CHAPTER – II

Review of Related Literature
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The review of literature has its own importance and helps the investigator in drawing inferences about population from which the sample is drawn.

Before going into the real phase of the research, it is thought essential to study the whole literature including research findings related to variable in the study being conducted.

The important purpose of the review of related studies and literature is build up in the context and background of the research as well as to provide the basis for mutation of the hypothesis. By reviewing the literature, the research can avoid duplicating well established findings. It helps the investigator in making problems precise, researchable and meaningful.

The review of related studies and evaluating reports of the relevant researches and articles, research abstracts, published journals and encyclopedias’. The investigator needs to acquire update information about what has been thought and done in a particular area. The researcher draws maximum benefits from the previous investigations, utilizes the previous findings, takes many hints from the design and procedure of the previous researches and formulates an outline for future researches.

2.1 Studies related to gender bias

Goldberg, (1984) investigated gender differences experienced in work and in the family influence class consciousness. Thirty-four women employed as clerical workers were interviewed. Their responses indicate that the increasing demands of the workplace force women to confront the dual expectations of home and the office. Women who belong to organizations dedicated to improving working conditions show an increasing awareness of the way their traditional family roles are integrated with their roles in the public sector. A new theory of consciousness must take into account the consciousness that arises when people are confronted by the contradictory expectations of the workplace and the family.

Game & Pringle (1984) examined difference by experience of paid work and trade unionism. The aim of the research was to develop an understanding of the
relationship between gender, the labour process and technological change. The research covers case studies of six industries over the entire post-war period in Australia: the white goods industry; banking; retailing; computing; nursing; and housework. The forms of control of the labour process (predominantly patriarchal) and the operation of social control through the sexual division of labour define jobs as either ‘male’ or ‘female.’ There appears to be nothing inherent in any job which makes it male or female, but deskilling is managed by management and men by further gender differentiation and measuring of men’s work against ‘women’s work.’ The traditional trade union assumption that female involvement in work leads to deskilling and low wages is challenged, the authors arguing that the reverse is true. The legality of sex differentiations as opposed to sex discrimination in the Australian sex discrimination act allows the process to continue unchallenged.

Gaarder (2000) examined how the politics of gender have influenced and shaped the modern debates over sexual abuse and memory. It explores the level of scrutiny applied to women accuses, the language used to characterize women within the debate, and why the sexual abuse memories of women have become the specific and focused target of ‘false memory’ proponents and the media. A comparison is made between tactically similar backlash movements against women and feminism.

Tomori, et. al. (2000) investigated psychological risk in adolescents and assessed gender differences in the frequency of their occurrence. A specially designed questionnaire, which included validated scales for the evaluation of depression (Zung self — rating depression scale) and self-esteem (Rosenberg self — esteem scale), was administered to a representative sample of Solvenian adolescents. Data analysis revealed several significant gender differences. Girls more often than boys reported family conflict, personal problems, physical inactivity, attempts to control body weight, use of psychoactive drugs, suicidal ideation, and suicide attempts. Their level of depression was higher and self-esteem lower when compared with their male counterparts. Boys more often than girls indicated that they watched a great deal of television, were the victims of peer violence, and drank alcohol.

Black (2000) examined gender differences in adolescents’ behavior during conflict resolution tasks with their best friends. It also examined gender differences in adolescents’ descriptions of those friendships. Thirty-nine adolescent were videotaped
while discussing unresolved problems with their best friends. In addition, adolescents completed the friendship questionnaire (Furman and Adler, 1982). The results indicated that there were significant gender differences. On the conflict resolution tasks, females were rated lower in withdrawal and higher in communication skills and support validation than were males. On the friendship questionnaire, males rated their relationship with best friends higher in conflict than did females.

**Codd (2000)** the article explored the effect of a prison sentence on an inmate’s female partner, with particular reference to the impact in ‘older’ women. Drawing on the findings of an empirical qualitative research study and the existing literature, this article considers the gender role changes prompted by imprisonment, and the strategies utilized by women in coping with consequent strain. The gendered nature of the impact of imprisonment is explored, and the article concludes by drawing on multidisciplinary feminist perspectives in criminology and family studies to assess the centrality of institutionalized ‘traditional’ expectations of appropriate women’s behavior to women’s experiences of and responses to male imprisonment.

**Barr & Boyle (2001)** examined how does gender affect work rewards for professionals in a state run economy? Using surveys from physicians in Estonia in 1991, the authors first found that the gender of the physician did not affect the level of formal rewards. However, because the state allocated formal rewards on the basis of professional purity which was negatively correlated with feminization, specialties that had the greatest proportion of women also had the lowest formal rewards. These findings contrast with the authors’ findings for the level of informal ‘blank market’ rewards. Women were less likely to receive informal rewards than men, especially if they worked in subfields high in professional purity. The authors conclude that the link between professional purity and feminization is critical in explaining pay differences informal work rewards while gender itself is the critical factor in explaining informal reward differences.

**Elliott (2001)** adopts a stress process perspective to analyze gender differences in the causes of depression. The stress process links psychological well-being to position in the social structure via the mediating and moderating effects of stressors and resources. The study examines stressors and resources as mediators of the SES/depression relationship, and resources as moderators of the stressor/depression
relationship. Furthermore, it tests the hypotheses that women are more exposed and more vulnerable to stressors than are men that women benefit more psychologically from socially supportive relationship, and suffer more from conflict- ridden relationship than men. The results indicate that financial strain and perceptions of danger in ones neighborhood mediate the relationship between SES and depression, but resources do not moderate the effects of stressors on depression. Women are more exposed to stressors than men, but are not more vulnerable to them. Positive social relationships do have more beneficial psychological effects for women than for men, but the effects of marital conflict do not vary by gender. Implications for social policy and treatment for depression are discussed.

Wright (2001) investigated the effects of gender on achievement in music education in one secondary school. The study showed a correlation between gender and achievement in music with some surprising insights into possible causes of male under-achievement in education at key stages 3 (11-14 years) and 4 (14-16 years) generally. It is argued that because of national testing and school performance tables, the debate on male under-achievement in this country may have become so focused on core subjects that a very important link in the argument is being overlooked - a link provided by music and the other creative arts.

Abrahamsson (2001) examined raises questions about the links between gender and organizational changes between gender and learning at work. The empirical base is a qualitative study of organizational changes in the pulp and paper industry, electronics industry, food industry and laundry industry in Sweden during the late 1990s. In the studied companies, restoration responses in the work organizations brought the organization back into its original form and function. It shows that gender exerts an influence on the existing work organization and on the organizational change. The learning organization, with its focus on integration and decentralization, challenges gender order, which is a strong system, built segregation and hierarchy. The article concludes that gender segregating an stereotypic gender-coding of workplace and work tasks were strong restoring mechanisms and obstacles to strategic organizational changes, and to individual and organizational learning.

According to Richman & Jason (2001) Chronic fatigue syndrome (CFS) is a controversial illness of unknown etiology which appears to predominate among
women. This article employs a feminist social constructionist perspective to critically assess the biomedical and psychosocial literatures on CFS. The authors argue that the failure to demonstrate a viral etiology of CFS led to a paradigmatic shift in research perspectives. Substantial attention became directed to psychiatric components of CFS. The authors contrast this research focus with the divergent views of the nature and likely etiology of this illness represented in CFS patient’s accounts of their illness experiences. Moreover, current assumptions regarding the nature and etiology of CFS are contrasted with perspectives on multiple sclerosis and depressive disorders. Documentation of the gap between CFS patients and medical professionals adds to feminist critiques of medical practice. However, while this literature generally critiques processes of medicalisation of female states and highlights problems of biological reductionism, the CFS literature suggests that female illnesses may also evoke medical reactions which move in the opposite direction, entailing an over focus on psychological and psychosocial factors to the detriment of adequate attention to phenomena occurring at the biomedical level.

Rammstedt & Rammsayer (2001) study indicates that males rate their intelligence higher than females. The present study investigates gender differences in self-estimated intelligence of children and young adults. One hundred and twenty-four elementary school children aged eight to ten years and 243 high school children aged 12—15 years participated in the study. Self-ratings were obtained for 11 specific aspects of intelligence including Thurstone’s (1938) Primary Mental Abilities as well as musical, bodily-kinesthetic, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence as proposed by Gardner (1983). The results revealed that males do not estimate their intelligence generally higher than females. Across both age groups boys, in contrast to girls, rated their abilities higher in mathematical and spatial intelligence, perceptual speed, and logical reasoning. However, girls rated their musical intelligence higher than males. The study reveals that already a tendency for specific gender differences exists in prepubertal children which stabilises and becomes significant in pubertal children.

Azen, et. al. (2002) examined whether the measures used in the admission of students to universities in Israel are gender biased. The criterion used to measure bias was performance in the first year of university study; the predictors consisted of an admission score, a high school matriculation score, and a standardised test score as well
as its component subtest scores. Statistically, bias was defined according to the boundary conditions given by Linn (1984). No gender bias was detected when using the admission score (which is used for selection) as a predictor of first-year performance in the university. Bias in favour of women was found predominantly using school grades as predictor whereas bias against women was found predominantly in using the standardized test scores. It was concluded that the admission score is a valid and unbiased predictor of first-year university performance for the two genders.

Scourfield (2002) the application of social work knowledge and values in practice. It draws on ethnographic research in a child-care team in the UK which set out to explore the construction of clients as gendered. It is argued that social workers' accounts of practice reveal tensions between an emphasis on clients as individuals and an emphasis on social collectivity. These tensions could be seen as inherent in social work knowledge and values. There are various implications of these tensions between the individual and the social, but there is a particular focus in the paper on the implications for questions of gender. It concludes with some ideas for a theory for practice that would better equip social workers for the complex task of negotiating the gender tensions raised in the paper.

A research by Greene (2002) draws on detailed case studies of two trade unions and focuses on their women-only education courses. The author suggest that a greater understanding of the contribution of different types of trade union education to the advance of equality is a key factor in the ability of unions to maintain a central role at workplace level, within the context of an increasingly diverse labour market.

Margret & Marsiske (2002) study examined the objective and subjective experiences of older men and women's collaboration on their everyday problems. Tasks included comprehension of everyday printed materials, a social dilemma task, and an errand-planning task. A sample of 98 older married couples (N= 196) worked both collaboratively and individually with either their spouse (N= 52 dyads) or a stranger of the other gender (N = 46 dyads). Analyses conducted using the actor—partner methodology suggest that men tended to be more influential during dyadic problem solving, particularly on more ambiguous tasks. Subjective appraisals of collaboration also varied between male and female partners, with familiarity of partner playing a large role in expectations of collaboration. Most notably, women assigned to
work with an unfamiliar male partner tended to rate their satisfaction with collaborative teamwork less positively. Both self and partner-rated subjective appraisals, particularly expectations of competitiveness, were predictive of collaborative performance.

In Japan Employers have created a gendered employment strategy which has been supported by governments, through social welfare policies and legislation, and the mainstream enterprise union movement which has supported categorizations of part-time workers as ‘auxiliary’ despite their importance at the workplace. An analysis of one national supermarket chain indicates that part-time work as it is constructed in Japan does not challenge the gendered division of labour but seeks to lock women into the secondary labour market (Broadben, 2002).

Burt & Scott (2002) Using data from the British Household Panel Survey, examined relationships between early- and mid-adolescents’ gender role attitudes and the attitudes of their parents. Between 1994 and 1997, 602 families answered questions about the roles of husbands and wives, and whether or not having a working mother is harmful to families. Results confirmed that the gender differences that have been found consistently in the literature regarding adults extend back into early adolescence. Adolescent girls’ attitudes were markedly more nontraditional than all other family members. However, results only partially supported hypotheses regarding family influence on attitudes. In particular, they found little evidence that adolescent attitudes would more closely resemble those of the same-gender parent. Analysis of individual questions supports arguments that gender roles complex and socially determined, and that British men of both adult and adolescent—generations have begun in principle to accept nontraditional roles for wives but less willing to support any erosion of male power in the family.

Nora (2002) attempted to determine male and female medical students’ exposures to and perceptions of gender discrimination and sexual harassment (GD/SH) in selected academic and nonacademic contexts. An anonymous, self-report questionnaire was administered in the spring of 1997 to senior medical students at 14 US medical schools. Data were collected about students’ exposures to GD/SH during undergraduate medical education and outside the medical training environment. Students’ perceptions of GD/SH in various medical specialties and practice settings were also measured. Of the 1,911 administered, 1,314 were completed (response rate,
69%). Both men and women reported exposures to (GD/SH). More women than men reported all types of exposures to GD/SH across all academic and nonacademic contexts. Differences between men and women in the frequencies of exposures were greatest outside the medical training environment ($T = 15.67$, $df = 1171$, $p \leq .001$). Within academic medical training contexts, the differences by sex were most evident in core clerkships ($T = 11.17$, $df = 1176$, $p \leq .001$). Women students perceived the prevalence of GD/SH to be significantly ($p \leq .001$) higher in a number of medical specialties than did men. However, both groups believed these behaviours to be most common in general surgery and obstetrics—gynecology. Women perceived significantly more GD/SH in academic medical centres and community hospitals. Both groups perceived these behaviours to be significantly more prevalent in academic medical centres than in community hospitals, and more prevalent in community hospitals than in outpatient office settings. This study suggests that mistreatment in the form of (GD/SH) is prevalent in undergraduate medical education, particularly within core clerkships. Interventions focused on particular specialties and training periods may be helpful.

By Baker & Yardley (2002) examined the moderating effect of gender on the predictive relationships between a measure of sensation seeking and impulsivity and four adolescent substance use outcomes (monthly alcohol, tobacco, and marijuana use and number of times drunk). Four hundred and twenty Canadian secondary school students participated in the current study. A series of moderated hierarchical multiple regression analyses was used to examine relationships among study variables. Main-effect relationships were consistently found for sensation seeking-impulsivity with each outcome, but not for gender. However, gender was found to moderate the relationship between sensation seeking-impulsivity and alcohol use, suggesting that these relationships are more complex than previous literature suggests. Future implications are discussed in light of these results.

Schulman & Karney (2003) examined gender differences in attitudes towards nutrition therapy within first- and fourth-year medical students. Participants ($N = 128$) completed a computer self-administered questionnaire assessing attitudes towards nutrition therapy. Analysis of covariance revealed that females report significantly more positive attitudes toward nutrition than males do, controlling for age. The magnitude of the difference was the same in beginning and graduating medical
students. Gender differences in attitudes towards nutrition are not moderated by medical school socialization. Standardized nutrition education may be required to address disparities in knowledge, attitudes, and efficacy with regard to nutrition and preventive care measures.

Ohea et al. (2003) investigated differences in stage-of-change distribution, self-efficacy, and decisional balance, for three health behaviours. Five hundred fifty-four (males 107; females 447) low-income, predominantly African-American, patients completed stage-of-change, self-efficacy, and decisional balance scales for smoking cessation, exercise adoption, and dietary fat reduction. Males and females differ in stage of change for smoking and exercise but not dietary fat intake. Gender-specific interventions may be needed to promote certain health behaviour but not others and self-efficacy and decisional balance may be related differently stage of change in low-income populations.

Page & Bretherton (2003) investigated themes of violence and caring in the spontaneous play of preschool-aged children in response to a revised version of the Attachment Story Completion Task were analyzed in relation to their social behaviour in child-care settings. All children (N= 66, 39 boys) lived in post-divorce families, primarily in the custody of their mothers. Some story enactments of violence predicted negative social behaviour in child-care for both boys and girls. Other story enactments were strongly associated with gender and did not uniformly predict social behaviour suggesting that gender socialization plays a significant role in children's play representations of violence and caring. Implications for children's development and the interpretation of children's play behaviour are discussed.

Finco (2003) discussed the play of boys and girls, in a municipal centre of Early Childhood Education, discussing the conceived idea that boys and girls have predetermined roles and behaviours. It presents a reflection on the exchange of sex-roles in play, discussing about the toys considered 'right' and 'wrong' for each sex. The analysis opposes to researches that consider that boys and girls demonstrate behaviours, preferences, abilities and personality's attributes appropriated for their sex, following, since very young, the established norms and standards. Thereby, intently observing the transgressions of the sex-role during the play, this study proposes to deal with the
subject of gender relationships from a differentiated perspective, where the ‘adult is not the centre’, making possible to realize new forms of being boy and being girl.

Faury (2003) study of gender in social Work and of its importance for the teaching in Social Work. It presents the difficulties of including this theme in the process of formation of Social Workers, and makes a comparison between the situation of social exclusion experienced by the users of social programmes and projects, the actuation field of Social Work and the situation of gender exclusion, experienced by professionals and users, a group mostly constituted by women, in a feminization phenomenon of the profession. It points the area opened by the new curricular proposal for the Social Work courses (approved in the late 90's), which contemplates the possibility to work on a subject called ‘Gender and Social Work’ It recalls the question of professional competencies and the new requirements of professional formation besides suggesting a proposal on intervention with women, that should he adopted by both male and female professionals. It finally evidences that the studies of gender in Social Work may have a strategic dimension as they contribute to form critical and creative professionals.

Johnson (2004) examined the psychometric properties of a 16-item parent-report Gender Identity Questionnaire, originally developed by P. H. Elizabeth and R. Green (1984), to aid in the assessment of children with potential problems in their gender identity development. The questionnaire, which covered aspects of the core phenomenology of gender identity disorder (GID). was completed by parents of gender-referred children (N 325) and controls (siblings, clinic-referred, and non referred; N = 504), who ranged in age from 2.5 12 years (mean age, 7.6 years). Factor-analysis indicated that the gender-referred children had a significantly more deviant total score than did the controls, with a large effect size of 3.70. The GIQ total score had negligible age effects, indicating that the questionnaire has utility for assessing change over time. The gender-referred children who met the complete DSM criteria for GID had a significantly more deviant total score than did the children who were suhthreshold for GTD.

O’lynn (2004) maintains that in order to meet the recent call to increase the number of nurses by recruiting men, nursing education programmes will need to reduce gender-based barriers. No study found has adequately quantified the prevalence
and perceived importance of barriers to men in nursing education programmes. These barriers create an academic environment that is unfriendly to men. As such, the author defined a new construct, 'male friendliness as a function of the presence and importance of these barriers. The aims of this study were to describe the prevalence and perceived importance of barriers, and to develop a tool to measure male friendliness in nursing programmes. A pilot tool addressing 33 barriers, which were obtained from the literature, his experience, and a panel of nurse educators, was mailed to 200 male nurses. The findings revealed that seven barriers were importantly different in prevalence between different subsamples of male nurses, and no barrier was rated unimportant by more than 20% of respondents. The similarities in findings between groups of male nurses, diverse in geography, school attendance, and graduation dates, suggest that the barriers men face in nursing school are pervasive, consistent, and have changed little over time. From the findings, the Inventory of Male Friendliness in Nursing Programmes (TM FNP) was developed.

Lips (2004) investigated the current and possible academic self-views of university and high school students. In the first study, upper level university students were shown to diverge by gender in their current- and possible-self-views. Women reported more ability for and identification with the arts, communication, and social sciences; men reported more ability for and identification with mathematics, science technology, and business. Gender differences were greater with respect to possible future selves than to current selves. The second study included lower and upper level university students as well as high school students. Again, a gender divergence appeared among the university students; however, it was not as marked among high school students. Analyses showed that both women and men differed significantly across educational levels in their self-ratings and that, within the masculine-stereotyped academic domains linked to powerful careers, university women endorsed fewer possibilities for themselves that high school women did. These findings suggest that, as they make the transition from high school to university, young women may be actively closing off possibilities for their futures.

Goldberg & Zhang (2004) in a sample of 431 white-collar professionals, the authors examined the impact of gender and self-esteem on individuals' intentions to seek legal counsel, confront the harasser, and make formal reports within the
organization in response to approach, based same-sex sexual harassment. The authors hypothesized that gender, self-esteem and their interaction would be related to assertive responses. All three hypotheses received support: men were more likely than women to respond assertively; self-esteem was positively related to response intentions; and self-esteem had a greater impact on men's responses than on women's responses. These results suggest that frameworks used to describe responses to cross-sex sexual harassment may not be adequate for same-sex sexual harassment. Post hoc analyses revealed that perceiving the behavior as harassment mediated the relationship between self-esteem and the responses to harassment, but did not mediate the relationships between gender and the responses to harassment. These findings contribute to the research on acknowledging sexual harassment.

Schmader (2004) examined the cost of stereotype endorsement for women's self-perceptions career intentions, an susceptibility to stereotype threat in the math domain study 1, a survey of women majoring in math-related fields, resealed that women who believe that status differences between the sexes are legitimate were more likely to endorse gender stereotypes about women's math abilities, which in turn predicted more negative self-perceptions of math competence and less interest in continuing study in ones field. In Study 2, women who tended to endorse gender stereotypes were found to be more susceptible to the negative effects of stereotype threat on their math test performance the implications of these results for research on stereotype endorsement and women's math achievement are discussed.

Cunningham (2004) The purpose in this study was to provide a re-examination of the VCAA (National Collegiate Athletic Association) Vent and the extent to which the publication provides equitable coverage to women and men's teams. To do so, 5,745 paragraphs and 1,086 photograph from 24 issues (12 issues in 1999, 12 issues in 2001) were coded for: (1) gender: (2) size (3) location: and (4) content. Results were then compared to a standard (i.e. the proportion of female athletes competing in NCAA intercollegiate athletics). Results indicate that coverage in the NCAA News was more representative, with respect to the amount of text and number of photographs that it was in 1988 and 1991.

Mano-Negrin (2004) investigated on the Esping – Anderson approach to the classifications of welfare capitalist regime to test whether the determination of
managerial wages among women varies by type of welfare regime. Using a representative sample of public- and private-sector employees from five industrialized countries, the study shows that the joint effect of gender and employment sector on wages depends on the type of welfare regime and employment sector. Public-sector positions affect female managers’ wages in conservative countries, whereas private-sector placement has a significant effect on female managers’ wages in liberal and conservatism countries. The joint gender employment-sector effect has no impact on the determination of wages in social-democratic regimes. These findings suggest that the elaboration of nodes explaining gender-based differences in wages in a cross-national perspective need readjustment to control for country-level and policy-level effects with respect to women’s employment and wage attainments.

Carlson & Mellor (2004) examined an interactional approach to understanding how ethics of care opportunity and self—actualization opportunity, two job design variables, are related to job satisfaction. Ethics of care opportunity in a job is theorized to result in satisfaction when job incumbents have high relational self—definition. Self—actualisation opportunity in a job is theorized to result in satisfaction when incumbents have low relational self—definition. To the extent that women are likely to develop high relational self-definition, and men are likely to develop low relational self-definition, they hypothesized that the relationship between ethic of care opportunity and satisfaction would be strongest for women with high relational self—definition. They also hypothesized that the relationship between self—actualization opportunity and satisfaction— tam would be strongest for men with low relational self-definition. Hypotheses were tested in a sample of women (N = 119) and men (N — 115) with diverse job titles, and were supported. Results are discussed in terms of the strength of the job-design job satisfaction relationship for women and for men.

Martin (2004) suggested sociologists to study gender as a social institutions nothing that scholars apply the institutions concept to highly disparate phenomena, it reviews the history of the concept in twentieth-century sociology. The defining characteristic most commonly attributed to social institution is endurance (or persistence over time) while contemporary uses highlight practices, conflict, identity, power, and change. The author identifies twelve criteria for deciding whether any phenomenon is a social institution. She concludes that treating gender as an institution
will improve gender scholarship and social theory generally, increase awareness of
gender's profound sociality often a means of linking diverse theoretical and empirical
work, and make gender's ins invisible dynamics and complex intersections with other
institutions more apparent and subject to critical analysis and change.

**Fuller (2004)** Using a wide variety of measures of psychological well-being
obtained from a representative sample of married men and women in Bangkok,
Thailand. The authors examined gender differences in psychological well-being.
They found, in Bangkok, as in the United States, married men generally enjoy a
higher level of psychological wellbeing than do married women. They find no support
for role strain theory, but they do find support for role enhancement theory. They find
that social support has little effect on psychological well-being, but that social strain not
only has a significant effect on well-being but also largely accounts for gender
differences in well-being. The mixed findings suggest the importance of testing theories
in different societal contexts, for they may or may not be easily portable from one
culture to another.

**Beutel (2004)** to date, relatively little is known about the prosocial values of
adolescents. Research has shown that females attach more importance to certain
prosocial values than males do in late adolescence but has not considered whether this
gender difference is evident across stages of adolescence and whether it varies by race.
The authors examine values that focus on doing things for others, using data from a
nationwide survey to 12- to 17- year olds. They find that girls place more
importance on these prosocial values than boys at younger ages. However, they also
find important patterns in this gender difference across racial groups as well as across
age. White boys appear to attach less importance to prosocial values than other race and
gender groups. Furthermore, the gender gap in prosocial values is larger at older ages,
with older adolescent boys placing less importance on prosocial values than younger
ones.

**Johnson (2004)** examined gender and grade differences in the emotional
closeness of adolescents’ same- and cross-sex friendships. However, findings from
these studies have been inconsistent because they have failed to: (1) differentiate
between cross-sex friendships and romantic relationships; and (2) compare same- and
cross-sex friendships. In an attempt to clarify previous findings, gender and grade
differences in adolescent reports of emotional closeness within same- and cross-sex friendships were examined in the current study. Responses from 270 adolescents indicated gender differences in reports of time spent with their friends daily and levels of relationship closeness, cohesion, and commitment. Further, grade moderated relationship differences in reports of relationship cohesion and closeness. Differences in predictors of intimacy support previous studies that have found grade and gender differences in levels of intimacy in adolescents' same- and cross-sex friendships. Results also elaborate on previous research by indicating grade differences in adolescents' perceptions of cohesion and closeness in their same- and cross- sex friendships. Findings are discussed in terms of understanding differences in adolescent reports of intimacy within same- and cross-sex friendships.

**Carr & Chem (2004)** Globalization effects people differently, depending on who they are and what they do for a living: it opens up new opportunities for some, but increases the vulnerability of others. This article examined the employment outcomes of globalization with a special focus on processes and factors of social exclusion/inclusion that affect workers — particularly women employed in export-processing zones and those informally employed or self-employed in global value chains. The authors conclude with a set of specific recommendations for international national and local—level institutional and regulatory reform aimed at providing different categories of vulnerable workers with more secure and empowering opportunities.

**Mavin (2004)** investigated that UK business and management schools continued operate a gender blind approach (or at best gender neutral) to management education, research and the development of management theory. This echoes a pattern repeated in the practice of management, which closes down and inhibits opportunities for management to be ‘done differently’ and for organizations to be different. The aim in this paper is to critically scrutinize and enable a consciousness raising in ourselves and our audience by highlighting what we understand as gender blindness within management, management research and education. However, the issue of whether this gender blindness results from ‘not seeing’, ‘being unaware’, ‘suppressing gender’ or ‘gender defensiveness’ remains problematic. The authors conclude with a call for an
‘unlearning’ and a ‘rethinking’ of gender blind management education and provide some examples of how this might be achieved.

Lobel (2004) examined three age groups: early adolescents late adolescents and young adults. In addition the study investigated the relationship between self-perception of traditionally masculine and feminine characteristics and gender discriminatory behavior across these three age groups. The authors predicted that due to gender intensification and conformity that are characteristics of adolescence adolescents would evidence greater gender discriminatory behavior than young adults. Early and late adolescent males and young adult males (N = 3,233) were given a description of either an average or outstanding male candidate behaving stereotypically or counter stereotypically and were asked to indicate their personal election choice, the likelihood that others would choose each candidate and how successful he would he should he be elected. They were also asked to indicate their affinity and perceived similarity to the candidate in addition they completed an adapted form of the BSRI, measuring their self-perception of traditionally masculine and feminine characteristics. As predicted adolescents exhibited greater discriminatory behavior than young adults. No differences were found between the two. In addition feminine males evidenced less discriminatory behavior towards the counter stereotype male than the other gender role groups. The results are discussed within the framework of developmental changes.

Glascock (2004) examined gender and minority roles in daily newspaper comics. Fifty comics from four daily newspapers were sampled during a month-long period. Gender roles were found to be stereotypical. Women were underrepresented more likely than men to be married and have children and not as likely as men to have a job. More attention was paid to women’s appearance and female characters when they did work, had lower job status than did male characters. Activities and behaviors were also divided along gender lines. Female characters did more of the domestic work such as child care and household chores, and male characters did more hard work. Female characters were more verbally aggressive and most of the physical aggression was confined to adult dramas where men dominated. Minorities were basically nonexistent save for a few strips that included or focused upon African–Americans.

Eckes et. al. (2005) examined intergroup bias and perceived group variability regarding gender subgroups relevant to the adolescent culture. Participants were 126
high school students, between 16 years and 19 years of age, who listed male and female subgroups. performed a series of group perceptions tasks, and, for each subgroup, indicated whether they themselves belonged to the group. Results showed that adolescents’ perceptions of gender subgroups were subject to in-group favoritism and out-group derogation, as well as to group homogeneity effects. In line with predictions derived from Optimal Distinctiveness Theory, male and female participants favoured in-groups over own-gender and other-gender out-groups and favored other-gender out-groups over own-gender out groups. Ambivalence was particularly high with other-gender out-groups. The authors discussed implications for future research on the development of gender Prejudice and for interventions to reduce prejudice.

Duffy (2005) census data to assessed the consequences formulations of care work for understanding the intersections of gender, race, and economic inequalities in paid care. The nurturance conceptualization focuses on care as relationship while the reproductive labour framework includes both relational and non-relational jobs that maintain and reproduce the labour force. An empirical application of both models to the labour market shows that placing increasing theoretical emphasis on nurturing care privileges the experiences of white women and excludes large numbers of very-low-wage workers from consideration.

Cameron (2005) Unlike class or ethnicity, gender based differences are assumed to result from social difference not distance yet across multiple societies, researchers find that gender separation is practiced to varying degrees. Such separation creates distance. Preference for same gender affiliations emerges around age three, peaks in middle childhood and lessens during the teen years, yet persists in the workplace and later life. Though reasons for this are many, Thorne (1993:51) identified One finding in these terms. 'Where age separation is present gender separation is more likely to occur' Because age segregation varies with stage of life, one may predict that gender segregation would wax and wane across the lifespan. This study investigates this prediction with three sociolinguistic variables of Puerto Rican Spanish. In turn, it explored the prediction across other varieties of Spanish, German, and English, focusing on variables that are stable, undergoing change or in the end stage of loss.

Boulet & McKinley (2005) The ECFMG clinical skills Assessment (CSA) was evaluate whether graduates of international medical schools (IMGs) are ready to enter
graduate training programmes in the United States. The patient note (PN) exercise is specifically used to assess a candidate’s ability to summarize and synthesize the data collected in a simulated patient interview. In a one-year period, over 7,700 first time takers completed the CSA, resulting in over 77,000 physician based Performance ratings. An initial pilot study indicated that, based solely on handwriting the raters were able to correctly classify the gender of the candidate approximately 70% of the time. This result, combined with the fact that the notes are holistically scored suggests that rating bias is possible. The purpose of this study was to investigate whether the gender of the candidate the gender of the performing standardized patient, and the gender of the rater had any impact on scores. An analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) indicated that there was no significant interaction between candidate and rater gender. Female candidates significantly outperformed males, regardless of rater gender (p < 0.01, effect size = 0.23). The results of this study suggest that, based on rater, SP, and candidate characteristics the validity of the PN ratings is not compromised.

Bhanot & Jovanoic (2005) In explored the possibility that when parents endorse particular academic gender stereotypes (e.g., boys are better at math, girls are better at English) they are more likely to engage in uninvited intrusions with homework intrusions which then underline children’s confidence in these domains. Participants included 38 fifth to eighth grade students (mean age = 12.16 years, (60% girls, 87% white) and their mothers and fathers. The findings indicated that even though boys received more parental intrusive support with homework, girls were more sensitive to these intrusions specifically when they involved math. Parents’ intrusive support mediated the relationship between parents’ math related gender stereotypes and girls’ math ability perceptions which suggests that these behaviours communicate to girls their parents’ math stereotype beliefs.

Klomsten et.al (2005) investigated possible gender differences in how 357 secondary school students valued the importance of masculine and feminine characteristics within sport and physical education and how their ratings of values were related to their participation in gendered sport. The results indicated that boys rated appearance strength, sports competence endurance strength, and masculinity as significantly more important than did girls. Girls rated appearance good looking face, appearance slender, and femininity as significantly more important than did boys.
Further, more boys participated in traditionally masculine sports, whereas girls to a greater extent participated in traditionally feminine sports. A discriminate function analysis separated the masculine sport group from the feminine sport group, which suggests that higher scores on the masculine function were indicative of lower value on appearance slender and flexibility, accompanied by higher value on appearance strength and masculinity. For the feminine sport group, this Pattern was the opposite.

Estevéz Abe (2005) explained patterns of occupational segregation by gender in advanced industrial societies. This new approach brings together insights from two critical literatures: the varieties of capitalism literature and feminist studies of welfare states. The central claim is that firm-specific skills discriminate against women, whereas general skills are more gender-neutral. This article thus attributes cross-national variations in occupational segregation to differences in national skill profiles: those countries in which a large number of employers rely on firm-specific skills experience greater degrees of occupational segregation by gender. This work also explored the potential interactive effects of social policy regimes and national skill profiles on occupational segregation by gender.

Iversen (2005) showed how cross national variation market attributes social policies affecting female employment and divorce laws affect both female labour force participation and divorce These in turn lead to a systematic gendered pattern in the preferences for government spending on social services. By analyzing data on household division of labour and divorce, the authors show that a politically and institutionally mediated bargaining model better explains choices over allocation of work than does Becker's economic model, which assumes a single family utility function. This analysis suggests the fruitfulness of investigating how labour markets and public policies shape gender stereotypes and for how child support.

Herd (2005) investigated a key challenge facing western welfare states is that they offset income risks faced by thee in breadwinner families. Social Security is an excellent example. It best protects individuals with lengthy work histories or individuals who get married, oar married, and are never employed. Most women fit neither model. Thus, the author analyses 'women friendly' approaches (benefit improvements for parents or those divorced) and a social democratic approach (minimum benefit) to reform. Benefits disconnected from marital status (parent and
minimum benefits) are most effective at insuring against the new risks women face. Women friendly approaches, however, tend to reinforce inequality among women. Ultimately, her results emphasis that analyses must account for the intersection of gender, race, and class to understand how the state shapes stratification.

**Martin & Marsh (2005)** the authors explored impact of student gender, teacher gender, and their interaction on academic motivation and engagement for 964 junior and middle high school students. According to the gender-stereotypic model, boys fare better academically in classes taught by males and girls fare better in classes taught by females. The gender-invariant model suggests that the academic motivation and engagement of boys and girls is the same for men and women teachers. They also examined the relative contribution of student-, class-, and school-level factors, finding that most variation was at the individual student level. Of the statistically significant main effects for gender, most favoured girls. In support of the gender-invariant model, academic motivation and engagement does not significantly vary as a function of their teacher's gender, and in terms of academic motivation and engagement, boys do not fare any better with male teachers than female teachers.

**Kuhn (2005)** investigated gender differences in political orientations were consistently found in empirical studies, particularly in youth studies. Thus, compared with male adolescents, female adolescents often come off badly in regard to pivotal political orientations like political interest and subjective political competence. Conversely, female adolescents demonstrate even more interest and involvement than males when less conventional issues and modes of political participation are concerned. How could this be explained? First of all, the article classifies the field of political orientations into five large areas and gives a detailed overview of the findings of empirical research. Subsequently, different approaches of gender differences in political orientations are presented: biology, situation, structure, socialization, personality development, and feminist political science. Finally, a stronger integrative perspective of the different approaches is argued, and a more comprehensive view on gender differences in political orientations is suggested.

**Lee (2007)** examined gender differences in election campaigns with a specific focus on whether professional orientation, defined as the extent to which a politician sees politics as a career its own ladder of advancement would suppress gender
differences. This is because candidates with higher levels of professional orientation may tend to see themselves primarily as 'politicians' instead of as women or men. A content analysis of 836 candidates' campaign leaflets in a local level election in Hong Kong was conducted. The results showed some differences in the extent to high women and men candidate mentioned certain issues and used certain appeals in their platforms. However, when gender difference existed. They were more pronounced among candidates with weaker professional orientation.

Murthy et al. (2008) analyzed of the impact of two phases of a bio-agriculture and credit project of M. S. Svaminathan Research Foundation (MSSRF) in southern India, this article argue that there is no automatic link between agriculture and credit projects goals of increasing efficiency, reducing women's poverty, and women's empowerment - It posits that these links have to be consciously- fostered through particular measures. Supporting women's economic efficiency as a means to farther their empowerment must be differentiated from increasing women's efficiency for other goals.

Kantola (2008) analysed of the gendering processes among PhD candidates in a political science department. It uses Joan Acker's theory of gendered organizations operating through four dimensions: the gendered division of labour, gendered interaction, gendered symbols and gendered interpretations of one's position in the organization. The article combines this approach with theories of hidden discrimination. The key theoretical aim is to contribute to gendered organizational theory by examining the ways in which hidden discrimination and the gendered organization work together. This generates detailed and differentiated knowledge about the mechanisms of hidden discrimination that produce gender inequalities in the department. The findings presented in this article joint to the role of gendered division of labour and the lack of information about departmental practices. PhD supervision by men is a particularly strong structural barrier for women because of the gendered nature of interaction in supervision and the difficulties that female PhD students have in a male-dominated environment. The article further contributes to debates on gendered organizations by focusing upon the gendered symbols of expertise in political science. These symbols reproduce the man as the political scientist norm and result in women interpreting their own position us marginal or as outsiders.
2.2 Study related to Violence

Gentemann (1984) analyzed data collected in a cross-sectional survey of adult North Carolina women. The focus is on the acceptance, justification, and perceived causes of wife beating. The Beating Justification Index (BJI) was developed and compared with attitudinal and demographic information. The results showed that nearly all respondents reject norms which approve of wife beating, but that a substantial minority (18.8%) accepts the idea of situations in which beatings are justified. The perceptions of causes of wife beating are explored. Over 20% blame the victim for her beatings. Social learning theory and structural theories are strongly supported as an explanation for why men beat women. Conventional wisdom which attributes beatings to the use of alcohol is less extensively held. Education is described as a major predictor of attitudes about the justification of beatings, and explanations are discussed regarding the relationship between the BJI, age, marital status, income, and other demographic variables. Findings regarding the relationship between sex role attitudes and attitudes toward wife abuse are presented. A 'cycle of paralysis' is identified in which the general public rationalizes abuse, the victim internalizes that rationalization, not making her victimization known, resulting in the public never changing its conceptions of abuse. Conclusions center on the need for public disclosure of the problem and for egalitarian sex role socialization.

While emergency shelters for domestic violence victims aid thousands of abused women and their children each year, they continue to be plagued with negative stereotypes and misconceptions about their specific role in helping battered women cope with their violent situations. Critics of women's shelters are under the impression that these shelters facilitate the break-up of the family unit by persuading the battered woman to leave her husband and thus, promote divorce. A closer examination of the legal system and of federal guidelines for financial assistance is needed to explain why many women file for divorce following physical and mental abuse (Stone, 1984).

Nordling, et. al. (2000) examined prevalence and consequences of self-reported sexual abuse among 164 male and 22 female practitioners of sadomasochistic sex. A questionnaire exploring psychological health, social adjustment, and sexual behavior was distributed among members of two sadomasochistically oriented clubs. The results showed that the prevalence of self-reported sexual abuse was higher among the
participants as compared to the general Finnish population norms. Also, the participants that reported abuse were more likely to have attempted suicide, to have sought psychological support, and to have visited a physician due to physical injuries. Self-reported sexual abuse was also associated with poorer social adjustment, and higher sexual neuroticism. Further, the higher the frequency of abuse, the poorer the body image of the abused male participants.

Yahia, (2000) focusing on 1111 engaged Arab women in Israel, examined the different patterns of abuse and battering they experienced by their fiancés. The results revealed that between 8% and 48% of the respondents had experienced psychological aggression by their partners and between 1% to 10% had experienced physical aggression. Moreover, between 5% and 11% of the respondents had experienced acts of sexual abuse at least once during the engagement period. In addition, some mental health consequences of these experiences were examined. Analysis of variance revealed that, when negotiation tactics were not used to resolve conflicts and when respondents had experienced different patterns of abuse and battering by their fiancés, they also expressed relatively low levels of self-esteem and relatively high levels of depression, anxiety, and stress.

Heckert et. al. (2000) conducted a quantitative thematic analysis of 162 women's accounts of domestic violence to assess structure and content. Most women presented domestic violence as a ‘story’ with an introduction, body and a conclusion: 59% presented a ‘complete story’ and 33% a ‘near story.’ Background information and problem statements were the most prevalent content statements in the ‘introduction,’ relationship issues and explanations were most common in the ‘conclusion.’ Bivariate analyses revealed that accounts did not vary by socio-demographic factors and severity of the incident. Men were less likely to present complete stories, had far briefer narratives and never discussed relationship issues. Knowledge of the structure and content of women’s accounts provides greater understanding of women’s responses to violence.

Krane, et. al. (2003) the investigated violence against women in intimate relations and the experiences of ethno racial minority women. During the last decade, empirical attention has been given to ethnoracial group variations vis-à-vis the nature, extent, and definitions of the problem, women’s help-seeking, and service needs.
Applying in intersectional framework, in this paper the authors suggest that these efforts are largely based on an approach that views ethnicity and 'race' as static and immutable entities; heterogeneity within groups goes unrecognized, as do interactive elements of social location. The paper commences with a synopsis of intersectionality. Through this lens, the authors examine dominant North American scholarship on violence related to ethnoracial? minority women in intimate relations. They look critically at the assumptions about ethnicity and 'race' that permeate this scholarship. The paper concludes by considering an intersectional approach might offer direction in exploring ethnoracial minority women's experiences of violence

Kaye (2001) reported that domestic violence not only violates women's rights, but is also associated with adverse consequences ranging from physical injury to psychological morbidity. Several studies have associated domestic violence with risk of having an induced-abortion. The domestic violence may not cause unwanted pregnancy, but may be the reason that leads victim to resort to abortion.

Rudd, J. (2001) examined phenomenon of dowry-murders in India, as an example of the ways in which violence against women is perpetuated on a global scale. As the capitalist-patriarchal structure continues to perpetuate and strengthen, women need to understand and address its effects across nation states. The example of the Indian Women's Movement in combating violence against women can be universalised as a model for prevention of violence against women.

Yeelee (2001) a made a cross-sectional survey to examine the perception of sexual violence against women and help-seeking responses to sexual victimization among four Asian groups; Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Southeast Asian (Cambodian, Laotians, and Vietnamese). The authors examined respondents' perception of the severity of the problem of sexual violence against women for Asian American populations, the perceived relationships between perpetrators and victims, the preferred preventive measures, and help-seeking responses. Findings indicated a split opinion among the four Asian groups regarding the perceived severity of the problem. There was a perceived insignificant role of family members in inflicting sexual violence, a general tendency of not choosing an immediate, confrontative stance against the perpetrator to stop sexual violence, and a preference to utilize help from the private domain in situations of sexual victimization. In addition, findings of the study
supported the role of shame in deterring individuals from seeking outside professional help and demonstrated the existence of inter-group differences among various ethnic groups. At the same time, findings of the study raise important questions pertaining to the role of family members in sexual victimization of women, changing perceptions, inter-group differences, and the importance of localized knowledge in generating intervention efforts.

Salazar, & Cook (2002) analysed ten years of psychological research on domestic violence, sexual assault, and sexual harassment. They found that almost half reported an examination of causal factors. Only one quarter reported intervention studies. Most studies focused at the individual level of analysis and few included contextual factors. Investigators explored questions about domestic violence most frequently among samples of victims and perpetrators drawn from clinical settings. Sexual assault and sexual harassment researchers depended on victims and perpetrators to a lesser extent, but tended to rely upon convenience samples from college settings. Representative community samples were used in only 9% of studies. These findings support the view that psychological research on violence against women suffers from a heavy emphasis on exceptionalism at the expense of a universalistic perspective, the latter of which the authors contended is critical to advancing the field and reducing a major threat to women's health and well-being.

Petersen R. et al. (2003) explored women's perspectives about how to enhance services for those who experience intimate partner violence (IPV) and how to improve the links between such services and the health care setting. Coding and theme analyses were conducted to assess new ideas and/or common themes among the groups. Participants identified currently available services for women experiencing IPV, including health care providers, police and the legal system, domestic violence shelters, and churches. Participants discussed existing barriers to addressing violence within the health care system, including cost of medical services, risk of having social services remove their children, violence being too personal to discuss, and doctors' inability to provide what they thought victims really needed. Participants agreed that the most important role for providers would be referrals to useful services (advocacy, job training, and financial support). Participants also emphasised the need for community-based prevention efforts.
Cohen, J.B. et al. (2003) The Methamphetamine Treatment Project offers the opportunity to examine the history of abuse and violence in a sample of 1016 methamphetamine user participating in a multisite study between 1999—2001. Reporting of abuse and violence was extensive, with 80% of women reporting abuse or violence from a partner. Men were more likely to report experiencing violence from friends and others. A high percentage of study participants reported a variety of threatening or coercive experiences with their partners. Past and current interpersonal violence is a characteristic of the lifestyles of the majority entering treatment for methamphetamine dependence.

Buzi, R.S. et al. (2003) explored whether a history of sexual abuse is associated with high-risk sexual behaviours among female adolescents attending alternative schools in a large urban city in the southwestern United States, and to examine the role of depression and substance abuse in explaining this association. One hundred and eighty-four sexually active female adolescents constituted the sample for this analysis. Forty-nine (26.6%) reported that they were forced to have sex. Having a history of sexual abuse substantially increased sexual risk behaviours. Adolescents reporting a history of sexual abuse, compared to those who did not report such a history, were significantly more likely to have initiated sexual activity (intercourse) before age 14, to have had three or more sexual partners in the last three months, and to have had a history of sexually transmitted diseases. They concluded that adolescents with a history of sexual abuse have greater difficulty practicing safe sexual behaviours than do those who have not been sexually abused. Given the prevalence of child sexual abuse and the extent of its impact, it is critical that intervention strategies for adolescent females address the issue of abuse and help them adopt self-protective sexual behaviours.

Galvani (2004) placed a theoretical model, 'Responsible Disinhibition'. The model is grounded in the women's views and highlights individual responsibility for violence regardless of the level of intoxication. Finally, this article argues that theory needs to reflect the socio-cultural context in which it was constructed—a context that combines two culturally male and culturally tolerated behaviours—heavy drinking and violent behaviour.
Hammons, (2004) explored meso- and micro-level forces that affect the battered women’s movement, as found in one particular women’s shelter. The findings suggest that although the larger social movement may encourage the examination of battering from a systemic perspective, shelter workers adopt a more narrow, psychological interpretation. Shelter workers adopt this perspective because of the socialisation that occurs within the shelter context itself, which employees then replicate to be seen as competent.

Buzy (2004) examined relation between female adolescents’ general alcohol use and their experience of relationship violence. This relation was examined both cross-sectionally and longitudinally, controlling for the proximal (i.e., situational) effects of alcohol use. One hundred and six female high school students reported on their experiences of physical violence and sexual coercion by boyfriends, general patterns of alcohol use, victimisation experiences while drinking, and hypothesised covariates including demographic and relationship variables and illicit drug use. Variables were assessed at two time points four months apart. Results indicated that general alcohol use was related to victimisation both cross-sectionally and longitudinally, but different findings emerged for different forms of victimisation (physical-only victimisation vs. both physical and sexual victimisation).

Bogat, et. al. (2005) investigated the relationships among women’s experiences of domestic violence, community violence, and their mental health. Results revealed that women’s experiences of domestic violence were not related to community Violence. Furthermore women’s mental health functioning was solely associated with their experiences of domestic violence not with community violence.

Stags & Riger (2005) examined relationships among abuse, health, and employment stability using data from a three-year study of over 1,000 female welfare recipients in Illinois. Results demonstrate the importance of accounting for both recency and chronicity of intimate partner violence and understanding the mediational role of health in the relationship between intimate partner violence and employment. Chronic intimate partner violence is associated with poor health, whereas recent intimate partner violence is associated with unstable employment.

Sternberg (2005) examined the effects of both Childhood and teenage experiences of domestic violence on adolescent—parent attachments Israeli adolescents.
(M = 15.9 years) who were either victims of physical abuse, witnesses of physical spouse abuse, victims and witnesses of abuse, or neither victims nor witnesses of abuse were questioned about attachments to their parents using the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment IPPA1. Abuse status five years earlier was unrelated to the adolescents’ current perceptions of their attachments whereas current abuse status predicted the adolescents’ perceptions of attachment to their mothers. Adolescents who were victims of physical abuse reported weaker attachments to their parents than adolescents who were not abused or who had solely witnessed interparental physical abuse. Attachments to mothers were weaker whether or not mothers were the perpetrators of abuse. These findings suggest that victimisation adversely affects children’s perceptions of relationships with their parents, but that changes in the exposure to family violence are associated with changes in relationships with parents. These findings suggest that intervention can have positive effects on parent—child relationships despite violent histories.

Kohl, et. al. (2005) explored the role of domestic violence in child welfare services (CWS) using data from the National Survey of Child and Adolescent Well-Being, a large, national probability sample of families investigated for child maltreatment. It relies on child welfare worker report of active DV or a history of DV to examine the association of DV with child maltreatment type, substantiation, and placement of children into out of home care. Maltreatment type classification was similar for children with and without exposure to DV. Families with active DV were substantiated for child maltreatment at higher rates than other groups, but DV was not a powerful contributor to the CWS decision-making process. Families with occurring DV and maltreatment often had high levels of cumulative risks, and children in families with the highest level of cumulative risk were ten times more likely to be placed into foster care than children in families assessed with low levels of risk. The policy and practice implications of these findings are discussed.

Kohl, et. al. (2005) used data from the National Survey of Child and Adolescent Well Being to examine the identification of domestic violence (DV) by child welfare workers during investigations of maltreatment and determine how this contributes to the receipt of DV services. The study focused on female caregivers of children remaining in the home following the investigation (N = 3165). While child
welfare workers indicate that active DV is present in only 12% of families investigated for maltreatment 31% of caregivers reported DV victimisation in the past year. The sensitivity of reports of DV is low between caregivers and workers, with both reporting active or recent DV in only 8% of families. Substance abuse by the primary caregiver is a strong predictor of under identification of DV by the child welfare worker (OR = 7.6). Overall, about half of the caregivers with active DV identified by the worker received DV services over the 18 months following the investigation. Logistic regression analyses examined whether receipt of child welfare services (CWS) increases the likelihood that a referral will be made to DV services and whether caregivers will then obtain these services. Both the identification of DV by the worker and having an open CWS case are significant contributors to receipt of DV services.

McHugh (2005) investigated patterns of interpersonal violence; by examining interpersonal violence with the context of lifespan and culture; by positing or testing theoretical models for gender and interpersonal violence; and by arguing for methodological or conceptual advances in the field. The authors observed improvements in self-report measures, partner violence measurement lacks a gold standard. A gold standard would include incident data, sexual violence, injury, and be developed through direct comparison of multiple methods, including perhaps real-time self-monitoring.

Williams & Frieze (2005) Examined six patterns of violent relationships (severe and mild victimisation, perpetration, and mutual violence) and their associations with psychosocial outcomes in men and women (N = 3,519) using data from the National Comorbidity Survey. Violence patterns most frequently reported included mild and severe violence performed by both relationship partners. Some gender differences in frequency of patterns emerged. Main results showed gender differences and some similarities in associations between violence patterns and negative psychosocial outcomes. Women's victimisation, regardless of severity, was more strongly related to psychosocial outcomes than men's. Yet, additional findings revealed gender similarities, with both men and women affected by mutual violence. Post hoc analyses further suggested that some individuals were satisfied and had relatively low distress, despite violence.
Bookwala (2005) examined the relationship between age, gender, and marital aggression by comparing conflict resolution strategies, physical aggression, and injury across 6,185 married young, middle and older aged men and women. The authors found a consistent age effect such that younger participants used more maladaptive conflict resolution.

Lendhorst & Padgett (2005) made an analysis of qualitative interviews with ten battered welfare clients and 15 frontline welfare. They found that none of the ten clients in the study received services of family welfare option under welfare reform. This lack of services reflects four critical disjuncture between the formal policy and the policy experienced by the clients. It also reveals several more basic structural factors that provide conflicting mandates to frontline workers. Frontline workers' discretionary behaviours enforce core rules related to welfare eligibility and reduce welfare caseloads but do not provide violence-related services to victims.

Whaley (2007) examined and extended this work through a qualitative study of women on probation or parole in a western US county. In-depth interviews were conducted with 14 women who participated in a larger study in which only questionnaire data were collected. Participants completed a brief telephone interview about prior experiences of partner violence and then a face-to-face extensive in-person interview. In the analyses, several notable themes emerged regarding the women's histories of child victimisation, partner abuse, substance abuse, coercion into crime, and a lack of support services. Partner violence may play an important role in the genesis and maintenance of the criminality of a significant proportion of women, and should be acknowledged and addressed as part of programmes intended to decrease recidivism.

Luke (2008) analysed the current debate over whether girls' violence is increasing. An examination of the evidence and arguments reveals that public and professional concern over girls' violence is more reflective of cultural anxiety over changing social norms regarding race and gender than an actual increase in girls' violence.

Sunday, et. al. (2008) examined relationship physical abuse of adolescents and parenting by mothers and fathers and whether the association differs by gender. Subjects were adolescents, 51 girls and 45 boys, documented by Child Protective Services (CPS) as physically abused during adolescence. Comparison subjects were
non-abused adolescents, 47 girls and 48 boys, from the same suburban communities. Subjects completed the following: Family Adaptability and Cohesion Evaluation Scale, Parental Bonding Instrument, modified Conflict Tactics Scale (assessing physical abuse! punishment by each parent). Although CPS generally cited fathers as the abuse perpetrators, abused boys and girls often reported experiencing physical maltreatment from both parents. Not surprisingly, comparison subjects rated parents more positively than abused subjects. For both groups, mothers were perceived as more caring and less controlling, were reported to have closer relationships with their adolescents, and were less likely to use abuse/harsh punishment than were fathers. Differences between the adolescents’ perceptions of mothers and fathers were more pronounced for abused than for comparison subjects. Boys’ and girls’ perceptions of parenting were generally similar except that girls, especially the abused girls, reported feeling less close to fathers. Abused girls also viewed mothers as less caring than the other groups viewed mothers. Abused girls were also less likely than abused boys to perceive that either parent, but particularly fathers, had provided them with an optimum style of parenting. Adolescents who experienced relatively mild physical abuse reported dysfunctional family relationships, which may place them at risk of poor adult outcome. Adolescents’ reports suggest that CPS reports may underestimate physical maltreatment by mothers.

Gilson & Lancaster (2008) examined childhood sexual abuse in Australian childbearing adolescents and the contribution of abuse variables (sexual and physical abuse) to antenatal and postpartum depression and anxiety in adolescents. The prevalence of physical abuse before the age of 16 years was 20.5% and 900 of adolescents met the criteria for sexual abuse. Overall, 20.5% adolescents experienced some kind of abuse (sexual or physical) and 9% experienced both sexual and physical abuse. An experience of sexual and/or physical abuse was related to depression and anxiety in the postpartum, but not during pregnancy. The difficulties associated with the transition to parenting may be exacerbated for adolescent Child bearers who have a history of abuse, and in turn, may increase vulnerability to experiencing depression and anxiety. Depression and anxiety may increase perceived stress and compromise their functioning and their ability to parent.

Sormanti & Shibusawa (2008) examined both the prevalence of intimate partner violence (IPV) among a sample of women ages 50 to 64 (N = 620), who were
recruited at an emergency department and primary care clinics in an urban setting, and the associated factors for the subsample of these women who reported IPV (n 34). More than 5 percent of the women reported experiencing some form of abuse by their partners within the past two years. Bivariate analyses comparing victims and non-victims indicate that higher proportions of women who reported abuse had received public assistance and had a recent history of homelessness. In addition, victims of IPV reported higher frequencies of HIV risk factors than did non-victims, including having a partner who insisted on sex without a condom, having sex with a man they knew or suspected was an IV drug user and experiencing symptoms or receiving a diagnosis or treatment for a sexually transmitted infection. Significantly higher percentages of abused women reported being tested for HIV and being HIV seropositive. Implications of the findings for social workers are discussed.

The main findings of a study by Enander & Holmberg (2008) the processes undergone by women who have left abusive male partners. Three overlapping leaving processes are described: Breaking Up, Becoming Free, and Understanding Breaking Lip covers action (i.e., the physical breakup), and the turning point by which it is preceded to with which it coincides is analysed. Becoming Free covers emotion and involves release from the strong emotional bond to the batterer, a process that entails four stages. Understanding covers cognition, and is a process in which the woman perceives and interprets what she has been subjected to as violence and herself as a battered woman.

Riddell, et. al. (2008) examined the strategies rural women use to deal with intimate partner violence (IPV). The Intimate Partner Violence Strategies Index (IPVSI) was used to analyse results from a sample of 43 rural women who had left abusive partners. Qualitative interviews then were conducted with a different sample of nine rural women to explore their perspectives about the findings and their impressions of the influence of rural culture and context on women's experiences of IPV. Findings exposed the degree to which social control acts as a key determinant of health for rural women exposed to IPV.

Barranti & Yuen (2008) explored the unique experiences and the dimensions of intimate partner violence (IPV) in the lives of women with disabilities is in its infancy. This article attempts to highlight multidimensional factors for consideration in
addressing the needs of women with disabilities who are victims of abuse and violence. Risk factors related to the vulnerability that disabilities pose for IPV victimization are explored in relation to consequent limitations of the traditional models of domestic violence. Feminist disability theory as a viable theory for framing meaningful research and informing effective and accessible prevention and intervention for women with disabilities who are victims of IPV is introduced.

2.3 Study related to Quality of Life

Life satisfaction is generally measured in one of two ways. Global measures assess overall life satisfaction and are based on the so-called top-down theory of life satisfaction. The theory focuses on a person's ongoing sense of satisfaction as a whole. The domain-specific, bottom-up theory, which holds that overall satisfaction is a product of satisfaction in specific domains, or areas of life, is based on the assumption that we compartmentalize our feelings and assessments of life, and each compartment contributes to overall life satisfaction.

Krause (1991) present obtained from a nationwide Quality of Life Survey with 3,692 persons. Of those aged 60 years and older, the specific target population for this study, there were 805 subjects. Sixty-two percent of the sample were women, and average age was 69.2 years. Subjects were asked to answer a series of questions designed to assess illness, financial loss, satisfaction with health, satisfaction with finances, and demographics. Support was found for the bottom-up theory. For example, older adults who had recently experienced some sort of financial loss tended to be less satisfied with the financial aspects of their lives than those who had not experienced financial loss, and there was a significant effect of financial loss on global life satisfaction. As predicted by the bottom-up theory, financial stress did not contribute specifically to degree of satisfaction with health. One unexpected, and incongruous, result was that recent serious illness did not seriously affect global life satisfaction. In general, the data supported the bottom-up, domain-specific construct of life satisfaction, and highlighted the importance of considering stressors encountered within specific life domains as affecting global life satisfaction.

Ekeberg et. al. (1994) assessed Quality of life 4–6 months after an acute myocardial infarction in a randomized double-blind study of enalapril versus placebo. Quality of life was evaluated using the Nottingham Health Profile (NHP), the Physical
Symptoms Distress Index (PSDI), the Work Performance Scale (WPS) and the Life Satisfaction Index (LSI). The study comprised 36 women (aged 46–85 years, mean 68) and 96 males (aged 39–81 years, mean 62). Quality of life did not differ significantly between patients treated with enalapril versus placebo after an acute myocardial infarction. However, it was reduced in patients with angina pectoris or heart failure and in those who continued smoking.

Coons, et al. (1997) assessed of quality of life in women living with HIV/AIDS. Findings from the investigation illustrated differences in results when a general, symptom-focused inventory of quality of life is administered in contrast to an HIV/AIDS specific measure which includes physical functioning as well as psychosocial, relational and financial issues; changes in quality of life when the disease course is considered; quality of life issues which emerge when stressors common among women with HIV/AIDS are included; and how measures based on men's experience with illness do not adequately capture quality of life issues for women. The researchers come to conclusion that assessment of quality of life in women living with HIV/AIDS must address the social and relational context in which women cope with the disease in addition to physical symptoms and activities of daily living.

This study by Kalichman, et al. (2000) examined the prevalence and characteristics of suicidal ideation among middle-aged and older persons who have HIV infection or AIDS. Results showed that Twenty-seven percent of respondents reported having thought about taking their own life in the previous week. Those who had thought about suicide reported greater levels of emotional distress and poorer health-related quality of life than those who had not considered suicide. They were also significantly more likely to use escape and avoidance strategies for coping with HIV infection and less likely to use positive-reappraisal coping. Those who had thought about suicide also were more likely to have disclosed their HIV status to the people close to them, and yet they perceived receiving significantly less social support from friends and family. Thus, Persons who are in midlife and older and are living with HIV/AIDS experience significant emotional distress and thoughts of suicide, suggesting a need for targeted interventions to improve mental health and prevent suicide.

Singh, et.al. (2007) compared women and men veterans' health-related quality of life (HRQOL) and VA health care utilization and to see if previously described
associations between HRQOL, subsequent VA health care utilization, and mortality in male veterans would generalize to women veterans. Results revealed that Compared to men, women veterans receiving VA health care in the upper Midwest catchment area had better HRQOL and used fewer health services. Although VA health care utilization was similar across gender after adjusting for HRQOL, poorer mental or physical health was associated with fewer primary care stops for selected subgroups of women.

Wiesel (2000) examined perceptions of past sexual abuse experiences and quality of life among, adult survivors of childhood sexual abuse. Fifty-two adult survivors (15 men, 37 women) of childhood paternal sexual abuse who had completed therapy were interviewed about their past and current life. A qualitative analysis of the interviews revealed three types of explanations for the offenders' abusive behavior (fathers and/or mothers in terms of compliance): characteristics of the offender-parent (incestuous father), the victim's characteristics; and circumstantial conditions. The results indicated that a' higher percentage of survivors who attributed the abuse to the offender's characteristics managed to keep their self-esteem fairly intact and had a higher quality of life, in contrast to survivors who took full blame on themselves or blamed situational factors. The results further revealed that male survivors judged their quality of life as less satisfactory than did female survivors.

Riedinger, et. al. (2002) compared the quality of life of women with heart failure with that of a normative group and with that of women with other chronic conditions. Compared with the normative group of women, women with heart failure had significantly lower global quality of life; worse vigor, intermediate activities of daily living, social activity, and general health ratings; and higher ratings for anxiety and depression. Fewer than half of the women with heart failure felt that they were healthy enough to perform normal activities.

Wijnhoven, et. al. (2003) identified and explained differences between men and women with asthma regarding health-related quality of life (HRQoL).In all age groups, women reported more severe dyspnea but had higher levels of pulmonary function. The poorer HRQoL reported by women could be explained by a more severe dyspnea and a higher level of medication use in women. The finding that women with asthma aged 16–34 and 56–75 years report poorer HRQoL than men is not due to a
more severe disease state in terms of pulmonary obstruction but does seem to be related to a more severe subjective disease state in women than in men.

**Dietz, et. al. (2003)** described the overall health-related quality of life of female long-term colorectal cancer survivors and the factors that may modify their levels of quality of life. Female long-term survivors of colorectal cancer appear to report health-related quality of life comparable with that of similarly aged women in the general population. These data suggest that, over the long term, factors attributable to aging, body weight, and chronic medical conditions play more dominant roles in determining physical and mental health than factors related to the initial colorectal cancer diagnosis.

**Hou, et. al. (2004)** examined interactions of age and sex with health-related quality of life longitudinally. A total of 165 patients (52% women; mean age, 57.6 years) completed interviews at baseline and 26 weeks later. At baseline, patients younger than 65 years had poorer health-related quality of life scores on total scales and some subscales than did older patients. Women had poorer scores than did men on some scales, particularly the emotional subscales. At 26 weeks, patients younger than 65 had poorer total health-related quality of life on 1 scale than did patients 65 and older, and women had poorer scores than did men on 1 total scale. With demographic and clinical factors controlled for, women younger than 65 had improvements in health-related quality of life on some scales. They did that Women younger than 65 years had relatively poorer initial health-related quality of life that improved after 26 weeks.

**Maki, et. al. (2007)** evaluated the effects of hormone therapy (HT) on cognition and subjective quality of life (QoL) in recently postmenopausal women with cognitive complaints. Cognitive Complaints in Early Menopause Trial (COGENT) was a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled, multicenter, pilot study of 180 healthy postmenopausal women aged 45 to 55 years, randomly assigned to receive either placebo or conjugated equine estrogen 0.625 mg/megroxyprogesterone acetate 2.5 mg for 4 months. Outcome measures included memory, subjective cognition, QoL, sexuality, and sleep, which were assessed at baseline and month 4. There were no differences between groups on any cognitive or QoL measures, except for an increase in sexual interest and thoughts with HT. Modest negative effects on short- and long-term verbal memory approached significance ($p < 0.10$). Women with baseline
vasomotor symptoms (VMS) showed a decrease in VMS and an improvement in general QoL, but no cognitive benefit vs. placebo.

**Pozowski, et. al. (2007)** made an assessment of quality of life in women stress urinary incontinence (USI) and evaluation of tension-free vaginal tape (TVT) treatment. The research included a group of 112 women aged 33-78 years. Before as well as 3 and 6 months after the TVT operation, patients were asked to fill in quality of life questionnaires. After 3 months 87.25% of the women reported full regression of USI symptoms, 7.8% an insignificant improvement, and 4.9% did not observe any change. After 6 months 85.71% reported full regression, 9.18% an insignificant improvement, and 5.1% did not observe any change. USI is responsible for a decrease in physical activity. The most uncomfortable symptom is involuntary urine leakage occurring mainly during an effort or sleep. After the TVT procedure, the majority of women confirmed a significant improvement in quality of life. **Conclusions:** The TVT procedure is an effective method of treating USI in women: it significantly improves quality of life, with a recovery rate of 85-87%, and a low rate of complications.

**Sogolow, et. al. (2008)** Used well-validated instruments to examine fatigue as a predictor of QOL in women with primary biliary cirrhosis (PBC), an autoimmune, chronic liver disease. Compared with national norms, QOL for this PBC population was significantly impaired. When all variables with bivariate significance in relation to QOL were included in multivariate analyses, results showed fatigue to be the primary predictor of QOL. The results lead to recommendations for health care providers to assess fatigue in their patients with PBC and to take steps, where warranted, to mitigate effect.

**Mikuls, et.al. (2009)** examined the association of elderly onset rheumatoid arthritis (RA) with health related quality of life in a population based cohort of older women. Among a community based cohort, elderly onset RA was strongly associated with functional disability and reduced quality of life. These associations were independent of other age associated factors including depression, recent fracture, and multiple comorbidities.

The aim of the study by **Urizar, et al. (2009)** was to review the main factors associated with the QOL of caregivers of people with schizophrenia. Evidence suggest that physical, emotional and economic distress affect negatively caregiver's QOL as a
result of a number of unfulfilled needs such as, restoration of patient functioning in family and social roles, economic burden, lack of spare time, among other factors. Decreased QOL may be associated with caregivers' burden, lack of social support, course of the disease and family relationships problems. In addition, in developing countries, QOL is affected by caregivers' economic burden. High quality research is needed in order to identify factors associated with QOL over time and testing the efficacy of interventions aiming to improve QOL in caregivers of patients with schizophrenia.

Han, et. al. (2009) The aimed of to evaluate the impact of health-related quality of life (HRQOL) on mortality in the elderly, who are likely to develop or already have chronic kidney disease (CKD). Among 1,000 randomly sampled participants aged more than 65 years (sourced from the Korean Longitudinal Study on Health and Ageing), 944 subjects were evaluated for HRQOL. HRQOL was assessed using a 36-item Short-Form health survey (SF36). A cumulative survival rate was calculated according to tertiles of SF36 scores and classified by the presence of CKD (estimated GFR <60 ml/min/1.73 m²). Among 944 subjects, 46.6% had CKD. CKD patients had lower total and physical component scores compared with subjects without CKD. The 3-year cumulative survival rate was 90.0% (non-CKD vs. CKD: 92.6% vs. 87.4%, \( P = 0.005 \) by log rank test). After adjusting for multiple variables, a reduced SF36 score (physical and mental components) was a strong predictor of all-cause mortality. Physical components were consistently able to predict mortality after CKD classification, but mental components were statistically significant only in the CKD group.