CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

A review may be a self-contained unit -- an end in itself -- or a preface to and rationale for engaging in primary research. A review is a required part of grant and research proposals and often a chapter in theses and dissertations.

Generally, the purpose of a review is to analyze critically a segment of a published body of knowledge through summary, classification, and comparison of prior research studies, reviews of literature, and theoretical articles.

A literature review can be a precursor in the introduction of a research paper, or it can be an entire paper in itself, often the first stage of large research projects, allowing the supervisor to ascertain that the student is on the correct path.

A literature review is a critical and in depth evaluation of previous research. It is a summary and synopsis of a particular area of research, allowing anybody reading the paper to establish why you are pursuing this particular research program. A good literature review expands upon the reasons behind selecting a particular research question.

Review of literature is a vital part of any research. It helps the researcher to know the areas where earlier studies had focused on and certain aspects untouched by them. There have been numerous thought-provoking studies on domestic violence against children. A look at the studies shows that violations against children are increasing day by day in the local and global context (http://www.experiment-resources.com).
2.2 Review of Related Literature based on Psychological and Sociological Factors

The details of the related literature reviewed by the researcher about Psychological factors like Personality, Emotional Intelligence, Personal Effectiveness, Aggression level and Sociological factors like Self Esteem, Study Skills and Quality of Life is given below.

Children who are exposed to domestic violence, especially repeated incidents of violence, are at risk for many difficulties, both immediately and in the future. These include problems with sleeping, eating and other basic bodily functions; depression, aggressiveness, anxiety and other problems in regulating emotions; difficulties with family and peer relationships; and problems with attention, concentration and school performance.

Research also shows that parents who are violent with one another are at a higher risk for physically abusing their children. (Straus, 1992) An alarming fact is that domestic violence has been found to be the single most common precursor to child death in the United States. (Mills et al., 2000) Children exposed to domestic violence are also at risk to repeat their experience in the next generation, either as victims or perpetrators of violence in their own intimate relationships. Despite these serious risks, a small percentage of children exposed to family violence are not as severely affected later on in life. It is important to remember that individual children’s responses are dependent on many factors within the child, the family and the environment. (Hughes, Graham-Bermann, & Gruber, 2001).

Kitzmann et al (2003) in their study on Child witnesses to domestic violence: A meta-analytic review examined 118 studies of the psychosocial outcomes of children
exposed to interparental violence. Correlational studies showed a significant association between exposure and child problems ($d = -0.29$). Group comparison studies showed that witnesses had significantly worse outcomes relative to nonwitnesses ($d = -0.40$) and children from verbally aggressive homes ($d = -0.28$), but witnesses' outcomes were not significantly different from those of physically abused children ($d = 0.15$) or physically abused witnesses ($d = 0.13$). Several methodological variables moderated these results. Similar effects were found across a range of outcomes, with slight evidence for greater risk among preschoolers. Recommendations for future research are made, taking into account practical and theoretical issues in this area.

**Anderson, C.A., and Bushman, B.J. (2002)** In their study on the effects of media violence on society. They found that there is a causal connection between exposure to violence in the media and subsequent violent behavior. With results from their own analytic review of close to 300 studies, they show how longitudinal, cross-sectional, field and experimental studies each contribute to an understanding of how exposure to violent media increases violent behavior. Findings showed that among those who watched less than an hour of TV a day, 5.7 percent had committed a violent act that resulted in serious injury. Among those who watched one to three hours per day, 18.4 percent had been violent. Of those who watched more than three hours a day, the rate of aggression was 25.3 percent.

2.2.1 Studies Related to the Psychological Factors

2.2.1.1 Related Studies on Personality

**Jeffrey (2000)** studied on Adolescent Personality Disorders Associated With Violence and Criminal Behavior During Adolescence and Early Adulthood. The
objective of the study is community-based, longitudinal prospective study was conducted to investigate whether personality disorders during adolescence are associated with elevated risk for violent behavior during adolescence and early adulthood. The method is a community-based sample of 717 youths from upstate New York and their mothers were interviewed in 1983, 1985–1986, and 1991–1993. Axis I and II disorders were assessed in 1983 and 1985–1986. Antisocial personality disorder was not assessed because most participants were less than 18 years of age in 1983 and 1985–1986. Violent behavior was assessed in 1985–1986 and 1991–1993. The results shown that Adolescents with a greater number of DSM-IV cluster A or cluster B personality disorder symptoms were more likely than other adolescents in the community to commit violent acts during adolescence and early adulthood, including arson, assault, breaking and entering, initiating physical fights, robbery, and threats to injure others. These associations remained significant after controlling for the youths’ age and sex, for parental psychopathology and socioeconomic status, and for co-occurring psychiatric disorders during adolescence. Paranoid, narcissistic, and passive-aggressive personality disorder symptoms during adolescence were independently associated with risk for violent acts and criminal behavior during adolescence and early adulthood after the covariates were controlled. So it can be concluded as Cluster A and cluster B personality disorders and paranoid, narcissistic, and passive-aggressive personality disorder symptoms during adolescence may increase risk for violent behavior that persists into early adulthood.

**Kruh (2005)** conducted a study on Historical and personality correlates to the violence patterns of juveniles tried as adults. This study examined the utility of several personality indices for explaining variance in the frequency, variety, and situational
correlates of past violence exhibited by imprisoned juveniles after controlling for historical risk factors. One hundred prison inmates ages 16 to 21 who were juveniles at the time of their adjudication completed personality measures assessing over controlled hostility and psychopathic traits, and they reported on the number and types of past violence and the situational correlates (e.g., location of violent episodes, victim characteristics, and precipitating events) to their violent behavior. The measure of over controlled hostility and the historical risk assessment indices were not significantly associated with the frequency or variety of past violent behavior nor were they significantly associated with the situational correlates to violence. In contrast, a measure of psychopathic traits demonstrated significant incremental validity after controlling for historical data in its association with the frequency, variety, and situational patterns of violent behavior.

Nestor (2002) has conducted a study on Mental Disorder and Violence: Personality Dimensions and Clinical Features. The objective is to examine the role of personality dimensions in the greater rates of violence that have now been established to accompany certain classes of mental disorders. Empirical studies are reviewed that have often used objective measures of personality and epidemiological samples with low levels of subject selection biases. The results show that risk of violence may be understood in terms of four fundamental personality dimensions: 1) impulse control, 2) affect regulation, 3) narcissism, and 4) paranoid cognitive personality style. Low impulse control and affect regulation increase the risk for violence across disorders, especially for primary and comorbid substance abuse disorders. By contrast, paranoid cognitive personality style and narcissistic injury increase the risk for violence, respectively, in
persons with schizophrenia spectrum disorders and in samples of both college students and individuals with personality disorders. This review supports the hypothesis that these four fundamental personality dimensions operate jointly, and in varying degrees, as clinical risk factors for violence among groups with these classes of mental disorders.

**Fountoulakis (2008)** in his study on Personality disorders and violence suggest that personality disorders, especially antisocial and borderline, are strongly related to the manifestation of violent acts. Substance abuse is another strong factor which could act either independently or additively. Biological factors seem to constitute a risk factor for violent behavior independently of personality. Although intelligence does not seem to be related to violence, some patients may manifest specific cognitive deficits. The most recent data support the relationship between antisocial personality and violence, especially when substance abuse is also present.

**Ivan (2002)** studied on Historical and personality correlates to the violence patterns of juveniles tried as adults. This study examined the utility of several personality indices for explaining variance in the frequency, variety, and situational correlates of past violence exhibited by imprisoned juveniles after controlling for historical risk factors. One hundred prison inmates ages 16 to 21 who were juveniles at the time of their adjudication completed personality measures assessing over controlled hostility and psychopathic traits, and they reported on the number and types of past violence and the situational correlates (e.g., location of violent episodes, victim characteristics, and precipitating events) to their violent behavior. The measure of over controlled hostility and the historical risk assessment indices were not significantly associated with the frequency or variety of past violent behavior nor were they significantly associated with
the situational correlates to violence. In contrast, a measure of psychopathic traits demonstrated significant incremental validity after controlling for historical data in its association with the frequency, variety, and situational patterns of violent behavior.

Recently, the increasing number of children and adolescents involved in violent criminality has prompted great societal concern and scrutiny (Snyder, Sickmund, & Poe-Yamagata, 1996). There is substantial evidence to indicate that a relatively small subset of violent juveniles commits the majority of violent crimes and continues its violent behavior into adulthood that leads to defective personality (Loeber & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1998). Early research on the prediction of violence in adults found that “dangerousness judgments” based on unstructured clinical impressions were largely inaccurate (Monahan, 1981). These studies brought forth a firestorm of criticism against the practice of violence prediction (Dix, 1977) which, in turn, prompted important methodological trends in violence prediction. For example, the criticism led to a transition from nonsystematic, intuition-based, and potentially biased systems of combining information to make clinical decisions on risk for violence to objective and quantitative actuarial approaches (Cocozza & Steadman, 1978; Monahan, 1981). Such actuarial systems have traditionally focused on historical (e.g., age at first offense) and demographic (e.g., sex and education level) risk factors that were found to be predictive of violent behavior within a given sample that can affect their personality (Glueck & Glueck, 1950; OJJDP, 1995).

Kunst (2011) had conducted a study on titled Examining the Link Between Domestic Violence Victimization and Loneliness in a Dutch Community Sample: A Comparison Between Victims and Nonvictims by Type D Personality. The current study
investigated whether differences in loneliness scores between individuals with a distressed personality type (type D personality) and subjects without such a personality varied by domestic violence victimization. Participants (N=625) were recruited by random sampling from the Municipal Basic Administration of the Dutch city of s-Hertogenbosch and were invited to fill out a set of questionnaires on health status. For this study, only ratings for domestic violence victimization, type D personality, feelings of loneliness, and demographics were used. Statistical analyses yielded main effects on loneliness for both type D personality and history of domestic violence victimization. Above and beyond these main effects, their interaction was significantly associated with loneliness as well. However, this result seemed to apply to emotional loneliness in particular. Findings were discussed in light of previous research and study limitations.

**Shelly Smith-Acuna(2004)** in their study on Paradox of the Female Batterer: Exploring the Link Between Gender, Personality, and Intimate Violence Potential study participants were selected from a pool of people who were receiving court-ordered treatment for domestic violence in an outpatient treatment setting in a large metropolitan area. Sixty-three adults participated (48 males and 15 females). The PAI, which was administered to the participants, includes 22 non-overlapping full scales that include the following clinical scales: somatic complaints, anxiety, anxiety-related disorders, depression, mania, paranoia, schizophrenia, borderline features, antisocial features, alcohol problems, and drug problems. Treatment scales include aggression, suicidal ideation, stress, nonsupport, and treatment rejection. The study found that females scored significantly higher than males on anxiety-related disorder, paranoia, schizophrenia, borderline features, stress, and nonsupport. The only area in which males scored
significantly higher than women was treatment rejection. Although females were significantly more distressed than males in a variety of areas, the mean scores for males and females all fell below the clinical cut-off score. Whatever the reasons for the differences between male and female batterers, if they are corroborated by future research, they have broad implications for domestic-violence treatment. Current guidelines for the treatment of violent women take into account the possibility, or probability, that women who batter may also be victims; thus, treatment incorporates victims issues into the treatment. The current study results suggest that treatment should also take into account the likelihood that there are symptoms of trauma, anxiety, and depression that should be addressed as well.

Sansone (2002) in their study on primary care outpatients, the authors found a significant relationship between a history of domestic violence and borderline personality symptomatology. In the present study, they explore this relationship in a sample of women psychiatric inpatients. They use the Severity of Violence Against Women Scale (SVAWS) to assess a history of domestic violence and two self-report measures, the Self-Harm Inventory (SHI) and the Personality Diagnostic Questionnaire-4 (PDQ-4), to assess borderline personality symptomatology. Both measures of borderline personality symptomatology were highly related to each other ($r = .63, p < .001$) as well as to the SVAWS ($r = .31, p < .001$ for the SHI; $r = .37, p < .001$ for the PDQ-4). Using the recommended diagnostic cutoff scores on the measures for borderline personality symptomatology, 90.2% of those with histories of domestic violence scored in the positive range on either or both measures, compared to 65.1% of nonabused women.
2.2.1.2 Related Studies on Emotional Intelligence

The construct of emotional intelligence arose from the attempt to understand why some individuals maintain psychological well-being better than others. Twentieth century research on intelligence was dominated by cognitive intelligence, which Bar-On defines as “one’s ability to learn, recall, apply, think, reason, and abstract” (1997). However, Bar-On (1997) noticed that people who scored high on the intelligence quotient (IQ), a measure of cognitive intelligence, were not always successful in dealing with normal daily environmental and psychological demands whereas other people with lower IQ scores seemed very successful with respect to those same demands. He postulates that variation in emotional intelligence could account for the discrepancies between cognitive intelligence and social functioning. Bar-On began his exploration of emotional intelligence by building on the work of Weschler (1943), Gardner (1983), and Mayer and Salovey (e.g., 1993, 1995). Although Wechsler chose to focus on cognitive intelligence, he did make mention of the non intellective aspects of general intelligence. Wechsler (1958) describes general intelligence as “the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his (or her) environment”. He stresses the importance of being able to deal with and adapt to changing demands of daily life, strategies that would act as the foundation for future exploration of emotional intelligence.

Katz (2006) conducted a study on Domestic Violence, Emotion Coaching, and Child Adjustment. Children from domestically violent homes are at-risk for a variety of negative developmental outcomes, including but not limited to anxiety, depression, externalizing problems, and general difficulty with emotion regulation and expression.
This study focused on determining if parents in domestically violent homes could effectively assist their children with emotion regulation, otherwise referred to as emotion coaching. However, because parents residing in households where domestic violence is prevalent may experience difficulty with their own emotion regulation, researchers predicted that these parents would have difficulty teaching emotion regulation skills to their children.

The study also examined whether parents experiencing domestic violence had difficulty coaching their children with specific emotions based on their status as either the perpetrator or victim of the domestic violence. For example, it was hypothesized that parent victims of domestic violence would have difficulty coaching their children with the regulation of fear, as they may find it difficult to manage their own fear. Similarly, parent perpetrators of domestic violence would have difficulty coaching their children in anger management, as they have difficulty managing their own anger. Results of the study failed to yield a statistically significant relationship between domestic violence and a general deficit in parental emotion coaching, though a marginal association was observed between domestic violence perpetrated by mothers and less emotion coaching. However, results did reveal an association between domestic violence and less parental emotion coaching of anger and fear based on parental status as either the perpetrator or victim of the domestic violence. Furthermore, the study indicated that emotion coaching moderated the relationship between children’s exposure to domestic violence and subsequent child behavior problems. Specifically, mothers’ emotion coaching moderated the relationship between children’s exposure to domestic violence and children’s aggression, withdrawal, and depression-anxiety, whereas fathers’ emotion coaching
moderated the relationship between children’s exposure to domestic violence and children’s withdrawal.

**Winters (2004)** studied the relationship between spousal battering and emotional intelligence, a concept that captures the success, or lack thereof, of a person’s functioning in their immediate environment. Forty-four men convicted of spousal assault and 76 undergraduate students completed the Emotional Quotient Inventory. Results of this exploratory study indicate that batterers score significantly lower than the general population on all components of EQ-i. Additionally EQ-i total and subscale scores for both samples correlate negatively and significantly with scores on PAS, suggesting that deficits in various components of emotional intelligence are related to an increase in the propensity to be abusive.

**Sadik (2009)** studied on Comparing Evaluation of Emotional Intelligence in Women Victims of Violence with Control Group. The domestic violence and the self destroying action between couples are usually due to marital maladjustment and disability in control of their emotion. Emotional Intelligence is a kind of social Intelligence that includes the ability of inspection in own or others emotion. The aim of this study is the evaluation of Emotional Intelligence role in prevention of domestic violence against women. Materials & Methods: The method of this study is cross – sectional comparative study. The experimental groups include 83 individuals of violence victim women and the same of ordinary ones who were randomly choosen and referred to Legal Medicine Organization. Both groups completed the demographic and bar – on EQ questioners. Findings: The results show that in general score and all component of Inter & Intrapersonal Relationship, Stress tolerance, Adaptability and General mood of the
GPA of ordinary women had better average than those of victim women. Also there is significant difference in all subcomponent between two groups. Conclusion: The development of Emotional Intelligence abilities, which is one of the main social and emotional life skills, is very important to prevent of domestic violence against women.

Smith (2000) did a study on Emotional intelligence and behavior: An exploratory study of people on parole. Emotions are an integral and significant aspect of human nature and the motivation for behavior. This study examined a connection between emotion and behavior by examining the connection between the construct of emotional intelligence (EI) and criminal behavior. It was hypothesized that individuals exhibiting this behavior would manifest a low level of EI when compared to the general population. The study also hypothesized an association between EI and 10 characteristics: gender, age, ethnicity, education, marital status, being raised by mother or father, and trauma variables of separation by divorce, death of a parent, sexual abuse and physical abuse. A subject population of individuals (N = 56), who were on parole from prison and who volunteered to participate in the study, was the measure of behavior. The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) was administered to the subjects by the researcher as the measure of emotion and emotional intelligence. Composed of 133 questions, it uses a 5-point self-rating Likert scale measuring 15 factorial components in five areas: Intrapersonal (emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, self-regard, self-actualization, independence); Interpersonal (empathy, interpersonal relationship, social responsibility); Adaptability (problem solving, flexibility, reality testing); Stress Management (stress tolerance, impulse control); and General Mood (optimism, happiness). The raw data was scored by Multi-Health Systems, publisher of the instrument for both a group and
individual report against the normative data. Data analysis strategies also included One-Way Analysis of Variance, Pearson Correlation, and T-tests using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 9.0. As hypothesized the EQ-i group score was below the general population. The group scores for each of the five factors that make up the Total EQ-i Score were also below average. The hypothesized association between Total EQ-i and personal characteristics was not fully supported. Females did report higher Interpersonal EQ-i. There was an association between race/ethnicity and Interpersonal, Intrapersonal and Total EQ-i. An association was found between death of a parent and interpersonal EQ-i. Intrapersonal EQ-i was associated with sexual abuse. No statistical association was found with age, education, marital status, being raised by mother or father, separation by divorce, or physical abuse.

Ricca (2003) studied on Emotional intelligence, negative mood regulation expectancies, and professional burnout among police officer. The purpose of the current study was to explore the potential of emotional and social competencies to predict job burnout in a sample of 50 municipal police officers from the Northeastern United States. Participants were administered 3 self-report questionnaires. Emotional intelligence (EI) was measured with the BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), which is based on a 1-5-15 structural model that defines EI as a group of related social and emotional competencies involved in the ability to effectively cope with environmental demands (Bar-On, 1997). The Generalized Expectancies for Negative Mood Regulation (NMR) Scale, was employed to assess beliefs about one's ability to alleviate negative moods (Catanzaro & Mearns, 1990). Burnout was measured with the Maslach Burnout Inventory-Human Services Survey (MBI-HSS), which yields scores for 3 separate
components of burnout: emotional exhaustion (EE), depersonalization (DP), and sense of personal accomplishment (PA) (Maslach & Jackson, 1996). Regression analyses supported the main hypothesis, which predicted an inverse relationship between EI and burnout. Also, as expected, NMR was inversely related to burnout. EQ-i and NMR Scale total scores, combined, accounted for approximately 25% of the variance in EE (p = .001) and 40% of the variance in PA (p = .000). Finally, results supported the prediction of a positive relationship between EI and NMR (r = .40, p < .01).

Knight (2005) on his study Exploring emotional intelligence and IQ: Comparing violent and non-violent criminal offenders. This study explored the relationships among emotional intelligence, verbal and nonverbal intelligence, and violent and non-violent behavior. Emotional intelligence, measured by the BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), and IQ, measured by the Wechsler Abbreviated Scale of Intelligence, were obtained from 30 violent and 30 non-violent, adult male criminal offenders. The hypotheses that the violent group would obtain lower EQ-i scores than the non-violent group, and that EQ-i scores for both groups would be lower than that of the general population were not supported by the results. However, as expected, subjects in the violent group had significantly lower mean Verbal Intelligence Quotients (96.43, SD 8.37) than their mean Performance Intelligence Quotients (103.00, SD 10.02), t (58) = -2.754, p < 0.009. Further analyses unexpectedly showed that offenders with a juvenile criminal history, regardless of violent or non-violent behavior, had a lower mean EQ-i score (92.33, SD = 13.95) than did offenders without a juvenile criminal history (99.86, SD = 16.42), t (58) = -1.914, p = <0.07. Such results suggest a trend toward lower EQ-i scores for subjects with a juvenile criminal history. This study strongly supports the
importance of early intervention and the necessity of providing conditions that foster emotional intelligence.

**Bora (2003)** had conducted a study on The influence of emotional intelligence on deviant behavior. The purpose of this research is to examine the independent contribution of the four branches of emotional intelligence (EI) on self-reported deviance and to place emotional intelligence in the context of criminological theory. Emotional intelligence is defined by Mayer and Salovey (1997) as the ability to (1) identify emotions, (2) use emotions to facilitate thought, (3) understand emotional content, and (4) manage or regulate emotions. The research builds on previous work conducted by Gibbs and Giever (2002) testing the impact of emotional intelligence as a unitary attribute on self-reported deviance. A 141-item survey instrument (MSCEIT V.2) developed by Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (1999) to measure overall EI and its branches (Emotional Identification, Emotional Facilitation, Emotional Understanding, and Emotional Management), coupled with a self-reported deviance questionnaire, was administered to a sample of 248 undergraduates by Gibbs and Giever (2002) in the spring and summer of 2001. In the present study, a secondary analysis is conducted of the data. Factor analysis is conducted to test the dimensionality of EI proposed by Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (1999). Subsequently, path analysis is used to examine the influence of the branches of EI on deviance in the context of known correlates of deviance. However, the findings do not support the hypothesis that a differential impact exists between the branches and deviance. This is presumably a result of measurement error in the independent and dependent variables. A systematic review of the major theories of crime and delinquency
also is conducted in an effort to see where emotional intelligence and its branches fit into existing conceptual models.

2.2.1.3 Related Studies on Personal Effectiveness

**Ernst (2000)** studied on Domestic Violence Awareness in a Medical School Class: 2-Year Follow-up. The long-term effectiveness (LTE) and long-term retention (LTR) of formal instruction about domestic violence. A general knowledge survey on domestic violence was given before, 1 month after, and 2 years after 3 hours of instruction to medical students. Good LTE was defined as significant improvement in responses between the first and third surveys. Good LTR was defined as lack of a significant decrease in results between the second and third surveys. Two years after the instruction, 104 of 148 (70%) participated. Knowledge of rates of domestic violence against women showed neither good LTE nor good LTR. Responses showed good LTE and LTR concerning domestic violence incidence among men, ethnic and socioeconomic groups being equally represented, victims not being personally responsible for the abuse, and physicians not being required to report domestic violence in the survey state. Responses showed poor LTR and LTE regarding rates of domestic violence in women and abused persons being unable to simply leave their situation. Some improvement in domestic violence awareness was seen 2 years after instruction. However, some information was not retained. Domestic violence instruction should be reemphasized throughout medical school.

**McCrory (2011)** conducted a study on Heightened neural reactivity to threat in child victims of family violence. Exposure to family violence affects a significant minority of children: estimates of physical abuse range from 4 to 16%, while intimate
partner violence affects between 8 and 25% of children. These maltreatment experiences represent a form of environmental stress that significantly increases risk of later psychopathology, including anxiety. To date, no functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) studies have probed the neural correlates of emotional processing in children exposed to family violence. Previous psychological and electrophysiological studies indicate a selective hyper vigilance to angry cues in physically abused children, which is in turn associated with elevated levels of anxiety. Functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) research has demonstrated increased reactivity of the anterior insula (AI) and amygdale to angry faces in individuals with anxiety disorder, and in psychiatrically healthy soldiers exposed to combat, making these regions plausible neural candidates for adaptation to threat. We demonstrated that children exposed to family violence (with normative levels of anxiety) show increased AI and amygdala reactivity in response to angry but not sad faces. While such enhanced reactivity to a biologically salient threat cue may represent an adaptive response to sustained environmental danger, it may also constitute a latent neurobiological risk factor increasing vulnerability to psychopathology.

Feder (2005) studied on A meta-analytic review of court-mandated batterer intervention programs: Can courts affect abusers’ behavior. Court-mandated batterer intervention programs are being implemented throughout the United States to address the problem of domestic violence. Prior reviews of research on the effectiveness of these programs have arrived at conflicting conclusions. This study is a systematic review of the extant research on this topic. Experimental and quasi-experimental studies that used matching or statistical controls were included. The results were mixed. The mean effect for official reports of domestic violence from experimental studies showed modest
benefit, whereas the mean effect for victim reported outcomes was zero. Quasi-experimental studies using a no-treatment comparison had inconsistent findings indicating an overall small harmful effect. In contrast, quasi-experimental studies using a treatment dropout design showed a large, positive mean effect on domestic violence outcomes. We discuss the weakness of the latter design and raise concerns regarding official reports. The findings, we believe, raise doubts about the effectiveness of court-mandated batterer intervention programs.

**Samuel (2008)** did a study on the current state of domestic violence among women and children in Ghana. This study examined the current state of domestic violence among women and children in Ghana. A survey design was used for the research. The convenient sampling procedure was used to select thirty (30) men and women in the ratio of 1:1 for examination. SPSS software and Microsoft Excel were used for all the analysis. Frequencies, percentages and bar graphs were the statistical tools used to analyze the data.

From the research, 66.7% (majority) of the respondents confirmed that, despite the passage of the Domestic Violence Bill, violence is still on the increase. Also, the average rate of domestic violence in Ghana is rated at 54.5%. Further more, miscommunication, Abuse of previlage as a mother, wife, father or husband, Ignorance, Poverty, Cultural practices, Illitracy, Inhumanity and so forth are some of the factors promoting domestic violence in Ghana. Moreover, some of the effects of domestic violence are: Victims become timid and insecure, Broken homes or increase in divorcees leading to truancy on the part of children and increase in diviant behaviours in
the community, High prevalence of single or unmarried people, Child abuse or personal abuse and so forth.

2.2.1.4 Related Studies on Aggression

Johnson, J.G., et al. (2002) Television viewing and aggressive behavior during adolescence and adulthood. This study remains unique because it links exposures to violent media after childhood-i.e., among teenagers-and then follows them into young adulthood when aggressive behaviors actually take place. This study with its large sample size (707 families) and time span (17 years) allowed a meaningful test of television exposure on severe aggressive behaviors (such as assault and robbery) among these young adults. Also, they were able to control for key childhood factors that might otherwise be a cause of the aggression-e.g., childhood neglect, family income, neighborhood violence, parental education, and psychiatric disorders. Research found that exposure to violent video games also contributes to aggressive thoughts, feelings and behaviors.

Christopher(2009) A Multivariate Analysis of Youth Violence and Aggression: The Influence of Family, Peers, Depression, and Media Violence. The objective is to examine the multivariate nature of risk factors for youth violence including delinquent peer associations, exposure to domestic violence in the home, family conflict, neighborhood stress, antisocial personality traits, depression level, and exposure to television and video game violence. A population of 603 predominantly Hispanic children (ages 10-14 years) and their parents or guardians responded to multiple behavioral measures. Outcomes included aggression and rule-breaking behavior on the Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL), as well as violent and nonviolent criminal activity and
bullying behavior. Delinquent peer influences, antisocial personality traits, depression, and parents/guardians who use psychological abuse in intimate relationships were consistent risk factors for youth violence and aggression. Neighborhood quality, parental use of domestic violence in intimate relationships, and exposure to violent television or video games were not predictive of youth violence and aggression. Childhood depression, delinquent peer association, and parental use of psychological abuse may be particularly fruitful avenues for future prevention or intervention efforts.

Peedicayil et al (2004) in his study on effects of domestic violence on children shown that the children who witness domestic violence may exhibit aggressive behavior, decreased social competencies, depression, fears, anxiety, sleep disturbances, and learning problems. The children's emotional responses to the violence, such as intense terror, fear of death, and fear of loss of a parent, underlie many of the emotional/behavioral problems they exhibit. Children also may feel rage, guilt, and a sense of responsibility for the violence. Witnessing domestic violence may invoke in children feelings of helplessness and they may come to see the world as unpredictable, hostile, and threatening. Around 60%-70% of the personality of the children will get affected due to the domestic violence.

Holt (2006) has conducted a study on the impact of exposure to domestic violence on children and young people: A review of the literature. A comprehensive search of identified databases was conducted within an 11-year framework (1995–2006). This yielded a vast literature which was selectively organized and analyzed according to the four domains identified above. This review finds that children and adolescents living with domestic violence are at increased risk of experiencing emotional, physical and
sexual abuse, of developing emotional and behavioral problems and of increased exposure to the presence of other adversities in their lives. It also highlights a range of protective factors that can mitigate against this impact, in particular a strong relationship with and attachment to a caring adult, usually the mother.

John and Wanda (1999) studied on the Prevalence and Effects of Child Exposure to Domestic Violence studies that compared children exposed to domestic violence with children from nonviolent homes with respect to one or more aspects of child functioning, including: (1) externalizing behaviors (such as aggressive behavior and conduct problems); (2) internalizing behaviors (such as depression, anxiety, and low self-esteem); (3) intellectual and academic functioning; (4) social development (social competencies with peers and adults, for example); and (5) physical health and development. Findings shows the effects of child exposure to domestic violence indicates that this exposure has an adverse impact across a range of child functioning, produces different effects at different ages, increases the risk for child abuse, and is associated with other risk factors such as poverty and parental substance abuse. This research does not, as yet, reveal reliable information about the impact of particular types or frequencies of domestic violence on children, or how children with specific characteristics are affected across time.

Moylan (2010) The Effects of Child Abuse and Exposure to Domestic Violence on Adolescent Internalizing and Externalizing Behavior Problems. Exposure to domestic violence in childhood has been linked to a similar set of outcomes, including low self-esteem, social withdrawal, depression, and anxiety; and aggression, violence, and delinquency. In a recent meta-analysis of studies that examined the relationship between
domestic violence exposure in childhood and adolescent internalizing and externalizing behaviors, Evans, Davies, and DiLillo (2008) found significant mean-weighted effect sizes of .48 (SE=.04) for internalizing behaviors and .47 (SE=.05) for externalizing behaviors, indicating moderate associations between exposure and both outcomes.

As with research on other forms of media violence, research on violent video game effects tends to fall within two broad categories: namely, correlational and experimental studies. Meta-analytic reviews of the few studies that currently exist suggest that the overall effect size (denoted $r^2 \times 100$) for correlational and experimental studies of violent video games and violent behavior are positive but small, ranging between 1% and 4% shared variance between video game playing and violent behavior (Anderson & Bushman, 2001; Sherry, 2001). Larger effects were found for young adults, with smaller effects found for children. However, as many of the studies included in these analyses fail to consider “third” variables (e.g., intrinsic motivation, exposure to family violence, or sometimes even the gender of the player), it remains unclear whether these results are truly causal as opposed to spurious. A more recent meta-analysis has identified significant problems with publication bias in the literature and found that the relationship between video game habits and aggressive behavior was effectively 0%.

Regarding correlational studies, examined the relationship between violent video game playing and self-reported violent crime in 227 undergraduate students. Overall, the authors found a positive relationship, although the effect for violent video games interacted with innate aggression and gender. Specifically, innately aggressive males demonstrated greater correlations between violent video game playing and violent crime than did other groups. Thus, the results suggest that although a relationship between
violent video games and violent crime exists, third variables, such as innate aggression and gender, may influence this relationship. Unfortunately, this study did not control for variance caused by exposure to family violence.

Few other correlational studies of the relationship between violent video game playing and real-life aggression find results as strong as those in the study. Many such findings have effect sizes less than recommendation of $r \geq 0.10$ as the cutoff for a “small” effect size. Some find no relationship between violent video game playing and real-life aggression, whereas others find positive, but weak, relationships (Colwell & Payne, 2000). Most of these studies fail to account for participants’ exposure to family violence.

Several experimental studies have examined the effects of playing violent video games on aggressive cognitions (Anderson & Dill, 2000; Ballad & West, 1996; Bushman & Anderson, 2002) and physiological arousal (Ballad & West, 1996; Bartholow, Bushman, & Sestir, in press; Fleming & Rickwood, 2001). Results from these studies suggest generally weak, but positive, effects on arousal level and aggressive thoughts. It is not particularly surprising that violent games are arousing or that players would still be thinking about the content of the game that they just played. The critical question is not whether individuals who play violent video games are merely aroused or thinking of aggressive concepts but whether their behavior is altered such that they are more likely to engage in violent acts.

Because it is not ethical to provoke interpersonal violence in the lab, researchers must rely on proxy measures of aggression. Perhaps the most commonly employed test of aggression used in the laboratory is the Taylor Competitive Reaction Time Test, which uses the intensity and duration of noise blasts as a measure of aggression. The TCRRT is
designed to function as a provoked aggression test. One concern with the TCRTT is that, although the administration is standardized, the measurement of results is not. It is unclear whether aggression is measured by the intensity and/or duration of the noise blast or whether total average intensity should be recorded versus only blasts that occur on a cutoff point such as 8 on a 10-point scale. The various studies of video game violence that use the TCRTT (Anderson & Dill, 2000; Anderson & Murphy, 2003; Bartholow & Anderson, 2002; Bartholow et al., in press; Carnagey & Anderson, 2005) have all measured the results differently. This lack of standardization raises the possibility that the TCRTT may be open to capitalization on chance. Furthermore, these studies do not report the reliabilities of the measures nor the degrees to which the intensity and duration settings correlate (as they should if they are both measures of aggression). Without the use of a standardized version of the TCRTT and knowledge of the instrument’s reliability, the interpretive value of these studies’ findings is in question.

On the other hand, surveys suggest that other psychologists believe physical punishment to be an effective and useful socialization tool (Anderson, et al., 1976; Leviton, 1976; Lowenstein, 1977; Maurer, 1974). In response to the hypothesis that physical punishment could cause aggression in children, these professionals can cite studies which note that even abusive parental violence does not always lead to an increase in children's aggression. Further, recent survey data has suggested that almost all American parents utilize physical punishment at one point or another. This suggests that despite the psychological controversy over the topic, many, if not most, Americans regard physical punishment as an appropriate childrearing technique, at least under certain circumstances.
In addition to the controversy over whether any relationship exists between physical punishment and aggression, a second controversy exists over the nature of this relationship. Briefly, three types of relationships have been hypothesized to exist between physical punishment and aggression. The first type of relationship is a positive, linear one: some researchers have contended that any parental aggression (even physical punishment) may be positively and causally related to the development of antisocial aggression (Steinmetz, 1979; Maurer, 1974). In sharp contrast, a second group of researchers have suggested that lack of physical punishment may contribute causally to the development of aggression (DiLalla, Mitchell, Arthur & Pagliocca, 1988). Finally, a third group proposes a curvilinear relationship: either too little or too much physical punishment may increase the probability of aggressive behavior (Gelles, 1974; Lefkowitz, Eron, Walder, & Huesmann, 1977).

2.2.2 Studies Related to the Sociological Factors

2.2.2.1 Related Studies on Self Esteem

Reynolds (2001) studied on the relationship between gender, depression, and self-esteem in children who have witnessed domestic violence. The objective is to investigate whether there are measurable gender differences in self-esteem and depression in elementary school-age children who have witnessed domestic violence. Forty-five elementary school-age children who were identified as having witnessed domestic violence and their teachers were surveyed for self-esteem, depression, and classroom behaviors. The results were compared between males and females using linear regression modeling. No significant gender differences were found for self-esteem and depression. An interaction between gender and post-traumatic stress was found to play a significant
role in the interpretation of the results. Results indicated that higher levels of symptoms indicative of post-traumatic stress were associated with greater numbers of depressive symptoms and lower self-esteem for boys who had witnessed domestic violence. The results appeared similar to previous work with children and their emotional reactions to divorce.

Nyemara, Novatus (2009) Self-esteem, violent behavior and peer relationships among adolescents that witnessed domestic violence. The study investigated the relationship between witnessing domestic violence and adolescents’ violent behavior, self-esteem, and peer relationships. The study used a correlation design. Data was collected on 210 adolescents, ages 14 to 17, studying in form three. Participants were selected using a cluster sampling technique. Data was analyzed using Spearman correlation coefficient (rs). Results indicate that adolescents’ violent behavior is positively related to witnessing domestic violence. Further, adolescents’ self-esteem is negatively related to witnessing domestic violence. In addition, adolescents’ peer relationships are positively related to witnessing domestic violence. It is recommended that early interventions should be adopted to assist adolescents to build up their self-esteem and improve their relationships with their peers. This could involve interventions designed to help avert the development of distressing symptoms. Further, families and communities should be sensitized to work toward creating a safe place for children.

Hyemee Kim, Sang K. Kahng (2011) Examined the Relationship between Domestic Violence and Depression among Koreans: The Role of Self-esteem and Social Support as Mediators. Domestic violence is a prevalent social issue in Korea affecting a significant number of people every day. It is thus important to examine how the
experience of domestic violence affects their mental health to better address their needs. Using stress-coping theory as a theoretical framework, this study examines the domestic violence and depression relationship among Korean men and women. Two aspects of self-esteem and informal and formal social support are examined as potential mediators of this relationship. The data was the first wave of Korean Welfare Panel Study data including 2477 individuals with experiences of abuse. Structural equation modeling procedures were used for analyses. Domestic violence was significantly associated with self-worth, self-deprecation, and depression. The experiences of violence eroded self-worth while reinforcing self-deprecation and those with more exposure to violence showed a higher level of depression. Self-deprecation played a significant role in mediating the effect of domestic violence on depression. However, different findings were yielded for social support. While informal social support was significantly associated with domestic violence, formal social support was not associated with domestic violence. Findings suggest for mental health interventions targeting self-esteem, particularly the diminution of self-deprecation in working with the victims.

Pilar (2000) The Psychological Impact of Domestic Violence on Spanish Women study examined the psychological impact of partner violence on 240 Spanish women who were identified as abused, comparing them to a control group of 240 non-abused women. The abused women suffered more long-lasting anxiety and insomnia, severe depression, and somatic symptomatology, and also had lower self-esteem than did the non-abused women. The severity of the psychological abuse was correlated positively with the severity of the physical abuse, while the number of years of abuse endured correlated with the women’s age and number of children. The most relevant variable for predicting
severe depression, social dysfunction, anxiety and insomnia, and somatic symptoms was low self-esteem.

A woman who lives with someone who abuses her physically or emotionallly usually develops a stress response to the attacks. If the attacks or threats are repeated, she can develop a series of chronic symptoms. In the case of a woman abused by her husband, the most prevalent symptoms are depression and post-traumatic stress disorder. Other symptoms that occur frequently are anxiety and lowered self-esteem. Likewise, it is possible for a woman to develop feelings of guilt, social isolation, and emotional dependence on her abusive partner, together with severe somatic symptoms (Echeburua & Corral, 1998). Other less frequent problems that have been observed include suicide attempts and drug or alcohol abuse, which are used as an inadequate means for women to deal with their situations (Golding, 1999; Roberts et al., 1998).

Nevin (2010) conducted a study on Childhood Trauma, Type of Marriage and Self-Esteem as Correlates of Domestic Violence in Married Women in Turkey. The aim of this study is to determine childhood trauma, the type of marriage, and level of self-esteem as correlates of domestic violence in married women in Turkey. The study sample consisted of 750 women aged 20 and over, selected through face to face interviews. More than half the women were exposed to domestic violence, which increases with factors like lower economic status, teenage and arranged marriages and a large number of children. According to the logistic regression model, arranged marriages, sexual problems and physical abuse during childhood lead to an increase in the occurrence of domestic violence, while this decreases as the partners age. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale scores were significantly lower in women subjected to domestic violence and this
decrease became statistically significant as the level of abuse experienced during childhood increased.

Henry (2009) studied on Domestic Violence and Adolescent Psychological Functioning. Among Secondary School Students in the Benin Metropolis of Nigeria. Secondary school students in the Junior Secondary Schools in the Benin metropolis of Nigeria were surveyed with regards to their psychological functioning in relation to their experiences of domestic violence. Psychological functioning of the respondents was examined in terms of self-esteem, depression, and aggressive disruptive behavior, and authoritarianism-rebellion tendencies. The study hypothesized that adolescents who witness domestic violence would report low self-esteem, score high on aggression scale, and report high authoritarianism-rebellion tendencies than adolescents that do not witness domestic violence. Results of this study indicated that adolescents who experience domestic violence are prone to having low self-esteem, are more aggressive in nature and hence more authoritarianism-rebellion tendencies. The result also indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between adolescents who witness domestic violence and those who do not witness domestic violence on depressive tendencies. Based on the findings, it was then advocated that though this current study provided robust evidence that exposure to domestic violence is associated with significant disruptions in adolescents’ psychological functioning; there is still need to carry out a lot of further investigations especially on the effects of gender, age of children/adolescents and the socio-economic status of parents involved in domestic violence, which we consider will assist professionals in having a firm hold of literature on domestic violence, especially in Nigeria.
2.2.2.2 Related Studies on Study skills

Susan (2009) did a study on prevention programs in schools as one response to youth, community, and family violence. Many of these programs target older children and adolescents. This quasi-experimental study evaluated the preschool curriculum of the Peacemakers program, which was developed by a consortium of social service agencies for implementation in schools. This program takes a holistic approach with children to promote conflict avoidance, conflict resolution skills, and respect for others. There were 101 children in the experimental group and 60 children in the comparison group. Teachers evaluated the children's skills before and after a five-week period, during which the experimental group received the program. Children completing the training showed statistically significant improvements in skills in contrast to the comparison group. Children's improvements did not vary with the child's gender. This study provides some support for the short-term effectiveness of this approach to enhancing the conflict resolution skills of young children. School social workers are in a position to be aware of young children's exposure to family and community violence and of the long-term effects of this exposure and can advocate in their communities for violence prevention programs that begin early in children's lives.

Allen (2003) in her study the perceptions of effects of a study skills course, “dynamics of effective study,” on the academic achievement of African American students at a dedicated academic magnet high school. The purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions of students, teachers, and administrators on the effectiveness of a study skills course, “Dynamics of Effective Study,” on the academic achievement of African American students at a dedicated academic magnet high school. Qualitative research
methods were utilized in this study. Fifteen African American students who completed the study skills course, fifteen African American students who did not take or complete the study skills course, five former study skills teachers, and three administrators from the dedicated academic magnet school volunteered to participate in the study. Open-ended interviews were conducted with the students, teachers, and administrators. The students were matched by gender, class, entrance GPAs and entrance reading stanine scores from the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS). Data were collected from written documents, transcripts, fieldnotes, and interviews from the volunteers from the dedicated academic magnet high school and three other high schools in the school district in southeast Louisiana. Data were also collected from written documents from the school systems. Perceptions of students, teachers, and administrators of the effectiveness of the study skills course, “Dynamics of Effective Study,” on the academic achievement of African American students were varied. All student participants in the study skills course, eight out of fifteen student non-participants in the study skills course, and three out of five former study skills teachers indicated that they perceived the study skills course to be effective for African American students. All three administrators indicated that they perceived the study skills course as ineffective for African American students as it was implemented in the curriculum.

Sidney (2010) did a study on students' perceptions of the usefulness of case studies for the development of finance and accounting-related skills and knowledge. Recent accounting and finance education literature indicates a trend towards an increasing use of case studies. The literature in this field is primarily descriptive, with no empirical evidence on the use or effectiveness of the method. This study examines
students' perceptions of the use of case studies and the potential influences of gender and prior academic performance on such perceptions. The study focuses, in particular, on students' perceptions about whether case studies develop particular skills suggested in the literature. The questionnaire-based study was conducted in a postgraduate (Honours) class at a South African university. Analyses of the results reveal significant differences in students' perceptions of the benefits of the use of cases. Gender and prior academic performance-based differences in perception were also found. The study is useful for educators who use, or intend to use, case studies, as it highlights issues, such as the learning objectives of the course, which need to be addressed prior to curriculum design.

Chapman et al (2000) has conducted a study on Early reading-related skills and performance, reading self-concept, and the development of academic self-concept: A longitudinal study. The study found the relations between academic self-concept (ASC) and measures of reading-related performance and self-concept were examined in 60 beginning school children who, after 2 years of schooling, were assessed as having positive, negative, or typical ASCs. Data were collected soon after school entry, toward the end of Years 1 and 2, and during the middle of Year 3. Children with negative ASCs performed poorly on reading-related tasks and reported more negative reading self-concepts than did children with positive or typical ASCs. Reading was also highly predictive of negative and positive ASC group membership, but not of typical ASC group membership. Past studies of relations between ASC and achievement involving full-range samples of young children have underestimated the point in time when these factors become causally related to each other.
2.2.2.3 Related Studies on Quality of Study Life

Birnbaum (2002) had studied on School functioning and violent behavior among young adolescents: a contextual analysis. This paper examines associations between overall school functioning and frequency of violent behaviors among young adolescents (ages 10–14). The sample included 16 middle schools participating in an unrelated intervention study (on nutrition) in Minneapolis, Minnesota. A School Functioning Index, developed to characterize schools’ overall stability, performance and demographics, was constructed using data from public archives and school administrator surveys. Data on violent behaviors and other variables were collected in student surveys in fall 1998 and spring 1999. We used multilevel modeling to assess the effect of school functioning on violent behavior after adjusting for known individual-level covariates of violent behaviors. We found an interaction between school functioning (group-level variable) and expectations for future education (individual-level variable). Among students who reported expectations of completing a college degree (71% of the sample), positive school functioning was negatively associated with violent behaviors. Among students that reported expectations of completing less than a college degree, no association was found between school functioning and violent behaviors. These results support earlier work suggesting that objectively measured school characteristics are associated with students’ violent behaviors even after accounting for individual-level factors and also identify a subgroup of students for whom school detachment may be an issue.

disorder (PTSD) and quality of life (QoL) after exposure to violence. The aims of the current study were to examine quality of life (QoL) and the predictive value of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) for QoL in victims of non-domestic violence over a period of 12 months. A single-group (n = 70) longitudinal design with three repeated measures over a period of 12 months were used. Posttraumatic psychological symptoms were assessed by using the Impact of Event Scale, a 15-item self-rating questionnaire comprising two subscales (intrusion and avoidance) as a screening instrument for PTSD. The results show that for each category of PTSD (probable cases, risk level cases and no cases), the mean levels of the WHOQOL-Bref subscales (the four domains and the two single items) were stable across time of assessment. Individuals who scored as probable PTSD or as risk level cases had significantly lower scores on the QoL domains such as physical health, psychological health, social relationships and environmental than those without PTSD symptoms. In addition, the two items examining perception of overall quality of life and perception of overall health in WHOQOL showed the same results according to PTSD symptoms such as QoL domains. PTSD symptoms predicted lower QoL at all three assessments. Similarly PTSD symptoms at T1 predicted lower QoL at T2 and PTSD symptoms at T2 predicted lower QoL at T3.

Alsaker (2006) studied on quality of study life and domestic violence. In a cross-sectional study, a self-administered questionnaire to all the women's shelters in Norway to describe health-related quality of life among women who had experienced violence from an intimate partner. Every woman who could understand Norwegian and was staying at a women's shelter in Norway for more than 1 week from October 2002 to May 2003 was asked to participate. We described violence by intimate partners by using the
Severity of Violence against Women Scale and the Psychological Maltreatment of Women Index. We used the SF-36 Health Survey to measure health-related quality of life. These women experienced a multitude of threats and actual physical and psychological violence during their partnership. Their health-related quality of life was low and significantly ($p<0.001$) below the norm for the female population of Norway in all dimensions. The SF-36 mental health dimension was 2.5 standard deviations below the norm. Women at women's shelters in Norway who had experienced domestic violence had very low and clinically significantly reduced health-related quality of life scores. Health care workers must give priority to developing intervention plans for victims of violence from intimate partners.

Based on the above views the investigator felt the need of doing a research on Domestic violence among children from violent and non violent homes in Tirunelveli District. In the following chapter, the investigator explains the profile of the study area.

Seela and Ram (2011) Women and Domestic Violence: A Case Study in Rural Sri Lanka. Violence against women remains a significant barrier to securing human-centered development goals. Domestic violence in particular has limited options in almost every sphere of women's lives and in most community space. It also compromises the healthy development and well-being of their children and families. Yet, domestic violence is widespread in all regions, classes, and cultures. Wife beating is the most common form of family violence, and it poses a threat to the quality of women's lives in nearly every culture and society (Penn & Nardos, 2003). Victims of violence are often silent because they are helpless. Social and legal barriers continue to make it difficult to collect accurate data and sufficient evidence for domestic violence. In patriarchal
societies in Asia, such as Sri Lanka, women face many difficulties due to domestic violence. This chapter identifies diverse problems and harassment faced by women in their domestic life in Kandy District in rural Sri Lanka. It focuses on problems women face in their youth, married life, and, in some cases, divorce. The qualitative study focuses on understanding the nature of the problem, the reason for domestic violence, and providing some conclusion from the material gathered from the study.

Sadler AG & Booth BM(2000) studied on health-related consequences of physical and sexual violence: women in the military. The study is to identify differences in health-related quality of life among women veterans who were raped, physically assaulted (not in the context of rape or domestic violence), both, or neither during military service. A cross-sectional telephone survey of a national sample of 558 women veterans who served in Vietnam and subsequent eras of military service. A stratified survey design selected subjects according to era of service and location. The interview included socioeconomic information, lifetime violence history, the Women's Military Environment Survey to assess women's military experiences, and the Medical Outcomes Study Short Form-36 to assess health-related quality of life. The results show that five hundred thirty-seven women completed the interview. Half (48%) experienced violence during military service, including rape (30%), physical assault (35%), or both (16%). Women who were raped or dually victimized were more likely to report chronic health problems, prescription medication use for emotional problems, failure to complete college, and annual incomes less than $25,000 (P <.05). Women who were physically assaulted or raped reported significantly lower health-related quality of life (P <.05).
Those who had both traumas reported the most severe impairment, comparable to women with chronic illnesses.

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