The interplay between substance use and intimate partner violence perpetration: A meta-ethnography

Gail Gilchrist, Fay Dennis, Polly Radcliffe, Juliet Henderson, Louise M. Howard, David Gadd

Introduction

Intimate partner violence (IPV) perpetration involves any behaviour by an intimate partner causing physical, sexual or psychological harm, including aggression, sexual coercion, psychological abuse, financial abuse and controlling behaviours (World Health Organisation, 2012). Whilst heterosexual men and people in same sex relationships experience IPV victimisation (Kubicek, McNeely, & Collins, 2016; McDonald, 2012), IPV is most commonly directed towards women by men (World Health Organisation, 2012), with one in three women experiencing IPV globally (World Health Organisation, 2013), and approximately four in ten femicides committed by a male partner (World Health Organisation, 2014). Some population studies report similar rates of IPV victimisation among men and women (e.g. Archer, 2000), but these studies have been criticised for not considering each partner’s motive for violence (e.g. self-defence versus maintaining control) or who initiated the violence; and for not including questions on sexual abuse, stalking or controlling behaviours, which are more likely to be perpetrated by men (Kimmel, 2002; Saunders, 2002). Moreover, such studies do not “capture an ongoing systematic pattern of abuse and violence over many years” more...
likely to be experienced by women (Saunders, 2002). In addition, women are more likely than men to experience sexual violence, severe physical violence or be murdered by their partner (World Health Organisation, 2013; Chermack et al., 2008). Besides the risk of death and serious injury, IPV victimisation also impacts on women’s substance use, mental, physical and reproductive health and quality of life (Campbell, 2002; Ellsberg, Jansen, Heise, Watts, & Garcia-Moreno, 2008; Sarkar, 2008; Rees et al., 2011; Trevillion, Oram, Feder, & Howard, 2012; Pallitto et al., 2013; Loxton, Dolja-Gore, Anderson, & Townsend, 2017).

While no single factor or theory sufficiently explains IPV (Dixon & Graham-Kevan, 2011), various risk factors have been persistently associated with IPV perpetration including: low income, unemployment, childhood abuse, witnessing IPV as a child, substance use, mental health disorders (including depression, anxiety, personality disorders, bipolar disorder, schizophrenia), anger, hostility, poor executive function, low empathy, relationship conflicts, holding sexist attitudes and attitudes that condone violence, and support for gender specific roles (e.g. Stith, Smith, Penn, Ward, & Trott, 2004; Capaldi, Knoble, Shortt, & Kim, 2012; Cummings, Gonzalez-Guarda, & Sandoval, 2013; Oram, Trevillion, Khalifeh, Feder, & Howard, 2014; Mancera, Dorgo, & Provencio-Vasquez, 2017; Cafferky, Mendez, Anderson, & Stith, 2018; Fazel, Smith, Chang, & Geddes, 2018). There is division over the significance of gender inequalities and patriarchalism as causal factors, relative to specific social contexts and situations (Azam Ali & Naylor, 2013) leading Heise to conclude that our understanding of IPV “has been severely hampered by the narrowness of traditional academic disciplines and by the tendency of both academics and activists to advance single-factor theories rather than explanations that reflect the full complexity and messiness of real life” (1998, p. 262). Heise instead proposes an integrative theory that considers the ‘inter-play among personal, situational, and socio-cultural factors’ (1998, p. 263–264).

Studies on the link between substance use and IPV perpetration have mainly considered intoxication and the pharmacological effects of the substance. Alcohol and drug use (especially cocaine and methamphetamine) are consistent risk factors for IPV perpetration (e.g. World Health Organisation, 2013; Fleming et al., 2015; Choenni, Hammink, & Van de Mheen, 2017; Leonard & Quigley, 2017; Cafferky et al., 2018). A recent meta-ethnography found that marijuana use but not heroin use was also associated with IPV perpetration (Cafferky et al., 2018). The authors suggested that while heroin use may not be associated with IPV perpetration due to its analgesic and sedative pharmacological properties, marijuana withdrawal symptoms have been linked with irritability, anger and aggression which could account for the association with marijuana use and IPV perpetration (Boles & Miotto, 2003). This meta-analysis also reported that alcohol and illicit drug abuse or dependence for males were significantly stronger correlates of IPV perpetration compared with measures of consumption or frequency of use, proposing that those who are intoxicated/under the influence and experience withdrawal more often, were more likely to perpetrate IPV. Interestingly, despite the association between stimulant use and psychosis, irritability and aggression (Kosten & Singha, 1999), no significant difference between stimulant and non-stimulant drug use and their association with IPV perpetration was reported (Cafferky et al., 2018). Gaps in understanding remain regarding “the specific context which may affect the link between substance use and IPV” including whether perpetrators were using or withdrawing from substances when the violence or abuse occurred, whether the substance was used socially or with a partner, and the time-sequence relationship between substance use and IPV perpetration (Cafferky et al., 2018).

Various competing explanations have been proposed to account for this association including impaired cognitive functioning due to the pharmacological properties of substances (e.g. Leonard & Jacob, 1998), relationship conflict as a result of substance use that could lead to IPV (e.g. Murphy, O’Farrell, Falt-Stewart, & Feehan, 2001), and shared risk factors that studies have found make substance use and IPV perpetration more likely such as adverse childhood experiences, personality disorders, psychosis and depression (Trull et al., 2018; Choi, DiNitto, Marti, & Choi, 2017; Hughes et al., 2017; Smith-Marek et al., 2015; Oram et al., 2014; Varese et al., 2012; Torrens, Gilchrist, & Domingo-Salvany, 2011; Gil-González, Vives-Cases, Ruiz, Carrasco-Portiño, & Álvarez Dardet, 2004). Alcohol and drug disorders increase the risk for poverty and homelessness (Thompson, Wall, Greenstien, Grant, & Hasin, 2017). Lower socio-economic status, including low income and unemployment, can place additional stress on relationships, which could lead to conflict and IPV (Capaldi et al., 2012; Cummings et al., 2013; Stith et al., 2004; Reichel, 2017). Indeed, Cunradi, Caetano, and Schafer (2002) found that, after controlling for alcohol use/abuse, childhood parent-perpetrated violence, approval of IPV, impulsivity, age, and relationship factors; annual household income was the most important predictor of IPV perpetration.

Studies have shown higher rates of IPV perpetration by men who use alcohol and/or drugs than those who do not from general population samples (e.g. Abramsky et al., 2011; Smith, Homish, Leonard, & Cornelius, 2012). Men seeking or receiving treatment for substance use report rates of recent physical IPV towards a partner of around 34–39% (El-Bassel, Gilbert, Wu, Chang, & Fontdevila, 2007 (past 6 months); Frye et al., 2007; Gilchrist et al., 2015 (past year)) compared to around 5–21% of men in the general population (Graham, Bernards, Wilsack, & Gmel, 2011 (past 2 years); Smith et al., 2012; Fulu, Jewkes, Roselli, & Garcia-Moreno, 2013; Costa et al., 2016 (past year)). Global estimates suggest that 23–63% of IPV incidents involve alcohol as a contributing factor (World Health Organisation, 2012). Moreover, physical harm is more likely (Wupperman et al., 2009; Moore, Elkins, McNulty, Kivisto, & Handsel, 2011) and more severe when the perpetrator has consumed alcohol (Graham et al., 2011; Shorey, Brasfield, Zapor, Febres, & Stuart, 2015; Testa, Quigley, & Leonard, 2003). Violence severity is significantly higher for incidents in which one or both partners had been drinking (Graham et al., 2011). Such findings have led a recent review of quantitative studies to conclude that “while neither a necessary nor a sufficient cause, excessive alcohol use does contribute to the occurrence of partner violence and that contribution is approximately equal to other contributing causes such as gender roles, anger and marital functioning” (Leonard & Quigley, 2017). However, the authors highlight that “the potential causal processes in the context of interventions to reduce and eliminate partner violence” (p.8) should be examined to inform interventions for people who use substances. In short, while evidence from quantitative studies confirms substance use as a risk factor for IPV perpetration, how and why it is so, is not well understood (Choenni et al., 2017). Qualitative studies can offer insight into the context and motives that culminate to produce the statistical correlations between substance use and IPV perpetration. Where most data tend to derive from survivors’ accounts, perpetrators’ accounts reveal some additional complexities in terms of the different meanings attributed to both substance use and violence and their place in relationships that are abusive (Neal & Edwards, 2015). Interventions to reduce IPV perpetration by men who use substances should consider the various and complex ways that substance use can contribute to IPV perpetration (Graham, Wilson, & Taft, 2017). To address this need for intervention development, we conducted a meta-ethnography of qualitative studies to explore how substance use features in survivors’ and perpetrators’ accounts of IPV perpetration.

Methods

Design

A systematic review was conducted using a meta-ethnographic design and the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (Fig. 1) (Moher, Liberati, Tetzlaff, & Altman, 2009). Although many ways to synthesise qualitative research exist (Barnett-Page & Thomas, 2009), meta-ethnography pursues an interpretivist
paradigm, allowing flexibility in the search process, and offering a coherent overarching frame, comparing and ‘translating’ studies from different epistemological traditions (Noblit & Hare, 1988).

Search strategy

Electronic databases (PsycINFO, ASSIA, Web of Science) were searched (January 1995–December 2016) for English-language studies including a substantial qualitative component to survivor and/or perpetrator accounts of IPV perpetration, with an update in PsycINFO and ASSIA to December 2017 (see Table 1). In addition, seven experts were contacted, and key author and forward and backward citation tracking was conducted.

Screening and eligibility

An adapted PICo (i.e. population, phenomenon of interest and context) (Tombor et al., 2015) was used to identify studies including heterosexual adult (≥18 years old) IPV survivors and/or perpetrators where the interplay between substance use and IPV perpetration was explored. Abstracts were screened for primary qualitative studies or studies that had a qualitative component (e.g. mixed-methods studies) that included survivor or perpetrator accounts of IPV (as opposed to, for example, coping with IPV or help seeking for IPV). FD screened the texts, with 10% of abstracts randomly and independently checked by PR to ensure inter-rater consistency. Disagreement was resolved by GG and DG. Thereafter, potentially eligible full-texts were screened for mentions of substance use (Fig. 1). If manuscripts included survivor or perpetrator narratives but also others’ perspectives, they were included, but only survivor or perpetrator accounts were included in the analysis. Table 2 describes the proportion of each sample that had experienced or perpetrated IPV where known. Data were managed using EndNote software (EndNote, 2016).

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IPV act - OR</th>
<th>Qualitative Research - OR</th>
<th>IPV actor - OR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intimate partner violence; Intimate partner abuse; Sexual$; abus$; Sexual$; aggress$; Sexual$; assault; Rape; Physical$ violen$; Physical$ assault; Physical$ aggress$; Domestic violence; Domestic abuse; Emotional$ abus$; Psychological$ abus$; Psychological$ aggress$; Psychological$ assault; Dating violence; Spous$ abuse; Coercive control; Control$ behavio$r; Spous$ assault; Husband abuse; Husband aggress$; Intimate terrorism; Common couple violence; Situational couple violence; Violent resistance; Intimate homicide; Domestic homicide</td>
<td>Qualitative study; Qualitative Ethnograph$; Narrative; Account; Participant observation; Grounded theory; Interpretative; Phenomenological Analysis; Case study$; Focus group; Thematic analysis; Framework analysis; Framework approach; In-depth interview; Semi-structured interview; Mixed-method$</td>
<td>Perpetrator$; Victim$; Offender$; Batterer$; Abuser$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 1. PRISMA Diagram.
## Table 2

**Studies included in the meta-ethnography.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aims</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Recruitment</th>
<th>Methods</th>
<th>Perspective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>‘Explore methamphetamine-using women’s experiences with IPV and reproductive health concerns.’</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>30 female methamphetamine users. Participants reported IPV (n = 19, 63%) as survivors (50%), perpetrators (40%), and/or both (20%)</td>
<td>Community advertising and at three addiction treatment centres Methamphetamine users</td>
<td>Semi-structured short interview</td>
<td>None stated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘How women give meaning to their experiences of violence.’</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>15 female survivors</td>
<td>Advertisements in Mitchell Plain (township)</td>
<td>Narrative interviews</td>
<td>Feminist poststructuralism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Explore how First Nations women’s experiences of intimate partner abuse are embedded in and shaped by the historical and current socio-political context organising their everyday lives.’</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>35 female survivors</td>
<td>Snowball sampling techniques in 14 First Nation reserves</td>
<td>In-depth interviews</td>
<td>Critical realist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘To get an in-depth understanding of the causes and concerns relating to domestic violence in the rural Indian context.’</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>15 female survivors</td>
<td>Social networking</td>
<td>In-depth interview</td>
<td>Phenomenology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To explore alcohol use among conflict-displaced populations.</td>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>32 women, 67 men (unknown whether survivors or perpetrators). All men and 12/32 women drank</td>
<td>Health services and chain referral in a refugee camp</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>Grounded theory, feminist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Explored women’s views and experiences of alcohol’s role in their partners violence to them’</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>20 female survivors</td>
<td>Accessed via women officers of the police Domestic Violence Unit</td>
<td>In-depth interviews</td>
<td>Grounded theory, feminist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Explore how partner violence may be related to psycho-pharmacological effects of drugs and to conflicts over procuring and splitting drugs’</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>68 female survivors</td>
<td>Recruited from 3 methadone clinics</td>
<td>Focus groups</td>
<td>Goldstein’s tripartite model, gender theory, trauma theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Examine factors associated with IPV by male substance users’</td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>17 male perpetrators</td>
<td>Recruited from substance use treatment</td>
<td>Mixed method – surveys and in-depth interviews</td>
<td>None stated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Examine the pathways by which gender norms may influence marital violence’</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>23 men and 25 women (unknown whether survivors or perpetrators)</td>
<td>Participating in an ongoing multi-site, randomized, community cohort HIV prevention intervention trial. Recruited through (a) street outreach in neighbourhoods with high concentrations of non-gay methamphetamine users; (b) known meeting places of methamphetamine users; (c) snowball sampling techniques; and (d) referrals and brochures placed at health clinics, health service agencies, and community organizations</td>
<td>Interviews and focus groups</td>
<td>Ecological framework</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Explore accounts of perpetrated violence among meth-using women’</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>30 female methamphetamine users. 80% (n = 24) reported experiencing violence in their lifetimes: 67% (n = 20) had violence perpetrated against them, and 57% (n = 17) had perpetrated violence</td>
<td>Recruited from residential treatment</td>
<td>In-depth interviews</td>
<td>Phenomenology, biopsychosocial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Explores the experiences and determinants of IPV from the perspective of methamphetamine-using men and women’</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>20 male (9 survivors of physical or sexual IPV) and 20 female (16 survivors of physical or sexual IPV) methamphetamine users. All participants reported experiencing psychological abuse</td>
<td>Community outreach, newspaper advertisements, flyers in health care offices and domestic violence agencies, “word of mouth”, walk-ins, and participant referrals</td>
<td>In-depth interviews</td>
<td>None stated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Explores men’s accounts of their violence towards known women’</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>75 male perpetrators of violence to known women</td>
<td>Men who had been arrested for violence, recruited from men’s programmes, probation, prison, welfare agencies and also not recruited through agencies</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>‘Pro-feminism’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Explores methamphetamine-using women’s narratives of being taken hostage’</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>4 female methamphetamine users who had experienced hostage-taking</td>
<td>Participating in an HIV behavioural intervention trial. Recruited through (a) street outreach in neighbourhoods with high concentrations of non-pay methamphetamine users; (b) known meeting places of methamphetamine users; (c) snowball sampling techniques; and (d) referrals and brochures placed at health clinics, health service agencies, and community organizations</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>‘Theory of Gender and Power’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Explore accounts of methamphetamine users who have experienced violence to them’</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>15 female survivors</td>
<td>Recruited from substance use treatment</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>None stated</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<table>
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<tr>
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<th>Perspective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Investigate the relationship between partner violence and substance abuse among women in substance use treatment services</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>9 men with experiences of IPV, 5 of whom had perpetrated IPV, 2 were victims</td>
<td>Semi-structured interviews</td>
<td>Ecological feminism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'Explore the social/cultural factors in the intersections between alcohol and IPV'</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>20 males who killed their partners and family/friends of both survivor and perpetrator (number not stated)</td>
<td>Recruited from prison</td>
<td>Feminism, structuralism, psychoanalytical</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'Explore the views of incarcerated men who killed their partner on their violence and relationships with women'</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>22 male perpetrators and their female partners</td>
<td>Recruited from substance use treatment</td>
<td>Grounded theory</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'Explores the role of patriarchal structures, mainly family structures, in relation to IPV'</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>17 dyads (17 male perpetrators and their female partners)</td>
<td>Recruited from services that work with survivors of domestic abuse</td>
<td>Typologies, feminist</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'Examine acute, situational factors and chronic stressors that triggered severe intimate partner violence, which lead to man’s detention.'</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>10 male perpetrators and 10 female (unrelated) survivors</td>
<td>Males in detention for IPV perpetration and telephone calls to his female survivor</td>
<td>Grounded theory</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'Explore the intersection among alcohol consumption, gender roles, intimate partner violence (IPV) and mental health from the perspective of heavy drinking men who also perpetrate IPV and survivors'</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>22 female survivors (majority had history of substance use)</td>
<td>Recruited from court and/or child protection services mandated IPV parenting program</td>
<td>Grounded theory</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'To better understand cross cultural constructions of IPV perpetration amongst men in treatment for substance use'</td>
<td>Brazil and England</td>
<td>40 male perpetrators (20 from England and 20 from Brazil)</td>
<td>Recruited from substance use treatment</td>
<td>Thematic narrative analysis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'Explored the intersection among alcohol consumption, gender roles, intimate partner violence (IPV) and mental health from the perspective of heavy drinking men who also perpetrate IPV and survivors'</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>80 female survivors</td>
<td>Recruited from services that work with survivors of domestic abuse</td>
<td>Grounded theory</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'Investigate the substance-related experiences of system-involved IPV survivors who had been mandated to child protection programmes'</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>9 male perpetrators</td>
<td>Recruited from prison</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'Describes the experience of male perpetrators of IPV to understand their perspective.'</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>18 female survivors</td>
<td>Recruited via flyers at local mental health facility that offered IPV treatment and at public and cultural events both on and off the reservation. Early participants also referred other men to participate</td>
<td>Constructivist grounded theory</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'Explores the dynamics of drinking and IPV from the perspectives of women with lived experience of alcohol-related IPV; 'Alcohol's role in initiation and escalation of IPV.'</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>22 male perpetrators</td>
<td>Recruited in prison. Enrolled in IPV perpetrator programme</td>
<td>Grounded theory, narrative approach</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'Understand men’s perspective on violence in their relationships with women.'</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>45 women who inject drugs (not all identified as survivors)</td>
<td>Recruited from needle exchange programs, pharmacies, drug services and primary care setting, women’s only drop-in sessions, women’s only drug services and specialist services.</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>Grounded theory</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3
Themes: First, second, third order constructs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First order constructs</th>
<th>Second order</th>
<th>Third order</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. INTOXICATION</strong></td>
<td>i. Survivors are seen to perceive a change in character as a way of 'splitting off the good from the bad' – as a coping mechanism.</td>
<td>a. Survivors and perpetrators both talk about substances as changing perpetrators’ behaviours, but where perpetrators are more likely to wholeheartedly blame substances, survivors see this as part of a wider pattern of behaviour that intoxication can exacerbate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ii. Perpetrators are seen to use intoxication as a socially available narrative or psychological device for reconciling (especially where inconsistent with traditional ideals of masculinity) or excusing violent behaviour.</td>
<td>b. A ‘disinhibited self’ narrative is used by survivors and perpetrators to reveal violent traits that are already there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iii. Survivors are seen to blame perpetrators’ intoxication, but also see the violence as part of him. This is often seen in conjunction with controlling traits, emplaced in societal structures, for example, as part of intimate terrorism (Wood, 2004).</td>
<td>c. There are levels to the disinhibition (‘opening up’) – a little is even perceived by survivors to reveal good qualities, whilst too much can expose violent qualities – survivors reflect on this ‘balancing act’.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iv. Perpetrators are seen to have started to take responsibility when they consider the violence as coming from them rather than intoxication</td>
<td>d. The distinction between a ‘disinhibited’ and ‘different’ self caused by intoxication can get blurred (Gilchrist, Blazquez, Segura, Geldschläger, Valls, Colom et al., 2015).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>v. Some authors talk about ‘alcohol…plus factors’</td>
<td>e. Authors often conceptualise ‘triggers’ like intoxication as excuses, but participants see it as more than this, and a real part of the situatedness of IPV perpetration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. WITHDRAWAL &amp; ADDICTION</strong></td>
<td>i. Withdrawals are seen to heighten emotional state making perpetrators susceptible to violence.</td>
<td>i. Physical/emotional violence is seen to happen when the perpetrator is in withdrawals, especially if the survivor has failed to procure or raise money for drugs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ii. Survivors’ addiction is used to coercive sex/reproduction</td>
<td>b. Survivors’ addictions can be used against them to coerce unwanted sexual relations, including reproduction</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iii. Survivor’s addiction is used as source of emotional abuse</td>
<td>c. Love, drugs and abuse can become enmeshed for couples who use drugs. This can also make them particular hard to escape, especially where survivors rely on the perpetrator of substances.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iv. There is an expectation on women to raise money through sex work</td>
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<td></td>
<td>v. Economic abuse perpetrated where family resources spent on drugs and perpetrator expects bigger quantities or to use first</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vi. When couples use substances together, the need for both love and drugs can become blurred</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vii. Where survivors rely on their perpetrator for substances, it can make it very hard to leave the relationship and perpetration can continue</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a. Survivors are frightened of and have to constantly monitor their partners volatile moods in light of substance using habits – this constitutes a form of abuse in itself</td>
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<td></td>
<td>b. Substance use exacerbated inconsistencies in love and affection</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. Some authors believe overburden of family and marital responsibilities is an abuse (Boonzaai &amp; de la Rey, 2003), where others see it as a ‘cost’ or ‘complication’ (Brazier, 2009) of partner’s drinking</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>d. The distinction between a ‘disinhibited’ and ‘different’ self caused by intoxication can get blurred (Gilchrist, Blazquez, Segura, Geldschläger, Valls, Colom et al., 2015).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>e. Authors often conceptualise ‘triggers’ like intoxication as excuses, but participants see it as more than this, and a real part of the situatedness of IPV perpetration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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(Radcliffe et al., 2017, p67; Hearn, 1998, p130-1)

3. Survivors describe a reliance on perpetrators giving up substances to end the violence. This can mean survivors stay in abusive relationships longer, hoping that change will come.
E.g. from survivor – Brazier, 2009 p117. E.g. from perpetrator - Hearn, 1998, p75

4. POWER & CONTROL

1. Perpetrators try to control partner’s drinking
E.g. Hearn, 1998, p130-1
2. Violence is used as a control tactic when women were perceived to have acted with impropriety – e.g. drinking and socialising with other men
E.g. Mathews et al., 2015, p10; Watt, 2012, p90
3. Survivors are coerced to drink/use drugs
E.g. Brazier, 2009, p111-2; O’Brien et al., 2016, p67; Gilbert et al., 2001, p530 – or administer in certain way - E.g. from survivors - Wright et al., 2007, p419; Brazier, p.114; Macy et al., 2013, p891

4. Complex brought about controlling tendencies
E.g. Dhar, 2014, p543; hold her captive (Brazier, 2009, p111) – often linked to sociocultural gender roles - ‘male Indian ego’ (Dhar, 2014); ideas of ‘respect’ (Radcliffe et al., 2017, p69; Mathews et al., 2015).
Survivors saw these controlling tendencies linked to traditional gender norms and wider sociocultural oppressions. Perpetrators see a betrayal of their superiority - Satyanarayana et al., 2015; Boonzaier & Rey, 2003; Gilbert et al., 2001, p521; Gilbert et al., 2001, p531

5. PSYCHOLOGICAL VULNERABILITIES

1. Increased risk of abuse and violence if perpetrator’s mood was negative pre drinking.
E.g. from survivor - Galvani, 2006, p.650. E.g. from perpetrator - Hearn, 1998, p.75
2. Perpetrators (male and female) attributed/blamed their violence on (anger resulting from) negative experiences in childhood
3. Impact of trauma on perpetrator’s mental health
E.g. from perpetrators - Mathews et al., 2015, p.115, describing symptoms of PTSD “flashbacks” and “nightmares”. E.g. from survivors - describing symptoms of depression - O’Brien et al., 2016, p.68
4. Perpetrator’s drug-induced hallucinations and paranoia contributed to IPV
E.g. from survivors - Gilbert et al., 2001, p525. E.g. from perpetrators - Watt et al., 2017, p102

6. SURVIVORS’ AGENCY & RESISTANCE

1. Survivors discuss strategies for moderating and mediating violence
E.g. Wilson et al., 2017, p121, p115; Boonzaier & Rey, 2003, p1026; Satyanarayana et al., 2015, p40
2. Survivors employ ways of coping, such as using alcohol/drugs to ‘numb’ the fear and pain of abuse.
E.g. Menon, 2009; Galvani, 2006; Wilson et al., 2017, p119
E.g. from survivors - Gilbert et al., 2001, p258; Ezard, 2014, p689. E.g. from perpetrators - Radcliffe et al., 2017, p67; Mathews et al., 2015, p688
4. Survivors refused to give perpetrators money for substances, but were often abused as a result
E.g. physically (Dhar, 2014, p5; Galvani, 2006; Watt et al., 2017, p103); emotionally (Go et al., 2003, p394)
5. Survivors resisted what they perceived to be unequal share of substances
E.g. Radcliffe et al., 2017, p67 – resulted in physical assault
interpretations (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Each researcher then began building third order interpretations (i.e., the meta-ethnographers’ interpretations), taking participant (first order interpretations) and research output author (second order) interpretations together (Table 3). First order interpretations are presented in italics and second order interpretations are presented within quotation marks in the results.

Studies were coded according to six themes that emerged across studies, with regular meetings to discuss and debate meanings. This generated data comprising relevant participant quotes and meanings (first order), output authors’ (second order) and meta-ethnographers’ (third order) interpretations (Table 3). Table 3 describes the first, second and third order interpretations for each of these six themes which are discussed in detail in the main text. From this constant comparative method, theoretical saturation was reached. Vis-à-vis Glaser and Strauss (1967), the data started to “fit” and “work” together as a whole (Noblit & Hare, 1988; p.62–3; p.75).

Methodological quality

A comprehensive quality assessment was undertaken on the included studies according to Tracy’s (2010) ‘Eight Big-Tent Criteria for Excellent Qualitative Research’: worthy topic, rich rigor, sincerity, credibility, resonance, significant contribution, ethics and meaningful coherence. Two reviewers (from PR, FD, GG, DG, JH) independently assessed the quality of included studies. Differences were resolved through discussion or, if needed, a third reviewer. Studies were not excluded based on quality (Fig. 2).

Results

Study selection

Searches from January 1995 to December 2017 resulted in 7654 unique records; 478 were eligible for full-text assessment. Twenty-six studies were included after assessment, including one book (Hearn, 1998), four dissertations (Brazier, 2009; Hayashi, 2016; Menon, 2009; Watt, 2012) and 21 manuscripts (Abdul-Khabir et al., 2014; Boonzaier & Rey, 2003; Dhar, 2014; Ezard, 2014; Galvani, 2006; Gilbert, El-Bassel, Rajah, Foleno, & Frye, 2001; Gilchrist et al., 2015; Go et al., 2003; Hamilton & Goeders, 2010; Ludwig-Barron, Syvertsen, Lagare, Palinkas, & Stockman, 2015; Macy, Renz, & Pelino, 2013; Matamonasa-Bennett, 2015; Mathews, Jewkes, & Abrahams, 2015; Nemeth, Bonomi, Lee, & Ludwin, 2012; O’Brien et al., 2016; Radcliffe, Flavia Pires Lucas d’Oliveira, Lea, Dos Santos Figueiredo, & Gilchrist, 2017: Satyanarayana, Hebbari, Hegde, Krishnan, & Srinivasan, 2015; Watt, Guidera, Hobbirk, Skinner, & Meade, 2017; Wilson, Graham, & Taft, 2017; Wood, 2004; Wright, Tompkins, & Sheard, 2007) (Fig. 1).

Study and sample characteristics

These 26 studies report on the views of 860 participants overall. The accounts of 363 female survivors and 219 male perpetrators are included from the studies that described the numbers of IPV perpetrators or survivors from their total sample. Twelve studies were conducted in North America (Abdul-Khabir et al., 2014; Brazier, 2009; Gilbert et al., 2001; Hamilton & Goeders, 2010; Hayashi, 2016; Ludwig-Barron et al., 2015; Macy et al., 2013; Matamonasa-Bennett, 2015; Nemeth et al., 2012; O’Brien et al., 2016; Watt, 2012; Wood, 2004); five in Asia (Dhar, 2014; Ezard, 2014; Go et al., 2003; Menon, 2009; Satyanarayana et al., 2015); five in Europe (Galvani, 2006; Gilchrist et al., 2015; Hearn, 1998; Radcliffe et al., 2017; Wright et al., 2007); three in South Africa (Boonzaier & Rey, 2003; Mathews et al., 2015; Watt, 2017); one in Brazil (Radcliffe et al., 2017) and one in Australia (Wilson et al., 2017).

Nine studies included male IPV perpetrators (Gilchrist et al., 2015; Nemeth et al., 2012; Radcliffe et al., 2017; Satyanarayana et al., 2015; Watt, 2012; Wood, 2004; Watt et al., 2017), males who had committed femicide (Mathews et al., 2015) or who had perpetrated violence against known women, including partners (Hearn, 1998). In three of these studies, methods included recorded telephone conversation transcripts between men in prison and their female partners (Nemeth et al., 2012), interviews with family members and friends of the perpetrator and deceased victim (Mathews et al., 2015) and interviews with females whose partners were receiving alcohol treatment but not from the same marital dyad as the perpetrators interviewed (Satyanarayana et al., 2015). In three studies, men also identified as
survivors (Hayashi, 2016; Matamonasa-Bennett, 2015; Watt et al., 2017). Fifteen studies included female IPV survivors (Abdul-Khabir et al., 2014; Brazier, 2009; Hayashi, 2016; Menon, 2009; Boonzaier & Rey, 2003; Dhar, 2014; Galvani, 2006; Gilbert et al., 2001; Hamilton & Goeders, 2010; Ludwig-Barron et al., 2015; Macy et al., 2013; O’Brien et al., 2016; Wilson et al., 2017; Wright et al., 2007; Watt et al., 2017). Female survivors in two of these 15 studies also self-identified as perpetrators (Abdul-Khabir et al., 2014; Hamilton & Goeders, 2010). The remaining three studies included samples where the exact number of survivors or perpetrators was not stated (Ezard, 2014; Go et al., 2003), and ‘men with experiences of IPV’ (Matamonasa-Bennett, 2015), including perpetrating and witnessing IPV (Table 2).

Male perpetrators were recruited from drug or alcohol treatment (Gilchrist et al., 2015; Radcliffe et al., 2017; Satyanarayana et al., 2015), were methamphetamine users (Hayashi, 2016; Watt et al., 2017), had been arrested, detained or who were on probation or incarcerated (Hearn, 1998; Mathews et al., 2015; Nemeth et al., 2012; Watt, 2012; Wood, 2004) or from men’s programmes, welfare agencies or not engaged with services (Hearn, 1998).

Eight studies recruited female survivors from drug treatment and/or needle exchange facilities (Abdul-Khabir et al., 2014; Gilbert et al., 2001; Hamilton & Goeders, 2010; Macy et al., 2013; Wright et al., 2007) or who were methamphetamine users (Hayashi, 2016; Ludwig-Barron et al., 2015; Watt et al., 2017). O4ne study recruited female survivors from a mandated court and/or child protective services IPV parenting programme, where the majority of women had a history of substance use (O’Brien et al., 2016); two studies involved survivors from domestic violence services (Galvani, 2006; Menon, 2009), and four recruited survivors from the community (Brazier, 2009; Boonzaier & Rey, 2003; Dhar, 2014; Wilson et al., 2017).

Quality of studies

Three studies included low quality ratings for some criteria. Abdul-Khabir et al. (2014) scored low quality for ‘significant contribution’ as the findings were from a pilot study and based on very short interviews of 15–20 minutes. Nemeth et al. (2012) scored low quality for ‘credibility’ and ‘ethics’ due to a lack of description and their covert use of recorded telephone conversations between male imprisoned perpetrators and their female partners. Findings for ‘sincerity’ from Satyanarayana et al. (2015) were rated low quality due to an over-reliance on the analytic possibilities of computer software, with no reflexivity of the researchers’ position in the process (Fig. 2).

Key themes

Six themes emerged across studies: five related to the interplay between substance use and IPV perpetration in the context of intoxication, withdrawal, impact on relationship and wider dynamics of power and control, and psychological vulnerabilities and a final theme around survivors’ agency and resistance to IPV.

Theme 1: intoxication

Intoxication related to alcohol and stimulant drugs (methamphetamine and cocaine) was linked to IPV perpetration in all studies. Survivors generally viewed intoxicated violence within a pattern of their partners’ violent behaviour linked to power and control (Galvani, 2006; Gilbert et al., 2001; Ludwig-Barron et al., 2015; Macy et al., 2013; Nemeth et al., 2012; Wilson et al., 2017; Wright et al., 2007; Hayashi, 2016), while perpetrators isolated the event, blaming their behaviour on intoxication (Gilchrist et al., 2015; Go et al., 2003; Hearn, 1998; Mathews et al., 2015; Radcliffe et al., 2017; Satyanarayana et al., 2015; Watt, 2012; Watt et al., 2017). Attributing violence to intoxication served to account for a new (violent) (Dhar, 2014; Gilbert et al., 2001; Gilchrist et al., 2015; Matamonasa-Bennett, 2015; Mathews et al., 2015; Radcliffe et al., 2017; Watt et al., 2017; Wilson et al., 2017) or disinhibited (violent) self (Gilchrist et al., 2015; Go et al., 2003; Radcliffe et al., 2017).

Survivors talked about their partners, and perpetrators talked about themselves, turning from a ‘good husband to a bad husband’ [survivor (Boonzaier & Rey, 2003)] perpetrator, problematic alcohol user (Mathews et al., 2015), ‘Dr. Jekyll to Mr. Hyde’ [survivor (Gilbert et al., 2001)], and ‘a warrior to a beater’ [perpetrator, problematic alcohol user (Matamonasa-Bennett, 2015)]. Under the influence of alcohol, male partners had turned into ‘dictators’ [survivor (Dhar, 2014)], ‘monsters’ [survivor (Boonzaier & Rey, 2003)]. Perpetrators also believed alcohol ‘converts you into a monster’ [perpetrator, alcohol and cocaine user (Gilchrist et al., 2015)] or ‘another person’ [perpetrator, in treatment for alcohol (Radcliffe et al., 2017)].

Second order interpretations of these perceived changes in self were analysed as both psychological processes – often associated with psychic “splitting” in which binary thinking of good/bad predominates (Boonzaier & Rey, 2003) – and socially-acceptable narrative devices (Radcliffe et al., 2017), used by survivors to cope with the contradiction of loving/being in a relationship with someone who was also violent and by perpetrators to reconcile their behaviour to themselves or to others, including the interviewer (Gadd, 2002).

The other way survivors and perpetrators accounted for their partners’/own change in character, from non-violent to violent, was by describing intoxication from alcohol and stimulants as disinhibiting existing violent traits.

‘When he drinks, that violent urge is there in him’ [survivor (Go et al., 2003), p.400]

‘Alcohol, it brings out the worst in me, you know’ [perpetrator (Radcliffe et al., 2017), p.68]

Some perpetrators and survivors who were dependent on stimulant drugs, reported that these drugs ‘transformed’ themselves or their partners respectively (Gilbert et al., 2001; Radcliffe et al., 2017; Watt et al., 2017). While excessive substance use could lead to violence, survivors reported that some substance use could lead to emotional closeness, ‘opening up’ on behalf of their partners (Macy et al., 2013; Galvani, 2006) and greater confidence on their part (Wilson et al., 2017). However, there was a ‘fine balance’ between just enough and too much intoxication and women reported the need to moderate those boundaries (Galvani, 2006). Intoxication from stimulant drugs such as methamphetamine and (crack) cocaine were “directly related to impulsivity, irritability, and/or paranoia” [survivor methamphetamine user (Abdul-Khabir et al., 2014, p.5)] associated with “jealousy” and “possessiveness” (Gilbert et al., 2001; Ludwig-Barron et al., 2015; Watt et al., 2017).

Several studies of survivors and perpetrators recruited from substance use treatment or who were substance dependent, reported ‘bilateral violence’ or female partners ‘fighting back’ when they too were intoxicated on methamphetamine or cocaine (Abdul-Khabir et al., 2014; Gilbert et al., 2001; Hamilton & Goeders, 2010; Hayashi, 2016), although it was often unclear whether this violence was bi-directional or violent resistance:

‘When I’m using (methamphetamine), especially when we come down, we’re ‘at each other’s throats’—verbally. It doesn’t get physical no more, but it used to be physical. I used to pull knives and end up in jail. I was out of control, in that state of mind’ [survivor (Abdul-Khabir et al., 2014), p.5]

‘I’d probably start him off more you know, probably I’d retaliate more, but because I’d had a drink if he started, I’d give it as much back with the mouth, so then he’d start being abusive like’ [survivor (Galvani, 2006), p.649]

Fewer studies reported similar findings for bilateral violence when both partners were under the influence of alcohol (O’Brien et al., 2016; Watt, 2012).

Both perpetrators and survivors explained this change metaphorically, using terms and phrases like ‘tipping point’ [survivor (Nemeth
‘Alcohol, it brings out the worst in me, you know. You know, when you’re not drunk, you’re calm and you can just ignore someone or walk out. But when you’re drunk, something flicks a switch and you become violent.’ [perpetrator (Radcliffe et al., 2017), p.68]

Perpetrators and survivors stressed the particularity of intoxication from different substances. For example, alcohol (Ezard, 2014; Galvani, 2006; Hearn, 1998; Matamonas-Bennett, 2015; Wilson et al., 2017), and even specific alcoholic drinks (O’Brien et al., 2016) or stimulants, such as methamphetamine (Abdul-Khabir et al., 2014; Hamilton & Goeders, 2010; Hayashi, 2016; Ludwig-Barron et al., 2015; Watt et al., 2017) and cocaine (Gilchrist et al., 2015; Radcliffe et al., 2017), or mixing alcohol with cocaine (Brazier, 2009, p.115) or methamphetamine (Hayashi, 2016, p.92) were seen to have particularly priming effects. No study reported participants describing associations between being under the influence of heroin and IPV perpetration. Methamphetamine was said to induce paranoia and enhance sexual jealousy (Gilbert et al., 2001, p.525; Hayashi, 2016; Watt et al., 2017), acting as an acute trigger for physical violence (Hearn, 1998; Nemeth et al., 2012; Radcliffe et al., 2017; Watt et al., 2017).

**Contexts and environments of intoxication**

Violent, intoxicated turning points, could, however, usually be understood as part of a pattern when placed in wider context (Ezard, 2014; Galvani, 2006; Hearn, 1998; Menon, 2009; O’Brien et al., 2016; Wilson et al., 2017). These contexts, or “alcohol plus… factors” include the particularity of the substance (Galvani, 2006, p.648-9; Brazier, 2009, p.115; Abdul-Khabir et al., 2014, p.5; O’Brien et al., 2016, p.68), gender issues (Ezard, 2014; Hearn, 1998), finances (Menon, 2009, p.128), personal character traits and moods (Galvani, 2006, p.648; O’Brien et al., 2016, p.68) and the environment (Hearn, 1998; Wilson et al., 2017, p.119).

‘He’s into drugs and then when he mixes it with alcohol he snaps’ [survivor (Brazier, 2009) p.115]

‘I guess he thought it was more debonair if he was drinking wine. So he would behave one way. And if it was liquor, he would get a different… I mean, it was strange… He usually just had a bad attitude if there was beer around. If it was wine, he felt like he was that connoisseur, all high and mighty and hoity-toity. I never knew what way he would swing, if it would be really fun or if it would be really bad.’ [survivor (O’Brien et al., 2016) p.68]

‘Well, let’s say, for example, a man comes in. He’s high. He’s drunk… He starts calling you names. “The dinner’s not done. What’ve you been doing hanging out? What’ve you been doing?”’ The dinner’s not done and as soon as he calls you, whatever, a bitch, and you call him back and goes “what you say?” and that’s when it starts. And immediately he starts smashing you or kicking you, strangling you, whatever… In my experiences it’s with alcohol. My partner with alcohol, he just really goes off. I mean he’s like high. He could kill me.’ [survivor (Gilbert et al., 2001) p.525]

‘I think at home it’s more private, isn’t it, so they can kick off more in a house than they will in a pub cause if… another man who’s not violent, sees another man hitting a woman, they’re going to join in and pagger [beat] him, aren’t they?’ [survivor (Galvani, 2006) p.450]

Survivors, in the studies reviewed, articulated these contextual factors more often than perpetrators, e.g. women “were astute in understanding that the alcohol issues, linked to violence, were intimately related to other issues such as financial resources as well as controlling tendencies, family pressures, perpetrator’s mood etc.” (Menon, 2009, p.128).

‘I’m not allowed to have any male friends. I’m not allowed to be around other males. He’s afraid if I work that… someone’s gonna take me away or tell me bad things about him… a lot of it is the drugs [methamphetamine] talking… He’s super possessive, that’s why I can’t even have friends, hell if he could keep me from my family he’d do that too’ [survivor (Hayashi, 2016) p.95]

‘She came to my house and I asked her what is going on. She was confused, and to me it was like she was making me look like a fool more and more. I started beating her up so badly her whole face was swollen, then I just left because I was angry… I really regretted doing that to her, because she told me she was innocent, but my mind told me my own stuff [because of methamphetamine]. And now she is scared of me and I don’t like that because I get very, very easy, not with her only I just get angry. So I don’t want her to see me when I have been smoking [methamphetamine]’ [perpetrator (Watt et al., 2017) p.103]

Violence was also contingent on where and ‘how you use it [alcohol]’ (survivor (Ezard, 2014) p.688). Survivors from one study stressed that their male partners intoxicated aggression and violence never took place in the presence of witnesses other than their children, ‘he can just turn [violent and aggressive] and he doesn’t do it in public… so no one else would see it’ (Wilson et al., 2017, p.119). However, Hearn (1998) queries how it is that some men suffer a “spatially contingent” loss of control at home but not in public places, pointing to the degree to which intoxication is used selectively to excuse IPV.

Perpetrators were less likely than survivors to locate blame with the substance itself and/or the survivor’s perceived disobedience. These included ‘arguing back’ (Radcliffe et al., 2017), not fulfilling ‘wifely’ duties like housework and cooking (Gilbert et al., 2001), impropriety e.g. using substances (Hearn, 1998), spending time in bars (Hearn, 1998; Mathews et al., 2015) with other men (Hearn, 1998; Mathews et al., 2015, p.11, p.12, p.10), and ‘nagging’ about substance use and money (Radcliffe et al., 2017). Where self-reflection and remorse were evident, perpetrators tended to attribute their behaviour to a ‘sickness’ (Wood, 2004) or being at ‘rock bottom’ (Watt, 2012). These ways of understanding violence distanced perpetrators from the act and, potentially, the painful parts of their lives that could be connected to both violence and substance use. Men who ‘feel trapped’ (Ezard, 2014), with no control over ‘the future’, appeared to be controlling the only thing they could, their partners. One perpetrator in a refugee camp noted how an inability to provide financially because of his drinking contributed to his violence: ‘She threw me out of the house because she didn’t get rations […] So I threw a chair and injured her head’ (Ezard, 2014, p.688).

**Theme 2: withdrawal and addiction**

For both perpetrators’ and survivors’ who were receiving treatment for substance use or who were dependent on substances, withdrawal and addiction made survivors vulnerable to IPV as ‘the addictive properties’ of substances can take “priority over healthy functioning in the relationship, and contribute[d] to a culture of violence in intimate relationships” (Watt et al., 2017, p.103) stating “crack and relationships don’t mix” (Macy et al., 2013, p891). Irritability and frustration when ‘coming down’ or ‘craving’ alcohol (Sayanarayana et al., 2015; Wilson et al., 2017), heroin (Gilbert et al., 2001), methamphetamine (Abdul-Khabir et al., 2014; Ludwig-Barron et al., 2015) and crack (Watt, 2012) increased the risk of violence among perpetrators (and sometimes survivors) who were dependent on substances.

‘My son’s father used to beat me when he didn’t have money to get straight. He used to hit me when he was going through withdrawal [from heroin], when I didn’t… give him money’ [survivor (Gilbert et al., 2001) p.525]

‘He was having one of his come-down moments. And he didn’t have any more [methamphetamine]. He started flipping out on me for like no reason at all. It was sort of like a hostage situation. He smashed the phone cords out the wall. He wouldn’t let me leave the bedroom’ [survivor (Ludwig-Barron et al., 2015, p.852)].
Many substance dependent survivors and perpetrators accounted for aggression and physical violence when money was required to purchase drugs, including when the survivor failed to procure or raise money for drugs (Abdul-Khabir et al., 2014; Dhar, 2014; Gilbert et al., 2001; Macy et al., 2013, O’Brien et al., 2016; Radcliffe et al., 2017; Watt, 2012; Watt et al., 2017; Wright et al., 2007). Three studies found similar results for alcohol (Boonzaier & Rey, 2003; Brazier, 2009; Menon, 2009).

‘No, if I don’t give him money, then he beats. If I don’t give him money for drinking or chewing tobacco, then he beats me’ [survivor (Menon, 2009) p.128]

‘I had a fight with my girlfriend about money for tik (methamphetamine). My sister brought her money, and I asked for tik money. She came up with all forms of excuses—we have to do this, we have to do that. I wouldn’t understand, and that’s when I hit her’ [perpetrator (Watt et al., 2017) p.103]

‘Yea, when he is high [on methamphetamine] he can get angry, and doesn’t really know what he’s doing, but it’s really when he misses his high [misses a vein when injecting] we’re IV drug users so if you do a shot and you miss it, then you don’t like feel it. … So it’s kind of like you go through all of this to get money when you never have any…and we could’ve used it for something else you know, bills or whatever to take the stress off…… and you spend all this time and you wait and you get it and then he missed [the high], he didn’t even feel it. So he’s angry and frustrated and we’re in the bathroom and he just like grabbed me you know and started shaking me and beating on me’ [survivor (Hayashi, 2016) p.91–92]

Survivors were also susceptible to economic abuse as perpetrators spent or stole family resources (Boonzaier & Rey, 2003; Brazier, 2009; Dhar, 2014; Satyanarayana et al., 2015; Radcliffe et al., 2017; Wilson et al., 2017; Watt et al., 2017).

Where the female partner was drug dependent, substances could be used as a bargaining tool by perpetrators to coerce or force sex (Ludwig-Barron et al., 2015; Macy et al., 2013; O’Brien et al., 2016; Watt et al., 2017) andpendicular assault (Abdul-Khabir et al., 2014; Wilson et al., 2017), and unwanted pregnancies: ‘[My partner] told me he didn’t like condoms… he wouldn’t give me the dope if I didn’t listen to him’ (Abdul-Khabir et al., 2014, p.6).

Hyper-sexuality and altered rational thinking resulting from methamphetamine use was cited as a justification for coerced or forced sex:

‘If the drug [methamphetamine] is in your system… you are just thinking that I want sex and I want it now’ [perpetrator (Watt et al., 2017) p.103]

‘When he gets high on meth and drinks, he cannot have an erection, so we can be having sex for days before he finally gets an erection…and just cuz he has an erection doesn’t mean that anything is going to happen… Even worse, I’ve been made to be fucking intimate in front of people with him, you know… while he performs anal sex on me. I don’t like that, it hurts… he’s hurt me to the point where my butt is bleeding. He knows that I don’t want to be intimate with him like that at all. He don’t care… he does it to me … to show me and everyone that I belong to him and what would happen if I try to leave him’ [survivor (Hayashi, 2016) p.98]

Survivors’ substance-using status could also be used as a form of emotional abuse, against those demeaned as ‘bad mothers’ (Macy et al., 2013; Mathews et al., 2015), ‘prostitutes’ (Macy et al., 2013), ‘alcoholics’ (Abdul-Khabir et al., 2014), ‘worthless’ (Watt et al., 2017) and ‘junkies’ (Gilbert et al., 2001). One survivor recounted her partner berating: ‘You’ll never be anything more than a junkie; ‘you must have slept with the entire world – how else did you get the crack’ (Gilbert et al., 2001, p.526).

Perpetrators were seen by survivors to force or obligate women to trade sex for money or drugs (Gilbert et al., 2001; Macy et al., 2013; Watt et al., 2017), sometimes castigating them afterwards as a way of manipulating them into doing it again (Macy et al., 2013, p.892). Sex trading was described as “a double-edged sword” (Macy et al., 2013, p.892), that simultaneously brought perpetrators’ approval and disapproval.

‘Almost all participants explained that sex was expected when a man provided methamphetamine to a woman, as one man characterised: ‘When men and women smoke together, sex is inevitable’. Many participants explained that women should expect physical or sexual violence if they resist sexual advances from men who provided them with methamphetamine. One male participant explained that women should avoid resisting so as to avoid physical assault: ‘If [women] don’t want (to have sex) they know maybe the guy will hit them, so they might as well do what the guy wants to keep the peace’ [perpetrator (Watt et al., 2017) p.103].

In these relationships, where violence, drugs and love have become heavily entangled, sex work was, for some women, perceived to be a way of caring for a withdrawing partner: ‘When he was coming off of crack, I knew what he was going through and it was just like the love didn’t want him to go through that. I would automatically prostitute, so that he wouldn’t have that’ (Gilbert et al., 2001). Other women in this study explained that they engaged in prostitution to provide drugs for their partner and thus ‘keep the peace. So there won’t be so many conflicts. That you know they got their wake-up shot in the morning. This way they can’t bitch that they can’t get up and go to work’ (p. 529).

Theme 3: Impact on relationship

Beyond IPV perpetration related to intoxication and withdrawal, substances played a central role in subtle forms of everyday abuse, impacting on intimate relationship in which women described feelings of ‘hypervigilance’, ‘overburden’, and ‘co-dependency’. Survivors recounted three ways in which ‘hypervigilance’ manifested itself. First, their partner’s unpredictability was enhanced by his intoxication level, summed up as ‘living in fear’ (Wilson et al., 2017) as ‘after he had been using, I never felt safe’ (O’Brien et al., 2016, p.68). Second, there was an emotional instability associated with perpetrators’ substance use that survivors had to bear (Brazier, 2009, p.107). Third, there were inconsistencies in love and affection: ‘I never knew what way he would swing, if it would be really fun or if it would be really bad’ (O’Brien et al., 2016, p.68). Being vigilant to perpetrators’ moods and intoxication levels as a strategy to avoid or diffuse violence was described as exhausting by survivors and constituting a form of abuse in itself.

Generally, perpetrators’ accounts lacked awareness of the impact of their violence on survivors; violence justified in specifically motivated (Hearn, 1998; Mathews et al., 2015) and measured ways by men who claimed they were in control (Radcliffe et al., 2017) and exacting discipline. As one perpetrator surmised: ‘she deserves what she gets’ (Hearn, 1998, p.130–131).

With the exception of one case where a perpetrator acknowledged the unpredictability caused by IPV perpetration: ‘she got to a point where she accepted the good with the bad’ (Mathews et al., 2015, p.10) – most depicted their violence as discrete incidents (Hearn, 1998; Gilchrist et al., 2015; Go et al., 2003). By contrast, female survivors detailed an overburden (Boonzaier & Rey, 2003) of marital and familial responsibility due to their partner’s substance use. Alongside the enduring threat of IPV perpetration this overburden often included an unfair distribution of household chores, childcare duties, earning and managing money (Brazier, 2009; Menon, 2009; Boonzaier & Rey, 2003; Ezard, 2014; Nemeth et al., 2012), managing a stressful lifestyle derived from their partner’s substance use and related illnesses, and the social stigma and embarrassment that could accompany these (Ezard, 2014; Satyanarayana et al., 2015).

Both survivors and perpetrators described economic deprivation exacerbated by perpetrators stealing or using household resources to buy substances (Watt, 2012, p.86; Satyanarayana et al., 2015, p.40; Brazier, 2009, p.108; Ezard, 2014, p.689; Watt, 2012, p.86; Watt et al., 2017, p.103). In some cases, the economic disadvantage suffered as a result of their male partner’s spending was said by survivors to be the
worst and most insidious aspect of his substance use (Gilbert et al., 2001, p.529). Where both partners used drugs, survivors reported that their partners expected women to provide them with money, prioritising their own need for drugs over them (Gilbert et al., 2001, p.529, Wright et al., 2007):

‘I went to post office one day and I’ve come back and he’s poorly. He’s asked me for some money and I’ve told him to fuck off and he beat me black and blue, threw me downstairs and given me black eyes’ cos I wouldn’t give him no money for no drugs and he just took it all off me and fucked off and left me rattling’ [survivor (Wright et al., 2007) p. 421]

Survivors also reported that their partners took more than their equal share of drugs (Gilbert et al., 2001, p.527), and often demanded or expected to use the drugs first, especially when injecting (Gilbert et al., 2001; Wright et al., 2007; Radcliffe et al., 2017). Perpetrators, by contrast, tended to offer alternative explanations for prioritising themselves.

‘We’d just gone and got our heroin and was cooking it up and she was convinced that I’d had more of it and it just started and she was just getting in my face and I just lashed out […] I just grabbed her round the throat and told her to fuck off and pushed her away.’ [perpetrator (Radcliffe et al., 2017) p67]

For substance-using couples, there was also a heightened complexity in the forms of abuse experienced in relation to co-dependency. Survivors who relied on their partners for their drug supply (Macy et al., 2013) and/or administration (Wright et al., 2007), appeared particularly vulnerable to abuse and felt the need to stay in abusive relationships.

‘We were so much into it [getting high] that I really didn’t care if I got my ass kicked or not, … we always made up … with meth and sex, so it was all good for me at that time… It didn’t matter how bad he beat me, but afterwards, the reward was meth and sex… sometimes I would… push that button’ [female survivor/perpetrator (Hamilton & Goeders, 2010) p.15]

Here, a woman described how she prioritized getting high over personal safety. Her account gives voice to the complex ways that perpetrators depicted this dynamic as ‘love and abuse’ (Boonzaier & Rey, 2003), where relationships brought intimacy but also abuse. Both survivors and perpetrators depicted this dynamic as ‘what we do together’ (Brazier, 2009, p.113; O’Brien et al., 2016, p.67; Abdul-Khabir et al., 2014, p.5) and ‘drugs taking over’ (Radcliffe et al., 2017, p.57). But while perpetrators advocated abstinence to solve the issue of IPV perpetration (Matamonasa-Bennett, 2015; Nemeth et al., 2012), survivors were more cautious (Nemeth et al., 2012) and aware of the violence repeating, especially if they did not use substances themselves or had already witnessed their partners’ failed attempts to reduce, or abstain from, drug and/or alcohol consumption (Brazier, 2009, p.117; Nemeth et al., 2012; Boonzaier & Rey, 2003, p.1010). In some cases, perpetrators appeared to have prevented their partners entering treatment to maintain their control over them and sustain co-dependency – a point we return to below (Gilbert et al., 2001).

**Theme 4: power and control**

Ideas of male superiority and expectations of respect permeated the studies (e.g. Radcliffe et al., 2017, p.67–69; Dhar, 2014, p.54; Hearn, 1998; Watt et al., 2017, p.103). Irrespective of whether the perpetrator was a dependent substance user or not, the reported violence was made possible and played out through traditional and unequal gender roles. Perpetrators’ needs to control their partners were accentuated by intoxication (Dhar, 2014; Hayashi, 2016; Menon, 2009). Gilbert et al. (2001) describe how survivors’ revealed that “a frequent reason for [men’s] drug-enhanced irritation was over their [survivors’] failure to cook, clean, or perform other household duties to their partners’ satisfaction” (p. 525). Violence appeared also to be motivated by the perceived impropriety of women’s substance use that perpetrators thought reflected badly on their inability to control their female partners (Radcliffe et al., 2017). All perpetrators in Wood’s study “invoked the narrative that men are dominant and superior” (Wood, 2004, p.566). Likewise, survivors were reported to reject their partners’ attribution of violence to alcohol over issues of power and control (Galvani, 2006). Such insights, however, were rarely expressed by perpetrators (Watt, 2012, p.90), who, as noted above, seemingly preferred, or felt more able to subscribe to, uniquely motivated accounts.

Drug using women’s dependence on, and their partners’ control of, the supply and administration of their drug use meant that relationships were sometimes difficult to escape; a dependency that was open to abuse (Wright et al., 2007; O’Brien et al., 2016; Macy et al., 2013). Some women were physically punished by perpetrators for seeking treatment for their own dependent drug use:

‘He can go and do what he want to do and then, you know, I try to better myself but he don’t like that. He beat on me, you know, I started the program, he’s beating on me’ [survivor (Gilbert et al., 2001) p.530]

Gendered power inequalities appeared to be exacerbated by socioeconomic deprivation in all studies except one (Wilson et al., 2017).

**Theme 5: psychological vulnerabilities**

Many studies found an interplay between psychological vulnerabilities, substance use and IPV. Childhood trauma was reported by many perpetrators and survivors (Gilchrist et al., 2015; Hamilton & Goeders, 2010; Hearn, 1998; Ludwig-Barron et al., 2015; Macy et al., 2013; Matamonasa-Bennett, 2015; Mathews et al., 2015; Nemeth et al., 2012; Radcliffe et al., 2017; Watt, 2012; Wilson et al., 2017; Wood, 2004), often resulting in poor mental health that was sometimes self-medicated by the use of substances from an early age. Emotional instability (Brazier, 2009) and ‘mood’ (Hearn, 1998) were often related to mental health issues, where perpetrators’ behaviour and substance use was affected by depression (Brazier, 2009; Hearn, 1998; Nemeth et al., 2012), post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (Macy et al., 2013; Mathews et al., 2015), and anxiety (Watt, 2012).

Other perpetrators attributed their violence to anger resulting from negative experiences in childhood (Hearn, 1998, p.124; Hamilton & Goeders, 2010, p.324; Wood, 2004, p.556), “outside of the actor’s control” (Mathews et al., 2015). Blaming behaviour on external attributions provided perpetrators with seemingly reasonable justifications of why they, ‘their real selves’, were not IPV perpetrators (Wood, 2004). IPV perpetration was explained by both survivors and perpetrators as a response to anxiety and anger, often from emotional insecurities shaped by negative childhood experiences, and mediated by substances.

‘My mother was an alcoholic… I was taken from my mother and placed in foster care, which I believe caused the great trauma of my life’ (blames traumas he experienced for his violence toward women) [perpetrator (Wood, 2004), p.556]

‘I know it’s just due to drugs. And when… we’re both sober, we didn’t have no problems. …I mean I think I have a lot of suppressed anger, also, inside, ‘cause of my childhood and everything, so it’s kind of just all tied in together’ [female survivor/perpetrator (Hamilton & Goeders, 2010), p.324]

Perpetrators in one study also displayed symptoms of PTSD from
combat including “nightmares and flashbacks” (Mathews et al., 2015, p.115). Their response to (perceived) threats could be impacted by these experiences as well as “experiences of adversity in childhood” that both permitted “them to commit acts of violence, and made them... insecure, distrustful and with very low self-esteem” (p.115). Such psychological vulnerabilities, often in the context of a history of trauma, can “undermine [the] ability to have enduring and fulfilled relationships” (Mathews et al., 2015, p.115), especially when mental health needs remain unmet into adulthood (Nemeth et al., 2012, p.945).

Survivors anticipated increased likelihood of IPV when their partners were suffering ‘moods’ or poor mental health, whether substances were being used to cope with these (Galvani, 2006 (alcohol); O’Brien et al., 2016 (crack-induced hallucinations and paranoia)) or not (Mathews et al., 2015).

‘I had to look at his face to see whether he was in a happy mood or a sad mood. If he smiled I used to think, we’ll be alright tonight’ [survivor (Galvani, 2006) p. 650]

‘It’s like his depression just had him angry. So he didn’t know how to cope and he just expressed himself through anger and then the violence’ [survivor (O’Brien et al., 2016) p.68]

Substance use could also be used to sustain the secrecy of other problems including violence: ‘I self-medicated myself to the point where I won’t, I’ve never told anybody anything’ [perpetrator (Watt, 2012) p.69].

Theme 6: survivors’ agency and resistance

Survivors often (eventually) ‘fought back’ mostly against physical aggression (e.g. Gilbert et al., 2001; Galvani, 2006; Ezard, 2014; Radcliffe et al., 2017; Mathews et al., 2015; Hayashi, 2016), despite the cultural unacceptability of doing so (Ezard, 2014; Go et al., 2003). However, women’s attempts to resist their partners’ demands for money to buy substances (Dhar, 2014, p5; Galvani, 2006; Watt et al., 2017; Go et al., 2003) or the unequal splitting of drugs (Radcliffe et al., 2017) were often perceived as antagonistic by male partners and led to physical and emotional IPV.

Survivors discussed strategies for moderating and mediating IPV (e.g., Wilson et al., 2017; Boonzaier & Rey, 2003; Satyanarayana et al., 2015) to stay safe by attempting to manage their partners’ substance use or by removing themselves and their children from anticipated violent situations:

‘Depending on how mad he is and how much he uses [methamphetamine] and drinks [alcohol], he just loses his temper and we argue and he slapped me. But I don’t always take that...sometimes when I’m high it just brings down those walls and I fight back. Last time we fought... maybe the fourth time he hit me, I just swung back and that shut him up. If I was clean and sober I wouldn’t even spit on him (laughs). I would just leave. I wouldn’t be around a person like that. We only have a relationship because of meth and stuff, that’s normal, and without those things we don’t even have a relationship’ [survivor (Hayashi, 2016) p.92]

Survivors in one study ‘actively managed/moderated the cycle and points where violence could erupt [through] four main strategies: preventing (e.g. limiting his drinking); predicting (e.g. recognising signs); responding (e.g. avoiding arguments); and protecting (e.g. removing self and children)’ [(Wilson et al., 2017) p.115]. Survivors reported giving their husbands alcohol to prevent arguments (Ezard, 2014), even showing a preference regarding which substances their partner used: ‘[I preferred him] to use prescription medication rather than alcohol because when he used prescription drugs, he really stayed to himself’ (O’Brien et al., 2016, p.67). Some women explained that they shared some of the enjoyment that could come from substance use, and could “split” the ‘good husband’ from the ‘bad husband’ as a form of coping (Brazier, 2009; Boonzaier & Rey, 2003). Others used substances to “numb” themselves in anticipation of violence and to reduce the pain of its infliction (Wilson et al., 2017, p.119; Brazier, 2009).

Discussion

Our meta-ethnography revealed differences and similarities in survivor and perpetrator narratives regarding the interplay between substance use and IPV perpetration in the contexts of intoxication, withdrawal and addiction, impact on relationship, wider dynamics of power and control, psychological vulnerabilities, and survivors’ agency and resistance. Survivors and perpetrators both explained IPV perpetration in terms of a change or disinhibition in self when under the influence of alcohol or stimulant drugs. There was an increased risk of IPV perpetration when dependent perpetrators were in withdrawal or craving alcohol, heroin and stimulant drugs due to irritability and frustration or over the need to procure money to buy substances. Perpetrators who used substances were more likely to blame their violence on intoxication or their partner’s behaviour. Survivors often depicted their partner’s intoxication as part of a wider pattern of behaviour, including controlling tendencies and emotional unpredictability. Whilst perpetrators depicted their violence as typically motivated and moderated, the studies exposed assaults that were uncontrolled and brutal, the repetition of which survivors anticipated.

Because IPV perpetration can be shameful for both survivors and perpetrators, their narratives often serve explanatory and defensive functions, rationalising why IPV occurred (Edin & Nilsson, 2014), in terms that reflect the social expectations for men to provide and protect, and for women to serve and respect (Gadd, 2002; Somers, 1994). The defensive nature of IPV is further exacerbated in the context of substance use which is heavily stigmatised. It also contributes to socio-economic disadvantage, which compounds feelings of shame and disrespect, which, rather cyclically, underlie some men’s desire for control. In contexts where both partners were substance users, the vulnerability this cycle instilled was often projected back as disgust onto female partners who were cast as bad mothers, addicts or sexually ‘loose’. When some perpetrators discussed their partner’s substance use, they described violence as a way of disciplining or even helping them to abstain from substances.

By showing how intoxication is perceived to change perpetrators’ behaviours (‘new’ or ‘dissinhibited’ self), our findings challenge the idea that intimate partner violence or the men who use it fall into discrete categories and types (Holtzworth-Munroe & Gregory, 1994; Holtzworth-Munroe & Meehan, 2004; Kelly & Johnson, 2008). Instead, IPV perpetration is dependent on a series of contextual factors (Krug, Mercy, Dahlberg, & Zwi, 2002), including, but not limited to intoxication, withdrawal and addiction, concomitant impact on the relationship, such as ‘overburden’ and ‘hypervigilance’, together with the gendered dynamics of power, control and psychological vulnerabilities that substance use coalesces with.

Notwithstanding its entanglement with intoxication, withdrawal, addiction and psychological vulnerabilities in men who use substances, IPV perpetration and its threat are ways in which men pursue power over female partners often against a backdrop of feelings of powerlessness (Jewkes, Flood, & Lang, 2015). While recognising the complex reasons that women may stay in abusive relationships (Anderson & Saunders, 2003), findings from this meta-ethnography suggest there are also complicating dynamics within relationships in which both partners use substances that may make it particularly difficult for women to leave when they are subject to psychological and physical IPV. Among women who use substances, the need for shelter, lack of financial support, fear of retaliation and not wanting to interfere with their children’s wellbeing have been reported as additional reasons for not leaving abusive relationships (David, Hussen, & Kalokhe, 2016).

The relationship between substance use and IPV perpetration differed by substance used (Smith et al., 2012). We have illustrated how substance use both enhances tactics of control and explains a loss of control. The relevance of substance use to IPV perpetration also varies according to its severity and frequency. For perpetrators and survivors who are dependent on substances, the role of substances in IPV
perpetration, are far wider than intoxication. Procuring money for drugs, drug-seeking and administering drugs can become the focus of the relationship when both partners use substances. Abuse and violence often occurs in these contexts. In the studies reviewed, irritability and frustration while in withdrawal and craving from alcohol, heroin and stimulants contributed to arguments, particularly with female partners who used drugs. Some women who used drugs also described being violent when under the influence or when craving or in withdrawal, making it less clear whether their own use of force was always conceivable as ‘violent resistance’ (Johnson, 2008). In addition, drug using survivors and perpetrators discussed increased likelihood of violence when survivors failed to procure or raise money for drugs or refused to give perpetrators money for drugs. In such instances, unequal gender roles and expectations, together with notions about appropriate female behaviour, foregrounded IPV across these highly diverse samples in which survivors and/or perpetrators of IPV use substances (Jowkes, Morrell et al., 2015, p. S115). Likewise, drug-induced paranoia and fears of infidelity were used by perpetrators to justify IPV in ways that extended men’s more everyday invocations of sexual jealousy and distrust as reasons for checking up on partners. The studies reviewed revealed that, where both partners used illicit drugs, it was common for perpetrators to also control the preparation and administration of drugs. This kind of control and its capacity for unfairness could lead to arguments that were concluded with violence.

Implications for intervention

Few interventions exist to reduce IPV perpetration among men who use substances. Our findings support the need for tailored integrated interventions that concurrently address the complex ways that substance use and IPV perpetration intersect (Gilchrist et al., 2003; Gilchrist & Hegarty, 2017) in relation to social, psychological and environmental factors (Heise & Moreno, 2002). While acknowledging that power and control are implicated in IPV perpetration, perpetrator interventions for men who use substances should address other key risk areas including intoxication and withdrawal, anger and emotional dependency, jealousy and assessment and treatment of mental disorders. Given the potential pathway from trauma to mental health, substance use and IPV perpetration, a trauma-informed approach is recommended, where “service delivery is influenced by an understanding of the impact of interpersonal violence and victimization on an individual’s life and development” (Elliott, Bjelajac, Fallot, Markoff, & Glover Reed, 2005, p. 462). There is a need for interventions with substance-using perpetrators to explore a continuum of control, considering each incident in relation to its contextual specificity. Given the consensus between survivors and perpetrators that violence occurs during a change in self that exposes a more ‘monstrous’ side, interventions should work on reframing these narratives to change attitudes and subsequently behaviour. Interventions with perpetrators should focus on how they describe their own and, where relevant their partner’s, substance use as these descriptions often justify and sustain IPV perpetration. Such an approach would enhance self-responsibility and willingness to change (Walker, 2017).

Conclusions

This is the first meta-ethnography to explore the interplay between substance use and IPV perpetration across 26 studies. Narratives offer a way of understanding motives and situations of IPV perpetration without having to take what is said at face value. Because acts of IPV perpetration are socially stigmatised, many such narratives serve defensive functions for their tellers. Since survivors’ accounts offer different perspectives on IPV perpetration to perpetrators, our research supports the need for dyadic research with both partners, while acknowledging how ethically challenging this is.

Conflict of interest

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