

REVIEW

Prevalence of teen dating violence in Europe: A systematic review of studies since 2010

Paulina Tomaszewska¹  | Isabell Schuster² 

¹ Department of Psychology, University of Potsdam, Potsdam, Germany

² Department of Education and Psychology, Free University of Berlin, Berlin, Germany

Correspondence

Paulina Tomaszewska, Department of Psychology, University of Potsdam, Karl-Liebknecht-Str. 24-25, D-14476 Potsdam, Germany.

Email:

paulina.tomaszewska@uni-potsdam.de

Abstract

Violence in adolescent relationships is a common problem with numerous negative short- and long-term consequences. Because most of the evidence on teen dating violence (TDV) synthesized in reviews comes from North American studies, this review aimed to compile evidence on prevalence rates of TDV based on studies identified for Europe only. Specifically, we considered different forms of TDV victimization and perpetration, gender differences, and its measurement. A systematic literature search of the most popular databases Ebsco and PubMed yielded a total of $N = 34$ studies, with most of the studies identified for Spain, and only a few studies in other European countries. In sum, the results revealed a great variability in prevalence rates across and within the European countries, a common pattern of gender differences, and a wide range of applied measures, corresponding with the evidence from the North American studies. Implications for future research and policy were discussed.

KEYWORDS

gender, measurement, prevalence, review, teen dating violence victimization and perpetration

1 | INTRODUCTION

Developing healthy intimate relationships is a universal and important task for adolescents worldwide. However, a substantial body of literature has demonstrated that adolescents are facing different forms of violence within their close relationships (Spencer

This is an open access article under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/) License, which permits use and distribution in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited, the use is non-commercial and no modifications or adaptations are made.

© 2021 The Authors. *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development* published by Wiley Periodicals LLC.

et al., 2020; Wincentak et al., 2017), further referred to as *teen dating violence* (TDV; see definition below). Past evidence has consistently shown a wide range of negative short- and long-term consequences, such as depression and anxiety disorders, unprotected sex, suicidal ideations, and revictimization in early adulthood (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2020; Jouriles et al., 2017; MacGregor et al., 2019; Taquette & Monteiro, 2019). While the vast majority of empirical evidence regarding TDV, which comes predominantly from North America, has been compiled in numerous systematic reviews and synthesized in meta-analyses (Exner-Cortens et al., 2016; Lee & Wong, 2020; Spencer et al., 2020; Wincentak et al., 2017), up to date, no such compilation of literature exists based on European studies only. Recently, several researchers, however, have called for more research on violence in close relationships among adolescents in the European context and pointed out the importance of their healthy relationships to prevent other forms of violence, such as domestic violence (e.g., Barter et al., 2017; Gadd et al., 2014). Within Europe, evidence has so far been compiled only on sexual aggression victimization and perpetration among young adults, revealing substantial prevalence rates of both victimization and perpetration; however, not focusing on close relationships among adolescents (Krahé et al., 2014). Therefore, to build a broad international knowledge base on TDV, this study aimed at compiling the evidence regarding the prevalence and measurement of dating violence within adolescent relationships across Europe, focusing on different forms of violence, gender differences, and measurement. Such an overview may, in turn, promote the awareness of the scope of violence in teen dating relationships in Europe and facilitate the development and/or implementation of prevention measures.

1.1 | Definition of TDV

This review is based on a broad definition proposed by the CDC (2020), conceptualizing TDV as a type of intimate partner violence occurring in adolescent relationships and including physical, sexual, psychological violence, and stalking behavior. All these forms of violent behaviors may occur face-to-face between the dating partners, but they may also take place electronically, for example, if partners are posting sexual pictures of each other without consent. This phenomenon has been referred to as sexting (see Madigan et al., 2018, for a review). However, in this review, only nonconsensual or pressured sexting has been considered as violence. Furthermore, cyber dating aggression or abuse defined as “the control, harassment, stalking, and abuse of one’s dating partner via technology and social media” (Zweig et al., 2014, p. 1306) was also considered within the definition underlying this review.

1.2 | Prevalence of TDV

A substantial body of primarily North American research has demonstrated that violence toward one’s dating partner is a common phenomenon in adolescent intimate relationships. For instance, the meta-analytic review of prevalence rates by Wincentak et al. (2017) focused on two forms of violence—physical and sexual—and analyzed a total of 101 studies that were conducted with adolescents aged 13–18 years. The meta-analytic review revealed an overall rate of 20% for perpetrating physical and 9% for perpetrating sexual TDV. With respect to gender differences, significantly more female (25%) than male adolescents (9%) reported physical violence toward their dating partner. However, significantly more male (10%) than female adolescents (3%) reported sexual dating violence perpetration.

Regarding victimization across the included studies, 21% of both male and female adolescents reported physical victimization by their dating partner, with no significant gender differences. However, in contrast to the pattern in sexual dating violence perpetration, significantly more female (14%) than male adolescents (8%) reported sexual victimization. Furthermore, the review also revealed a great heterogeneity in prevalence rates, ranging from 1% to 61% for physical violence and from <1% to 54% for sexual violence in adolescent dating relationships.

Studies that examined other forms of TDV, such as psychological aggression or cyber dating abuse, also demonstrated substantial rates among both female and male adolescents. For example, Peskin et al. (2017) who used a sample of sixth graders in Texas found a prevalence rate of nearly 15% for perpetration of cyber dating abuse (no separate rates reported for female and male adolescents), including behaviors such as unwanted sexting or uploading embarrassing photos. The study by Hébert et al. (2017), comprising a representative sample of Quebec high-school students, found a prevalence of 33.09% for psychological dating violence victimization in the last year (while no separate rates were reported for female and male adolescents). Taken together, North American evidence clearly indicates that TDV presents a serious issue among adolescents; however, the extent in different parts of the world has not been systematically compiled.

1.3 | Measurement of TDV

Over the past decades, different measures have been developed to assess violence in (adolescent) dating relationships. Smith et al. (2015), who reviewed the literature regarding instruments assessing TDV, found 48 different behavioral measures in 130 studies, focusing on different forms of victimization and perpetration. The authors demonstrated that the most frequently used measure was the Revised Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS2) (Straus et al., 1996), followed by the Safe Dates Scale (Foshee et al., 1996), and the Conflict in Adolescent Dating Relationships Inventory (CADRI) (Wolfe et al., 2001). Another review by Exner-Cortens et al. (2016) also found that the most frequently used measures in articles published between 1983 and 2012 were the CTS or the CADRI. Further, Capaldi et al. (2012) reported that from 58 studies with adolescent samples, the CTS2 was used in 40%, followed by the Safe Dates Scales (14%), the Conflict in Relationships Scale (Wolfe et al., 1994)—a pre-version of the CADRI, and the CADRI itself (5%). In addition, as stated by Smith et al. (2015), although these measures (i.e., CTS, CADRI, Safe Dates Scale) aimed to assess the same forms of violence (psychological, physical, and sexual), they varied greatly regarding the number of items they used or the severity of the acts they assessed. Furthermore, Smith et al. (2015) described that many studies used modified or adapted versions of the original scales. For example, they used a shortened version of the scales, (culturally) adapted the language, and modified the response categories. As Capaldi et al. (2012) and Exner-Cortens et al. (2016) indicated, modifying and adapting the original scales is a common practice among researchers. However, it has been established that changes of this kind produce tremendous variability in prevalence rates and hamper the comparability of the data across studies (Krahé et al., 2014). In addition, such scale adaptations may also affect the validity and reliability of scales (Smith et al., 2015).

In sum, reviews, commonly based on North American studies, indicated that most of the measures applied to assess TDV are based on established, behaviorally specific, and multi-item scales. However, due to largely practiced modifications and adaptations of these scales, there is a great heterogeneity in prevalence rates and the evidence is not directly comparable.

2 | CURRENT STUDY

Past evidence suggests that TDV is a relevant problem among adolescents with serious consequences for their health and well-being (CDC, 2020; Taquette & Monteiro, 2019). Despite calls for more research on TDV in the European context (e.g., Barter et al., 2017; Gadd et al., 2014), at the moment, no literature review on this phenomenon in Europe has been compiled. Addressing this shortcoming, this study's goal was to provide a comprehensive overview of studies conducted with adolescents since 2010 in Europe (based on a political definition of Europe). Specifically, this review aimed to provide a comprehensive overview of different forms of TDV, referring to the broad definition of this phenomenon (CDC, 2020), and investigated the gender differences as well as the measurement of TDV. As several authors suggested that adolescents start their romantic relationships between 10 and 13 years (CDC, 2020; see Collins et al., 2009, for a review) and that adolescence itself might be divided into three developmental stages (early, middle, and late), this review focused on adolescents aged 10 (early adolescence) to 20 years (late adolescence), as proposed by Smetana et al. (2006).

3 | METHOD

3.1 | Literature search

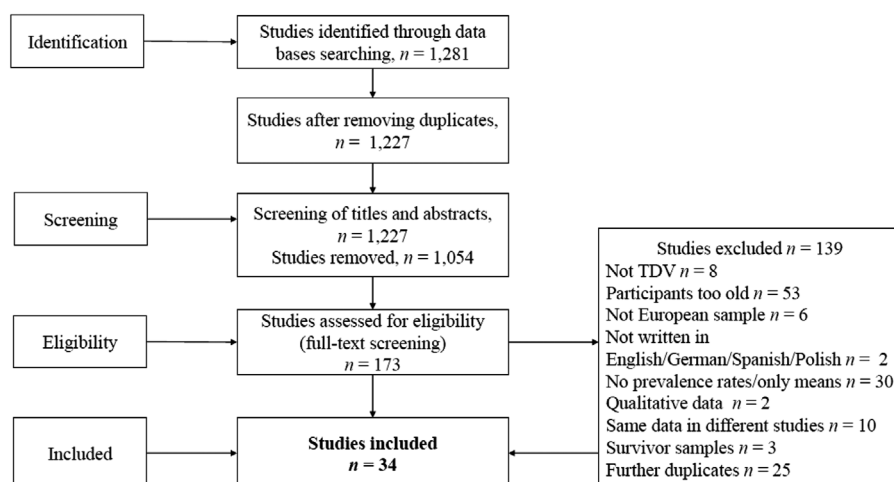
Two popular online information management platforms were used to identify studies of interest: (1) Ebsco, on which four electronic databases (APA PsychINFO, APA PsycArticles, PSYINDEX Literature with PSYINDEX Tests, and Psychological and Behavioral Sciences Collection) were chosen, and (2) PubMed. On both platforms, the search terms addressing country, prevalence/predictors, age, violence, and dating/relationship were used (see Table 1), applying the Boolean operators "AND" and "OR." We decided against additional search on Google Scholar because this platform does not enable a combination of the search terms based on "AND" and "OR" operators, thus not allowing an estimation of identified studies (first step in the study selection process; see also Figure 1). For the selection of search terms related to the construct of TDV and the variables of interest, we screened previous reviews to compile a comprehensive list (Exner-Cortens et al., 2016; Koker et al., 2014; Lee & Wong, 2020; Vagi et al., 2013). In terms of the country selection, we applied the broad political definition of Europe that consists of 51 independent states¹. The systematic search (in February 2021) elicited 1,281 studies (Ebsco: $n = 495$; PubMed: $n = 786$). Both authors conducted this step independently and obtained the same number of studies.

3.2 | Inclusion and exclusion criteria and selection of studies

To provide a compilation of studies on TDV that is comprehensive but tailored as much as possible, several inclusion criteria were applied. We selected studies to be included in this review, which (1) reported prevalence rates of any type of victimization or perpetration of TDV (psychological, physical, sexual, cyber dating violence, or non-consensual sexting); (2) considered participants between 10 and 20 years old; (3) were published in English, German, Polish, or Spanish (authors' native languages or close to the level of a native language); (4) were published between January 2010 and February 2021; and (5) were to be found through Ebsco or PubMed. We excluded publications that (1) reported statistical means instead of frequencies of victimization or perpetration or qualitative data; (2) examined some kind of peer or adolescent violence but not strictly violence among dating part-

TABLE 1 Summary of search criteria and search terms

Country	Europe* OR Albania OR Andorra OR Armenia OR Austria OR Azerbaijan OR Belarus OR Belgium OR “Bosnia and Herzegovina” OR Bulgaria OR Croatia OR Cyprus OR Czech Republic OR Denmark OR Estonia OR Finland OR France OR Georgia OR Germany OR Greece OR Hungary OR Iceland OR Ireland OR Italy OR Kazakhstan OR Kosovo OR Latvia OR Liechtenstein OR Lithuania OR Luxembourg OR Malta OR Moldova OR Monaco OR Montenegro OR Netherlands OR North Macedonia OR Norway OR Poland OR Portugal OR Romania OR Russia OR San Marino OR Serbia OR Slovakia OR Slovenia OR Spain OR Sweden OR Switzerland OR Turkey OR Ukraine OR United Kingdom OR Vatican City OR Albanian OR Andorran OR Armenian OR Austrian OR Azerbaijani OR Belarusian OR Belgian OR “Bosnian and Herzegovinian” OR Bulgarian OR Croatian OR Cypriot OR Czech OR Danish OR Estonian OR Finnish OR French OR Georgian OR German OR Greek OR Hungarian OR Icelandic OR Irish OR Italian OR Kazakh OR Kosovan OR Kosovar OR Latvian OR Liechtensteiner OR Lithuanian OR Luxembourgian OR Luxemburgish OR Maltese OR Moldovan OR Monegasque OR Montenegrin OR Dutch OR North Macedonian OR Norwegian OR Polish OR Portuguese OR Romanian OR Russian OR Sanmarinese OR Serbian OR Slovak OR Slovakian OR Slovenian OR Spanish OR Swedish OR Swiss OR Turkish OR Ukrainian OR British
Prevalence/predictors	prevalence OR rate* OR estimate* OR predict* OR correlat*
Age group	teen* OR adolescen* OR youth OR “high school” OR “middle school”
Violence	“intimate partner violenc*” OR “physical violenc*” OR “sexual violenc*” OR “psychological violenc*” OR victimiz* OR aggress* OR perpetr* OR stalk*
Dating/relationship	dating OR dates OR “intimate relationships” OR “romantic relationships” OR partner

**FIGURE 1** The process of study selection. *Note.* Publications may have been excluded because of multiple criteria

ners/in close relationships; (3) examined child abuse as an outcome; or (4) were based on survivor samples (see also Figure 1).

After removing $n = 54$ duplicates, a first screening of titles and abstracts was conducted, resulting in an elimination of $n = 1,054$ records, leaving $n = 173$ studies for further inspection. Next, each author read half of the articles and assessed their eligibility for inclusion according to the criteria listed above. Because the criteria were clear and did not leave much room for interpretation, no double-blind coding was conducted and no

interrater agreement was assessed. If some ambiguities during the full-text screening arose, the respective study was read by both authors, and the conflicts were discussed among the authors. In this round, $n = 139$ studies were excluded because they did not explicitly address TDV, the participants were too old or not from Europe, the articles were not written in one of the criterion languages, no prevalence rates, only means or qualitative data were reported, same data were described in different studies, articles addressed survivor samples, or were just further duplicates (see Figure 1 for details). Finally, a total of $N = 34$ publications were included in this review.

3.3 | Assessment of the methodological quality of included studies

As assessing the risk of bias in prevalence studies has been postulated to be an important step in conducting and interpreting systematic literature reviews (Hoy et al., 2012), we rated the methodological quality of the included studies. Based on Hoy et al.'s (2012) tool for the risk of bias in prevalence studies and an adapted checklist from Nguyen et al. (2016), we used three items that assessed external validity (the representativeness of samples, the sampling procedure, and the non-response bias) and six items that assessed internal validity (the mode of data collection, the quality of the instruments, the definition, reference period, and parameters for statistical reporting). Based on the scoring procedure proposed by Nguyen et al. (2016), two research assistants rated the studies independently and assigned "0" (low risk) or "1" (high risk) to each of the nine items. If the information provided in the study was unclear or not available, the item was coded as "1." The total score ranged from 0 to 9, and, depending of the rating, each study was classified as having a low (0–3), moderate (4–6), or high (7–9) risk of bias.

4 | RESULTS

4.1 | General characteristics of the studies

Based on the systematic search of the literature, a total of $N = 34$ studies were identified in ten European countries. A detailed description of all studies can be found in the Supplementary Material (Table S1). As presented in Table 2, the majority of the studies come from Spain ($n = 21$), followed by Germany and the United Kingdom which provided the same number of studies ($n = 4$), and by Italy ($n = 3$). In Bulgaria, Cyprus, Norway, and Portugal respectively, two studies, and in Belgium and Denmark, one study per country were identified. Additionally, one study, based on a mixed sample comprising six European countries (Italy, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Spain, and United Kingdom) was included. Because three publications were multi-country studies (Barter et al., 2017; Stanley et al., 2018; Viejo et al., 2016), they were counted separately according to the number of countries/samples that they examined (i.e., Barter et al., 2017 and Stanley et al., 2018: United Kingdom plus Bulgaria, Cyprus, Italy, Norway; Viejo et al., 2016: Spain plus United Kingdom, resulting in $n = 9$). This yielded a total of $n = 43$ samples (see also Table 2). The ranges of the sample size varied across the studies and countries, from small samples with less than 200 participants in Germany, Portugal, Spain, and the United Kingdom, to large samples with more than 1,000 participants in Denmark, Germany, Spain, and the United Kingdom. About 58.1% of the studies based on convenience samples ($n = 25$), followed by 41.9% of studies with representative or random samples ($n = 18$), of which $n = 14$ studies were conducted in Spain. Almost all of the studies with representative or random samples were representative or random for a region (e.g., Izaguirre & Calvete, 2017), state (e.g., Beckmann et al., 2019), or

TABLE 2 General characteristics of the included studies

	Number of samples included	Range of sample sizes (smallest-largest)	Number of representative/random samples	Number of convenience samples	Number of victimization studies		Number of perpetration studies	
					Female	Male	Female	Male
Belgium	1	355	0	1	1	1	1	1
Bulgaria	2	648	0	2	2	2	1	1
Cyprus	2	505	0	2	2	2	1	1
Denmark	1	2,910	0	1	1	1	1	1
European sample	1	993	0	1	1	1	0	0
Germany	4	189–4,351	3	1	2	2	2	2
Italy	3	315–858	1	2	2	2	2	2
Norway	2	542	0	2	2	2	1	1
Portugal	2	197–221	0	2	2	2	2	2
Spain	21	199–4,337	14	7	14	14	16	17
United Kingdom	4	199–1,751	0	4	4	4	2	2
Total	43^a	189–4,351	18	25	33	33	29	30

Note. ^aThis counting is not consistent with the total number of publications included ($N = 34$) because three studies examined samples from more than one country (number of samples, $n = 9$), which are here counted separately.

school type (e.g., Connolly et al., 2010) in the respective country. Almost an equal number of samples considered both victimization by and perpetration of TDV, $n = 33$ versus $n = 30$, respectively. Except for one study that examined male participants only (Diaz-Aguado & Martinez, 2015), all studies addressed both gender groups. Unfortunately, no study considered TDV in same-sex relationships or with partners who had gender identifies that differed from male and female.

In terms of the different forms of violence, $n = 19$ samples provided prevalence rates on psychological, $n = 23$ on physical, $n = 17$ on sexual, and $n = 7$ on cyber dating victimization. In terms of perpetration, $n = 15$ samples provided prevalence rates on psychological, $n = 19$ on physical, $n = 15$ on sexual, and $n = 2$ on cyber dating violence (see Table S1 in the Supplementary Material).

4.2 | Measurement of TDV victimization and perpetration

With only a few exceptions ($n = 5$) (Diaz-Aguado & Martinez, 2015; Dixe et al., 2020; García-Díaz et al., 2018; Jankowiak et al., 2020; Pichiule Castañeda et al., 2014), all studies applied standardized and validated instruments or adapted versions of them (see Tables S1 and S2 in the Supplementary Materials for details). Altogether, $n = 14$ behavioral measures were used across all studies and countries. The most frequent instrument used was the CADRI ($n = 14$) (Wolfe et al., 2001), primarily in studies from Spain. The second most frequent instrument used were the Conflict Tactics Scales ($n = 5$), first, modified, or revised version (CTS, M-CTS, or CTS2) (Neidig, 1986; Straus, 1979; Straus et al., 1996), also mostly in studies from Spain. One of these studies from Spain (Fernández-González et al., 2013) also used the Sexual Dating Aggression Scale (Muñoz-Rivas et al., 2009) as an additional scale. Two of the multi-country studies (Barter et al., 2017; Stanley et al., 2018), one German study (Blättner et al., 2015), and one study from the United Kingdom (Young et al., 2018) used the Young People's Relationship Questionnaire (YPRQ) developed by Barter et al. (2009) ($n = 4$). One study from Spain (Muñoz-Fernández & Sánchez-Jiménez, 2020) used two scales: the Psychological Dating Abuse Scale (Foshee et al., 1996) and an adapted version of the Cyber Dating Abuse Scale (Zweig et al., 2013). Two studies from Spain (Cava, Martínez-Ferrer, et al., 2020; Cava, Tomás, et al., 2020) used the Cyber-Violence Scale in Adolescent Couples (Cib-VPA, Cava & Buelga, 2018). Several further instruments were applied only once. The Safe Dates Psychological Abuse Victimization Survey (Foshee et al., 1998), the National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey (Black et al., 2011), and the Sexual Experiences Scale (Koss et al., 2007) in a study from Denmark by Karsberg et al. (2018), the Dominating and Jealous Tactics Scale (Kasian & Painter, 1992) and the Appraisal of Sexual Aggression in Adolescents and Young Adults Scale (Muñoz-Rivas et al., 2009) in a study from Spain by Sebastián et al. (2014), the Marital Violence Inventory (Matos et al., 2000) in a study from Portugal by Neves et al. (2018), and the Dating Violence Questionnaire (Rodríguez-Franco et al., 2012) in a study from Spain by Cuadrado-Gordillo et al. (2020). Moreover, only $n = 2$ studies were based on single-item instruments (Jankowiak et al., 2020; Pichiule Castañeda et al., 2014). All other studies based on multi-item behaviorally specific measurements. The numbers of items ranged from 3 to 61 (see Table S1 in the Supplementary Material for more details).

4.3 | Methodological quality of the included studies

Of the 43 evaluated samples, $n = 34$ samples were coded as having a low (0–3 points) and $n = 9$ samples were coded as having a moderate (4–6 points) risk of bias. Five samples, two

from Germany (Beckmann et al., 2019; Kliem et al., 2018) and three from Spain (Calvete et al., 2016; Cava et al., 2015; Cava, Martínez-Ferrer, et al., 2020), met all criteria of quality and achieved a total score of 0. Six samples, one from Germany (Blättner et al., 2015), two from Spain (Dosil et al., 2019; Fernández-González et al., 2013), two from the United Kingdom (Stanley et al., 2018; Young et al., 2018), and one from Italy (Stanley et al., 2018) scored 4, and three further samples, one from Belgium (Glowacz et al., 2018), one from Portugal (Dixe et al., 2020), and one from Spain (Sebastián et al., 2014), scored 5. All other studies presented 1, 2, or 3 points. None of the studies was rated as having a high risk bias. For more details on the single criteria of the risk of bias assessment of the included studies see Table S3.

Comparing the low with moderate risk of bias studies, there is no clear evidence that studies assessed as having a moderate risk of bias (shaded samples in Table 3) systematically differed in terms of the prevalence rates of TDV victimization and perpetration from studies assessed as having a low risk of bias (all other studies in Table 3). A detailed comparison of low risk and moderate risk of bias studies can be found in the Supplementary Material.

4.4 | Prevalence of TDV in Europe

The prevalence rates of TDV victimization and perpetration for each country and study broken down by different forms of TDV and gender are presented in Table 3 (see also Table S1 in the Supplementary Material for more details on the respective studies). Across all countries and studies, the prevalence rates of *psychological* TDV victimization ranged from 5.9% to 95.5% for female and from 5.6% to 94.5% for male adolescents, of *physical* TDV victimization from 2.2% to 32.9% for female and from 0.8% to 29.8% for male adolescents, of *sexual* TDV victimization from 4.8% to 41.0% for female and from 2.4% to 39.0% for male adolescents, and of *cyber* TDV victimization from 0.6% to 48.0% for female and from 1.0% to 46.0% for male adolescents. Regarding the perpetration of TDV, prevalence rates of *psychological* TDV perpetration ranged from 7.0% to 97.0% for female and from 19.9% to 95.3% for male adolescents, of *physical* TDV perpetration from 2.1% to 46.0% for female and from 4.8% to 37.0% for male adolescents, of *sexual* TDV perpetration from 0.8% to 23.6% for female and from 1.6% to 43.6% for male adolescents, and of *cyber* TDV perpetration from 3.4% to 8.13% for female and from 7.0% to 4.55% for male adolescents².

4.5 | Prevalence of TDV victimization across the countries

In several countries more than one study was available. Therefore, to get a better overview of the prevalence rates across the countries, the highest prevalence rates for each country were extracted and presented for the different forms of TDV and for both gender groups.

Comparing the highest prevalence rates of *psychological* violence across the countries, as shown in Figure 2a, for female adolescents, the highest victimization rate was identified in Spain with 95.5% (Fernández-Fuertes & Fuertes, 2010) and the lowest in the mixed European sample with 25.1% (Jankowiak et al., 2020). For male adolescents, the highest victimization rate of *psychological* violence was also found in Spain with 94.5% (Fernández-Fuertes & Fuertes, 2010) and the lowest in Norway with 19.0% (Barter et al., 2017). Gender differences were reported in studies from Norway (19.0% vs. 32.0%, Barter et al., 2017) and from the United Kingdom (27.0% vs. 48.0%, Barter et al., 2017), with higher victimization rates of *psychological* violence for female than for male adolescents.

TABLE 3 Prevalence rates of TDV broken down by country, form, and gender

Country	Author(s)	R/C	Victimization (%)								Perpetration (%)													
			Psych/emot				Phy				Sex				Cyber				Overall					
			F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M		
Belgium	Glowacz et al. (2018) ^a	C	-	-	-	-	4.8	4.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.9	1.6	-	-	-	-
Bulgaria	Barter et al. (2017)	C	41.0	35.0	11.0	15.0	-	-	47.0	43.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Stanley et al. (2018)	C	-	-	-	-	21.0	25.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.0	17.0	-	-	-	-
Cyprus	Barter et al. (2017)	C	31.0	34.0	10.0	9.0	-	-	45.0	43.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Stanley et al. (2018)	C	-	-	-	-	17.0	19.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.0	15.0	-	-	-	-
Denmark	Karsberg et al. (2018)	C	32.4	31.3	9.3	13.1	13.3	6.8	-	-	-	-	21.0	19.9	3.6	8.4	1.0	3.0	-	-	-	-	-	-
European sample	Jankowiak et al. (2020)	C	25.1	19.6	9.3	7.3	10.9	6.1	-	-	20.5	18.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Germany ^b	Beckmann et al. (2019)	R	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	59.0	42.7	11.9	4.8	0.8	2.6	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Blättner et al. (2015)	R	61.3	56.6	10.5	10.4	26.0	12.7	-	-	65.7	60.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Kliem et al. (2018)	R	56.9	42.6	10.5	8.2	8.2	3.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Italy	Barter et al. (2017)	C	59.0	41.0	9.0	13.0	-	-	40.0	46.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Connolly et al. (2010)	R	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	31.9	34.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Stanley et al. (2018)	C	-	-	-	-	35.0	39.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.0	37.0	-	-	-	-
Norway	Barter et al. (2017)	C	32.0	19.0	18.0	8.0	-	-	38.0	20.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Stanley et al. (2018)	C	-	-	-	-	28.0	9.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.0	14.0	-	-	-	-
Portugal	Dixe et al. (2020) ^c	C	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	51.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	45.3
	Neves et al. (2018)	C	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	34.9	28.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	30.1 20.3

(Continues)

TABLE 3 (Continued)

Country	Author(s)	R/C	Victimization (%)						Perpetration (%)													
			Psych/emot		Phy		Sex		Cyber		Overall		Psych/emot		Phy		Sex		Cyber		Overall	
			F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Spain	Archer et al. (2010)	C	-	-	23.0	25.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Calvete et al. (2016) ^d	R	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Cava et al. (2015)	R	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Cava, Martínez-Ferrer, et al. (2020)	R	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Cava, Tomás, et al. (2020)	C	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Cuadrado-Gordillo et al. (2020) ^e	R	47.59	-	8.60	-	18.48	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Díaz-Aguado and Martínez (2015)	R	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Dosil et al. (2019) ^e	C	87.1	-	30.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Dosil et al. (2020)	R	57.0	7.9	6.3	0.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Esparza-Martínez et al. (2019)	R	64.8	59.3	20.0	29.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Fernández-Fuertes and Fuertes (2010)	C	95.5	94.5	17.5	26.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Fernández-Fuertes et al. (2020)	R	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Fernández-González et al. (2013)	C	91.5	91.8	32.9	29.8	10.0	7.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

(Continues)

TABLE 3 (Continued)

Country	Author(s)	R/C	Victimization (%)						Perpetration (%)													
			Psych/emot		Phy		Sex		Cyber		Overall		Psych/emot		Phy		Sex		Cyber		Overall	
			F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
	García-Díaz et al. (2018) ^e	R		3.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Izaguirre and Calvete (2017)	R	82.8	68.0	9.1	15.1	36.2	33.5	-	-	-	-	81.9	67.6	12.7	8.8	23.6	37.7	-	-	-	-
	Muñoz-Fernández and Sánchez-Jiménez (2020)	R	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	37.62	30.62	-	-	-	-	-	-	8.13	4.55
	Muñoz-Rivas et al. (2010)	R	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	94.8	90.0	46.0	37.0	9.8	26.0	-	-	-	-
	Pichiule Castañeda et al. (2014)	R	-	-	2.9	4.0	5.3	2.4	-	-	7.1	5.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Sebastián et al. (2014) ^e	C	75.0		12.6		39.7		-	-	-	-	87.2		13.2		7.6		-	-	-	-
	Valdivia-Salas et al. (2021)	C	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	73.5	58.8	25.6	17.0	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Viejo et al. (2016)	R	-	-	25.4	16.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	18.2	30.4	-	-	-	-	-	-
United Kingdom	Barter et al. (2017)	C	48.0	27.0	22.0	12.0	-	-	48.0	25.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Stanley et al. (2018)	C	-	-	-	-	41.0	14.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	22.0	-	-	-
	Viejo et al. (2016)	C	-	-	25.0	17.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	25.0	31.6	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Young et al. (2018)	C	5.9	5.6	2.2	1.9	-	-	0.6	1.0	53.5	55.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Abbreviations: R = representative/random sample, C = convenience sample, F = female, M = male, Psych/Emot = psychological, Phy = physical, Sex = sexual. The shaded samples had a moderate risk of bias.

^aWhen more than one form of the respective type of TDV was reported in the study, the most severe type is reported in the table. In studies, in which the frequency of prevalence rates was reported (occasionally/frequently), the sum score was calculated.

^bThe study by Burk and Seiffge-Krenke (2015) for Germany is not presented in the table because the prevalence rates referred to the frequencies of violence for dyads.

^cSee Table S1 for the prevalence rates on a single item/for the respective form of violence.

^dOnly Time 1 prevalence rates are reported in the table.

^eNo prevalence rates were reported for male and female adolescents separately.

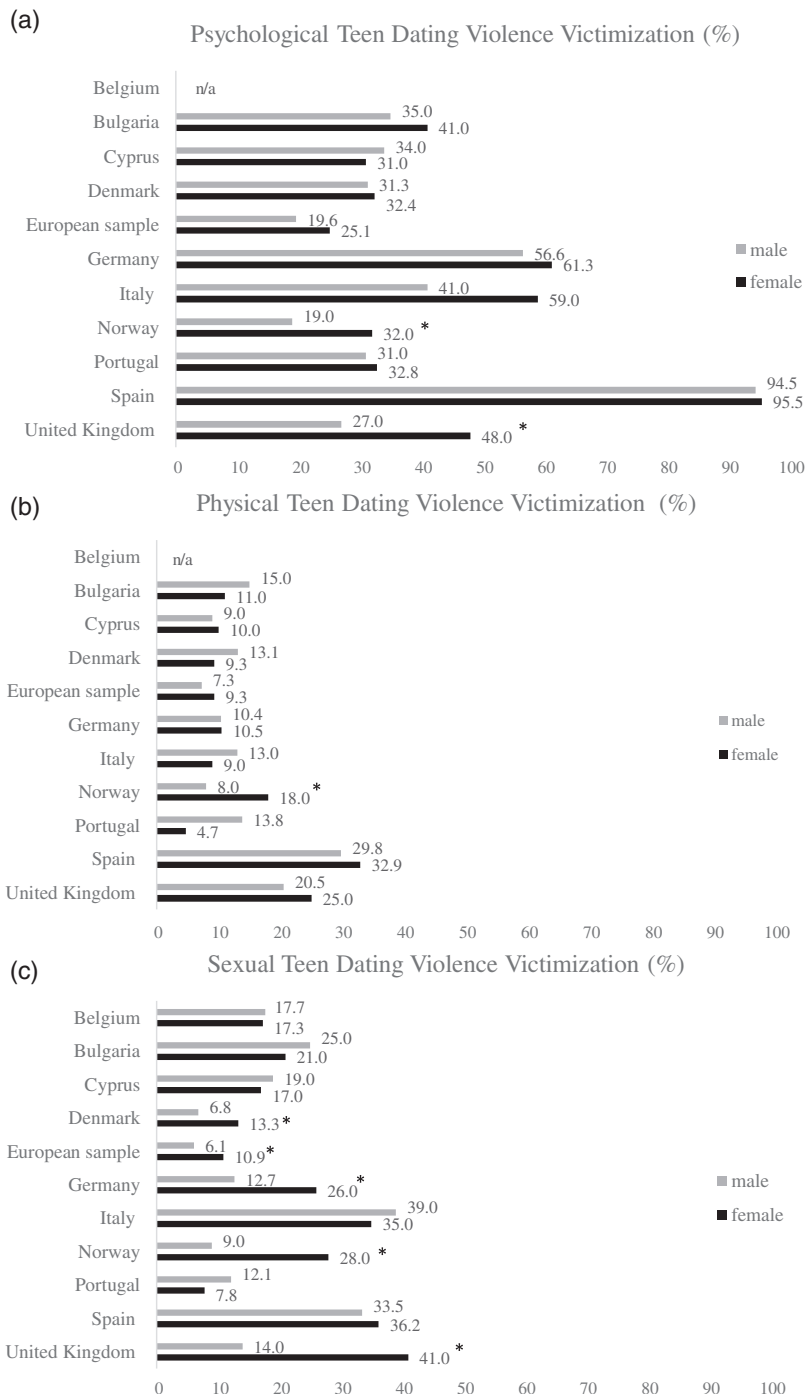


FIGURE 2 (a) Highest prevalence rates of psychological violence victimization for male and female adolescents by country. *Note.* n/a = no data was available for this particular form of violence in a particular country. *Gender difference significant. For Portugal, gender differences were not tested. (b) Highest prevalence rates of physical violence victimization for male and female adolescents by country. *Note.* n/a = no data was available for this particular form of violence in a particular country. *Gender difference significant. For Portugal, gender differences were not tested. (c) Highest prevalence rates of sexual violence victimization for male and female adolescents by country. *Note.* *Gender difference significant. For Portugal, gender differences were not tested.

In terms of the country comparison in *physical* TDV (see Figure 2b), the highest female victimization rate was reported for Spanish adolescents (32.9 %, Fernández-González et al., 2013) and the lowest for Portuguese adolescents (4.7%, Dixe et al., 2020). For males, the highest victimization rate of physical violence was identified in Spain (29.8%, Fernández-González et al., 2013) and the lowest in the mixed European sample (7.3%, Jankowiak et al., 2020). Only one significant gender difference was reported, showing higher rates of physical victimization reports among female than male adolescents in Norway (18.0% vs. 8.0%, Barter et al., 2017).

Further, comparing the countries regarding *sexual* victimization (see Figure 2c), the highest rate for female adolescents was reported in the United Kingdom (41.0 %, Stanley et al., 2018) and the lowest in Portugal (7.8%, Dixe et al., 2020). For male adolescents, the highest sexual victimization rate was identified in Italy (39.0%, Stanley et al., 2018) and the lowest in the mixed European sample (6.1 %, Jankowiak et al., 2020). Considerably more gender differences in sexual victimization were reported as significant compared to psychological and physical forms of violence victimization across the countries. Specifically, female adolescents reported higher victimization rates than male adolescents in Denmark (13.3% vs. 6.8%, Karsberg et al., 2018), in the mixed European sample (10.9% vs. 6.1%, Jankowiak et al., 2020), in Germany (26.0% vs. 12.7%, Blättner et al., 2015), in Norway (28.0% vs. 9.0%, Stanley et al., 2018), and in the United Kingdom (41.0% vs. 14.0%, Stanley et al., 2018).

Finally, in terms of comparing the prevalence of *cyber* TDV victimization across the countries, for female adolescents, the highest victimization rate was found in the multi-country study in the United Kingdom (48.0%) and the lowest in the same study in Norway (38.0%) (Barter et al., 2017). The highest and the lowest victimization rates of cyber dating violence for male adolescents were also identified in the multi-country study, with 46.0% in Italy and 20% in Norway. In terms of gender differences, Norwegian female adolescents reported more cyber dating violence victimization than did Norwegian male adolescents (these figures are not presented graphically; see Table S1 in the Supplementary Material for details).

4.6 | Prevalence of TDV perpetration across the countries

Regarding perpetration of *psychological* violence, the comparison of the highest prevalence rates for each country revealed the highest rate for female adolescents in Spain (97.0%, Fernández-Fuertes & Fuertes, 2010), and the lowest in Denmark (21.0%, Karsberg et al., 2018) (see Figure 3a). The highest perpetration rate of psychological violence for male adolescents was identified in Spain (95.3%, Fernández-Fuertes & Fuertes, 2010), and the lowest in Denmark (19.9%, Karsberg et al., 2018). Only one gender difference was reported as significant, showing that German female adolescents reported higher rates of psychological violence perpetration than German male adolescents (59.0% vs. 42.7%, Beckmann et al., 2019).

Regarding the comparison of perpetration of *physical* violence between the countries, the highest rate for female adolescents was found in Spain (46.0%, Muñoz-Rivas et al., 2010), and the lowest in Portugal (3.1 %, Dixe et al., 2020) (see Figure 3b). The highest rate of physical violence perpetration for male adolescents was identified in Spain (37.0%, Muñoz-Rivas et al., 2010), and the lowest in Germany (4.8%, Beckmann et al., 2019). Altogether, three gender differences were identified. Danish male adolescents reported more physical violence perpetration than Danish female adolescents (8.4% vs. 3.6%, Karsberg et al., 2018). However, higher perpetration rates of physical violence were found for

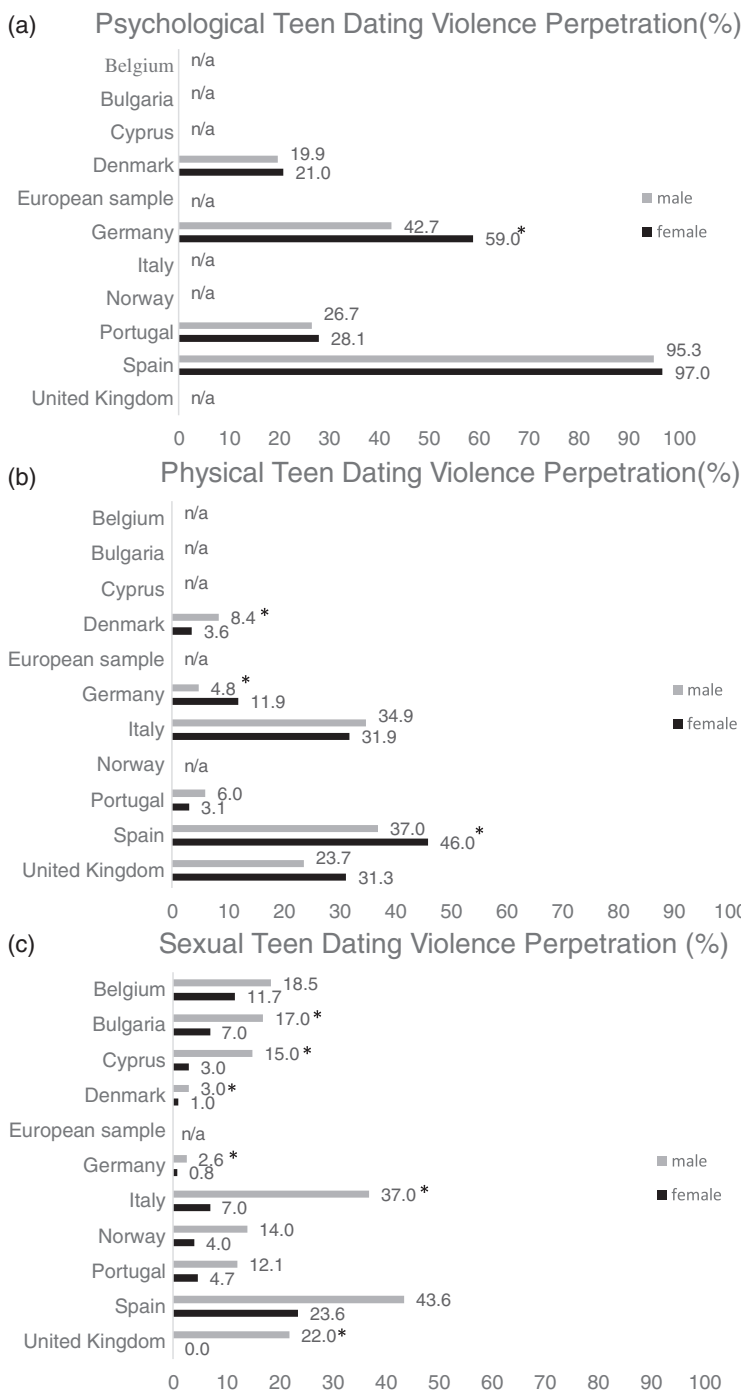


FIGURE 3 (a) Highest prevalence rates of psychological violence perpetration for male and female adolescents by country. *Note.* n/a = no data was available for this particular form of violence in a particular country. *Gender difference significant. For Portugal, gender differences were not tested. (b) Highest prevalence rates of physical violence perpetration for male and female adolescents by country. *Note.* n/a = no data was available for this particular form of violence in a particular country. *Gender difference significant. For Portugal, gender differences were not tested. (c) Highest prevalence rates of sexual violence perpetration for male and female adolescents by country. *Note.* n/a = no data was available for this particular form of violence in a particular country. *Gender difference significant. Information on gender differences in Spain was not available because values came from different studies. For Portugal, gender differences were not tested.

German (11.9%) and Spanish female adolescents (46.0%) compared with German (4.8%) and Spanish male adolescents (37.0%) (Beckmann et al., 2019; Muñoz-Rivas et al., 2010).

In terms of *sexual* violence perpetration for each country, the highest perpetration rate for female adolescents was found in Spain with 23.6% (Izaguirre & Calvete, 2017), and the lowest in Germany with 0.8% (Beckmann et al., 2019) (see Figure 3c). The highest perpetration rate for male adolescents was found in Spain with 43.6% (Fernández-Fuertes et al., 2020), and the lowest in Germany with 2.6% (Beckmann et al., 2019). Gender differences were identified as significant in six countries. In Bulgaria, Cyprus, Italy, the United Kingdom (Stanley et al., 2018), Germany (Beckmann et al., 2019), and Denmark (Karsberg et al., 2018), male adolescents reported higher perpetration rates of sexual violence than female adolescents.

Finally, the highest and the lowest perpetration rates of *cyber* dating violence for female and male adolescents were identified in two studies from Spain. For female adolescents, the highest rate was 62.0% (Cava, Martínez-Ferrer, et al., 2020) and the lowest was 8.13% (Muñoz-Fernández & Sánchez-Jiménez, 2020). For male adolescents, the highest rate was 48.9% (Cava, Martínez-Ferrer, et al., 2020) and the lowest was 4.55% (Muñoz-Fernández & Sánchez-Jiménez, 2020). Both gender differences were significant, indicating more cyber dating violence perpetration by female compared to male adolescents (these figures are not presented graphically; see Table S1 in the Supplementary Material for details).

4.7 | Assessing variability in studies using the CADRI

The great heterogeneity in the prevalence rates of all forms of TDV victimization and perpetration, as described above, may be due to differences in terms of the definitions, the measurements, and the sampling methods used in the included studies (see Tables S1 and S2 for detailed information on these aspects in the Supplementary Material). To examine whether the prevalence rates of TDV victimization and perpetration vary less if a similar methodology was used, we took a closer look at studies using the same measurement. Given that $n = 14$ studies used the CADRI, we based our analyses on this instrument.

A closer inspection of the studies from Belgium, Germany, and Spain that used the CADRI still revealed substantial variability in prevalence rates of psychological, physical, and sexual TDV victimization³. However, some studies, mostly based on representative or random samples from Spain, reported in some ways comparable prevalence rates (see also Table 3). For example, in terms of *physical* TDV victimization, Archer et al. (2010), Esparza-Martínez et al. (2019), and Fernández-Fuertes and Fuertes (2010) reported similar rates (23.0% for female and 25.2% for male adolescents; 20.0% for female and 29.2% for male adolescents; 17.5% for female and 26.3% for male adolescents, respectively). In terms of *sexual* TDV victimization, prevalence rates by Fernández-Fuertes et al. (2020) and Izaguirre and Calvete (2017) also showed some similarity (30.1% for female and 34.5% for male adolescents; 36.2% for female and 33.5% for male adolescents, respectively). Similar rates, but substantially lower than in the Spanish studies, were also identified in Belgium (Glowacz et al., 2018) and in Germany (Kliem et al., 2018) (4.8% for female and 4.8% for male adolescents; 8.2% for female and 3.5% for male adolescents, respectively). Regarding *psychological* TDV victimization, only a few similar rates were identified for female adolescents, if studies based on representative or random samples were considered (e.g., 56.9% by Kliem et al., 2018; 57.0% by Dosil et al., 2020; 64.8% by Esparza-Martínez et al., 2019), but not for male adolescents (range: 7.9%–68.0%; Dosil et al., 2020; Esparza-Martínez et al., 2019; Izaguirre & Calvete, 2017; Kliem et al., 2018; see also Table 3).

Regarding the perpetration rates assessed with the CADRI, comparable rates in both convenience and representative or random samples were found for *physical* TDV perpetration by Archer et al. (2010), Cava et al. (2015), Esparza-Martínez et al. (2019), Fernández-Fuertes and Fuertes (2010), and Valdivia-Salas et al. (2021) (28.6% for female and 21.6% for male adolescents; 25.1% for female and 17.8% for male adolescents; 32.4% for female and 25.8% for male adolescents; 30.2% for female and 16.1% for male adolescents; 25.6% for female and 17.0% for male adolescents, respectively). Similar rates, but lower as in the studies above, were reported by Beckmann et al. (2019), Calvete et al. (2016), and Izaguirre and Calvete (2017) (11.9% for female and 4.8% for male adolescents; 12.0% for female and 8.5% for male adolescents; 12.7% for female and 8.8% for male adolescents, respectively). Further, Fernández-Fuertes et al. (2020) and Izaguirre and Calvete (2017) reported to some extent similar prevalence rates of *sexual* TDV perpetration (17.4% for female and 43.6% for male adolescents; 23.6% for female and 37.7% for male adolescents, respectively). Also, the Belgian study by Glowacz et al. (2018) and the German study by Beckmann et al. (2019) were similar to each other (0.9% for female and 1.6% for male adolescents; 0.8% for female and 2.6% for male adolescents, respectively). Regarding *psychological* TDV perpetration, similar rates were identified in Cava et al. (2015) and Izaguirre and Calvete (2017) (80.7% for female and 67.3% for male adolescents; 81.9% for female and 67.6% for male adolescents, respectively).

4.8 | Gender differences in TDV

Based on the detailed overview of the studies stored as Supplementary Material (Table S1), we counted *all* gender differences for victimization and perpetration that were tested and gender differences that were reported as statistically significant. Across all studies and all forms of TDV, 41 out of 80 gender differences in terms of victimization and 36 out of 53 gender differences in terms of perpetration were reported as statistically significant (see Table S1). Most gender differences in TDV victimization ($n = 18$) were found for psychological violence, showing consistently higher prevalence rates among female than male adolescents⁴. The second most frequent gender differences in victimization of TDV were found for sexual violence ($n = 13$), showing also consistently higher prevalence rates among female than male adolescents. In terms of physical victimization, four gender differences indicated that female were more frequently physically victimized by their partners than male adolescents, whereas three gender differences were identified for the reverse direction. Finally, one gender difference demonstrated higher rates of psychological victimization among male than female adolescents and two gender differences in overall rates of TDV victimization showed higher scores for female than for male adolescents.

With respect to perpetration, gender differences were most frequently reported for sexual violence perpetration ($n = 12$), showing consistently higher prevalence rates among male than female adolescents. Similar numbers of gender differences ($n = 11$) were found for psychological TDV perpetration, showing consistently higher prevalence rates among female than male adolescents. Three gender differences were identified for the reverse direction, showing higher perpetration rates of psychological violence among male than female adolescents. Five gender differences indicated that female were more likely to report perpetrating physical aggression than male adolescents (see Table S4 in the Supplementary Material). In contrast, two gender differences revealed that male were more likely to report physical violence perpetration than female adolescents. Two further gender differences in overall rates of TDV perpetration showed higher scores for female than for male adolescents and one for the reverse direction.

While most of the studies tested gender differences, $n = 4$ studies did not provide separate data for female and male adolescents (Cuadrado-Gordillo et al., 2020; Dosil et al., 2019; García-Díaz et al., 2018; Sebastián et al., 2014), $n = 7$ studies reported separate data for female and male adolescents but gender differences were not tested (Archer et al., 2010; Dixe et al., 2020; Esparza-Martínez et al., 2019⁵; Fernández-Fuertes & Fuertes, 2010; Fernández-Fuertes et al., 2020; Fernández-González et al., 2013; Young et al., 2018), $n = 1$ study reported clusters among couples (Burk & Seiffge-Krenke, 2015), and $n = 1$ study examined males only (Díaz-Aguado & Martínez, 2015).

5 | DISCUSSION

This review aimed at compiling evidence on the prevalence of TDV victimization and perpetration in Europe for the first time, contributing to the international knowledge base on this issue. Specifically, this review's goal was to summarize information regarding different forms of TDV, considering the issue of gender differences as well as the measurement of TDV.

5.1 | General characteristics of the studies

The current overview of studies has demonstrated substantial prevalence rates of violence in close relationships among adolescents in ten European countries. Altogether, a total of $n = 34$ studies, based on $n = 43$ samples, was identified as being appropriate for inclusion in the review, with most studies ($n = 21$) being conducted in Spain, and only one or a few studies in other European countries (see Tables 2 and 3). Looking at the studies identified for Spain, it can be noticed that research on TDV is conducted by several active research groups working in different regions of Spain. This may suggest that in Spain, to some extent, there is a systematic and institutionalized research agenda on TDV, compared to other European countries, where the focus might be more on intimate partner violence or domestic violence (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights [FRA], 2014).

While Spain is performing well in examining TDV in the European context, which was also found by Krahe et al. (2014) in terms of sexual aggression among young adults, unfortunately, the majority of the European countries is not represented in this research topic, at least as far as peer-reviewed articles in two popular scientific databases (Ebsco and PubMed) were considered. During the process of study selection, it was noteworthy that quite many studies ($n = 30$, see Figure 1) had to be excluded because they did not report prevalence rates or reported only means (based, e.g., on the continuous response format of the CADRI or the CTS2), which does not allow to draw conclusions on the scope of TDV. Furthermore, $n = 53$ of the publications examined participants older than 20 years, which goes beyond the definition of late adolescence (Smetana et al., 2006) and includes different developmental stages of individuals (e.g., young adulthood). It is also noteworthy that only two studies in other languages than English, German, Polish, and Spanish were found (see Figure 1), indicating that, at least when records in Ebsco and PubMed are considered, no studies in other European languages are published. Moreover, more studies identified in this review were based on convenience than representative or random samples, which is generally consistent with the international evidence (e.g., Capaldi et al., 2012).

In terms of the measurement of TDV, the present review revealed that most of the prevalence rates are based on established, validated, multi-item, and behaviorally specific scales, largely corresponding with the North American evidence (Capaldi et al., 2012; Exner-Cortens et al., 2016; Smith et al., 2015). Also, a broad spectrum of behavioral

measures was used ($n = 14$), which is consistent with previous research as well (Smith et al., 2015). In addition, as in most North American studies (e.g., see Wincentak et al., 2017, for a review), researchers have also widely modified and adapted scales that they applied, producing a large variability in the prevalence rates (see below the discussion on the variability between the studies).

Regarding the methodological quality of the studies based on Hoy et al.'s (2012) procedure, we demonstrated that most of the samples ($n = 34$) were assessed as having a low risk of bias, with only $n = 9$ samples assessed as having a moderate risk of bias, and no samples presented a high risk of bias. In addition, a comparison of the low and moderate risk of bias studies did not clearly indicate that they systematically differed in terms of the prevalence rates of TDV victimization and perpetration (see Supplementary Material).

5.2 | Prevalence of TDV

The present review found that victimization and perpetration rates of all forms of TDV for both gender groups across all countries and studies varied greatly, which is consistent with the previous (primarily North American) evidence (Exner-Cortens et al., 2016; Wincentak et al., 2017). Across all countries and studies, the largest range of the prevalence rates for both female and male adolescents was found in psychological TDV victimization and perpetration. The prevalence rates of physical and sexual TDV victimization and perpetration as well as cyber victimization varied to a similar extent, while the prevalence rates of cyber TDV perpetration hardly varied. Because only a few prevalence rates of cyber TDV were identified, in our further discussion, we focused on the three main forms of violence only.

Looking at the highest prevalence rates extracted for each country, a similar heterogeneity in prevalence rates emerged. Specifically, the prevalence rates of psychological victimization for female adolescents ranged from 25.1% (mixed European sample) to 95.5% (Spain), and for male adolescents from 19.0% (Norway) to 94.5% (Spain). The victimization rates of physical TDV ranged for female adolescents from 4.7% (Portugal) to 32.9% (Spain), and for male adolescents from 7.3% (mixed European sample) to 29.8% (Spain). In terms of victimization by sexual TDV, the rates for female adolescents ranged from 7.8% (Portugal) to 41.0% (United Kingdom), and for male adolescents from 6.1% (mixed European sample) to 39.0% (Italy). Related pattern of results emerged for TDV perpetration. Specifically, the perpetration rates of psychological TDV ranged from 21.0% (Denmark) to 97.0% (Spain) for female adolescents, and from 19.9% to 95.3% for male adolescents in the same countries, respectively. Further, the perpetration rates of physical TDV for female adolescents ranged from 3.1% (Portugal) to 46.0% (Spain), and for male adolescents from 4.8% (Germany) to 37.0% (Spain). And finally, the perpetration of sexual TDV ranged for female adolescents from 0.8% (Germany) to 23.6% (Spain), and for male adolescents from 2.6% (Germany) to 43.6% (Spain). Based on this compilation as well as on the overall prevalence rates across countries and studies, several conclusions can be drawn.

First, the prevalence rates of psychological TDV are characterized by the greatest variability, which is probably because of more conceptual overlap between the scales assessing physical and sexual forms of violence than psychological violence (Exner-Cortens et al., 2016). Second, across all forms of TDV, a similar scope of variability emerged for both gender groups, suggesting that the variability across studies is probably due to the definitions and/or measures used and not because of the gender (see Krahé et al., 2016, for discussion on interpretation of items assessing sexual aggression and gender), and that this variability affects both victimization and perpetration reports in a similar way. Third, the scope and the pattern of variability in all forms of TDV corresponded with studies coming primarily

from North America (Exner-Cortens et al., 2016; Wincentak et al., 2017). And fourth, with a few exceptions (sexual victimization among female and male adolescents), the highest rates for all forms of TDV victimization and perpetration were identified in Spanish studies. Consistent with this, Krahé et al. (2014) found relatively high rates of sexual aggression for Spanish young adults in their review compared to studies from other EU member states. Further, all the high rates for Spain were based on multi-item measures (the CADRI or the CTS2) compared to the studies on the mixed European sample (Jankowiak et al., 2020) or in Portugal (Dixe et al., 2020), which used one-item measures and revealed relatively low prevalence rates.

5.3 | Variability in studies using the CADRI

As the great heterogeneity in the prevalence rates of violence is mostly due to using different methodology between and within the countries and the studies (Krahé et al., 2014; Wincentak et al., 2017), we followed the approach of comparing studies using the same measurement tool—the CADRI. Comparing studies using the CADRI in one country—Spain—provided in some way comparable prevalence rates between studies, at least for physical and sexual forms of TDV. Hence, this suggests that a more harmonized approach with respect to research methodology may present a pathway to provide comparable data. However, considering studies in other countries that are also based on the CADRI revealed that one study from Belgium (Glowacz et al., 2018) and one from Germany (Kliem et al., 2018) were similar to each other in terms of sexual TDV victimization and perpetration but different from all other mentioned Spanish studies. However, in terms of physical TDV perpetration, some similarity was found between a German study (Beckmann et al., 2019) and two Spanish studies (Calvete et al., 2016; Izaguirre & Calvete, 2017), leaving the picture of comparison between the countries inconclusive.

In sum, while some evidence suggests that using the same measurement may keep the variability in prevalence rates between the studies low, some multi-country studies demonstrated that applying the same instrument across countries may still produce a great variability in the data (Barter et al., 2017; Krahé et al., 2015). Hence, research is also necessary that addresses potential cultural differences across the countries that could contribute to better understanding of differences in prevalence rates (e.g., gender equality as a societal-level factor; Gressard et al., 2015).

5.4 | Gender differences

At the level of country comparisons, only a few gender differences in both perpetration and victimization of psychological and physical TDV were identified. In terms of sexual TDV, gender differences were found in five countries in victimization and in six countries in perpetration reports (see Figures 2a–3c). Across all forms of TDV, most gender differences were counted in Scandinavian countries (Denmark and Norway; $n = 5$), followed by Germany ($n = 4$), and the United Kingdom ($n = 3$). One possible explanation would be that the studies in Denmark and Germany were based on large and representative samples; however, one should be careful in making definitive conclusions based on single studies (see Tables 2 and 3).

A much more consistent picture emerged when gender differences were counted across the countries. Altogether, about half of the tested gender differences (both in victimization and perpetration) were found as being statistically significant. Conversely, about half of gender differences were not significant, showing that a substantial proportion of female

and male adolescents are affected to a similar extent. Looking at the respective forms of TDV, a well-known pattern emerged. In terms of sexual TDV victimization, higher prevalence rates were reported by female (vs. male adolescents), and in terms of sexual TDV perpetration, higher prevalence rates were reported by male (vs. female adolescents). This corresponds directly with Wincentak et al.'s (2017) findings and is also consistent with evidence on sexual aggression among college students (see Krahé, 2021, for an overview). Next, also consistent with the meta-analytic review by Wincentak et al. (2017), more evidence was found in terms of higher rates in physical dating violence perpetration in female than male adolescents. In terms of physical dating violence victimization, no gender difference was found by Wincentak et al. (2017), while in the present study, four gender differences indicating higher rates among female and three gender differences reporting higher rates among male adolescents were identified. However, this number of gender differences is too small to make a definitive statement regarding the direction of differences.

With respect to psychological TDV, higher victimization rates and higher perpetration rates were found for female than male adolescents, suggesting that female adolescents experience but also perpetrate more psychological violence in their relationships than male adolescents. While some authors have come to similar results (e.g., Rubio-Garay et al., 2017), to date, no meta-analysis regarding gender differences in victimization and perpetration of psychological TDV exists, precluding a definitive statement on this issue.

5.5 | Limitations of the present review

While this review compiles evidence on prevalence rates of TDV in Europe and contributes to the international knowledge base, several limitations need to be pointed out. First, the review included only peer-reviewed publications available via two electronic databases, potentially missing data from the gray literature research and not showing the whole picture of the scope of TDV in Europe. However, previous reviews on TDV, for example, de Koker et al. (2014), Spencer et al. (2020, 2021), Wincentak et al. (2017), and Vagi et al. (2013), employed a similar approach for the searching procedure. Second, only $n = 18$ studies based on representative or random samples. Therefore, the majority of studies based on convenience samples, which precludes us from making generalizing conclusions in terms of the prevalence rates of TDV in Europe. However, even epidemiologic studies based on general populations are facing the problem of selection bias (e.g., Enzenbach et al., 2019). Third, the number of studies included in the present review is much smaller than the number of studies identified for the 27 member states of the European Union in the review of the prevalence of sexual aggression among young people by Krahé et al. (2014). However, Krahé and colleagues applied much broader search criteria (e.g., unpublished reports or unpublished studies available in the languages that were accessible to the members of the research team). And finally, while the majority of the studies was assessed as having a low risk of bias, about 20% of the studies was rated as having a moderate risk of bias, which, especially for countries with only one or two studies, may limit the interpretation of the results.

5.6 | Research and policy implications

This review revealed that, except for Spain, evidence on prevalence rates of different forms of TDV is strongly limited across Europe. Based on our selection criteria, in most of the European countries no study was identified, indicating an urgent call for more systematic research on the scope of TDV in Europe. In particular, European research on violence

within adolescent relationships needs a more harmonized approach in terms of the definition and measurement of TDV. Previous research on sexual aggression among young adults (Krahé & Vanwesenbeeck, 2016) has suggested that following some good practices regarding definition, measuring, and reporting the scope of TDV may facilitate comparing the prevalence rates between the countries, which in turn may help to join forces in preventing and combating TDV in Europe. Optimally, future research should apply nationally representative samples. Although this is difficult in many respects (e.g., Enzenbach et al., 2019) and most of the North American research is based on convenience samples as well (e.g., Capaldi et al., 2012), at least some efforts should be made in providing representative data on TDV in Europe. For example, especially meaningful in terms of assessing the scope of violence among women in European Union member states was the large-scale study based on nationally representative samples conducted by the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA, 2014).

Although this review demonstrated that most of the studies followed a gender inclusive approach examining TDV among female and male adolescents from both the victim and perpetrator perspective, there is a lack of studies addressing sexual minorities and studies including different gender identities. Given that previous evidence has shown that young adults who have same-sex or both same- and opposite-sex sexual contacts or those who self-identify as sexual minorities, are more vulnerable to experience or/and to perpetrate sexual aggression (e.g., Canan et al., 2019; Krahé et al., 2021), more research addressing violence in these groups is needed. Furthermore, future research on violence in adolescent relationships should also pay more attention to other vulnerable groups, such as people with disabilities, or refugees, because in these groups, even higher prevalence rates of violence might be expected (e.g., Basile et al., 2016; De Schrijver et al., 2018).

Based on the substantial prevalence rates for both TDV victimization and perpetration shown in this review, different policy measures are needed. First, the implementation of programs or campaigns promoting the societal awareness of this phenomenon could be a step in this direction. An example from the United States is the *Teen Dating Violence Awareness Month* (TDVAM) every February, which was proclaimed by Barack Obama in 2013, with the aim to raise the awareness about violence in teen dating relationships and promote healthy relationships (see also <https://www.loveisrespect.org/>). A similar campaign may also be suited for the European context, especially considering that adolescents often have a stereotypically narrow view on TDV (Bowen et al., 2013). Second, going beyond awareness campaigns, additional strategies to prevent or reduce TDV are needed for which, however, coordinated policy measures are essential to reach national or European levels. Several small-scale programs exist in the different European countries, such as the educational intervention by the Lights4Violence project, which was enrolled in schools of secondary education in Italy, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Spain, and the United Kingdom (Vives-Cases et al., 2019). However, large-scale national programs, involving most of a countries' adolescent population, are still missing. Hence, national, or better joint European efforts are clearly needed to tackle the issue of violence in adolescent relationships.

ORCID

Paulina Tomaszewska  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1259-1912>

Isabell Schuster  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2156-6308>

NOTES

¹ <https://www.countries-ofthe-world.com/countries-of-europe.html>

² When more than one form of the respective type of TDV was reported in the studies, the most severe type was considered to be reported here.

³ Cyber/online TDV was not taken into consideration because only a few studies examined this form of violence.

⁴ Cyber/online TDV was counted as psychological violence.

⁵ Only two out of six gender differences were tested.

REFERENCES

*References marked with an asterisk indicate studies included in the present review.

- *Archer, J., Fernández-Fuertes, A. A., & van Thanzami, L. (2010). Does cost–benefit analysis or self-control predict involvement in two forms of aggression? *Aggressive Behavior*, *36*(5), 292–304. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ab.20358>
- Barter, C., McCarry, M., Berridge, D., & Evans, K. (2009). *Partner exploitation and violence in teenage intimate relationships*. National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children.
- *Barter, C., Stanley, N., Wood, M., Lanau, A., Aghtaie, N., Larkins, C., & Øverlien, C. (2017). Young people's online and face-to-face experiences of interpersonal violence and abuse and their subjective impact across five European countries. *Psychology of Violence*, *7*(3), 375–384. <https://doi.org/10.1037/vio0000096>
- Basile, K. C., Breiding, M. J., & Smith, S. G. (2016). Disability and risk of recent sexual violence in the United States. *American Journal of Public Health*, *106*(5), 928–933. <https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2015.303004>
- *Beckmann, L., Bergmann, M. C., Krieg, Y., & Kliem, S. (2019). Associations between classroom normative climate and the perpetration of teen dating violence among secondary school students. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*. Advance online publication. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260519888207>
- Black, M. C., Basile, K. C., Breiding, M. J., Smith, S. G., Walters, M. L., Merrick, M. T., & Stevens, M. R. (2011). National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey: 2010 summary report. *National Center for Injury Prevention and Control*. https://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/pdf/nisvs_executive_summary-a.pdf
- *Blättner, B., Liepe, K., Schultes, K., Hehl, L., & Brzank, P. (2015). Grenzüberschreitendes Verhalten und Gewalt in Liebesbeziehungen unter Jugendlichen: Prävalenz und Lebensqualität unter Hessischen Schülerinnen und Schülern [Nonrespectful behavior and violence in romantic relationships between adolescents: Prevalence and quality of life among German students]. *Das Gesundheitswesen*, *77*(11), 895–900. <https://doi.org/10.1055/s-0034-1387714>
- Bowen, E., Holdsworth, E., Leen, E., Sorbring, E., Helsing, B., Jaans, S., & Awouters, V. (2013). Northern European adolescent attitudes toward dating violence. *Violence and Victims*, *28*(4), 619–634. <https://doi.org/10.1891/0886-6708.VV-D-12-0009>
- *Burk, W. J., & Seiffge-Krenke, I. (2015). One-sided and mutually aggressive couples: Differences in attachment, conflict prevalence, and coping. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, *50*, 254–266. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2015.08.011>
- *Calvete, E., Orue, I., Gamez-Guadix, M., & López de Arroyabe, E. (2016). Social information processing in dating conflicts: Reciprocal relationships with dating aggression in a one-year prospective study. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, *31*(7), 1159–1183. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260514564160>
- Canan, S. N., Jozkowski, K. N., Wiersma-Mosley, J. D., Bradley, M., & Blunt-Vinti, H. (2019). Differences in lesbian, bisexual, and heterosexual women's experiences of sexual assault and rape in a national U.S. sample. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, *36*, 9100–9120. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260519863725>
- Capaldi, D. M., Knoble, N. B., Shortt, J. W., & Kim, H. K. (2012). A systematic review of risk factors for intimate partner violence. *Partner Abuse*, *3*(2), 231–280. <https://doi.org/10.1891/1946-6560.3.2.231>
- Cava, M. J., & Buelga, S. (2018). Propiedades psicométricas de la Escala de Ciber-Violencia en Parejas Adolescentes (Cib-VPA) [Psychometric properties of the Cyber-Violence in Adolescent Couples Scale (Civ-VPA)]. *Suma Psicológica*, *25*, 51–61. <http://doi.org/10.14349/sumapsi.2018.v25.n1.6>
- *Cava, M. J., Buelga, S., & Carrascosa, L. (2015). Violencia física y psicológica ejercida en parejas adolescentes: Relación con el autoconcepto y la violencia entre iguales [Physical and psychological violence inflicted in teen dating: Its relationship with self-concept and peer violence]. *Behavioral Psychology*, *23*(3), 429–446.
- *Cava, M.-J., Martínez-Ferrer, B., Buelga, S., & Carrascosa, L. (2020). Sexist attitudes, romantic myths, and offline dating violence as predictors of cyber dating violence perpetration in adolescents. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *111*, 106449. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2020.106449>
- *Cava, M.-J., Tomás, I., Buelga, S., & Carrascosa, L. (2020). Loneliness, depressive mood and cyberbullying victimization in adolescent victims of cyber dating violence. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *17*(12), 4269. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17124269>
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC] (2020). Preventing teen dating violence: What is teen dating violence? https://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/pdf/ipv/TDV-factsheet_2020.pdf
- Collins, W. A., Welsh, D. P., & Furman, W. (2009). Adolescent romantic relationships. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *60*, 631–652. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.60.110707.163459>
- *Connolly, J., Nocentini, A., Menesini, E., Pepler, D., Craig, W., & Williams, T. S. (2010). Adolescent dating aggression in Canada and Italy: A cross-national comparison. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, *34*(2), 98–105. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0165025409360291>

- *Cuadrado-Gordillo, I., Fernández-Antelo, I., & Martín-Mora Parra, G. (2020). Moral disengagement as a moderating factor in the relationship between the perception of dating violence and victimization. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 17(14), 5164. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17145164>
- De Schrijver, L., Vander Beken, T., Krahé, B., & Keynaert, I. (2018). Prevalence of sexual violence in migrants, applicants for international protection, and refugees in Europe: A critical interpretive synthesis of the evidence. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 15(9), 1979. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph15091979>
- *Diaz-Aguado, M. J., & Martinez, R. (2015). Types of adolescent male dating violence against women, self-esteem, and justification of dominance and aggression. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 30(15), 2636–2658. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260514553631>
- *Dixe, M., Catarino, H., Custódio, S., & Tomás, C. C. (2020). Violence in intimate relationships in adolescents: Effectiveness of an intervention by peers through forum theater. *Revista da Escola de Enfermagem da USP*, 54, e03539. <https://doi.org/10.1590/s1980-220x2018033103539>
- *Dosil, M., Jaureguizar, J., & Bermaras, E. (2019). Variables related to victimization and perpetration of dating violence in adolescents in residential care settings. *The Spanish Journal of Psychology*, 22, E36. <https://doi.org/10.1017/sjp.2019.35>
- *Dosil, M., Jaureguizar, J., Bernaras, E., & Sbicigo, J. B. (2020). Teen dating violence, sexism, and resilience: A multivariate analysis. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 17(8), 2652. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17082652>
- Enzenbach, C., Wicklein, B., Wirkner, K., & Loeffler, M. (2019). Evaluating selection bias in a population-based cohort study with low baseline participation: The life-adult-study. *BMC Medical Research Methodology*, 19(1), 135. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12874-019-0779-8>
- *Esparza-Martínez, M. J., García-García, M. I., Zaragoza, L. L., Ruiz-Hernández, J. A., & Jiménez-Barbero, J. A. (2019). Violencia en la pareja adolescente: Diferencias de sexo en función de sus variables predictoras [Adolescence dating violence: Sex differences according to their predictor variables]. *Revista Argentina De Clínica Psicológica*, 28(5), 937–944. <https://doi.org/10.1037/t00856-000>
- European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights [FRA]. (2014). Violence against women: An EU-wide survey: Main results. *Dignity*. Publications Office of the EU. <https://op.europa.eu/de/publication-detail/-/publication/c643da1a-a4a6-11e5-b528-01aa75ed71a1>
- Exner-Cortens, D., Gill, L., & Eckenrode, J. (2016). Measurement of adolescent dating violence: A comprehensive review (Part 1, behaviors). *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 27, 64–78. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2016.02.007>
- *Fernández-Fuertes, A. A., Fernández-Rouco, N., Lázaro-Visa, S., & Gómez-Pérez, E. (2020). Myths about sexual aggression, sexual assertiveness and sexual violence in adolescent romantic relationships. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 17(23), 8744. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17238744>
- *Fernández-Fuertes, A. A., & Fuertes, A. (2010). Physical and psychological aggression in dating relationships of Spanish adolescents: Motives and consequences. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, 34(3), 183–191. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2010.01.002>
- *Fernández-González, L., O'Leary, K. D., & Muñoz-Rivas, M. J. (2013). We are not joking: Need for controls in reports of dating violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 28(3), 602–620. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260512455518>
- Foshee, V. A., Bauman, K. E., Arriaga, X. B., Helms, R. W., Koch, G. G., & Linder, G. F. (1998). An evaluation of Safe Dates, an adolescent dating violence prevention program. *American Journal of Public Health*, 88(1), 45–50. <https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.88.1.45>
- Foshee, V. A., Fletcher Linder, G., Bauman, K. E., Langwick, S. A., Arriaga, X. B., Heath, J. L., McMahon, P. M., & Bangdiwala, S. (1996). The Safe Dates Project: Theoretical basis, evaluation design, and selected baseline findings. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, 12(5), 39–47. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0749-3797\(18\)30235-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0749-3797(18)30235-6)
- Gadd, D., Fox, C. L., & Hale, R. (2014). Preliminary steps towards a more preventative approach to eliminating violence against women in Europe. *European Journal of Criminology*, 11(4), 464–480. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1477370813505953>
- *García-Díaz, V., Lana-Pérez, A., Fernández-Feito, A., Bringas-Molleda, C., Rodríguez-Franco, L., & Rodríguez-Díaz, E. J. (2018). Sexist attitudes and recognition of abuse in young couples. *Atencion Primaria*, 50(7), 398–405. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aprim.2017.04.001>
- *Glowacz, F., Goblet, M., & Courtain, A. (2018). Sexual coercion in adolescence: From non-consensual sexuality to sexuality under constraint. *Sexologies: European Journal of Sexology and Sexual Health / Revue Européenne de Sexologie et de Santé Sexuelle*, 27(2), e33–e37. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sexol.2018.02.010>
- Gressard, L. A., Swahn, M. H., & Tharp, A. T. (2015). A first look at gender inequality as a societal risk factor for dating violence. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, 49(3), 448–457. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amepre.2015.05.017>

- Hébert, M., Moreau, C., Blais, M., Lavoie, F., & Guerrier, M. (2017). Child sexual abuse as a risk factor for teen dating violence: Findings from a representative sample of Quebec youth. *Journal of Child & Adolescent Trauma*, 10(1), 51–61. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40653-016-0119-7>
- Hoy, D., Brooks, P., Woolf, A., Blyth, F., March, L., Bain, C., Baker, P., Smith, E., & Buchbinder, R. (2012). Assessing risk of bias in prevalence studies: Modification of an existing tool and evidence of interrater agreement. *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology*, 65(9), 934–939. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclinepi.2011.11.014>
- *Izaguirre, A., & Calvete, E. (2017). Exposure to family violence as a predictor of dating violence and child-to-parent aggression in Spanish adolescents. *Youth & Society*, 49(3), 393–412. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0044118X16632138>
- *Jankowiak, B., Jaskulska, S., Sanz-Barbero, B., Ayala, A., Pyżalski, J., Bowes, N., de Claire, K., Neves, S., Topa, J., Rodríguez-Blázquez, C., Davó-Blanes, M. C., Rosati, N., Cinque, M., Mocanu, V., Ioan, B., Chmura-Rutkowska, I., Waszyńska, K., & Vives-Cases, C. (2020). The role of school social support and school social climate in dating violence victimization prevention among adolescents in Europe. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 17(23), 8935. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17238935>
- Jouriles, E. N., Choi, H. J., Rancher, C., & Temple, J. R. (2017). Teen dating violence victimization, trauma symptoms, and revictimization in early adulthood. *The Journal of Adolescent Health: Official Publication of the Society for Adolescent Medicine*, 61(1), 115–119. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2017.01.020>
- *Karsberg, S., Bramsen, R. H., Lasgaard, M., & Elklit, A. (2018). Prevalence and characteristics of three subtypes of dating violence among Danish seventh-grade students. *Scandinavian Journal of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry and Psychology*, 6(1), 16–27. <https://doi.org/10.21307/sjcap-2018-004>
- Kasian, M., & Painter, S. L. (1992). Frequency and severity of psychological abuse in a dating population. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 7(3), 350–364. <https://doi.org/10.1177/088626092007003005>
- *Kliem, S., Baier, D., & Bergmann, M. C. (2018). Prävalenz grenzüberschreitender Verhaltensweisen in romantischen Beziehungen unter Jugendlichen (Teen-Dating-Violence). Ergebnisse einer niedersachsenweit repräsentativen Befragung [Prevalence of transgressive behaviors in romantic relationships among adolescents (teen dating violence). Results of a representative survey of lower saxony]. *Kindheit und Entwicklung*, 27(2), 110–125. <https://doi.org/10.1026/0942-5403/a000251>
- Koker, P. de Mathews, C., Zuch, M., Bastien, S., & Mason-Jones, A. J. (2014). A systematic review of interventions for preventing adolescent intimate partner violence. *The Journal of Adolescent Health: Official Publication of the Society for Adolescent Medicine*, 54(1), 3–13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2013.08.008>
- Koss, M. P., Abbey, A., Campbell, R., Cook, S., Norris, J., Testa, M., Ullman, S., West, C., & White, J. (2007). Revising the SES: A collaborative process to improve assessment of sexual aggression and victimization. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 31(4), 357–370. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1471-6402.2007.00385.x>
- Krahé, B. (2021). *The social psychology of aggression* (3rd ed.). Routledge.
- Krahé, B., Berger, A., Vanwesenbeeck, I., Bianchi, G., Chliaoutakis, J., Fernández-Fuertes, A. A., Fuertes, A., Gaspar de Matos, M., Hadjigeorgiou, E., Haller, B., Hellemans, S., Izdebski, Z., Kouta, C., Meijnckens, D., Murauskiene, M., Papadakaki, M., Ramiro, L., Reis, M., Symons, K., ... Zygadlo, A. (2015). Prevalence and correlates of youth sexual aggression and victimization in 10 European countries: A multilevel analysis. *Culture, Health & Sexuality*, 17(6), 683–699. <http://doi.org/10.1080/13691058.2014.989265>
- Krahé, B., de Haas, S., Vanwesenbeeck, I., Bianchi, G., Chliaoutakis, J., Fuertes, A., de Matos, M. G., Hadjigeorgiou, E., Hellemans, S., Kouta, C., Meijnckens, D., Murauskiene, L., Papadakaki, M., Ramiro, L., Reis, M., Symons, K., Tomaszewska, P., Vicario-Molina, I., & Zygadlo, A. (2016). Interpreting survey questions about sexual aggression in cross-cultural research: A qualitative study with young adults from nine European countries. *Sexuality & Culture*, 20(1), 1–23. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12119-015-9321-2>
- Krahé, B., Schuster, I., & Tomaszewska, P. (2021). Prevalence of sexual aggression victimization and perpetration in a German university student sample. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 50(5), 2109–2121. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10508-021-01963-4>
- Krahé, B., Tomaszewska, P., Kuyper, L., & Vanwesenbeeck, I. (2014). Prevalence of sexual aggression among young people in Europe: A review of the evidence from 27 EU countries. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 19, 545–558. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2014.07.005>
- Krahé, B., & Vanwesenbeeck, I. (2016). Mapping an agenda for the study of youth sexual aggression in Europe: Assessment, principles of good practice, and the multilevel analysis of risk factors. *Journal of Sexual Aggression*, 22(2), 161–176. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13552600.2015.1066885>
- Lee, C., & Wong, J. S. (2020). Examining the effects of teen dating violence prevention programs: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Experimental Criminology*. Advance online publication. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11292-020-09442-x>
- MacGregor, K. E., Villalta, L., Clarke, V., Viner, R., Kramer, T., & Khadr, S. N. (2019). A systematic review of short and medium-term mental health outcomes in young people following sexual assault. *Journal of Child and Adolescent Mental Health*, 31(3), 161–181. <https://doi.org/10.2989/17280583.2019.1665533>

- Madigan, S., Ly, A., Rash, C. L., van Ouytsel, J., & Temple, J. R. (2018). Prevalence of multiple forms of sexting behavior among youth: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *JAMA Pediatrics*, *172*(4), 327–335. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamapediatrics.2017.5314>
- Matos, M., Machado, C., & Gonçalves, M. M. (2000). *I.V.C. – Inventário de violência conjugal [Marital violence inventory]*. Braga: Education and Psychology Institute, University of Minho.
- *Muñoz-Fernández, N., & Sánchez-Jiménez, V. (2020). Cyber-aggression and psychological aggression in adolescent couples: A short-term longitudinal study on prevalence and common and differential predictors. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *104*, 106191. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2019.106191>
- *Muñoz-Rivas, M. J., Gámez-Guadix, M., Graña, J. L., & Fernández, L. (2010). Violencia en el noviazgo y consumo de alcohol y drogas ilegales entre adolescentes y jóvenes españoles [Relationship between dating violence and use of alcohol and illegal drugs in Spanish adolescents and young adults]. *Adicciones*, *22*(2), 125–133. <https://doi.org/10.20882/adicciones.201>
- Muñoz-Rivas, M. J., Graña, J. L., O'Leary, K. D., & González, M. P. (2009). Prevalence and predictors of sexual aggression in dating relationships of adolescents and young adults. *Psicothema*, *21*(2), 234–240. <http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=psyh&AN=2009-07206-010&site=ehost-live>
- Neidig, P. M. (1986). *The modified Conflict Tactics Scale*. Behavioral Sciences.
- *Neves, A. S., Cameira, M., Machado, M., Duarte, V., & Machado, F. (2018). Beliefs on marital violence and self-reported dating violence: A comparative study of Cape Verdean and Portuguese adolescents. *Journal of Child & Adolescent Trauma*, *11*(2), 197–204. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40653-016-0099-7>
- Nguyen, K. A., Peer, N., Mills, E. J., & Kengne, A. P. (2016). A meta-analysis of the metabolic syndrome prevalence in the global HIV-infected population. *PLoS One*, *11*(3), e0150970. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0150970>
- Peskin, M. F., Markham, C. M., Shegog, R., Temple, J. R., Baumler, E. R., Addy, R. C., Hernandez, B., Cuccaro, P., Gabay, E. K., Thiel, M., & Emery, S. T. (2017). Prevalence and correlates of the perpetration of cyber dating abuse among early adolescents. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *46*(2), 358–375. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-016-0568-1>
- *Pichiule Castañeda, M., Grande, G. A. M., Díez-Gañán, L., Sonogo, M., & Gavín, O. M. A. (2014). Young people dating violence surveillance in Madrid, Spain. *Revista Espanola de Salud Publica*, *88*(5), 639–652. <https://doi.org/10.4321/S1135-57272014000500008>
- Rodríguez-Franco, L., Borrego, J. L. C., Rodríguez-Díaz, F. J., Molleda, C. B., Pineda, C. E., Bellerín, M. Á. A., & Quevedo-Blasco, R. (2012). Labeling dating abuse: Undetected abuse among Spanish adolescents and young adults. *International Journal of Clinical and Health Psychology*, *12*(1), 55–67. <http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=psyh&AN=2011-29900-004&site=ehost-live>
- Rubio-Garay, F., López-González, M. A., Carrasco, M. Á., & J. P. Amor. (2017). The prevalence of dating violence: A systematic review. *Papeles Del Psicólogo - Psychologist Papers*, *37*(1), 135. <https://doi.org/10.23923/pap.psicol2017.2831>
- *Sebastián, J., Verdugo, A., & Ortiz, B. (2014). Jealousy and violence in dating relationships: Gender-related differences among a Spanish sample. *The Spanish Journal of Psychology*, *17*, E94. <https://doi.org/10.1017/sjp.2014.99>
- Smetana, J. G., Campione-Barr, N., & Metzger, A. (2006). Adolescent development in interpersonal and societal contexts. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *57*, 255–284. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.57.102904.190124>
- Smith, J., Mulford, C., Latzman, N. E., Tharp, A. T., Niolon, P. H., & Blachman-Demner, D. (2015). Taking stock of behavioral measures of adolescent dating violence. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma*, *24*(5), 674–692. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10926771.2015.1049767>
- Spencer, C. M., Anders, K. M., Toews, M. L., & Emanuels, S. K. (2020). Risk markers for physical teen dating violence victimization in the United States: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *49*(3), 575–589. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-020-01194-1>
- Spencer, C. M., Toews, M. L., Anders, K. M., & Emanuels, S. K. (2021). Risk markers for physical teen dating violence perpetration: A meta-analysis. *Trauma, Violence & Abuse*, *22*(3), 619–631. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838019875700>
- *Stanley, N., Barter, C., Wood, M., Aghtaie, N., Larkins, C., Lanau, A., & Överlien, C. (2018). Pornography, sexual coercion and abuse and sexting in young people's intimate relationships: A European study. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, *33*(19), 2919–2944. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260516633204>
- Straus, M. A. (1979). Measuring intrafamily conflict and violence: The Conflict Tactics (CT) Scales. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, *41*(1), 75–88. <https://doi.org/10.2307/351733>
- Straus, M. A., Hamby, S. L., & Boney-McCoy, S. (1996). The revised Conflict Tactics Scales (CTS2): Development and preliminary psychometric data. *Journal of Family Issues*, *17*, 283–316. <https://doi.org/10.1177/019251396017003001>
- Taquette, S. R., & Monteiro, D. L. M. (2019). Causes and consequences of adolescent dating violence: A systematic review. *Journal of Injury & Violence Research*, *11*(2), 137–147. <https://doi.org/10.5249/jivr.v11i2.1061>

- Vagi, K. J., Rothman, E. F., Latzman, N. E., Tharp, A. T., Hall, D. M., & Breiding, M. J. (2013). Beyond correlates: A review of risk and protective factors for adolescent dating violence perpetration. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 42(4), 633–649. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-013-9907-7>
- *Valdivia-Salas, S., Jiménez, T. I., Lombas, A. S., & López-Crespo, G. (2021). School violence towards peers and teen dating violence: The mediating role of personal distress. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 18(1), 310. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18010310>
- *Viejo, C., Monks, C. P., Sánchez, V., & Ortega-Ruiz, R. (2016). Physical dating violence in Spain and the United Kingdom and the importance of relationship quality. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 31(8), 1453–1475. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260514567963>
- Vives-Cases, C., Davo-Blanes, M. C., Ferrer-Cascales, R., Sanz-Barbero, B., Albaladejo-Blázquez, N., Sánchez-San Segundo, M., Lillo-Crespo, M., Bowes, N., Neves, S., Mocanu, V., Carausu, E. M., Pyzalski, J., Forjaz, M. J., Chmura-Rutkowska, I., Vieira, C. P., & Corradi, C. (2019). Lights4Violence: A quasi-experimental educational intervention in six European countries to promote positive relationships among adolescents. *Bmc Public Health [Electronic Resource]*, 19(1), 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-019-6726-0>
- Wincentak, K., Connolly, J., & Card, N. (2017). Teen dating violence: A meta-analytic review of prevalence rates. *Psychology of Violence*, 7(2), 224–241. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0040194>
- Wolfe, D. A., Reitzel-Jaffe, D., Gough, R., & Wekerle, C. (1994). Conflicts in relationships: Measuring physical and sexual coercion among youth [Unpublished manuscript]. University of Western Ontario, Canada.
- Wolfe, D. A., Scott, K., Reitzel-Jaffe, D., Wekerle, C., Grasley, C., & Straatman, A. L. (2001). Development and validation of the Conflict in Adolescent Dating Relationships Inventory. *Psychological Assessment*, 13(2), 277–293. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1040-3590.13.2.277>
- *Young, H., Turney, C., White, J., Bonell, C., Lewis, R., & Fletcher, A. (2018). Dating and relationship violence among 16–19 year olds in England and Wales: A cross-sectional study of victimization. *Journal of Public Health (Oxford, England)*, 40(4), 738–746. <https://doi.org/10.1093/pubmed/idx139>
- Zweig, J. M., Dank, M., Yahner, J., & Lachman, P. (2013). The rate of cyber dating abuse among teens and how it relates to other forms of teen dating violence. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 42(7), 1063–1077. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-013-9922-8>
- Zweig, J. M., Lachman, P., Yahner, J., & Dank, M. (2014). Correlates of cyber dating abuse among teens. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 43(8), 1306–1321. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-013-0047>

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of the article at the publisher's website.

How to cite this article: Tomaszewska, P., & Schuster, I. (2021). Prevalence of teen dating violence in Europe: A systematic review of studies since 2010. *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development*, 2021, 11–37. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cad.20437>