neighbors and relatives. Women managing relationship conflicts sought advice from community health workers, who at times referred them to the *woreda* (local) Women and Children Affairs Office. If conflict persisted and the couple wanted to divorce, the case was referred to the nearby Justice Office, and then to court to settle property and child support. In more urban contexts, married couples tended to draw from administrative and judicial systems at both *woreda* and sub-city level, however the separation of cohabitating couples was usually handled by the couple themselves (Tafere et al., 2020). This study suggests that support available for addressing relationship conflict, separation and divorce varies across geography, and the relationship union's type and formality. Stronger informal and formal mechanisms are in place to address the problems and endings of formal marriages, but less support is available to handle the dissolution of the informal unions of cohabitating couples.

Another cross-sectional descriptive survey among 390 married participants in Durbete town of Northwestern Ethiopia, of the Amhara regional state, revealed that third-party mediation is mostly practiced by married couples to settle their relationship problems (Tasew & Getahun, 2021). These would include peers, religious leaders, local elders, and affiliated persons. The judicial system is only activated if, the “*Shimgelena*” process is not effective and divorce is recommended, as a last resort (Tasew & Getahun, 2021). A study carried out among the Kaffa community in Southwestern Ethiopia, revealed that in-law relations (*nacho*); best-man relations (*Miyaatoo*), religious leaders, community elders (*Sheewe Genoo*); volunteer associations (*Idirro*); and traditional belief leaders (*Alamos*), are most commonly used to mediate relationship

conflict (Eleni, 2017). Similarly, Tegegne et al. (2015) found that local couples living in the Oromo community of Southwestern Ethiopia managed their relationship dissatisfaction through mediation by elders (*Jaarsummaa*) (33.6%), negotiating with each other (23.6%), informing their families or relatives (15.3%), reaching out to friends (14.1%), using judicial/court processes (7.1%) and consulting *Kebele Shengo*/women Affairs or discussing the relationship conflict in the neighborhood (6.2%).

A survey by Girma (2020) among 326 heterosexual, married Ethiopians living in Addis Ababa, revealed that relationship conflict resolution was a significant predictor of relationship satisfaction. In support of this finding, Ayenew (2016) reported that conflict resolution strategies predicted relationship satisfaction in a sample of 384 Ethiopian households. Here, relationship satisfaction was positively associated with integrating, compromising, and obliging conflict resolution strategies; and negatively associated with demand and avoidance approaches.

Meaza (2014), in her sample of 166 selected married people from Addis Ababa, found that a collaborative, accommodative and compromising conflict resolution style was reported by most of their respondents as an effective coping strategy in their relationships, where many tried to reduce competing, avoiding and third-party interferences. They found that avoiding conflict negatively impacted on relationship satisfaction. Tolla (2022) reported that unequal sharing of home and parenting responsibilities, lack of affectionate communication, and money-related issues were important considerations in relationship satisfaction, in addition to conflict resolution styles, in a sample of 188 students' mothers participants from Ghion, Fasilo, and Bahir Dar preparatory schools in Bahirdar city, which is found in North western Ethiopia and capital city of Amhara regional state, Ethiopia. While more destructive conflict resolution strategies such as

verbal and physical aggression, appeared to lead to more hostility in family systems that placed the marriage at risk of dissolution.

The evidence above suggests a strong association between conflict resolution strategies and relationship satisfaction. However, from an attachment perspective, there are few studies that have explored the link between adult attachment styles and conflict resolution strategies in Ethiopian samples. One such study, conducted in the USA by Mikulincer and Shaver (2012) suggested that avoidantly attached individuals might use conflict engagement strategies when arguments escalate, to maintain independence and relational distance from their partners.

There is some disparity about the role conflict resolution strategies play in IPV. Antônio and Hokoda (2009) reported reduced IPV in relationships that drew from more adaptive conflict resolution strategies in their sample of 285 Mexican adolescents. Bonache and colleagues (2016) found that more destructive demand and withdrawal conflict resolution strategies are more frequent among people reporting IPV, in their sample of 216 undergraduate students living in Spain. In a follow-up study Bonache and colleagues (2017) explain that withdrawal strategies often function as a form of protection in violent relationships: one partner relying on withdrawal conflict resolution strategies to avoid psychological and physical violence. However, Pedersen and Thomas (1992) found a positive association between withdrawal strategies and IPV in their sample of 116 female and 50 male undergraduates and Smith-Darden and colleagues (2016) reported inconclusive results in their sample of 727 middle and high school students who reported a dating history in the past year. The findings of these studies suggest conflicting results about the association between conflict resolution strategies and IPV, with no current evidence available for this interaction in Ethiopian couples in romantic relationships.

The overall gap in the current research, examining the role conflict resolution, attachment styles and relationship satisfaction may play as predictors of IPV in Ethiopian couples is clear from this review, and addressing this gap would make a valuable contribution to better understanding the role of these relational predictors in IPV, in Ethiopian contexts.

### **SUMMARY**

In summary, this chapter has defined IPV as violence between intimate partners in romantic relationships, enacted by the current partner, or a past/ex-partner where such violence includes both enacted and threatened forms of physical, sexual, emotional/psychological violence, financial acts of control or stalking behaviors and willful intimidation. The prevalence of IPV globally, on the African continent and in Ethiopia was discussed concluding that prevalence in Ethiopia is considerably higher than the global average, but varies across regions and is likely higher than currently estimated. Documented socio-demographic predictors of IPV were discussed, highlighting the powerful role that societal and cultural practices play in perpetuating IPV. The chapter concluded with an argument that adult attachment styles, relationship satisfaction and conflict resolution styles could play an important role as relational predictors of IPV but that while these factors have been explored in the international literature they have yet to be sufficiently examined in Ethiopian contexts.

## CHAPTER THREE

### 3. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

#### INTRODUCTION

Having reviewed the prevalence and established predictors of IPV in Chapter 2, and proposed attachment styles, relationship satisfaction and conflict resolution styles as important relational predictors for investigation in the Ethiopian context, Chapter 3 begins by describing the broad range of theoretical perspectives that are currently drawn from to understand IPV, and the challenges that arise as a consequence. The chapter reviews dominant sociological, biological and psychological theories for understanding IPV, then motivates for an attachment lens for understanding IPV in this current study.

#### 3.1 THEORIES OF IPV

IPV is a pervasive hidden practice in humankind's history that promotes social injustice and continues to be a significant public health issue and a human rights concern (Trifari, 2021). It is systemic and adversely impacts individuals, families, and communities. Cognizant of its destructive impact, scope, and magnitude across the globe, various disciplines have attempted to understand the etiology of IPV (Pinto et al., 2020). These efforts have formed the theoretical orientations that shape our current understanding of IPV.

Theories are ideas that provide a framework for investigating the cause-and-effect relationship of IPV (Gosselin, 2019). They provide the foundation for understanding human behavior in the social environment and underlie actions taken by practitioners to engage with, assess, intervene against, and evaluate IPV (McLeod et al., 2020). Bell and Naugle (2008)

explain that theories serve as a backdrop for understanding the epidemiology, etiology, and treatment of IPV. Burelomova et al. (2018) add that theoretical perspectives in the study of IPV play a fundamental role in promoting our understanding of how to prevent, reduce, or eliminate IPV.

McLeod et al. (2020) explain that theoretical perspectives for understanding IPV draw from sociological, biological and psychological frameworks, or a combination of these. Examples include the psychosocial perspective, feminist theories and patriarchal-social factors (Cunningham et al., 1998); theories of social and family learning (Wareham, Boots & Chavez, 2009) biological and neuropsychological perspectives. However, as a consequence of these varied perspectives, there is disagreement as to the dominant causes of IPV, how to assess IPV and how to develop appropriate prevention strategies. For example, Baranov et al. (2020) states that theories of IPV span economic, feminist, sociological, and criminological reports with findings predicting positive, negative, neutral, and ambiguous associations between economic resources and violence.

Burelomova et al. (2018) noted that to date, there is neither a universally accepted definition of IPV, nor is there a conceptual framework encompassing all its complexities. Graham et al. (2022) agree remarking that the considerable body of existing literature and theoretical frameworks that attempt to explain IPV perpetration and its prevention strategies, lack uniformity. Gosselin (2019) agrees and asks why there is no consensus on the reasons for the high prevalence of IPV globally, despite a large number of empirical studies conducted since the 1960s on the topic.

Gottfredson and Nielsen (2024) explain that differences in the way in which IPV acts are defined and investigated, the categorization of IPV acts by the current relationship or previous relationships; and whether IPV is being reported from the perspective of the victim or perpetrator all lead to challenges interpreting findings in the current literature. Such divergence and a lack of consistency about the description of causal and predicting factors of IPV have given rise to arguments among scholars. Meyer et al. (2024) note that because of the absence of consensus and uniformity across theoretical frameworks and disciplines pose a challenge in conceptualizing and explaining IPV, as well as in designing intervention strategies for IPV arise, but that these challenges could be reduced by developing ways of categorizing theories of predictors of IPV.

The position and theoretical framework that originate from discipline-specific IPV research results in further debate. Turanovic (2022) explains that across different fields of study, different theoretical perspectives have been presented to explain exposure to IPV. For example, in some fields, lifestyle and opportunity perspectives are dominant, which view IPV in terms of a combination of a motivated perpetrator, a suitable target, and the absence of capable guardianship. In contrast, Buss and Duntley (2011) argue that in the context of evolutionary processes, IPV may have evolved because it facilitated survival goals (e.g., self-defense) and reproductive goals, such as preventing mates from defecting to other potential partners, or committing sexual infidelity. Dillon et al. (2013) argue that partner personality traits are an important possible predictor of violence in romantic relationship. However, feminist sociocultural theorists challenge the above-mentioned assertions, attributing the occurrence of IPV to a patriarchal social structure and system wherein children and women have less power than men, making them susceptible to abusive acts (Damant et al., 2008). This theory serves as

an argument to shift the social power structure based on gender, treating IPV as a criminal act that is punishable within the criminal justice system (Goldner, 1999).

These examples illustrate to some extent the theoretical diversity in the field of IPV, currently. The debates indicate the complexity of romantic relationships and IPV and show some of the value of these different perspectives in gaining a deeper understanding of the underlying dynamics that perpetuate IPV (Kelly, 2011). A combination of these different perspectives have led to causal explanations as to why some partners experience IPV and/ or why others perpetrate IPV; why the prevalence of IPV varies across and between communities, countries, and regions, and how or why specific interventions work to prevent IPV (Beyer et al., 2015; Bourey et al., 2015; Capaldi et al., 2012).

In Ethiopia, much of the available research on IPV has focused on prevalence and prevention strategies drawing from EDHS findings, using socio-demographic variables, with limited emphasis on theoretical understandings. As a consequence, Lowe et al. (2022) argue that current IPV interventions in Low-Middle-Income Countries (LMIC) like Ethiopia are showing poor outcomes because the theorizations of the mechanisms that perpetuate IPV and may bring about change are lacking. This limits current understanding of how these interventions might work across different contexts, with different sub-groups, and whether they can and should be scaled-up and transferred across settings. Starmann et al. (2017) agrees, noting that much of the existing theoretical literature on IPV is from North America, the United Kingdom and Europe. Although Conroy (2014) highlights a growing body of research in African contexts, linking power, relationship quality, and IPV. Although, Mann and Takyi (2009) note that the high prevalence of IPV against African women specifically, has led to less interest in exploring competing theories.

Having outlined the broad range of theoretical positions that currently explain elements of IPV, the next section will present a more focused discussion of three dominant theoretical positions: the sociological, biological and psychological perspectives. Relevant key assumptions for each perspective will be discussed, followed by an explanation of the application of these assumptions to IPV, and evidence of each theory's empirical value.

### **3.1.1 Sociological Perspectives of IPV**

Sociological theories of IPV emphasize and seek to explain violent behavior as a function of social structures, rather than individual pathology (Lawson, 2012), though they acknowledge that individual behaviors are influenced by a person's characteristics, as well as the characteristics of their relationship with others and the communities in which they live. Levant (1996) add that sociological theories view IPV against women as a socially constructed ideology about masculinity or the expectations and beliefs about what men should do or what attributes they should demonstrate that are implicated in men's perpetration of violence. MacMillan and Gartner (1999) explain that proponents of this theoretical perspective assume that IPV represents a systematic form of domination and social control of women by men. Graham et al. (2022) conclude that theories originating from the sociological perspective prioritize a range of different individual, relational, and community-level factors that might contribute to Intimate Partner Homicide (IPH) perpetration, although most discrete theories focus on just one of these levels. Consequently, this perspective views men as perpetrators of IPV; and that men who hold patriarchal views are more likely to abuse their female partners, especially through the use of coercive control tactics that intend to isolate women from existing resources, including sources of social support (Brownridge, 2002).

Jewkes et al. (2015) explain that these ideologies with a sense of masculinity roles and qualities push men to show their strength, toughness, control, and sexual dominance in particular ways that may manifest through violence. Ali and Naylor (2013) add that the sociological perspective of IPV focuses on the social context and situations in which men and women live, and where violence takes place. As a result, there is a tendency to shift the focus on predictors of IPV from the individual perpetrator or person experiencing IPV to social structures, including the family (Dwyer et al., 1995). Heise (2018) explains that from this perspective, at the interpersonal level, the presence of unequal power in relationships between men and women is enforced through violence or the threat of violence, and the controlling behavior of daily household decision-making, circumscribing a partner's autonomy, aspirations, and access to differing resources.

In general, the above descriptions imply a common thread of the role of social structure, environment, and societal processes, particularly relating to gender and masculinity, in determining IPV (Meyer et al., 2024). However, research findings investigating the assumptions of this sociological perspective have produced contradictory results. On one hand, in their systematic review and narrative synthesis of 108 studies Meyer et al. (2024) found that several compelling components of sociological theory held explanatory power for understanding how, where, and why IPV occur. This is because, sociological theories of IPV focus on the social context and situations in which men and women live, a particular setting where violence takes place. This focus shifts away from the individual perpetrator's behaviors or the woman experiencing IPV to socio-structural entities, including the family system and the broader community and social context.

In contrast, McCarthy et al. (2018) in their systematic review of 23 studies drawing from gender inequality measures (gender norms; views on gender roles/ norms; endorsement of violence against women, and gender-related inequities in relationship power and control) found that over half of these measures were not associated with male perpetration of IPV. In addition, Meyer et al. (2024) highlight that from cross-cultural perspective, previous studies employing sociological theories have been skewed toward high-income contexts, with nearly 40% of these studies conducted in the United States (US), and only 21% conducted in LMICs suggesting poor evidence for the application of this perspective across different cultural and ethnic contexts. To this point Mann and Takyi (2009) add that despite the high prevalence of IPV against African women there are very few studies that explore why IPV is so pervasive on the continent.

### **3.1.2 Biological Perspectives of IPV**

The biological perspective draws from genetic, congenital influences, neurotransmitters, and organic causes of behavior to explain IPV perpetration and victimization. Cunningham et al. (1998) note that biological research mainly focuses on the role of ethology, genetic defects, brain injury, neuropathology, brain infections, and medical illnesses, and its link to the development of violent and aggressive behavior. In the context of evolutionary theories, Buss and Duntley (2011) posit that IPV might have evolved to facilitate survival and reproductive goals. Likewise, Ehrensaft et al. (2003) suggest that if IPV has evolutionary roots, that would imply a genetic footprint. Tsavoussis et al. (2014) noted that there is some evidence that poor psychosocial adaptation is related to changes in the anatomical composition of the central nervous system; which in turn, results in dysregulated behavior. Such dysregulation in the brain leads to dysregulated aggression, which may manifest in IPV (Chester & DeWall, 2018).

However, scholars supportive of the biological perspective argue that insufficient attention has been paid to the biological explanations of IPV. For instance, Barnes et al. (2013) note that little research has focused on alternative explanations, including that of genetic factors that may account for the intergenerational pattern of IPV witnessed in some families. Stuart et al. (2014) agree, asserting that although IPV is multifactorial, etiological theories of IPV have rarely included potential genetic factors. Years ago, Widom (1989) argued that a purely sociological or psychological explanation of IPV cannot completely explain the phenomenon of IPV. Therefore, genetic influences may play a role in explaining why violent behavior, especially IPV, tends to run in families (Hines & Saudino, 2007; Pinto et al., 2010). Murphy et al. (2014) explain that factors, such as neurocognitive deficits, trauma exposure, and acute alcohol intoxication, influence the risk of IPV by altering the decoding and interpretation of relationship events and the generation, selection, and evaluation of responses in the brain. To this point, Yim and Kofman (2019) argue that the biological literature provides emerging evidence of stress-related endocrine and immune-inflammatory dysregulations that are in line with patterns typically observed among chronically stressed individuals. For these reasons Bueso-Izquierdo et al. (2022) emphasize that neuro-scientific variables should be taken into account to help to further understand IPV.

Over the past four decades, research has begun to uncover biological correlates of IPV (Chester & DeWall, 2018). For example, in their narrative review of 216 studies that examine the biological and psychological causes of IPV, Ali and Naylor (2013) found that secondary aggression, resulting from structural and chemical changes in the brain due to trauma or head injury was a key variable. DNA analysis of 97 men engaged in Batterer Intervention Programmes in the state of Rhode Island in USA, found that a cumulative genetic score (CGS)

containing the monoamine oxidase A (MAOA) and the human serotonin transporter gene- linked polymorphism (5-HTTLPR), was associated with IPV perpetration. Stuart et al. (2014) found that the cumulative genetic score CGS was significantly associated with physical and psychological aggression and injuries caused to one's partner, even after controlling for the effects of alcohol and drug use, age, and length of relationship.

Based on the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health (Add Health) in the USA, Barnes et al. (2013) found that genetic factors accounted for 24% of the variance in hitting one's partner; 54% of the variance in injuring one's partner, and 51% of the variance in forcing sexual activity on one's partner. Bueso-Izquierdo et al. (2016) used neuroimaging techniques to demonstrate that images depicting IPV elicited greater activity in the conflict-processing regions of the prefrontal cortex among IPV perpetrators. Likewise, a study on the analysis of the circulating testosterone hormone by George et al. (2001) indicated that exaggerated levels of circulating testosterone, a hormone reliably linked to dominant and aggressive acts, was observed among IPV perpetrators. These findings point to the importance of genetic and neuropsychological factors in the etiology of IPV.

Despite the above evidence, inconsistencies and methodological weaknesses in the literature suggest areas for future research. For example, in their review of the existing literature, based on four domains of the biological processes that may influence IPV (genetics; head injury and neuropsychology; psychophysiology; neurochemistry, metabolism and endocrinology), Pinto et al. (2010) found that biological factors alone do not determine, nor justify, the occurrence of violence and it would be irresponsible to suggest that biological factors are primarily responsible for IPV. Thus, biological factors are only one piece of the complex interaction among psychological, social, and environmental influences that contribute to the perpetration of IPV. In

addition, Vitacco et al. (2019) note important limitations to using neuro-image findings to account for IPV, because this imaging cannot detect the perpetrator's motive, moral or legal knowledge. Bueso-Izquierdo et al. (2022) highlight that methodological limitations also influence the consistency of results in the literature. Taking these limitations into consideration some scholars (Bueso-Izquierdo et al., 2015, 2022; Pinto et al., 2010; Vitacco et al., 2019) suggest a more integrated approach that considers personality factors; culture; gender role differentiation; social perspectives, and neuro-scientific factors in the study of IPV.

### **3.1.3 Psychological Perspectives of IPV**

As with the sociological and biological perspectives, several psychological theories have been developed to provide a conceptual understanding of IPV. Despite little harmony across these theories regarding the causes of IPV and/or the types of intervention needed to promote non-violent behavioral change (Babcock et al., 2016), psychological theories of IPV have remained important conceptually and empirically. For example Eckhardt and Massa (2022) argue that psychological theories that contribute to understanding the etiology of IPV have been at the forefront of developments in research, practice, and policy efforts for many decades. They note that psychological theories do not rest on the assumption that individual factors are singular causes of aggression; rather, this perspective assumes that personal history interacts with contextual factors such as situational, community, culture and society to account for IPV perpetration risk. This is because intimate partner relationships do not exist within a vacuum but rather, are nested within interactive layers of social contexts that extend from socio-cultural and economic factors operating on the broader levels of society, to more specific individual traits associated with relationship conflict, attachment processes, and peer/family dynamics (Eckhardt et al., 2006). Some theoretical studies (e.g. social learning theory) from this psychological

perspective, have tried to link exposure to parental physical abuse with adult perpetration of IPV, to show the trans-generational nature of IPV. However, researchers such as Kalmuss (1984) and Kaufman and Zigler (1993) argue that while exposure to parental physical abuse increases the odds of one enacting IPV, the majority of those who have experienced childhood abuse do not become violent toward their adult romantic partners. Therefore, mere imitation of socially learnt aggression does not adequately explain the intergenerational transmission of violence. , Psychoanalysis, Behavioral theory, Social learning theory, Personality/typology theory and Attachment theory have all addressed the topic of IPV. Their explanations and empirical evidence in relation to IPV is discussed in the following section. The intention here is not to provide a comprehensive review of these theories, but rather to illustrate the divergent theoretical positions in the field. This is also not an exhaustive list of all the available psychological theories pertaining to IPV.

#### ***a) Psychoanalysis***

Fonagy (2003) note that from psychoanalytic perspectives violence ultimately signals the failure of normal developmental processes to deal with something that occurs naturally. Yakeley (2018) explains that during typical psychological development the child becomes increasingly aware of their own mind and its contents through their growing awareness of their mother's mind by her capacity to demonstrate to them that she thinks of them as a separate person with intentions, beliefs, feelings and desires that are distinct from hers. However, if the mother is abusive or neglectful to the child, this prevents them from developing a capacity to feel safe about what others think of them. In such children, aggression therefore arises as a defense for the fragile emerging self against the assumed hostility of the object. If the abuse or neglect is ongoing, aggression and self-expression become fused in the mind of the child, impairing their

capacity for reflection and mentalization of their own and others' minds, and leading to adult relationships where self and others are mediated against a background of aggression and violence. From this position Herron and Javier (2018) posit that the pathways to violence for both abusers and the abused begin with narcissistic injuries inflicted early in life and continuing throughout the life span.

In the context of the treatment of perpetrators of violence, psychodynamic discourse has often focused on individual aggression and other related emotions and mental phenomena, such as anger, rage, cruelty, sadism and brutality (Andersson, 2022). More specifically, linking IPV with the tenet of psychoanalysis, Felitti et al. (1998) notes that exposure in early life to adverse childhood experiences (ACEs), including physical, psychological, and sexual abuse, is associated with an increased likelihood of IPV in adulthood. Fonagy and colleagues (1995) propose that early trauma and disrupted attachments involving physical and emotional abuse may lead to aggression and violence by interfering with the development of mentalization. This psychodynamic framework may be helpful in organizing the various facets of managing and caring for violent offenders.

However, Yakeley (2018) argues that although psychoanalysts have contributed to a vast literature on aggression since Freud's first writing about the subject, psychoanalytic practice is not usually associated with violent behavior, which is seen by most as a contraindication for therapy. But, there is a strong evidence-base for a psychodynamic approach, supporting primary theoretical tenets as well as treatment effectiveness. For instance, Both et al (2020) investigate the operationalized psychodynamic diagnosis (OPD) of women victims of domestic violence, exploring the severity and experience of violence, structural functions, dysfunctional interpersonal patterns, and intrapsychic conflicts. They found that the severity of the violence

was associated with the intensity of women's subjective suffering. Women tended to stay in these abusive relationships because of a fear of being abandoned, leaving themselves vulnerable to further abuse; while perceiving their partners as controlling, aggressive and offensive. As a defensive mechanism to relational discomfort and suffering, victims anticipated the aggressor's desire resulting in submissive behavior. The main psychic conflict was identified as the "need for care versus self-sufficiency" (78.6%). The women presented difficulties in emotional regulation and perceiving reality in a distorted way (Both et al, 2020). In another US-based study among 428 participants Bougar and colleagues (2024) concluded that object relations had a significant direct influence on aggression. These provide some examples of how IPV is conceptualized and researched from a psychoanalytic perspective.

#### ***b) Behavioural theory and IPV***

There are several applicable frameworks under behavioral theory that describe, identify and provide intervention strategies for addressing IPV. For instance, Eckhardt and Crane (2014) have postulated that a wide range of cognitive and attitudinal variables increase the likelihood of IPV in close relationships. Cognitions associated with IPV include misogynistic beliefs and endorsements of patriarchal norms, and attitudes that positively endorse the use of aggression in close relationships. Strube (1988) has explained that learned helplessness is assumed to occur as a consequence of a perceived noncontingency between responses and outcomes that gives rise to the expectation that future responses and outcomes will also be independent. Finn (2020) note psychological abuse and learned helplessness are frequently reported among racial/ethnic minorities, survivors of IPV, victims of childhood neglect, and victims of workplace abuse. Furthermore, Barnett (2001) notes that when efforts to leave an abusive relationship fail, or attempts to stop the violence are unsuccessful in producing significant change (i.e., the violence

continues to occur in an unpredictable and repetitive way), women tend to feel helpless and incompetent and withdraw into a state of passivity.

Eckhardt and Dye (2000) explain that cognitive variables are ubiquitous in their inclusion across broad theoretical models of IPV, and the accumulated evidence indeed suggests that IPV perpetrators report more distorted cognitions than comparison samples. In their assessment of association between battering and the development of hopelessness Aguilar and Nightingale (1994) found that abuse that is controlling in nature might play a significant role in the feelings of powerlessness and hopelessness noted in battered women and may contribute to the difficulty that some battered women have in terminating their abusive relationships. These examples suggest that practical principles under the framework of behavioral theory are helpful and functional in describing, assessing and informing intervention strategies for IPV prevention and treatment.

Behavioral frameworks for understanding partner violence may show promise in guiding the development of innovative dating violence prevention programs (Shorey et al., 2008). Bell and Naugle (2008) argue that the contextual model of a behavioral theoretical framework offers two primary advantages over other IPV theories. First, it provides a comprehensive conceptualization of IPV by integrating components of previous IPV theories and their related empirical findings into one, cohesive conceptual framework. Additionally, behavioral theoretical frameworks allow for a more fine-grained analysis of variables potentially related to discrete IPV episodes.

### *C) Social learning theory*

Social learning theory posited that family violence arises due to a constellation of contextual and situational factors (O'Leary, 1988), and has historically been used to explain the intergenerational transmission of child abuse (Kaufman & Zigler, 1987). The theory highlights key contextual factors including individual, couple, and societal characteristics, such as stress, violence in the family, and an aggressive personality that increase the risk of IPV. Situational factors, such as substance abuse or financial difficulties, have been shown to lead to violence in the presence of the above-mentioned contextual factors (Wareham et al., 2009). Social learning theorists suggest that aggressive and violent ways of settling family conflicts are often learned through observing parental and peer relationships during childhood (Mihalic & Elliott, 2005). In support of this position Vung and Krantz, (2009) propose that victims and perpetrators of IPV have either witnessed or experienced physical abuse during childhood, resulting in their developing acceptance or tolerance of violence within the family.

Akers (1998) argues that crime and conformity are learned through the principles of social learning theory during interactions with other people that expose the individual to definitions and behaviors, reinforcements, and role models that either favor or oppose crime. Depending on the nature of observer and influencer of the model, one may be exposed to attitudes, behaviors, reinforcements, and models that, on balance, favor or oppose crime. Akers (1998) concludes that principles of social learning theory can predict criminal behavior. For example they explain that the likelihood to commit a crime is likely to increase when an individual's association with criminal individuals outweighs associations with noncriminal individuals. When this occurs, rewards for crime outweigh the costs of crime, the number of

criminal role models outweighs the number of conforming role models, and one's positive or neutralizing definitions of crime outweigh one's own negative definitions of crime.

Some studies suggest that social learning principles like witnessing or experiencing abuse during childhood might be associated with future IPV perpetration or victimization in adulthood. For instance, Powers et al, (2020) tested the extent to which social learning theory could effectively explain and predict IPV victimization among 1,124 graduate and undergraduate students in Florida, USA. Their findings suggest that the social learning process does predict IPV victimization, but is not gender invariant, although the study couldn't explain why these processes are different for men and women. This finding is supported by the work of Sellers and colleagues (2003) who reported similar results almost 20 years earlier.

Fox et al. (2011) found that social learning variables have been associated with stalking, suggesting that victimization and perpetration are functions of social learning, in a sample of 2,766 US college students. Females were significantly more likely to be both stalking victims and perpetrators. They concluded that there may be responses, attitudes, and behaviors that are learned, modified, or reinforced primarily through interactions with peers. Therefore, social learning theory concepts appear to be important predictors of stalking perpetration and victimization that help to develop theoretical explanations for stalking.

Vung and Krantz (2009) also investigated the act of witnessing inter-parental violence as a girl and its association with experiences of IPV later in life among 730 married women, aged 17-60 in rural Vietnam. A total of 16% of respondents reported witnessing inter-parental violence as a child and of these, 40% had experienced physical/sexual violence in their intimate relationship over time and 16% in the past year. The study revealed that the risk of lifetime and past-year physical and sexual violence was significantly higher for those who had witnessed

inter-parental violence during childhood in comparison with those with no such experience. Women with experience of inter-parental violence during childhood reported acceptance of violence within an intimate relationship to a higher extent than those with no such experience.

In Ethiopia, even though direct application of social learning theory principles is unavailable, there is evidence from the 2016 EDHS population study that found a significant relationship between women's exposure to domestic violence in childhood, particularly witnessing their father beating their mother, and experiencing spousal violence in adulthood (CSA & ICF, 2016). Howell et al.(2016) explain that existing cross-cultural research on domestic violence has established that exposure to domestic violence in childhood can have long-term and lasting impacts in adulthood. They further noted that women demonstrated a strong relationship between experiencing domestic violence in childhood and subsequent intimate partner victimization in adulthood; whereas men demonstrated a strong relationship between experiencing domestic violence in childhood and subsequent intimate partner perpetration. More specifically, based on EDHS population study Seid and colleagues (2021) found that witnessing family violence as a child was also significantly association with experiencing domestic violence.

These examples provide evidence for the valuable role that social learning theory and related principles play in making sense of IPV, and the potential generational impact of witnessing violence in the family system.

#### ***D) Personality/typology theories***

Researchers have attempted to identify the psychopathology and personality traits that might affect a person's susceptibility to perpetrate IPV. Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart (1994) proposed the Developmental Model of Batterer Subtypes (DMBS) through reviewing 15

previous batterer typologies for common themes across classification metrics. This meta-typology classification suggests that batterers can be meaningfully divided into three types on the basis of (a) severity/frequency of their violence within the relationship, (b) generality of violence (i.e., only within the relationship or within and outside the relationship), and (c) psychopathology/ personality disorder characteristics. They argued that three types of batterers—labeled generally violent/ antisocial, dysphoric/borderline, and family only—can be identified and that these three types are influenced by different etiological factors that affect the development of violent behavior. Subsequent to this work, McCrae and Costa (2002) proposed that personality traits are dimensions of an individual difference in tendencies to show consistent patterns of thoughts, feelings, and actions in daily activities. Therefore personality traits have the capacity to influence decisions and actions that individuals make in the experiences and situations they are faced with throughout the lifespan. More recently, Teva et al. (2023) highlighted that although personality disorders have been associated with IPV, perpetration research regarding personality according to the classification specialist/generalist IPV perpetrators is scarce. Similarly, Collison and Lynam (2021) argue that in terms of IPV, there is no clear picture on related personality traits.

However, there are studies that depicted the association of personality styles and criminal behaviors. For example, in their systematic review using three large databases, examining personality traits from the Five-Factor Model and IPV perpetration, Dorling et al. (2024) found that neuroticism demonstrates a significant relationship with the perpetration of IPV. Teva et al. (2023) carried out a study to describe personality among a Spanish sample of 1093 men convicted of IPV crimes. Of these 554 men were classified as specialist perpetrators with criminal histories exclusively related to IPV, and 539 men were classified as generalist

perpetrators with a long and varied criminal history, linked to IPV and other criminal activity). They found that generalist perpetrators showed higher means in nearly all the personality disorders scales while specialist perpetrators scored high on avoidant, histrionic, and self-defeating scales of the Spanish version of the Millon Clinical Multiaxial Inventory III, and lower scores on the aggressive, borderline, and drug dependence scales.

Further support for this position can be found in a meta-analysis conducted by Collison and Lynam (2021). Using 163 studies representing 189 individual samples, they found that antisocial and borderline personality disorders demonstrated the most robust effect sizes across both perpetration and victimization.

## **3.2 ATTACHMENT THEORY**

One well-established psychological theory that has received less attention in understanding IPV is attachment theory. However, as Mayseless (1991) initially argued, attachment theory provides a useful model for understanding the coexistence of violence and intimacy in adult romantic relationships.

### **3.2.1 Defining the Concept of Attachment**

Simpson et al. (2021) explain that over the past five decades, few theories in psychology have generated as much interest, research, and debate as attachment theory and its recent extensions. They describe attachment theory as an extensive, inclusive theory of personality and social development, across the lifespan, making it relevant to several areas in psychology, including developmental, personality, social, cognitive, neuroscience, and clinical practice. Johnson (2019) explains that attachment is fundamentally an interpersonal theory, and it views mankind as not only essentially social but also as *Homo vinculum*-the one who bonds. This

bonding is the most intrinsic and essential for survival strategy for human beings. Johnson (2019) argues that attachment as a tool for regulation of one's emotion and reflects survival concerns regarding death, isolation, loneliness, and loss; where attachment styles provide strategies where these factors can be dealt with in a manner that enhances vitality and resilience. Therefore attachment can be viewed as a developmental theory, concerned with growth and flexible adaptiveness and the factors that block or enhance this adaptiveness. Because attachment theory covers the entire life course, it has several fundamental principles and core hypotheses, most of which address how and why people think, feel, and behave in particular ways within relationships, at different points of their lives (e.g. childhood or adult experiences and orientations)(Simpson et al., 2021).

Bowlby (1969) initially described the concept of attachment as a deep and enduring emotional bond that connects one person to another, across time and space. Sperling and Berman (1994) explain that attachment is a person's exhibited tendency to maintain their level of proximity and contact with significant others, promoting psychological and physical security. Dumas et al. (2008) highlight that attachment is a concept based on the human body's behavioral system, where attachment and its related behaviors are influenced by specific, significant attachment figures, to promote security. Fraley (2019) notes that attachment is a psychological construct that depicts an emotional bond, in which a person seeks proximity to an important figure and uses them as a secure base from which to explore the world, and a safe haven at times of distress. Sagone et al. (2023) describe attachment as an emotional bond that regulates people's cognition, attitude, and ways of behaving. They suggest that through stable attachment and positive attachment-related mental representations, people develop self-esteem, emotional stability, and a favorable perception of themselves and others.

From these explanations, one can infer that the concept of attachment focuses on relationships and bonds between people, which influence psychological and physical safety, shaping a person's cognitions, attitudes and behaviors, self-esteem and emotional stability. These relationships include bonds between parents and children and between adults' i.e. romantic partners.

Harlow (2021) argues that attachment theory offers a useful framework through which mental health professionals can understand how early relationships, either in child-caregiver interaction or romantic relationship, shape an individual's emotional development. Ferraro and Taylor (2021) add that attachment theory provides valuable insights into how individuals will navigate their relationships, social behaviors, and affect regulation in adulthood. In so doing attachment theory proves powerful in addressing relationship difficulties and promoting healthy attachments in clinical intervention settings (Thompson et al., 2022). Granqvist (2020), reviewing the progress in evolutionary science after Bowlby notes that attachment theory has the potential to serve as a much-needed developmental anchor for models of cultural evolution and gene-culture co-evolution. While these valuable strengths and potential contributions suggest that attachment theory would be a sound and useful theoretical framework for understanding IPV, the theory has attracted some critique.

Field (1996) notes two key criticisms to include the argument that attachment theory is based on momentary stressful situations often occurring in infancy and early childhood raising questions about the power and impact of these events over a person's lifespan. Related to this is the argument that attachment injuries tend to be limited to behaviors that occur with the primary attachment figures and not enough emphasis is placed on the roles of other nurturing figures who exist outside of this primary attachment. However, despite these and other critiques (addressed

later in this section) attachment theory has remained an important part of psychological research for more than 50 years (Harlow, 2021, Thompson et al., 2022). The origins of attachment theory and its development over time will now be discussed.

### **3.2.2 Origins of Attachment Theory and Developments in the Field**

Initially, attachment theory centered on the infant's relationship with their primary caregiver / provider / parent (Thompson & colleagues, 2022). British psychologist, John Bowlby has been credited as being the first attachment theorist who described attachment as a lasting emotional bond and psychological connectedness between human beings (Bowlby, 1982). He was interested in understanding the anxiety and distress that infants experience when separated from their primary caregivers. He suggested that infants who maintain proximity to an attachment figure are more likely to receive comfort and protection, and therefore, would more likely survive to adulthood. Consequently, the infant learns that the caregiver is dependable in creating a secure base for the child to explore the world. Bowlby (1969) identified four types of attachment styles: secure, anxious-ambivalent, disorganized, and avoidant, based on his investigation of the relationship between children and their caretakers.

#### ***A. Bowlby's four attachment styles***

Securely attached children learn that others can be trusted, and that affection will be received positively. They are modeled healthy ways of regulating emotion, so they learn how to self-soothe (Bowlby, 1988). With regards to anxious-ambivalent attachment; Bowlby (1988) asserted that the child is modeled inconsistent responses to their emotional needs. In turn, they learn that to maintain proximity and have their needs met; they need to gain attention through emotional outbursts. Furthermore, he described anxious-avoidant attachment as the consistent experience of a caregiver as rejecting or punitive, particularly

to the child's expressions of emotion – both positive and negative. The child learns to not express their feelings and self-soothe to maintain proximity (Bowlby, 1988). Lastly, in the disorganized attachment style, the child is modeled incoherent, push-pull behaviors. They learn that others cannot be trusted to meet their needs and both desire and fear their primary relationships (Keller, 2018).

In the 1970s, a developmental psychologist, Mary Ainsworth, building on Bowlby's work, conducted groundbreaking research, using the strange situation model (Ainsworth & Bell, 1970). Ainsworth studied infants between the ages of 9-18 months to determine the styles of attachment and the nature of attachments displayed between them and their mothers.

Ainsworth identified three attachment styles: *secure (type B)*; *insecure-avoidant (type A)*; and *insecure-ambivalent/resistant (type C)* which developed as a consequence of the Maternal Sensitivity Hypothesis (Ainsworth & Bell, 1970).

### ***B. Ainsworth's three attachment styles***

In securely attached situation, the child displays distress when separated from the mother, but is easily soothed and returns their positive attitude quickly when reunited with the mother. This description aligns with Bowlby's behavioral characteristics of securely attached children. In contrast, the insecure-ambivalent/resistant children displayed intense distress when the mother left but resisted contact with her when reunited. This classification seems compatible with the assertion of Bowlby's anxious-ambivalent attachment, where the child is modeled inconsistent responses to their emotional needs. In turn, they learn that to maintain proximity and have their needs met; they need to gain attention through emotional outbursts. Lastly, insecure-avoidantly attached children displayed no distress when separated from their

mother, as well as no interest in the mother's return (Ainsworth et al., 1978). This seems compatibility with what Bowlby termed disorganized attachment style. The child learns that others cannot be trusted to meet their needs and both desire and fear their primary relationships

These classification systems of Bowlby and Ainsworth are based on sensitivity of mothers when interacting with their infants, and in general, Ainsworth fieldwork validated the theoretical blueprint of Bowlby's attachment theory (Bretherton, 1992). Ainsworth's hypothesis suggested that the sensitivity the caregiver demonstrates towards the child determines the style of attachment that child develops. Sensitive mothers are hypothesized to be more gentle and compassionate to their children's needs, and this sensitivity leads to more secure attachment. In contrast, mothers who lack sensitivity (such as those who consistently demonstrate impatience or disinterest), are hypothesized to create insecure attachment bonds with their children. These insecure bonds could take the form of more avoidant attachment, in situations where the mother is unresponsive towards a child, and the child responds by becoming more independent of her, not seeking help from her in times of distress. In turn, the mother may withdraw from helping the child during difficult tasks, or be unavailable to the child during times of emotional distress. Insecure attachment may also take the form of ambivalent or resistant attachment where the child displays intense distress when the caregiver leaves but resists contact with them when reunited (Bretherton, 1992).

These principles of attachment theory were later applied to other kinds of interpersonal relationships such as adult romantic relationships (Shaver & Hazan, 1988; Weiss, 1991). Shaver and Hazan (1988) noted that the emotional bond that develops between adult romantic partners is partly a function of the same motivational system - the attachment behavioral system - that gives

rise to the emotional bond between infants and their caregivers (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). They explained that both adult romantic partner bonds and infant-caregiver bonds share the following features: 1) both bonds produce a sense of safety when the significant other is nearby and responsive; 2) both bonds engage in close, intimate, bodily contact; 3) both bonds feel less secure when the significant other is inaccessible; 4) both bonds promote the sharing of discoveries, either between romantic partners or between infant and caregiver; 5) both bonds include play with the significant other's facial features and exhibit a mutual fascination and preoccupation with the significant other, and 6) both bonds include engaging in "baby talk" (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Building on these comparisons, Johnson (2019) notes that child and adult attachment bond share developmental similarities too. For instance, both child and adult attachment bonds involve intense emotions, pain and fear at separation, joy at reunion, and anger and sorrow when bonds are threatened or lost. There is longing for contact and comfort when that contact is offered and successful offers result in feelings of confidence, safety, and expansiveness and empathic responses to others. In contrary, loss of connection results in anxiety, anger, and protesting behaviors, eventually followed by depression and feeling of detachment.

Doumas et al. (2008) concur explaining that behavior in an adult relationship is a representation of the primary attachment style that is regulated by one's internal working models of self and others. Consequently, this attachment style determines an individual's response to the real or imagined separation from important attachment figures. When a threat to the attachment relationship is perceived, individuals become alarmed and the resulting anxiety leads to a response to preserve the attachment system. As Bowlby (1973) asserted, when these attachment styles and emotional and behavioral regulations are linked with threats of separation and other

forms of rejection, they will result in anxious and angry behavior responses in the relationship. Bowlby (1988) conceptualized attachment behavior as any form of behavior that results in a person attaining or maintaining proximity to a significant other, who is clearly identified and perceived as better able to cope with the demands of the world. Lyons-Ruth (2008) adds that while attachment styles can be "updated" through adult experiences, these early dyadic attachments with significant caretakers play a disproportionately powerful role in the formation of attachment styles.

Shaver and Hazan (1993) became the pioneers in the study of adult attachment, arguing for the utility of attachment theory in understanding the emotional and interpersonal processes which occur in a person's romantic relationship lifespan. They proposed a categorical model of adult attachment based on the three attachment patterns in childhood which they theorized would develop into three primary, interpersonal styles in adolescence and adulthood namely a) secure; b) ambivalent, and c) avoidant attachment.

### *C. Shaver and Hazan's model of adult attachment*

In Shaver and Hazan's (1993) model, securely attached adults display openness regarding expressing emotions and thoughts with their partner and are comfortable with depending on their partner for help while also being comfortable with their partner depending on them. Cassidy (1994) noted that these secure lovers characterize their most important romantic relationships as happy and trusting. They can support their partner despite the partner's faults. Secure lovers believe that although romantic feelings may wax and wane, romantic love will never fade. Thus, their relationships also tend to last longer (Hazan & Shaver, 1987).

In contrast, ambivalent (anxiously attachment) individuals crave intimacy but remain anxious about whether other romantic partners will meet their emotional needs (Shaver & Hazan, 1993). Cassidy (1994) notes that autonomy and independence can make these individuals feel anxious. Additionally, they may be preoccupied with dependency on their own parents and still actively struggle to please them. They can become distressed when they interpret recognition and value from others as being insincere or failing to meet an appropriate level of responsiveness. As Mikulincer and Shaver (2003) explain, the attachment system of such individuals is prone to hyper-activation during times of stress, emotions can become amplified, and overdependence on others is increased. Thus ambivalent lovers characterize their most important romantic relationships by obsession, desire for reciprocation and union, emotional highs and lows, and extreme sexual attraction and jealousy (Cassidy, 1994).

Lastly, avoidantly attached adults are characterized with a positive self-image and a negative image of others (Shaver & Hazan, 1993). Cassidy (1994) described these avoidantly attached adults as preferring to avoid close relationships and intimacy with others to maintain a sense of independence and invulnerability. Such individuals may struggle with intimacy and value autonomy and self-reliance, and likely be characterized by fear of intimacy, emotional highs and lows, and jealousy (Shaver & Hazan, 1993). They may likely be unsure of their feelings toward their romantic partner, believing that romantic love can rarely last and that it is hard for them to fall in love. Moreover, Mikulincer and Shaver (2003) explain that in avoidantly attached adults, proximity seeking is appraised as unlikely to alleviate distress resulting in deliberate deactivation of the attachment system, inhibition of the quest for support, and commitment to handling distress alone, especially distress arising from the failure of the attachment figure to be available and responsive.

In support of the above position, Sperling and Berman (1994) suggested that since adults tend to maintain their level of proximity and contact with certain attachment figures, the application and study of attachment theory provides a valuable lens in understanding the promotion of psychological and physical security within romantic partner bonds. This work laid the framework of what is known today as adult attachment theory.

#### ***D. A Dimensional Approach***

However, other researchers (for example, Brennan et al., 1998; Fraley et al., 2000; Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994) criticized this categorical model, which included characteristics attributed to the three categories of secure, ambivalent and avoidant attachment for not being consistently generalizable enough across all adult romantic relationships (Fraley et al., 2015). Instead Brennan and colleagues (1998) and Fraley and Waller (1998) proposed a dimensional approach for conceptualizing adult attachment styles along two dimensions or spectrums namely avoidance and anxiety.

Within a dimensional approach, more attachment avoidant styles reflected attempts to deactivate or minimize activation of the attachment system (Edelstein & Shaver, 2004; Fraley et al., 1998). These individuals tended to dislike physical and emotional proximity (intimacy) (Brennan et al., 1998), and suppress displays of emotions to others (Fraley & Shaver, 1997; Gross & John, 2003), rejecting closeness with others when under stress (Gillath et al., 2006). In contrast, people with high levels of attachment anxiety tended to demonstrate a fear of being alone and a preoccupation with intimacy in their relationships, highly vigilant towards attachment figures (Mikulincer et al., 2002) and more easily overwhelmed by interpersonal stressors (Gillath et al., 2005; Mikulincer et al., 1993).

***E. Bartholomew and Horowitz's (1991) Two-Axes Model***

In order to reconcile the categorical model of Shaver and Hazan (1993) and the dimensional model of Brennan and colleagues (1998) and Fraley and Waller (1998), Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) proposed a two axes model that includes the view of self (positive or negative), and the view of others (positive or negative). This model drew from Bartholomew's (1990) earlier work which proposed four adult attachment style prototypes: secure (low in both dimensions); fearful (high in both dimensions); preoccupied (high in anxiety and low in avoidance), and dismissive (low in anxiety and high in avoidance). This four-category model resulted from the combination of extreme positions in the dimensions of attachment anxiety (negative sense of self) and attachment avoidance (negative sense of others) (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). The resultant attachment styles are at the intersection of positive and negative poles. These dimensional measures allow for comparison across different stages of life and relationships (Thompson et al., 2022).

According to Bartholomew and Horowitz's (1993) model, secure attachment involves a relative absence of attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance. Therefore, people with secure attachment have a positive image of themselves and consider themselves worthy of love. They tend to trust others and feel comfortable in relationships. Preoccupied attachment is characterized by high attachment anxiety and low attachment avoidance. These people have low self-esteem but a positive opinion of others. Although they desire intimacy, they do not trust that people will be available and supportive when needed. Dismissing attachment includes low attachment anxiety and high attachment avoidance. Here, people feel most comfortable with little intimacy and do not expect support from others. Finally, fearful attachment involves high attachment

anxiety and high attachment avoidance. These people have a negative opinion of themselves and do not trust others. They feel unworthy of being loved and are afraid of rejection. Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) explain that people with preoccupied and fearful attachment styles experience a high degree of dependency in close relationships, while secure and dismissing styles are linked to low dependency. Moreover, people with dismissing and fearful styles show high avoidance of intimacy, unlike the secure and preoccupied styles.

In support of Bartholomew and Horowitz's (1993) model, Lin et al. (2014) argued that viewing attachment on a continuum, rather than in terms of discrete categories, allowed for broader contextual understanding. Although adult attachment styles help researchers understand what individuals may do when faced with emotional dysregulation, the representation of attachment along a spectrum provides insights into the dynamics of these regulation strategies (Lin et al., 2014). Later work by Lubiewska, and Van de Vijver (2020) based on a sample of 869 parents, 575 adolescents, and 500 grandmothers from the same families in Poland measured the predictive validity of categorical and dimensional approaches to attachment. Their analysis revealed that a dimensional approach is more valid than a categorical approach in testing hypotheses related to the intergenerational transmission of attachment.

While there remains some contestation about the typological or dimensional nature of attachment (Morales-Vives et al., 2021), Read et al. (2018) conclude that secure attachment is characterized by greater interpersonal engagement and positive internalized perceptions of the self. In contrast, insecure attachment is commonly classified under two dimensions: anxious and avoidant. Anxious attachment relates to a fear of abandonment and rejection, yet there is a desire for closeness from significant others (Pietromonaco & Beck, 2019). Conversely, avoidant individuals are characterized by a fear of intimacy and interpersonal distrust, alongside the

expectation that expressions of discomfort or distress will be ignored, resulting in a reliance on self-soothing (Wearden et al., 2003).

Similarly, Granqvist and Duschinsky (2021) note that research focused on variations in attachment are typically described using two dimensions (secured and insecure). Secure attachment is marked by confidence in the attachment figure's availability and is considered a protective factor in socio-emotional development. While insecure attachment is characterized by a lack of confidence in the attachment figure's availability, and is generally an indicator of vulnerability that may likely result in externalizing behavior in human development (Granqvist & Duschinsky, 2021).

### **Application of Attachment Theory Cross-Culturally**

While initial fieldwork in attachment theory was conducted in Uganda by Ainsworth (1967), subsequent attachment theorists and empirical studies have focused overwhelmingly on populations and contexts in North America, Western Europe, and Australia/New Zealand (Agishtein & Brumbaugh, 2013). Important questions have been raised about the transportability and relevance of the concept of attachment in other contexts such as Africa, including Ethiopia (Harlow, 2019).

#### ***A. Attachment as a universal construct***

Bowlby (1969) contended that attachment is a universal human construct, and Van-IJzendoorn and Sagi-Schwartz (2008) note broad agreement in the literature that the attachment-behavior-system is applicable to, and present in all humans, regardless of cultural contexts. There is also evidence that attachment styles differ with age, particularly between young and old

individuals (Chopik et al., 2014). Hudson et al. (2015) suggest that adolescents and young adults may experience more attachment anxiety, while older and middle-aged adults may experience less (after the development of enduring, intimate relationships). Chopik et al. (2013) argues that a higher level of attachment avoidance might accompany changes in young adulthood. With respect to adult romantic relationships and attachment styles, Schmitt et al. (2004) using sampling of 17,804 individuals (7,432 men and 10,372 women) representing 62 cultural regions from around the world reported that secure romantic attachment was normative in 79% of cultures globally. However, they noted that the romantic attachment profiles of individual nations correlated with sociocultural indicators supporting the evolutionary theories of romantic attachment and basic human mating strategies. In support of this finding, Bretaña et al. (2019) found that women from collectivistic cultures (where the interest of the group prevails over the interest of the individual), such as Turkey and Israel, demonstrated higher levels of avoidant attachment than women from more individualistic cultures (where the interests of the individual prevailed over the interests of the group). These studies suggest that there is a universal experience of attachment but that it is influenced by socio-cultural and contextual factors.

To this point, Agishtein and Brumbaugh (2013) cite a large body of evidence demonstrating the variations in the specific attachment style distributions in different cultures and across countries. They include a comparison of attachment styles between European-Americans, African-Americans, Hispanic-Americans and Korean-Americans, demonstrating high variability across these different cultural groups. Consistent with this assertion, and from an evolutionary perspective, Keller (2013) suggests that contextual variability is crucial to meeting the purpose of adaptation, and attachment responses may be adaptive in many contexts. Thus, the presence of variations of attachment styles across cultures is a normal happenstance (Simpson

and Belsky, 2008). However, Posada and colleagues (2002) compared attachment behaviors and mother-child interactions in the US and Colombia, South America. They found significant differences in several domains of mother-infant interactions and inferred that there is strong support for the notion that child-rearing norms affecting attachment formation are defined by culture. Similarly, comparing child-rearing practices of mothers in Costa Rica, South America and the US, Leyendecker et al. (1997) found that attachment formation varies as a function of culture, as well as context.

### ***B. Attachment as culturally and contextually defined***

With regard to influence of culture on universality of attachment, Otto and Keller (2014), claimed that there are increasing interdisciplinary research across cultures that cast doubt on universal applicability of attachment theory in its present form, without, however, denying that the development of attachment is a universal need. Otto and Keller (2017) has introduced the cultural models of autonomy and relatedness as a conceptual framework to explain different belief and meaning systems shared by different cultural groups. They investigated the Cameroonian Nso parental beliefs, their parenting practices, and their children's formation of attachment relationships. Their data reveals that the Cameroonian Nso have a strong orientation toward hierarchical relatedness: Nso parents value obedience, respect, and the development of social responsibility in children; communal caregiving fosters the integration of Nso infants into the wider social community, and infants spend a lot of time with multiple caregivers; moreover, they are actively trained not to cry or show negative emotional responses. As a result, children develop multiple attachment relationships, often with other caregivers beside their mothers. When separated from the mother and confronted with a stranger, the majority of Nso children do not express distress, but remain calm. These findings are in clear contrast to middle-class

families and their orientation toward psychological autonomy in their socialization goals, caregiving strategies, and resulting attachment patterns. Moreover, these results question the usefulness of psychological research and applied therapeutic work for non-Western communities, as most studies and programs are informed by and tailored to the needs of middle-class families and their ideal of instilling autonomy in children (Otto & Keller, 2017).

Other study carried out by Schuitmaker (2013) that compared the early social experiences of three month old infants in South Africa among 25 mothers living in the greater Stellenbosch area and 29 mothers living in Khayelitsha using a socio-demographic questionnaire, spot observation videos, a picture card interview, and a socialization goals questionnaire has found that the Khayelitsha sample favored a multiple caregiving arrangement, the proximal parenting style, and emphasized the importance of relational socialization goals. The greater Stellenbosch sample favored an exclusive caregiving arrangement and emphasized the importance of autonomous socialization goals. Contrary to the expectations, the greater Stellenbosch sample also favored the proximal parenting style. The data demonstrates that cultural differences influence parenting practices and strategies. The data reported in this study challenge attachment theory's universalism and provide an exploratory analysis of the different cultural conceptions regarding adaptive and non-adaptive attachment qualities. Further research using the same methodology needs to be conducted in South Africa and other African settings.

In another study by Tomlinson et al. (2005) that was conducted on a sample of 147 mother-infant dyads that was recruited from a peri-urban settlement outside Cape Town and seen at 2- and 18-months postpartum. They found that at 18 months, 61.9% of the infants were rated as securely attached (B); 4.1% as avoidant (A); 8.2% as resistant (C); and 25.8% disorganized (D). Furthermore, they found that indices of poor parenting at both 2 and 18 months were associated with insecure infant

attachment. The critical 2-month predictor variables for insecure infant attachment were maternal intrusiveness and maternal remoteness, and early maternal depression. When concurrent maternal sensitivity was considered, the quality of the early mother-infant relationship remained important, but maternal depression was no longer predictive.

These studies show that culture can exert a powerful influence on both child-rearing practices and on the way in which these practices are interpreted by the child. These studies also imply that attachment security is situation-dependent and that changes in life experiences can cause fluctuation in attachment security, which in turn contributes to variations of attachment. This argument suggests that context impacts secure attachment far more than an individual's dispositional attachment style, questioning the validity of the concept of attachment as a universal occurrence (Agishtein & Brumbaugh, 2013). The current study provides a valuable opportunity to consider the relevance of the construct of attachment in an Ethiopian context.

### ***C. An Integrated approach***

Mesman et al. (2016) advocated for a more balanced position between universal trends and contextual determinants. They argue that attachment theory without the contextual component is as difficult to conceive of, as attachment theory without a universalistic perspective. Granqvist (2020) add that the concept of attachment may be viewed as a powerful vehicle for transmitting cultural practices across generations, and how these practices change and develop over time. While more secure attachment could promote cultural transmission, psychological biases will also shape the particular cultural practices that are passed down. For purposes of this thesis, Mesman and colleague's (2016) position of a balanced approach to viewing the concept of attachment and the development of attachment as a universal need but influenced by culturally and contextually-specific factors will be used.

From this position, it makes sense to draw from Brennan and colleagues' (1998) dimensional approach to measuring attachment, with more insecure attachment depicted along anxious and avoidant dimensions, as this conceptualization has demonstrated more consistent application across different cultural contexts (Lin et al., 2014; Lubiewska & Van de Vijver, 2020).

### **3.3 THE LINK BETWEEN ATTACHMENT STYLES AND IPV**

There appears to be broad consensus on the utility of attachment theory in understanding IPV (for example: Mahalik et al., 2005; Mayseless, 1991; McClellan & Killeen, 2000) and Santambrogio and colleagues (2019) note though that studies highlight the multidimensional nature of the IPV constructs, with aggression as one of the core elements.

Doumas et al. (2008) explain that when viewed as a behavior in adult relationships that is representative of the primary attachment relationship, IPV is regulated by a person's internal working model of self and others. The person's secure/insecure attachment style determines their responses to real or imagined separation from an important attachment figure. When a threat to the attachment relationship is perceived, the person becomes alarmed and the resulting anxiety leads to responses designed to preserve the attachment system. Difficulties in regulating negative emotional states here are a central component in explaining IPV, where individuals with attachment difficulties are at increased risk of experiencing IPV (Doumas et al., 2008; Kuijpers et al., 2012).

Mikulincer and Shaver (2007) assert that attachment dimensions (anxious/avoidant attachment) have contributed to the knowledge of mechanisms that come into play in the formation, functioning, and evolution of couple relationships, as well as in the explanation of

violent behaviors. These dimensions have the capacity to predict high levels of different violent behaviors, such as physical, psychological and sexual abuses (Brodie et al., 2019; McDermott et al., 2017). In line with this assertion, Mikulincer et al. (2003) and Stevens (2014) have demonstrated that insecure attachment and IPV have a unique link by impacting an individual's ability to identify, process, regulate, and cope with emotions. Thus, an individual's inability or struggle to regulate their emotions puts them at a higher risk of being impulsively aggressive and violent (Davidson et al., 2000). For example Creasey (2002) and Godbout et al. (2009) have shown that children who experienced rejection and anxiety during their early childhood, experience more emotional dysregulation in later life, and greater likelihood of violent behaviour in adulthood.

Smeltzer (2009) argues that when an initial attachment relationship is disturbed in some way, either through neglect, abuse, or persistent mis-attunement, the individual will continue to seek out similar dynamics in future relationships. Their capacity to tolerate intense emotions is compromised by this attachment history and injury, and could potentially leave the individual with poor impulse control. Accordingly such an individual may be prone to a violent episode which may be precipitated by a real or imagined threat of abandonment or rejection by the attachment figure.

Pistole (1994) however suggests that perpetrators of IPV may use conflict in a relationship as an attempt to manage an internal conflict created by opposing needs for closeness or distance in the relationship. Dumas et al. (2008) explain that an individual with high levels of attachment anxiety may respond to attachment-related cues with proximity-seeking behavior, while an individual with high levels of attachment avoidance may respond with distance-seeking behaviors. This implies that individuals in a couple who struggle with a discrepancy between

preferred levels of closeness or distance may be more prone to this escalation in violent behavior. Doumas et al. (2008) note that when couples are “mis-paired” in their attachment styles, such as having a male partner with avoidant attachment and a female partner with anxious attachment, there is likely to be an increase in IPV perpetration by both partners.

Karakurt et al. (2013) agree explaining that high levels of anxiety and/or avoidance are considered indicators of insecure attachment, which predicts numerous difficulties in intimate relationships. Lawson and Brossart (2013) note that in abusive relationships people with high avoidance tend to deactivate the attachment system, facilitating emotional distance in their relationships. Edelstein and Gillath (2008) concur, explaining that avoidant individuals are uncomfortable with closeness and intimacy and rely on a variety of defensive strategies to limit the experience and expression of emotion. Avoidant individuals are thought to inhibit attention to attachment-related information (Fraley et al., 1998), although experimental evidence for such attention restrictions is limited. Hence, IPV perpetrators with this style of attachment are more likely to use violence to maintain emotional distance, and as a way of exerting control or revenge. For example Mayseless (1991) theorized that when an individual has an avoidant attachment style, they may perpetrate IPV as a means to deter their partner from getting too close to them emotionally whereas more anxiously attached individuals may perpetrate IPV as a way to “pull” their partner back into the relationship, if they believe their partner is distancing themselves.

IPV perpetrators who are highly anxious often feel unworthy of being loved and experience a strong fear of abandonment. In this case, the relationship between insecure attachment and IPV seems to be better explained by separation anxiety and partner distrust (Buck, 2012). Among adults with high attachment anxiety, fearful attachment aggressors are

those who may have been the recipients of abuse and rejection in their childhood attachments and have shown a greater propensity to respond, by assaulting their partner when experiencing abandonment, if their partner is not available (Dutton, 1995; Dutton et al., 1994).

In support of this position, researchers argue that attachment security is influenced by a behavior system, which is based on balancing proximity seeking (closeness) and exploring (being), evident through creating distance and independence from significant others. Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) note that attachment is an internal belief of the cognitive process that one is worthy of love. Experiences within significant relationships demonstrate and reinforce secure attachment; where significant others are consistently responsive to emotional needs and signals of distress. In these repeated examples a person builds trust in others and is more able to commit to others, feels less fear in relationships and experiences less threatening appraisals of events that could challenge the security of these relationships. These consistent positive experiences activate proximity seeking, comfort with closeness, open communication, and vulnerability. Posada (2013) explains that secure attachment leads to better emotional regulation that serves as a base for an individual's wellbeing. Mikulincer and Shaver (2007) add that safeguarding secure attachment in a romantic relationship fosters normative development that is carried into adulthood through internal working models. These internal working models comprise a cognitive set of beliefs about oneself, others, and the world that provide information about how to manage (di)stress in the relationship with significant others. Krakauer (2014) adds that these models represent expectations about how needs are responded to by others, in a relationship context.

Thus, an individual with high levels of attachment anxiety might respond to attachment-related cues with proximity-seeking behavior, while an individual with high levels of attachment

avoidance might respond with distance-seeking behavior (Doumas et al., 2008). Complementary to this assertion, Mikulincer and Shaver (2007) suggest that attachment styles are based on internal working memories in key romantic relationships that are usually conceptualized as either insecure or secure in their nature, with more insecure styles possibly leading to IPV behavior. Sandberg et al. (2019) concluded that attachment theory provides an explanation for how partners can perpetrate violence against someone with whom they wish to be intimate; this helps explain how patterns of anxious pursuit and avoidant withdrawal can escalate.

### **3.4 ATTACHMENT THEORY AS A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

Creswell and Creswell (2018) explain that a theoretical framework is a theoretical structure that provides a framework for understanding a particular phenomenon or problem. Bryman (2012) adds that the theoretical framework describes the main constructs/variables, their relationship to one another, and the influence of one concept over another. Several driving factors play a significant role in selecting attachment theory as the theoretical framework for this study.

In the first instance, attachment theory is a well-established inclusive theory of personality and social development (Simpson et al., 2021) that has generated much interest and research over the past 7 decades, and has the potential to be flexibly applied across the lifespan. Second, attachment theory provides a valuable framework for understanding emotional intensity, and behavioral and physiological self-regulation in adult romantic relationships (Steel & Steel, 2021), as well as various psychological and psychosocial factors associated with IPV (Mahalik et al., 2005). It therefore provides a frame for understanding how intimacy and violence can co-occur in intimate, adult relationships. This is because attachment theory helps to understand the

nature of close interpersonal relationships, operationalized as different ‘styles’ or working models that influence peoples’ behaviors (Ravitz et al., 2010), which can be applied to better understand IPV.

Third, while much of the literature to date, has explored attachment theory, particularly adult attachment, in North American and European settings which are culturally and contextually specific (Harlow, 2019), the concept of attachment demonstrates cultural transportability. Attachment principles can therefore be applied in new settings and cultures to explore their value. Fourth, intervention mechanisms to prevent, mitigate or intervene against IPV are not based on validated and evidence-based findings in LMIC, including Ethiopia (Starmann et al., 2017), despite the high prevalence of IPV among African women (Conroy, 2014; Mann & Takyi, 2009). Therefore, using an attachment theory frame in this thesis, and applying it to understand the occurrence of IPV in LMICs, such as Ethiopia, makes a valuable contribution to the current literature (WHO, 2021).

## SUMMARY

In summary, this chapter has presented the reader with an overview of the broad range of theoretical positions that currently explain elements of IPV, specifically the sociological, biological and psychological perspectives, their key assumptions, examples of their application to IPV, and some empirical evidence generated from their theoretical positions. Attachment theory was introduced as a less prominent yet highly valuable theoretical framework for understanding IPV. The chapter defined attachment theory, outlined its development over time, particularly the theory of adult attachment, and its application across cultural contexts. The chapter ended with a review of the literature linking attachment and IPV, concluding that attachment theory provides a valuable theoretical lens for explaining how intimacy and violence can co-occur in adult romantic relationships. Using an attachment theory frame in this thesis, and applying it to understand the occurrence of IPV in LMICs, such as Ethiopia, addresses an important gap in the current literature.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### 1. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

#### INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 of this thesis provided a working definition of IPV, discussed its prevalence, identified reported predictors, and showed from the literature reviewed that attachment styles, relationship satisfaction, and conflict resolution strategies as possible relational predictors of IPV. Chapter 3 reviewed the dominant sociological, biological and psychological theories for understanding IPV in the literature, and then argued for the utility of adult attachment theory as a versatile framework for understanding IPV in this current study. Chapter 4 now outlines the research design and methodology applied in this study to answer the research question: *What are the relational predictors of IPV in an Ethiopian sample?* This chapter includes a discussion of the research design, the study site, the population and sampling strategy used, the instruments used for data-collection, the validity and reliability of the instruments, the method of data-analysis and the ethical considerations adhered to throughout the study.

#### 4.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design is the overall strategy and set of steps taken to collect and analyze research data (Jenkins-Smith, et al., 2017). Creswell (2014) explains that it is the overall plan for connecting the conceptual research problems to the pertinent and achievable empirical research. It provides a succinct and logical plan to tackle established research question(s) through the collection, interpretation, analysis, and discussion of research data (Claybaugh, 2020). In its broader sense, Creswell (2008, 2012) states that research design is a plan that addresses broad topics, such as scientific philosophy, inquiries and methodology of data collection. Similarly,

Mitchell and Jolley (2012) explain that research design constitutes wider concepts, such as generating hypotheses, reviewing the literature, operationalizing variables, using different methods to describe the data, survey research, and the validation and experimentation procedures in research.

In its narrower description, research design is associated with how measurement should be structured, so that the researcher can make valid inferences for its intended outcomes (Garson, 2013). This study is based on this second assumption of a narrowed model, with a focus on a quantitative research design. As scholars (Berrios & Lucca, 2006; Bryman, 2012) have stressed, quantitative research emphasizes quantification in the collection and analysis of data, and has the capacity to objectively measure variables, manage large sample sizes, and predict relationships amongst variables. This PhD study draws from a cross-sectional design using a structured questionnaire to collect self-report data. Cross-sectional study is a design that examines data on various variables gathered at a single time point within a sample population or predefined subgroup, offering a depiction of the population's characteristics (Wang & Cheng, 2020). This design is selected due to its suitability to collect data from participants at a specified point in time and enable the researchers to study the association between variables.

#### **4.1.1 Research Question**

This study employed quantitative methods in order to answer the following research question: *What are the relational predictors of IPV in an Ethiopian sample?*

Moreover, this study tested the following hypotheses:

1. Increased endorsements of anxious or avoidant attachment styles will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.
2. More frequent use of demand and withdrawal conflict resolution strategies will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.
3. Lower relationship satisfaction will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.

These hypotheses are demonstrated in the following model

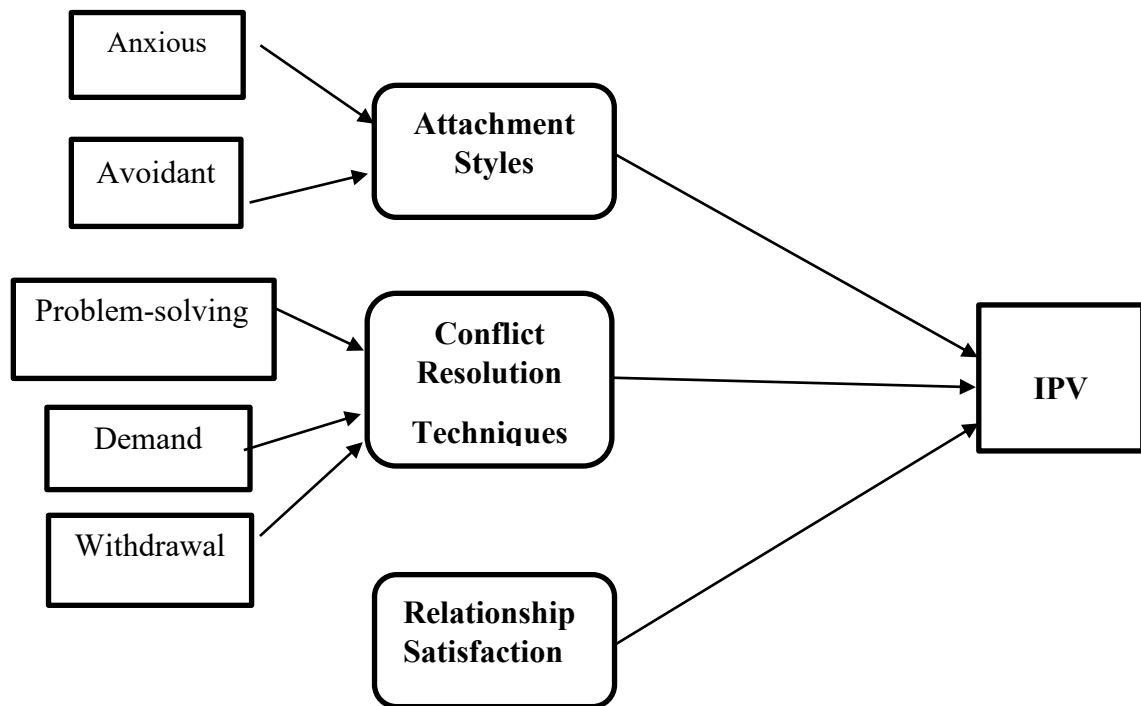


Figure 1.1: Model depicting the paths of prediction

#### **4.1.2 Research Site**

Hawassa City, situated in the Sidama region of Ethiopia, is recognized by local Ethiopians as both a tourist destination and a weekend retreat (Gemed, 2021). Positioned approximately 273 kilometers to the south of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia's southern capital, it rests along the Trans-African Highway linking Cairo and Cape Town. Derived from a Sidama language term signifying "wide body of water", the city was established on June 18, 2020, following a referendum in which 98.52% of voters' favored increased autonomy, resulting in its formation from the Southern Nations, Nationalities, and Peoples' Region (SNNPR) and the transformation of the Sidama Zone (Maya, 2021).

As the capital of the Sidama National Regional State, Hawassa City spans an area of 157.2 square kilometers and is partitioned into eight sub-cities, boasting an estimated populace of 387,087 individuals. Of this population, 199,209 (51.5%) are male, while 187,878 (48.5%) are female (Gemed, 2021). It stands as the largest and most developed metropolitan area within the region, housing prominent institutions such as Hawassa University, among a leading research university in the country, along with essential infrastructural amenities like an airport, postal services, and utilities.

However, despite its appeal and infrastructure, research indicates a concerning prevalence of Sexual Violence against Women and Girls (SVAWG) within the city and limited research addressing some of the underlying relational predictors of this IPV which could be used to inform violence prevention and intervention programmes.

#### **4.1.3 Study Population**

As has been established in Chapter 2, IPV transcends geographical, cultural, religious, and socioeconomic boundaries, affecting individuals across various intimate relationships,

including dating relationships. While available studies seem to suggest that IPV disproportionately impacts women and minorities, less data is available that speaks to how Ethiopian men are impacted by IPV (Young-Wolff et al., 2016). To fill this gap, this study identified both male and female teachers (primary and secondary schools) working at public local schools; university academics and lecturers employed at Hawassa University; and first-year Hawassa University students, in the Sidama regional state as participants in this study. Moreover, participants are in a romantic relationship for at least six months in their life time.

Ethiopian teachers are registered on a state registry that was used to recruit participants and allow for easy engagement for data collection purposes. There are 2776 primary teachers (1868 teachers from 29 schools), and secondary school teachers (908 teachers from 14 schools) operating in local Hawassa public schools (Hawassa City Education Department [hereafter HCED], 2023/24). Research reminds us that teachers shoulder significant work and family responsibilities, with societal, national, and familial obligations (French et al., 2018; Makau, 2012). Balancing these demands can be challenging, potentially leading to conflicts between work and family domains and subsequently affecting job and family satisfaction (Sorensen et al., 2017). Moreover, teachers occupy multifaceted roles as educators, parents, and partners, necessitating effective conflict management skills (Ziad & Mohammad, 2015). Teachers (primary and secondary schools) as a sample in this research study, prove to be an easily accessible group who engage daily with the relational predictors under investigation in this study. University academics and lecturers manage many of the same responsibilities and multifaceted roles as local teachers. They too proved an accessible group to examine the relational predictors under investigation in this study.

In terms of university students, studies show that adolescent and young-adult romantic relationships contribute to the establishment of adult romantic relationships, highlighting their significance in later life stages (Meier & Allen, 2009). Successfully navigating these relationships during adolescence and young adulthood can influence mental and physical well-being in adulthood (Arnett et al., 2014; Mercedes et al., 2019). Failure to nurture and manage these early romantic relationships may lead to abuse, as evidenced by findings indicating high rates of emotional IPV among adolescent daters (Kistin et al., 2019).

#### **4.1.4 Sampling and Recruitment Strategy**

Memon and colleagues (2020) explain that determining an appropriate sample size is vital in drawing realistic conclusions from research findings. Though there is no one-size-fits-all solution to address the issue of sample size in research, this study considered two approaches: recommendation of previous researchers in the area and carrying out a power analysis to determine sample size. Bretaña and colleagues (2019) drew from a sample of 300 participants in their cross-cultural study using similar methods and instruments. Their study was used to guide the sample size for this current study.

In addition, a power analysis was used to determine the required minimum sample size specific to this study model setup. Power analyses help to determine the sample size required in order for the researcher to be confident in revealing an effect, help to make informed decisions and avoid post-data collection problems (Uttley, 2019). Hair et al. (2014) explain that such a power analysis determines the minimum sample size by taking into account the part of a model with the largest number of predictors. The procedure of sample size determination and validation is computed using information related to power, effect size, and significance level (Hair et al., 2018). In line with this assertion, in this study a priori estimation of minimum sample size was

employed using G\*Power software (latest ver. 3.1.9.7; Heinrich-Heine-Universität Düsseldorf, Düsseldorf, Germany), as suggested by Kang (2021).

The general guideline for effect size value suggested by Cohen (1988) has been used here, whereby 0.02 indicates a small effect, 0.15 a medium effect, and 0.35 a large effect. The study used a 0.80 power estimation in order to detect a medium effect size (0.15), at a 0.05 (5%) level of significance ( $\alpha$ ) to evaluate the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis using 14 independent predictors in a regression analysis. Accordingly, the minimum sample size needed was 135. Thus, a sample size of 300 was deemed large enough to carry sufficient power for the logistic regression analysis used to identify relational predictors of violence in the study. The sample was also of an appropriate size to establish the psychometric properties of the instruments used in the study (to ensure their reliability and validity). Hawassa University and the schools close proximity to Hawassa University were selected for convenience and ease of access. This strategy is not ideal for this design and the statistical analysis applied. Though the design is a non-probability strategy and has limited generalizability, statistical techniques like the Hosmer-Lemeshow test are used to mitigate this limitation. Furthermore, MacNealy (1999) explains that convenience sampling enables researchers' to utilize a sample which is readily available and who they have access to. Consequently, two primary schools two secondary schools and Hawassa University staff and students were approached for participation.

Among the 6 colleges at Hawassa University, one college was easily accessible to the researcher and also held a higher proportion of female staff compared to other colleges. For these reasons, individuals from this college were specifically invited to participate in the study. First-year students enrolled in the natural science program within the natural and computational science faculty were also included, as the researcher teaches courses for this cohort during the

second semester. As mentioned above under study population section, the invited participants are those who have been in romantic relationship for at least six months in their life time, because, the IPV assessment tool (Composite Abuse Scale (Revised) Short Form [hereafter cited as CASR-SF]) requires a minimum of six months' relationship experience. Participants were informed of this requirement and recruited accordingly (Ford-Gilboe et al., 2016).

#### **4.1.5 Data Collection Instruments**

The survey questionnaire used in this study included a total of 75 questionnaire items made up of four psychological tools. The tools used Likert scales and rating scales as response formats. An additional 14 items were developed to collect data about the socio-demographic status of participants. Among the psychological tools, 36 items intended to assess attachment dimensions (18 items for anxious attachment styles and 18 items for avoidant attachment). Conflict resolution strategies were assessed using 16 items across three domains (demand, withdrawal and problem-solving strategies), and 7 items were used to assess relationship satisfaction among participants of the study. All these scales drew from likert scale responses. Lastly, 16 rating-type items were used to collect data about the experiences of IPV among the respondents across three domains: physical, sexual and emotional. Further information pertaining to each scale is presented below:

##### ***A) Demographic information***

The first section (questions 1 to 14) of the survey included questions pertaining to participants' socio-demographic variables: gender, age, highest level of education, marital status, number of children in the family, duration of current relationship, and socio-economic status. As has been argued in Chapter 2, section 3, many of these are well-established socio-demographic predictors of IPV but have not been investigated amongst Hawassa communities.

***B) Adult Attachment Styles: The Experiences of Close Relationships scale (ECR)***

Part Two of the survey featured the Experiences in Close Relationships (ECR) scale developed by Brennan et al. (1998). The scale measures attachment styles across two dimensions of anxious and avoidant attachment, aligning with the consensus in the literature that these broad dimensions show the most consistent empirical evidence for measuring adult attachment across contexts and cultures.

The ECR is renowned for its high internal consistency (Vogel et al., 2005) and widespread use in assessing adult attachment in intimate romantic relationships over time (Alonso-Arbiol et al., 2007). The scale includes 36 items, of which, 18 items measure anxious attachment and the other 18 measure avoidant attachment. Attachment anxiety involves an excessive need for approval from others, fear of interpersonal rejection or abandonment, and distress when one's partner is unavailable or unresponsive. Examples of questionnaire items in the anxious dimension include: "I worry about being rejected or abandoned" and "I worry a lot about my relationships". High scores in this dimension represent higher levels of anxiety relating to intimacy, and a higher desire for excessive closeness with romantic partners (Bretaña et al., 2022). Attachment avoidance, on the other hand, involves the need for self-reliance and fear of interpersonal closeness. Examples of items that measure avoidance in the avoidance dimension include: "I prefer not to be too close to my relationship partner" and "I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on my partner". High scores in this dimension represent higher levels of avoidance of intimacy, a higher display of withdrawal and emotional distance (Bretaña et al., 2019).

Items are scored on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not true) to 7 (very much true) that range from 1 to 7. The participants responded to each item by selecting one of the seven

options. The total score for each dimension is calculated for the 18 items in each dimension to provide a total score for anxious attachment and a total score for avoidant attachment. Some items are reverse-scored. These include item 22 for the anxious attachment dimension and items 3, 15, 19, 25, 27, 29, 31, 33, and 35 for the avoidant attachment dimension. As the quality of interpersonal relationships seems to be an important determinant of psychosocial development, a reliable and practical assessment of attachment is important (Alonso-Arbiol et al., 2007). In line with this assertion, Mikulincer et al., (2003) have suggested that one of the valuable features of the ECR is its high internal consistency within the anxiety and avoidance subscales, with Cronbach's alpha coefficients of 0.91 and 0.94, respectively. Similarly, other authors agree that the ECR is perhaps the most frequently used questionnaire for the assessment of adult attachment in intimate relationships over time due to its excellent psychometric qualities (Fraley, et al., 2000; Lopez & Gormley, 2002; Olsson et al., 2010; Vogel & Wei, 2005).

In its adapted and translated language versions the tool has also demonstrated good internal consistency across both sexes. For instance, Olsson et al. (2010) used a Norwegian version, among a randomly selected community sample of 437 participants to investigate the psychometric properties of the 36-item version and found that the tool demonstrated good transportability with acceptable psychometric properties comparable with the properties reported by other translations. Similarly, Sumer and Yetkili (2018) used a Turkish translation of ECR and found good internal consistency across women and men, with Cronbach's alpha scores between 0.83-0.88 respectively. Moreover in their cross-cultural study, Bretaña et al. (2021) demonstrated good transportability of the measure in Spain, Turkey and Israel where it was translated and adapted for use, as well as in the United States in its original English language version. These

findings suggest that the ECR has good transportability and is likely to perform well in other contexts, like Ethiopia.

### ***C) Conflict Resolution Styles: the Conflict Inventory (CI-R)***

Part Three of the survey focused on the Conflict Inventory (CI-R) scale developed by Ridley et al. (2001). This measure is a 16-item scale and evaluates three conflict resolution strategies: problem solving, demanding and withdrawal. The problem-solving strategy items are item numbers 1, 4, 7, 11 and 14 that emphasize negotiation and compromising during conflict (e.g., focusing on the problem at hand) in intimate romantic relationship. The demanding strategy includes item numbers 2, 6, 9, 12 and 15 which describe behaviors such as attacking, criticizing, and losing self-control (e.g., exploding and feeling a loss of emotional control). The withdrawal strategy includes item numbers 3, 5, 8, 10, 13 and 16 that assess employment of avoidance strategies instead of discussing the problem (e.g., remaining silent for long periods of time). Respondents rate the use of these 16 responses to conflict on a 7-point likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (always) (Bretaña et al., 2019; Ridley et al., 2001). The total score for each domain is calculated for the specific items in these domains to provide a total score for problem-solving, demand and withdrawal strategies. None of the items are reverse scored. Higher scores represent higher use of those conflict resolution strategies (Bretaña et al., 2022).

The CI-R was originally evaluated on 173 married couples (346) in Southwest city in the USA aged between 30-60 years; and demonstrated good psychometric properties (Ridley et al., 2001). Alpha reliabilities were within the acceptable range for husbands and wives for the subscales. Accordingly, Margolin et al. (1996) has found alpha reliability of 0.62, 0.66, and 0.67 for problem solving, demanding and withdrawal subscales respectively for husbands. They also

found alpha reliabilities of 0.64, 0.67 and 0.63 for problem solving, demanding and withdrawal subscales respectively for wives (Margolin et al., 1996).

The CI-R has demonstrated good transportability in cross-cultural studies (for example Bretaña et al., 2021). In their analysis, Bretaña et al. (2019) found acceptable internal reliability (from moderate to high) for all the subscales of CI-R in their multicultural studies both for the translated versions and the original English version. Cronbach's alphas for all the subscales of CI-R ranged between 0.52 – 0.70 for Israel; 0.58 - 0.64 for USA; 0.58 - 0.89 for Turkey; and 0.51 - 0.66 for Spain.

***D) Relationship Satisfaction: Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS)***

Part Four of the survey assessed relationship satisfaction using the Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS) developed by Hendrick (1988). The RAS is a 7-item scale that requires respondents to rate each item on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (low satisfaction) to 5 (high satisfaction). It assesses the general satisfaction of the relationship as perceived by the partner answering the scale. Items include: “My partner meets my needs” and “My relationship is good compared to most” (Hendrick et al., 1998). The total score is calculated for all items. Items 4 and 7 are reverse-scored. Higher scores are indicative of higher relationship satisfaction levels. (Bretaña et al., 2022).

When originally validated on a sample of 125 university students in the USA who reported themselves to be "in love", the RAS demonstrated high internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha = 0.828). All inter-item correlations and item-total correlations were acceptable (Hendrick et al., 1988). Accordingly, it has the inter-item correlations ranged from  $r = 0.28$  to  $r = 0.74$  with a mean correlation of (hereafter  $r_M$ ) = 0.56 and the item-total correlations (hereafter  $r_{it}$ ) varied between ( $r_{it}$ ) = 0.50 and  $r_{it} = 0.80$ .

The RAS exhibited conceptually consistent correlations with additional relationship measures, including the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) (Hendrick et al., 1988). The measure was also an effective discriminator of couples who stayed together versus those who split apart, and its predictive ability indicates that it could be useful in targeting couples "at risk" for relationship breakup (Vaughn & Baier, 1999).

Cross-cultural studies, for example an Iranian study conducted by Maroufizadeh et al. (2018) found high internal consistency for the RAS (Cronbach's  $\alpha = 0.828$ ) and acceptable inter-item correlations and item-total correlations. Likewise, the German (Dinkel & Balck, 2005) and Spanish (Bretaña et al., 2019) translations of the tool suggest good transportability across contexts and languages.

***E) IPV: Composite Abuse Scale (Revised) Short Form (CASR-SF)***

The final section of the survey instrument relevant for this PhD study featured the Composite Abuse Scale (Revised) Short Form (CASR-SF) developed by Ford-Gilboe et al. (2016) to measure IPV. Unlike many commonly used IPV instruments, the CASR-SF is a multidimensional measure that is appropriate for diverse groups and contexts that can be easily incorporated in population-based surveys or studies with multiple scales (Garrido et al., 2022). The measure asks respondents about different acts of violence (physical, psychological and/or sexual) experienced in the last 12 months by the current or previous partners to estimate the level or intensity of violence in the relationship. Total severity of IPV scores are computed using responses to questions that ask about the frequency of each item occurring in the past 12 months (ranging from 'not at all in the past 12 months' to 'daily/almost daily') (Ford-Gilboe et al, 2016).

The CASR-SF is a 16-item reduced version of the longer 30-item of Composite of Abuse Scale (CAS), but the shorter version has reduced respondent burden, and saves administration

and scoring time (Ford-Gilboe et al., 2016). Scale items have been adapted to address different forms of abuse (i.e., use of threats, financial abuse, choking) and the use of new technologies for harassment, making the CAS-SF capable of producing high-quality data about IPV consistent with current thinking in the field (Ford-Gilboe et al., 2016). According to Ford-Gilboe et al (2016) the measure demonstrates high internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha = 0.94) with high factor loadings on each of the domains (ranging from 0.81 to 0.91 for Psychological Abuse items; 0.63 to 0.92 for the Physical Abuse items; and 0.85 to 0.93 for the Sexual Abuse items).

Ford-Gilboe et al (2016) have recommended further validation of the 16-item scale with diverse samples in different contexts, like Ethiopia. So far, the scale has been translated into eight languages with excellent psychometric qualities, suggesting good transportability of the tool across various contexts and populations (Ford-Gilboe et al., 2016). For instance, the scale has been adapted for use in Arabic (Sandrella et al., 2021) and Spanish (Garrido et al., 2023).

#### **4.1.6 Data Collection Procedures**

A cross-sectional survey design was used in this study. This strategy was chosen because it helps to collect data to make inferences about a population of interest at one point in time (Setia, 2016). Furthermore, Creswell (2014) explained that cross-sectional research design analyzes data either from a population or from a representative sample that are collected at a specified point in time and enable the researchers to study the association between variables and may also be used to calculate the odd ratios (ORs). These imply that a cross-sectional study enables researchers to collect data from many respondents at a single point in time and is a useful design for understanding the current status of a phenomenon or to identify associations between variables without inferring causal relationships (Wang & Cheng, 2020).

In line with the principle of cross-sectional design, data was collected from the respondents at a time in their respective working settings using questionnaires. This data collection process followed after facilitative workshops with potential participants where the study was explained. Accordingly, conducive timing and appropriate space was sought to gather data at the respective institutions in collaboration with the school principals.

This study utilized translated versions of a survey questionnaire used by Bretaña and colleagues (2019) in their study, with the addition of a measure of IPV. Creswell and Creswell (2018) explained that a survey is a research method involving the use of standardized questionnaires or interviews to collect data about people and their preferences, thoughts, and behaviors in a systematic manner. IPV is a personal experience and sensitive issue that may not be disclosed due to fear of its adverse consequences (Leemis et al., 2022). Questionnaire surveys are preferred in this study because they are unobtrusive and allow respondents to answer questions at their convenience (Salant & Dillman, 1994). This survey questionnaire is attached as appendices in its English and Amharic language versions, where the psychometric tools it was made up of are identified as independent appendices (Appendix H-L).

To ensure cross-cultural adaptation and cultural relevance, the WHO recommends adhering to a systematic tool translation and adaptation procedure (Sartorius & Janca, 1996). Accordingly, all data collection tools underwent translation into Amharic (cf. Appendix M-Q) in accordance with WHO guidelines, which necessitate forward translation, backward translation, committee discussions, qualitative piloting using cognitive interviews (CI), and quantitative piloting (Campbell & Young, 2016). Following these steps, the final Amharic version of the tools was used for this study. Detailed information regarding the translation process, reliability, and validation of each scale is provided in Chapter 5 of this thesis.

Once the tools had been successfully translated, the data collection process was conducted in two phases. Data from primary schools, secondary schools, and university staff were collected from May to the end of June 2023. Data from first-year students was collected in October 2023, at the start of the new academic year. Obtaining permission to collect data from students required additional time due to the heavy workload of the permission-granting committee at Hawassa University. The data was collected from respondents using printed questionnaire during staff meetings. For students, data was collected during lecture time, facilitated by the instructors.

Since schools operate in shifts and teachers are only available during these shifts, dates for school staff meetings were coordinated with school principals and school counsellors to ensure the possible participation of all teachers. Similarly, data collection from university staff was scheduled during departmental staff meetings, in consultation with department heads. For students, data collection took place during class time with the permission of course instructors, coordinated with the Freshman Coordinating Office and class representatives after obtaining approval and permission from the head of Hawassa University Research Ethics Review Committee (cf. Appendix-C email response).

From the outset, efforts were made to establish positive relationships with school principals, data collectors, and research participants to ensure a clear understanding of the study's purpose, ethical considerations, and confidentiality. Support letters from the Hawassa City Education Department and the Dean's Office of the College of Social Sciences and Humanities were provided to school principals. Moreover, ethical approvals from Rhodes University and Hawassa University were also shown to school principals and participants prior to the data collection process. Additionally, a 20 to 30-minute psycho-educational briefing was conducted,

addressing the study's objectives, sensitivity, potential harm, and the availability of psychological counselors in cases where participants felt emotionally overwhelmed by the content of the survey questionnaires.

Data gathering was guided by research assistants to clarify any confusion and provide individualized support to participants who may be struggling to understand the research process. Prior to data collection, psychological counselors in secondary schools and universities, as well as unit leaders in primary schools, underwent a half-day training session on their roles in facilitating data collection.

During data collection, clear instructions were given orally to enhance data reliability and prevent response bias, such as copying from peers or providing false responses. To maintain ethical standards, a consent form was prepared and attached to the front page of the questionnaire. Participants indicated their consent by selecting the option "I agree to participate in the research" before proceeding with the questionnaire (cf. Appendix G for English version; and its Amharic equivalence in Appendix M). Completion of the entire survey typically took 30 to 40 minutes. In this study, only one member of each couple, either male or female, completed the questionnaires, focusing on their perspective within the dyadic relationship.

#### **4.1.7 Data Analysis**

Upon completion of data collection, the collected data underwent encoding, cleaning, and storage in the IBM SPSS Statistics (Version 29). Subsequently, both descriptive and inferential statistical procedures were applied for data analysis. The validity and reliability of the instruments were also assessed.

**A) Descriptive Statistics:** Descriptive statistics encompass a range of techniques employed to derive information from a population by describing data based on samples, thereby enabling conclusions about the properties of the investigated variables (Thomas, 2019). Descriptive analyses serve to organize, summarize, and identify major characteristics of the sample (O'Rourke et al., 2005). Additionally, Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) articulate that descriptive statistics delineate samples of subjects in terms of variables or combinations thereof. Thus, in this study frequency, mean, median, percentage and range were employed to locate and describe the central tendency of data. More specifically, the frequencies and percentage were used particularly to analyze the number of observations across each demographic variable (i.e., gender, age, highest level of education, marital status, number of children in the family, duration of current relationship, household monthly income). Moreover, percentages were used to analyze response-rates of participants across each psychological tool used in the survey (ECR, CI-R, RAS and the CASR-SF). Means and standard deviations were calculated for each of these scales.

**B) Inferential statistics:** Inferential statistics were employed to test hypotheses concerning differences in the sample. In contrast to descriptive analyses, inferential statistics involve extrapolating information from a sample to make inferences or estimates about the population (O'Rourke et al., 2005). To serve this purpose, different forms of inferential statistical procedures were employed for making inferences from findings based on sample observations.

One of the inferential statistics used in this study was binomial logistic regression. A binomial test of proportion was used in order to examine the proportion (the percentage) of the participants in the population who experienced IPV. This test is helpful to scrutinize the difference between the observed results, examine level of significance and magnitude of the significance (Jeremy et al, 2006). To serve these purposes, the test has five basic assumptions to

be met (Dato & Leo, 2008). Lee et al (2000) stated that having a dichotomous response variable (also referred to as a binary variable) is one of the basic assumptions of the test. This has been met in this study by the aggregated dichotomous response variable (from the CASR-SF) having a “Yes” “No” response.

The second assumption is the probability of IPV being present, denoted by “ $p$ ” remaining constant from variable to variable and from participant to participant, which was the case in this sample. Moreover, Hosmer et al. (2013) added that assumption three of binomial regression demands all variables should be mutually exclusive and have independence of observations. This assumes that there is no relationship between the observations in each of the dependent variable or the observations in each category of any nominal independent variables. In the present study, participants can be categorized as either those who experienced IPV or did not experience IPV. As such, they have been categorized into one of the two categories of the dependent variable.

The fourth assumption is the interval or ratio scale of measurement. This indicates the presence of a true zero and aligns with the current study that assesses presence or absence of abuse. As Lee et al. (2000) explained, the final assumption is about the responses of the participants being independent, indicating an absence of dependence on prior responses. The present study meets this assumption since there are no variables dependent on the responses of other prior variables (Dato & Leo, 2008). Based on these underlining conditions, data was collected, cleaned, and analyzed. The correlation coefficient or the value achieved by calculation is denoted by the letter  $r$ . The  $r$  value always lies between -1 and +1. The magnitude shows the level of the relationship and the negative or positive sign indicates the direction of the relationship.

Binary logistic regression is a type of regression analysis used when the dependent variable is binary. The goal of binary logistic regression is to predict the probability that an observation falls into one of the two categories based on one or more independent variables. In addition, logistic regression also requires a less assumptions as compared to multiple linear regression or Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA). Hosmer et al. (2013) also suggested that a minimum sample of 10 observations per independent variable in the binary logistic regression model, cautioning that 20 observations per variable should be sought if possible. In this study, there are fourteen independent variables and for that the minimum needed number of participants is 140.

A logistic regression has the output of Odds Ratios (OR) and is usually used when the outcome is binary (for example, yes/no, success/failure). Logistic regression model is usually used to look at the associations between a binary outcome and a set of explanatory variables (predictors, covariates, independent variables).

In this study, the relationship of independent variables with experience of IPV has been assessed. Accordingly, the dependent variable, that is, the experience of abuse (IPV) is regressed based on predicting variables of demographic variables, avoidant and anxious attachment styles, demand, withdrawal and problem-solving conflict resolution strategies, and relationship satisfaction.

Due to the absence of prior studies using the CASr-SF scale to describe IPV in Ethiopia and the current study setting, there was a 0.5 or 50% of binomial proportion among the study participants. Thus, in this study the researcher used the parameter ( $\mu$ ) = 0.50 as a point of reference or expected mean to test the current level of IPV among the participants. Specifically, the actual level of IPV was conducted based on a 50% parameter ( $\mu$ ). The sum of the scores of

the dependent variable (CASR-SF) has been dichotomized for each participant into two based on the mean value of each variable. Accordingly 1 = CASr-SF (IPV) present, and 0 = CASr-SF (IPV) absent. For clarity, for example, all participants with the score =1 means IPV is present whereas all participants with the score = 0 means IPV is absent. Based on these procedures, prevalence of IPV using CASr-SF has been estimated.

Using filtration process, dichotomized data was transformed (converted) into a new variable composite abuse scale revised and shorten form total recorded cut point (CASrSF\_TOTRC) with  $< 1$  and  $\geq 1$ . This procedure and output has been done without the entry of any independent variables in the model to serve as a baseline later for the comparing the model with the independent (predictor) variables. Thus, the responses were transformed and finally the aggregated result was considered to dichotomize the response.

However, it has to be noted that assessment on intensity of abuse was not the focus of this study and analysis was not carried out to serve this purpose in this study.

The following table summarizes the nature of independent variables and their respective degree of appropriate scale of measurement (nominal, ordinal, interval, and ratio) on which inferential analysis was carried out.

**Table 4.1:***Nature of variables and scale of measurement*

| Nature of data                      | Independent variables | Dependent variable | Hypothesis   | Test applied               |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|--|----------------------------|
| Avoidant attachment                 | Ratio                 | Ordinary           | H <sub>0</sub> = Avoidant attachment does not significantly predict IPV.<br>H <sub>1</sub> = Avoidant attachment significantly predicts IPV  | Binary logistic regression |
| Anxious attachment                  | Ratio                 | Ordinary           | H <sub>0</sub> = Anxious attachment does not significantly predict IPV.<br>H <sub>1</sub> = Anxious attachment significantly predicts IPV.   | Binary logistic regression |
| Demanding conflict resolution       | Ratio                 | Ordinary           | H <sub>0</sub> = More use of demanding conflict resolution strategies will not predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.<br>H <sub>1</sub> = More use of demanding conflict resolution strategies will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.             | Binary logistic regression |
| Withdrawal conflict resolution      | Ratio                 |                    | H <sub>0</sub> = More use of withdrawal conflict resolution strategies will not predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.<br>H <sub>1</sub> = More use of withdrawal conflict resolution strategies will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.           | Binary logistic regression |
| Problem-solving conflict resolution | Ratio                 | Ordinary           | H <sub>0</sub> = More use of problem-solving conflict resolution strategies will not predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.<br>H <sub>1</sub> = More use of problem-solving conflict resolution strategies will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV. | Binary logistic regression |
| Relationship satisfaction           | Ratio                 | Ordinary           | H <sub>0</sub> = Relationship satisfaction does not significantly predict IPV.<br>H <sub>1</sub> = Relationship satisfaction significantly predict IPV.  | Binary logistic regression |

#### 4.1.8 Ethical Considerations

This PhD study forms part of a broader project on the Predictors of Violence in African Couples. The broader project examines predictors of violence in South African and Ethiopian Couples. Babbie (2011) emphasized that researchers must be aware of the general agreements on proper and improper conduct in scientific inquiry. This study adhered to prescribed research standards by obtaining informed consent from participants, maintaining their confidentiality and anonymity, and securing permission from relevant authorities. Accordingly, ethics approval has been obtained from the Rhodes University Human Research Ethics Committee (hereafter RU-HREC), registration number: RC-241114-045 and approval number: 2022-54816723 (cf. Appendix A) and the Hawassa University Research Ethics Review Committee (hereafter HU-RERC) Clearance with a reference number: RERC13, 2023 (cf. Appendix B). The project is funded by the National Institute of Humanities and Social Sciences (NIHSS, Mobility Award: MBG21/1008) and the South African National Research Foundation (NRF Competitive Rated Researchers Award: CPRR23040288938).

Babbie (2011) cautioned that anyone involved in research must be aware of appropriate ethical considerations when engaging with human research subjects. With this consideration in mind, this study was guided by the four fundamental research ethics principles: beneficence, nonmaleficence, autonomy and justice as stipulated in the Geneva Convention (Davis, 1904) and the Belmont Report (Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1979).

Beneficence in research involves working for the good of the individual and society (American Counselors Association [ACA], 2014). For the purposes of this research study the principle of beneficence is enacted by promoting mental health and well-being for the participants. The principle of beneficence refers to decreasing harm and increasing benefit

among research participants (Sims, 2010). One measure to protect the rights of persons and to protect them from any harm is the regulatory process of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) (Sims, 2010). Accordingly, in this study ethical approvals have been obtained from Rhodes University, Humanity Research Ethics Committee (RU-HREC) (cf. Appendix A) and Hawassa University Research Ethics Committee (cf. Appendix B) after a review of the research design, data collection and analysis methods, methods of documenting participant information and handling mechanisms of confidentiality to safeguard the wellbeing of the participants. Moreover, permission was obtained from Hawassa City, Department of Education administration (cf. Appendix E) and the Hawassa University College of Social Sciences and Humanities (CSSH) to invite their staff and students as possible participants in this study.

Another ethical principle is nonmaleficence, defined as avoiding actions that could cause harm to research participants (ACA, 2014). In this study, all participants were carefully informed about the psychological tools included in the survey questionnaire and questionnaire items that may potentially elicit distress, create unexpected feelings and reactions from participants. Additionally participants were informed that if/when they experience such unexpected feelings, there were professionally trained mental health practitioners available to support them in managing their distress. Questionnaires were administered following psycho-educational workshops that further orientated participants to the potential risks of engaging with the survey materials. Participants were informed about anonymity and data protection procedures that would protect their identifying information.

Autonomy is the ethical principle of fostering the participant's right to control their decision-making in the research process (Goodwin, 2010). This principle emphasizes that participants enter into the research process voluntarily with adequate information. Accordingly,

participants of this study were informed about the potential risk of questionnaire items (such as those that measure IPV) producing emotional distress if the participant has experienced abuse and violence in their current and/or previous romantic relationships. Participants were informed of existing treatment options to reduce such emotional distress, and the researcher facilitated referrals when requested. These options allowed participants to make their own choices and decisions to participate in the study. Moreover, participants were informed that they have the right to decide whether they want to participate in the research. All participants were above the age of 18 and could legally make independent decisions and give informed consent to participate in the research process. Potential participants were informed about research question of the study, possible risks and benefits of their participation, and the activities they would be asked to engage in as research participants. Participants then signed an informed consent form which was attached with the survey questionnaire.

The principle of justice is described as treating research participants with fairness and equality (Goodwin, 2010). On one hand this principle of justice was prioritized in this research project as the researcher attempted to deliberately recruit equal proportions of men and women so that the views of these groups could be fairly represented – however a 60 (male) - 40 (female) split was eventually achieved. On the other hand, participants were conveniently sampled for inclusion from local schools and university settings. This sampling procedure meant that the views and experiences of a particular segment of the population (well-educated and employed) were represented in this study. These individuals benefitted from psycho-educational workshops and mental health expertise that other segments of the population did not have access to. Consequently, while efforts were made to treat participants fairly and equally, the sampling

procedure used in this study advantaged some Hawassan residents over others as participants recruited for the study.

## SUMMARY

In summary, Chapter Four of this thesis has described how this project will answer the research question: *What are the relational predictors of IPV in an Ethiopian sample?*

This included detailed contextual information about the study site, population and sampling methods used to identify and recruit participants, data collection instruments and procedures, data analysis procedures and the key ethical principles that guided the study. In the next chapter, the methods used in the translation of the survey questionnaire and related instruments is described and discussed.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### 5. TRANSLATION OF THE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

#### INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter outlined the methods used in addressing this project's research question: *What are the relational predictors of IPV in an Ethiopian sample?* In this chapter, the translation process will be described. The resultant translations will be presented in the following order instructions, demographic information and the four subsequent psychological measures.

#### 5.1 TRANSLATION

Kasperek (1983) defines the process of translation as the communication of the meaning of a source-language text, in the target language, in an equivalent form. Gold and Barclay (2006) explain that research tool translation is the process of converting a questionnaire's content from one language into another while maintaining its original intent, structure, reliability and validity. Ahmed and Ishtiaq (2021) emphasize that reliability and validity are among the fundamental domains in the assessment of any measuring methodology for data collection in good research.

Reliability is concerned with the consistency, stability and repeatability of scores obtained from a psychological tool, as well as the ability of the measure to collect and record data accurately (Brink 1993). Similarly, Scholle et al. (2008) note that reliability is the ability of an instrument/tool to produce consistent results under similar circumstances, as well as its capability to discriminate between the performances of different response providers. Ahmed and Ishtiaq (2021) noted that reliability determines the variability across repeated samples from the

same individual and variations among individuals. It is concerned with truthfulness in the data obtained and the degree to which any measuring tool controls for random error.

Validity is understood as the extent to which a concept or psychological construct is accurately measured (Heale & Twycross, 2015). Gartner et al. (2018) add that validity is the ability of an instrument to measure what it intends to measure. While Ahmed and Ishtiaq (2021) explain that validity is an instrument's capacity to serve its purpose and how well it does this. These explanations of validity imply that good research, when done well, includes the validation of its instrument or tools to serve their purpose.

Thus, the goal of translating and adapting a research instrument is to achieve a cross-cultural adaptation with cultural equivalence, following a systematic validation process (Chavez & Canino, 2005). Likewise, WHO (Sartorius & Janca, 1996) asserts that the goal of translating tools from an original language to a target language, is to create culturally equivalent translations that function in the target language, in the same way as the original language version. As Sperber (2004) explains, the main purpose of translation is to achieve equivalence between the instrument in the source language (SL) and the instrument in the target language (TL).

To ensure the validity of this research study's instruments, a thorough translation design was employed where issues such as language, concept clarification, sensitivity in the Ethiopian context, and technical clarification were given due attention during the translation process.

However there is no clear consensus in the literature on the most appropriate and effective translation design to employ in cross-cultural tool adaptations (Epstein et al., 2015). The WHO has established methodological guidelines based on the refinement of the process across numerous studies translating health-related instruments (Sartorius & Janca, 1996). These

guidelines include a forward translation, the use of an expert panel, a back translation, pre-testing a final version, and documentation procedures. Added to this Epstein and colleagues (2015) suggest the use of committees and focus group discussions. For purposes of this research project a combination of translation methods were used which included forward and back-translation, committee meetings, qualitative and quantitative piloting. Each of these steps are described in more detail below.

Before undertaking the actual translation process, permission was obtained from the original authors of the tools proposed for use in this study, for their translation. Then, as per the recommendation of the WHO guidelines (Sartorius & Janca, 1996), bilingual translators, first language Amharic speakers fluent in English, were sought to carry out the translation work. Finally, the tools were translated from the original (source) English language, into the target Amharic language. Amharic was selected as the target language because it is spoken throughout Ethiopia and is adopted as the official Ethiopian language (Britannica, 2020; FDRE Constitution, 1995).

### **5.1.1 Forward Translation**

In the research context, translation is the transfer of meaning from a native or mother tongue, such as English in this context, to a study language, such as Amharic in this study (Esposito, 2001). More specifically, Nord (1997) stated that forward translation is the process that involves converting a document from the “source language”, English in this study to the “target language”(Amharic in this context) considering the target audience and target culture. The purpose of this forward translation is to communicate effectively and naturally with the target population (Eremenco et al., 2005). Forward translation is used to obtain an adapted version of a tool, in the target language in as equivalent a form as possible to the “original

version” (Hedrih, 2020). This includes a focus on equivalence in vocabulary and grammatical structure of the words to transfer the meaning of the original language to the study language.

**Translators:** Two forward translations were carried out by two psychologists with Master of Arts (MA) degrees, lecturing in public universities in Hawassa, Ethiopia. The translators were native Amharic speakers who taught psychology courses related to attachment, couple and marital counseling and were well versed in the content of the psychological tools they were translating. These translators had prior experience of translating and using different research tools for academic, research and community outreach purposes.

**Instructions:** The translators were orientated to the research project and were instructed to emphasize conceptual equivalence, rather than linguistic word-for-word translations to create a translation that was culturally sensitive and understandable to a broad segment of Amharic speakers across Ethiopia. Translators were told to avoid idioms and words that might be culturally offensive to the respondents, to capture the meaning of the source instrument, by using appropriate language that the target language (Amharic) group could easily understand. The translators were provided with the English language version of the survey questionnaire (cf. APPENDIX G- Appendix- L) and instructed to work independently in the forward translation process. The resultant forward translations are included as Appendices (cf. Appendix V[translator 1] and Appendix W[Translator 2] ).

**Synthesizing the Forward Translations:** A teleconference was convened with the two forward translators and the researcher (as chair). The reason for the teleconference was that one of the forward translators was out of the local area for his PhD work at another university and unable to attend a face-to-face meeting. Together the committee read each section of both the original and two forward translations of the survey questionnaire. Each panel member made

notes of the recommended changes. These suggestions were discussed and synthesized into one document which was presented to an independent set of translators for back-translation (cf. Appendix X).

### **5.1.2 Back Translation**

Coster and Mancini (2015) state that back translation is the process that involves the translation of the instrument from the “target language” (forward translation) back into the “original language” (back translation). As Sousa and Rojjanasrirat (2011) explain, the term “back translation,” is known as “reverse translation,” indicating the process of translating a previously translated text back into its source language. This back translation is used to check the overall quality of a once completed translation to spot potential differences in the meaning between the source and target text (Chavez & Canino, 2005). Epstein et al, (2015) explain that the objective of back translation is to check for differences between the initial translation and back translation in terms of the meaning and to identify differences in terms of concept, function, and effect. Other researchers assert that in tool translation, back translation serves as a quality assurance process to check the accuracy of the forward translation, and helps to identify unclear wording and major inconsistencies or conceptual errors that need clarification (Beaton et al, 2007; Sousa & Rojjanasrirat, 2011; van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2011).

**Translators:** Two bilingual translators (first language Amharic, second language English speakers) who were university academic staff, blinded to the original English survey questionnaire version, carried out the back translation process. One back translator was an Associate Professor in Sociology from Haromaya University (found in Eastern Ethiopia), the other was English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) teacher with a PhD, at Hawassa University,

who had translated several books from English to Amharic and had served for over thirty years in academia.

**Instructions:** The translators were orientated to the research project and asked to independently back-translate Appendix X into English.

**Synthesizing the Back Translations:** The back translations were submitted to a bilingual PhD holder in Psychology with research experience in tool translations who noted disparities between the original English and the back-translated English versions. A teleconference was held with this academic, the two back-translators and the researcher (as chair) to discuss the disparities and how they related to the Amharic translation of the survey questionnaire. A review of the final version was made with a few final adjustments to improve readability of the translated text, without compromising the content, and the final translated Amharic version was qualitatively and quantitatively piloted.

### **5.1.3 Qualitative Piloting: Cognitive Interviewing**

Qualitative piloting provides an opportunity to assess how the current translation is being experienced and understood in a small sample of respondents. One method in qualitative piloting is cognitive interviewing. Beatty and Willis (2007) define cognitive interviewing as the administration of draft survey items while collecting additional information about the research responses. Participant information is used to evaluate the quality of the translated items or determine whether the items are generating the required information. This technique has emerged as one of the more prominent methods for identifying and correcting problems with survey questions and their translations. This technique assesses the understanding of the translated instrument by individuals representing the intended users of the instrument. In line

with this, DeVellis (2012) states that cognitive testing as a qualitative approach, enables the understanding of how potential respondents will comprehend and interpret questionnaire items. Similarly, Sousa and Rojjanasrirat (2011) explain that cognitive interviews assess instructions, responses, and item content, and have the potential to uncover problems related to language, comprehension, and the cultural relevance of the translated psychological tool.

**Sample Participants:** For purposes of assessing the quality of the Amharic translation of this research study's survey questionnaire, cognitive interviews were used with 6 volunteer participants - 2 primary school teachers; 2 secondary school teachers, and 2 university academic lecturers (participant demographics are summarized in Table 5.1 below). They were all native Amharic-speaking individuals who were approached through convenience sampling and were readily available and accessible to collect data voluntarily after the advertisement of the research project on the Hawassa University notice board.

**Instructions:** It is not always possible to test the entire survey instrument in a cognitive interview, since it would be too burdensome for the respondent, especially when cognitive probes are included. Alcsér and Conrad (2007) suggest that in surveys of particularly lengthy tools, only those items with the greatest potential issues can be set for cognitive interviews. For the purposes of this study, items that were deeply debated and discussed during the teleconferences were identified for qualitative piloting and further clarification. Accordingly, the instructions and items set for discussion from each sub-section of the questionnaire will be presented below and are summarized in Appendix S.

**Table 5.1:***Demographic Characteristics of Cognitive Interview Participants*

| Interviewee Code | Age | Gender | Experience    | Occupation               | Marital Status  | Educational Level |
|------------------|-----|--------|---------------|--------------------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| A                | 32  | Female | 10 years      | Primary school teacher   | Married         | Graduate          |
| B                | 43  | Male   | Over 15 years | University lecturer      | Married         | Postgraduate      |
| C                | 35  | Male   | 13 years      | Secondary School Teacher | Married         | Graduate          |
| D                | 26  | Female | 4 years       | Primary school teacher   | Married         | Postgraduate      |
| E                | 25  | Female | 4 years       | University lecturer      | In Relationship | Postgraduate      |
| F                | 27  | Female | 5 years       | Secondary school teacher | In Relationship | Graduate          |

**Cognitive Interview (CI) Procedure:** All CIs were conducted by the researcher. Before the interview, adequate rapport was established with a warm welcome. Thereafter, a brief orientation about the objective of the CI and the procedure of the interview was performed in a private room. Before conducting the interview, a consent form was prepared for participants in Amharic (cf. Appendix T) and given to them to read and sign before participating in the interview. Interview items were given to the participants to read and respond to accordingly. All interviews were recorded as per participant permission.

As per the recommendation of Alcsér and Conrad (2007) proper management of the time, and adequacy of the room, for an interview were considered, to avoid a burdensome atmosphere and maintain the privacy of the interviewee. Interviews lasted between 60-90 minutes, since the cognitive interview approach can be demanding to the respondent. Willis (2005) recommended that a ratio of between 2:1 and 3:1 for survey administration time and cognitive interviewing

time be used where, if a survey would take 20 minutes to complete under normal circumstances, the cognitive interview should take 40 to 60 minutes.

During the interview, the participants were asked to reflect on the questionnaire item and their understanding of these items in their own words. Furthermore, they were asked to reflect on whether the items were sensitive and aligned with the Ethiopian (local study area) cultural context. They were also asked to offer their view on vague and sensitive questionnaire items.

**Challenging items and participant responses:** As stated above, instructions and items that were debated and deeply discussed by the translation teams were selected for cognitive interviewing from each section of the survey questionnaire. Accordingly, the items suggested from the panel discussion during the translation process, the answers and reactions to the cognitive interviews and suggestions for improvement are presented below:

**A) Demographic Items**

From the socio-demographic part of the research tool (questionnaire), two items were identified as possibly problematic: item 6 “What is your profession” and item 7 “What is your marital status”. Results from the cognitive interviews are summarized in Table 5.2.

**Table 5.2:**  
*Response and Reaction of Cognitive Interviewees on Demographic Items*

| Item no. on question naire | Question in English and Amharic (as suggested by panelists during translation process)   | Code of interviewee | Answer and reaction Response   | Suggestion for improvement   |
|----------------------------|--|---------------------|--|--|
| 6                          | English Version:<br>What is your profession?<br>Translator 1: ሙያዎ ምንድን ነው?<br>Translator 2: ስራ ምንድን ነው?  | A                   | I prefer to approve and say ሙያዎ  |  |
|                            |  | B                   | I prefer ” ስራ”since most of the time people don’t know the word “ሙያ”   |  |
|                            |  | C                   | I prefer to use the word “ሙያ” it denotes one’s identity after training and educational attainment. But the word ስራ refers to any job common to all.  |  |
|                            |  | D                   | I prefer ” ስራ”   |  |
|                            |  | E                   | I approve “ሙያ”   |  |
|                            |  | F                   | I approve “ሙያ” since it indicates work, based on training.   |  |
| 7                          | 4. English Version : What is your marital status? Choice “B” Living with partner/ Cohabiting<br>Translator 1: ደባል የሚኖር<br>Translator 2: ከፍቅርኛ ጋር አብሮ መኖር | A                   | Means living together without having formal marriage. I approve ከፍቅርኛ ጋር አብሮ መኖር   |  |
|                            |  | B                   | It is shabby and unacceptable norm to live with partner/cohabiting in our culture without formal marriage. But if you ask me I prefer to use the word “ደባል”  |  |
|                            |  | C                   | I prefer to use አብሮ መኖር though it is not legal   | I suggest “ሳይጋቡ አብሮ መኖር” because, in our culture people living together with a fiancé /cohabitation, without legal marriage is unacceptable. |
|                            |  | D                   | It is nonsense and shame to use “ደባል” because in our culture friends from both sexes can live together and are called ደባል, particularly in the case of the high cost of housing in urban areas.<br>Prefer to use “አብሮ መኖር” |  |
|                            |  | E                   | I prefer “አብሮ መኖር”   | I suggest “ሳይጋቡ አብሮ መኖር”   |
|                            |  | F                   | Even though it is illegal to live together without a legal framework, I prefer “አብሮ መኖር”   | “ሳይጋቡ አብሮ መኖር” is a more sensible phrase for me  |

In item # 6, the word “ሙያ”(muya) was preferred by 4 (66.6%) respondents. The other two respondents preferred the alternative of ስራ(sira). The word “ሙያ”(muya) represents professional activities, whereas the word ስራ(sira) reflects any activities that can be done with or without adequate training. The dictionary explanation also states that the word “ሙያ” is for tasks for which one has trained, and has experience thereof, whereas the word “ስራ (sira)” is indicative of the general concept of work or activity (Thomas, 1990). Thus, the word “ሙያ”(muya) was used for the final questionnaire.

For item # 7, option “B” spoke to cohabitation or “Living with partner”. Two options were suggested by forward translators and were presented for cognitive interviewing. All respondents suggested the use of “አብሮ ሙኖሮ” (*abro menor*) phrase, which means “Living together” over “ደባል የሚኖሩ”(Debal Yminor) which means “one who shares a room with someone or one of two or more persons sharing a room”. In the Ethiopian context, this word indicates dependency on others and is also applicable to non-lovers/ those with no romantic relationship. The phrase “ከፍቅረኛ ጋር ሳይጋቡ አብሮ ሙኖሮ” is more sensible and meaningful in this research context, suggesting the individual is in a relationship, but may not explicitly indicate that they are living together in one house. Nevertheless, when we say “ከፍቅረኛ ጋር ሳይጋቡ አብሮ ሙኖሮ” (*ke fikregna gar sayigabu abro menor*), it indicates a person is living with their romantic partner, without having marital legal status in one house. Thus, this option was deemed the best fit and used for the final questionnaire.

**B) Items from the Experience in Close Relation (ECR) Scale**

This scale proved more challenging than the demographics section, and the title of the scale, its instruction, as well as ten items (items # 3, # 5, # 9, # 10, # 11, # 18, # 20, # 23, # 31 and # 33) that were debated and discussed during the translation process were selected for cognitive interviewing. Some items were presented in option format, while others were asked to elicit participants’ understanding of the statements. Furthermore, the interviewees were asked to comment on the sensitivity of the items and make suggested improvements. Table 5.3 summarises the challenging items and their different translation options across the translation process.

**Table 5.3:**

*Amharic Translations in ECR Scale That Required Piloting*

| Item | Original English   | Translator A                            | Translator B                              | Agreed by all parties during the discussion  |
|------|--|---|---|--|
| 3    | I am very comfortable being close to my relationship partner               | ከግንኙነት አጋሬ ጋር መቀራረቤ በጣም ተመችቶኛል          | ከትዳር አጋሬ ጋር ያለኝ ቅርበት በጣም ተመችቶኛል።          | ከትዳር/ፍቅር አጋሬ ጋር ያለኝ ቀረቤታ በጣም ተመችቶኛል          |
| 5    | Just when my partner starts to get close to me, I find myself pulling away | አጋሬ /ጓደኛዬ ወደ እኔ በቀረበኝ ጊዜ ራሴን አርቃለሁ      | የትዳር አጋሬ ወደ እኔ መቅረብ ሲጀምር የበታችነት ስሜት ይሰማኛል | የትዳር/ፍቅር አጋሬ በቀረበኝ/ችን መጠን እራሴን አርቃለሁኝ        |
| 9    | I don't feel comfortable opening up to my relationship partner             | ለአጋሬ የሚሰማኝን ነገር በግልፅ ለመናገር ምቹት አይሰማኝም   | ለተትዳር አጋሬ ግልጥ መሆን ምቹት አይሰጠኝም              | ለአጋሬ እራሴን ግልፅ ማድረግ ምቹት አይሰጠኝም                |
| 10   | I often wish that my partner's   | ብዙ ጊዜ እኔ ለእሱ/አሷ እንዳለኝ ጠንካራ ስሜት አጋሬም ለእኔ | ሁሌም የትዳር አጋሬ ለእኔ ያለው ስሜት                  | ብዙ ጊዜ የትዳር አጋሬ ለእኔ ያለው ስሜት ልክ እኔ ለእሱ/ሷ እንዳለኝ |

|    |  |   |  |   |
|----|--|---|--|---|
|    | feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for them                         | ጠንካራ ስሜት እንዲኖረው/እንዲኖራት እመኛለው                                  | ልክ እኔ ለእሱ/ሷ ያለኝ ስሜት ጠንካራ እንዲሆን እመኛለሁ።                        | ስሜት ጠንካራ እንዲሆን እመኛለሁ።                                       |
| 11 | I want to get close to my partner, but I keep pulling back                     | አጋሬን መቅረብ እፈልጋለሁ ግን እራሴን አሸሻለሁ                                | የትዳር አጋሬን መቅረብ እፈልጋለሁ፣ አልገፋብትም እመለሳለሁ።                       | አጋሬን መቅረብ እፈልጋለሁኝ፤ ግን እራሴን ማራቁን ቀጥያለሁኝ                      |
| 18 | I need a lot of reassurance that I am loved by my partner                      | በዳደኛዬ ( አጋሬ ) መፈቀሬን ለማረጋገጥ በጣም ብዙ ማረጋገጫ እፈልጋለሁ                | የትዳር አጋሬ እንደምት/ሚወደኝ እንደገና ማረጋገጫ እፈልጋለሁ                       | በአጋሬ እንደሚፈቀር ብዙ ማረጋገጫ እፈልጋለሁኝ                               |
| 20 | Sometimes I feel that I force my partner to show more feeling, more commitment | አንዳንድ ጊዜ ዳደኛዬን / አጋሬን ብዙ ስሜት እና ሀላፊነት እንዲያሳዩኝ እንደማስገድደው ይሰማኛል | አንዳንድ ጊዜ የትዳር አጋሬን የበለጠ ስሜት፣ ቁርጠኝነትን እንዲያሳይ እንደስገድድኩት ይሰማኛል። | አንዳንድ ጊዜ አጋሬ የተሻለ ስሜትና ቁርጠኝነት እንደያሳዩኝ/እንድታሳዩኝ የማስገድድ ይመስለኛል |
| 23 | I prefer not to be too close to my relationship partner                        | ከግንኙነት አጋሬ ጋር በጣም ቅርብ ባልሆን እመርጣለሁ                             | ከ ትዳር ሳጋሬ ጋር በጣም አለመቀራረብ እመርጣለሁ                              | የትዳር/ጭቅር አጋሬን በጣም መቅረብ አልፈልግም                               |
| 31 | I don't mind asking my partner for comfort, advice, or help                    | ዳደኛዬን (አጋሬን) ምቹት ምክር እና እርዳታ መጠየቅ አይከብደኝም                     | የትዳር አጋሬ እንዲያጽናናኝ ፣እንዲ መክርን ወይም እርዳታን መጠየቅ አልፈልግም።           | አጋሬን ስለምቹት፤ምክር እና እገዛ መጠየቅ ብዙም አይገደኝም                       |
| 33 | It helps to turn to my relationship partner in times of need                   | በችግር ጊዜ ወደ ግንኙነት አጋሬ መመለስ ይረዳል                                | የትዳር አጋሬ ሳይቀበለኝ ሲቀር ስለራሴ በጣም መጥፎ ስሜት ይሰማኛል                   | ባስፈለገኝ ጊዜ ወደ አጋሬ ግንኙነት መመለስ ጠቀሜታ አለው                        |

The results from the cognitive interviews are discussed and summarized in table 5.4. below. The respondents recommended “በፍቅር /ትዳር ግንኙነት ውስጥ ያሉ ልምዶች” (*Be fikir /tidaar genegnunt wust yalu limdoch*) for the title of the scale. They justified the phrase (title) as holistic and inclusive, clearly indicating a romantic experience in a relationship, either in marriage or before marriage. Thus, this phrase is used to describe the title of the scale. But the words “*in close relationship*” include both those who are in a romantic (sexual) relationship and those in an intimate relationship without sexual experiences, so the phrase was modified to include both these experiences.

During the forward translation and committee stages three translated options were generated for item number 3 (“*I am very comfortable being close to my relationship partner*”). All three of these were presented to the cognitive interview participants. Half, 3 out of 6 (50%), approved of the third option (*ከትዳር/ፍቅር አጋሬ ጋር ያለኝ ቀረቤታ በጣም ተመችቶኛል*) (*ke tidaar/fikir agaare gar yalegn qerebeta betam tmceitognal*) for its clarity, simplicity and self-explanatory statement. Similarly, this option was agreed on by all parties during the translation panel discussion process.

For item number #5 which states “*Just when my partner starts to get close to me, I find myself pulling away*” the cognitive interviewees were asked whether the statement was clear and to justify their responses to the Amharic translated version “*የትዳር/ፍቅር አጋሬ በቀረበኝ/ችን መጠን እርቀቀለሁኝ/እርቃታለሁኝ*” (*Ye tidaar/fikir agaare bekerebegen/cegn meten iriqwalehugn/ irikatalehugn*) . As depicted on Table 5.3, 5 out of 6 interviewees found the statement clear and understandable.

For item # 9, which states that “*I don't feel comfortable opening up to my relationship partner*”, the equivalent Amharic translation presented for cognitive interviewing was “ለአጋሬ እራሴን ግልፅ ማድረግ ምቹት አይሰጠኝም” (*Le agaare irasen giltsi madreg michot ayisetegnim*) as proposed during the translation process. Interview participants were asked whether they found this translation easily understandable, sensitive and simple. As summarised on Table 5.3 above, all respondents stated that the Amharic statement is clear and implies that being open to disclose everything to the partner does not give the person comfort. The responses aligned well with the theme of the original item.

For item #10 which states “*I often wish that my partner's feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for him/her*”, the Amharic version “ብዙ ጊዜ የትዳር/ፍቅር አጋሬ ለእኔ ያለው ስሜት ልክ እኔ ለእሱ/ሷ ያለኝ ስሜት ጠንካራ እንዲሆን እመኛለሁ።” (*Bizu gize ye tidaar/fikir agaare le ine yalewu simet lik ine le isu/sua yalegn simet tenkara indihon imegnalehugn*) was presented to participants. All respondents found the statement clear, direct and self-explanatory. They understood that the statement described one partner as having stronger positive feelings to their mate, than the other partner. Similarly, they longed for the same feelings from their partner. Participants did not mention any offensive or derogatory words in the statement. Thus, the Amharic statement was taken as it was for final language version of the tool.

Item #18 of the English version states “*I need a lot of reassurance that I am loved by my partner*”. The equivalent Amharic version suggested was “ብዙውን ጊዜ በአጋሬ እንደሚፈቀር ማረጋገጫ እፈልጋለሁኝ።” This Amharic item was explored for its clarity, simplicity and understanding, as well as its cultural sensitivity. All participants agreed with the Amharic version’s simplicity, clarity and absence of any offensive explanation in the Ethiopian context.

They explained that the statement indicated that a person needed their partner to express their love, using different means. This is in line with the theme of the original sentence. Thus, the suggested Amharic version was used for the final language version of the questionnaire.

Item #20, which states “*Sometimes I feel that I force my partner to show more feeling, more commitment*” was translated into the Amharic version “አንዳንዴ የፍቅር ጓደኛዬ / አጋሬ የተሻለ ስሜትና ቁርጠኝነት እንደታየኝ/እንደታየኝ የማስገደድ ይመስለኛል” (*Andande ye fikir guadgnaye/agaare yeteshale simetna qurtegninet indiyasayegn/inditasayegn yemasgedid yimeslegnal*). Participants found the statement direct with no sensitive or offensive wording. However, they suggested some modifications. Three out of the participants found the statement unclear suggesting the replacement of some words with simple, positive, non-offensive and direct words. For instance, the words “ቁርጠኝነት (*kurtegninet*), and ማስገደድ”(*maasgeded*), sent a message that “I feel that I am influencing my partner to show me more positive emotional feeling with better commitment”. This missed the intention of the original English language version of the item so the statement was edited to read “አንዳንዴ የፍቅር አጋሬ የተሻለ ስሜትና ግልፅኝነት እንደታየኝ የምጫን ይመስለኛል” (*Andande ye fikir agaare yeteshale simetna giltsegninet indiyasayegn yemichan yimeslegnal*) to more closely align with the English meaning.

Item #23 on the original questionnaire read “*I prefer not to be too close to my relationship partner*”. Its Amharic version suggested by the translation team was read as “የትዳር/ፍቅር አጋሬን በጣም መቅረብ አልፈልግም” (*Ye tidaar/fikir agareen betam mqereb xlifeligim*). All participants agreed with the statement’s clarity, directness and use of non-offensive words. In general, they understood that there was some reason why an individual did not want to be very close to their romantic partner.

Item #24 “*If I can't get my partner to show interest in me, I get upset or angry*” was translated into Amharic as “*የትዳር/ፍቅር አጋሬ ለእኔ ፍላጎት ካላሳየ ይከፋኛል ወይም እናደዳለሁኝ*” (*ye tidaar/fikir agaare le ine filagot kalasaye yikefagnal woyim inadedalehugn*). All participants approved of the statement as direct, clear and non-offensive.

The Amharic translation of item #31 “*I don't mind asking my partner for comfort, advice, or help*” which stated “*አጋሬን ስለምችት፤ምክር እና እገዛ መጠየቅ ብዙም አይገደኝም*”(Agaaren sile michot, mikir ina igeza meteyek bizum xyigedegnim), was acceptable to 4 out of 6 participants. Both those who approved and those who did not approve the statement commented on the vagueness of the phrase “*መጠየቅ ብዙም አይገደኝም*” (*meteyek bizum ayigedegnim*). Participants suggested the modification or substitution of the phrase “*መጠየቅ ብዙም አይገደኝም*” with other less sensitive terminology, such as “*ባልጠይቃትም ችግር የለውም*’ Therefore, it was modified accordingly, to avoid ambiguity. This said, all respondents indicated that the statement had the implication of whether I ask for help, or not from my partner, I do not mind, which was not an accurate reflection of the original English statement. Therefore, the Amharic statement “*አጋሬን ስለምችት፤ምክር እና እገዛ ብጠይቅም ባልጠይቅም ችግር የለውም*’ was selected for the final questionnaire.

Lastly, item #33 “*It helps to turn to my relationship partner in times of need*” was translated as “*ባስፈለገኝ ጊዜ ወደ አጋሬ ግንኙነት መመለስ ጠቀሜታ አለው*”(basfelegegn gize wode agaare ginignunet memeles teqemeta alew) and presented to participants for their review. Among the participants, 3 out of 6 found the item unclear. The phrase “*ባስፈለገኝ ጊዜ*“, for “*in times of need*”, was identified as problematic item. The question raised by the interviewee was

“*what is needed?*” Among the suggested options to make the item more direct and understandable with fewer offensive word(s) was the option “በስፈላጊነት ጊዜ ከአጋሬ ጋር ያለኝን ግንኙነት ማደስ ጠቀሜታ አለዉ” (*basfelegegn gize ke agaare gar yalegnin ginegnunet makes teqemeta alewu*). Thus, this suggested statement was used for the final version of the Amharic questionnaire.

**Table 5.4:**

*Response and Reaction of Cognitive Interviewees on the ECR Items*

| Item no. on ECR questionnaire                                   | Question in English and Amharic (as suggested by panelists during translation process)  | Code of interviewee | Answer and reaction<br>Response   | Suggestions for improvement |
|---|---|---------------------|---|-----------------------------|
| Instruction   | English Version:<br>Experiences in close relationships<br><br>Translator 1: በቅርብ ግንኙነቶች ውስጥ ያሉ ልምዶች<br><br>Translator 2: የፍቅር ግንኙነት ውስጥ ያሉ ልምዶች                   | A                   | For me, the first is general. The second one may describe unmarried couples   | የፍቅር /ትዳር ግንኙነት ውስጥ ያሉ ልምዶች |
|   |   | B                   | I prefer የፍቅር ግንኙነት (B), because it describes both married and unmarried couples.   |                             |
|   |   | C                   | I approve of my own position, since these two are not inclusive. Besides, sometimes it indicates a transient relationship | በፍቅር/ትዳር ግንኙነት              |
|   |   | D                   | I suggest በፍቅር/ትዳር ግንኙነት Because, it represents both married and unmarried couples in a romantic relationship.            | በፍቅር/ትዳር ግንኙነት              |
|   |   | E                   | I approve of በፍቅር/ትዳር ግንኙነት phrase, since it is holistic  | በፍቅር/ትዳር ግንኙነት              |
|   |   | F                   | I think it is better to use an inclusive word and suggest the following   | በፍቅር/ትዳር ግንኙነት              |
| 3. I am very comfortable being close to my relationship partner | A) ከግንኙነት አጋሬ ጋር መቀራረቤ በጣም ተመችቶኛል<br><br>B) Translator 2 B.ከትዳር አጋሬ ጋር ያለኝ ቅርብ በጣም ተመችቶኛል::<br><br>C) Agreed by both parties: ከትዳር/ፍቅር አጋሬ ጋር ያለኝ ቀረቤታ በጣም ተመችቶኛል | A                   | I approve of the second option, since it has no latent meanings.  |                             |
|   |   | B                   | I approve of the last option በፍቅር/ትዳር ግንኙነት ውስጥ ያሉ ልምዶች over the other options  |                             |
|   |   | C                   | I prefer the second option. It is clear and makes sense.  |                             |
|   |   | D                   | I approve of the third option. It is clear and self-explanatory.  |                             |
|   |   | E                   | I approve of the third option, since it is simple and clear.  |                             |
|   |   | F                   | I approve of the first option. It is clearer than the second one.   |                             |

|   |  |  |   |                     |
|---|--|--|---|---------------------|
| <p>5. Just when my partner starts to get close to me I find myself pulling away</p>                 | <p>How do you understand the phrase “የትዳር/ፍቅር አጋሬ በቀረበኝ/ችን መጠን እራሴን አርቃለሁኝ”?</p> | <p>A<br/>B<br/>C<br/>D<br/>E<br/>F</p> | <p>A It is clear to me. It indicates they want to approach (get closer to me). I distance myself.</p> <p>B It is clear. It reflects some withdrawal and a hidden agenda.</p> <p>C It is clear. It indicates some fear in their relationship.</p> <p>D The statement is clear. It indicates that I want to keep my distance, as he knows more.</p> <p>E The item is clear. It indicates my partner want to be closer to me, but I keep distancing myself from him.</p> <p>F The statement is not clear to me. It is negatively stated.</p> <p>It indicates that even though my partner want to get closer to me, I keep distancing myself from them.</p> | <p>It is clear.</p> |
| <p>9. I don't feel comfortable opening up to my relationship partner</p>                            | <p>ለአጋሬ እራሴን ግልፅ ማድረግ ምቹት አይሰጠኝምአ</p>  | <p>A<br/>B<br/>C<br/>D<br/>E<br/>F</p> | <p>A I do not see any problem with this statement. It is clear.</p> <p>B It is clear. It implies that I do not need to be open with my partner.</p> <p>C The idea/statement is clear to me.</p> <p>D It is clear. No problem.</p> <p>E The idea is clear and implies that I don't feel comfortable about disclosing my needs to my partner.</p> <p>F I approve of it. It indicates that I am not as open as my partner and it doesn't make me comfortable to disclose everything to them.</p>   | <p>It is clear.</p> |
| <p>10. I often wish that my partner's feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for him/her</p> | <p>ብዙ ጊዜ የትዳር/ፍቅር አጋሬ ለእኔ ያለው ስሜት ልክ እኔ ለእሱ/ሷ እንዳለኝ ስሜት ጠንካራ እንዲሆን እመኛለሁ።</p>    | <p>A<br/>B<br/>C<br/>D</p>             | <p>A It is clear. I need them to have stronger feelings, like what I do have for them.</p> <p>B It is clear! It indicates that I wish my partner would show stronger feelings to me, as I have to them.</p> <p>C It is clear. I need my partner to have similar and stronger feelings for me, as I have for them.</p> <p>D It is clear. No comment!</p>   |                     |

|    |   |   |   |
|----|---|---|---|
|    |   | E | It is clear to me. I have a good feeling towards them. At the same time, I need them to have the same.                                    |
|    |   | F | It is not a clear statement to me.  |
| 11 | የትዳር/ፍቅር አጋሬን መቅረብ እፈልጋለሁኝ፤ ግን እራሴን ማራቁን ቀጥያለሁኝ | A | I need to approach them. But due to different reasons, I couldn't do so.  |
|    |   | B | I need to approach them, but still I am not open and I distance myself.   |
|    |   | C | I want to be closer and approach them. But I kept distancing myself from them.  |
|    |   | D | It is clear. I want to approach them, but I distance myself.  |
|    |   | E | It is clear. I understand that both of us do not have similar feelings. Even though I want to approach them, I distance myself from them. |
|    |   | F | It seems unclear. The person wants to approach but at the same time distances themselves in the relationship.                             |

|   |                                    |   |   |
|---|------------------------------------|---|---|
| 18. I need a lot of reassurance that I am loved by my partner | ብዙውን ጊዜ በአጋሬ እንደሚፈቀር ማረጋገጫ እፈልጋለሁኝ | A | It is clear. It indicates that I need verbal and practical justification about their love for me. |
|   |                                    | B | The statement is clear. I need reassurance that indicates they love me.                           |
|   |                                    | C | It is clear. I accept it as it is.  |
|   |                                    | D | It is clear. I need my partner to show me their love for me.                                      |
|   |                                    | E | It is clear. It means that I need more reassurance about their love for me.                       |
|   |                                    | F | It is clear. If possible, my partner should show me assurance.                                    |

|                             |   |   |  |
|-----------------------------|---|---|--|
| 20. Sometimes I feel that I | አንዳንዴ የፍቅር ዳደኛዬን / አጋሬ የተሻለ ስሜትና ቁርጠኝነት | A | It seems vague to me. It needs some modification. It indicates that I need them to have positive emotional feelings and a good position. |
|-----------------------------|---|---|--|

ለእኔ ያለውን የተሻለ ስሜትና ቁርጠኝነት እንድናረጋግጥ

force my partner to show more feeling, more commitment

እንደያሳየኝ/እንደታሳየኝ የማስገድድ ይመስለኛል

B

It is not clear. I should be corrected. I suggest avoiding the word ቁርጠኝነት; it should be discarded.

C

Good. But The word ቁርጠኝነት should be substituted with አቋም. Similarly, the word ማስገድድ seems a forceful rule of law.

D

It means that I need them to show me better love and feelings. It is good and has no problem.

E

It is clear.

F

It is not clear.

እፈልጋለሁኝ የተሸለ የፍቅር ስሜት.....

አንዳንዴ አጋሬየተሻለ ስሜትና ግልፅኝነት እንደያሳየኝ የማስገድድ ይመስለኛል

23. I prefer not to be too close to my relationship partner

የትዳር/ፍቅር አጋሬን በጣም መቅረብ አልፈልግም

A

It is clear. It indicates that I don't want to be very open.

B

It is clear. No need of modification.

C

It is clear that this person has some reason not to be very close and open for others.

D

It is clear. It indicates that there is fear in the relationship.

E

The statement is clear. It indicates they don't like me.

F

The statement is clear. It indicates we do not have a good relationship.

31. I don't mind asking my partner for comfort, advice, or help

አጋሬን ስለምቸት፤ምክር እና እገዛ መጠየቅ ብዙም አይገደኝም

A

It is a clear statement.

B

I am not clear about the word “አይገደኝም” Substitute it with “አልፈልግም”.

C

The idea is clear.

D

The statement is clear. But I suggest the removal of the word

ባልጠይቃትም ችግር

33. It helps to turn to my relationship partner in times of need

ባስፈለገኝ ጊዜ ወደ አጋሬ ግንኙነት መመለስ ጠቀሜታ አለው

- “አይገደኝም”.
- E It is clear. But I suggest the substitution of the word “አይገደኝም”.
- F I do not need their support. It is clear.
- A This statement is not clear. I suggest the following ባስፈለገኝ ጊዜ ከአጋሬ ጋር ያለኝን ግንኙነት ማደስ ጠቀሜታ አለው
- B This statement is not clear and needs restatement. What do they need? It is not clear. What is needed?
- C It is not clear to me. The word ባስፈለገኝ ጊዜ is vague to me.
- D It is clear. But I suggest substitution /improvement of the word/phrase ባስፈለገኝ ጊዜ “with another phrase.
- E It is clear. Take it as it is.
- F It is clear. Whenever it is needed, we can continue our relationship.

- የለውም ቢባል
- ቦታ አልሰጠውም
- ባስፈለገኝ ጊዜ ከአጋሬ ጋር ያለኝን ግንኙነት ማደስ ጠቀሜታ አለው
- መቀራረብ ባስፈለገኝ ጊዜ ወደአጋሬ ግንኙነት መመለስ ጠቀሜታ አለው
- ከተጋጨን/ከተጣለን ቦኋላ ወደ አጋሬ መመለስ ጠቀሜታ አለው
- ወደ እራሴ በተመለስኩ ጊዜ.....

### C) Items from Conflict Resolution Styles: the Conflict Inventory (CI-R)

Like the previous scale, the instructions and those items that had been debated and raised divergent ideas during the translation process, were identified and presented for cognitive interviewing. Table 5.5 summarizes the challenging items and their different translation options across the translation process.

**Table 5. 5:**

*Amharic Translations in CI Scale That Required Piloting*

| Item        | Original English                              | Translator A                   | Translator B               |
|-------------|---|--------------------------------|----------------------------|
| Instruction | QUESTIONNAIRE ABOUT CONFLICT IN RELATIONSHIPS | በጓደኝነት ውስጥ ስለሚከሰቱ ግጭቶች መጠይቅ    | በግንኙነት ውስጥ ስለላለው ግጭት መጠይቅ  |
| Choices     |   | 2. ከሰንት ጊዜ አንዴ                 | በጥቂቱ                       |
| 11          | Feel close to you after conflict              | ከግጭት በኋላ ከእኔ ጋር ቅርብነት ይሰማዋል/ታል | ከግጭት በኋላ ለትዳር አጋር ቅርብ የመሆን |
| 13          | Keep distant                                  | ለመራቅ ይሞክራል/ ትሞክራለች             | ርቀትን መጠብቅ                  |
| 15          | Threaten                                      | ያስፈራራል/ታስፈራራለች                 | ዛቻ                         |
| 16          | Protest by remaining silent                   | ዝም በማለት ቅሬታውን ያሳያል/ታሳያለች       | በዝምታ መቃወሙ                  |

The results from the cognitive interviews are discussed below and summarized in Table 5.6. The respondents suggested the replacement of the word “ግጭት” (*conflict*) with “አለመግባባት” (*disagreement*) and the use of “disagreement” instead of “conflict” between partners in their relationship. This aligns with the original theme of the questionnaire and the statement “በትዳር/ፍቅር ግንኙነት ውስጥ የሚፈጠር አለመግባባት መለክዎ መጠይቅ” (*betidaar/fikir ginignunet wust yemifeter alemegbabat melekiya meteyik*) was used in final Amharic translation.

For item #11 of the scale which states “*Feel close to partner after conflict*”, the translated Amharic version “ከግጭት/አለመግባባት በኋላ አጋሬን የመቅረብ ስሜት አለኝ” was presented to the participants to reflect on their reactions and understanding of the statement and suggest their

recommendation for further improvement. All respondents approved the clarity of the statement and suggested the use of some words to minimise the sensitivity of the statement. For instance, respondent “A” suggested the use of “ከተጣለን በኋላ አጋሬን የመቅረብ ሁኔታ አለኝ” which literally means “*after dispute, I have the feeling to get closer to my partner*”. Others suggested words, such as “ግጭት” and “ፀገ” may have a more negative connotation, such as becoming enemies and fighting with each other. Finally the statement “ከተጣለን በኋላ አጋሬን የመቅረብ ሁኔታ አለኝ” was decided on for the final version.

Item #13 in the original version was another debated statement during the translation process. “*Keep distant*” was translated and presented as “አጋሬን ለመራቅ እሞክራለሁ” for the participants. The participants agreed that the concept is about the continuation of distancing the self from their partner, after a conflict. Among the suggested statements and words, the Amharic phrase “ከተጣለን በኋላ እራሴን ማራቅ እቀጥላለሁኝ” was decided on because of its clarity and directness.

Item #15 of the scale states “*Threaten*” and its Amharic translated version was “አስፈራራለሁ”. All respondents agreed to use it as it was agreed that this word choice clarified the statement.

Item #16 of the questionnaire states “*I protest by remaining silent*”. Its equivalent Amharic translation is “ተቃዋሚዬን በዝምታ እገልጻለሁኝ”. This was presented to participants to reflect on regarding their understanding and sensitivity of the statement, and about its clarity. There was some discussion about the sentence arrangement for this item. The suggested statement by respondent “A” which states “ከተጣለን/ከተጋጨን በኋላ ቅሬታዬን በዝምታ እገልጻለሁኝ”

appeared simpler and clearer in meaning. Therefore, it was used for the final version of the questionnaire. The results from the cognitive interviews for this scale are summarized in Table 5.6.

**Table 5.6:**

*Response and Reaction of Cognitive Interviewees on the CI Items*

| Item no./instruction on conflict in relationships questionnaire | Question in English and Amharic (as suggested by panelists during translation process) | Code of interviewee | Answer and reaction<br>Response/reactions/understandings   | Suggestion for improvement              |
|---|--|---------------------|--|---|
| Instruction/ conceptual understanding                           | What do you understand about conflict in a romantic relationship? What do you suggest? | A                   | It is disagreement between partners. Instead of saying conflict I prefer to say “disagreement”/ “አለመግባባት” instead of “ግጭት”.          | <i>በትዳር/ፍቅር ግንኙነት ውስጥ የሚፈጠር አለመግባባት</i> |
|   | በግንኙነት ውስጥ ስላለ ግጭት ማለት ምን ማለት ነው?  | B                   | For me, it is the discrepancy of need/interest between the two parties.  |   |
|   | ስለአገላለፁ ማሻሻያ አለሁ/ሽ?  | C                   | It is common. But I prefer to say “Disagreement” (“አለመግባባት”) instead of “conflict” since the latter has a more negative connotation. | <i>በትዳር/ፍቅር ግንኙነት ውስጥ የሚፈጠር አለመግባባት</i> |
|   | ከሚከተሉት አማራጮች የትኛውን ያፀድቃሉ?  | D                   | I prefer to use the word “Disagreement” instead of conflict.   | <i>በትዳር/ፍቅር ግንኙነት ውስጥ የሚፈጠር አለመግባባት</i> |
|   | ሀ) በዳይኝነት ውስጥ ስለሚከሰቱ ግጭቶች መጠይቅ   | E                   | It is common, but I prefer to use “disagreement”/ “አለመግባባት”.   |   |
|   | ለ) በግንኙነት ውስጥ ስላለው ግጭት መጠይቅ  | F                   | Conflict means disagreement/“አለመግባባት”  | <i>በትዳር/ፍቅር ግንኙነት ውስጥ የሚፈጠር አለመግባባት</i> |
| 11. Feel close to partner after conflict                        | ከግጭት/አለመግባባት በሃላ አጋሬን የመቅረብ ስሜት አለኝ  | A                   | It is clear, but it needs some modification and change of words.<br><br>This means, I will be back to my former feeling, after       | <i>ከተጣላን በኋላ አጋሬን የመቅረብ ሁኔታ አለኝ</i>     |

|                  |                      |   |  |                         |
|------------------|----------------------|---|--|-------------------------|
|                  |                      |   | the conflict happened between us.  |                         |
|                  |                      | B | The idea is clear, but needs some modification. I suggest the word የፍቅር ጥል instead of saying ግጭት.                  |                         |
|                  |                      | C | It is clear and understandable. It indicates that after conflict, I prefer to approach and get closer to him.      |                         |
|                  |                      | D | It is clear. It indicates getting closer after conflict. I suggest the use of the phrase “ከግጭት በኋላ የመራረብ ስሜት አለኝ”. |                         |
|                  |                      | E | I prefer to use the word “ፀብ” instead of ግጭት.<br><br>This indicates no agreement was reached.                      | ከፀብ በኋላ                 |
|                  |                      | F | It is clear. If there is a good relationship, I will continue to have good feelings.                               |                         |
| 13. Keep distant | 13. አጋፊን ለመራቅ እሞክራለሁ | A | After conflict, they continued distancing themselves from me.  | ከተጣላን በኋላ ከእኔ መራቁን ቀጥሏል |
|                  |                      | B | I prefer to use የፍቅር ጥል instead of ግጭት   |                         |
|                  |                      | C | It is clear, but I prefer to substitute the word ርቀቱን/distance with “እራሴን ማራቅ” ቀጥያለሁኝ                              |                         |
|                  |                      | D | This means that I prefer to continue distancing myself and take umbrage at them.                                   |                         |
|                  |                      | E | Clear. Use it as it is.  |                         |
|                  |                      | F | It is clear! After disagreement, I will continue to distance myself.   |                         |
| 15. Threaten     | 15. አስፈራራለሁ          | A | The statement is clear. No need for any change.  |                         |
|                  |                      | B | It is fine and clear.  |                         |
|                  |                      | C | It is clear and use it as it is.   |                         |

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|                                 |                         |   |   |                                   |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------|---|---|-----------------------------------|
| 16. Protest by remaining silent | 16. ተቃዋሚነት በዝምታ እንልግለሁኝ | D<br>E<br>F<br>A<br>B<br>C<br>D<br>E<br>F | <p>Clear!</p> <p>No problem</p> <p>It is clear. This indicates acts of intimidation.</p> <p>The content and message are clear. But, it needs rearaangement of the statement.</p> <p>I prefer to use የፍቅር ጥል instead of ግጭት</p> <p>Clear. Use it as it is stated.</p> <p>Clear. It means that I express my opposition with silence.</p> <p>No problem. It is clear.</p> <p>It is clear. It means that after the conflict I will continue sending my message by being in silent mode.</p> | ከግጭት/ጥል በኋላ ቅሬታውን በዝምታ ይገልጻል/ያሳያል |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------|---|---|-----------------------------------|

**A) Items from the Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS)**

In order to clarify the conceptual understanding of the title, three options that were discussed during the translation process by forward translators and suggested by the committee were presented for cognitive interviewing. In addition, Item # 5 which stated “*My relationship meets my original expectations*” was highlighted for further discussion in the cognitive interviews. The challenging items and their different translation options across the translation process are summarized in Table 5.7.

**Table 5.7:**

*Amharic Translations in RAS That Required Piloting (As Identified By Experts)*

| S/N         | Original English                               | Translator A                      | Translator B              | Agreed by all parties during the discussion | Suggested by Experts                 |
|-------------|--|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|---|--------------------------------------|
| Instruction | RELATIONSHIP ASSESSMENT SCALE                  | የግንኙነት መመዘኛ                       | የግንኙነትን ሁኔታ መለኪያ          | የትዳር/ፍቅር ግንኙነት ሁኔታ መመዘኛ                     | የግንኙነት ሁኔታ መመዘኛ                      |
| choices     | Strongly Disagree                              | 1.በጣም አልስማማም                      | 1.ሙሉ በሙሉ አልስማማም           | 1. በጣም አልስማማም                               | 1. በጣም አልስማማም                        |
|             | Disagree                                       | 2.አልስማማም                          | 2.በጣም አልስማማም              | 2. አልስማማም                                   | 2. አልስማማም                            |
|             | Slightly Disagree                              | 3.በጥቂቱ አልስማማም                     | 3.የበልጥ አልስማማም             | 3. በጥቂቱ አልስማማም                              | 2. አልስማማም                            |
|             | Neither Agree or Disagree                      | 4.እስማማለሁ-መመ አልስማማምም               | 4.ለመወሰን እቸገራለሁ            | 4. ለመወሰን እቸገራለሁኝ                            | 3. በጥቂቱ አልስማማም                       |
|             | Slightly Agree                                 | 5.በጥቂቱ እስማማለሁ                     | 5.የበልጥ እስማማለሁ             | 5. በጥቂቱ እስማማለሁ                              | 4. ለመወሰን እቸገራለሁኝ                     |
|             | Agree  | 6.እስማማለሁ                          | 6.በመጠኑ እስማማለሁ             | 6. እስማማለሁ                                   | 5. በጥቂቱ እስማማለሁ                       |
|             | Strongly Agree                                 | 7.በጣም እስማማለሁ                      | 7.ሙሉ በሙሉ እስማማለሁ           | 7. በጣም እስማማለሁ                               | 6. እስማማለሁ                            |
|             |  |                                   |                           |   | 7. በጣም እስማማለሁ                        |
| 5           | My relationship meets my original expectations | ግንኙነቴ በፊት እጠብቅው ከነበረው ጋር የሚጣጣም ነው | በ ግንኙነቴ መሰረታዊ ፍላጎቶቼ ይሟላል። | ይህ ግንኙነቴ መጀመሪያ ካሰብኩት ሀሳቤ ጋር የተጣጣመ ነው        | ይህ ግንኙነቴ መጀመሪያ ካሰብኩት ሀሳቤ ጋር የተጣጣመ ነው |

The CI participants approved of the third Amharic option for the title of this scale, which states “የትዳር/ፍቅር ግንኙነት ሁኔታ መመዘኛ” (*Ytidar/fikir ginignunat huneta memezegna*). Concerning item #5 which states “*My relationship meets my original expectations*”; its equivalent Amharic translation: “ይህ ግንኙነት መጀመሪያ ካሰብኩት ሀሳቤ ጋር የተጣጣመ ነጩ።” (“*Yih ginignunate mejemeriya kasbekute hasabe gaar yetetatame newu*”), was presented to the participants to reflect on their reactions, identify ambiguity, offensive or idiomatic words or phrases, and suggest improvements. Accordingly, all participants agreed with the statement, and two participants forwarded a suggestion to improve the clarity and simplicity of the statement. They understood that the statement was about congruence of prior expectations and current, actual experiences in their romantic relationships. Both suggestions were similar in content but the second one was shorter and clearer for the reader so was selected for the final questionnaire. The results from the cognitive interviews are summarized in Table 5.8.

**Table 5.8:**

*Response and Reaction of Cognitive Interviewees on the RAS Items*

| Item no. on RAS questionnaire                     | Question in English and Amharic (as suggested by panelists during translation process) | Code of interviewee | Answer and reaction  | Suggestion for improvement   |
|---|--|---------------------|--|--|
|   |  |                     | Response   |  |
| Instruction/ Conceptual understanding             | RELATIONSHIP ASSESSMENT SCALE  | A                   | I approve of the third one since it is clearly understandable and self-explanatory.                      |  |
|   |  | B                   | I approve of the third option since it is holistic.  |  |
|   | Which statement do you approve of?   | C                   | I approve of the last option since is inclusive.   |  |
|   |  | D                   | I approve of the third option.   |  |
|   | a. የግንኙነት መመዘኛ   | E                   | I approve of the last option, since it is broader and more inclusive.                                    |  |
|   | b. የግንኙነትን ሁኔታ መለኪያ  | F                   | The third option is more meaningful and inclusive. I approve of it.                                      |  |
|   | c. የትዳር/ፍቅር ግንኙነት ሁኔታ መመዘኛ   |                     |  |  |
| 5. My relationship meets my original expectations | 5. ይህ ግንኙነቴ መጀመሪያ ካሰብኩት ሀሳቤ ጋር የተጣጣመ ነዉ. ::  | A                   | It indicates congruence of my prior assumption and current actual experience.                            | My suggestion is<br>የአሁኑ ግንኙነቴ ይኖረኛል ብዬ ካሰብኩት የፍቅር ግንኙነት ሁኔታ ጋር የተጣጣመ ነዉ ቢባል:: |
|   |  | B                   | It is understandable, but I suggest some modification.   | የአሁኑ የፍቅር ግንኙነቴ መጀመሪያ ካሰብኩት ጋር የተጣጣመ ነዉ::                                      |
|   |  | C                   | It means my prior assumption is aligned with my current romantic relationship.                           |  |
|   |  | D                   | My current romantic relationship matched my previous assumption.   |  |
|   |  | E                   | My current romantic relationship matched my expectation.   |  |
|   |  | F                   | It is clear. It means that what I thought before my relationship matches my current actual relationship. |  |

**A) Composite Abuse Scale Revised-Short Form (CASR-SF)**

The intention of this scale is to assess the prevalence of different types of IPV. It has 16 items. The instruction and all the items were translated into Amharic. Like other tools discussed above, those items which were debated, were selected for cognitive interviewing. Table 5.9 summarizes the challenging items and their different translation options across the translation process.

**Table 5.9:**

*Amharic Translations in CASR-SF That Required Piloting*

| S/N   | Original English   | Translator A  | Translator B  |
|-------|--|---|---|
| Title | Composite Abuse Scale Revised  | <u>የተለያዩ ውስብስብ ጥቃቶች የሚያሳይ የመለኪያ ጥናት</u>                             | የተለያዩ ጥቃቶችን መለኪያ መጠይቅ   |
| 4     | Have you ever been afraid of any partner?  | መናቸውንም የትዳር/ፍቅር አጋርዎን ፈርተው ያዉቃሉ?                                    | ጾታዊ ጉንኝነትን ፈርተው ያዉቃሉ?   |
| 1     | Shook, pushed, grabbed or threw me   | .ትኩር ብሎ ያየኛል፤ይገፈትረኛል፤ያመነ ጭቀኛል                                       | አስደነገጠኝ፣ ገፋኝ፣ ወረወረኝ።  |
| 2     | Tried to convince my family, children or friends that I am crazy or tried to turn them against me                | .እንደማልረባ/ችግር እንዳለብኝ ቤተሰቤን፤ልጆቼን ወይም ጓደኞቼን በማሳመን ከእኔ ተቃራኒ እንድሆኑ ያደርጋል | የአዕምሮ ጤንነቴ ልክ እንዳልሆነ እና በእኔ ተቃራኒ እንዲቆሙ ቤተሰቤን፣ ልጆቼን እንዲሁም ጉደኞቼን ሊያሳምናቸው ሞከረ    |
| 11    | Hit me with a fist or object, kicked or bit me   | .በቡጢ ወይም በተገኘ ቁሳቁስ መትቶኛል ወይም በእርጊጫ/ ካልቸ መትቶኛል።                      | በቡጢ ወይም በዕቃ መታኝ ፣ ገረፈኝ ወይም ነከሰኝ።  |
| 13    | Confined or locked me in a room or other space   | . በአንድ ቦታ አግቶኛል ወይም አንድ ክፍል ውስጥ ቆልፎብኛል                              | ክፍል ውስጥ ወይም ሌላ ቦታ ውስጥ ዘጋብኝ ወይም ቆለፈብኝ  |
| 14    | Kept me from having access to a job, money or financial resources  | . ስራ፣ ገንዘብና ገንዘብ እንዳላገኝ አድርጎኛል                                      | ሥራ፣ ገንዘብ ወይም የገንዘብ ምንጭ እንዳይኖረኝ አድርጎኛል።  |
| 15    | Blamed me for causing their violent behaviour  | ለተፈጠረ ጠባጫሪ ባህሪ እኔን ተጠያቂ ያደርገኛል                                      | ለመጥፎ ባህሪያቸው እኔን ተወቃሽ ያደርገኛል   |
| 16    | Made comments about my sexual past or my sexual performance that made me feel ashamed, inadequate or humiliated. | የባለፈ የወሲብ ታሪኬንና የወሲብ ግንኙነት ብቃቴን በማንሳት እንደሸማቀቅና እንዳፍር ያደርገኛል         | ስለ ነበረኝ የግብረ-ሥጋ ግንኙነት ሂወቴ ብቁ እንዳልሆንኩ እንዲሁም ሃፍረትና የበታቸነት እንዲሰማኝ አስተያየቶችን ሰጥቷል። |

This particular scale raised many discussions during the translation process, because of the sensitivity of the focus on IPV and the need for cultural sensitivity in shaping the Amharic translations to avoid unnecessary distress and an anxious reaction from the respondents.

To clarify conceptual understanding, the translated version of the original statement “*Composite Abuse*” was presented with two options, as translated by forward translators. Half the participants approved the first option which stated “*የተለያዩ ጥቃቶች*” (*yeteleyayu tikatoch*). The other 3 favoured the statement “*የተለያዩ ዉስጠስጠጥ ጥቃቶች*” (*Yeteleyayu wusibsib tiqatoch*). From the descriptions, it could be inferred that the first statement is more specific and indicates different types of abuse. The second one is a broader description and indicates the complex nature of abuse. Thus, this research selected the second option since it is inclusive, general and indicates the complex nature of abuse. Thus, the title of the scale was finalized as “*የተለያዩ ዉስጠስጠጥ ጥቃቶች መለኪያ መጠይቅ*” (*yeteleyayu wusibsib tiqatoch melekiya meteyiq*).

From the list of items for discussion, item #1 stated “*Shook, pushed, grabbed or threw me*” and its equivalent Amharic version “*ትኩር ብሎ ይመለከተኛል፤ ይገፋኛል፤ ያመናጭቀኛል ወይም ይወረወረኛል።*” (*tikur bilo yimeleketegnal, yegefagnal, yamanachiqegnal, woyim yiworewuregnal*) was presented for cognitive interviewing. Participants recommended the modification of the phrase “*ትኩር ብሎ ይመለከተኛል*” with another word/phrase that was indicative of abuse, such as “*ያፈጥጥኛል*” (“stare threateningly”). Therefore, the statement “*ያፈጥጥኛል፤ ይገፋኛል፤ ያመናጭቀኛል ወይም ይወረወረኛል*” (*yafatibignal, yigefetiregnal, yamenachiqegnal woyim yiworawuregnal*) was selected for the final version of the Amharic tool.

With regards to item #2 which states “*Tried to convince my family, children or friends that I am crazy or tried to turn them against me*” the equivalent statement in Amharic is “*እብይ/የማልረባ አድርጎ በማቅረብ በእኔ ተቃራኒ እንዲቆሙ ቤተሰቤን፣ ልጆቼን እንዲሁም ጓደኞቼን ሊያሳምናቸው ይሞክራል/ራለች።*”. Most participants reported that the word “*እብይ(የአእምሮ በሽተኛ)*” is a sensitive and offensive term. Thus, the participants suggested a replacement or modification of this word (phrase). The word “*እብይ(የአእምሮ በሽተኛ)*” indicates mental illness and madness; therefore, it is an offensive statement. Considering this suggestion, the statement was modified as “*የማልረባ አድርጎ በማቅረብ በእኔ ተቃራኒ እንዲቆሙ ቤተሰቤን፣ ልጆቼን እንዲሁም ጓደኞቼን ሊያሳምናቸው ይሞክራል/ራለች።*” (*yemalreba adrigo bemaqreb be ine teqarani indiqomu beteseben, lijochen, indihum guadegnochen liyasaminachew/litasaminachew yimokiral/timokiralech*) for the final version.

Item #11, which stated “*Hit me with a fist or object, kicked or bit me*” in the original English version was translated as “*በበክስ ወይም በተገኙ ቁሳቁሶች ይመታኛል/ትመታኛለች።*” (*be boks woyim betegegne qusaqus yimetagnal/timatagnalech*). All respondents agreed with the directness and clarity of the statement, but suggested the removal or modification of the word “*በበክስ*” (*be boks*) with “*በቡጢ*” (*be buti*). Finally, the statement “*በቡጢ ወይም በተገኙ ቁሳቁሶች ይመታኛል/ትመታኛለች።*” (*be buti woyim betegegne qusaqus yimetagnal/timatagnalech*) was selected for the final version.

With item #13 that stated “*Confined or locked me in a room or other space*” the equivalent Amharic version “*መኝታ ክፍል ውስጥ አግቶኛል /ቆልፎብኛል።*” (*Megnita kifil wusiti agitognal/qolifobignal*) was presented to participants. All participants agreed with the simplicity,

directness and clarity of the statement. Nevertheless, there were suggestions, such as instead of saying “መኝታ ክፍል” (*mgnita kifil*), it was better to replace it with “ቤት ዉስጥ...” (*bet wust*) since the former was specific and the latter, more inclusive. Another suggestion was the replacement of the word “...አግቶኛል(*agitognal*)...” with “.....ቆልፎብኛል (*qolifobignal*)”. As per these suggestions and modifications, the final statement was written as “መኝታ ክፍል ዉስጥ ቆልፎብኛል” (*magnita kifil wusti qolifobignal*) for the final version.

As far as item #14 was concerned, the original statement was “*Kept me from having access to a job, money or financial resources*”. Its equivalent Amharic version was “ሥራ፣ ገንዘብ ወይም የገንዘብ ምንጭ እንዳይኖረኝ አድርገኛል/ኛለች።” (*sira, genzeb woyim yegenzeb minch indaynoragn adrigongal*). All participants agreed with the statement without any comments or suggestions. Thus, the statement was used as is for the final version.

Item #15 which stated “*Blamed me for causing their violent behaviour*” was translated as “ለተፈጠረ ጠባጭሪ ባህሪ እኔን ተጠያቂ ያደርገኛል/ታደርገኛለች።” (*letefetere tebachari bahiri inen teteyaki yadergal/taderggnalach*) by forward translators. The participants agreed with the clarity, directness and comprehensiveness of the statement, but suggested the replacement of a sensitive word, such as “ጠባጭሪ” with “ያልተገባ ባህሪ”. Finally, the statement “ለተፈጠረ ያልተገባ ባህሪ እኔን ተጠያቂ ያደርገኛል/ታደርገኛለች።” (*letefetere yaletegeba bahiri inen teteyaki yadargegnal/tadergegnalech*) was used for the final version.

Item #16 stated “*Made comments about my sexual past or my sexual performance that made me feel ashamed, inadequate or humiliated*”. The equivalent Amharic version “ስላለፈዉ የወሲብ ታሪኬን/ብቃቴ አስተያየት በመስጠት ያሽማቅቀኛል/ታሽማቅቀኛለች፤ እንዳፍር

ያደርገኛል/ታደርገኛለች።” was presented to participants for comments and suggestions. All participants showed their approval of the statement. However, participant “B” suggested the modification of the statement to reduce its sensitivity. Accordingly, the participant suggested the replacement of the statement “ስላላፈዉ የወሲብ ታሪኬ/ብቃቴ” with “ስላላፈዉ የፍቅር ግንኙነት”. Thus, the final modified statement “ስላላፈዉ የፍቅር ግንኙነቴ አስተያየት በመስጠት ያሽማቅቀኛል/ታሽማቅቀኛለች፤ እንዳፍር ያደርገኛል/ታደርገኛለች።” was used for the final version. These results are summarised in Table 5.10 below.

**Table 5.10:**

*Response and Reaction of Cognitive Interviewees on the CASR-SF Items*

| Item on CASR-SF Composite Scale       | Question in English and Amharic (as suggested by panelists during the translation process) | Code of interviewee                 | Answer and reaction  | Suggestion for improvement |   |
|---------------------------------------|--|-------------------------------------|--|----------------------------|---|
| Instruction/ Conceptual understanding | Which statement is clear easily understood and which you approve of?                       | A                                   | I approve of the first one, since it indicates different types of abuse. But the composite one indicates complex abuse.  |                            |   |
|                                       |  | B                                   | I approve of the first one which indicates different types of abuse.   |                            |   |
|                                       |  | C                                   | I approve of the second one, because abuses can be visible or non-visible.   |                            |   |
|                                       |  | a) የተለያዩ ጥቃቶችን መለክቻ መጠይቅ-(አጥሮ የቀረበ) | D  |                            | I approve of the second option because it is an inclusive term.   |
|                                       |  | E                                   | I approve of the first one, because the word composite (ዉስብስብ) is not clear.   |                            |   |
|                                       |  | b) የተለያዩ ዉስብስብ ጥቃቶችን መለክቻ መጠይቅ.     | F  |                            | I approve of the second one, since the word “composit (ዉስብስብ)”is inclusive and describes many things at a time. |
| 1. Shook, pushed, grabbed or threw me | ትኩረ ብሎ ይመለከተኛል፤ ይገፋኛል፤ ያመነጭቀኛል ወይም ይወረወረኛል።  | A                                   | The word “አፍጥጥ” refers to a negative connotation.  |                            |   |
|                                       |  | B                                   | I recommend the word “አፍጥጥ” should be replaced with “ይገለጭጠኛል”.   |                            |   |
|                                       |  | C                                   | The statement is clear. The word “ትኩረ ብሎ ያየኛል” should be replaced with “አፍጥጥ” that indicates negative implication of the relationship.                                     |                            |   |
|                                       |  | D                                   | It is clear!   |                            |   |
|                                       |  | E                                   | It is clear, but some words are sensitive. So, replace the word “ትኩረ ብሎ ይመለከተኛል” with “ያፈጥብኛል” because, it indicates the negative aspect of the interaction/communication. |                            |   |
|                                       |  | F                                   | It is clear and well understood!   |                            |   |

|  |                             |   |  |
|--|-----------------------------|---|--|
| 2. Tried to convince my family, children or friends that I am crazy or tried to turn them against me | እብድ/የማልረባ አድርጎ              | A | The word “የአእምሮ ህመምተኛ” indicates undermining others.   |
|  | በማቅረብ በእኔ ተቃራኒ እንዲቆሙ ቤተሰቤን፣ | B | The word “ እብድ” is sensitive and it indicates undermining others.  |
|  | ልጆቼን እንዲሁም ጓደኞቼን ሊያሳምናቸው    | C | The statement is clear and understandable.   |
|  | ይሞክራል/ራላች።                  | D | I suggest a replacement of the word “እብድ” with “አእምሮ ህመምተኛ”  |
|  |                             | E | It is clear and can be used.   |
|  |                             | F | It is clear, but the word “እብድ“ is sensitive and need to be replaced with the phrase “የአእምሮ ታማሚ”   |
| 11. Hit me with a fist or object, kicked or bit me   | በቡጢ ወይም በተገኙ ቁሳቁሶች          | A | It is clear!   |
|  | ይመታኛል/ትመታኛለች።               | B | Clear  |
|  |                             | C | I suggest the word “ በቦክስ” should be replaced with “ቡጢ”  |
|  |                             | D | It is clear!   |
|  |                             | E | It is clear and has no problem. It can be used as it is.   |
|  |                             | F | Clear and can be understood easily.  |
| 13. Confined or locked me in a room or other space   | ክፍል ዉስጥ                     | A | It is clear!   |
|  | አግቶኛል                       | B | Clear  |
|  | /ቆልፎብኛል።                    | C | It is clear. But I suggest replacement of the word “መኝታ ክፍል” with “ቤት ዉስጥ“   |
|  |                             | D | It is clear!   |
|  |                             | E | It is clear, but needs some modification. Some words are sensitive. For instance, the word “አግቶኛል” is applicable but better to use only cattle. So, “ቆልፎብኛል/ዘግቶብኛል”. |
|  |                             | F | Clear and well understood.   |
| 14. Kept me from   | ሥራ፣ ገንዘብ ወይም የገንዘብ          | A | It is clear!   |

|  |   |  |   |
|--|---|--|---|
| having access to a job, money or financial resources   | ምንጭ እንዳይኖረኝ አድርጎኛል።   | B  | Clear   |
|  |   | C  | It is clear and has no problem.   |
|  |   | D  | It is not ambiguous. It is clear.   |
|  |   | E  | No problem. This is a clear statement.  |
|  |   | F  | Clear and direct statement!   |
|  |   | 15. Blamed me for causing their violent behavior | ለተፈጠረ ጠባጭሪ ባህሪ እኔን ተጠያቂ ያደርገኛል/ታደርገኛለች።   |
| B  | Clear   |  |   |
| C  | No problem. It is clear.  |  |   |
| D  | I suggest replacement of the word “ጠባጭሪ” with “ያልተገባ ባህሪ”                           |  |   |
| E  | It is clear. But by considering its sensitivity, replace the word “ጠባጭሪ” with “ገረኛ” |  |   |
| F  | It is clear! It means that they consider me a shrew!                                |  |   |
| 16. Made comments about my sexual past or my sexual performance that made me feel ashamed, inadequate or humiliated. | ስላላፈዉ ዋዕሲብ ታሪኬን/ብቃቴ አስተያየት በሙስጠት ያሸማቅቀኛል/ታሸማቅቀኛለች ፤ እንዳፍር ያደርገኛል/ታደርገኛለች።           | A  | Clear!  |
|  |   | B  | Replace the word “ስላላፈዉ ዋዕሲብ ታሪኬን/ብቃቴ “ with “የባላፈዉ የፍቅር ግንኙነት በማንሳት”   |
|  |   | C  | The idea is clear.  |
|  |   | D  | The idea is clear. But it is better to change the word “ወሲብ” to “የጾታ ግንኙነት” due to its sensitivity.   |
|  |   | E  | I approve it. It is clear.  |
|  |   | F  | It is clear. But some words do not match Ethiopian culture and are too sensitive. I need the withdrawal of the phrase “ስላላፋዉ የግንኙነት ታሪኬን” and the word “ ብቃት” |

#### 5.1.4 Quantitative Piloting

Having carefully qualitatively piloted the survey questionnaire in Amharic and made revisions to the translation based on participant feedback, the revised translation was then quantitatively piloted.

**Sample Participants:** The questionnaire was administered to 40 participants who were from the respective study target group and who were not participants in the main study. Participants were recruited from one of the six colleges that make up Hawassa University, a local primary and secondary school in Hawassa City. First-year students attending their undergraduate educational program at Hawassa University in the *Introduction to Psychology* course were also invited to participate. Staffs from the selected College in Hawassa were more aware of psychological concepts and had a broader representation of female academics so were asked to participate. Students, academics and teachers were invited to participate in the project through an advertisement circulated at the College and schools. Demographic information of the pilot test is presented on table 5.11 below.

**Table 5.11:***Demographic Characteristics of Pilot Test Participants*

| Variables              | Options                            | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent |
|------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|
| Occupation             | Primary school Teachers            | 10        | 25.0    | 25.0          |
|                        | Secondary school Teachers          | 10        | 25.0    | 25.0          |
|                        | University academic staff          | 10        | 25.0    | 25.0          |
|                        | First Year Students                | 10        | 25.0    | 25.0          |
|                        | Total                              | 40        | 100.0   | 100.0         |
| Sex                    | Male                               | 22        | 55.0    | 55.0          |
|                        | Female                             | 18        | 45.0    | 45.0          |
|                        | Total                              | 40        | 100.0   | 100.0         |
| Educational attainment | College Education                  | 2         | 5.0     | 5.0           |
|                        | University Education(Postgraduate) | 14        | 35.0    | 35.0          |
|                        | University Education (Graduate)    | 14        | 35.0    | 35.0          |
|                        | 1st Year University Education      | 10        | 25.0    | 25.0          |
|                        | Total                              | 40        | 100.0   | 100.0         |
| Marital status         | Single                             | 13        | 32.5    | 32.5          |
|                        | Cohabiting                         | 1         | 2.5     | 2.5           |
|                        | Married                            | 23        | 57.5    | 57.5          |
|                        | Divorced                           | 2         | 5.0     | 5.0           |
|                        | Others (eg. Remarried)             | 1         | 2.5     | 2.5           |
|                        | Total                              | 40        | 100.0   | 100.0         |
| Age                    | N=40                               |           |         |               |
|                        | Minimum =19                        |           |         |               |
|                        | Maximum =57                        |           |         |               |
|                        | Mean =32.08                        |           |         |               |

As can be seen from table 5.11, equal numbers of participants were taken from each Occupational sector. In total 55% of the sample were male and 45% female participants. The majority of the sample had completed graduate or postgraduate programmes at university level, with only 5% having achieved college education. In Ethiopia, college education holders are called diploma holders who completed grades 12 + 2 year college education or who completed Grade 10 +3year college education (FDRE, MOE, 1994). Concerning marital status, majority (57.5%) of the sample were married while 32.5% were single, 5.0% were divorced and the

remaining 5% were cohabiting or remarried. The mean age of participants was 32.08 years with a maximum of 57 years and a minimum of 19 years.

**Data collection and analysis:** Participants completed the research survey questionnaire in its translated Amharic language version. The data was analyzed for reliability using the Cronbach alpha method (Cheung, 2013). The internal reliability of the tools (total item scores and subscales of the tools) were compared with those of the original tools and properties of the Spanish translation of the same tools as conducted by Bretaña and colleagues (2019).

Validity was assessed using criterion-related validity which examines whether scores on a measure are systematically related to one or more outcomes criteria. In other words, it involves collecting evidence to determine the degree to which the performance on a measuring instrument is related to the performance on some other external measure (Ruth, 2011). Goodwin (2010) explains that criterion validity should be related meaningfully to some other measure of behavior in the study. For purposes of this study the correlations between scales were used to indicate the strength and direction of the relationship among the instruments or variables where, theoretically such a relationship would be expected. Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to indicate the strength and direction of the relationship among the instruments..

**Results:** As summarized in Table 5.12 below, internal consistency of the Amharic translations of the scales mostly fell within the acceptable range of 0.70 to 0.90 (Koo & Li, 2016). However the RAS and sub scales of CI fell below this range, and performed similarly to those of the Spanish translations of the same scales as produced by Bretaña et al. (2021). However researchers note that alphas falling between 0.5 - 0.7 can be acceptable, particularly for the translated language versions of instruments (Cheung, 2013; Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). For this reason the overall reliability coefficients for the Amharic translations of these scales were

considered acceptable enough to be used in main study where their psychometric structure would be more carefully investigated in a larger sample.

**Table 5.12:***Comparison of Internal Consistency of the Four Amharic Translations with Previous Findings*

| Name of Scale<br>(Number of Items)                                | Total (Sub Scales)<br>(Number of Items) | Cronbach Alpha[ $\alpha$ ] |                              |  |
|---|---|----------------------------|------------------------------|--|
|   |   | Amharic<br>Pilot           | Original<br>English          | Cross-cultural<br>translations (Bretaña<br>et al 2021) |
| Experiences of Close<br>Relationships (ECR) - 36<br>Items         |   | N=40                       | N=1100                       | N=350  |
|   | Anxious Attachment<br>(18 Items)        | $\alpha = 0.816$           | $\alpha = 0.91$              | $\alpha = 0.81 - 0.87$                                 |
|   | Avoidant Attachment<br>(18 Items)       | $\alpha = 0.639$           | $\alpha = 0.94$              | $\alpha = 0.85 - 0.92$                                 |
| Conflict Inventory (CI)<br>(16 Items)                             |   | N=40                       | N=346                        | N=350  |
|   | Problem-solving<br>(5 items)            | $\alpha = 0.598$           | husbands=.0.62<br>wives=0.64 | $\alpha = 0.51 - 0.70$                                 |
|   | Demanding<br>(5 items)                  | $\alpha = 0.596$           | husbands=0.66<br>wives=0.67  | $\alpha = 0.52 - 0.73$                                 |
|   | Withdrawal<br>(6 items)                 | $\alpha = 0.693$           | husbands=0.67<br>wives=0.63  | $\alpha = 0.58 - 0.89$                                 |
| Relationship Assessment<br>Scale (RAS) - 7 Items                  | 7 items                                 | N=40<br>$\alpha = 0.560$   | N=125<br>$\alpha = 0.86$     | N=350<br>$\alpha = 0.78 - 0.83$                        |
| Composite of Abuse<br>Revised -Short Form<br>(CASr_SF) - 16 Items |   | N=40                       | N=2135                       |  |
|   | 16 items                                | $\alpha = 0.951$           | $\alpha = 0.942$             |  |
|   | Physical abuse<br>(6 items)             | $\alpha = 0.881$           | $\alpha = 0.847$             |  |
|   | Psychological abuse<br>(8 items)        | $\alpha = 0.845$           | $\alpha = 0.938$             |  |
|   | Sexual abuse<br>(2 items)               | $\alpha = 0.945$           | $\alpha = 0.884$             |  |

As depicted in Table 5.13 below, in terms of criterion-related validity, the ECR is theoretically constituted of two dimensions (anxious and avoidant attachment) that are not expected to be correlated, as the two dimensions measure distinct dimensions of attachment (Wei et al., 2007). The results from the analysis of this pilot data show no significant correlation between the two dimensions ( $r=.185$ ,  $p>0.05$ ), as expected. This is compatible with the finding of Wei et al.(2007) who found a correlation between the Anxiety and Avoidance sub-scales were  $r = .19$  (12-item short version) and  $r = .17$ (36-item original version).

The CI is comprised of three conflict resolution strategies, with the demand strategy theoretically associated with more anxious attachment, and the withdrawal strategy associated with more avoidant attachment (Bretaña et al., 2020). Bretana and colleagues (2020) found that avoidance attachment dimension predicted withdrawal conflict resolution strategy, while the correlation between avoidant attachment and demand strategy was low.

Results from this pilot study show a significant moderate positive correlation between the withdrawal strategy and avoidant attachment style ( $r=0.402$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), and a negative and significant correlation between the problem-solving strategy and an avoidant attachment style ( $r=-0.355$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), which aligns theoretically with the literature (Adrija & Vignaanth, 2024). The results do not demonstrate a correlational between the demand strategy and anxious attachment ( $r=0.269$ ,  $p>0.05$ ), which could speak to some problems with the validity of this demand subscale, although the sample was very small and the performance of the tool in a larger sample would provide more clarity on its meaning and value in the local context. There is also a strong positive correlation between the withdrawal and demand subscales ( $r=0.503$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). This finding aligns with that of Bretaña et al. (2021).

**Table 5.13:***Correlations Within and Across the Scales of the Four Amharic Translations*

|                             |                     | Correlations |      |       |       |       |      |   |
|-----------------------------|---------------------|--------------|------|-------|-------|-------|------|---|
|                             |                     | 1            | 2    | 3     | 4     | 5     | 6    | 7 |
| ECR: Avoid Attachment (1)   | Pearson Correlation | 1            |      |       |       |       |      |   |
|                             | Sig. (2-tailed)     |              |      |       |       |       |      |   |
| ECR: Anxious Attachment (2) | Pearson Correlation | .185         | 1    |       |       |       |      |   |
|                             | Sig. (2-tailed)     | .254         |      |       |       |       |      |   |
| CI: Problem-solving (3)     | Pearson Correlation | -.355*       | .042 | 1     |       |       |      |   |
|                             | Sig. (2-tailed)     | .024         | .797 |       |       |       |      |   |
| CI: Demanding (4)           | Pearson Correlation | .232         | .269 | -.002 | 1     |       |      |   |
|                             | Sig. (2-tailed)     | .149         | .093 | .989  |       |       |      |   |
| CI: Withdrawal (5)          | Pearson Correlation | .402*        | .302 | .076  | .503* | 1     |      |   |
|                             | Sig. (2-tailed)     | .010         | .058 | .640  | .001  |       |      |   |
| RAS (6)                     | Pearson Correlation | -.143        | .081 | .128  | -.206 | -.083 | 1    |   |
|                             | Sig. (2-tailed)     | .378         | .618 | .430  | .202  | .612  |      |   |
| CASR-SF(7)                  | Pearson Correlation | .013         | .193 | -.060 | -.013 | -.244 | .142 | 1 |
|                             | Sig. (2-tailed)     | .937         | .233 | .711  | .935  | .130  | .383 |   |

\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

\*\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The RAS should theoretically correlate positively with adaptive conflict resolution strategies like problem solving, and negatively correlate with less adaptive strategies like withdrawal and demand, as well as IPV as measured by the CASR-SF. However results from the pilot show no significant associations between these tools. This may speak to problems with the validity of the RAS and CASR-SF, although the sample was very small and the performance of these tools in a larger sample would provide more clarity.

## SUMMARY

In summary, this chapter has described the process of translating the survey questionnaire in this study into Amharic. The chapter described a 4-stage translation design that included forward and back-translation utilizing committee approaches to synthesize the resultant translations, qualitative piloting drawing using cognitive interviews and quantitative piloting in a sample of 40 participants. The results of these piloting processes suggest some good initial evidence of the reliability and validity of the tools, where their use in a larger sample could allow for more in-depth analysis of the psychometric structure of the tools. In the next chapter, the results of the respective analyses are presented in order to answer the study's research question.

## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **6. PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS**

#### **INTRODUCTION**

While Chapter 4 and 5 of this thesis focused on the methodology of this study and the translation of the research instruments, Chapter 6 presents the results obtained. This chapter is divided into three sections. First, the demographics of the sample are presented. Next the chapter reports on the normality of the data obtained, and the psychometric properties of the translated Amharic scales, using this evidence to guide how the tools are used for further analysis. Finally the chapter answers the research question: What are the relational predictors of IPV in this Ethiopian sample?

#### **6.1 DEMOGRAPHIC DATA PERTAINING TO THE RESPONDENTS**

Initially, questionnaire was distributed to 335 participants. A total of 318 participants responded, drawn from primary schools, secondary schools, university academic staff and first-year students. The other 17 potential respondents did not fill the survey questionnaire correctly and their surveys were discarded from final analysis.

Descriptions of the demographic characteristics of these participants will provide some understanding of the socio-cultural features of the sample. These characteristics were collected through items 1 to 14 of the survey questionnaire (cf. Appendix H). The data are presented in Tables 6.1 to 6.3 below.

As depicted in Table 6.1, the majority (35.5%) of respondents were university academic staff. About one quarter was secondary school teachers (23.0%) or university first-year students

(23.0%) and the remaining 19.2% of respondents were primary school teachers. With the exception of university academic staff, the numbers of respondents from primary and secondary schools, and first-year university students were comparable in size.

**Table 6.1:**

*Working Sector, Gender, Highest Educational Attainment and Age of Respondents*

| Variables                     | Frequency | Valid Percent |
|-------------------------------|-----------|---------------|
| <b>Working Sector</b>         |           |               |
| Primary school                | 61        | 19.2          |
| Secondary School              | 73        | 23.0          |
| University staff              | 113       | 35.5          |
| First Year Students           | 71        | 22.3          |
| Total                         | 318       | 100.0         |
| <b>Gender</b>                 |           |               |
| Male                          | 193       | 60.7          |
| Female                        | 125       | 39.3          |
| Total                         | 318       | 100.0         |
| <b>Educational Attainment</b> |           |               |
| College Education             | 17        | 5.3           |
| Post graduate                 | 145       | 45.6          |
| Graduate                      | 85        | 26.7          |
| 1st Year University Education | 71        | 22.3          |
| Total                         | 318       | 100.0         |
| <b>Age of respondents</b>     |           |               |
| 18-24                         | 75        | 24.6          |
| 25-29                         | 49        | 16.1          |
| 30-34                         | 45        | 14.8          |
| 35-39                         | 45        | 14.8          |
| 40-44                         | 37        | 12.1          |
| 45-49                         | 21        | 6.9           |
| >49                           | 33        | 10.8          |
| Total                         | 305       | 100.0         |
| Median                        | 33.00     |               |
| Minimum                       | 19        |               |
| Maximum                       | 65        |               |

More than half of the respondents (60.7%) were male, and the rest female (39.3%). About half of the respondents had completed university post-graduate education MA/PhD programs (45.6%) and about quarter (26.7%) had attained an undergraduate degree (BA). As indicated above first-year university students constituted 22.3% of the sample and the remaining 5.3% had completed college diploma education. In Ethiopia, diploma-level educational attainment requires

a Grade 10 or 12 pass plus two or three years of training at a teachers' training center (MOE, 1994). Overall, this seems to be a particularly well educated group.

The respondents' ages were categorized based on the EDHS (2016) framework. Approximately 24.6% of respondents fell within the 18–24 age groups. This is followed by similar proportions in the 25–29 (16.1%), 30–34 (14.8%), and 35–39 (14.8%) age groups. Those who were > 49 comprised 10.8% and lastly those who were in the age range of 45–49 constituted 6.9% of the respondents. The medium age was 33.00 years with a minimum age of 19 years and the maximum age of 65 years. All participants were old enough to legally consent to participate in this research.

A summary of respondents' marital status, relationship duration, and number of children is presented in Table 6.2. More than half of the respondents were married (57.2%) and about a third was currently single (34.9%). Of the remaining sample 4.4% were cohabitating, 2.8% divorced and 0.6% indicated other (e.g.: remarried). More than half of the respondents reported having children (55.8%). On average there were 1.22 children per respondent, with a maximum of six children. The average duration of the current relationship as reported by respondents was 6.77 years, while the average duration of any romantic relationship they had been in was 8.19 years. The maximum number of years in a relationship was 37, and the minimum duration was 6 months. These patterns align with the inclusion criteria of CAS-RF tool that requires a minimum of six months in a romantic relationship (cf. chapter 4, section 4.1.4 Sampling and Recruitment Strategy). The average number of romantic partners per participant was 1.35 with a maximum of 5 partners including the current partner.

**Table 6.2:***Marital Status, Number of Children, Duration in Relationship and Number of Partners*

| Variables  | Frequency  | Valid Percent |
|--|------------|---------------|
| <b>Marital Status</b>  |            |               |
| Single   | 111        | 34.9          |
| Cohabiting   | 14         | 4.4           |
| Married  | 182        | 57.2          |
| Divorced   | 9          | 2.8           |
| Others (eg. Remarried)   | 2          | .6            |
| Total  | 318        | 100.0         |
| <b>Have Children</b>   |            |               |
| No   | 140        | 44.2          |
| Yes  | 177        | 55.8          |
| Total  | 317        | 100.0         |
| If have Children, how many?  |            |               |
| Average number of children per respondent  | 1.22       |               |
| Maximum number of children a respondent has  | 6          |               |
| <b>Duration in Romantic Relationship (years and months)</b>                        |            |               |
| Average duration in years  | 8.19 Years |               |
| Maximum duration in years  | 37 Years   |               |
| Minimum duration in months   | 6 Months   |               |
| <b>Duration of Romantic Relationship with Current Partner (in Years and month)</b> |            |               |
| Average  | 6.77 Years |               |
| Maximum  | 37 Years   |               |
| Minimum  | 6 Months   |               |
| <b>Number of Partners including the current partner</b>                            |            |               |
| Average  | 1.35       |               |
| Maximum  | 5          |               |

Table 6.3 provides details on respondents' socioeconomic status and monthly income. Respondents were asked to rate their socio-economic status on a ladder of 1-10, with 1 being those in society with the least money, least education, and worst jobs, while 10 were people with the most money, most education and the best jobs. When comparing themselves to other citizens, Table 6.3 shows that around 30.2% of respondents ranked their socioeconomic status at the middle (5th) level of the ladder, and 12.6% at the 4<sup>th</sup> level. Approximately 22.3% placed themselves within the 6th level and 13.2% at the 7th level. Fewer than 10% of respondents rated

themselves in the lower positions of the socioeconomic ladder index, while about 10% rated their position on 8<sup>th</sup> or higher rung. Few respondents replied that they are on the highest level of the socioeconomic ladder (9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup>). On average, the respondents mostly fell between the 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> (5.53) rung.

**Table 6.3:**

*Socio-Economic Status and Monthly Income of Respondents*

| <b>Socio-Economic Status</b> |    | Frequency | Valid Percent |
|------------------------------|----|-----------|---------------|
| (Rank on the ladder)         |    |           |               |
| Valid                        | 1  | 3         | .9            |
|                              | 2  | 6         | 1.9           |
|                              | 3  | 24        | 7.5           |
|                              | 4  | 40        | 12.6          |
|                              | 5  | 96        | 30.2          |
|                              | 6  | 71        | 22.3          |
|                              | 7  | 42        | 13.2          |
|                              | 8  | 20        | 6.3           |
|                              | 9  | 8         | 2.5           |
|                              | 10 | 8         | 2.5           |
| Total                        |    | 318       | 100.0         |

Having described the sample recruited for this study in relation to various socio-cultural variables, the next section will present and describe the normality, reliability and validity of the translated Amharic instruments used to collect data to answer the research question.

## **6.2 NORMALITY TESTS, RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE INSTRUMENTS**

Certain parametric statistical methods, such as correlation, regression, t-tests, and analysis of variance, are inherently sensitive to outliers. As such, their proper application relies on ensuring adequate validation and adherence to the assumption of a normal data distribution (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012).

In this study, the Kaiser Meyer Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett test of Sphericity were carried out to determine whether the data were suitable for factor analysis. Field (2009) explains that the KMO is used to assess adequacy of sampling while Bartlett test of Sphericity is used to identify the strength of the relationship among indicators (items), which are expressed in terms of approximate Chi-square. As a rule of thumb, KMO is expected to be larger than 0.50 for an adequate sampling size. More specifically in relation to KMO values, Field (2009) stated that the KMO value ranges from 0 to 1. A value closer to 1 indicates that factor analysis is likely to be reliable. Values that fall between 0.5 to 0.7 are considered mediocre, values between 0.7 to 0.8 are good, values between 0.8 to 0.9 are great, and values above 0.9 are superb. If the value is less than 0.50, the results of the factor analysis probably will not be very useful. With regard to the Bartlett's test of Sphericity coefficient, it is required to generate a significant value less than 0.05 (Hadi et al., 2016). The detailed processes and findings of the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) conducted for each of the scales used in this study are discussed below. Moreover, total reliability and item-total score statistics are presented and discussed to show the items to be retained and removed from the final analysis.

Normality test has been carried out before the final analysis to determine whether the data is normally distributed. A normality test is a procedure that is used to determine whether the scores on a particular measure are normally distributed for the population under study (Razali & Wah, 2011). Similarly, Hanze and Wagner (1997) asserted that normality tests are data screening procedures that show the data has been drawn from a normally distributed data set.

With regards to types of normality testing, Elliott and Woodward (2007) have described *graphical* and *analytical* techniques as well recognised techniques used to assess normality. Table 6.4 and Figure 6.1a to 6.1c below describe the descriptive statistics (Minimum, Maximum,

Mean, SD and Variance), Skewness and Kurtosis of the study scales, and 6.1c shows graphical presentation of the data.

**Table 6.4:**

*Skewness and Kurtosis of the Main Study Scales*

| Scale              | Minimum   | Maximum   | Mean      | SD        | Variance  | Skewness  |            | Kurtosis  |            |
|--------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|
|                    | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Std. Error | Statistic | Std. Error |
| ECR Avoidant       | 1.67      | 4.83      | 3.25      | .68       | .47       | .02       | .14        | -.78      | .27        |
| ECR Anxious        | 1.72      | 6.56      | 3.83      | .87       | .76       | .20       | .14        | -.35      | .27        |
| RAS                | 2.29      | 7.00      | 5.02      | 1.07      | 1.14      | -.35      | .14        | -.64      | .27        |
| CI-RProblem        | 1.40      | 7.00      | 4.18      | 1.07      | 1.15      | .00       | .14        | -.38      | .27        |
| CI-RDemand         | 1.00      | 6.60      | 2.01      | .96       | .92       | 1.74      | .14        | 3.23      | .27        |
| CI-RWithdraw       | 1.00      | 7.00      | 2.71      | 1.02      | 1.05      | .75       | .14        | .57       | .27        |
| CASrSF_TOT         | .00       | 1.00      | .13       | .26       | .07       | 2.11      | .14        | 3.37      | .27        |
| Valid N (listwise) |           |           |           |           |           |           |            |           |            |

Legend: Avoid\_Attach=Avoidance attachment; Anx\_Attach= Anxious Attachment ; RAS=Relationship Assessment Scale; CASrSF\_TOT= Composite Abuse Scale revised, shorten form; CI\_RDMand= Own demanding Conflict resolution; CI\_RWithdraw= Own withdrawal conflict; CI\_RProblem= Own positive conflict resolution

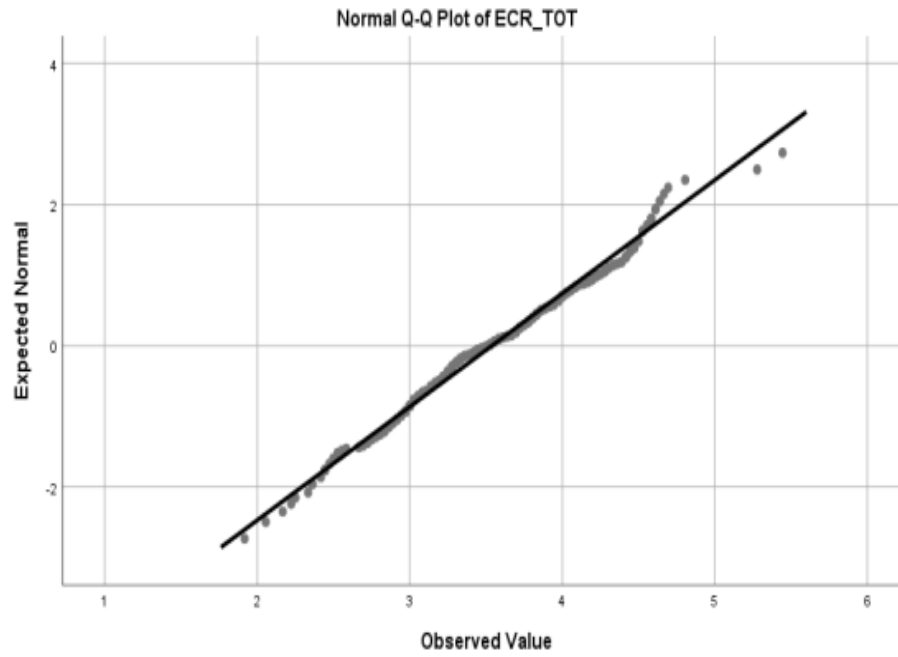
As shown in Table 6.4 within the Experiences of Close Relationships scale (ECR) the mean value for avoidance attachment is 3.25 and 3.83 for the anxious attachment dimension. The mean score for the Relationship Satisfaction Scale (RAS) is 5.02. Within the Conflict Inventory (CI-R) the mean value for problem-solving was 4.184, demand was 2.011 and withdrawal was 2.710. The mean for the Composite of Abuse Revised Short Form (CASr-SF) was 0.13. Skewness and kurtosis values for all scales were within the acceptable range. However, the skewness for the CASr-SF tool is marginally out of the normal and acceptable range. But the variability is at its lower value (George & Mallery, 2010; Kim, 2013; West et al., 1995).

### 6.2.1 Normality Test

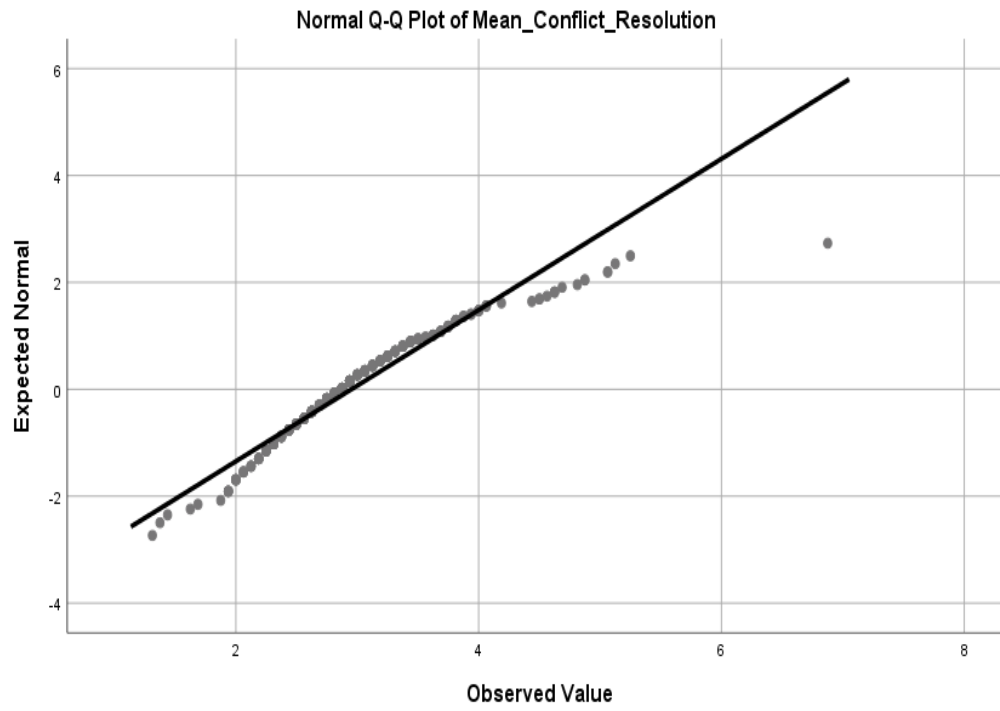
The following section presents and describes the graphical and analytical description of normality testing of the scales. Both graphical and analytical techniques of normality testing were employed to assess the distribution of the data. The graphical representation of normality tests for the scales (ECR, CR-I , RAS and CASr-SF) are shown in the following figures 6.1, 6.2, 6.3, 6.4 using Quantile-Quantile (Q-Q) plots.

Figure 6.1 illustrates values both above and below the mean, with deviations remaining within acceptable limits. These tolerable deviations allow for further inferential analysis without requiring absolute precision. Figure 6.2, showing the Conflict Inventory (CI-R) scale, indicate that the data points align approximately along a straight line, suggesting the dataset adheres to the assumed distribution. Although one item falls in the lowest quintile with slight fluctuations at the extremes, this outlier is within an acceptable range to calculate the scale score.

In Figure 6.3, the RAS scale shows outlier values deviating minimally from the normality line. The distribution is neither overly dispersed nor impacted by significant outliers that could skew the median. Figure 6.4 shows that some of the CASr-SF scale values are deviating above and below the normality line. Graphical interpretations like Q–Q plots, which compare observed and expected quantiles, are particularly helpful in assessing normality when numerical tests might over- or underestimate sensitivity. For normally distributed data, observed and expected values closely align, as noted by Mishra et al. (2019). Further statistical techniques (Shapiro-Wilk) were applied and the results for all scales are shown below.



**Figure 6.1: Q-Q plot for Experience in Close Relationship (ECR) Scale**



**Figure 6.2: Q-Q plot for Conflict Inventory (CI-R)**

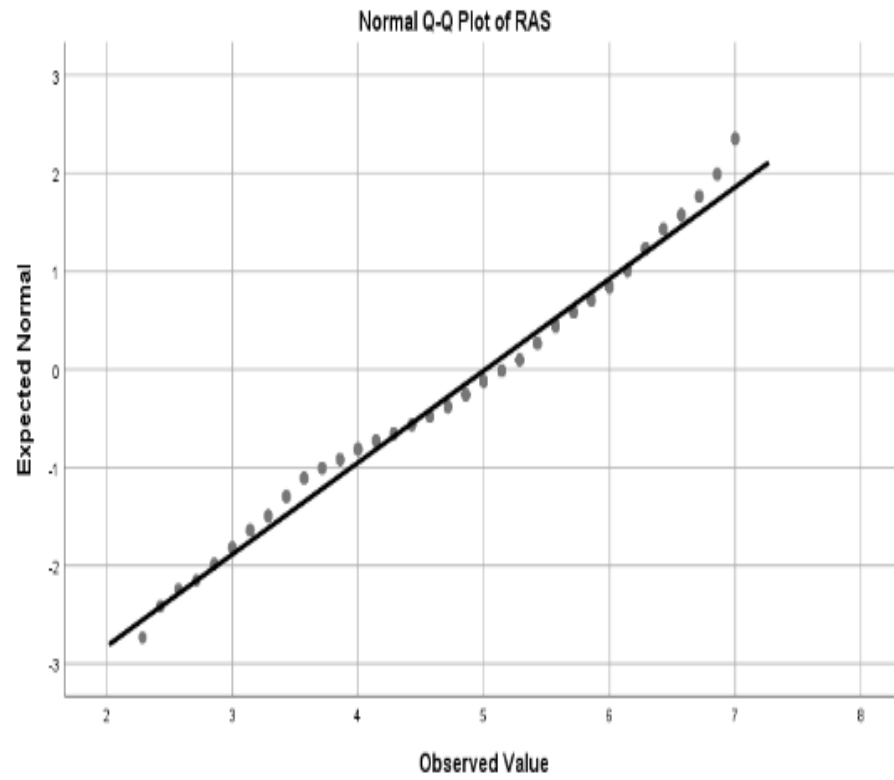
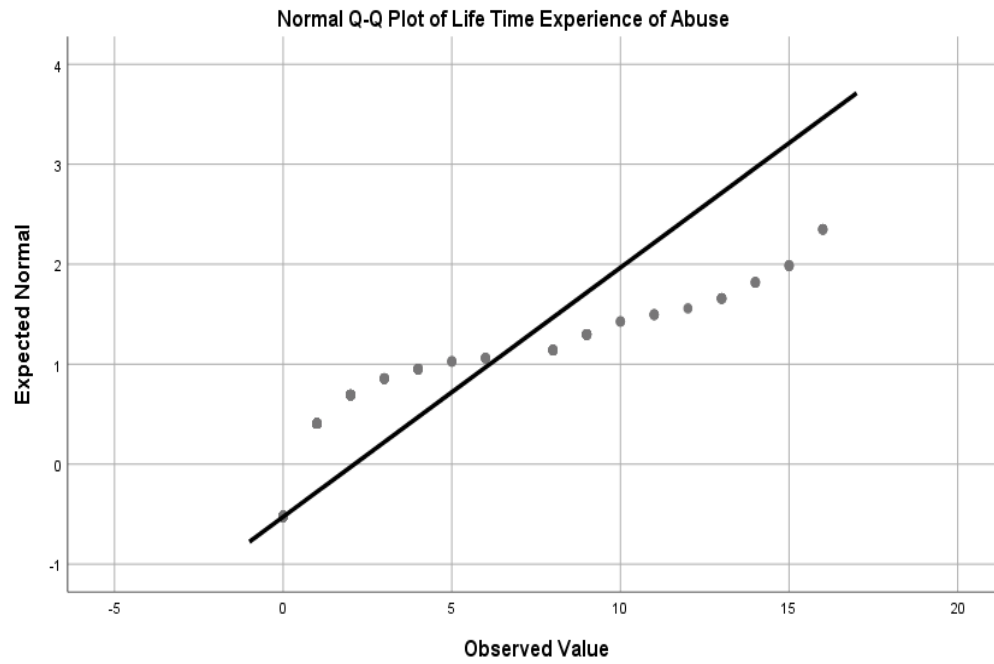


Figure 6.3: Q-Q plot for RelationshipAssessment Scale (RAS)



**Figure 6.4: plot for CASr-SF**

**Table 6.5:***Normality Test for ECR, Own-CI-R and RAS Scales*

| <u>Scales</u> | <b>Tests of Normality</b>             |           |             |                     |           |             |
|---------------|---------------------------------------|-----------|-------------|---------------------|-----------|-------------|
|               | <u>Kolmogorov-Smirnov<sup>a</sup></u> |           |             | <u>Shapiro-Wilk</u> |           |             |
|               | <u>Statistic</u>                      | <u>df</u> | <u>Sig.</u> | <u>Statistic</u>    | <u>df</u> | <u>Sig.</u> |
| ECR           | .066                                  | 318       | .002        | .990                | 318       | .029        |
| CI-R          | .103                                  | 318       | .000        | .934                | 318       | .000        |
| RAS           | .093                                  | 318       | .000        | .974                | 318       | .000        |
| CASr-SF       | .326                                  | 318       | .000        | .591                | 318       | .000        |

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

As seen in Table 6.5, the Shapiro-Wilk normality test is significant at .05 for all the four scales. This implies that the assumption of the Shapiro-Wilks test is violated for the four scales in this study. However, Thode (2002) has argued that the violation of the assumption of Shapiro–Wilk test result does not invalidate the procedure to be used with robust data. Moreover, Pallant (2007) stated that with large enough sample sizes (> 30 or 40), the violation of the normality assumption should not cause major problems. Besides, Elliott and Woodward (2007) have suggested that it is possible to use parametric procedures even when the data are not normally distributed. They added that if a sample consists of hundreds of observations, it is possible to ignore the distribution of the data. With this assumption, the analytical results of Shapiro-Wilk W-value have been ignored. Elliott and Woodward (2007) concur that it is possible to use parametric procedures even when the data are not normally distributed.

## 6.2.2 Psychometric structure and reliability analysis

### A) Experience in Close Relationship (ECR) Scale

The ECR is a 36-item scale with two major dimensions. The first dimension is *avoidant attachment* and involves measuring the need for self-reliance and fear of interpersonal closeness.

The second dimension is *anxious attachment* that intends to assess an excessive need for approval from others, fear of interpersonal rejection or abandonment, and distress when one's partner is unavailable or unresponsive.

Factor analysis and reliability tests were applied to the ECR to assess the existence of a two-factor structure and the internal consistency of the scale. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) with Principal axis component factor extraction with a varimax rotation method was done. The factor analysis generated the overall variance and the factor loading for each item in both dimensions; and further analysis on item loadings has been indicated in subsequent tables.

**Table 6.6:**

*Component Matrix of Experience in Close Relationship (ECR) Scale*

| <b>KMO and Bartlett's Test</b>                   |                    |          |
|--|--------------------|----------|
| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy. |                    | 0.815    |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity                    | Approx. Chi-Square | 3418.891 |
|  | df                 | 630      |
|  | Sig.               | .000     |

As indicated in Table 6.6 above, the sample size adequacy, (KMO=.815) and sampling adequacy (Chi-square =3418.89, DF = 630, Significance = .000) imply that the correlation matrix was suitable for a factor analysis.. Table 6.7 below depicts the Cronbach Alpha and item loading component matrix of the ECR. Furthermore, the table shows items (indicators) with odd numbers are measures of avoidant attachment and items with even numbers are indicators of anxious attachment dimension on the composite ECR. Such classifications are done for the sake of simplicity for ease of analysis and interpretation of data. A more detailed description of the scale has been provided in Chapter 4 (cf. chapter 4, section 4.1.5B).

As can be seen in Table 6.7 the reliability alpha coefficient was  $r = 0.66$  for the avoidance dimension and  $r = 0.79$  for anxious attachment dimension which fall within the acceptable range, but far lower than the original reliability coefficient ( $>0.90$ ) reported by Fraley et al (2000). These alpha coefficients are also lower in comparison with other translation studies of the tool which include a Spanish translation of the ECR by Alonso-Arbiol and colleagues (2007) that demonstrated reliability coefficients greater than 0.85 across both the avoidant and anxious attachment domains in a sample of 393 people residing in the Basque Country (203 women, 190 men). Similarly Bretaña et al. (2022) reported alpha coefficients greater than 0.8 across both domains when using the same Spanish translation of the ECR over a decade later. The details of these studies can be found in Chapter 4 (cf. chapter 4, section 4.1.5B).

These differences may be attributed to cultural difference in the way couples manage their proximity, distance with their partner and their responding styles to sensitive issues in their romantic relationships. Consistent to this assertion, in their comparison of Spanish and American English language version of the ECR, Alonso-Arbiol et al (2008) argued that despite good alpha coefficient quality ( $\geq 0.85$ ), of the ECR-S, there may be subtle differences in the wording or culturally embedded meanings of some of the items in the scale. With regard to item loadings on the component matrix of the ECR, three items (item # ECR\_21 “I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on my partner”, #ECR\_22r “I do not often worry about being abandoned” and # ECR\_33r “It helps to turn to my relationship partner in times of need”) produced a factor loading of  $< 0.3$  and were repressed. This is in line with the assumption of Stevens (1992) that stated items with factor loading 0.30 or above are acceptable for adapted tools and might have a constructive contribution for understanding the construct. Accordingly, in the present study 16

items of avoidant attachment dimension and 17 items from anxious dimension were retained for further inferential analysis.

Among the avoidant attachment indicators, Item # ECR\_3r had a cross-loading tendency; while all inversely scored items (Item # ECR\_3r, Item # ECR\_15r, Item # ECR\_19r, Item # ECR\_25r, Item # ECR\_27r, # ECR\_31r and Item # ECR\_35r) were negatively loaded. Moreover, as shown in Table 6.7 above, all avoidant dimension items did not load at their respective component. For instance, item # 33 was one of the items that lacked clarity and produced divergent ideas and responses during the translation process (cf. chapter 5, table 5.3). Such items showed some conceptual differences in understandings among translators and panel discussants (cf. Chapter 5, table 5.4). Moreover, the items that had a tendency towards cross-loading and being negatively loaded (for instance, Item # ECR\_5, # ECR\_31 & # ECR\_33) were also highlighted by the translation team for concerns relating to clarity and common understanding of the items across translators and participants of the cognitive interview piloting. Similarly, all items listed under the anxious dimension did not appear on their respective dimensions, and four of these items had a tendency of cross-loading (item # ECR\_18 “I need a lot of reassurance that I am loved by my partner”, ECR\_24 “If I can't get my partner to show interest in me, I get upset or angry”, ECR\_30 “I get frustrated when my partner is not around as much as I would like” and ECR\_34 “When my relationship partner disapproves of me, I feel really bad about myself”), but did not negatively load.

**Table 6.7:***Rotated Component Matrix of Experience in Close Relationship Scale*

| <b>Rotated Component Matrix<sup>a</sup></b> |   |           |            |
|---|---|-----------|------------|
| Label                                       | Items   | Component |            |
|   |   | Avoid(1)  | Anxious(2) |
| ECR_7                                       | I get uncomfortable when my partner wants to be very close  | .659      |            |
| ECR_6                                       | I worry that my partner won't care about me as much as I care about him/her                           | .653      |            |
| ECR_26                                      | I find that my partner doesn't want to get as close as I would like                                   | .652      |            |
| ECR_11                                      | I want to get close to my partner, but I keep pulling back  | .651      |            |
| ECR_13                                      | I am nervous when my partner gets too close to me   | .650      |            |
| ECR_5                                       | 5. Just when my partner starts to get close to me I find myself pulling away                          | .623      |            |
| ECR_9                                       | I don't feel comfortable opening up to my relationship partner  | .583      |            |
| ECR_4                                       | I worry a lot about my relationship   | .578      |            |
| ECR_12                                      | I often want to merge completely with my relationship partner, and this sometimes scares him/her away | .569      |            |
| ECR_23                                      | I prefer not to be too close to my relationship partner   | .532      |            |
| ECR_34                                      | When my relationship partner disapproves of me, I feel really bad about myself                        | .509      | .420       |
| ECR_28                                      | When I'm not involved in a relationship, I feel anxious and insecure                                  | .494      |            |
| ECR_17                                      | I try to avoid getting too close to my partner  | .490      |            |
| ECR_20                                      | Sometimes I feel that I force my partner to show more feeling, more commitment                        | .490      |            |
| ECR_24                                      | If I can't get my partner to show interest in me, I get upset or angry                                | .487      | .332       |
| ECR_8                                       | I worry a fair amount about losing my relationship partner  | .396      |            |
| ECR_16                                      | My desire to be very close sometimes scares people away   | .381      |            |
| ECR_2                                       | I worry about being abandoned   | .374      |            |
| ECR_1                                       | I prefer not to show a partner how I feel deep down   | .368      |            |
| ECR_31r                                     | I am very comfortable being close to my relationship partner  | -.359     |            |
| ECR_27r                                     | I usually discuss my problems and concerns with my partner  |           | -.632      |
| ECR_25r                                     | I tell my partner just about everything   |           | -.607      |
| ECR_36                                      | I resent it when my partner spends time away from me  |           | .587       |
| ECR_15r                                     | I feel comfortable sharing my private feelings with my partner  |           | -.573      |
| ECR_35r                                     | I turn to my partner for many things, including comfort and reassurance                               |           | -.546      |
| ECR_29                                      | I feel comfortable depending on my relationship partner   |           | .513       |
| ECR_30                                      | I get frustrated when my partner is not around as much as I would like                                | .320      | .508       |
| ECR_32                                      | I get frustrated if my partner is not available when I need him/her                                   |           | .484       |
| ECR_3r                                      | I am very comfortable being close to my relationship partner  | .319      | -.462      |
| ECR_10                                      | I often wish that my partner's feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for him/her              |           | .418       |
| ECR_14                                      | I worry about being alone   |           | .416       |
| ECR_19r                                     | I find it relatively easy to get close to my partner  |           | -.404      |
| ECR_18                                      | I need a lot of reassurance that I am loved by my partner   | .327      | .367       |
| ECR_21                                      | I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on my partner   |           |            |
| ECR_22r                                     | I do not often worry about being abandoned  |           |            |
| ECR_33r                                     | It helps to turn to my relationship partner in times of need  |           |            |
| Eigenvalue                                  |   | 17.903    | 11.866     |
| Variance                                    |   | 6.42      | 4.30       |
| Alpha coefficient                           |   | .663      | .793       |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.  
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.  
 a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Previous studies on ECR have also revealed propensities of cross-loading, low factor loadings and divergence of items. For instance, Alonso-Arbiol et al (2007) in their sample of undergraduate Spanish samples found that four of the items (numbers #4, #12, #26, and #29) did not work as expected for the ECR scale. Similarly, Wei et al (2007) also revealed inconsistency in item loadings among the indicators on their validation study among public university undergraduate psychology students in USA. Furthermore, Wei et al. (2007) found a somewhat questionable fit to the two-factor model of avoidance and anxiety in the 36-item version and failed to confirm a good fit for the two factors from their 12-item version of ECR among psychiatry patients. These findings imply that the scale needs more development across different cultural contexts and language versions in the future.

As indicated in Table 6.7 above, the Eigenvalue of the two components contributed a meaningful cumulative value of 29.76 with respect to composite variance of the total ECR attachment scale. At an individual component level, 23 items under component one contributed 17.9%; the ten items under factor two contributed 11.87% of the total variance of the composite ECR scale with moderate variance.

Based on these results it was decided to reduce the ECR Amharic language version to a total of 29 item version, removing items 21 and 33 from the avoidance scale, and items 18, 22, 24, 30 and 34 from the anxiety scale.

## **B) Conflict Inventory (CI-R)**

Initially, Margolin and her colleagues developed 26 items clustering into three groups to assess conflict-related responses of couples in marriage (Margolin et al., 1982, cited in Ridley et al., 2001). With factor analysis, the 26 items resulted in a three factor solution that included

problem solving, demanding (conflict engagement) and withdrawal conflict resolution strategies. Based on an item analysis of the original 26 conflict response items, Margolin et al.(1982) reported that 16 items significantly discriminated distressed from non-distressed couples. The problem-solving strategy emphasizes negotiation and compromising during conflict (e.g., focusing on the problem at hand). The demand or conflict engagement strategy includes attacking, criticizing, and losing self-control (e.g., exploding and getting out of control), while the withdrawal strategy includes refusing to engage in conflict and discuss the problem (e.g., remaining silent for long periods of time) (Bretaña et al., 2019). In this current study, this revised 16-item version, the CI-R, was used. Tables 6.8 and 6.9 below show the KMO, Cronbach Alpha and item loading component matrix of the CI-R scale.

**Table 6.8:**

*KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity of Self-Conflict Inventory (CI-R) Scale*

| <b>KMO and Bartlett's Test</b>                   |                    |          |
|--|--------------------|----------|
| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy. |                    | .806     |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity                    | Approx. Chi-Square | 1304.900 |
|  | df                 | 120      |
|  | Sig.               | .000     |

As indicated on Table 6.8, the CI-R demonstrated sample size adequacy (KMO 0.81) and the Bartlett test of Sphericity Approx Chi-Square = 1304, df = 120 and significant at 0.000, indicating the matrix was adequate for factor analysis and was consistent with expectations and evidence of three factors. Table 6.9 below describes the factors (components) and item loading of the subscale items. Problem-solving strategy indicative items are item #1, #4, #7, #11 and #14. The items that measure demanding conflict resolution include item # 2, #6, # 9, # 12 and # 15.

Item # 3, #5, # 8, # 10, # 13 and #16 are designed to measure withdrawal conflict resolution strategies.

The Cronbach alpha coefficients for internal consistency were  $r = 0.55$  for problem-solving conflict resolution,  $0.74$  for demanding strategies, and  $0.67$ , for withdrawal strategies. These values, while slightly lower than those reported in previous studies, remain within an acceptable range. For comparison, Ridley et al. (2001) reported reliability coefficients of  $r = 0.62$  for problem-solving,  $r = 0.66$  for demanding strategies, and  $r = 0.67$  for withdrawal among husbands during the original development of the scale. Similarly, Bretaña et al. (2019) found alpha values ranging from  $r = 0.52$  to  $0.89$  for problem-solving, demanding, and withdrawal conflict resolution strategies in cross-cultural samples from Israel, Turkey, America, and Spain respectively. These findings suggest that the CI-R scale may be relevant in its Amharic translation for use in the Ethiopian context, but needs some refinement and possibly some further study.

With regards to item loadings, all items on the CI-R produced factor loadings  $> 0.3$  and were retained for factor analysis under their respective clusters. All problem-solving items grouped under one factor. But item #1 (“Initiate discussion”) and #11 (“Feel close to you after conflict”) showed a tendency of cross-loading. Within the demand items, item #2 (“Blame you”) and #9 (“Plan revenge”) cross-loaded and all the items were grouped outside of their respective clustering component matrix. While majority of the withdrawal items were grouped under one component, item #5 (“Hide tensions”) cross-loaded with negative loadings in the dimension, while item #16 (“Protest by remaining silent”) loaded in all the three components.

**Table 6.9:***Rotated Component Matrix of Self-Conflict Inventory (CI-R) Scale*

|  | Component Matrix <sup>a</sup> |           |            |
|--|-------------------------------|-----------|------------|
|  | Problem solving               | Component |            |
|  |                               | Demanding | Withdrawal |
| 10. Think of leaving the marriage/relationship | .769                          |           |            |
| 15. Threaten                                   | .758                          |           |            |
| 13. Keep distant                               | .702                          |           |            |
| 6. Insult you                                  | .683                          |           |            |
| 12. Hit, push, or slap                         | .663                          |           |            |
| 9. Plan revenge                                | .623                          |           | .308       |
| 8. Stop discussion early                       | .573                          |           |            |
| 3. Leave the room                              | .547                          |           |            |
| 2. Blame you                                   | .438                          |           | .373       |
| 7. Listen attentively                          |                               | .669      |            |
| 1. Initiate discussion                         |                               | .660      | .302       |
| 11. Feel close to you after conflict           |                               | .616      | .338       |
| 4. Admit own fault                             |                               | .595      |            |
| 16. Protest by remaining silent                | .311                          | .496      | -.430      |
| 14. Come up with ideas                         |                               | .469      |            |
| 5. Hide tensions                               | .398                          |           | -.665      |
| Eigenvalue                                     | 25.932                        | 13.629    | 8.645      |
| Variance                                       | 4.149                         | 2.181     | 1.383      |
| Alpha coefficient                              | .553                          | .736      | .671       |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 3 components extracted.

Like the disparities seen above in the factor analysis on some items of the CI-R scale, some of these same items were also found to be challenging during the translation process described in Chapter 5, particularly during the cognitive interviews. For instance, item # 11. “*Feel close to partner after conflict*”; Item #13. “*Keep distant*”; Item #15. “*Threaten*”, and Item #16. “*Protest by remaining silent*” were all highlighted as lacking clarity and generating divergent understandings amongst participants in the Amharic translation process (cf. chapter 5, Table 5. 6).

In general, the CI-R items failed to confirm a good fit for the three factors. The composite eigenvalue of the three components (problem-solving, demanding and withdrawal) contributed a

meaningful cumulative value of 48.21%. At the individual level, items under component 1 contributed 25.93% for the total variance, items under component two contributed 13.63% and items under component three contributed a 8.65% variation in the scale with moderate variances of 4.15 for problem-solving, 2.18 for demand and 1.38 for withdrawal components respectively.

Based on these results, it was decided that all items on the CI-R Amharic language version were retained, yet they are not at their proper three factor cluster. Besides, they are best fit to measure adaptive/maladaptive conflict resolution strategies than falling along the three component dimension.

### **C) The Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS)**

The relationship assessment scale (RAS) was developed to measure general relationship satisfaction among couples in romantic relationships. The higher the score on the tool, the more satisfied the respondent is within his/her relationship. The lower the score, the less satisfied the respondent is.

The results of normality, and sample size adequacy, for the RAS scale are presented below in Table 6.10. The sample size adequacy measure of KMO = 0.812, and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity approx. Chi-Square = 655.948, DF = 21 with a significance of  $p < 0.000$ . This implies the scale has a very satisfactory score for further factorization of the items. The principal component analysis revealed the scale has extracted one component as seen in Table 6.11. The Cronbach alpha coefficient of the scale is  $r = 0.77$  which is in the acceptable range, but lower than previous findings. For instance Hendrick (1988) found a reliability coefficient of alpha  $r = 0.86$  in the original English language version of the tool when first developed, and Bretaña et al.

(2022) reported a reliability coefficient  $\alpha = 0.92$  for their cross-cultural study across Spanish, US, Israeli and Turkish participants.

**Table 6.10:**

*Sample Size and Test of Sphericity of RAS*

| <b>KMO and Bartlett's Test</b>                   |                    |         |
|--|--------------------|---------|
| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy. |                    | .812    |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity                    | Approx. Chi-Square | 655.948 |
|  | df                 | 21      |
|  | Sig.               | .000    |

**Table 6.11**

*Rotated Component Matrix of RAS*

| <b>Component Matrix<sup>a</sup></b>                  | <b>Component<br/>1</b> |
|--|------------------------|
| 2. In general, I am satisfied with this relationship | .855                   |
| 1. My partner meets my needs                         | .802                   |
| 3. My relationship is good compared to most          | .780                   |
| 5. My relationship meets my original expectations    | .696                   |
| 6. I love my partner                                 | .604                   |
| 4. I wish I hadn't gotten into this relationship     | .526                   |
| 7. There are problems in my relationships            | -                      |
| Eigenvalue   | 45.11                  |
| Variance   | 3.16                   |
| Alpha coefficient                                    | 0.77                   |
| Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.     |                        |
| a. 1 components extracted.                           |                        |

As shown on Table 6.11 a single component scale is consistent with the expectation of how the tool items should load, with six of the seven questionnaire items scoring a factor loading of  $\geq 0.3$ . But, item #7 did not meet this threshold and has been suppressed. This implies that item #7 has a distinctive feature to other items. In general the questionnaire items in the component produced a cumulative Eigenvalue of 45.11% with a variance of 3.16. This implies that with the exception of item 7, the RAS scale is functioning as a robust measure of relationship satisfaction.

Based on these results, it was decided to reduce the RAS Amharic language version to a 6-item version, removing item 7 from the scale.

#### **D) The Composite Abuse Scale (Revised) Short Form (CASR-SF)**

The CASR\_SF is a 16-item that measures IPV and asks about different acts of violence (physical, psychological and/or sexual). As far as its sample size adequacy is concerned, KMO =0.893, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square is 3710.917, DF=120, and Significant = .000. The components and factor loadings of the items are presented in Table 6.12.

The principal component analysis revealed two components.

The principal component analysis (PCA) was employed to reduce and replicate the correlation matrix using a set of components that linear combinations of the original set of items.

The purpose of PCA is to identify underlying dimensions that explain response patterns (Wold et al., 1987). Thus, PCA is appropriate for use when applied to a set of responses such as those obtained from a questionnaire. In addition to simply identifying factors, PCA is useful for examining the number of components, identifying which items make up each component and how strongly they relate to the component, and investigating the strength of the relationship between components (Grimm & Yarnold, 1995).

With these assertions, PCA yielded the Cronbach alpha coefficient of the scale is  $r = 0.940$  which is comparable with previous finding of Ford-Gilboe et al. (2016). But, the psychometric structure is different from the original tool. Among the items, 15 items loaded on one component, whereas only one item (Item #1 of Physical Abuse) loaded on a second component. In general, the Eigenvalue of the scale contributed a meaningful cumulative value of 62.034% to the composite scale with a variance of 3.16. This implies that the CASr-SF scale is functioning as

a robust measure of IPV. Based on these results, it was decided to retain all 16 items to the CASr-SF Amharic language version without any reduction from the scale.

**Table 6.12:**

*Component Matrix of Casr-SF Scale of the Main Study*

|   | Component Matrix <sup>a</sup> |             |
|---|-------------------------------|-------------|
|   | Component 1                   | Component 2 |
| Kept me from having access to a job, money or financial resources (Physical Abuse 6)  | .815                          |             |
| Forced or tried to force me to have sex (sexual Abuse2)   | .805                          |             |
| Harassed me by phone, text, email or using social media (Psychological Abuse4)  | .795                          |             |
| Told me I was crazy, stupid or not good enough (Psychological Abuse5)   | .791                          |             |
| Made me perform sex acts that I did not want to perform (Sexual Abuse1)   | .789                          |             |
| Threatened to harm or kill me or someone close to me (Psychological Abuse3)   | .773                          | -.428       |
| Kept me from seeing or talking to my family or friends (Psychological Abuse6)   | .771                          | .336        |
| Used or threatened to use a knife or gun or other weapon to harm me (Physical Abuse2)   | .768                          |             |
| Hit me with a fist or object, kicked or bit me (Physical Abuse 4)   | .743                          |             |
| Choked me (Physical Abuse3)   | .742                          | -.497       |
| Confined or locked me in a room or other space (Physical Abuse5)  | .732                          |             |
| Blamed me for causing their violent behavior (Psychological Abuse7)   | .719                          |             |
| Made comments about my sexual past or my sexual performance that made me feel ashamed, inadequate or humiliated. (Psychological Abuse8) | .717                          |             |
| Followed me or hung around outside my home or work (Psychological Abuse2)   | .680                          |             |
| Tried to convince my family, children or friends that I am crazy or tried to turn them against me (Psychological Abuse1)                | .643                          |             |
| Shook, pushed, grabbed or threw me (Physical Abuse1)  | .421                          | .538        |
| Eigenvalue  | 62.0                          |             |
|   | 3                             |             |
| Variance  | 14.73                         |             |
| Alpha coefficient   | .940                          |             |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 2 components extracted.

Note: Factor loading < .30 are suppressed.

### 6.3 RELATIONAL PREDICTORS OF VIOLENCE IN THE SAMPLE

Three categories of relational predictive variables were used: attachment styles, conflict resolution strategies and relationship satisfaction. The following hypotheses were devised:

1. - Increased endorsements of anxious or avoidant attachment styles will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.
2. - More frequent use of demand and withdrawal conflict resolution strategies will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.
3. - Lower relationship satisfaction will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.

As discussed under Chapter 4, (cf, Chapter 4, section 4.1.7 Data Analysis Technique, B) Inferential statistical techniques), logistic regression was carried out, and given the lack of previous research employing the CASr-SF as a tool to measure the status of IPV in Ethiopia and the current study's context, a binomial proportion of 0.5 (or 50%) was assumed. I used the parameter ( $\mu$ ) = .50 as a point of reference or expected mean to test the level of IPV among the participants. Procedurally, IPV experiences were computed as the sum of the scores of the dependent variable (CASr-SF) by dichotomizing for each participant as 1 = CASr-SF indicating presence of IPV, and 0 = CASr-SF representing absence of IPV.

As depicted on Table 6.13 below, initially the CASr-SF output were generated without including any independent variables in the model. This was done to serve as a baseline for later comparisons with models that would incorporate independent (predictor) variables. A detail of the classification of CASrSF\_TOTRC is presented as follows. The overall percentage of correctly classified cases is 77%. This means the participants have the unconditional probability of 77% of experiencing IPV. In this case, IBM SPSS Statistics classified (guessed) that all cases

would not have a problem with IPV (this is because there were a higher percentage of participants answering 'no' to the question). The table also shows that 77% of respondents reported that they did not experience IPV, while the rest (23%) reported that they experienced IPV.

**Table 6.13:**

*Classification Dependent Variable*

|                    |                | Classification Table <sup>a,b</sup> |                |       |                    |
|--------------------|----------------|-------------------------------------|----------------|-------|--------------------|
|                    |                | Observed                            | CASrSFBinomial |       | Predicted          |
|                    |                |                                     | No Abuse       | Abuse | Percentage Correct |
| Step 0             | CASrSFBinomial | No IPV                              | 184            | 0     | 100.0              |
|                    |                | IPV                                 | 55             | 0     | .0                 |
| Overall Percentage |                |                                     |                |       | 77.0               |

a. Constant is included in the model.

b. The cut value is .500

Table 6.14 then depicts the baseline model against the full model with the predictor variables. This comparison revealed a statistically significant result at  $W = (1) 61.749, p < .01$ .

**Table 6.14:**

*Significance Level of Variables in the Equation*

|        |          | Variables in the Equation |      |        |    |      |        |
|--------|----------|---------------------------|------|--------|----|------|--------|
|        |          | B                         | S.E. | Wald   | df | Sig. | Exp(B) |
| Step 0 | Constant | -1.208                    | .154 | 61.749 | 1  | .000 | .299   |

Table 6.15 then presents and describes Block 1, or those variables entered in the system as a predictor of IPV. The Enter method of regression was employed wherein all variables were entered into the model simultaneously in a single step resulting in identical chi-square values. The Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients offer an overarching assessment of the model's

performance, surpassing the results of Block 0, which excluded predictor variables. This evaluation is commonly referred to as a 'goodness of fit' test. Table 6.15 below presents the results of the Omnibus Test for the model coefficients. This tests whether the model containing the full set of predictor variables represents a significant improvement in fit over the intercept-only (null) model. The likelihood ratio of chi-square test was statistically significant,  $\chi^2(13) = 69.438$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , indicating that the model fits the data and is significantly better than a model containing no predictor variables. Therefore, at least one population regression slope in the model is different from 0.

**Table 6.15:**

*Test of Fit of the Model*

| <b>Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients</b> |       |            |    |      |
|--|-------|------------|----|------|
|  |       | Chi-square | df | Sig. |
| Step 1                                     | Step  | 69.438     | 13 | .000 |
|  | Block | 69.438     | 13 | .000 |
|  | Model | 69.438     | 13 | .000 |

The following model summary in Table 6.16 displays three goodness-of-fit measures: – 2 log-likelihood statistic, Cox and Snell's  $R^2$ , and Nagelkerke's  $R^2$  (an adjusted form of Cox and Snell's  $R^2$ ). In this study, the Nagelkerke  $R^2$  is preferred since it has a maximum value of 1.0 over Cox & Snell  $R^2$ , and aligns with the Wald statistic for overall association, as originally proposed by Cox and Snell. Moreover, Nagelkerke's  $R^2$  is an adjusted version of the Cox & Snell  $R$ -square that adjusts the scale of the statistic to cover the full range from 0 to 1. However, Cox and Snell's  $R^2$  with categorical outcomes have a theoretical maximum value of less than 1, even for a "perfect" model. The model with the largest  $R^2$  statistic is "best", indicating that more of the variation is explained by the model, to a maximum of 1 (Nagelkerke, 1991).

**Table 6.16 :***Model Summary*

| <b>Model Summary</b> |                      |               |              |
|----------------------|----------------------|---------------|--------------|
|                      |                      | Cox & Snell R | Nagelkerke R |
| Step                 | -2 Log likelihood    | Square        | Square       |
| 1                    | 188.409 <sup>a</sup> | 0.252         | 0.382        |

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 5 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

The model summary displayed in Table 6.16 above provides information about the usefulness and deviance of the model. Accordingly, the Nagelkerke  $R^2$  values which are called 'pseudo'  $R^2$  statistics, rather than the true  $R^2$  values, show that 38.2% of dependent variable is explained by the predictor variables of the study.

Table 6.17 below presents the Hosmer and Lemeshow Test. As Pituch and Stevens (2016) postulated, the Hosmer and Lemeshow (H-L) test provides an indication of the global model fit by comparing the full model against one that has a perfect fit. It tests the null hypothesis that has no additional interaction or nonlinear terms that are needed in the model, but does not assess whether other predictors that are entirely excluded from the estimated model could improve model fit (Pituch & Stevens 2016). The H-L test was non-significant  $\chi^2(8) = 11.603, p = .170$ ) which provides some additional evidence supporting the fit of the model to the data. Because, in the model we look for the non-significance  $\chi^2$  implying the model fits the data.

**Table 6.17 :***Hosmer and Lemeshow Test*

| <b>Hosmer and Lemeshow Test</b> |            |    |      |
|---------------------------------|------------|----|------|
| Step                            | Chi-square | df | Sig. |
| 1                               | 11.603     | 8  | .170 |

Table 6.18 below provides evidence about the model's ability to predict if category/group membership predicts IPV (IPV vs No IPV) for each case in comparison with the classification table shown for Block 0 (Table 6.12 above). The results indicate how much improvement has been made when the predictor variables are included in the model. Accordingly, the model predicted 82.0% of the overall correct category.

**Table 6.18:**

*Classification Table of Outcome Variable*

|                    |               | Predicted                 |       | Percentage Correct |
|--------------------|---------------|---------------------------|-------|--------------------|
|                    |               | CASrSFBinomal<br>No Abuse | Abuse |                    |
| Step 1             | CASrSFBinomal | No Abuse                  | Abuse |                    |
|                    |               | No Abuse                  | 173   | 11                 |
|                    | Abuse         | 31                        | 24    | 43.6               |
| Overall Percentage |               |                           |       | 82.4               |

a. The cut value is .500

Table 6.18 includes four important issues that require elaboration. These are the sensitivity recall or true positive rate (hereafter TPR), true negative rate (hereafter TNR), the false-positive rate (hereafter FPR), the false-negative rate (hereafter FNR) and the overall classification accuracy.

With respect to the TPR specificity of this study, the results indicate the percentage of observed events (i.e.,  $Y=1$ , experience of IPV) that were correctly predicted by the model. The sensitivity for the current TPR specificity model is computed as:  $100 \% * (24/55) = 43.6\%$ . This means 43.6% of participants who were identified as those experienced IPV, were predicted by the model to fall into that category. The specificity of TNR is calculated as the percentage of observed non-events (i.e.,  $Y=0$ ; absence of IPV) that were correctly predicted by the model. It

was computed as  $(173/184)*100 = 94.02\%$ . This means, 94.02% of participants who were identified as not experienced IPV were predicted by the model to fall into the category.

FPR is the percentage of observed absence of IPV that were incorrectly predicted by the model to be observed as IPV. It addresses the question, “Among these cases, where the target IPV was not happened, what percentage of those cases were predicted to have the IPV to occur?”

It is computed as:  $100 \%*( 11/184) =6.0\%$ . [This is equivalent to  $100\%-specificity=100-94.0=6.0$ ]. This implies that 6% of those who identified as being didn’t experience IPV were predicted by the model to be those who experienced IPV.

Concerning the FNR it is the percentage of observed IPV that were incorrectly predicted by the model to not be observed. It answers the question “Among those cases where the target IPV was observed, what percentages were predicted to not have the IPV occur?” It is computed as  $100 \%*( 31/55) =56.36\%$  [This is equivalent to the  $100\%-sensitivity = 100\%-56.36\% = 43.64\%$ ]. Therefore, 43.64% of the participants identified as those who experienced IPV were predicted by the model to be didn’t experienced IPV.

Lastly, the overall classification accuracy is the proportion of observed (those who experienced IPV) and non-observed (those who did not experience IPV) that were correctly predicted by the model. Here, the result is computed as:  $100 \%*( 173+24) / (173+11+31+24) = 100\%*197/239= 82. 42\%$ . This implies that in the present study sample, 82. 42 % of predictions regarding group membership on the dependent variable (DV), that is, experience of IPV are accurate. Therefore, the performance of the model in terms of predicting category/group membership on the dependent variable is appropriate and aligns with the stated goal of the

analysis. Table 6.19 presents the predictive variables in the equation with individual contributions of each predictive variable in the model at the 95% confidence interval.

**Table 6.19:**

*Predictive Variables in the Equation*

|                     |                                | Variables in the Equation |       |        |    |      | 95% C.I. for EXP(B) |       |       |
|---------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------|-------|--------|----|------|---------------------|-------|-------|
|                     |                                | B                         | S.E.  | Wald   | df | Sig. | Exp(B)              | Lower | Upper |
| Step 1 <sup>a</sup> | work place                     | -.612                     | .215  | 8.078  | 1  | .004 | .542                | .356  | .827  |
|                     | Gender                         | -.293                     | .393  | .557   | 1  | .455 | .746                | .345  | 1.611 |
|                     | Age                            | -.036                     | .027  | 1.748  | 1  | .186 | .965                | .914  | 1.018 |
|                     | Highest Educational Attainment | -.016                     | .259  | .004   | 1  | .951 | .984                | .593  | 1.634 |
|                     | Marital Status                 | -.308                     | .338  | .830   | 1  | .362 | .735                | .379  | 1.425 |
|                     | Do You have Children?          | .713                      | .649  | 1.208  | 1  | .272 | 2.040               | .572  | 7.275 |
|                     | Socio-Economic Rank            | -.079                     | .222  | .127   | 1  | .722 | .924                | .598  | 1.427 |
|                     | Avoidance Attach               | -.497                     | .373  | 1.772  | 1  | .183 | .608                | .293  | 1.265 |
|                     | Anxious Attach                 | .317                      | .247  | 1.651  | 1  | .199 | 1.373               | .847  | 2.226 |
|                     | Relational Satisfaction        | -.752                     | .182  | 17.007 | 1  | .000 | .471                | .330  | .674  |
|                     | CI_R_Positive                  | .067                      | .200  | .111   | 1  | .739 | 1.069               | .722  | 1.582 |
|                     | CI_R_Demanding                 | .201                      | .219  | .838   | 1  | .360 | 1.222               | .796  | 1.877 |
|                     | CI_R_Withdrawal                | .523                      | .262  | 3.990  | 1  | .046 | 1.687               | 1.010 | 2.817 |
|                     | Constant                       | 3.572                     | 2.343 | 2.324  | 1  | .127 | 35.573              |       |       |

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: School Level , Gender, Age, Highest Educational Attainment, Marital Status, Do You have Children?, Socio-Economic Rank, AvoidanceAttach, AnxiousAttach, RAS, CI\_R\_Positive, CI\_R\_Demanding, CI\_R\_Withdrawal.

$$Y(\text{IPV}) = b_0 (\text{Working place} + \text{Gender} + \text{Age} + \text{Highest Educational Attainment} +$$

$$\text{Marital Status} + \text{have Children} + \text{Socio-Economic Rank} + \text{Average Monthly Income} + \text{ECR} \\ \text{Avoidant\_Attachment} + \text{ECRAnxious\_Attachment} + \text{RAS} + \text{CI\_RProblemSolving} + \text{CI\_RDemand} + \\ \text{CI\_RWithdrawal}).$$

Three independent variables emerged as predictors of the experience of IPV: workplace (schools), relationship satisfaction (RAS) and the withdrawal conflict resolution strategy from the CI-R. The other variables were non-significant factors in the model.

For the ease of presentation and description of the findings, the results are presented in the subsequent sub headings: a) Demographic variables as predictors of IPV, b) Attachment styles (ECR scale) as predictors of IPV, c) Relationship satisfaction (RAS scale) as predictors of IPV, and d) Conflict resolution strategies (CI-R scale) as predictors of IPV. Under each subheadings, significant variables are discussed first, followed by a description of the non-significant variables.

### 6.3.1 Demographic variables as predictors of IPV

As illustrated in Table 6.19 above, work place is the only demographic significant predictor of IPV ( $X^2(1) = 8.078, P = .004$ ) in this study. The chance of experiencing IPV is negatively and significantly associated with being a secondary school teacher or university staff member than primary school teacher ( $B = -.612, SE = .215, p = .004$ ). This implies that being a secondary school teacher, university staff or a current college student significantly decreases the chance of experiencing IPV in the model than being a primary school. Accordingly, being a non-primary school teacher will decrease the probability of experiencing IPV by 45.8% in comparison with being a primary school staff [% change =  $100(OR-1)$ ] = % change  $(.542-1) = -0.458$ .

On the other hand, gender emerged as a non-significant predictor of IPV ( $B = -.293, SE = .393, p = .455$ ), yet being female decreased the probability of experiencing IPV by 25.4% in comparison with being a male [% change =  $100(OR-1)$ ] = % change  $(.746-1) = -0.254$ .

The model revealed that age is a non-significant predictive factor, however, as age increases by a unit (.965), the probability of experiencing IPV decreases by 3.5% [% change =  $100(OR-1)$ ] = % change  $(.965-1) = -0.035$ ].

Educational level was also a non-significant predictor, but lower educational status increased the chance of experiencing IPV by .984 units. The chance of a couple with higher levels of educational attendance experiencing IPV decreased by 1,6% ( $B=-.016$ ,  $SE=.259$ ,  $p = .951$ ) or the probability of experiencing IPV decreased by 1.6% [ $\%change=100(OR-1)$ ] =  $\%change (.984-1) = -0.016$  for higher educational attendants. This implies that the probability of those respondents with lower educational status reporting IPV is higher than those with the highest education status.

Marital status emerged as a non-significant predictor of IPV, yet has the potential to decrease the probability of experiencing IPV in romantic relationship in comparison to being single or cohabiting with a partner. Accordingly marital status decreases the chance of experiencing IPV by 26.5% [ $B=-.308$ ,  $SE=.338$ ,  $p=.362$ ; [ $\% change = 100 (OR -1)$ ] =  $P\% change (.735-1) = -0.265$ ] in comparison to being single, but being in a romantic relationship or cohabitation will decrease the chance of experiencing IPV. These results imply that marital status may play some role in decreasing the probability of experiencing IPV.

Having a child is a positive and non-significant predictor of IPV. This means having a child may increase the probability of experiencing IPV by 104% ( $B=.713$ ,  $SE=.649$ ,  $p=.272$ ) or the higher chance of experiencing IPV [ $\%change=100(OR-1)$ ]=  $\%change(2.040-1)=1.04$ .

A higher economic status, while non-significant, may decrease the chance of experiencing IPV by 7,6% ( $B=-.079$ ,  $SE=.222$ ,  $p=.722$ ). Therefore, the chance of a couple with higher economic status experiencing IPV may be lower (7.6%) [ $\%change=100(OR-1)$ ]=  $\%change(.924-1)=-0.076$  than lower economic status. This implies that those participants with lower economic status may be more vulnerable to the experience of IPV than those with higher economic status.

To conclude, work place (sector) is the only significant predictor of IPV in this sample, and being a university staff member significantly decreases the chance of experiencing IPV. Other demographic variables (gender, age, educational level, marital status, having a child and socio-economic status) all emerged as non-significant predictors. As presented and described above, being a male, having achieved a lower educational level, being single or cohabitating with a partner, having a child and lower socio-economic status may put individuals at higher risk of experiencing IPV.

### **6.3.2 Attachment styles as predictors of IPV**

As discussed in chapters 2 and 3, there seems to be contradictory evidence in the literature related to the assessment of attachment styles (ECR Scale) as a predictor of IPV. It has been hypothesized that: *Increased endorsements of anxious or avoidant attachment styles will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.* Based on this general hypothesis, the following two hypotheses were formulated to examine attachment styles (Avoidance vs. Anxious) as predictors of IPV.

#### **Hypothesis A1**

Null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ): Increased endorsement of avoidant attachment will not predict higher odds of IPV.

Alternate hypothesis ( $H_1$ ): Increased endorsement of avoidance attachment will predict higher odds of IPV.

#### **Hypothesis A2**

Null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ): Increased endorsement of anxious attachment will not significantly predict higher odds of IPV.

Alternate hypothesis ( $H_1$ ): Increased endorsement of anxious attachment will predict higher odds of IPV.

As indicated in Table 6.19, avoidant attachment emerged as a negative and non-significant predictor of IPV ( $B = -.497$ ,  $SE = .373$ ,  $p = .183$ ). Accordingly, as avoidant attachment increases by one unit (.608), IPV will decrease by 39.2%. Therefore, the chance of experiencing IPV among individuals who report avoidant attachment decreases by 39.2%.  $[\%change=100(OR-1)]= \%change. (.608-1)=-.392$  among participants of this study. The study confirms that more avoidant attachment does not predict IPV, and therefore fails to reject the null hypothesis of Hypothesis A1.

With respect to Hypothesis A2, Table 6.19 shows that anxious attachment is a positive, non-significant predictor of IPV ( $B = .317$ ,  $SE = .247$ ,  $p = .199$ ), and implies that more anxious attachment will increase the probability of experiencing IPV by 37.3%. Therefore, the chance of experiencing IPV among anxiously attached partners is  $[\%change=100(OR-1)] = \%change (1.373-1) = 37.3\%$ . . This implies that, having a more anxious attachment style puts individuals at risk of experiencing IPV, yet the prediction is not significant. Thus, it failed to reject the null hypothesis of Hypothesis A2.

To align with the broader hypothesis stated above “*Increased endorsements of anxious or avoidant attachment styles will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV*”, the current study has failed to confirm this hypothesis.

### **6.3.3 Conflict Resolution Strategies as predictors of IPV**

In order to assess conflict resolution strategies (CI-R Scale) as a significant predictor of IPV, the general hypothesis that states *More frequent use of demand and withdrawal conflict resolution strategies will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV* has been formulated. Based on this general hypothesis three hypotheses were formulated and tested.

### **Hypothesis B1**

Null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ): More use of demanding conflict resolution strategies will not significantly

Predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.

Alternate hypothesis ( $H_1$ ): More use of demanding conflict resolution strategies will

significantly predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.

### **Hypothesis B2**

Null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ): More use of withdrawal conflict resolution strategies will not significantly

predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.

Alternate hypothesis ( $H_1$ ): More use of withdrawal conflict resolution strategies will

significantly predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.

### **Hypothesis B3:**

Null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ): More use of problem-solving conflict resolution strategies will not

significantly predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.

Alternate hypothesis ( $H_1$ ): More use of problem-solving conflict resolution strategies will

significantly predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.

Results reported in Table 6.19 show that among conflict resolution strategies, withdrawal is a positive and significant predictor of IPV ( $B = .523$ ,  $SE = .262$ ,  $p = .046$ ). Therefore, as a partner draws from increasing withdrawal behaviors to resolve conflict, the probability of experiencing IPV significantly increases. Thus, increments of withdrawal by a unit increases the chance of IPV by 68.7% [%change  $(1.687-1) = 68,7\%$ ] in this study sample. This finding confirms the alternate hypothesis of Hypothesis B2 indicating that *More use of withdrawal conflict resolution strategies will significantly predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.*

With regard to demanding conflict resolution behaviors, Table 6.19 reported a positive but non-significant result ( $B = .201$ ;  $SE = .219$ ,  $p = .360$ ), failing to reject the null hypothesis in Hypothesis B1. Demand strategies only increase the chance of experiencing IPV by 22.2%. Thus, increments of demanding strategy by a unit increases the chance of IPV by 22.2% [%change  $(1.222 - 1) = 22.2\%$ ] in this study sample.

Problem-solving conflict resolution techniques also showed a positive but non-significant result ( $B = .067$ ;  $SE = .200$ ,  $p = .739$ ). Application of positive conflict resolution techniques will increase the risk and chance of IPV, but only by 6.9%. Increments of positive strategy by a unit increases the chance of IPV by only 6.9% [%change  $(1.069 - 1) = 6.9\%$ ] in this study sample. This result fails to reject the null hypothesis in Hypothesis B3.

To align with the broader hypothesis stated above “*More frequent use of demand and withdrawal conflict resolution strategies will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV*”, the current study has partially failed to confirm this hypothesis since only withdrawal strategies predict the chance of experiencing IPV.

#### **6.3.4 Relationship satisfaction as a predictor of IPV**

In order to assess relationship satisfaction as a predictor of IPV, it has been hypothesized that *Lower relationship satisfaction will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV*. Specifically, it has been stated as:

##### **Hypothesis C:**

**Null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ):** Lower relational satisfaction does not predict more IPV experience.

**Alternate hypothesis ( $H_1$ ):** Lower relational satisfaction predicts more IPV experience.

As shown in Table 6.19, relationship satisfaction (RAS Scale) emerged as a negative and significant predictor of IPV ( $B = -.752$ ,  $SE = .182$ ,  $p = .000$ ) or,  $\chi^2(1) = 17.007$ ,  $p = .000$ . This implies that relationship dissatisfaction (lower relationship satisfaction) increases the probability of experiencing IPV among participants of the study. The odds ratio of being dissatisfied in the romantic relationship was .471, which indicates relationship dissatisfaction increases IPV by 52.9% [ $\%change=100(OR-1)$ ] = % change  $(.471-1) = -.529$ . Therefore, it is possible to conclude that more relationship dissatisfaction significantly predicts more IPV experience. This finding aligns with the alternate hypothesis which states that *lower relational satisfaction predicts more IPV experience*. To align with the broader hypothesis stated above “*Lower relationship satisfaction will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV*”, the current study has confirmed the hypothesis.

**Table 6.20 :***Summary Hypothesis Scales and Their Relationship with IPV*

| S/N | Hypothesis  | Regression weight | Mean | SD        | Beta | Wald  | p-value | Result                            |
|-----|---|-------------------|------|-----------|------|-------|---------|-----------------------------------|
| A1  | H <sub>0</sub> = Avoidant attachment does not significantly predict IPV.<br>H <sub>1</sub> = Avoidant attachment significantly predicts IPV.  | AvAt--->IPV       | 3.25 | 1.01      | -.61 | 1.81  | .18     | H <sub>0</sub> =Failed to reject  |
| A2  | H <sub>0</sub> = Anxious attachment does not significantly predict IPV.<br>H <sub>1</sub> = Anxious attachment significantly predicts IPV.  | AxAt---->IPV      | 3.83 | .99       | .29  | .87   | .35     | H <sub>0</sub> =Failed to reject  |
| B1  | H <sub>0</sub> =More use of demanding conflict resolution strategies will not predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.<br>H <sub>1</sub> = More use of demanding conflict resolution strategies will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.             | Problem--->IPV    | 4.18 | 1.07      | -.07 | .09   | .76     | H <sub>0</sub> = Failed to reject |
| B2  | H <sub>0</sub> =More use of withdrawal conflict resolution strategies will not predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.<br>H <sub>1</sub> = More use of withdrawal conflict resolution strategies will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.           | Dem--->IPV        | 2.01 | .96       | .13  | .31   | .58     | H <sub>1</sub> =Supported         |
| B3  | H <sub>0</sub> =More use of problem-solving conflict resolution strategies will not predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.<br>H <sub>1</sub> = More use of problem-solving conflict resolution strategies will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV. | With--->IPV       | 2.71 | 1.03      | .63  | 4.52  | .03     | H <sub>0</sub> = Failed to reject |
| C1  | H <sub>0</sub> = Relationship satisfaction does not significantly predict IPV.<br>H <sub>1</sub> = Relationship satisfaction significantly predict IPV.   | Re;Sat---->IPV    | 5.02 | -<br>2.06 | -.86 | 13.53 | .000    | H <sub>1</sub> =Supported         |

**Legend:** AvAt=Avoidant attachment, AxAt=Anxious Attachment, Problem=Prob conflict resolution, Dem=Demand conflict resolution, With= Withdrawal conflict resolution, RelSat= Relationship satisfaction. IPV= Intimate Partner violence

## SUMMARY

Table 6.20 summarizes the hypotheses of selected study variables and their relationship with IPV. There is no evidence that avoidant attachment and anxious attachment significantly predict IPV in this study sample. Moreover, among conflict resolution strategies, demand and problem-solving strategies do not significantly predict IPV, yet both problem solving strategies and demanding strategies increase the probability and may put individuals at higher risk of experiencing IPV. On the other hand, there is evidence to show that withdrawal conflict resolution strategies significantly predict IPV, as does relationship dissatisfaction.

## CHAPTER SEVEN

### 7. DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

#### INTRODUCTION

This study examined attachment styles, conflict resolution strategies, and relationship satisfaction as relational predictors of IPV among Ethiopian couples. This broad research aim was to investigate: *What are the relational predictors of IPV in an Ethiopian sample?*

Moreover, this project has tested the following hypotheses:

1. Increased endorsements of anxious or avoidant attachment styles will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.
2. More frequent use of demand and withdrawal conflict resolution strategies will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.
3. Lower relationship satisfaction will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.

In this discussion chapter the results obtained in Chapter 6 have been discussed in relation to the available literature. The chapter is divided into two sections, where the first addresses the discussion of alignment of the sample's demographics and means obtained from the ECR, CI-R, RAS and prevalence incidence of IPV based on CASr-SF tool, with the available literature. The second section discusses the identified relational predictors (withdrawal conflict resolution strategies and relationship dissatisfaction) of IPV in this Ethiopian sample, drawing from an attachment lens, considering implications for IPV prevention and interventions in the study area.

## 7.1 ALIGNMENT OF SAMPLE DEMOGRAPHICS WITH AVAILABLE LITERATURE

This study sample focuses on relationship experiences amongst Hawassa city residents in Ethiopia, which is an important contribution to the available Ethiopian literature. As stated under Chapters One and Four of this study, Hawassa is a small university town, which is fairly well developed with good infrastructure but not as urbanized as the capital (Addis Ababa), and yet not as rural as other parts of Ethiopia. IPV is highly prevalent in Ethiopia and Hawassa. Previous studies on IPV in Ethiopia are almost exclusively based on the association between IPV and demographic variables. To the best of the author's knowledge, as demonstrated in Chapter Two, the literature review, very little empirical evidence exists about the association between IPV and relational predictors within the Ethiopian context.

In this study, an Ethiopian sample drawn from Hawassa drew from mostly employed residents working in local schools and university settings as teachers (42.2%) and academics (35.5%). This speaks to a particularly well-educated group of participants, where 44.3% had completed postgraduate (either MA and/or PhD) training. Most participants self-identified as middle-income earners in Ethiopian standards.

Importantly the sample included majority male respondents (61%), which is unusual considering that much of previous research on IPV in Ethiopia has concentrated on predominantly female samples (e.g., Ayenew, 2016; CSA & IFC, 2016; Girma, 2020; Meaza, 2014). This may be due to the high proportion of male university academics and graduates, as well as teachers. UNESCO (2020) reports that females represent fewer than 30% of teachers in Sub-Saharan Africa, including Ethiopia. Other researchers (Molla, 2018; Semela et al., 2020; Semela, 2007) have noted gender disparities in Ethiopian public universities due partly to the insufficient academic, counselling, and financial support made available for women to pursue

academic careers. The high proportion of male respondents in this study provides a novel opportunity to examine relational predictors of IPV, as previous studies predominantly recruited female participants.

While the participants ranged in age from 19-65 years, the majority were under the age of 30 (40.7%), and married (56.3%). Those married participants reported 1.22 children on average living in their households. This is considerably lower than the national average estimated at 4.6 children per Ethiopian woman (CSA & IFC, 2016). One reason for this finding may be that the participants of this study were particularly well educated (at least attended post-secondary school college education) and living exclusively in urban settings; two variables closely associated with reduced number of children in the household. The national survey conducted in 2016 indicated that women living in more rural areas of Ethiopia have on average 2.9 more children than women living in more urban areas (5.2 versus 2.3 children); and the number of children per woman declines with increasing education (CSA & IFC, 2016).

Concerning IPV prevalence, the current study found that 23% (9.2% female and 14.4% male) of the respondents reported experiencing IPV. This is considerably lower than the national prevalence estimated at 37% among ever-married/partnered women (WHO, 2021). Similarly, it is well below the global (27%) and sub-Saharan African (33%) estimates (WHO, 2021). It is also of interest that male respondents reported more IPV. While there are no statistical figures that show gender differences in IPV prevalence in Ethiopia, to compare these findings with, one reason for comparable reports of IPV in this sample across gender is likely the dominant gender and educational attainment of the study participants. Consistently, previous study findings (e.g., Fekadu et al., 2018; Kebede et al., 2022; Tussa et al., 2020) suggests that economic empowerment could decrease the probability of IPV.

Concerning attachment dimensions, participants of this study demonstrated low to moderate anxious ( $M=3.87$ ,  $SD: 0.872$ ) and avoidant ( $M=3.25$ ,  $SD: 0.687$ ) attachment styles. These results are presented and compared with previous cross-cultural finding in Table 7.1 below.

**Table 7.1:***Comparisons of Attachment Styles, Conflict Resolution Strategies and Relationship Satisfaction*

| Scale                        | Dimensions                | Current study  |             | Results from Bretaña et al (2019) |         |             |      |           |      |           |      |
|------------------------------|---------------------------|----------------|-------------|-----------------------------------|---------|-------------|------|-----------|------|-----------|------|
|                              |                           | Ethiopia n=318 | Spain n=162 | Israel n=86                       | US n=49 | Turkey n=46 |      |           |      |           |      |
| ECR Attachment Styles        |                           | <i>M</i>       | 3.83        | <i>M</i>                          | 3.60    | <i>M</i>    | 3.26 | <i>M</i>  | 2.93 | <i>M</i>  | 4.55 |
|                              | Anxious                   | <i>SD</i>      | 0.87        | <i>SD</i>                         | 0.78    | <i>SD</i>   | 1.02 | <i>SD</i> | 0.98 | <i>SD</i> | 1.58 |
|                              |                           | <i>M</i>       | 3.25        | <i>M</i>                          | 2.17    | <i>M</i>    | 2.96 | <i>M</i>  | 2.11 | <i>M</i>  | 3.57 |
|                              | Avoidant                  | <i>SD</i>      | 0.69        | <i>SD</i>                         | 0.78    | <i>SD</i>   | 0.88 | <i>SD</i> | 0.89 | <i>SD</i> | 1.69 |
| Own CI-R Conflict Resolution |                           | <i>M</i>       | 2.01        | <i>M</i>                          | 1.81    | <i>M</i>    | 2.12 | <i>M</i>  | 1.76 | <i>M</i>  | 4.13 |
|                              | Demand                    | <i>SD</i>      | 0.96        | <i>SD</i>                         | 0.59    | <i>SD</i>   | 0.71 | <i>SD</i> | 0.48 | <i>SD</i> | 1.13 |
|                              |                           | <i>M</i>       | 2.71        | <i>M</i>                          | 3.02    | <i>M</i>    | 2.73 | <i>M</i>  | 2.73 | <i>M</i>  | 2.20 |
|                              | Withdrawal                | <i>SD</i>      | 1.02        | <i>SD</i>                         | 0.81    | <i>SD</i>   | 0.77 | <i>SD</i> | 0.79 | <i>SD</i> | 1.45 |
| RAS                          |                           | <i>M</i>       | 4.18        | <i>M</i>                          | 4.67    | <i>M</i>    | 4.60 | <i>M</i>  | 4.63 | <i>M</i>  | 4.56 |
|                              | Problem Solving           | <i>SD</i>      | 1.07        | <i>SD</i>                         | 0.76    | <i>SD</i>   | 1.02 | <i>SD</i> | 0.91 | <i>SD</i> | 1.58 |
|                              |                           | <i>M</i>       | 5.02        | <i>M</i>                          | 6.13    | <i>M</i>    | 5.98 | <i>M</i>  | 6.05 | <i>M</i>  | 6.17 |
|                              | Relationship Satisfaction | <i>SD</i>      | 1.07        | <i>SD</i>                         | 0.72    | <i>SD</i>   | 0.78 | <i>SD</i> | 0.79 | <i>SD</i> | 2.08 |

It must be noted that the comparative means presented in Table 7.1 draw from exclusively female samples across Spain, Israel, the US and Turkey. When compared to these findings (Bretaña et al., 2019), this Ethiopian sample demonstrated slightly higher anxious attachment means in comparison with Spain, Israel, and the US, but not as high as the Turkish sample, yet these differences were not significant (one standard deviation above or below the mean). The Ethiopian sample reported a significantly higher avoidant attachment mean in

comparison with Spain and the US but commensurate with Israel and Turkey. Among the few studies that have been conducted in Ethiopia on adult attachment styles, Ayenew (2016) reported low anxious and avoidant attachment styles in a community-based survey of participants in Addis Ababa. This result aligns somewhat with the findings of the current study. It could be argued that living and working in more urban settings, coupled with the financial stability that employment in these contexts provides may be influencing how participants experience attachment in their romantic relationships (as more secure), though research to substantiate this argument is not currently available.

In contradiction, Schmitt et al. (2004) found that Ethiopia was among those cultural regions that scored higher on insecure (anxious and avoidant) versus secure romantic attachment in their sample of college students studying in the US. This may be because Schmitt and colleagues (2004) drew from colleague samples who were experiencing stressful new working (living) and cultural environments having moved to the US. Belsky and his colleagues (1991) and Chisholm (1996) explain that certain social experiences can affect romantic attachment styles in evolutionary adaptive ways. Namely, those people who are socially exposed to high levels of stress tend to develop insecure romantic attachment styles associated with short-term romances. The other difference could be attributed to age. Majority of Schmitt and colleagues (2004) samples were restricted to college-age populations and found that older participants across cultures reported more secure attachment.

In terms of conflict resolution strategies in the current study, the demand mean was fairly similar to Spanish, Israeli and the US means, but significantly lower than the Turkish mean, while no significant differences were noted for the withdrawal and problem-solving strategy means in comparison with the other samples. This might be because of cultural and societal

attitudinal changes in Ethiopia. For instance, Cherlin (2012) argues that the Western ideology of companionship and romantic love is spreading and African conception of marriage union is being challenged. Likely a structural shift of the relationship pattern is being observed in Ethiopia, especially in urban and peri-urban settings (Ezra, 2003; Sibanda et al., 2003). On the other hand, there is a difference between rural and urban residents in their attitude towards conflict resolution (CSA & ICF, 2016); Wado et al., 2021). But participants of this study are exclusively from urban residents, so their endorsements of these strategies may be different from samples in more rural areas.

While relationship satisfaction was lowest in the Ethiopian sample, differences were not significant, and overall the sample reported fairly high relationship satisfaction. These high endorsements of relationship satisfaction in the current study are consistent with previous studies (Girma, 2020; Meaza, 2014) in other Ethiopian samples. Specifically, Melkamu and Seblewongiel (2020) reported 87.9% of men were satisfied with their marital relationships. However the same study reported that 57.1% of women were dissatisfied in their marriages. This suggests significant gender variation in reports of relationship satisfaction in Ethiopian samples. Even though Ethiopia is considered as a nation with higher IPV prevalence, high endorsements of relationship satisfaction in this study could be attributed to gender difference (with more representation of male responses in the current study), educational attainment and cultural differences. As Ezra (2003) explains, education is the key 'modernization variable' in Ethiopia, promoting a later marriageable age, a greater say in mate selection; a reduced risk of being in a polygamous marriage, and more relationship happiness. Melkamu and Seblewongiel (2020) add that education attainment of a first degree and above were significantly associated with increased relationship satisfaction.

## **7.2 UNDERSTANDING RELATIONAL PREDICTORS OF IPV IN THE CONTEXT OF AVAILABLE LITERATURE, AND ATTACHMENT THEORY**

In the following section, predictors of IPV have been discussed in line with previous literature and research findings. For the sake of simplicity and flow of ideas, discussion points are categorized into four sub-titles: 1) demographic variables as predictors of IPV, 2) attachment styles as predictors of IPV, 3) conflict resolution strategies as predictors of IPV and 4) relationship satisfaction as predictor of IPV.

### **7.2.1 Demographic variables as predictors of IPV**

In this study, it has been found that working place is a significant predictor of IPV. But, gender, education level and attainment, age, relationship status, number of children and socio-economic status are all non-significant predictors of IPV, though they may put individuals at risk of experiencing IPV. Descriptions for each demographic variables are presented as follow.

#### **A) Gender**

Gender as a non-significant predictor of IPV has been reported in some studies (see for example: Archer, 2000; Desmarais et al., 2012; Gass et al., 2011; Smith et al. 2018) who have all argued that both men and women are equally likely to be perpetrators and victims of IPV. These findings suggest that comparable numbers of males and females have faced different types of IPV in different countries. In Ethiopia, research that speaks to the frequency of IPV and gender variations in victims, perpetrators, and witnesses is scarce and little research has been dedicated to examining how gender differences predict IPV across the life course. Previous studies for example: Abeya et al, 2012; Belay et al, 2022; Chernet & Cherie, 2020; Fekadu et al, 2018; Fetene et al., 2022; Tadesse) as well as meta-analyses that are mainly based on the latest EDHS data (for example: Bifftu et al, 2019; Seid et al, 2021; Tiruye et al, 2020; Tsega et al , 2022);

and population based studies (for example: EDHS) have overlooked gender differences in violence perpetration and victimization. They considered the problem of IPV as a gendered phenomenon and excluded male participants, failing to examine gender differences (if any). Although the high prevalence of violence in Ethiopia has been well-documented, questions remain as to how gender differences in society pose a differential risk for IPV in males and females. So, this research begins to address this gap and raises important questions about whether gender plays a significant role in IPV within Ethiopia, particularly when considering other variables such as education and socio-economic status.

### **B) Education level and attainment**

The current study findings indicate that lower educational status may increase the risk of experiencing IPV, but that higher educational attainment does not necessarily protect participants from IPV. In this study, educational attainment has emerged as negative and non significant predictor of IPV. This is consistent with UNFPA (2021) report that revealed in many African countries, IPV rates are highest among women with the lowest level of education (i.e. primary schooling only or no education). However in some African and other countries (e.g.: Bhutan, Gambia, Lebanon, Maldives, Malawi, Mozambique, Papua New Guinea and Senegal), a high prevalence of IPV was also reported among women with higher education. The finding of this study is also consistent with previous studies conducted in Ethiopia. For instance, Biftu and Guracho (2022) and Tussa et al (2020) reported that women with no formal education were more likely to experience IPV, compared with women with formal education. Moreover, they showed that although tertiary education was not a significant predictor of IPV, these women were at higher risk. Such findings imply that completion of college education is not guaranteed to protect against IPV.

### **C) Age**

Although age was found to be a non-significant predictor, as age increased, the probability of experiencing IPV decreased. This is consistent with other Ethiopian research (Chernet & Cherie, 2020; Gebrewahd et al., 2020; UNFPA, 2021) that indicates the vulnerability and incidence of IPV prevalence is higher among younger women compared with older women. The reasons for this vulnerability are unclear but could be associated with a lack of essential life skills impacting on how younger men and women manage conflict escalation in romantic relationships; however this explanation would require further investigation in the future.

### **D) Relationship status**

Relationship status (e.g. single, married, cohabiting & divorced) emerged as a non-significant predictor of IPV experience, however, being in a marital relationship appeared to decrease the chance of experiencing IPV, more so than being a single, divorced or cohabiting partner. This is consistent with previous findings in Ethiopian samples (See for example: Gunarathne et al., 2023; CSA & IFC, 2016; Manning et al., 2018; Rezey's, 2020; Sutton & Dawson, 2021; Unsar et al., 2016) and may be reflective of a social protection afforded to more educated segments of the Ethiopian population who benefit from more active mate selection, who marry later and experience higher socio-economic status and stability (Ezra, 2003).

### **E) Number of children**

While number of children in a family was not found to be a significant predictor of IPV, having one or more children appeared to increase the risk of experiencing IPV. This finding is consistent with previous studies (see for example Bair-Merritt et al., 2008 ; CSA & ICF, 2016; Job et al., 2020 ; Izugbara et al., 2020 ; Jetelina et al. ,2021; Memiah et al., 2021; Peek-Asa et al.

2017; Sabri et al., 2014) that found having living children in the home increased the probability and prevalence of IPV. The reasons for this are mainly linked with the economic stress and frustration in providing for these large families (Izugbara et al., 2020). The current finding contradicts previous finding reported by Mulatu and colleagues (2024) who found that in Ethiopia women with more than 5 children were 52% less likely to experience IPV compared to those women who had no living children. The presence of living children in the home could serve as a protective factor against IPV because the responsibility of caring for multiple children may motivate women to seek help or find ways to protect themselves from abuse (Mulatu et al., 2024). From a cultural perspective, a large family may be considered desirable and socially valued; so that women with many children may receive more social recognition and respect, which could indirectly, reduce their vulnerability to IPV (Mulatu et al., 2024).

#### **F) Socio-Economic Status**

In the current study, monthly income emerged as another non-significant predictor of IPV. Those participants with lower economic status may have been more vulnerable to the experience of IPV than higher income earners. This finding is congruent with UNFPA's (2021) report that women in the lowest household wealth groups are more likely to face IPV. This finding is further support by other Ethiopian studies (See for example: Chernet & Cherie, 2020; Tussa et al., 2022).

#### **7.2.2 Attachment styles as predictors of IPV**

While the current study hypothesized that *Increased endorsements of anxious or avoidant attachment styles will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV*, no significant association between these attachment dimensions (anxious and avoidant) and the experience of IPV was found. However, increased anxious attachment may increase the probability of experiencing IPV,

while increased avoidant attachment may decrease the probability of experiencing IPV in the current sample. This non-significant result contradicts the findings of Velotti et al.'s (2022) meta-analysis which indicated a significant association between IPV and both anxiety and avoidance dimensions of attachment. They demonstrated that anxious attachment was associated with all forms of IPV (physical, psychological and sexual), while avoidant attachment was significantly associated with sexual violence. However, Velotti et al. (2022) did not find significant associations between avoidant attachment and aggression. They conclude that the results underscore the need for additional research to explore the role of other potential moderating and mediating variables in the relationship between attachment and IPV, in order to better support the development of prevention and treatment interventions (Velotti et al., 2022).

Lawson and Brossart (2009) found that anxious attachment styles are good predictors of psychological and mild physical aggression. In their longitudinal study, Crawford et al. (2006) found more anxious attachment was related to self-reported interpersonal aggression. Similarly, Barbaro et al. (2019) also stated that those individuals who scored high in attachment anxiety are at higher risk of IPV perpetration, as a maladaptive way of managing their disturbed affect regulation and cognition, which in turn, pushes them to use IPV as a tool to provide proximity when their fear of loss is activated. While studies by Babcock and colleagues (2000), Genest and Mathieu (2014), Li and Chan (2012), Mauricio and López (2009) and Mayseless (1991) all provide evidence in support of the association between avoidant attachment styles and IPV.

These conflicting study outcomes could be understood through an attachment lens. Individuals with higher anxious attachment focus on building intimacy, connection and commitment in their romantic relationships in order to establish a sense of security and safety (Bretaña et al., 2024). They are proximity seeking, wishing to feel closeness, experience open

communication and vulnerability in their romantic relationships (Doumas et al., 2008). However, when this way of receiving love and care in a relationship is not achieved, a more anxiously attached person may experience this as abandonment, and the love they seek as unattainable. They may respond to attachment-related deterring behaviours, such as perceived partner distancing, with proximity-seeking behaviour which may escalate to pushing, shoving and other more aggressive violent interactions, as a way to “pull” their partner back into the relationship (Maysseless, 1991)

Avoidant attachment emphasizes independence and maintaining emotional distance from a romantic partner (Fraley et al., 1998). Individuals who exhibit higher avoidant attachment experience conflict as overwhelming, and are likely to perceive conflict situations and the behavioural reactions and responses of others more negatively (Corcoran & Mallinckrodt, 2000; Crowley, 2008). As a consequence they use distancing strategies to resolve conflicts which in turn, might reduce the engagement in violent behaviours initially. This implies that such a response may reduce the incidence of IPV in their relationships. However, research on IPV perpetrators who demonstrate high avoidant attachment indicates that these individuals are more likely to use violence to maintain emotional distance as a way of exerting control or revenge (Fraley et al., 1998). This suggests that if the partner of a more avoidant individual were to pursue a conflict, and not respond by shutting down in the face of this avoidant behaviour, such pursuit may be responded to with violence by the more avoidant partner. This argument suggests that the interaction that emerges between proximity seeking behaviours (of more anxiously attached partners) and the avoiding and withdrawing behaviours (of more avoidantly attached partners) may be a better explanation of the escalation of IPV than specific partner attachment styles, in the current study sample.

There may also be an important cultural lens in understanding this finding. Ethiopia is a country where more male-dominance is common and accepted, while women often assume a more passive and non-confrontational role during conflicts in romantic relationships (Johnson, 2006; Smedley et al., 2021; Straus & Gozjolko, 2014). Ethiopian society promotes withdrawal and distancing in response to a conflict, and being submissive as a means of promoting group harmony (Habtmu, 2005). Approaches to conflict that challenge these norms (such as proximity seeking) may increase the probability of IPV.

### **7.2.3 Conflict Resolution Strategies as Predictors of IPV**

In romantic relationships, interpersonal conflict is an expected and unavoidable component, and intimate couples are more likely than acquaintances to experience frequent and intense disagreements (Cahn, 1990). The ways partners handle, manage and resolve the conflict matters and has an important impact on the quality of the relationship (Comstock & Sterzizweick, 1990; Gottman & Levenson, 1988). De La Rue et al., (2017) explain that conflict resolution strategies in romantic relationships are skills that can be strengthened to prevent IPV.

Three conflict resolution strategies were tested in this study: demand, withdrawal and problem-solving. While the current study hypothesized that “More frequent use of demand and withdrawal conflict resolution strategies will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV” the study found that only withdrawal emerged as a positive and significant predictor of IPV. This result is congruent with previous findings (Arsenal et al., 2023; Bonache et al., 2017; Bonache et al., 2016; Bretaña et al., 2024; Hellmuth et al., 2014; Leavitt & Willoughby, 2015; Pedersen & Thomas, 1992) where self-reported withdrawal behaviors were significantly linked to different types of IPV (psychological abuse, sexual coercion and physical abuse). Miga et al. (2010) and Feeney and Karantzas (2017) explain that the use of such withdrawal behaviors have the

potential to escalate a partner's likelihood of aggressive responses and engagement in battering behavior.

In Ethiopia, women are often expected to be submissive, quiet, and loyal to their husbands. This would characterise withdrawal behavior (Habtamu, 2005). While previous Ethiopian studies (see for example: Ayenew, 2016; Engidasew, 2013; Girma, 2020; Habtamu, 2005; Meaza, 2014; Tegegn et al. 2015) identified poor communication and misunderstandings, and decline in sexual satisfaction as significant predictors of relationship satisfaction which over time led to IPV, specific conflict resolution strategies as predictors in Ethiopian samples is a novel contribution to the research. Here, an argument could be made that more evasive communication and a higher use of withdrawal and distancing conflict resolution strategies may be experienced by the other partner as unsupportive (Tamres et al., 2002) and the relationship as devalued (Creasey & Ladd, 2004); and may gradually reinforce the use of aggression and violence in the relationship. This makes sense from an attachment lens in that people may use conflict provoking strategies when arguments escalate to maintain independence and relational distance from their partners (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2012), which in turn, increases the probability of experiencing IPV. Thus, it is possible that withdrawal conflict resolution strategies are more frequent among people reporting IPV (Bonache et al., 2016). Following this thinking when couples use more problem-solving conflict resolution strategies, their probability of experiencing IPV should be reduced (Antônio & Hokoda, 2009).

Drawing from a cultural lens, understanding that conflict management styles differ across cultures and societies (Kirchmeyer & Cohen, 1994), Ohbuchi and Takahashi (1994) and Bartos and Wehr (2002) remind us that a desirable conflict resolution style in one context might be seen as maladaptive in another. In Ethiopia, much emotional support is provided to married couples

by members of the extended family and close friends. This type of support includes help and advice about child-rearing, household disputes, and conflict resolution (Tegegne et al., 2015). However, conflict in general is approached and resolved traditionally through mediation and reconciliation systems facilitated by “Shimgelena” (Wolde, 2018). Added to this argument, Abeya et al. (2012) found that traditional Ethiopian social norms encourage women to be tolerant and hide any challenges they face in their romantic relationship. Similarly, Tusa et al. (2022) argue that a partners’ acceptance of wife-beating as a societal norm justifying a husband in beating his wife, makes IPV socially acceptable rather than behaviour to be challenged and reported to legal authorities. This finding aligns with those reported by UNFPA (2021) where Ethiopian cultural norms consider violence between intimate partners as a typical element of romantic relationships. Withdrawal strategies may also function as a form of protection in violent relationships, with one partner relying on such strategies to avoid psychological and physical violence; however this may elicit a violent response from the other partner (Bretaña et al, 2024).

While demand and problem-solving strategies both emerged as non-significant, predictors of IPV in the current study, as demand strategies increase the study findings suggest, so too may the likelihood of IPV. This finding is consistent with previous research (See for example: Bonache et al., 2016; Bonache et al., 2019; Christensen et al., 2007; Hellmuth et al., 2014; Leavitt & Willoughby, 2015) that suggest this positive association between demanding strategy and IPV. Bretaña et al.(2024) argues though that there is a scarcity of research findings that have examined how demand conflict resolution strategies are directly linked to the experience of IPV across countries with different cultural values. Similarly, in Ethiopia most research has been carried out on the association between demographic variables and IPV. The

findings of this current study suggest that withdrawal strategies are a more important variable to consider in predicting IPV in Ethiopian couples.

Problem-solving strategies may decrease the likelihood of IPV in accordance with this study's finding. Ayenew (2016), Meaza (2014) and Girma (2020) found that couples who use problem-solving conflict resolution strategies like collaborative, accommodative and compromising strategies to settle their marital conflict report improved marital relationships, which, may result in reduced IPV. However, these studies fail to show a direct relationship between problem-solving conflict resolution strategies and IPV.

#### **7.2.4 Relational satisfaction as a predictor of IPV**

Relational satisfaction is a mental state that represents the benefits and sacrifices in romantic relationship that are different for each individual (Rosalina et al, 2019). Myers and colleagues (2005) assert that balancing the level of satisfaction in a romantic relationship will be influenced by the extent to which the relationship meets both personal and culturally prescribed expectations.

In the present study, it was hypothesized that “*Lower relationship satisfaction will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV*”. The findings confirmed that relational satisfaction is a negative and significant predictor of the probability of experiencing IPV whereby relationship dissatisfaction increases the risk of IPV. This is consistent with previous findings (Candel & Turliuc's ,2019 ; Hammett et al., 2021; Lefebvre et al., 2021 ; Simmons et al., 2018; Stith et al., 2008) that reveal less satisfied couples report higher levels of intimate partner aggression and more dissatisfied individuals perpetrate IPV (Arseneault et al., 2023).

This finding is congruent with previous findings in Ethiopia (see for example: Ayenew, 2016; Engidasew, 2013; Girma, 2020; Habtamu, 2005; Meaza, 2014; Tegegn et al. 2015) where researchers have shown that conflict engagement, poor communication and misunderstandings between couples are the predominant problems which are linked with a gradual decline in relationship satisfaction. This increasing dissatisfaction in turn, increases the risk of IPV.

Relationship satisfaction is potentially improved in Ethiopia through more autonomous mate selection, later marriages, and greater economic self-reliance for women (Hatcher et al., 2014). Moreover, education is one of the most powerful protective factors against IPV, and possibly one of the strongest empowerment tool in overcoming IPV (Cattaneo & Goodman, 2015; Dank et al., 2014; Duval et al., 2018; Jain & Singh, 2016). But, as Rachel et al. (2017) warns, this finding should be carefully considered as relationship (dis) satisfaction alone may not provide enough insight into the dynamics that lead to IPV in relationships.

## **SUMMARY**

This study is one of the first efforts to explore predictors of relational predictors of IPV among couples in romantic relationship in Ethiopia. This discussion chapter considered the results obtained from the study across two main themes: understanding the sample demographics in terms of available literature; and understanding the significant predictors of withdrawal as a conflict resolution strategy and relationship dissatisfaction, particularly from an attachment lens, while considering important cultural influences.

## CHAPTER EIGHT

### 8. CONCLUSIONS, CONTRIBUTIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 8.1 CONCLUSIONS

This thesis sought to answer the research question: *What are the relational predictors of IPV in an Ethiopian sample?* Three hypotheses were formulated and tested:

1. Increased endorsements of anxious or avoidant attachment styles will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.
2. More frequent use of demand and withdrawal conflict resolution strategies will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.
3. Lower relationship satisfaction will predict higher odds of experiencing IPV.

The study sample comprised teachers working at primary and secondary schools, university academic staff and first-year university students living in Hawassa, Ethiopia. Majority were male participants, all were well-educated and most were from middle to upper income groups. Of the total sample, 23% (14% males and 9% females) reported experiencing IPV.

Working at a primary or secondary school rather than a university placed participants at significantly higher risk of reporting IPV. While male participants, those with lower educational attainment levels, being single, having children and lower socio-economic status emerged as possible factors that may increase the risk of experiencing IPV, these demographic variables did not emerge as significant predictors.

Withdrawal conflict resolution strategies and relationship dissatisfaction emerged as significant predictors of IPV. This makes sense from the attachment lens because more evasive communication and a higher use of withdrawal and distancing conflict resolution strategies are likely experienced by the other partner as unsupportive and may gradually reinforce the use of aggression and violence in the relationship. Conflict engagement, poor communication and misunderstandings between couples are linked with a gradual decline in relationship satisfaction. This increasing dissatisfaction in turn, increases the risk of IPV.

Participants' endorsements of anxious and avoidant attachment styles fell in the moderate range, and these styles did not emerge as significant predictors of IPV, although more avoidant attachment may decrease the probability of IPV, whereas more anxious attachment may increase its probability. The interaction that emerges between proximity seeking behaviours (of more anxiously attached partners) and the avoiding and withdrawing behaviours (of more avoidantly attached partners) may be a better explanation of the escalation of IPV than specific partner attachment styles, in the current study sample. This is further conflated by the influence of Ethiopian culture where Ethiopian society promotes withdrawal and distancing in response to a conflict, and being submissive as a means of promoting group harmony. Approaches to conflict that challenge these norms (such as proximity seeking) may increase the probability of IPV.

## **8.2 CONTRIBUTIONS**

Previous international and national Ethiopian studies have investigated demographic variables that predict IPV. While some international research has focused on these relational predictors, this is the first study conducted in Africa and the Ethiopian context that speaks to the

role relational predictors, namely attachment styles, conflict resolution strategies and relationship satisfaction, may play in IPV.

Second, this study demonstrates that withdrawal conflict resolution strategies and relationship dissatisfaction are significant relational predictors of IPV that need to be carefully considered in understanding and shaping violence prevention programmes and interventions, both locally and internationally.

Third, this study makes a valuable contribution to the field of psychological tool translation and adaptation through the development of four validated relationship assessment tools which are now accessible in the Amharic language – the ECR, CI, RAS and CASr-SF.

Fourth, previous studies on IPV in Ethiopia are almost exclusively focused on women samples, but the current study sample is male-dominated, which makes an insightful contribution towards thinking about the role of gender in IPV.

### **8.3 LIMITATIONS**

Results of this study show relevant differences in relationship variables against previous findings; yet, some limitations should be acknowledged. Firstly, the sample is drawn from highly educated participants, from higher socio-economic groups, living in urban settings using convenience sampling technique among participants living in Hawassa, although there are many similar cities and respondents in Ethiopia, which might have influenced the study findings. Thus, the generalizability of the results is limited to these demographics and further studies including broader sample representation would be important. Second, the adapted tools showed some limitations in terms of their psychometric properties, particularly the CI-R scale, which likely

impacted on the analysis. A more qualitative follow-up on conflict-resolution and its role in IPV in Ethiopian couples would be valuable.

## **8.4 RECOMMENDATIONS**

Recommendations from this study focus on three areas:

### **A) The use of the findings and validated measures to pursue future research on violence prevention and intervention**

The study has established that withdrawal as a conflict resolution strategy and relationship dissatisfaction are significant relational predictors of IPV. Building on this finding, future research in Ethiopia needs to build on integrating these findings into violence prevention and intervention programmes, drawing from the validated instruments from this thesis to evaluate change (for example the RAS, and CASrSF). Qualitative studies, comparative and longitudinal studies could build on this thesis to develop a deeper understanding of how Ethiopian couples overcome IPV in their romantic relationships.

### **B) Recommendations for policy makers**

Findings from this research study should be used to inform and update the Ethiopian Family Code, recognizing the significant role that conflict resolution strategies and relationship dissatisfaction play in IPV and divorce rate. This being the case, the Code should recognize the valuable role and responsibilities family therapy (including counsellors and psychologists) must play in helping couples and families manage relational conflict in their relationships. Currently the code recommends a process of reconciliation, overlooking the role of family counsellors. However reconciliation team members are composed of elders that might not aware of the basic principles of helping profession.

### **C) Recommendations for Practitioners**

Because conflict resolution strategies like withdrawal and relationship dissatisfaction play such a powerful role in IPV amongst couples, family counsellors and therapists must take these factors into account when planning and implementing interventions. In Ethiopian culture, the role of women as being submissive and tending to withdraw during a conflict are considered as good qualities of a wife. However these same behaviours have been shown in this thesis to increase the risk of IPV. Thus professionals should design culturally sensitive and adaptive family counselling interventions and strategies that target both individuals in the couple dyad in order to seek equally beneficial resolutions.

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**Appendix A:**  
**Rhodes University Ethical Clearance**



**Rhodes University Human Research Ethics Committee**  
PO Box 94, Makhanda, 6140, South Africa  
t: +27 (0) 46 603 7727  
f: +27 (0) 46 603 8822  
e: [ethics-committee@ru.ac.za](mailto:ethics-committee@ru.ac.za)  
NHREC Registration number: **RC-241114-045**

<https://www.ru.ac.za/researchgateway/ethics/>

6 June 2022

Prof Megan Campbell

Email: [M.Campbell@ru.ac.za](mailto:M.Campbell@ru.ac.za)

Review Reference: 2022-5481-6723

Dear Prof Megan Campbell

Title: Predictors of Violence in African couple relationships

Researcher: Prof Megan Campbell

This letter confirms that the above research proposal has been reviewed and **APPROVED** by the Rhodes University Human Research Ethics Committee (RU-HREC). Your Approval number is: 2022-5481-6723

Approval has been granted for 1 year. An annual progress report will be required in order to renew approval for an additional period. You will receive an email notifying you when the annual report is due.

Please ensure that the ethical standards committee is notified should any substantive change(s) be made, for whatever reason, during the research process. This includes changes in investigators. Please also ensure that a brief report is submitted to the ethics committee on the completion of the research. The purpose of this report is to indicate whether the research was conducted successfully, if any aspects could not be completed, or if any problems arose that the ethical standards committee should be aware of. If a thesis or dissertation arising from this research is submitted to the library's electronic theses and dissertations (ETD) repository, please notify the committee of the date of submission and/or any reference or cataloguing number allocated.

Sincerely,

**Prof Arthur Webb**

Chair: Rhodes University Human Research Ethics Committee, RU-HREC

cc: Ms Danielle de Vos - Ethics Coordinator


**NHREC: Registration Number: RC-241114-045**

**Approval number: 2022-54816723**

### Appendix B

### Hawassa University Research Ethics Review Committee Clearance

**ሀዋሳ ዩኒቨርሲቲ**  
የምርምር ስነ-ምግባር ገምገሚ ኮሚቴ



**HAWASSA UNIVERSITY**  
Research Ethics Review Committee

Ref. No: RERC 13, 2023  
Date: April 11, 2023

Name of Researcher(s): Adane Wako (MSc), Megan Campbell (PhD)

Topic of Proposal: Predicators of Violence in Ethiopian Couple

Dear researcher(s),  
The Hawassa University Research Ethics Review Committee (HU-RERC) has reviewed the aforementioned research protocol with special emphasis on the following points:

- Are all principles considered?
  - 1.1. Respect for persons: Yes  No
  - 1.2. Beneficence: Yes  No
  - 1.3. Justice: Yes  No
- Are the objectives of the study ethically achievable? Yes  No
- Are the proposed research methods ethically sound? Yes  No

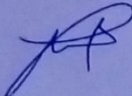

Based on the aforementioned ethical assessment, the HU-RERC has:

A. Approved the proposal for implementation  -Approval period April, 11/ 2023  
 B. Conditionally Approved  -Element Approved: Protocol Version No. 1  
 C. Not Approved  -Follow up report expected in one year.

Obligation of the PI:

- Should comply with the standard international and national scientific and ethical guidelines
- All amendment and changes made in protocol and consent form needs HU-RERC approval
- The PI should report SAE within 3 days of the event
- End of study, including manuscript should be reported to the HU-RERC

Yours faithfully,

**ዙፋን ባደዊ (ዳ/ር)**  
Zufan Bedewi (PhD)

T: + 251 0462211936 Fax: +251 Fax +251 0462205187 ☒ 05 , Hawassa-Ethiopia

Reference Number: RERC13, 2023

**APPENDIX C:**Request and Confirmation email to collect data from students

Subject: Request for permission to collect data from students  
 Inbox  
 Search for all messages with label Inbox  
 Remove label Inbox from this conversation

**Adane** Fri, Oct 13, 2023, 4:43 PM  
**Wako <adanewakoj@gmail.com>**  
 to zufanw2006

Hello dear dr. Zufan!  
 Greetings!

Dear dr. Zufan, as per the Hawassa University Research Ethics Committee permission, I have collected my research data from schools and academic staff of Hawassa University. I would like to appreciate and say thank you again.

Dear dr. Zufan, in the meantime after discussion with my supervisor, we found that the addition of participants from age 18 that will make my data complete. Thus, I want to collect the same data using the same procedure and data collection procedure from first year students of Hawassa University to fill the gap.

Thus, I kindly request you to permit me to collect data from two sections of first year students using the same tool and procedure I have used last time. Would you confirm this via email ?

With Kind Regards,  
 Adane

--

Adane Wako  
 Assistant Professor of Psychology  
 Hawassa University, College of Social Sciences and Humanities, Department of Psychology  
 ; Hawassa, Ethiopia.

&

*PhD Fellow at Rhodes University, Makhanda/Grahamstown) South Africa*  
 P. O. Box 05; Telephone; +251921451936 or +251911564103  
 email: [adanewakoj@gmail.com](mailto:adanewakoj@gmail.com); [adane\\_wako@yahoo.com](mailto:adane_wako@yahoo.com);  
 Tel: (+251)921451936 (Eth) OR (+27)0736918697 (SA)

**Confirmation email to collect data from students**

Zufan Bedewi **zufanw2006@yahoo.com**

to me

Thu, Oct 19, 2023, 3:09 PM

Dear Adane Greetings!

I hope you are doing well, concerning to your request about your research project, you can continue using the previous ethical clearance letter. no need to have another letter because there is no change which can lead to ethical consideration.

**In bold you can continue your research project.**

*Zufan Bedewi (PhD)*

*Assistant Professor in Biomedical Science*

*Dean, College of Natural and Computational Sciences*

*Chairperson of Research Ethics Committee of Hawassa University*

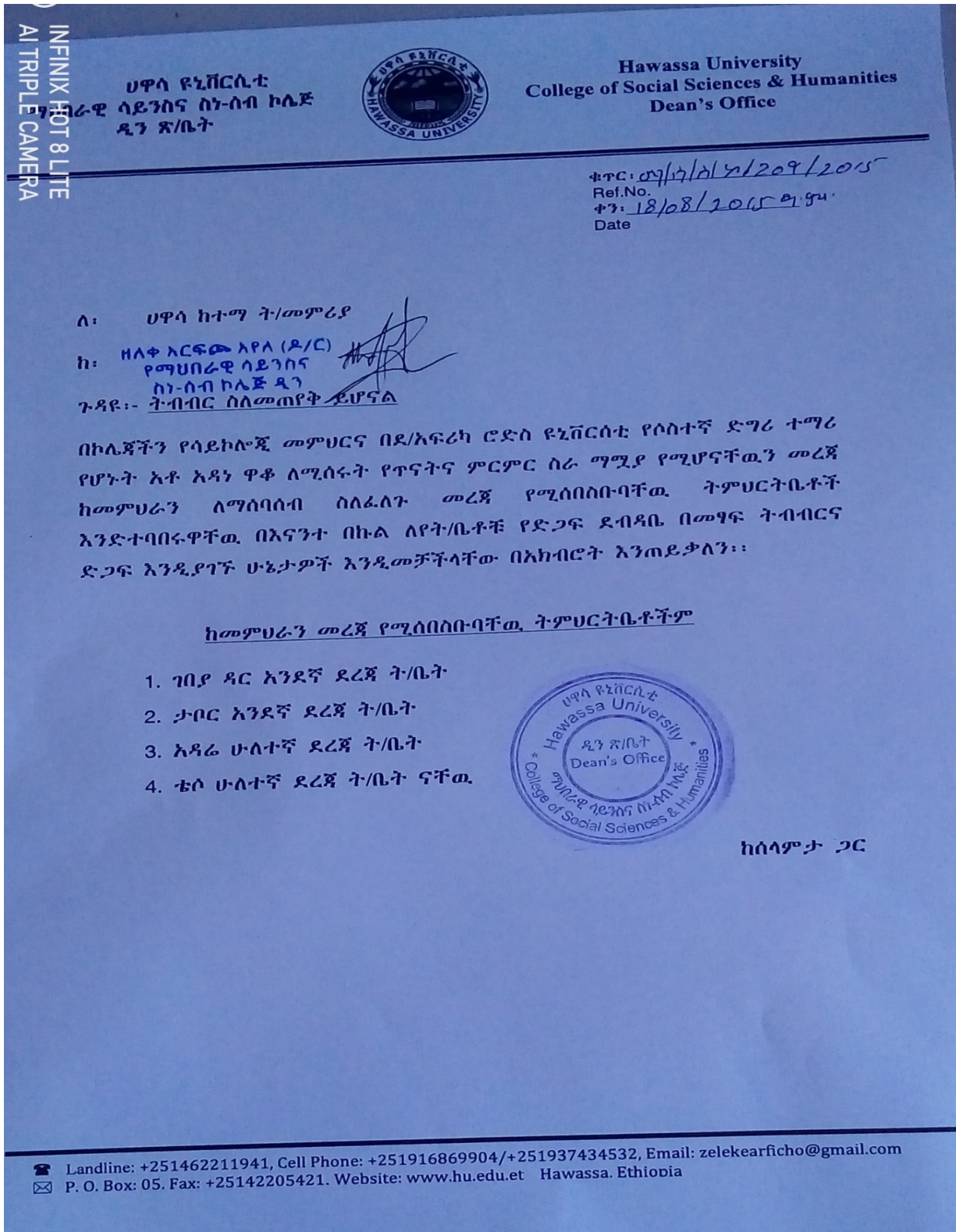
*Hawassa University*

*Email;- zufanw2006@yahoo.com*

*Mobil Phone +251 0911879420*

APPENDIX D:

Support letter from college to school



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ዲን ጽ/ቤት



Hawassa University  
College of Social Sciences & Humanities  
Dean's Office

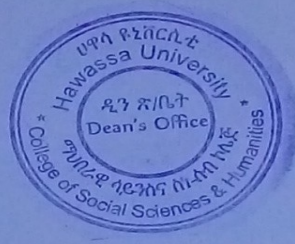
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ቀን: 18/08/2015 ዓ.ም.  
Date

ለ: ሀዋሳ ከተማ ት/መምሪያ  
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የሚሰጠው ሳይንስና ስነ-ሰብ ኮሌጅ ዲን  
ጉዳዩ:- ትብብር ስለመጠየቅ ይሆናል

በኮሌጆችን የሳይኮሎጂ መምህርና በደ/አፍሪካ ሮድስ ዩኒቨርሲቲ የሶስተኛ ድግሪ ተማሪ የሆኑት አቶ አዳነ ዋቆ ለሚሰሩት የጥናትና ምርምር ስራ ማሟያ የሚሆናቸውን መረጃ ከመምህራን ለማሰባሰብ ስለፈለጉ መረጃ የሚሰጠሰባቸው ትምህርት-ቤቶች እንድትሰጡላቸው በእናንተ በኩል ለየት/ቤቶቹ የድጋፍ ደብዳቤ በመጻፍ ትብብርና ድጋፍ እንዲያገኙ ሁኔታዎች እንዲመቻላቸው በአክብሮት እንጠይቃለን።

ከመምህራን መረጃ የሚሰጠሰባቸው ትምህርት-ቤቶችም

1. ገበያ ዳር አንደኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤት
2. ታቦር አንደኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤት
3. አዳሬ ሁለተኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤት
4. ቴሶ ሁለተኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤት ናቸው



ከሰላምታ ጋር

APPENDIX E

Permission Letter from Hawassa City, Education Department



ሉሲ የትርጉም እና የጽሕፈት ስራ አገልግሎት
Lucy Translation & Secretarial Service
TAJAJILA TURJUMAANAA FI BARREEFFAMAA LUUSHII



Sidama National Regional State
Hawassa City Administration Education Division

Ref No. 111400/12
Date: 26/05/2022

Mr. Adane Wako

Whereabouts

Subject: Informing of Willingness to Provide Information for Your Research

The Hawassa University, with its letter Ref No.: CSSH/333/2014 dated 24.5.2022, requested us for the provision of letter of support to inform that we are willing to cooperate in collection of Information required for the Academic Research Requirements of Mr. Adane Wako, the university' Psychology Lecturer, who is has been taking a Third Degree Student Courses in Roads University, South Africa.

Therefore, be kindly informed that we are willing to provide the required information for your Academic Research during your data collection.

Regards,
Signed
Adane Abraham Ebisso
Teach/& Ed/Le/Dev/Co/
Pro/Coordinator

- CC:
- Department Manager
- L/ A/D/Directorat

Seal
Sidam National Regional state
Hawassa City Administration Educational Department



Handwritten signature and blue ink stamp of the official

## APPENDIX F:

Permission letter college of Social Science and Humanities

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 ኮሌጅ



**Hawassa University**  
**College of Social Science**  
**& Humanities**

Ref. No CSSH/333/14

Date: 16/09/2014

To: Mr Adane Wako Jarso

Rhodes University,

South Africa

From : College of Social Sciences and Humanities

Hawassa University

Dr Dagne Sibru Abata  
 Dean, College of Social  
 Sciences & Humanities

Re: Project 2022-5481-6723; Predictors of Violence in African couple relationship

Thank you Mr. Adane Wako Jarso, for your letter requesting permission to conduct this research at our university in the College of Social Sciences and Humanities.

We have also received your proposal and the research ethics submission to Rhodes University, along with the provision approval from the Rhodes University Research Ethics Committee.

We are happy to support this process.

With Kind Regards,



## APPENDIX G

### Consent Form

Dear Respondent,

I am a doctoral student in Psychology at Rhodes University, South Africa, and academic staff of Hawassa University, department of Psychology. I am interested in investigating PREDICTORS OF VIOLENCE IN ETHIOPIAN COUPLE RELATIONSHIPS.

I have got ethical clearance from Rhodes university (**Registration Number: RC-241114-045 and Approval number: 2022-54816723**), and from Hawassa University Research Ethics Review Committee (Reference Number: RERC13, 2023).

Moreover, I have got permission from college of Social Sciences and Humanities (CSSH) and the Hawassa City Administration Education Department for the research which involves academic staff, teachers and students. I would like to invite you to participate in the research. My study to explore experience of close relationship among couples, couples experience of conflict and the way couples approach and resolve conflict in their romantic relationship; and their experience of abuse in their relationship. All information you provide is considered completely confidential. Your name will not appear in any publication resulting from this study and any identifying information will be omitted from the report. Thus, it is not necessary to write your name on the questionnaire and is anonymous. The output of the study may be published on journals and the study output will be used for doctoral research dissertation.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may decline to answer any of the questions if you so wish. Furthermore, you may decide to withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences.

When you read this questionnaire, it might remind your previous romantic relationship and may trigger some frustration and bad experiences. At this time, you can get counseling service from trained counselor nearby to you.

There are no known or anticipated risks to you as a participant in this study. You will not be reimbursed or receive any incentives for your participation in the research. If you have any questions regarding this study or would like additional information to assist you in deciding on participation, please contact me at 0911564103 or [adanewakoj@gmail.com](mailto:adanewakoj@gmail.com) OR you can contact my supervisor +27 (0) 46 603 7382 or you can email at [m.campbell@ru.ac.za](mailto:m.campbell@ru.ac.za). Thus, if you are willing to voluntarily participate in this study, put a  mark on the agreement box and continue to the next page of the questionnaire.

#### PARTICIPANT CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY

I, \_\_\_\_\_ (please use initial letters your name, father and grandfather e.g. if your name is Abel Belayneh Chaka, use ABC on the space provided) herewith confirm that I understand the above conditions of the research which have been explained to me including its side effect and that I put a  mark to show my agreement to participate in this study.

I am willing to participate in this study    Yes \_\_\_\_\_    NO \_\_\_\_\_

If you are willing, please, proceed to the next page.

Thank You!

**APPENDIX H:****SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE (ENGLISH VERSION)****Code****A.- PERSONAL INFORMATION**

1.- Your work place \_\_\_\_\_

2. Please, indicate your gender by selecting the appropriate box:  Male  Female

3.- What is your age: \_\_\_\_\_

4.- What ethnicity do you identify with?: \_\_\_\_\_

5.- What is your chosen religion if any? \_\_\_\_\_

6.- What is your highest level of education?

 College Education  Graduate (First degree completion) Postgraduate (MA and PhD Complete)  First Year University Student

7.- What is your profession? \_\_\_\_\_

8.- What is your marital status?

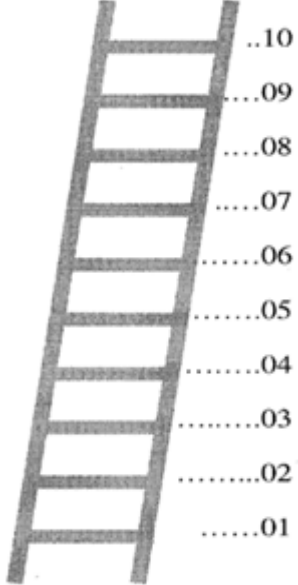
 Single  Living with partner  Married  Separated or divorced Widowed  Other .....9.- Do you have children? No  Yes  If so, How many? \_\_\_\_\_

10.- Please, indicate the duration of your current relationship: \_\_\_\_\_ years \_\_\_\_\_ months

11.- If you are currently living with your partner: Since when? \_\_\_\_\_ years \_\_\_\_\_ months

12.- Please, indicate the number of partners you have had (including the current one): \_\_\_\_\_

13.- How you would describe your socio-economic status (Mark an X)

|   |  |
|---|--|
|  | <p>Instructions: Here is a ladder. There are ten rungs in total from the bottom to the top.</p> <p>Think of this ladder as representing where people stand in our society. At the top of the ladder are the people who are the best off, or those who have the most money, most education, and best jobs. At the bottom are the people who are the worst off, or those who have the least money, least education, and worst jobs or no job. The higher up you are on this ladder, the closer you are to the people at the very top; the lower you are, the closer you are to the people at the very bottom. If you consider your current situation and compare it with all other people in South Africa, where would you place yourself on this ladder?</p> <p><b>Place an X on the rung that best represents where you think you stand on the ladder (in South Africa).</b></p> |
|---|--|

14.- Which of the following options corresponds to your household monthly income? (Consider all sources of income, in average, per month, net income)

- A/ 2001 - 2500 Birr
- B/ 2501 - 3000 Birr
- C/ 3001 -4000 Birr
- D/ 4001 - 5000 Birr
- E/ 5001 - 6000 Birr
- F/ 6001 - 7000 Birr
- G/ 7001 - 8500 Birr
- H/ 8501 - 10000 Birr
- I/ Over10000 Birr

GO TO THE NEXT PAGE

## APPENDIX I

### Experiences in close relationships (ECR)

The following statements concern how you feel in close relationships. We are interested in how you experience/d your most recent romantic relationship. Respond to each statement by indicating how much you agree or disagree with it. Circle the number, using the following rating scale:

| 1                 | 2        | 3                 | 4                         | 5              | 6     | 7              |
|-------------------|----------|-------------------|---------------------------|----------------|-------|----------------|
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Neither Agree or Disagree | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I prefer not to show a partner how I feel deep down  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2. I worry about being abandoned  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3. I am very comfortable being close to my relationship partner   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4. I worry a lot about my relationship  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5. Just when my partner starts to get close to me I find myself pulling away                              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6. I worry that my partner won't care about me as much as I care about him/her                            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7. I get uncomfortable when my partner wants to be very close   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 8. I worry a fair amount about losing my relationship partner   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 9. I don't feel comfortable opening up to my relationship partner   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 10. I often wish that my partner's feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for him/her              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 11. I want to get close to my partner, but I keep pulling back  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 12. I often want to merge completely with my relationship partner, and this sometimes scares him/her away | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 13. I am nervous when my partner gets too close to me   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 14. I worry about being alone   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 15. I feel comfortable sharing my private feelings with my partner  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 16. My desire to be very close sometimes scares people away   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 17. I try to avoid getting too close to my partner  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 18. I need a lot of reassurance that I am loved by my partner   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 19. I find it relatively easy to get close to my partner  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

|  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 20. Sometimes I feel that I force my partner to show more feeling, more commitment | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 21. I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on my partner                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 22. I do not often worry about being abandoned                                     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 23. I prefer not to be too close to my relationship partner                        | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 24. If I can't get my partner to show interest in me, I get upset or angry         | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 25. I tell my partner just about everything  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 26. I find that my partner doesn't want to get as close as I would like            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 27. I usually discuss my problems and concerns with my partner                     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 28. When I'm not involved in a relationship, I feel anxious and insecure           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 29. I feel comfortable depending on my relationship partner                        | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 30. I get frustrated when my partner is not around as much as I would like         | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 31. I don't mind asking my partner for comfort, advice, or help                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 32. I get frustrated if my partner is not available when I need him/her            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 33. It helps to turn to my relationship partner in times of need                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 34. When my relationship partner disapproves of me, I feel really bad about myself | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 35. I turn to my partner for many things, including comfort and reassurance        | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 36. I resent it when my partner spends time away from me                           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

## APPENDIX J

### Conflict Inventory (CI-R)

The statements below refer to some situations that may happen in the context of the close relationship. I am interested in how YOU responded in your most recent romantic relationship after you had an argument with.

| 1     | 2      | 3            | 4         | 5          | 6               | 7      |
|-------|--------|--------------|-----------|------------|-----------------|--------|
| Never | Rarely | Occasionally | Regularly | Frequently | Very frequently | Always |

|  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Initiate discussion                         | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2. Blame partner                               | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3. Leave the room                              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4. Admit own fault                             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5. Hide tensions                               | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6. Insult partner                              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7. Listen attentively                          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 8. Stop discussion early                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 9. Plan revenge                                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 10. Think of leaving the marriage/relationship | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 11. Feel close to partner after conflict       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 12. Hit, push, or slap                         | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 13. Keep distant                               | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 14. Come up with ideas                         | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 15. Threaten                                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 16. Protest by remaining silent                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

## APPENDIX K

### Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS)

Below are some statements referred to your most recent romantic relationship. Using the 1-7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by circling the appropriate number next to that item.

| 1                 | 2        | 3                 | 4                         | 5              | 6     | 7              |
|-------------------|----------|-------------------|---------------------------|----------------|-------|----------------|
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Neither Agree or Disagree | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

|  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. My partner meets my needs                         | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2. In general, I am satisfied with this relationship | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3. My relationship is good compared to most          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4. I wish I hadn't gotten into this relationship     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5. My relationship meets my original expectations    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6. I love my partner                                 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7. There are problems in my relationships            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

## APPENDIX L

Composite Abuse Scale Revised – Short Form (CAS<sub>R</sub>-SF)

INSTRUCTIONS: These questions ask about your experiences in adult intimate relationships. By adult intimate relationship we mean a current or former husband, wife, partner or boyfriend/girlfriend for longer than one month.

1. Have you ever been in an adult intimate relationship? (Since you were 16 years of age)
  - a) Yes
  - b) No -- Skip out of remaining questions
2. Are you currently in a relationship?
  - a) Yes
  - b) No -- Go to Q4
3. Are you currently afraid of your partner?
  - a) Yes
  - b) No
4. Have you ever been afraid of any partner?
  - a) Yes
  - b) No

We would like to know if you experienced any of the actions listed below from any current or former partner or partners. If it ever happened to you, please tell us *how often* it usually happened in the past 12 months.

| <i>My partner(s):</i>  | Has this <u>ever</u> happened to you? |     | IF YES, how often did it happen in the past 12 months? |      |             |         |        |                     |
|--|---------------------------------------|-----|--|------|-------------|---------|--------|---------------------|
|  | No                                    | Yes | Not in the past 12 months                              | Once | A few times | Monthly | Weekly | Daily/ almost daily |
| 1. Shook, pushed, grabbed or threw me  | No                                    | Yes | Not in the past 12 months                              | Once | A few times | Monthly | Weekly | Daily/ almost daily |
| 2. Tried to convince my family, children or friends that I am crazy or tried to turn them against me | No                                    | Yes | Not in the past 12 months                              | Once | A few times | Monthly | Weekly | Daily/ almost daily |
| 3. Used or threatened to use a knife or gun or other weapon to harm me                               | No                                    | Yes | Not in the past 12 months                              | Once | A few times | Monthly | Weekly | Daily/ almost daily |
| 4. Made me perform sex acts that I did not want to perform   | No                                    | Yes | Not in the past 12 months                              | Once | A few times | Monthly | Weekly | Daily/ almost daily |
| 5. Followed me or hung around outside my home or work  | No                                    | Yes | Not in the past 12 months                              | Once | A few times | Monthly | Weekly | Daily/ almost daily |
| 6. Threatened to harm or kill me or someone close to me  | No                                    | Yes | Not in the past 12 months                              | Once | A few times | Monthly | Weekly | Daily/ almost daily |

|  |    |     | months                    |      |             |         |        |                     |
|--|----|-----|---------------------------|------|-------------|---------|--------|---------------------|
| 7. Choked me   | No | Yes | Not in the past 12 months | Once | A few times | Monthly | Weekly | Daily/ almost daily |
| 8. Forced or tried to force me to have sex   | No | Yes | Not in the past 12 months | Once | A few times | Monthly | Weekly | Daily/ almost daily |
| 9. Harassed me by phone, text, email or using social media   | No | Yes | Not in the past 12 months | Once | A few times | Monthly | Weekly | Daily/ almost daily |
| 10. Told me I was crazy, stupid or not good enough   | No | Yes | Not in the past 12 months | Once | A few times | Monthly | Weekly | Daily/ almost daily |
| 11. Hit me with a fist or object, kicked or bit me   | No | Yes | Not in the past 12 months | Once | A few times | Monthly | Weekly | Daily/ almost daily |
| 12. Kept me from seeing or talking to my family or friends   | No | Yes | Not in the past 12 months | Once | A few times | Monthly | Weekly | Daily/ almost daily |
| 13. Confined or locked me in a room or other space   | No | Yes | Not in the past 12 months | Once | A few times | Monthly | Weekly | Daily/ almost daily |
| 14. Kept me from having access to a job, money or financial resources  | No | Yes | Not in the past 12 months | Once | A few times | Monthly | Weekly | Daily/ almost daily |
| 15. Blamed me for causing their violent behavior   | No | Yes | Not in the past 12 months | Once | A few times | Monthly | Weekly | Daily/ almost daily |
| 16. Made comments about my sexual past or my sexual performance that made me feel ashamed, inadequate or humiliated. | No | Yes | Not in the past 12 months | Once | A few times | Monthly | Weekly | Daily/ almost daily |

THANK YOU FOR TAKING THE TIME TO COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

**APPENDIX M**

Survey Questionnaire Amharic Version- (የአማርኛ መጠይቅ)

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ወደ የዚህ ጥናት ተሳታፊ፡

ከድ \_\_\_\_\_

እኔ አዳነ ዋቆ ጃርሶ በሀዋሳ ዩኒቨርሲቲ ሳይኮሎጂ ትምህርት ክፍል መምህር ሲሆን አሁን ደቡብ አፈሪካ ሀገር ከሚገኘው ሮድስ ዩኒቨርሲቲ በፕሮፌሰር ሜጋን ካምቤል አማካሪነት የ3ኛ ድግሪ (የዶክትሬት) ተማሪ ሲሆን ለድግሪዬ ጥናትና ምርምር ማሟያ የሚሆን የፅሁፍ መጠይቅ በማዘጋጀት መረጃ ለማሰባሰብ የተዘጋጀ ነው። የጥናቱ ዋና አላማ በትዳር/ፍቅር አጋሮች መካከል በፍቅር/ትዳር ግንኙነት ውስጥ ያሉ ልምዶች፣ ስለሚከሰቱ አለመግባባቶች፣ በአጋሮች መካከል ስለሚኖር የግንኙነት ሁኔታ፣ ስለ ቤተሰብ፣ ስራ እና ማህበረሰብ ያለን አመለካከት/ አስተያየት፣ የማህበራዊ ድጋፍ እና የጥቃት አይነቶች ከተሳታፊዎች መረጃ በማሰባሰብና በመተንተን ለትምህርቱ ማሟያነት የሚወጠው ወጤቱም በተለያዩ ሳይንሳዊ ጆርናሎች ልታተም ይችላል። በመሆኑም ተገቢውን መረጃ ለማሰባሰብ የተሳታፊዎች ፈቃደኝነት አስፈላጊ በመሆኑ ይህንን ስምምነት በማንበብ የፈቃደኝነት ተሳታፊነትዎን ከስር በተቀመጠው ቦታ ላይ “አዎ” በሚለው ቦታ ላይ የ√ ምልክት በማድረግ ይገለፁ።

ተሳትፎዎ በሙሉ ፈቃደኝነት ላይ የተመሰረተና በምንም ሁኔታ የእርስዎን የግል መረጃና ሚስጢር ለሌላ ወገን አሳልፎ የማይሰጥ በመሆኑ ምንም ስጋት እይግባዎት። ይህንኑ ለማረጋገጥ ስምዎን በዚህ መጠይቅ ላይ መፃፍ አያስፈልግም።

ይህን መጠይቅ በሚያነቡበት ወቅት ስላለፈ ፍጥነት/ትዳር ግንኙነትዎ ትዝታ ልቀሰቅስና ልረብሽዎት ይችላል ይሆናል እንጂ ሌላ ስጋት የለውም። ለዚህም ስባል በሙያዊ የሰለጠነ የባለሙያ እገባ ብያሕፈልግም የጥናቱ ባለቤት የሆኑትን አቶ አዳነ ዋቆን በስ.ቁ 0911564103 ወይም በኢ.ሜል adanewakoj@gmail በማንኛውም ወቅት ማግኘትና ማማከር የሚችሉ መሆኑን በትህትና መግለፅ እፈልጋለሁኝ። ከዚህ በተጨማሪ የጥናቱ መሪና አማካሪ የሆኑትን ፕሮፌሰር ሜጋን ካምቤልን በስ.ቁ +27 (0) 46 603 7382 ወይም በኢ.ሜል m.campbell@ru.ac.za በመላክ ማግኘት ይችላሉ።

በመሆኑም ለዚህ ጥናትና ዓላማ መሳካት የእርስዎ ተሳትፎ ወሳኝ በመሆኑ ለዚህ ዓላማ ተብሎ የተዘጋጀውን መጠይቅ በማንበብ የስምዎን ደረጃዎን የሚገልጧልን ቁጥር በማክበብ እንዲሁም በፅሁፍ የሚመለሱትን አጭር ምላሽ በተሰጠው ቦታ በመፃፍ እንድትመልሱ በትህትና እጠይቃለሁኝ።

በመሆኑም የተሳትፎ ፈቃደኝነትዎን ለማረጋገጥ ፈቃደኛ ከሆኑ “አዎ” በሚለው ሳጥን ውስጥ የ√ ምልክት በማስቀመጥ የተሰማሙ መሆኑን ይገለፁ። መጠይቁን ለመሙላት የሚወስደዉ ጊዜ ከ25 -30 ደቂቃ ልሆን የሚችል ሲሆን የጥናቱን አላማ ለማሳካት ፈቃደኛ ሆነው በመሳተፍዎ ከልብ እያመሰገንኩ ትክክለኛ የሚሉትንና እውነተኛ የሆነውን መረጃ እንደሚሰጡኝ ተስፋ አደርጋለሁኝ።

አዳነ ዋቆ ስ.ቁ 0911564103 ወይም ኢ.ሜል adanewakoj@gmail.

እኔ \_\_\_\_\_ (የእርስዎን፣ አባትዎንና የአያትዎን የእንግሊዘኛ ስሞች የመጀመሪያ 3 ፊደላትን ይጠቀሙ። ለምሳሌ ስምዎ Abel Belayneh Chaka ከሆነ ABC ብለው ይፀፉ) የዚህ ጥናት ተሳታፊ የጥናቱ ዓላማና የጎንዮሽ ተፅዕኖ በሚገባ የተገለፀኝ በመሆኑ በዚህ ጥናት በፈቃደኝነት ለመሳተፍ ያለምንም አስገዳጅ ሁኔታ ለመሳተፍ የተስማማሁ መሆኔን እስማማለሁ በሚለው ሳጥን ውስጥ የ(√) ምልክት በማስቀመጥ ተሳትፎዬን መግለፅ እፈልጋለሁኝ።

በዚህ ጥናት ለመሳተፍ ፈቃደኛ ነዎት? አዎ  ፍቃደኛ አይደለሁም

ፈቃደኛ ከሆኑ ወደሚቀጥለው ገፅ ይሂዱ።

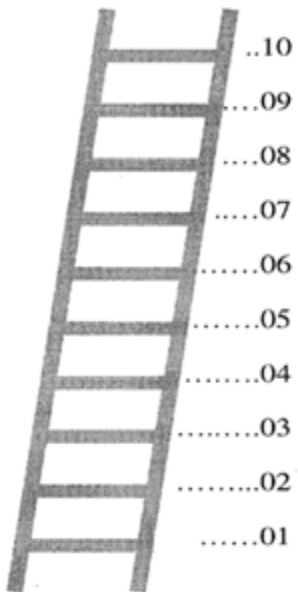


10. ባለትዳር ወይም ሳይጋቡ አብረው የሚኖሩ ከሆነ፣ አባኮትን ምን ያክል ጊዜ እንደሆኑት ይግለፁ  
\_\_\_\_\_ ዓመታት/\_\_\_\_\_ ወራት።

11. በአሁኑ ጊዜ ከትዳር/ከፍቅር አጋሮ ጋር አብረው የሚኖሩ ከሆነ፣ ከመቼ ጀምሮ? \_\_\_\_\_ ዓመት \_\_\_\_\_ ወር

12. የአሁን የትዳር አጋሮትን/ፍቅረኛዎትን ጨምሮ እባኮትን እስካሁን ስንት የትዳር/የፍቅር አጋሮች  
እንደነበሩት ይግለፁ \_\_\_\_\_

13.- ማህበራዊና ኢኮኖሚያዊ ደረጃ መመዘኛ (ይህን ምልክት ያድርጉX)

|  |   |
|--|---|
|  | <p>መመርያ :- ከታች ወደላይ በአጠቃላይ አስር ደረጃዎች ያሉት መሰላል አለ። ይህ መሰላል በማህበረሰባችን ውስጥ የሰዎችን ደረጃ የሚወክሉ እንደሆኑ አስቡ። የመሰላሉ ጫፍ ላይ ያሉት ሰዎች በጣም ጥሩ ወይም ብዙ ገንዘብ ያላቸው፣ ከፍተኛ የት/ት ደረጃ ያላቸው እና ጥሩ ስራ ያላቸው ናቸው። ከታችኛው ላይ ያሉ ሰዎች በጣም መጥፎ ወይም ዝቅተኛ ገንዘብ ፣ ዝቅተኛ የት/ት ደረጃ እና መጥፎ ስራ ወይም ስራ የሌላቸው ናቸው። በዚህ መሰላል ከፍ ባለ ቁጥር ጫፍ ላይ ካሉ ሰዎች ጋር ይቀራረባሉ ። ዝቅባሉ ቁጥር ከታች ካሉ ሰዎች ጋር ይቀራረባሉ ።</p> <p>ስለ ራስዎ ነበራዊ ሁኔታ ሲያስቡና ከሌሎች የኢትዮጵያ ህዝብ ጋር ሲያነፃፅሩት እራስዎን በየትኛው የመሰላል ደረጃ ላይ ያስቀምጡታል</p> <p>እባኮትን ደረጃዎን በኢትዮጵያ ይወክላል ብለው በሚያስቡት የመሰላል ቁጥር ላይ የክብ ምልክት ያድርጉ።</p> |
|--|---|

14.- ከሚከተሉት አማራጮች ውስጥ የቤተሰብን ገቢ የሚዛመደው የቱ ነው? (ሁሉንም የገቢ ምንጮች አማካይ የወር ገቢዎን /የተጠራ ገቢዎን ያስገቡ ። ) ገቢዎ በሚገኝበት አማራጭ ላይ በማክበብ ይመልሱ

- ሀ/ በ 2001 እና 2500 ብር መካከል
- ለ/ በ 2501 እና 3000 ብር መካከል
- ሐ/ በ 3001 እና 4000 ብር መካከል
- መ/ በ 4001 እና 5000 ብር መካከል
- ሠ/ በ 5001 እና 6000 ብር መካከል
- ረ/ በ 6001 እና 7000 ብር መካከል
- ሰ/ በ 7001 እና 8500 ብር መካከል
- ሸ/ በ 8501 እና 10000 ብር መካከል
- ቀ/ ከ 10000 ብር በላይ

ይህንን ክፍል ከጨረሱ ወደሚቀጥለው ገፅ ይሂዱ።

APPENDIX N

በቅርብ ግንኙነቶች ውስጥ ያሉ ልምዶች

ክፍል 2: የሚከተሉት አረፍተ ነገሮች በቅርብ ግንኙነቶ ውስጥ ያሉትን ስሜት ይመለከታሉ ። የምንፈልገው በአጠቃላይ የግንኙነት ልምዶችን ነው። በአሁን ግንኙነትዎ እየሆነ ያለውን አይመለከትም። እያንዳንዱን አረፍተ ነገሮች ምን ያክል እንደሚስማሙ እና እንደማይስማሙባቸው የሚከተለውን የስምምነት መመዘኛ በመጠቀም እና ቁጥሩን በማክበብ ይመልሱ።

| 1          | 2      | 3           | 4                | 5           | 6      | 7          |
|------------|--------|-------------|------------------|-------------|--------|------------|
| በጣም አልስማማም | አልስማማም | በጥቂቱ አልስማማም | እስማማለሁምም አልስማማምም | በጥቂቱ እስማማለሁ | እስማማለሁ | በጣም እስማማለሁ |

|  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. የሚሰማኝን ጥልቅ ስሜት ለአገሬ አለማሳየት እመርጣለሁ                                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2. ስለመተው እጨነቃለሁ  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3. ከግንኙነት አጋሬ ጋር መቀራረቤ በጣም ተመችቶኛል  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4. ስለ ግንኙነቱ በጣም እጨነቃለሁ   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5. አጋሬ /ጓደኛዬ ወደ እኔ በቀረበኝ ጊዜ ራሴን አርቃለሁ                                      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6. አጋሬ/ጓደኛዬ እኔ እንደማስብለት / ላት አያስብልኝም / አታስብልኝም ብዬ እጨነቃለሁ                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7. አጋሬ / ጓደኛዬ በጣም መቅረብ በሚፈልግበት / በምትፈልግበት ጊዜ ምቹት አይሰማኝም                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 8. የግንኙነት አጋሬን ስለ ማጣት በጥቂቱ እጨነቃለሁ  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 9. ለአጋሬ የሚሰማኝን ነገር በግልፅ ለመናገር ምቹት አይሰማኝም                                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 10. ብዙ ጊዜ እኔ ለእሱ/እሷ እንዳለኝ ጠንካራ ስሜት አጋሬም ለእኔ ጠንካራ ስሜት እንዲኖረው/እንዲኖራት እመኛለሁ   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 11. አጋሬን መቅረብ እፈልጋለሁ ግን እራሴን አሸሻለሁ   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 12. ብዙ ጊዜ ከግንኙነት አጋሬ ጋር ሙሉ-ሰሙሉ መቀላቀል እፈልጋለሁ እና ይህ አንዳንድ ጊዜ ያስፈራዋል / ያስፈራታል | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 13. አጋሬ (ጓደኛዬ ) በጣም ሲጠጋኝ እጨነቃለሁ  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 14. ብቻዬን መሆን ይጨነቀኛል  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 15. የግል ስሜቶቼን ለጓደኛዬ (አጋሬ ) ማካፈል ምቹት ይሰማኛል                                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 16. በጣም ለመቅረብ ያለኝ ፍላጎት አንዳንድ ጊዜ ሰዎችን ያስፈራቸዋል                               | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 17. አጋሬን (ጓደኛዬን ) በጣም ላለመቅረብ እጥራለሁ / እሞክራለሁ                                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 18. በጓደኛዬ ( አጋሬ ) መፈቀሬን ለማረጋገጥ በጣም ብዙ ማረጋገጫ እፈልጋለሁ                         | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 19. ቅደም ተከተሉን / አጋራን መቅረብ በአንጻሩ ቀላል ሆኖ አግንቼዋለው                        | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 20. አንዳንድ ጊዜ ቅደም ተከተሉን / አጋራን ብዙ ስሜት እና ሀላፊነት እንዲያሳዩኝ እንደማስገድደው ይሰማኛል | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 21. በቅደም ተከተሉ (አጋራ ) ላይ ጥገኛ መሆንን መፍቀድ ከባድ ሆኖ ግንቼዋለው                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 22. ብዙ ጊዜ ስለመተው አልጨነቅም  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 23. ከግንኙነት አጋራ ጋር በጣም ቅርብ ባልሆን እመርጣለው                                 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 24. ቅደም ተከተሉ (አጋራ ) ለኔ ያለውን ፍላጎት እንዲያሳዩኝ ማድረግ ካልቻልኩ እበላጫለሁ ወይም እንደዳለሁ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 25. ስለ ሁሉም ነገር ለቅደም ተከተሉ (አጋራ ) እናገራለሁ                                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 26. እኔ እንደምፈልገው ያህል ቅደም ተከተሉ (አጋራ ) እንድንቀራረብ አይፈልግም/አትፈልግም            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 27. ብዙውን ጊዜ ችግሮቼን እና ስጋቶቼን ( ጭንቀቶቼን) ከቅደም ተከተሉ ( አጋራ ) ጋር አወያያለሁ      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 28. በግንኙነት ወስጥ ባልሆንኩ ጊዜ ጭንቀት እና አለመተማመን (ስጋት) ይሰማኛል                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 29. በግንኙነት አጋራ ላይ ምቹት ይሰማኛል   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 30. የፈለኩትን ያህል ቅደም ተከተሉ (አጋራ ) በማይኖርበት ጊዜ እበላጫለሁ                      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 31. ቅደም ተከተሉን (አጋራን) ምቹት ምክር እና እርዳታ መጠየቅ አይከብደኝም                     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 32. ቅደም ተከተሉ (አጋራ ) በምፈልገው (በምፈልጋት ) ጊዜ የማይገኝ/የማትገኝ ከሆነ እበላጫለሁ        | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 33. በችግር ጊዜ ወደ ግንኙነት አጋራ መመለስ ይረዳል                                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 34. የግንኙነት አጋራ ባልተቀበለኝ ጊዜ ስለራሴ በጣም መጥፎ ስሜት ይሰማኛል                      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 35. ምቹት እና ማረጋገጫን ጨምሮ ለብዙ ነገር ወደ ቅደም ተከተሉ (አጋራ ) እመለሳለሁ               | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 36. ቅደም ተከተሉ (አጋራ ) ከኔ እርቆ/ቃ ሲያሳልፍ/ስታሳልፍ ቅር ይለኛል (እናደዳለሁ)             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

APPENDIX O

በጓደኝነት ውስጥ ስለሚከሰቱ ግጭቶች መጠይቅ

ክፍል 3፡ ቀጥሎ የተዘረዘሩት 9 ነገሮች በጥብቅ ወዳጅነት ውስጥ ሊከሰቱ የሚችሉ እንዳንድ ሁኔታዎችን የሚያሳዩ ናቸው። ይህ መጠይቅ ሶስት ክፍሎች አሉት በውስጡም ያንተን/ያንችን ድርጊት፣ ያጋርህን /ያጋርህን ድርት እና አጋርህ/አጋሪሽ እንዲያደርገው የምትፈልገው/የምትፈልገው ነገር ያሳያሉ

1.- በዚህ የመጀመሪያው ክፍል ከአጋሮ ጋር በተለያዩ ጉዳዮች ላይ ከተጋጨ በኋላ ቀጥለው የተዘረዘሩትን ድርጊቶች ምንያህል እንደሚያደርጉ ያመለክታሉ።

| 1    | 2           | 3      | 4       | 5      | 6          | 7    |
|------|-------------|--------|---------|--------|------------|------|
| በፍፁም | ከስንት ጊዜ አንዴ | አልፎአልፎ | በመደበኝነት | በተደጋጋሚ | በጣም በተደጋጋሚ | ሁልጊዜ |

|                                   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|-----------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. ውይይት እጀምራለሁ                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2. አጋሪን እወቅሳለሁ                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3. ክፍሉን ጥዬ እወጣለሁ                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4. ስህተቴን እቀበላለሁ                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5. ውጥረቶቼን እደብቃለሁ                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6. አጋሪን እሳደባለሁ                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7. በጥሞና አዳምጣለሁ                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 8. መወያየት በጊዜ አቆማለሁ                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 9. በቀልን አቅዳለሁ                     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 10. ትዳራን/ጓደኝነቴን ለመተው አስባለሁ        | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 11. ከግጭት በኋላ ከአዳሬ ጋር ቅርበት ይለማኛል   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 12. እማታለሁ፣ እገፈትራለሁ፣ ወይም በጥሬ እማታለሁ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 13. ለመራቅ እሞክራለሁ                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 14. የተለያዩ ሀሳቦች አመጣለሁ              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 15. አስፈራራለሁ                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 16. ዝም በማለት ቅሬታዬን አሳያለሁ           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

APPENDIX P

የግንኙነት ሁኔታ መመዘኛ

ክፍል 4፡ ከታች በታች የተዘረዘሩት አረፍተ ነገሮች የእርሶን/አንተ/ቺን የቅርብ የፍቅር/ትዳር ግንኙነት ያመለክታሉ። ከስር የተቀመጡትን ከ 1 እስከ 7 ያሉትን መመዘኛዎች በመጠቀም ከእያንዳንዱ አረፍተ ነገር ትይዩ የተቀመጠውን ቁጥር በማክበብ የስምምነት ደረጃዎትን/ህን/ሽን ያመለክቱ/ት/ቺ።

|            |        |             |               |             |        |            |
|------------|--------|-------------|---------------|-------------|--------|------------|
| 1          | 2      | 3           | 4             | 5           | 6      | 7          |
| በጣም አልስማማም | አልስማማም | በጥቂቱ አልስማማም | ለመወሰን እቸገራለሁኝ | በጥቂቱ እስማማለሁ | እስማማለሁ | በጣም እስማማለሁ |

| ተቁ | መጠይቅ                                    | መለኪያዎች |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|----|---|--------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|    |   | 1      | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 1  | አጋሬ ፍላጎቶቼን ያሟላልኛል/ታሟላልኛለች               |        |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 2  | በአጠቃላይ በዚህ የፍቅር//ትዳር ግንኙነት ሁኔታዬ ደስተኛ ነኝ |        |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 3  | ከብዙዎቹ ጋር ሲነፃፀር ያለሁበት ግንኙነት ጥሩ የሚባል ነው   |        |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 4  | ወደዚህ ግንኙነት ባልገባሁ ብይ እመኛለሁ               |        |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 5  | ይህ ግንኙነቴ መጀመሪያ ካሰብኩት ሀሳቤ ጋር የተጣጣመ ነው    |        |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 6  | አጋሬን አፈቅረዋለሁ/አፈቅራታለሁ                    |        |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 7  | በግንኙነቴ ውስጥ ችግሮች አሉ                      |        |   |   |   |   |   |   |

APPENDIX Q

ክፍል 5 - የተለያዩ ውስብስብ ጥያቄዎች የሚያሳይ የመለኪያ ጥናት

መመሪያ: የሚከተሉት ጥያቄዎች የአዋቂዎች የቅርብ የፍቅር ግንኙነት የሚጠይቁ ናቸው። የአዋቂዎች የቅርብ የፍቅር ግንኙነት ስባል የአዉን ወይም የቀድሞ ባል፣ሚስት ወይም የወንድ/ሴት ፍቅር ጓደኛ/አጋር ሆኖ ከአንድ(1) ወር ባላይ ለሆነ ጊዜ በፍቅር አብሮ ያሳለፉትን የሚመለከት ነው። አማራጭ ለቀረበላቸው ጥያቄዎች ከተሰጡት አማራጮች ዉስጥ እርስዎ የሚስማሙበትን አማራጭ በማክበብ ይመልሱ።

1. አስራ ስድስት አመት ከሞላሽ/ክ በጋ ከሌላ ሰው ጋር የፍቅር ግንኙነት መስርተዋል ?

ሀ/ አዎ

ለ/ አልመሰረትኩም/ ካልተመሠረተ የተቀኙትን ጥያቄዎች መጠይቅ አስፈላጊ አይደለም

2. በአሁኑ ሰዓት በትዳር/ፍቅር ግንኙነት ዉስጥ ነዎት?

ሀ/ አዎ ለ/ አይደለሁኝም - (መልስዎት አይደለሁኝ እም ከሆነ ወደ ጥያቄ 4/ ይለፉ)

3. የትዳር/ፍቅር አጋርዎትን ይፈራሉ?

ሀ/ እፈራለሁ / እፈራታለሁ ለ/ አልፈራውም/አልፈራትም

4. ማንኛውንም የትዳር/ፍቅር ግንኙነት ይፈራሉ?

ሀ/ አዎ፤ እፈራለሁ ለ/ አልፈራም

ከዚህ በታች ባለው ሰንጠረዥ ከአሁኑም ሆነ ከቀድሞው የትዳር/ፍቅር አጋር በግንኙነታችሁ ያሳዩችሁን ተሞክሮ የሚያሳዩ የተለያዩ ጥያቄዎች እንደሚከተለው ቀርቧል። ከተዘረዘሩት መካከል ላለፉት 12 ወራት(1ዓመት ውስጥ) በህይወትሽ / በህይወትክ ተከስቶ ከሆነ ምን ያህል ጊዜ፡ እንደሆነ ከተሰጡት አማራጮች አንዱን በማክበብ ይመልሱ።





**APPENDIX R:****Sample Cognitive Consent Form (English)****Cognitive Interview Consent Form**

Thank you for participating in this cognitive interview.

Your participation and feedback will me to determine if there are any adjustments to the research questionnaire that need to be made before the final dispatch/distribution of the whole items to all participants. Your participation in this interview is voluntary and you may discontinue your participation at any time without any penalty. The interview is a requirement of the project. The interview will be tape recorded only with your permission. If permission to record the interview is granted audiotapes and other information from the interview will be kept in a locked filing cabinet until the project is over and destroyed upon completion of the project. Your name will not be associated with any information you provide and will only be known to the individuals working on the project. Thus, any information you provide will be confidential and the information obtained in this study may be published in scientific journals or presented at scientific meetings, but your identity will be kept strictly confidential.

The interview will take about an hour.

**PARTICIPANT CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE COGNITIVE INTERVIEW**

I, \_\_\_\_\_ (please be informed that a secret code will be given and will be used to call you during the interview) herewith confirm that I understand the orally explained and written conditions of the research which have been explained to me including its side effect and that I put a v mark to show my agreement to participate in this interview.

I am willing to participate in this interview Yes \_\_\_\_\_ NO \_\_\_\_\_

If you are willing, please, we can continue the interview.

**Thank you to take part in this interview.**

**Adane Wako, PhD Candidate at Rhodes University, South Africa**

**Your code \_\_\_\_\_ Signiture \_\_\_\_\_**

## APPENDIX - S

### Cognitive Interview Guide (English Version)

#### **Demographic Information of the Cognitive Interviewee**

**Date** \_\_\_\_\_ **Start time** \_\_\_\_\_ **Stop time** \_\_\_\_\_ **Place of Interview**

**Interviewee ID** A, B, C, D, E, F

**Institution** \_\_\_\_\_ **Age** \_\_\_\_\_

**Marital Status** \_\_\_\_\_ **If you have children, how many?** \_\_\_\_\_

**Year of Service** \_\_\_\_\_

**Educational level** \_\_\_\_\_

Part 1: After listening/reading the following questions, explain their Understandability, Clarity and Sensitivity in the lens of Ethiopian culture/context. If the items are clear, easily understandable or not sensitive (annoy the respondent, you can say “ the item is clear and no need of any amendment” . If you feel that the item needs and improvement and amendment, you can suggest anything you feel to improve the understandability, clarity and sensitivity of the items.

1.- Item # 6: when we say “**profession**”, what comes into your mind? Could you explain in your own word?

2.- Item # 7: Have you heard about “**Cohabitation**”?

#### **Part 2: from Experience of Close Relationship (ECR)**

1.- What does partner mean?

2.- Of the following, which one you approve?

a.- Experience in Close relationship

b.- Experience in romantic relationship

c.-Experience in Romantic/love relationship

3.-Which one you approve?

a) I am comfortable to have close relationship with my partner

b)I am comfortable to have close relationship with my marital partner

c) My close relationship with my romantic partner is comfortable

4.-Of the following, which one is more clear over others?

- a)when my partner gets closer to me, I distance my self
- b)when my partner gets closer to me, I feel inferior
- c) As my romantic partner gets closer to me, I keep my distance

5.- Which one can easily be understood?

- a)I do not feel comfort to clearly speak everything to my partner
- b) I do not feel comfort to be open for my partner
- c) being open to my partner do not give me comfort

6 I worry that my partner won't care about me as much as I care about him/her

7.- I want to get close to my partner, but I keep pulling back

9.- I don't feel comfortable opening up to my relationship partner

10.- I often wish that my partner's feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for him/her

11.- I want to get close to my partner, but I keep pulling back.

12.- I often want to merge completely with my relationship partner, and this sometimes scares him/her away

13. I am nervous when my partner gets too close to me

## ABOUT CONFLICT IN RELATIONSHIPS (CRI)

### What does “conflict” mean

Item # 11. Feel close to partner after conflict

Item #13. Keep distant

Item #15. Threaten

Item # 16. Protest by remaining silent

Part 3: Of the following, which one is easily Understandability, have Clarity, and less Sensitivity to be used in Ethiopian/study area’s context? Based on these criterias, put a tick mark (✓) on the space provided.

| Alternatives                       | Which one you prefer (Rank) | Understandability | Clarity | sensitivity | Do you think that the statements need improvement?<br>If so, what do you suggest? |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------|---------|-------------|---|
| a.-Relationship Assessment         |                             |                   |         |             |   |
| Relationship Assessment Scale/tool |                             |                   |         |             |   |
| Romantic Relationship Assessment   |                             |                   |         |             |   |

### Part 4: Composite Abuse Scale Revised – Short Form (CAS<sub>R</sub>-SF)

1. Which one can easily be understood.

- Measure of different abuses(shorten form)
- Composite abuse measurement(Scale) Revised-Short Form

2. What does “**composite abuse**” mean to you?

3. Can you suggest a comprehensive meaning to all?

4. Describe the following sentences in your own words

5. Explain the following sentences in your own words (statements)

Item #1: Shook, pushed, grabbed or threw me

Item #2: Tried to convince my family, children or friends that I am crazy

or tried to turn them against me

Item #3. Used or threatened to use a knife or gun or other weapon to harm me

Item 13 *Confined or locked me in a room or other space*

Item 14. Kept me from having access to a job, money or financial resources.

Item #15. Blamed me for causing their violent behavior

Item #16: Made comments about my sexual past or my sexual performance that made me feel ashamed, inadequate or humiliated.

APPENDIX T

Cognitive Consent Form (Amharic)

**የግንዛቤ መጠይቅ የፈቃደኝነት ተሳትፎ ፎርም**

በዚህ የግንዛቤ መጠይቅ ለመሳተፍ ፍቃደኛ ስለሆኑ ከልብ አመሰግናለሁኝ። የዚህ መጠይቅና ተሳትፎ አላማ ለዋናው የጥናትና ምርምር ርዕስ PREDICTORS OF VIOLENCE IN ETHIOPIAN COUPLE RELATIONSHIPS አካል ሲሆን ለጥናቱ የተዘጋጀ መጠይቅ ለተሳታፊዎች ከመሰራጨቱ በፊት የሀሳብ ግልፅነት፣ በቀላሉ መረዳት ስለመቻሉ እነድሁም ከእኛ ሀገር ባህልና ስሜት ጋር አብሮ መሄዱን ለማረጋገጥ ግብረመልስ በማግኘት ለማሻሻል የታሰበ ነው። በዚህ መጠይቅ የሚሳተፉ አካላት በፈቃደኝነት ላይ የተመሰረተ ሲሆን በማንኛውም ጊዜ ያለምንም አስገዳጅነት ሁኔታ ማቋረጥ ይችላሉ። የዚህ መጠይቅ ድምፅ ለጥናቱ ስራ ሲባል በእርሱ ፈቃድ የሚቀዳ ሲሆን ጥናቱ እንዳለቀ የሚወገድ ይሆናል። የእርስዎ ስም የማይጠቀስ ሲሆን ሚስጢራዊነቱም በጥብቅ የተጠበቀ መሆኑን ለመግለፅ እንወዳለን። የዚህ ጥናት ወጪትም ለትምህርታዊ አላማ ብቻ የሚወጣ ሲሆን ወጪቱም በሳይንሳዊ ጆርናሎች ልታተም ሚችልና በምንም መልኩ የእርስዎ ስም የማይገለፅ መሆኑን መግለፅ እንወዳለን። መጠይቁ እስከ አንድ ሰዓት የሚደርስ ሊሆን ይችላል።

እኔ \_\_\_\_\_ (የእርስዎ ስም አይጠቀስም። በሚሰጥዎት ኮድ መሰረት ይጠራሉ) የዚህ ጥናት ተሳታፊ የጥናቱ ዓላማና የጎንዮሽ ተፅኖ በሚገባ የተገለፀልኝ በመሆኑ በዚህ ጥናት ቃለመጠይቅ በፈቃደኝነት ለመሳተፍ ያለምንም አስገዳጅ ሁኔታ ለመሳተፍ የተስማማሁ መሆኔን እስማማለሁ በሚለው ሳጥን ወስጥ የ(✓) ምልክት በማስቀመጥ ተሳትፎዬን መግለፅ እፈልጋለሁኝ።

በዚህ ጥናት ቃለመጠይቅ ለመሳተፍ ፈቃደኛ ነዎት?    አዎ     ፍቃደኛ አይደለሁም

ፈቃደኛ ከሆኑ የግንዛቤ መጠይቅ እንጀምራለን።

ስለፈቃደኝነትዎና ተሳትፎዎ በቅድሚያ አመሰግናለሁኝ  
 አዳነ ዋቆ በደ/አፍሪካ ሮድስ ዩኒቨርሲቲ የፒ ኤ ች ዲ ድግሪ ተማሪ  
 የተሳታፊ ኮድ \_\_\_\_\_ ፊርማ-----

APPENDIX U

Cognitive Interview Guide (Amharic Version)

(የአስተዳደር መጠይቅ መመሪያ)

መሰረታዊ ግላዊ መረጃዎች

ቀን \_\_\_\_\_ የተጀመረበት ሰዓት \_\_\_\_\_ ያለቀበት ሳት \_\_\_\_\_

ቃለመጠይቁ የተከናወነበት ቦታ \_\_\_\_\_

Interview

የተጠያቂው መለያ ኮድ \_\_\_\_\_ A, B, C, D, E, F

ተቋም \_\_\_\_\_ እድሜ \_\_\_\_\_

የትዳር ሁኔታ \_\_\_\_\_ ልጅ ካለዎት ስንት? \_\_\_\_\_

የአገልግሎት ዘመን \_\_\_\_\_

የትምህርት ደረጃ \_\_\_\_\_

ክፍል 1. መሰረታዊ መረጃዎች

የሚከተሉትን ጥያቄዎች ካነበቡ/ከሰሙ ቦላ ጥያቄዎቹን በቀላሉ መረዳት ስለመቻላቸው( Understandability)፣ ግልፅነታቸው(Clarity) እና ስሜት ኮርኳሪነት(Sensitivity) (በእኛ ሀገር ባህልና ስሜት የሚከረከሩ መሆናቸውን) ወይም ምንም ማሻሻያ አያስፈልግም ወይም ማሻሻያ የሚያስፈልጋቸው ከሆነ የእራስዎን የማሻሻያ ሀሳብ በማክል ይግለፁዎቸው

- 1. ሙያዎ/ ሥራዎ ስባል ወደ አእምሮዎ ምን ይመታል? የቱን ያፀድቁታል?
- 2. 7 የጋብቻ ሁኔታ:- ተብሎ “ሳይጋቡ ከፍቅረኛ ጋር አብሮ መኖር” ስባል ሰምተው ያወቃሉ?

ክፍል 2: በቅርብ ግንኙነቶች ውስጥ ያሉ ልምዶች

- 1. አጋር ማለት ምን ማለት ነው?
- 2. ከሚከተሉት ውስጥ የተኛውን የፀድቃሉ?
  - A) በቅርብ ግንኙነቶች ውስጥ ያሉ ልምዶች
  - B) የፍቅር ግንኙነት ውስጥ ያሉ ልምዶች
  - C) በፍቅር/ትዳር ግንኙነት ውስጥ ያሉ ልምዶች

3. ከሚከተሉት ዉስጥ የተኛዉን የፀድቃሉ?

- A. ከግንኙነት አጋሬ ጋር መቀራረቤ በጣም ተመችቶኛል
- B. ከትዳር አጋሬ ጋር ያለኝ ቅርበት በጣም ተመችቶኛል።
- C. ከትዳር/ፍቅር አጋሬ ጋር ያለኝ ቀረቤታ በጣም ተመችቶኛል

4. ከሚከተሉት ዉስጥ የትኛዉ የበለጠ ግልፅ ነዉ?

- A) አጋሬ /ንደኛዬ ወደ እኔ በቀረበኝ ጊዜ እራሴን አርቃለሁ
- B) የትዳር አጋሬ ወደ እኔ መቅረብ ሲጀምር የበታ ችነት ስሜት ይሰማኛል
- C) የትዳር/ፍቅር አጋሬ በቀረበኝ/ችን መጠን እራሴን አርቃለሁኝ

5. ከሚከተሉት ዉስጥ የትኛዉ በቀላሉ መረዳት ይቻላል ብለዉ የስባሉ?

- A) ለአጋሬ የሚሰማኝን ነገር በግልፅ ለመናገር ምችት አይሰማኝም
- B) ለትዳር አጋሬ ግልጥ መሆን ምችት አይሰጠኝም

6. ለአጋሬ እራሴን ግልፅ ማድረግ ምችት አይሰጠኝም።

7. ብዙ ጊዜ የትዳር አጋሬ ለእኔ ያለው/ላት ስሜት ልክ እኔ ለእሱ/ሷ እንዳለኝ ስሜት ጠንካራ እንዲሆን አመኛለሁ።

8. አጋሬን መቅረብ እፈልጋለሁኝ፤ ግን እራሴን ማራቁን ቀጥያለሁኝ።

9. በአጋሬ እንደሚፈቀር ብዙ ማረጋገጫ እፈልጋለሁኝ።

10. አንዳንዴ አጋሬ የተሻለ ስሜትና ቁርጠኝነት እንደያሳየኝ/እንደታሳየኝ የማስገድድ ይመስለኛል።

11. የትዳር/ፍቅር አጋሬን በጣም መቅረብ አልፈልግም ።

12. አጋሬን ስለምችት፣ምክር እና እገዛ መጠየቅ ብዙም አይገደኝም።

13. ባስፈለገኝ ጊዜ ወደ አጋሬ ግንኙነት መመለስ ጠቀሜታ አለዉ. አይገደኝም. ።

**ክፍል 3: በግንኙነት ውስጥ ስለሚከሰቱ ግጭቶች**

**ግጭት ማለት ምን ማለት ነዉ ?**

1. በግንኙነት ውስጥ ስለሚከሰቱ ግጭቶች /አለመግባባት መጠይቅ አማራጮች: 2. ከስንት ጊዜ አንዴ 2. በጥቂቱ
2. Q. ከግጭት ቦሃ ለኔን የመቅረብ ስሜት አለዉ/ላት. ::
5. አጋሪን መቅረብ እፈልጋለሁኝ፤ ግን እራሴን ማራቁን ቀጥያለሁኝ.።
6. በአጋሪ እንደሚፈቀር ብዙ ማረጋገጫ እፈልጋለሁኝ።
7. አንዳንዴ አጋሪ የተሻለ ስሜትና ቁርጠኝነት እንድያሳየኝ/እንድታሳየኝ የማስገድድ ይመስለኛል.
8. የትዳር/ፍቅር አጋሪን በጣም መቅረብ አልፈልግም ::
9. አጋሪን ስለምኝት፣ምክር እና እገዛ መጠየቅ ብዙም አይገደኝም.።
10. ባስፈለገኝ ጊዜ ወደ አጋሪ ግንኙነት መመለስ ጠቀሜታ አለዉ. ::

**ክፍል4: በግንኙነት ውስጥ ስለሚከሰቱ ግጭቶች (የቀጠለ.....)**

1. በግንኙነት ውስጥ ስለሚከሰቱ ግጭቶች /አለመግባባት መጠይቅ አማራጮች 2. ከስንት ጊዜ አንዴ 2. በጥቂቱ
2. Q. ከግጭት/አለመግባባት ቦሃ ለኔን የመቅረብ ስሜት አለዉ/ላት.።.
3. ከግጭት ቦሃ ርቀቱን/ቷን እንደጠበቀ/ች ይቀጥላል/ለች.።
4. ከግጭት ቦሃ ያስፈራራኛል/ኛለች /ይዝትብኛል/ኛለች. ::
5. ከግጭት ቦሃ በዝምታ ቅሬታዉን/ዋን ያሳያል/ያለች. ::

ከእነዚህ አማራጮች ውስጥ የትኛው የበለጠ ትርጉም ይሰጥዎታል? ጥያቄዎቹን በቀላሉ መረዳት መቻላል (Understandability) ፣ግልፅነት(Clarity) እና ስሜት ኮርኳሪነት(Sensitivity) በሚሉ መመዘኛዎች የ(✓) ምልክት በማስቀጥ ይገለፁዎቸው።

|                             | የትኛውን ይመርጣሉ?<br>(Rank) | በቀላሉ መረዳት መቻላ<br>(Understandability) | ግልፅነት<br>(Clarity) | ስሜት ኮርኳሪነት<br>(Sensitivity) | ጥያቄው ማሻሻያ ያስፈልገዋል ይሁን? ከሆነ ምን ተብሎ እንድስታካከል ይፈልጋል? |
|-----------------------------|------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------|-----------------------------|---|
| ሀ)የግንኙነት መመዘኛ               |                        |                                      |                    |                             |   |
| ለ)የግንኙነትን ሁኔታ መለኪያ          |                        |                                      |                    |                             |   |
| ሐ) የትዳር/ ፍቅር ግንኙነት ሁኔታ መመዘኛ |                        |                                      |                    |                             |   |

1. ይህ ግንኙነቱ መጀመሪያ ካሰብኩት ሀሳቤ ጋር የተጣጣመ ነው። ።

**ክፍል 4: ውስብስብ የጥቃት አይነቶች መለኪያ (አጥሮ የቀረበ)**

ከሚከተሉት ውስጥ የትኛው የበለጠ ቀላልና መረዳት ይቻላል?

የተለያዩ ጥቃቶችን መለኪያ መጠይቅ-(አጥሮ የቀረበ)

የተለያዩ ውስብስብ ጥቃቶችን መለኪያ መጠይቅ.

**Q.ውስብስብ ጥቃቶች ማለት ምን ማለት ነው? እንዴት ቢገለፅ ሁሉንም የሚያስማማ ትርጉም ያስተላለጋል ብለው ያስባሉ?**

1. ትኩር ብሎ ይመለከተኛል፤ ይገፋኛል፤ያመነጭቀኛል ወይም ይወረወረኛል።
2. እብድ/የማልረባ አድርጎ በማቅረብ በእኔ ተቃራኒ እንዲቆሙ ቤተሰቤን፣ ልጆቼን እንዲሁም ጓደኞቼን ሊያሳምናቸው ይሞክራል/ራሳች።
3. በቡጢ ወይም በተገኙ ቁሳቁሶች ይመታኛል/ትመታኛለች።
4. ክፍል ውስጥ አግቶኛል /ቆልፎብኛል።
5. ሥራ፣ ገንዘብ ወይም የገንዘብ ምንጭ እንዳይኖረኝ አድርጎኛል።
6. ለተፈጠረ ጠባጫሪ ባህሪ እኔን ተጠያቂ ያደርገኛል/ታደርገኛለች።
7. ስላለፈው የወሲብ ታሪኬን/ብቃቴ አስተያየት በመስጠት ያሸማቅቀኛል/ታሸማቅቀኛለች፤ እንዳፍር ያደርገኛል/ታደርገኛለች።



6. የትምህርት ደረጃዎ ?

ሀ) የኮሌጅ ትምህርት  ለ) የመጀመሪያ ድግሪ (ባችለር)

ሐ)  (ማስተርስ ወይም ፒኤችዲ ደረጃ)

7. ስራ \_\_\_\_\_

8. የጋብቻ ሁኔታዎ ?

ሀ) ያለገባ  ለ) ከጋፍቅርኛ ጋር አብሮ መኖር

ሐ) ያገባ  መ) የተለያየ/የተፋታ  ሠ) ፍቅረኛ/የትዳር አጋር በሞት የተለየ

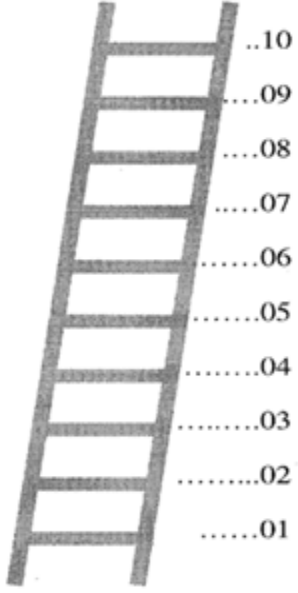
9. ልጆች አሉዎት? ሀ) የለኝም  ለ) አለኝ  አለኝ ከሆነ መልሶት ፣ ስንት? \_\_\_\_

10. ባለትዳር ወይም ሳይጋቡ አብረው የሚኖሩ ከሆነ፣ እባክዎን አሁን ያለዎትን ግንኙነት የቆይበትን ጊዜ ያመልክቱ፡- \_\_\_\_ ዓመታት/ \_\_\_\_ ወራት።

11. በአሁኑ ጊዜ ከትዳር አጋሮ ጋር አብረው የሚኖሩ ከሆነ፣ ከመቼ ጀምሮ? \_\_\_\_ ዓመት \_\_\_\_ ወር

12. እባኮትን የነበሮትን የትዳር አጋሮች ብዛት ያመልክቱ (የአሁኑን ጨምሮ)፡- \_\_\_\_\_

13. የማህበራዊ እና ኢኮኖሚያዊ ሁኔታ መለኪያ (የ X ምልክት ያድርጉ)

|   |   |
|---|---|
|  | <p>መመሪያ: ይህ የምትመለከቱት መሰላል ከታች ጀምሮ እስከ ላይ በአጠቃላይ አሥር ደረጃዎች አሉ።</p> <p>ይህን መሰላል ሰዎች በህብረተሰባችን ውስጥ ያሉበትን ቦታ እንደሚወክል አስቡት። በመሰላሉ አናት ላይ ብዙ ገንዘብ፣ ጥሩ የትምህርት ደረጃ እና ምርጥ ሥራ ያላቸው ሰዎች አሉ። በታችኛው በኩል ደግሞ በጣም የከፋ ወይም አነስተኛ ገንዘብ ፣ ዝቅተኛ ትምህርት እና ጥሩ ያልሆነ ስራዎች ወይም ሥራ የሌላቸው ሰዎች ናቸው። በዚህ መሰላል ላይ ከፍ ባለህ ቁጥር ወይም ካሉት ሰዎች ጋር ትቀርባለህ። ዝቅ ስትል ከታች ካሉት ሰዎች ጋር ትቀርባላችሁ። አሁን ያለህበትን ሁኔታ ብታጤንና ከሌሎች የኢትዮጵያ ሰዎች ጋር ብታወዳድር፣ እራስህን በዚህ መሰላል ላይ የቱ ጋ ታገወለህ ?</p> |
|---|---|

14.- ከሚከተሉት አማራጮች ውስጥ ከቤተሰብዎ ገቢ ጋር የሚዛመደው የትኛው ነው? (ሁሉንም የገቢ ምንጮች, በአማካይ, በወር, የተጣራ ገቢ ግምት ውስጥ ያስገቡ). ከገቢዎት አንጻር የሚመለከቶች ምርጫ ላይ ምላሽዎን ያክብቡ ።

- A/ 2001 - 2500 ብር
- B/ 2501 - 3000 ብር
- C/ 3001 -4000 ብር
- D/ 4001 - 5000 ብር
- E/ 5001 - 6000 ብር
- F/ 6001 - 7000 ብር
- G/ 7001 - 8500 ብር
- H/ 8501 - 10000 ብር
- I/ ከ10000 ብር

ይህንን ክፍል ከጨረሱ ወደሚቀጥለው ገፅ ይሂዱ

**ለ.- የፍቅር ግንኙነት ውስጥ ያሉ ልምዶች**

የሚከተሉት መጠይቆች በቅርብ ግንኙነት ውስጥ ያለዎትን ስሜት ያሳስባሉ። አሁን ባለው ግንኙነት ውስጥ ምን እየተከሰተ እንዳለ ብቻ ሳይሆን በአጠቃላይ ግንኙነቶችን እንዴት እንዴት እንደሆነ ለማወቅ እንፈልጋለን። ለእያንዳንዱ ጥያቄዎች ምን ያህል እንደተስማሙ ወይም እንደማይስማሙ በማመልከት ምላሽ ለመስጠት የሚከተለውን መለኪያ በመጠቀም ቁጥሩን አክብብ፡

| 1             | 2          | 3           | 4            | 5           | 6           | 7             |
|---------------|------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|
| ሙሉ በሙሉ አልስማማም | በጣም አልስማማም | የበልጥ አልስማማም | ለመወሰን እቸገራለሁ | የበልጥ እስማማለሁ | በመጠኑ እስማማለሁ | ሙሉ በሙሉ እስማማለሁ |

|  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. የሚሰማኝን ጥልቅ ስሜ ለባለቤቴ አለማሳየት እመርጣለሁ                                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2. ስለመተው እጨነቃለሁ።   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3. ከትዳር አጋሬ ጋር ያለኝ ቅርበት በጣም ተመቸቶኛል።                                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4. ስለግንኙነቴ በጣም እጨነቃለሁ  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5. የትዳር አጋሬ ወደ እኔ መቅረብ ሲጀምር የበታ ችነት ስሜት ይሰማኛል                          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6. እኔ እንደ ማስብላት/ላት የትዳር አጋሬ ስለኔ ምንም ግድ እንደማይሰጠው/ት በማሰብ እጨነቃለሁ          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7. የትዳር አጋሬ በጣም ሊቀርበኝ ሲፈልግ ምቹት አይሰማኝም                                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 8. የትዳር አጋሬ ስለማጠት በተወሰነ መጠን እጨነቃለሁ።                                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 9. ለተትዳር አጋሬ ግልጥ መሆን ምቹት አይሰጠኝም  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 10. ሁሌም የትዳር አጋሬ ለእኔ ያለው ስሜት ልክ እኔ ለእሱ/ሷ ያለኝ ስሜት ጠንካራ እንዲሆን እመኛለሁ።     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 11. የትዳር አጋሬን መቅረብ እፈልጋለሁ፣ አልገፋበትም እመሰግናለሁ።                            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 12. ብዙ ጊዜ ከትዳር አጋሬ ጋር ሙሉ ለሙሉ አንድላይ መሆን እፈልጋለሁ፣ ይህ አንዳንድ እሱን/እሷን ያስፈራታል | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 13. የትዳር አጋሬ ወደ እኔ በጣም ሲቀርበኝ እጨነቃለሁ                                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 14. ብቻዬን ስለመሆኔ እጨነቃለሁ።   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 15. የግል ስሜቴን ለትዳር ጋሬ ማካፈል ይመቸኛል  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 16. በጣም ለመቅረብ ያለኝ ፍላጎት አንዳንድ ጊዜ ሰዎችን ያስፈራቸዋል                           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 17. ከትዳር አጋሬ ጋር በጣም ላለመቅረብ እሞክራለሁ                                      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 18. የትዳር አጋሬ እንደምት/ሚወደኝ እንደገና ማረጋገጫ እፈልጋለሁ                             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 19. በአንፃራዊ ከትዳር ጋሬ ጋር መቀራረብ ቀላል ሆኖ አግኝቼዋለሁ                             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 20. አንዳንድ ጊዜ የትዳር አጋሬን የበለጠ ስሜት፣ ቁርጠኝነትን እንዲያሳይ እንደስገደድኩት ይሰማኛል።  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 21. እራሴን የትዳር አጋሬ ላይ ጥገኛ ማድረግ ይከብደኛል  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 22. ይተወኝል/ች ብዬ ብዙም አልጨነቅም።  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 23. ከ ትዳር ሳጋሬ ጋር በጣም አለመቀራረብ እመርጣለሁ   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 24. If I can't get my partner to show interest in me, I get upset or angry<br>24. የትዳር ዳደኛዬ ለእኔ ፍላጎት እንዲያሳይ ማድረግ ካልቻልኩ እበሳጭለሁ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 25. I tell my partner just about everything 25. ስለ ሁሉም ነገር ለባልደረባዬ እነግርዋለሁ  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 26. የትዳር አጋሬ እኔ የምፈልገውን ያህል መቀራረብ እንደማይፈልግ ተገንዝቤያለሁ   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 27. አብዛኛውን ጊዜ ችግሮቼን እና የሚያሰጩንቀኝን ነገር ከትዳር አጋሬ ጋር እወያያለሁ   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 28. በፍቅር ግንኙነት ውስጥ ካልሆንኩ፣ ጭንቀት እና ስጋት ይሰማኛል   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 29. በፍቅር አጋሬ ምቹት ይሰማኛል  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 30. የትዳር ዳደኛዬ እኔ እንደምፈልገው አጠገቤ በማይሆንበት ጊዜ እበሳጭለሁ።   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 31. የትዳር አጋሬ እንዲያጽናናኝ ፣ እንዲ መክርን ወይም እርዳታን መጠየቅ አልፈልግም።   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 32. የትዳር አጋሬን ስፈልግዉ የማይገኝ ከሆነ እበሳጭለሁ  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 33. የትዳር አጋሬ ሳይቀበለኝ ሲቀር ስለራሴ በጣም መጥፎ ስሜት ይሰማኛል  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 34. የትዳር አጋሬ እኔን ሳይቀበለኝ ሲቀር ስለራሴ በጣም መጥፎ ስሜት ይሰማኛል።   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 35. መጽናናትን እና ማረጋገጥን ጨምሮ ለብዙ ነገሮች የፍቅር አጋሬ ነዉ ምፈልገዉ።  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 36. የትዳር ዳደኛዬ ከእኔ ርቆ ጊዜ ሲያሳልፍ ቅር ይለኛል።  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

**C. በግንኙነት ውስጥ ስላለው ግጭት መጠይቅ**

ከዚህ በታች የተጠቀሱት በቅርብ ግንኙነት ውስጥ ሊከሰቱ የሚችሉ አንዳንድ ሁኔታዎችን ያመለክታሉ። ይህ መጠይቅ ሶስት ክፍሎች ያሉት ሲሆን የእርሶን ድርጊት፣ የትዳር አጋሮችን ድርጊት እና የትዳር አጋርዎ እንዲሰራ የሚፈልጓቸውን ድርጊቶች ይመለከታል።

በዚህ የመጀመሪያ ክፍል እባክዎን ከትዳር አጋሮ ጋር ከተጨቃጩ በኋላ የሚከተሉትን እያንዳንዱን ድርጊቶች ምን ያህል እንደሚያደርጉ ያመልክቱ።

| 1    | 2    | 3      | 4       | 5      | 6          | 7   |
|------|------|--------|---------|--------|------------|-----|
| በፍጹም | በጥቂቱ | ልጅ አልፎ | በመደበኛነት | በተደጋጋሚ | በጣም በተደጋጋሚ | ሁሌም |

|                                     |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|-------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. ውይይት ማስጀምር                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2. መወቀስ                             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3. ክፍሉን ለቀው መወጣት                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4. ጥፋትን አምኖ መቀበል                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5. ውጥረትን መደበቅ                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6. መስድብ                             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7. በጥምና ማዳመጠጥ                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 8. ውይይቱን ከጅምሩ ማቆም                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 9. የበቀል እቅድ                         | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 10. ግንኙነቱን ለመተው ማሰብ                 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 11. ከግጭት በኋላ ለትዳር አጋሮች ቅርብ የመሆን ስሜት | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 12. መምታት፣ መገፈተር ወይም ጥፊ              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 13. ርቀትን መጠብቅ                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 14. ሃሳቦችን ማምጣት                      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 15. ዛቻ                              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 16. በዝምታ መቃወሙ                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

**E.- የግንኙነትን ሁኔታ መለኪያ**

ከዚህ በታች የእርስዎን የቅርብ ግንኙነት የሚጠቅሱ ሀሳቦች አሉ። ከታች ያለውን 1-7 መለኪያ በመጠቀም ለእያንዳንዱ ጥያቄ ተገቢውን ቁጥር በመክበብ መስማማትዎን ያመልክቱ።

| 1             | 2          | 3           | 4           | 5           | 6           | 7             |
|---------------|------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|
| ሙሉ በሙሉ አልስማማም | በጣም አልስማማም | የበልጥ አልስማማም | ለመወሰን እችላለሁ | የበልጥ እስማማለሁ | በመጠኑ እስማማለሁ | ሙሉ በሙሉ እስማማለሁ |

|                                |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|--------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. የፍቅር አጋሬ ፍላጎቶቼን ያሟላል        | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2. በአጠቃላይ, በዚህ ግንኙነት ረክቻለሁ     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3. ግንኙነቴ ከብዙሀ ኑ ጋር ሲነጻጸር ጥሩ ነው | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4. ወደዚህ ግንኙነት ባልገባ እመኛለሁ       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5. በ ግንኙነቴ መሰረታዊ ፍላጎቶቼ ይሟላል።   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6. የትዳር አጋሬን አፈቅረዋለሁ።          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7. በግንኙነቴ ውስጥ ችግሮች አሉ          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

**የተለያዩ ጥቃቶችን መለኪያ መጠይቅ-አጥሮ የቀረበ**

**{Composite Abuse Scale Revised – Short Form (CAS<sub>R</sub>-SF)}**

መመሪያ: የሚከተሉት ጥያቄዎች አዋቂ ሰዎች በቅርብ የፍቅር/ትዳር አጋሮቻቸው የሚገጥማቸውን ልምድ የሚጠይቁ ናቸው። የፍቅር/ትዳር አጋር/ግንኙነት ማለት የአሁን ወይም የቀድሞ ባል/ሚስት/ፍቅረኛ ሆኖ ቆይታውም ከአንድ ወር ያላነሰ ማለታችን ነው።

1. የትዳር/ፍቅር ግንኙነት ነበርዎት(ከ16 አመትዎ ጀምሮ)?  
 U) አዎ ለ) የለኝም መልስዎ የለኝም ከሆነ ወደሌላ ጥያቄዎች ይሂዱ
2. በአሁኑ ጊዜ በፍቅር ግንኙነት ውስጥ ነዎት?  
 U) አዎ ለ) የለኝም መልስዎ አይደለም ከሆነ ወደ ጥያቄ ቁጥር 4 ይሂዱ
3. በአሁኑ ጊዜ ዳደሮችን/ፍቅረኞችን/አጋርዎችን ይፈራሉ?  
 U) አዎ ለ) አልፈራም
4. መናቸውንም የትዳር/ፍቅር አጋርዎን ፈርተው ያዉቃሉ?  
 U) አዎ ለ) አልፈራም

ከዚህ በታች የተዘረዘሩ ይያቁዎች ከአሁኑም ይሁን ከቀድሞ የፍቅር/ትዳር ዳደሮ/አጋርዎ የገጠመዎትን ድርጊት ለማወቅ የተዘጋጁ ናቸው። በጥያቄው መሰረት የገጠመዎት ከሆነ ባለፉት 12 ወራት ምን ያክል ጊዜ እንደገጠመዎት ከተሰጡት አማራጮች አንዱን ያክብቡ።

| የትዳር አጋራ/ፍቅር ዳደሮ  | ይህ ሁኔታ ገትሞዎት ያዉቃል? |    | መልስዎ አዎ ከሆነ ባለፈው 12 ወራት ምን ያክል ጊዜ ገጠመዎት? |     |          |      |        |                   |
|---|--------------------|----|--|-----|----------|------|--------|-------------------|
|   | አያዉቅም              | አዎ | ባለፉት 12 ወራት ይህ ሁኔታ ገጥሞኝ አያዉቅም            | አንዴ | ጥቂት ጊዜያት | በየወሩ | በየሳምንቱ | በየቀኑ ልባል በሚችል መልኩ |
| 1. ትኩረት ብሎ ያየኛል፤ ይገፈትረኛል፤ ይመነጭቀኛል   | አያዉቅም              | አዎ |  |     |          |      |        |                   |
| 2. እንደማልረባ/ችግር እንዳለብኝ ቤተሰቤን፤ ልጆቼን ወይም ዳደሮችን በማሳመን ከእኔ ተቃራኒ እንድሆኑ ያደርጋል              | አያዉቅም              | አዎ |  |     |          |      |        |                   |
| 3. እኔን ለመጉዳት/ ለማስፈራራት ቢለዋ ወይም የጦር መሳሪያ ወይም ማናቸውንም ማስፈራሪያ መሳሪያ ተጠቅሟል/እንደሚጠቀም ያስፈራራኛል | አያዉቅም              | አዎ |  |     |          |      |        |                   |
| 4. እኔ የማልፈልገውን የወሲብ አይነቶችን እንድንፈጸም ያደርገኛል   | አያዉቅም              | አዎ |  |     |          |      |        |                   |
| 5. ከቤት ዉጪ ወይም ስራ በታ ይከታተላኛል   | አያዉቅም              | አዎ |  |     |          |      |        |                   |
| 6. እኔን ወይም ዳደሮቼን/ዘመዴን እንደሚጎዱ/እንደሚገድል  | አያዉቅም              | አዎ |  |     |          |      |        |                   |

|   |       |    |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|---|-------|----|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| ያስፈራራኛል   |       |    |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 7.አንቆኛል   | አያዉቅም | አዎ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 8.ወሲብ እንድንፈፀም አስገድዶያልወይም ልያስገድድኝ ይሞክራል                            | አያዉቅም | አዎ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 9. ስልክ፤አጭር የጽሁፍ መልእክት ኢሜይል ወይም ማህበራዊ ሚዲያ በመጠቀም ጥቃት ፈፀሞብኛል/ይነዘንዘኛል | አያዉቅም | አዎ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 10.እብድ፤የማልረባ ወይም ረብ የለሽ መሆኔን ይነግረኛል                               | አያዉቅም | አዎ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 11. በቡጢ ወይም በተገኘ ቁሳቁስ መትቶኛል ወይም በእርጊጫ/ ካልቾ መትቶኛል።                 | አያዉቅም | አዎ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 12.ቤተሰቦቼን ወይም ጓደኞቼን እንዳላይ/እንዳላገኝ አድርጎኛል                           | አያዉቅም | አዎ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 13. በአንድ ቦታ አግቶኛል ወይም አንድ ክፍል ዉስጥ ቆልፎብኛል                          | አያዉቅም | አዎ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 14. ስራ፤ሳንቲምና ገንዘብ እንዳላገኝ አድርጎኛል                                   | አያዉቅም | አዎ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 15. ለተፈጠረ ጠባጫሪ ባህሪ እኔን ተጠያቂ ያደርገኛል                                | አያዉቅም | አዎ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 16. የባለፈ የወሲብ ታሪኬንና የወሲብ ግንኙነት ብቃቴን በማንሳት እንድሸማቀቅና እንዳፍር ያደርገኛል   | አያዉቅም | አዎ |  |  |  |  |  |  |

APPENDIX W

Translator 2

ውድ ተሳታፊ

ከተለያዩ ሀገራት ውስጥ ስለስብዕና እና የቅርብ ግንኙነቶች ላይ የሚያተኩሩ ጥናት እያጠናን እንገኛለን። በዚህም ጥናት የተለያዩ ሰዎች ስለራሳቸው ም ያስባሉ፡ ስለቅርብ ግንኙነቶቻቸው እና በአጠቃላይ ስለሌሎች ግንኙነቶች ም ያስባሉ የሚለውን ለማወቅ እንፈልጋለን። ይህንን ጥናት ለማካሄድ በቅርብ ግንኙነት ውስጥ ያሉ ግለሰቦች ማለትም በጋብቻ ውስጥ ያሉ ወይም በደባልነት አብረው የሚኖሩ ሰዎች ያስፈልጉናል። ይህን መጠይቅ ለመሙላት የግድ ሁለቱም በግንኙነት ውስጥ ያሉት ግለሰቦች መልስ እንዲሰጡ አይጠበቅም። ስለሆነም አጋሮ ባያደርጉት እንኳን እርሶ መጠይቁን መሙላት ይችላሉ።

ይህንን ጥናት እንድናደርግ ሊተባበሩን ከፈለጉ የሚከተሉትን ነገሮች ልብ ይበሉ። በመጀመሪያ ደረጃ ሁሉንም አጠቃላይ መመለስ ካልፈለጉ ወይም ለጥያቄዎቹ መልስ መስጠት ካልፈለጉ መተው ይችላሉ። በሁለተኛነት ለመጠይቁ የተሰጡት መረጃዎች በሙሉ በግልፅ ባልተጠቀሰ ግለሰብ ነው የሚሞሉት ማለትም ስምዎትን፣ አድራሻዎትን ወይም የስልክ ቁጥሮትን መግለፅ አይጠበቅብዎትም። እኛ በብቸኝነት ማወቅ የምንፈልገው የግለሰቡን ማንነት መለየት በማያስችል መልኩ የቀረቡ የመረጃ ጥያቄዎችን ነው። ሶስተኛ ለመጠይቁ የተሰጡ መልሶች እና መረጃዎች በሚስጥር ይያዛሉ። ማለትም በጥናቱ በቀጥታ የሚሳተፉ አጥኚዎች ብቻ መረጃዎትን እንዲያገኙ ይደረጋል። ከዚህ ጥናት አጥኚዎች ውጪ መረጃዎች በሌላ አካል እጅ አይገቡም።

ለጥናቱ እንደሚተባበሩን ትፋ እያደረግን መጠይቁን በትክክል ለመሙላት የሚረዳዎትን መመሪያዎች ከእያንዳንዱ የጥያቄዎች ስብስብ ፊት ያገኛሉ። አንድ በዋናነት ሊገነዘቡት የሚገባ ነገር ቢኖር ትክክለኛ ወይም ስህተት የሚባል መልስ የለም። ሁላችንም የተለያዩ ነንስለግንኙነቶችም ያለን አረዳድ የተለያዩ ነው። ስለዚህ ለአንዱ ሰው የተለመደና ተራ የሚመስል ነገር ለሌላው የሚሰጠው ትርጉም የተለየሊሆን ይችላል።

መጠይቁን ሞልተው ሲጨርሱ ሁሉንም ጥያቄዎች መመለስዎን ያረጋግጡ። ጥያቄውን ረስተው ሳይሆን በማንኛውም የግል ምክኒያት መመለስ ያልፈለጉትን ጥያቄ ብቻ ክፍቱን ይተውተ።

ስለትብብር በጣም እናመሰግናለን

**ክፍል 1:- የዳራ መረጃ**

1. የሚሰሩበት ቦታ \_\_\_\_\_

2.-አባቶችን የታዎትን በተገቢው ሳጥን ወስጥ ይህን “✓” ምልክት በማድረግ ያመለክቱ

ወንድ  ሴት

3.-እድሜ \_\_\_\_\_

4.የየትኛው ብሄር ተወላጅ ናት \_\_\_\_\_

5.- ሐይማኖትዎ ምንድ ነው? \_\_\_\_\_

6.- የትምህርት ደረጃዎ (ከፍተኛ የትምህርት ደረጃዎ ላይ ብቻ የ"X" ምልክት ያድርጉ)

- የኮሌጅ ት/ት
- የዩኒቨርሲቲ ት/ት (ማስተርስ ወይም ፒ ኤች ዲ ደረጃ)
- የዩኒቨርሲቲ ት/ት (ዲግሪ)

7.- ሙያዎ ምንድ ነው \_\_\_\_\_

8. የጋብቻ ሁኔታ:-  ያላገባ  ደባል የሚኖር  ያገባ

መ)የተለያየ/የተፋታ  ሠ) በሞት የተለየ

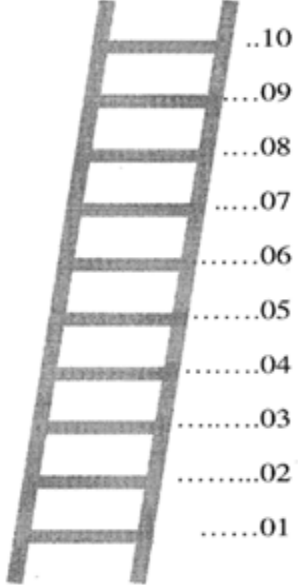
9.- ልጆች አሉት? አይ  አዎ  መልሶ አዎ ከሆነ ስንት? \_\_\_\_\_

10.- ካገቡ / ደባል የሚኖሩ ከሆኑ አባቶችን ምን ያክል ጊዜ እንደሆኑት ያመለክቱ \_\_\_\_\_ አመት/ \_\_\_\_\_ ወር.

11.- በአሁን ሰዓት ከ አጋርዎ ጋር የሚኖሩ ከሆነ ከመቼ ጀምሮ እንደሆነ ይግለጹ? \_\_\_\_\_ አመት ወይም \_\_\_\_\_ ወር

12.- የአሁን አጋሮችን ጨምሮ አባቶችን ስንት አጋሮች እንደነበሩት ይግለጹ \_\_\_\_\_

13.- ማህበራዊና ኢኮኖሚያዊ ደረጃ መመዘኛ (ይህን ምልክት ያድርጉ-X)

|   |   |
|---|---|
|  | <p><b>መመርያ</b> :- ከታች ወደላይ በአጠቃላይ አስር ደረጃዎች ያሉት መሰላል አለ ይህ መሠላል በማህበረሰባችን ውስጥ የሰዎችን ደረጃ የሚወክሉ እንደሆኑ አስቡ፡ የመሰላሉ ጫፍ ላይ ያሉት ሰዎች በጣም ጥሩ ወይም ብዙ ገንዘብ ያላቸው፣ ከፍተኛ የት/ት ደረጃ ያላቸው እና ጥሩ ስራ ያላቸው ናቸው፡ ከታችኛው ላይ ያሉ ሰዎች በጣም መጥፎ ወይም ዝቅተኛ ገንዘብ ፡ ዝቅተኛ የት/ት ደረጃ እና መጥፎ ስራ ወይም ስራ የሌላቸው ናቸው፡፡ በዚህ መሠላል ከፍ ባሉ ቁጥር ጫፍ ላይ ካሉ ሰዎች ጋር ይቀራረባሉ ፡፡ ዝቅባሉ ቁጥር ከታች ካሉ ሰዎች ጋር ይቀራረባሉ ፡፡</p> <p>ስለ ራስዎ ነበራዊ ሁኔታ ሲያስቡና ከሌሎች የኢትዮጵያ ህዝብ ጋር ሲያነፃፅሩት እራስዎን በየትኛው የመሠላል ደረጃ ላይ ያስቀምጡታል</p> <p>እባኩን ደረጃዎን በኢትዮጵያ ይወክላል ብለው በሚያስቡት የመሠላሉ ቁጥር ላይ ክብ ምልክት ያድርጉ፡፡</p> |
|---|---|

5. 14.- ከሚከተሉት አማራጮች ውስጥ የቤተሰብን ገቢ የሚዛመደው የቱ ነው? (ሁሉንም የገቢ ምንጮች አማካይ የወር ገቢዎን /የተጠራ ገቢዎን ያስገቡ ፡፡ ) ገቢዎ በሚገኝበት አማራጭ ላይ በማክበብ ይመልሱ

- ሀ/ 2001 - 2500 ብር
- ለ/ 2501 - 3000 ብር
- ሐ/ 3001 -4000 ብር
- መ/ 4001 - 5000 ብር
- ሠ/ 5001 - 6000 ብር
- ረ/ 6001 - 7000 ብር
- ሰ/ 7001 - 8500 ብር
- ሸ/ 8501 - 10000 ብር
- ቀ/ ከ10000 ብር

**ይህንን ክፍል ከጨረሱ ወደሚቀጥለው ገፅ ይሂዱ፡፡**

**ክፍል 2:- በቅርብ ግንኙነቶች ውስጥ ያሉ ልምዶች**

የሚከተሉት አረፍተ ነገሮች በቅርብ ግንኙነቶ ውስጥ ያሉትን ስሜት ይመለከታሉ ። የምንፈልገው በአጠቃላይ የግንኙነት ልምዶችን ነው። በአሁን ግንኙነትዎ እየሆነ ያለውን አይመለከትም። እያንዳንዱን አረፍተ ነገሮች ምን ያክል እንደሚሰማው እና እንደሚያስማሙባቸው የሚከተለውን የስምምነት መመዘኛ በመጠቀም እና ቁጥሩን በማክበብ ይመልሱ።

| 1         | 2     | 3          | 4               | 5           | 6      | 7          |
|-----------|-------|------------|-----------------|-------------|--------|------------|
| በጣም አልሰማም | አልሰማም | በጥቂቱ አልሰማም | እስማማለሁምም አልሰማምም | በጥቂቱ እስማማለሁ | እስማማለሁ | በጣም እስማማለሁ |

|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. የሚሰማኝን ጥልቅ ስሜት ለአገሪ አለማሳየት እመርጣለሁ                                      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2. ስለመተው እጨነቃለሁ   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3. ከግንኙነት አጋሪ ጋር መቀራረቤ በጣም ተመችቶኛል   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4. ስለ ግንኙነቴ በጣም እጨነቃለሁ  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5. አጋሪ /ጓደኛዬ ወደ እኔ በቀረበኝ ጊዜ ራሴን አርቃለሁ                                     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6. አጋሪ/ጓደኛዬ እኔ እንደማስብለት / ላት አያስብልኝም / አታስብልኝም ብዬ እጨነቃለሁ                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7. አጋሪ / ጓደኛዬ በጣም መቅረብ በሚፈልግበት / በምትፈልግበት ጊዜ ምችት አይሰማኝም                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 8. የግንኙነት አጋሪን ስለ ማጣት በጥቂቱ እጨነቃለሁ   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 9. ለአጋሪ የሚሰማኝን ነገር በግልፅ ለመናገር ምችት አይሰማኝም                                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 10.ብዙ ጊዜ እኔ ለእሱ/እሷ እንዳለኝ ጠንካራ ስሜት አጋሪም ለእኔ ጠንካራ ስሜት እንዲኖረው/እንዲኖራት እመኛለሁ   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 11.አጋሪን መቅረብ እፈልጋለሁ ግን እራሴን አሸኛለሁ   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 12.ብዙ ጊዜ ከግንኙነት አጋሪ ጋር ሙሉ-ለሙሉ መቀላቀል እፈልጋለሁ እና ይህ አንዳንድ ጊዜ ያስፈራዋል / ያስፈራታል | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 13.አጋሪ (ጓደኛዬ ) በጣም ሲጠጋኝ እጨነቃለሁ  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 14.ብቻዬን መሆን ይጨነቀኛል  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 15.የግል ስሜቶቼን ለጓደኛዬ (አጋሪ ) ማካፈል ምችት ይሰማኛል                                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 16.በጣም ለመቅረብ ያለኝ ፍላጎት አንዳንድ ጊዜ ሰዎችን ያስፈራቸዋል                               | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 17.አጋሪን (ጓደኛዬን ) በጣም ላለመቅረብ እጥራለሁ / እሞክራለሁ                                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 18.በጓደኛዬ ( አጋሪ ) መፈቀሬን ለማረጋገጥ በጣም ብዙ ማረጋገጫ እፈልጋለሁ                         | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 19 ጓደኛዬን / አጋሪን መቅረብ በአንፃሩ ቀላል ሆኖ አግንቼዋለሁ                                 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 20. አንዳንድ ጊዜ ዓደኛዬን / አጋሬን ብዙ ስሜት እና ሀላፊነት እንዲያሳዩኝ እንደማስገድደው ይሰማኛል | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 21. በዓደኛዬ (አጋሬ ) ላይ ጥገኛ መሆንን መፍቀድ ከባድ ሆኖ ግንቹዋለው                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 22.ብዙ ጊዜ ስለመተው አልጩኝም  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 23. ከግንኙነት አጋሬ ጋር በጣም ቅርብ ባልሆን እመርጣለው                             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 24. ዓደኛዬ (አጋሬ ) ለኔ ያለውን ፍላጎት እንዲያሳዩኝ ማድረግ ካልቻልኩ እበሳጫለው ወይም እንደዳለው | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 25. ስለ ሁሉም ነገር ለዓደኛዬ (አጋሬ ) እናገራለው                                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 26. እኔ እንደምፈልገው ያህል ዓደኛዬ (አጋሬ ) እንድንቀራረብ አይፈልግም/ አትፈልግም           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 27. ብዙውን ጊዜ ችግሮቼን እና ስጋቶቼን ( ጭንቀቶቼን) ከዓደኛዬ ( አጋሬ ) ጋር አወያያለው      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 28. በግንኙነት ዉስጥ ባልሆንኩ ጊዜ ጭንቀት እና አለመተማመን (ስጋት) ይሰማኛል               | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 29. በግንኙነት አጋሬ ላይ ምቹት ይሰማኛል                                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 30. የፈለኩትን ያህል ዓደኛዬ (አጋሬ ) በማይኖርበት ጊዜ እበሳጫለው                      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 31.ዓደኛዬን (አጋሬን) ምቹት ምክር እና እርዳታ መጠየቅ አይከብደኝም                      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 32. ዓደኛዬ (አጋሬ ) በምፈልገው (በምፈልጋት ) ጊዜ የማይገኝ/የማትገኝ ከሆነ እበሳጫለው        | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 33. በችግር ጊዜ ወደ ግንኙነት አጋሬ መመለስ ይረዳል                                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 34. የግንኙነት አጋሬ ባልተቀበለኝ ጊዜ ስለራሴ በጣም መጥፎ ስሜት ይሰማኛል                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 35. ምቹት እና ማረጋገጫን ጨምሮ ለብዙ ነገር ወደ ዓደኛዬ (አጋሬ) እመለሳለው                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 36. ዓደኛዬ (አጋሬ ) ከኔ እርቆ/ቃ ሲያሳልፍ/ስታሳልፍ ቅር ይለኛል(እናደዳለው)              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

**ክፍል 3: በንደኝነት ውስጥ ስለሚከሰቱ ግጭቶች መጠይቅ**

ቀጥሎ የተዘረዘሩት ዓ.ነገሮች በጥብቅ ወዳጅነት ውስጥ ሊከሰቱ የሚችሉ እንዳንድ ሁኔታዎችን የሚያሳዩ ናቸው። ይህ መጠይቅ ሶስት ክፍሎች አሉት በውስጡም ያንተን/ያንችን ድርጊት፣ ያጋርህን /ያጋርህን ድርጊት እና አጋርህ/አጋሪሽ እንዲያደርገው የምትፈልገው/የምትፈልገው ነገር ያሳያል።

1.- በዚህ የመጀመሪያው ክፍል ከአጋሮ ጋር በተለያዩ ጉዳዮች ላይ ከተጋጩ በኋላ ቀጥለው የተዘረዘሩትን ድርጊቶች ምንምህል እንደሚያደርጉ ያመላክታሉ።

| 1    | 2           | 3      | 4       | 5      | 6          | 7    |
|------|-------------|--------|---------|--------|------------|------|
| በፍፁም | ከስንት ጊዜ አንዴ | አልፎአልፎ | በመደበኝነት | በተደጋጋሚ | በጣም በተደጋጋሚ | ሁልጊዜ |

|                                   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|-----------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. ውይይት እጀምራለሁ                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2. አጋሬን እወቅሳለሁ                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3. ክፍሉን ጥጭ እወጣለሁ                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4. ስህተቴን እቀበላለሁ                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5. ውጥረቶቼን እደብቃለሁ                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6. አጋሬን እሳደባለሁ                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7. በጥሞና አዳምጣለሁ                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 8. መወያየት በጊዜ አቆማለሁ                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 9. በቀልን አቅዳለሁ                     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 10. ትዳሬን/ንደኝነቴን ለመተው አስባለሁ        | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 11. ከግጭት በኋላ ከአዳሬ ጋር ቅርብነት ይሰማኛል  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 12. እማታለሁ፣ እገፈትራለሁ፣ ወይም በጥፊ እማታለሁ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 13. ለመራቅ እሞክራለሁ                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 14. የተለያዩ ሀሳቦች አመጣለሁ              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 15. አስፈራራለሁ                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 16. ዝም በማለት ቅሬታዬን አሳያለሁ           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

**ክፍል 4.- የግንኙነት መመዘኛ**

ከታች የተዘረዘሩት አረፍተ ነገሮች የእርሶን የቅርብ ጓደኝነት ያመላክታሉ። ከስር የተቀመጡትን ከ 1 እስከ 7 ያሉትን መመዘኛዎች በመጠቀም ከእያንዳንዱ አረፍተ ነገር ትይዩ የተቀመጠውን ቁጥር በማክበብ ስምምነትዎን ያመላክቱ።

| 1          | 2      | 3           | 4           | 5           | 6      | 7          |
|------------|--------|-------------|-------------|-------------|--------|------------|
| በጣም አልስማማም | አልስማማም | በጥቂቱ አልስማማም | እስማማለሁ መመዘኛ | በጥቂቱ እስማማለሁ | እስማማለሁ | በጣም እስማማለሁ |

|  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. አጋራ ፍላጎቶቼን ያሟላልኛል/ታሟላልኛለኝ             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2. በአጠቃላይ ባለሁበት ግንኙነት ደስተኛ ነኝ            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3. ከብዙዎቹ ጋር ሲነፃፀር ያለሁበት ግንኙነት ጥሩ የሚባል ነው | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4. ወደዚህ ግንኙነት ባልገባሁ ብይ እመኛለሁ             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5. ግንኙነቱ በፊት እጠብቅው ከነበረው ጋር የሚጣጣም ነው     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6. አጋራን አፈቅረዋለሁ/አፈቅራታለሁ                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7. በግንኙነቱ ውስጥ ችግሮች አሉ                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

ክፍል 5:- የተለያዩ ውስብስብ ጥቃቶች የሚያሳይ የመለኪያ ጥናት

መመሪያ: የዚህ መጠይቅ ዓላማ የእናንተን ክሌላ ሰዎች ጋር ያላችሁን የፍቅር ግንኙነት ለማወቅ

ነው። ክሌሎች ሰዎች ጋር ሲባል ስነሁንም ሆነ ከቀድሞ ባላችሁ ሚስታችሁ ወይም

የወንድ ጓደኛችሁ የሴት ጓደኛችሁ ከአንድ ወር በላይ የነበራችሁ ግንኙነት ለማለት ነው።

5. አስራ ስድስት አመት ከምላሽ/ከምላክ በኋላ ክሌላ ሰው ጋር የፍቅር ግንኙነት

መስርተሻል/መስርተሃል።

ሀ/ አዎ

ለ/ አይ/ ካልተመሠረተ የተቀኙትን ጥያቄዎች መጠይቅ አስፈላጊ አይደለም

6. በአሁኑ ሰዓት ግንኙነት አለህ/አለሽ ?

ሀ/ አለኝ ለ/ የለኝም - ወደ ጥያቄ 4/ አልፍ/ፊ

7. ጓደኛሽን /ህን ትፈራዋለሽ /ትፈራለክ ?

ሀ/ እፈራዋለሁ / እፈራታለሁ ለ/ አልፈራውም/አልፈራትም

8. ማንኛውንም ግንኙነት ትፈራዋለሽ /ትፈራለክ?

ሀ/ እፈራለሁ ለ/ አልፈራም

ከአሁንም ሆነ ከቀድሞው ግንኙነታችሁ ያሳዩችሁን ተሞክሮ የሚያሳይ ጥያቄዎች እንደሚከተለው ቀርቧል ከተዘረዘሩት መካከል ላለፉት 12 ወራት በህይወትሽ / በህይወትክ ተከስቶ ከሆነ ለምን ያህል ጊዜ፡

| አጋራ/My Partner |  | ተስቶ ያውቃል? |    | አዎ ከሆነ ላለፉት 12 ወራት በምን ያህል |           |              |            |            |
|----------------|--|-----------|----|----------------------------|-----------|--------------|------------|------------|
|                |  | አያውቅም     | አዎ | ላለፉት12 ወራት አልተከሰተም         | እንዴ ተከሰቷል | ጥቂት ጊዜ ተከሰቷል | በየወሩ ተከሰቷል | በየቀን ተከሰቷል |
| 1              | ያስፈራራኛል፣ ይገፋኛል ይጎነጎናል እንዲሁም ያመናጭቀኛል  |           |    |                            |           |              |            |            |
| 2              | ለቤተሰቦቼ፣ ለልጆቼ እንዲሁም ለጓደኞቼ ስለዚህ አጉል ድርጊቶች ለመንገርና ለማሳመን ሞክራለሁ                                   |           |    |                            |           |              |            |            |
| 3              | የተለያዩ ቁሶችን እንደመማሪያ ጨቤና ተጠቅሞ ጎድቶኛል/ኛለች  |           |    |                            |           |              |            |            |
| 4              | ከዚህ በፊት አድራጊው የማላውቀውን የግብ ስጋ ግንኙነት እንዳደርግ አስገድዶኛል/ኛለች  |           |    |                            |           |              |            |            |
| 5              | ከቤትምክስራምከወጣ ይከታተላኛል/ትከታተላኛለች   |           |    |                            |           |              |            |            |
| 6              | አጠገቤ ሰው ከደረሰ እንደሚገለጅ ያስፈራኛል/ታስፈራራኛለች   |           |    |                            |           |              |            |            |
| 7              | ያንቀኛል/ ታንቀኛለች  |           |    |                            |           |              |            |            |
| 8              | ያለፍላጎት የግብረ ስጋ ግንኙነት እንዳደርግ ይገፋፋኛል   |           |    |                            |           |              |            |            |
| 9              | በስልክና በጽሁፍና በማህበራዊ የመረጃ መረቦች ይጨቀጭቀኛል   |           |    |                            |           |              |            |            |
| 10             | የሩ እንዳልሆንኩና እንደማረባ ይነግረኛል  |           |    |                            |           |              |            |            |
| 11             | በክስም ሆነ ባገኘው ነገር ይመታኛል   |           |    |                            |           |              |            |            |
| 12             | ቤተሰቦቼና ጓደኞቼን እንዳገኝ አይፈልግም  |           |    |                            |           |              |            |            |
| 13             | ከቤትአንዳልወጣ ቆልፎብኝ / ዘግቶብኝ ይወጣል   |           |    |                            |           |              |            |            |
| 14             | ስራ እንድሰራና ገንዘብ እንዳመጣ አይፈልግም  |           |    |                            |           |              |            |            |
| 15             | ለዛ ክፋ ባህሪና ድርጊቱ ተጠያቂ እኔን ያደርጋል   |           |    |                            |           |              |            |            |
| 16             | ሳለፈው የፍቅር ግንኙነትና የግብር ስጋ ልምዴ አስተያየት በመስጠት ያሸማቅቀኛል እንዲሁም በቂ እንዳልሆንኩና የተዋረድኩ ስሜት እንዲሰማኝ ያደርጋል። |           |    |                            |           |              |            |            |

ስለጊዜያችሁ እና ስለተሳትፎአችሁ አመሠግናለሁ።

APPENDIX- X

Agreed by panels (Committee) for Back Translation

ክፍል 1:- የዳራ መረጃ

1. የሚሰሩበት ቦታ \_\_\_\_\_

2.-አባላትን ምክርቤትን በተገቢው ሳጥን ወይም ይህን “✓” ምልክት በማድረግ ያመለክቱ

ወንድ  ሴት

3.-እድሜ \_\_\_\_\_

4.የየትኛው ብሄር ተወላጅ ናት \_\_\_\_\_

5.- ሐይማኖትዎ ምንድን ነው? \_\_\_\_\_

6.- የትምህርት ደረጃዎ (ከፍተኛ የትምህርት ደረጃዎ ላይ ብቻ የ"X" ምልክት ያድርጉ)

- የኮሌጅ ት/ት
- የዩኒቨርሲቲ ት/ት (ማስተርስ ወይም ፒ ኤች ዲ ደረጃ)
- የዩኒቨርሲቲ ት/ት (ዲግሪ)

7.- ሙያዎ ምንድን ነው \_\_\_\_\_

8. የጋብቻ ሁኔታ:-  ያላገባ  ደባል የሚኖር  ያገባ

መ)የተለያየ/የተፋታ  ሠ) በሞት የተለየ

9.- ልጆች አሉት? አይ  አዎ  መልሶ አዎ ከሆነ ስንት? \_\_\_\_\_

10.- ካገቡ / ደባል የሚኖሩ ከሆኑ አባላትን ምን ያክል ጊዜ እንደሆኑ ያመለክቱ \_\_\_\_\_አመት/

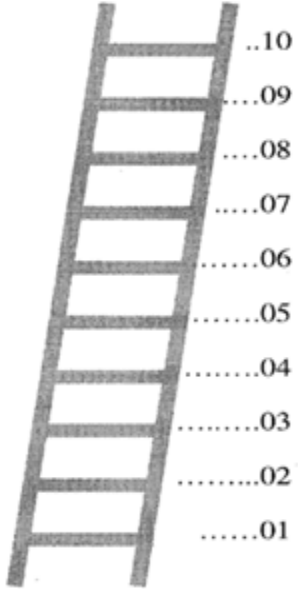
\_\_\_\_\_ወር.

11.- በአሁን ሰዓት ከ አጋርዎ ጋር የሚኖሩ ከሆነ ከመቼ ጀምሮ እንደሆነ ይግለጹ? \_\_\_\_\_አመት

6. ወይም \_\_\_\_\_ወር

12.- የአሁን የፍቅር/ትዳር አጋሮችን ጨምሮ እባኩን ስንት አጋሮች እንደነበሩት ይግለጹ \_\_\_\_\_

13.- ማህበራዊና ኢኮኖሚያዊ ደረጃ መመዘኛ (ይህን ምልክት ያድርጉX)

|   |   |
|---|---|
|  | <p><b>መመርያ :-</b> ከታች ወደላይ በአጠቃላይ አስር ደረጃዎች ያሉት መሰላል አለ ይህ መሠላል በማህበረሰባችን ዉስጥ የሰዎችን ደረጃ የሚወክሉ እንደሆኑ አስቡ፡ የመሰላሉ ጫፍ ላይ ያሉት ሰዎች በጣም ጥሩ ወይም ብዙ ገንዘብ ያላቸው፣ ከፍተኛ የት/ት ደረጃ ያላቸው እና ጥሩ ስራ ያላቸው ናቸው፡ ከታችኛው ላይ ያሉ ሰዎች በጣም መጥፎ ወይም ዝቅተኛ ገንዘብ ፣ ዝቅተኛ የት/ት ደረጃ እና መጥፎ ስራ ወይም ስራ የሌላቸው ናቸው። በዚህ መሠላል ከፍ ባሉ ቁጥር ጫፍ ላይ ካሉ ሰዎች ጋር ይቀራረባሉ ። ዝቅባሉ ቁጥር ከታች ካሉ ሰዎች ጋር ይቀራረባሉ ።</p> <p>ስለ ራስዎ ነበራዊ ሁኔታ ሲያስቡና ከሌሎች የኢትዮጵያ ህዝብ ጋር ሲያነፃፅሩት እራስዎን በየትኛው የመሠላል ደረጃ ላይ ያስቀምጡታል</p> <p>እባኩትን ደረጃዎን በኢትዮጵያ ይወክላል ብለው በሚያስቡት የመሠላል ቁጥር ላይ ክብ ምልክት ያድርጉ፡፡</p> |
|---|---|

14.- ከሚከተሉት አማራጮች ዉስጥ የቤተሰብን ገቢ የሚዛመደው የቱ ነው? (ሁሉንም የገቢ ምንጮች አማካይ የወር ገቢዎን /የተጠራ ገቢዎን ያስገቡ ። ) ገቢዎ በሚገኝበት አማራጭ ላይ በማክበብ ይመልሱ

- ሀ/ 2001 - 2500 ብር
- ለ/ 2501 - 3000 ብር
- ሐ/ 3001 -4000 ብር
- መ/ 4001 - 5000 ብር
- ሠ/ 5001 - 6000 ብር
- ረ/ 6001 - 7000 ብር
- ሰ/ 7001 - 8500 ብር
- ሸ/ 8501 - 10000 ብር
- ቀ/ ከ10000 ብር

**ይህንን ክፍል ከጨረሱ ወደሚቀጥለዉ ገፅ ይሂዱ።**

**በቅርብ የፍቅር ግንኙነት ዉስጥ ያሉ ልምዶች**

መመሪያ:- የሚከተሉት አረፍተ ነገሮች በቅርብ ግንኙነቱ ዉስጥ ያሉትን ስሜት ይመለከታሉ ። የምንፈልገው በአጠቃላይ የግንኙነት ልምዶችን ነው። በአሁን ግንኙነትዎ እየሆነ ያለውን አይመለከትም። እያንዳንዱን አረፍተ ነገሮች ምን ያክል እንደሚሰማው እና እንደሚያስማሙባቸው የሚከተለውን የስምምነት መመዘኛ በመጠቀም እና ቁጥሩን በማክበብ ይመልሱ።

1. በጣም አልሰማም      2 . አልሰማምም      3. በጥቂቱ አልሰማምም      4. ለመወሰን እቸገራለሁኝ      5. በጥቂቱ እሰማለሁ      6. እሰማለሁ      7. በጣም እሰማለሁ

|   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. የሚሰማኝን ጥልቅ ስሜት ለአገሬ አለማሳየት እመርጣለሁ  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 2. አጋሬ ይተዉኛል/ትተዉኛለች ብዬ እጨነቃለሁ   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 3. ከግንኙነት አጋሬ ጋር መቀራረቤ በጣም ተመችቶኛል   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 4. ስለ ግንኙነቱ በጣም እጨነቃለሁ  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 5. አጋሬ /ጓደኛዬ ወደ እኔ በቀረበኝ/ችኝ ጊዜ እራሴን አርቃለሁ   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 6. አጋሬ/ጓደኛዬ እኔ እንደማስብለት / ላት አያስብልኝም / አታስብልኝም ብዬ እጨነቃለሁ                            |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 7. አጋሬ / ጓደኛዬ በጣም መቅረብ በሚፈልግበት / በምትፈልግበት ጊዜ ምችት አይሰማኝም                             |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 8. የግንኙነት አጋሬን ስለ ማጣት በመጠኑም ቢሆን እጨነቃለሁ  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 9. ለአጋሬ/ጓደኛዬ ግልፅ መሆን ምችት አይሰማኝም   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 10. ብዙ ጊዜ እኔ ለእሱ/እሷ እንዳለኝ ጠንካራ ስሜት አጋሬም ለእኔ ጠንካራ ስሜት እንዲኖረው/እንዲኖራት እመኛለሁ            |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 11. አጋሬን መቅረብ እፈልጋለሁ ግን እራሴን አሸሻለሁ  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 12. ብዙ ጊዜ ከግንኙነት አጋሬ ጋር ሙሉ-ለሙሉ መቀላቀል እፈልጋለሁ ይሁን እንጂ ይህ ሁኔታ አንዳንድ ጊዜ ያስፈራዋል / ያስፈራታል |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 13. አጋሬ (ጓደኛዬ ) በጣም ሲጠጋኝ እጨነቃለሁ   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 14. ብቸኛ ስለመሆን እጨነቃለሁኝ   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 15. የግል ስሜቶቼን ለጓደኛዬ (አጋሬ ) ማካፈል ምችት ይሰማኛል   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 16. በጣም ለመቅረብ ያለኝ ፍላጎት አንዳንድ ጊዜ ሰዎችን ያስፈራቸዋል  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |

|   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|---|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 17. አጋሬን (ጓደኛዬን ) በጣም ላለመቅረብ እጥራለው / እሞክራለው                       |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 18. በጓደኛዬ ( አጋሬ ) መፈቀሬን ለማረጋገጥ በጣም ብዙ ማረጋገጫ እፈልጋለሁ                |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 19. ጓደኛዬን / አጋሬን መቅረብ በአንፃሩ ቀላል ሆኖ አግንቼዋለሁ                        |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 20. አንዳንድ ጊዜ ጓደኛዬን / አጋሬን ብዙ ስሜት እና ሀላፊነት እንዲያሳዩኝ እንደማስገድደው ይሰማኛል |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 21. በጓደኛዬ (አጋሬ ) ላይ ጥገኛ መሆንን መፍቀድ ከባድ ሆኖ ግንቼዋለሁ                   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 22. ብዙ ጊዜ ጓደኛዬ (አጋሬ ) ይተዉኛል/ለኝ ብዬ አልጨነቅም                          |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 23. ከግንኙነት አጋሬ ጋር በጣም ቅርብ ባልሆን እመርጣለሁ                             |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 24. ጓደኛዬ (አጋሬ ) ለኔ ያለውን ፍላጎት እንዲያሳዩኝ ማድረግ ካልቻልኩ እበሳጫለሁ ወይም እናደዳለሁ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 25. ስለ ሁሉም ነገር ለጓደኛዬ (አጋሬ ) እናገራለሁ                                |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 26. እኔ እንደምፈልገው ያህል ጓደኛዬ (አጋሬ ) እንድንቀራረብ አይፈልግም/አትፈልግም            |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 27. ብዙውን ጊዜ ችግሮቼን እና ስጋቶቼን ( ጭንቀቶቼን) ከጓደኛዬ ( አጋሬ ) ጋር እወያያለሁ      |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 28. በግንኙነት ዉስጥ ባልሆንኩ ጊዜ ጭንቀት እና አለመተማመን (ስጋት) ይሰማኛል               |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 29. በግንኙነት አጋሬ ላይ ምቹት ይሰማኛል                                       |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 30. እኔ የምፈልገውን ያህል ጓደኛዬ (አጋሬ ) ከአጠገቤ በማይኖርበት ጊዜ እበሳጫለሁ            |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 31. ጓደኛዬን (አጋሬን) ምቹት ምክር እና እርዳታ መጠየቅ አይከብደኝም                     |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 32. ጓደኛዬ (አጋሬ ) በምፈልገው (በምፈልጋት ) ጊዜ የማይገኝ/የማትገኝ ከሆነ እበሳጫለሁ        |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 33. በችግር ጊዜ ወደ ግንኙነት አጋሬ መመለስ ይረዳል                                |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 34. የግንኙነት አጋሬ ባልተቀበለኝ ጊዜ ስለራሴ በጣም መጥፎ ስሜት ይሰማኛል                  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 35. ምቹት እና ማረጋገጫን ጨምሮ ለብዙ ነገር ወደ ጓደኛዬ (አጋሬ ) እመለሳለሁ               |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 36. ጓደኛዬ (አጋሬ ) ከኔ እርቆ/ቃ ሲያሳልፍ/ስታሳልፍ ቅር ይለኛል (እናደዳለው)             |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

**በፍቅር/ትዳር ግንኙነት ውስጥ ስለሚከሰቱ ግጭቶች መለኪያ መጠይቅ**

መመሪያ: ቀጥሎ የተዘረዘሩት ዓ.ነገሮች በጥብቅ ወዳጅነት ውስጥ ሊከሰቱ የሚችሉ እንዳንድ ሁኔታዎችን የሚያሳዩ ናቸው። ይህ መጠይቅ ሶስት ክፍሎች አሉት በውስጡም ያንተን/ያንችን ድርጊት፣ ያጋርህን /ያጋርህን ድርት እና አጋርህ/አጋሪሽ እንዲያደርገው የምትፈልገው/የምትፈልገው ነገር ያሳያል።

1.- በዚህ የመጀመሪያው ክፍል ከአጋሮ ጋር በተለያዩ ጉዳዮች ላይ ከተጋጩ በኋላ **እርስዎ** ቀጥለው የተዘረዘሩትን ድርጊቶች ምን ያህል እንደሚያደርጉ ያመለክታሉ።

| 1. በጣም አልሰማም | 2. አልሰማም | 3. በጥቂቱ አልሰማም | 4. ለመወሰን እቸገራለሁኝ | 5. በጥቂቱ እሰማለሁ | 6. እሰማለሁ | 7. በጣም እሰማለሁ |
|--------------|----------|---------------|------------------|---------------|----------|--------------|
|--------------|----------|---------------|------------------|---------------|----------|--------------|

|                                   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|-----------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. ውይይት እጀምራለሁ                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2. አጋሬን እወቅሳለሁ                    |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 3. ክፍሉን ጥዬ/ለቅቄ እወጣለሁ              |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 4. ስህተቴን እቀበላለሁ                   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 5. ውጥረቶቼን/ጭንቀቶቼን እደብቃለሁ           |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 6. አጋሬን እሳደባለሁ                    |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 7. በጥሞና አዳምጣለሁ                    |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 8. መወያየትን በጊዜ አቆማለሁ               |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 9. በቀልን አቅዳለሁ                     |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 10. ትዳሪን/ንደኝነቴን ለመተው አሰባለሁ        |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 11. ከተጋጩ በኋላ ከአዳሬ ጋር ቅርበት ይሰማኛል   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 12. እማታለሁ፣ እገፈትራለሁ፣ ወይም በጥፊ እማታለሁ |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 13. ርቀቴን እጠብቃለሁኝ                  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 14. የተለያዩ ሀሳቦች አመጣለሁ              |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 15. አስፈራራለሁ                       |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 16. ዝም በማለት ቅሬታዬን አሳያለሁ           |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |

**የፍቅር ግንኙነት ሁኔታ መመዘኛ(RELATIONSHIP ASSESSMENT SCALE)**

መመሪያ፡ ከታች የተዘረዘሩት አረፍተ ነገሮች የእርሶን የቅርብ ጓደኝነት ያመለክታሉ። ከስር የተቀመጡትን ከ 1 እስከ 7 ያሉትን መመዘኛዎች በመጠቀም ከእያንዳንዱ አረፍተ ነገር ትይዩ የተቀመጠውን ቁጥር በማክበብ ስምዎን ያመለክቱ።

1. በጣም አልሰማገም      2 . አልሰማገም      3. በጥቂቱ አልሰማገም      4. ለመወሰን እቸገራለሁኝ      5. በጥቂቱ እሰማገለሁ      6. እሰማገለሁ      7. በጣም እሰማገለሁ

|  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. አጋሬ ፍላጎቶቼን ያሟላልኛል/ታሟላልኛለች                     |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 2.በአጠቃላይ ባለሁበት የትዳር/ፍቅር ግንኙነት ደስተኛ ነኝ            |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 3.ከብዙዎቹ ጋር ሲነፃፀር ያለሁበት የትዳር/ፍቅር ግንኙነት ጥሩ የሚባል ነው |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 4. ወደዚህ የትዳር/ፍቅር ግንኙነት ባልገባሁ ብዬ እመኛለሁ            |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 5. ግንኙነቴ በፊት እጠብቅው ከነበረው ጋር የሚጣጣም ነው             |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 6. አጋሬን አፈቅረዋለሁ/አፈቅራታለሁ                          |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 7. በግንኙነቴ ውስጥ ችግሮች አሉ                            |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |

**የተለያዩ ዉስብስብ ጥያቄችን መለክዎ መጠይቅ**

የዚህ መጠይቅ ዓላማ የእናንተን ከሌላ ሰዎች ጋር ያላችሁን የፍቅር ግንኙነት ለማወቅ

ነው። ከሌሎች ሰዎች ጋር ሲባል ሰካሁንም ሆነ ከቀድሞ ባላችሁ ሚስታችሁ ወይም

የወንድ ጓደኛችሁ የሴት ጓደኛችሁ ከአንድ ወር በላይ የነበራችሁ ግንኙነት ለማለት ነው።

9. አስራ ስድስት አመት ከምላሽ/ከምላሽ በኋላ ከሌላ ሰው ጋር የፍቅር ግንኙነት

መስርተሻል/መስርተሃል።

ሀ/ አዎ

ለ/ አይ/ ካልተመሠረተ የተቀኙትን ጥያቄዎች መጠይቅ አስፈላጊ አይደለም

10. በአሁኑ ሰዓት ግንኙነት አለህ/አለሽ ?

ሀ/ አለኝ ለ/ የለኝም - ወደ ጥያቄ 4/ አልፍ/ፊ

11. ጓደኛሽን /ሀን ትፈራዋለሽ /ትፈራለክ ?

ሀ/ እፈራዋለሁ / እፈራታለሁ ለ/ አልፈራውም/አልፈራትም

12. ማንኛውንም ግንኙነት ትፈራዋለሽ /ትፈራለክ?

ሀ/ እፈራለሁ ለ/ አልፈራም

ከአሁንም ሆነ ከቀድሞው ግንኙነታችሁ ያሳዩችሁን ተሞክሮ የሚያሳይ ጥያቄዎች እንደሚከተለው ቀርቧል ከተዘረዘሩት መካከል ላለፉት 12 ወራት በህይወትሽ / በህይወትክ ተከስቶ ከሆነ ለምን ያህል ጊዜ፡

| ተ. ቁ |   | አ ያ ወ ቅ ም | አዎ | መልስዎ አዎ ከሆነ ባለፈው 12 ወራት በምን ያክል ጊዜ ገጠመዎት |         |              |            |            |
|------|---|-----------|----|--|---------|--------------|------------|------------|
|      |   |           |    | ላለፉት 12 ወራት አልተከሰተም                      | እንዲተከሰተ | ጥቂት ጊዜ ተከሰቷል | በየወሩ ተከሰቷል | በየቀን ተከሰቷል |
| 1    | ትኩር ብሎ ይመለከተኛል፤ ይገፋኛል፤ ያመነጭቀኛል ወይም ይወረወረኛል                                    |           |    |  |         |              |            |            |
| 2    | እብድ/የማልረባ አድርጎ በማቅረብ በእኔ ተቃራኒ እንዲቆሙ ቤተሰቤን፣ ልጆቼን እንዲሁም ጉዳዮቼን ሊያሳምናቸው እሞክራል/ራላች |           |    |  |         |              |            |            |
| 3    | የተለያዩ ቁሶችን እንደመሳሪያ ጩቤና ተጠቅሞ/ማ ልጎዳኝ/ትጎዳኝ ወይም ልያስፈራራኝ/ልታስፈራራኝ ሞክሯል              |           |    |  |         |              |            |            |
| 4    | ከዚህ በፊት አድሪጌው የማላውቀውን የግብ ስጋ ግንኙነት እንዳደርግ አስገድዶኛል/ኛለች                         |           |    |  |         |              |            |            |
| 5    | ከቤትም ሆነ ከስራ ስወጣ ይከታተለኛል/ትከታተለኛለች  |           |    |  |         |              |            |            |
| 6    | ሰው በጣም ከቀረበኝ እንደሚጎዳኝ/ እንደሚገለኝ/ትገለኝ ያስፈራራኛል/ ታስፈራራኛለች                          |           |    |  |         |              |            |            |
| 7    | ያንቀኛል/ ታንቀኛለች   |           |    |  |         |              |            |            |
| 8    | ያለፍላጎት የግብረ ስጋ ግንኙነት እንዳደርግ ያስገድዶኛል/ታስገድዶኛለች(ልያስገድዶኝ/ልተስገድዶኝ እሞክራል/ትሞክራለች)    |           |    |  |         |              |            |            |
| 9    | 9. በስልክና በጽሁፍና በማህበራዊ የመረጃ መረቦች ይጨቀጭቀኛል/ይነዘንዘኛል/ትነዘንዘኛለች                      |           |    |  |         |              |            |            |
| 10   | 10. እ ጥሩ እንዳልሆንኩ፤ እብድና እንደማልረባ ይነግረኛል/ትነግረኛለች                                 |           |    |  |         |              |            |            |
| 11   | በቡጢ ወይም በተገኙ ቁሳቁሶች ይመታኛል/ትመታኛለች   |           |    |  |         |              |            |            |
| 12   | ከቤተሰቦቼና ጓደኞቼ ጋር እንዳልገናኝ እና እንዳላወራ ይከለክለኛል/ትከለክለኛለች                            |           |    |  |         |              |            |            |
| 13   | ክፍል ዉስጥ አግቶኛል /ቆልፎብኛል   |           |    |  |         |              |            |            |
| 14   | ሥራ፣ ገንዘብ ወይም የገንዘብ ምንጭ እንዳይኖረኝ አድርጎኛል።  |           |    |  |         |              |            |            |
| 15   | ለተፈጠረ ጠባጫሪ ባህሪ እኔን ተጠያቂ ያደርገኛል/ታደርገኛለች  |           |    |  |         |              |            |            |
| 16   | ስላሌ፣ የወሲብ ታሪኬን/ብቃቴ አስተያየት በመስጠት ያሸማቅቀኛል/ታሸማቅቀኛለች፤ እንዳፍር ያደርገኛል/ታደርገኛለች።       |           |    |  |         |              |            |            |



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