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Police Initial Responses to Domestic Abuse

A systematic review

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Executive summary

Key findings

- A systematic review of the available literature found very little evidence relating to actions police officers should take when attending a domestic abuse incident. Specifically, there is a paucity of evaluative evidence in relation to alternatives to arrest.
- There is evidence from one data source that police attendance in and of itself is effective in reducing victimisation. Arrest also appears to result in modest reductions in revictimisation, though the effect of arrest over and above police attendance is not clear.
- There is emerging evidence that the use of technology may help to secure more convictions for domestic abuse.

Introduction

Domestic abuse is a serious and widespread problem within the UK. The Crime Survey for England and Wales (CSEW) estimates that around two million adults experienced some form of domestic abuse in the year 2014/15, with women (27%) more likely than men (13%) to have been victimised since age 16 (ONS, 2016). While many incidents of domestic abuse will go unreported to the police, for victims seeking criminal justice intervention the police are usually the first agency of contact. In 2014/15, the police service in England and Wales received, on average, over 100 domestic abuse related calls an hour and domestic abuse related crime represented 10 per cent of all recorded crime (HMIC, 2015).

This demand on the police service is, initially at least, likely to increase in coming years following the introduction in December 2015 of a new offence of 'coercive and controlling behaviour'. For the first time, abusers who continually subject victims to behaviour designed to intimidate and control them can face up to five years imprisonment. While previously there was no specific criminal offence of domestic abuse, this new offence recognises that "a repeated pattern of abuse can be more injurious and harmful than a single incident of violence" (Home Office, 2015: 3) and is intended to provide better protection for victims and hold more perpetrators to account for their behaviour. It is vital therefore, that officers who are first on scene at domestic related incidents know what actions open to them are most likely to be effective.

The police have several choices following a call for service in relation to domestic abuse. First, there is the option of attending the incident or not. If both parties are present at the scene, the responding officer can then choose to separate the parties by requesting one party leaves voluntarily. If there are grounds to do so, the officer also has the option of making an arrest. Other actions a first response officer could take include offering advice and making referrals to partner agencies.

This systematic review seeks to assess the evidence of effectiveness of different first response strategies to domestic violence evaluated in the international literature. The review uses systematic review methods to determine the effectiveness of different interventions as measured by criminal justice related outcomes (for example: official records of rearrests; reconvictions) or victim related outcomes (satisfaction with service; reported re-abuse).

Main findings

There is a very limited amount of available evidence relating to police first response to domestic abuse. From 359 studies identified as being related to domestic abuse interventions delivered by the police, only nine studies met the criteria for this review. Significantly, there is a paucity of experimental evidence in relation to alternatives to arrest; seven of the included studies focused on arrest as a response. Most of the existing evidence on arrest was generated in the US over twenty years ago and may not be readily transferable to the present context in England and Wales. Aside from arrest, the review found emerging evidence as to the use of technology to gather evidence at the scene of a domestic incident.

Police attendance

Police attendance in and of itself appears to be effective in reducing revictimisation when compared with cases where the incident is not reported to the police. Longitudinal analysis of nationally representative survey data in the US (Felson et al, 2005) found that attendance deters offenders from committing another assault, irrespective of whether or not the police make an arrest. Significantly, Felson et al (2005) found no evidence of a retaliation effect against victims who reported their partners.

Arrest

While findings were mixed overall, pooled data from the US arrest experiments suggested that, on average, arrest was associated with 'consistent but modest' reductions in revictimisation (Maxwell et al, 2002). However, it is not clear from survey data whether arrest has an effect over and above that generated by simply reporting to the police.

Technology for evidence gathering

There is emerging evidence that use of technology for evidence gathering might increase the likelihood of criminal charges being brought and offenders pleading guilty.

Conclusions and implications

This review identified very limited evidence in relation to actions police officers should take when attending a domestic abuse related incident. The majority of studies originated in the US and involved secondary analysis of either the same arrest experiments conducted more than twenty years ago, or national survey data. There appears to have been little attention paid to evaluating the impact of police first response until recent studies of the impact of technology on evidence gathering.

Despite differences in context between the present day UK and US cities some years ago, the presumption of arrest still appears to be a sensible policy in England and Wales. The introduction of the new coercive control law has the potential to increase the deterrent effect of arrest as the law permits a 'course of conduct' including non-physical abuse to be taken into account and carries a maximum punishment of five years imprisonment. The Crown Prosecution Service are also committed to mounting 'evidence-led' prosecutions that do not require a victim to make a complaint. Such prosecutions may be advanced further by the use of technology in evidence gathering.

Deterrence is not however the only mechanism through which arrest might impact on victim safety. Arrest creates what has been termed 'space for action' (Kelly et al, 2013) for the victim, a window of opportunity during which referrals can be made and specialist support services can engage.

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¹ http://whatworks.college.police.uk/About/Systematic_Review_Series/Pages/CJ_interventions.aspx

Glossary

Deterrence

Specific deterrence

The theory of specific deterrence is that a rational actor would prefer to avoid the unpleasant consequences of arrest and detention having experienced them once and would seek to avoid a repetition (Sherman and Berk, 1984).

General deterrence

The deterrence effect is also expected to have a time-lagged general deterrence effect on wider society as potential offenders observe that domestic violence is taken seriously by the police and offenders will likely be arrested (Cho and Wilke, 2010).

Mechanism

Interventions often state underlying theories of what causes domestic violence and how a specific intervention may effect for example behaviour change in a perpetrator. Mechanisms are the theories behind how an intervention might work. Interventions seek to understand the mechanisms responsible for abusive behaviour and influence them.

Mediator

Mediators are those interactions between the mechanism and moderators that may explain the strength and direction of an effect. Mediating factors are those factors than can be changed or manipulated to 'fire' the mechanism (such as treatment intensity, or the type of study design chosen to measure the effect).

Moderator

Moderators are those background factors that are likely to affect the response to the intervention. A moderator is a qualitative or quantitative variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relationship between an independent or predictor variable. These variables are often the factors that are difficult to change (such as socioeconomic status, or previous criminal history) and may explain differential effects of an intervention for different groups.

Screening

Comparing individual studies against explicit criteria to assess whether they are relevant for answering a review's question.

Search strategy

An explicit strategy that is used to locate relevant studies via a number of different resources such as electronic databases, relevant academic journals, specialist websites and specialists in the field.

Stake in Conformity

A social control theory that predicts that people with more to lose in terms of the benefits to be had by conforming to society's norms and values will be less likely to commit crimes.

Systematic map

Part of the review process that systematically identifies and describes the research literature that has been undertaken on the topic.

Systematic review

A systematic review is a review of research which aims to be methodologically explicit and transparent. A systematic review addresses a clearly defined research question and uses explicit and standardised methods to identify and review the literature.

Weight of Evidence

'Weight of Evidence' is the EPPI Centre's framework for appraising individual studies. A conclusion about overall study 'weight' is reached by considering its methodological soundness, the appropriateness of the study design to answering the review question, and the relevance of the focus of the study.

1. Introduction

This report presents findings of a systematic review of the research literature around police first response to domestic abuse. It builds on work carried out previously to identify and map criminal justice interventions for victims and perpetrators of domestic violence. Three hundred and fifty-nine studies were categorised in that map as being related to police delivered interventions. Of these, nine met the inclusion criteria for this review.

Background

Domestic violence and abuse is a serious and widespread problem within the UK. The Crime Survey for England and Wales (CSEW) estimates that around two million adults experienced some form of domestic abuse in the year 2014/15, with women (27%) more likely than men (13%) to have been victimised since age 16 (ONS, 2016). The negative effects of domestic abuse are varied and far-reaching. Studies report that the health, well-being, and autonomy of domestic violence survivors may be affected (WHO, 2013; Campbell, 2002), the emotional and behavioural outcomes of their children can be compromised (Wolfe et al, 2003) and society sustains a range of costs (Walby, 2009).

Modern western governments have invoked the criminal justice system (CJS) to provide a dedicated and visible response to domestic abuse (Barner and Carney, 2011). Within the UK, this response involves a number of agencies including the police, the Crown Prosecution Service (CPS), and the courts system. Various initiatives, from pro-arrest policies to programmes for perpetrators, have developed over the past 30 years in an ongoing effort to tackle domestic violence. Despite these efforts, and unlike other violent criminal offences, prevalence rates for domestic abuse have fallen only slightly in recent years (ONS, 2016), and the incidence of domestic assaults in the most chronic cases has increased (Walby et al, 2016), suggesting that existing criminal justice interventions are not making a substantial and lasting impact on abuse or protecting and achieving justice for victims (Bowen, 2011).

The police occupy a unique position at the forefront of the criminal justice response to domestic violence. The police are understood to provide a 'domestic violence service' (Hester, 2013: 623). Police practice in domestic violence is both reactive and proactive. For victims seeking criminal justice intervention, the police are usually the first agency of contact. They react to a report or complaint and take the case through arrest, detention, investigation and charging of a suspect. While many incidents of domestic abuse will go unreported to the police, in 2014/15 the police service in England and Wales received, on average, over 100 domestic abuse related calls an hour, and domestic abuse related crime represented 10 per cent of all recorded crime (HMIC, 2015).

The demand on the police service is, initially at least, likely to increase in coming years following the introduction of a new offence in December 2015 of 'coercive and controlling behaviour'. For the first time, abusers who continually subject victims to behaviour designed to intimidate and control them can face up to five years imprisonment. While previously there was no specific criminal offence for domestic abuse, this new offence recognises that 'a repeated pattern of abuse can be more injurious and harmful than a single incident of violence' (Home Office, 2015: 3) and is intended to provide better protection for victims and hold more perpetrators to account for their behaviour. It is vital therefore, that officers who are first on scene at domestic related incidents know what actions open to them are most likely to be effective.

The police have several choices following a call for service in relation to domestic abuse. First, there is the option of attending the incident or not. If both parties are present at the scene,

the responding officer could then choose to separate the parties by requesting one party leaves voluntarily. If there are grounds to do so, the officer also has a choice of whether or not to make an arrest. Other actions a first response officer could take include offering advice and making referrals to partner agencies.

The review

The review presented in this report builds on the work undertaken at the EPPI-Centre as part of the commissioned academic partnership supporting the College of Policing's What Works Centre for Crime Reduction.

This work included the production of a systematic map of the research literature on criminal justice interventions for victims and perpetrators of domestic violence (Schucan-Bird et al, 2016), a systematic review of reviews on domestic violence perpetrator programmes identified from the map (Vigurs et al, 2016a), and a systematic review focusing on a subset of primary studies from the systematic map concerned with motivational interviewing for perpetrators of domestic violence (Vigurs et al, 2016b).

The results from the systematic map indicated that the focus on evaluating criminal justice interventions for domestic violence has shifted attention away from frontline response (predominantly in the 1990s) to criminal justice interventions that are implemented after prosecution, primarily perpetrator programmes. This systematic review attempts to draw together the existing evidence-base by focusing on the subset of primary studies from the systematic map of criminal justice interventions described as interventions and strategies available to first responding police officers.

Review questions and approach

This systematic review seeks to assess the evidence of effectiveness of different police first response interventions to domestic violence as evaluated in the international literature. The review explored the impact of these interventions on domestic violence outcomes as measured by criminal justice related outcomes (for example: official records of rearrests; convictions) or victim related outcomes (reported re-abuse; satisfaction with service).

This systematic review is interested in identifying and understanding 'what works, for whom and how'. The 'what works' element looks at the overall impact on outcomes. In order to examine for whom the interventions might work and under what circumstances, the review considered: the theory behind how the intervention might work (the mechanism); factors that might be hard to change that may affect the outcome, such as previous convictions or socioeconomic status (moderators); and factors that can be changed or manipulated that affects the outcome, such as treatment intensity and duration (mediators). Specifically, the review questions included:

- What is the impact of police first responses to domestic violence on both criminal justice and victim related outcomes?
- What are the mechanisms of change associated with effective police responses to domestic violence?
- What are the moderators associated with effective police responses that might explain for whom the interventions might be most effective?

Scope and definitional issues

Domestic Violence

The terms 'domestic violence', 'domestic abuse', and 'intimate partner violence' are commonly used within the literature and will be used interchangeably within this review. Whilst 'intimate partner violence' is frequently used in US studies, 'domestic violence' is typically more common in the UK context so will be the primary term employed in this report (Groves and Thomas, 2014).

The cross-government definition of domestic violence and abuse, which has been adopted by national policing leads as the working definition for the police service in England and Wales, includes:

'Any incident or pattern of incidents of controlling, coercive, threatening behaviour, violence or abuse between those aged 16 or over who are, or have been, intimate partners or family members regardless of gender or sexuality' (Home Office, 2013).

This systematic review focuses solely on abuse between intimate partners (thus excluding other forms of violence considered to be family abuse or between family members who are not intimate partners) and excludes particular forms of abuse that are covered by the Home Office (2013) definition such as so-called 'honour based violence', female genital mutilation, and forced marriage.

Intervention: Police first responses for perpetrators or victims of domestic violence

This systematic review examines police first response interventions. These are defined as:

The actions and interventions available to police officers who are deployed to attend a domestic violence incident and are the first on the scene.

A Rapid Evidence Assessment of risk factors and risk assessment tools for domestic abuse was conducted by the College of Policing (Wheller and Wire, 2014) and will not be replicated in this systematic review.

2. Methods

Methods used in the systematic map

A set of inclusion/exclusion criteria was developed to identify studies to be included in the map from which this in-depth review is drawn. Studies were included in the systematic map if they met the following inclusion criteria:

- Published in English.
- Featured adults (aged 16 or over) who are or have been victims or perpetrators of domestic violence, or personnel who are working or have worked with victims or perpetrators of domestic violence. Where studies include a mixed population (e.g. samples of adults and children, or samples of victims of domestic violence with victims of other forms of abuse), the sample should include a majority of the population group of interest and/or present separate data for those different groups.
- Victims or perpetrators have come into contact with interventions delivered by the CJS (police, CPS, courts, the probation service, the National Offender Management Service, the Ministry of Justice).
- Interventions directly delivered by the CJS prior to a conviction for domestic violence, or programmes that target convicted perpetrators.
- Secondary (targets 'at risk' groups), or tertiary (preventing convicted offenders committing further abuse) criminal justice interventions.
- Provision of routine services (e.g. policing, courts).
- Multi-agency interventions including an element of involvement from the CJS.
- An empirical study comprising either a systematic review (i.e. describes search strategies and inclusion criteria used) that includes outcome, economic and/or process evaluation, or a primary study that examined the impact of CJS interventions in domestic violence or the mechanisms/process by which the CJS is intervening in domestic violence (reports empirical data, either numerical or textual).
- Systematic reviews, or primary studies where data has been collected from OECD countries.

A broad search strategy (see Appendix 4) was developed to identify studies that examined both the phenomenon of domestic violence and the criminal justice system. The search strategy used several sources: bibliographic databases, 'grey' literature databases, websites, online search engines, and academic journals (see Appendix 3). Searches were conducted between November 2013 and June 2014.

The search strategy for bibliographic databases combined search terms to describe domestic violence with search terms for criminal justice. Key terms identified from existing systematic reviews in criminal justice and domestic violence were used to develop a search string that was piloted and tested.

There are two ways of identifying terms for domestic violence. There are specific terms to describe domestic violence, and there are terms to describe violence between people who are

or who have been in an intimate partner relationship. These terms were combined with those that describe the institutions, activities and actors of the CJS. The search strategy used different subject terms for each bibliographic database as these vary by database and discipline, combined with freetext terms (or natural language) used consistently across all databases (see Appendix 4).

The results from the bibliographic searches were uploaded into the EPPI-Centre's dedicated software EPPI-Reviewer 4 (Thomas et al, 2010). Items identified from the other sources were also uploaded or added manually to the software. Duplicate records were removed.

The studies identified and included in the systematic map were coded to describe or 'map' the evidence base for criminal justice interventions for victims or perpetrators of domestic violence based on the title and the abstract. For details of the mapping process, please see Schucan-Bird et al, 2016.

Methods for the in-depth review

Studies were selected for the systematic review of police responses to domestic violence based on the following criteria:

Inclusion criteria

- Population – police officers, victims and perpetrators of domestic violence.
- Intervention – domestic violence first response interventions and strategies available to police officers.
- Comparison – alternative action to police response, or no action taken.
- Outcome – criminal justice or victim related outcomes.

Exclusion criteria

- Population – not police officers, e.g. specialist officers, other service delivery models.
- Intervention – domestic violence interventions and strategies not available to police officers, e.g. actions of the court.
- Comparison – no comparison group or intervention.
- Outcome – not a criminal justice or victim related outcome.

Screening studies: applying inclusion and exclusion criteria

Studies were selected from the map on the basis of the following criteria:

- The primary study is coded in the systematic map as a domestic violence intervention delivered by police.
- The study is an evaluation of a police first response to incidents of domestic violence and has a measure of the impact of the intervention on a domestic violence outcome.

- Additional searching within the EPPI-Reviewer 4 database of criminal justice service interventions for domestic violence was undertaken to ensure that all studies relevant to police first response were captured.

Data extraction for the in-depth review

The data extraction for the systematic review provides more detailed information necessary for the assessment of impact, or the description of the underlying theories of change, quality assessment and synthesis. The primary studies had data extracted on:

- Study aims and rationale.
- Actual sample.
- Programme or intervention description.
- Outcomes, results and conclusions.
- Study method – Maryland Scientific Methods Scale (SMS 1-5).
- Methods – treatment of groups.
- Methods – sampling strategy.
- Methods – recruitment and consent.
- Methods – data collection.
- Methods – data analysis.
- Methods – economic analysis.
- Quality of study – reporting.

Assessing quality and relevance of studies

Studies for the in-depth review on police initial responses to domestic violence were selected based on an assessment of the likelihood of bias of the study design using the Maryland Scientific Methods Scale (SMS). Developed specifically to assess the robustness of results in determining what works, what looks promising, and what does not work in crime prevention, the SMS is a scale of strength of the study design ranging from the weakest (1) to the strongest (5) (Sherman et al, 1998). All studies in the systematic map of criminal justice responses for domestic violence were coded for its study design using the Maryland Scale. For each study, two reviewers independently assigned a score between 1 and 5 on four categories of study design and the extent to which the study attempts to minimise threats to internal validity and the relevance to the review. In cases of disagreement, the reviewers met to establish consensus but where the two reviewers could not reach a consensus regarding categorisation for risk of bias for a specific study, the study was referred to a third reviewer.

Only those studies of a robust design for answering a question on effectiveness at SMS 3 and above were included in this systematic review. These were studies that comprised of two groups that have been randomised to a control and treatment condition, or are matched on key variables to ensure the comparability of groups, or are studies that compare two groups before and after the programme.

Included studies were further examined for the internal validity of the study in answering its own question using the EPPI Centre's Weight of Evidence framework, that is, how well the study was conducted in practice and how reliable were the findings (weight of evidence A), the appropriateness of the study design in being able to answer the questions in this review (weight of evidence B), and the relevance of the study to this review's questions (weight of evidence C). An overall weight of evidence score was then applied (weight of evidence D) taking into account the answers given in the previous questions and assigned an overall score of low +, medium ++ or high +++.

Synthesis of evidence

The available data did not allow for a statistical meta-analysis of the studies due to the overlap of different reports using data from the same studies in different sub-groups analysis. This approach would risk double counting of effects of impact in a meta-analysis of outcomes. Instead a narrative summary of numerical and contextual data is provided. Where existing reviews undertook a synthesis of multiple studies, the findings have been reported here.

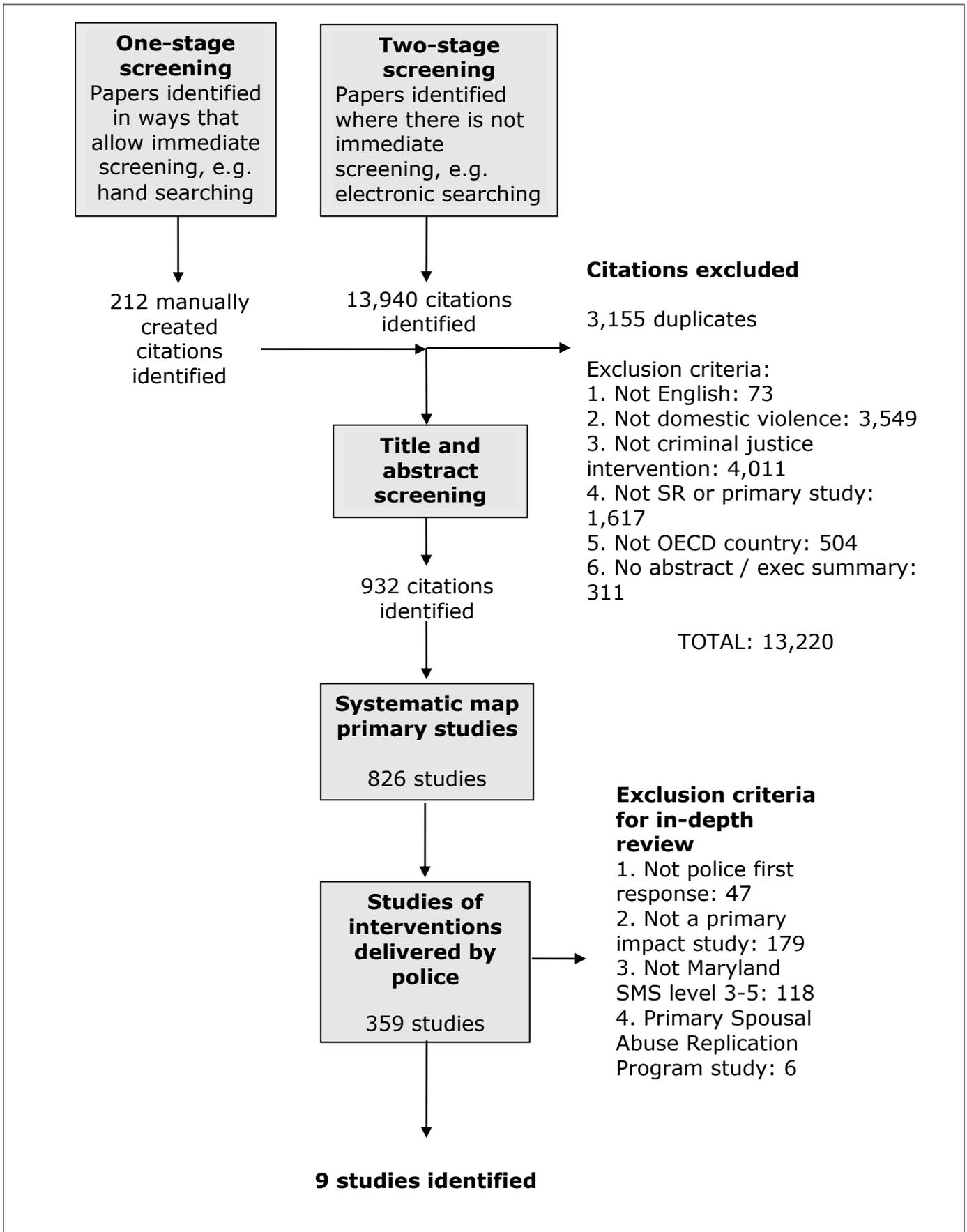
Deriving conclusions/implications

Evidence from the impact studies are presented in Appendix 6 showing characteristics of the study and study findings which show what works, as well as moderators that show how the interventions are supposed to work and in what context.

3. Search results

Selecting studies for the in-depth review

Three-hundred and fifty nine studies were identified from the map as being about interventions delivered by police personnel. From this set of studies, 19 were identified as being specifically about police first response and nine were of sufficient rigor of study design to score 3 or higher on SMS.



Box 1: Summary of flow of studies through the review

Table 1 shows the SMS score and overall weight of evidence for each of the included studies.

Table 1: Quality and weight of evidence of included studies

Author and short title	Quality of the study
Felson et al (2005) Police intervention	Maryland level 3: A comparison between two or more comparable units of analysis, one with and one without the intervention. Weight of evidence (+++)
Owens et al (2014) The Essex body worn video trial	Maryland level 5: Random assignment and analysis of comparable units to intervention and control groups. Weight of evidence (++)
Sherman and Berk (1984) Police responses to family violence incidents	Maryland level 5: Random assignment and analysis of comparable units to intervention and control groups. Weight of evidence (++)
Garcia (2003) Digital photographic evidence	Maryland level 4: Comparison between multiple units with and without the intervention, controlling for other factors or using comparison units that evidence only minor differences. Weight of evidence (++)
Maxwell et al (2002) Preventive effects of arrest	Maryland level 4: Comparison between multiple units with and without the intervention, controlling for other factors or using comparison units that evidence only minor differences. Weight of evidence (++)
Cho and Wilke (2010) Estimating the impact of batterer arrest	Maryland level 3: A comparison between two or more comparable units of analysis, one with and one without the intervention. Weight of evidence (++)
Johnson and Goodlin-Fahncke (2015) Exploring the effect of arrest	Maryland level 4: Comparison between multiple units with and without the intervention, controlling for other factors or using comparison units that evidence only minor differences. Weight of evidence (+)
Iyengar (2009) Certainty of arrest	Maryland level 3: A comparison between two or more comparable units of analysis, one with and one without the intervention. Weight of evidence (+)
Yates et al (2008) Mediation versus arrest	Maryland level 3: A comparison between two or more comparable units of analysis, one with and one without the intervention. Weight of evidence (+)

Overview of included studies

Of the nine studies identified as relevant to this review, seven examined the effect of arrest on domestic violence (the alternative response arrest was being compared to differed across the studies). As can be seen in Table 2 below, there was considerable overlap in terms of use and reuse of the same data. There were three syntheses of the same US arrest studies, and two longitudinal studies using national crime survey datasets, all of which used data collected between 1982 and 1992. All of the arrest studies were conducted in the US. Two studies looked at the use of technology to gather evidence at the scene of a domestic incident and the impact on criminal justice outcomes such as rates of convictions.

Table 2: characteristics of included studies

Author (Year)	Country	Primary intervention	Data source	Year(s) data collected
Felson et al (2005)	US	Arrest	National Crime Victimization Survey	1992-2002
Owens et al (2014)	UK	Body Worn Video	Primary study	2013
Sherman and Berk (1984)	US	Arrest	Primary study	1981-1982
Garcia (2003)	US	Digital photographic evidence	Primary study	1998-1999
Maxwell et al (2002)	US	Arrest	Data from five Spouse Abuse Replication Program (SARP) studies (Charlotte, Colorado Springs, Milwaukee, Miami, Omaha)	1984-1992
Cho & Wilke (2010)	US	Arrest	National Crime Survey and the National Crime Victimization Survey	1987-2003
Johnson and Goodlin-Fahncke (2015)	US	Arrest	Data from three SARP studies (Colorado Springs, Milwaukee, Miami)	1984-1992
Iyengar (2009)	US	Mandatory arrest	FBI Uniform Crime Reports, Supplementary Homicide Reports	1976-2003
Yates et al (2008)	US	Arrest	Data from three SARP studies (Charlotte, Colorado Springs, Omaha)	1990-1992

Summaries of the included studies are presented below in order of the date of the data that they use.

1976-2003

Iyengar (2009, +) This US study compared domestic homicide rates in states that had policies of discretionary arrest for domestic violence to those states that implemented mandatory arrest policies. Data was drawn from the FBI Uniform Crime Reports, Supplementary Homicide Reports which provide data for all homicides that took place in the years 1976 to 2003. The sample was comprised of 36,442 observations of intimate partner violence in all 50 states and the District of Columbia with additional descriptive variables about the victim, offender, and the nature of the crime.

1981-1982

Sherman and Berk (1984, ++) The Minneapolis Domestic Violence Experiment (MDVE) was a US randomized controlled trial, testing three treatment responses to misdemeanor² domestic violence incidents: arrest, ordering the perpetrator from the premises for eight hours, and giving advice and/or mediation. Officers were permitted to change the treatment allocation in cases where an arrest was unavoidable, such as in cases where an officer was assaulted or the offender refused the lesser punitive treatment condition. Police officers were randomised to one of the three treatment conditions by means of allocation of a colour coded ticket that indicated their response to a misdemeanor domestic violence incident. Households were followed up after six months. Initial face-to-face interviews were conducted with victims by female researchers followed up by telephone interviews every 2 weeks for 24 weeks following the intervention. Outcomes measured were post-treatment assaults.

1984-1992

Maxwell et al (2002, ++) This study was a synthesis and reanalysis of pooled data from the five US Spouse Abuse Replication Program (SARP) experiments. The study was based on 4,032 cases involving adult males who assaulted their female intimate partners. This reanalysis aimed to address the limitations of prior analyses of the five experiments, testing for the specific deterrent effect of arrest on intimate partner violence by applying consistent eligibility criteria, common independent and outcome measures, and appropriate statistical tests to the pooled data. Although the SARP attempted to replicate the Minneapolis experiment in multiple sites, there were important differences in terms of randomisation of subjects, definitions of intimate partners, alternative control conditions and definitions of recidivism. Given the mixed results of the experiments included in the synthesis, a more detailed description of studies in the Maxwell et al study is included in Appendix 7.

² In the US, misdemeanours are crimes punishable by up to a year in prison, while 'felonies' are punishable by more than one year in prison. In the original MDVE report, misdemeanours were described as 'simple' assaults, whereas felonies were described as involving 'life threatening or severe injury' (Sherman and Berk, 1984: 263). Although misdemeanor assaults may be regarded as lower-level in terms of physical injury inflicted, they are employed frequently as part of a course of coercive and controlling conduct (see Stark, 2007). Assaults not resulting in serious physical injury should not then be regarded as necessarily presenting a lower risk of further harm to the victim, and according to Iyengar (2009) the link between the prevalence of misdemeanor domestic assaults and domestic homicide is well established.

1984-1992

Johnson and Goodlin-Fahncke (2015, +) This US study used data from three of the SARP sites (Colorado, Milwaukee and Miami) to identify whether different batterer³ subtypes can be identified and if these different types of offenders had different outcomes following arrest. 2,412 cases were selected from the 3,765 total as meeting the criteria of having a male suspect who assaulted a female intimate partner and had complete data. Different domestic violence offender types were defined by the severity of violence, the target of violence and presence of psychological disorders (Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart 1994). The authors hypothesised that arrest would have the greatest deterrent effect on the family-only batterer subtype⁴, and the least effect on the general violent/antisocial subtype⁵. The other two batterer subtypes, the borderline/dysphoric⁶ and the low-level antisocial subtypes⁷ would fall somewhere in between the first two batterer subtypes in likelihood of recidivism.

1987-2003

Cho and Wilke (2010, ++) This retrospective study used data from the US National Crime Survey (NCS) spanning years 1987 – 1992, a nationally representative longitudinal survey. This was supplemented with data from the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) from 1993 – 2003 and formed a dataset of over 100,000 individuals in 50,000 households. The survey included both face-to-face and telephone interviews of women aged 18 and above who had reported intimate partner violence and included data on Household level, person-level and incident-level data. A total of 3,495 cases were included in the analysis. Analysis focused on arrest and victim characteristics, such as, age, race, educational attainment, marital status, injury, and survey time (i.e. whether they were interviewed using the NCS or NCVS). Outcomes measured were arrest and re-victimisation.

1990-1992

Yates et al (2008, +) Analysis was drawn from a pooled dataset from three of the SARP randomised controlled trials (Charlotte, Colorado Springs, Omaha). The study compares outcomes for mediation compared to arrest for offenders with a 'low stake in conformity' defined by education level, employment status, and ethnic status and the effect on reoccurrence of domestic violence within six months. Mediation was offered as an alternative to arrest and was described as talking with the couple, counselling by the officer and separation.

1992-2002

Felson et al (2005, +++) This was a retrospective study that used longitudinal data from the US National Crime Victimization Survey 1992-2002 to test what deterrent effect (if any) there may be in police attendance and arrest compared with not reporting the incident. The sample included 2,564 respondents who were victimised by their spouses, ex-spouses, or other intimate partners. Researchers tested whether a report of domestic violence by a third party would reduce the incidence of retaliation on the victim by the offender, as the victim

³ The term 'batterer' is more commonly used in the US to denote a domestic violence perpetrator.

⁴ Family-only batterers were defined as having low severity and frequency IPV, very low general violence, free of personality disorders and low to moderate rates of substance abuse and depression.

⁵ Generally violent/antisocial subtype were defined as having moderate to high levels of IPV, high rates of generalised violence and exhibited antisocial features.

⁶ Borderline/dysphoric were defined as having moderate to high IPV, high rates of generalised violence and exhibited antisocial features.

⁷ Low-level antisocial were defined as having moderate IPV, general violence, substance abuse and levels of psychopathy.

was not 'to blame' for the report being made to the police. Authors test the 'stake in conformity' theory that people with more to lose in terms of the benefits to be had by conforming to wider society's norms and values would be deterred from repeat incidents of domestic violence after arrest. Authors were interested to see if there was an association between victimisation and the offenders' marital, employment and socioeconomic status and 'race', as well as the use of alcohol and or drugs. Unlike the other arrest experiment, both misdemeanour and felony offences were included.

1998-1999

Garcia (2003, ++) This US trial tested the impact of the use of photographic evidence collected by officers at the scene of a domestic violence incident on guilty pleas, convictions, and sentence severity compared to outcomes where photographic evidence was not submitted. Randomisation was not possible due to ethical considerations (an officer could not knowingly jeopardise a prosecution by avoiding the collection of photographic evidence at the crime scene for the purpose of an experiment). Outcome data was drawn from case files and police and prosecutor interviews and was collected from March 1998 through February 1999. Participating police officers received training on how to use the camera and also attended in depth seminars about domestic violence.

2013

Owens et al (2014, ++) This study was a UK randomised controlled trial of body worn cameras worn by police officers attending incidents of domestic violence and effectiveness in increasing the proportion of convictions following the detection over a period of four months of the trial. The study also included a process evaluation of the trial involving interviews with participating police officers to identify barriers and facilitators in the use of cameras, but did not include interviews with victims.

4. Findings

- There is little evaluation evidence assessing the impact of police first responses to domestic abuse.
- Most existing evidence relates to arrest and was generated in the US 20+ years ago. The findings of these US studies may not be readily transferable to the present context in the UK and the findings should be interpreted with caution.
- National survey data suggests that police intervention (attendance) in and of itself is more effective than no intervention.
- Although the findings were mixed overall, pooled data from the US arrest experiments suggested that, on average, arrest was associated with consistent but modest reductions in revictimisation.
- There is emerging evidence that use of technology may help to secure more convictions for domestic abuse.

Police attendance

Through a longitudinal analysis of nationally representative survey data in the US, spanning the years 1992-2002, Felson et al (2005, +++) found that perpetrators were less likely to commit repeat acts of violence against a partner if the incident was reported to the police. Not reporting an incident to the police increased the odds of repeat violence by 89 per cent.

Significantly, Felson et al (2005, +++) found no evidence of a retaliation effect against victims who reported their partner. That is, victims were no more likely to be revictimised if they were the one who called the police as opposed to the police being alerted by a third party.

Arrest

Seven studies included in this review looked at the impact of arrest on subsequent incidents of domestic violence in the US. One was the original MDVE (Sherman and Berk, 1984, ++) and three reanalysed data from the SARP experiments that were designed to replicate the MDVE (Maxwell et al, 2002, ++; Yates et al, 2008, +; Johnson & Goodlin-Fahncke, 2015, +). While the MDVE and the SARP experiments each varied in elements of their design, they all focused on the effect of arrest on men who committed 'misdemeanour' assaults against their partners. Findings from the arrest experiments were inconsistent, however.

In a meta-analysis of the five SARP experiments, Maxwell et al (2002: 70, ++) found a 'modest preventive effect' of arrest. Across five outcome measures, 'arrest [was] associated with fewer incidents of subsequent intimate partner aggression' (Maxwell et al, 2002: 69, ++). Impact varied, however, depending on the outcome measure used. When measured by official records, the reductions in recidivism were small for the group that was arrested compared to those who were not arrested, and was not statistically significant. When measured by victim reports, further incidents were reduced by 30%, a significant difference.

National survey data has also been used to assess the effectiveness of arrest on repeat victimisation in the US. Two studies analysed longitudinal data from national crime surveys.

Cho and Wilke (2010, ++) conducted a secondary data analysis of victim reports from the US National Crime Survey (NCS) dataset from 1987-1992 and the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) spanning the years 1993-2003. The focus of the study was to see what effect arrest had on victims of domestic violence, controlling for victim characteristics such as age, 'race', marital status, education and injury. Respondents were women aged over 18 who had reported being a victim of domestic violence in one survey and were then followed up in a subsequent survey. Victims whose partners had been arrested reported a 43.2% reduction in revictimisation compared to those victims of domestic violence whose partner was not arrested.

However, when reporting to the police was added to the model, arrest was found to no longer be a significant explanatory variable. Instead it was reporting to the police that was found to be significant, leading the authors to conclude that reporting to the police and arrest have mostly overlapping impacts on revictimisation and arrest effects may be a subset of reporting effects. Felson et al (2005, +++) drew a similar conclusion from a similar source of data: reporting deters some perpetrators from committing further abuse, regardless of whether the police arrest or not.

Should arrest be 'mandatory'?

Following publication of findings from the MDVE, several states in the US introduced mandatory arrest policies. The theory behind mandatory arrest was that if the victim could be seen not to influence the arrest decision they could not be blamed for the arrest, and that the incidence of retaliatory violence would be reduced. In addition, it would remove any confusion for police officers that domestic violence offenders should be arrested every time there was probable cause.

One study (Iyengar, 2009, +) compared domestic homicide rates for states that implemented mandatory arrest policies to states that retained discretionary arrest. This study found that intimate partner homicides (in contrast to other familial homicides) increased by around 60% in states that had implemented mandatory arrest laws. The author suggested two possible explanations. Firstly, mandatory arrest may result in a 'reporting effect', whereby some victims become reluctant to report abuse if arrest of the perpetrator is not their preferred option. Decreased reporting may lead to a decrease in support and intervention to stop the abuse. Some evidence of a decrease in reporting in mandatory arrest states was reflected in national survey data. Secondly, the author suggested a possible simultaneous 'reprisal' effect whereby violence may increase if the perpetrator is released after a short period of time. If this mechanism was operating, the author suggested arrest in and of itself may be an ineffective response and that it would need to be reinforced by 'stronger sentences and aggressive prosecution policies' (Iyengar, 2009:96, +).

The author highlighted a number of considerations in interpreting the findings of this study. The study considered only domestic homicides, so an impact on rates of domestic violence more generally cannot be ruled out. In addition, there have been issues relating to the way mandatory arrest has been implemented. A study drawing on national police administrative statistics (Eitle, 2005) showed that perpetrators were arrested on average in only half of cases, suggesting officers continued to exercise considerable discretion even in jurisdictions with mandatory arrest laws. In addition, there have been a relatively high number of 'dual arrests' where an officer has decided to arrest both parties, as opposed to identifying a primary perpetrator. So it is possible that implementation issues may account for some of the impact on reporting if for example a victim expected the perpetrator to be arrested and felt let down and unprotected if they were not.

In England and Wales, it is not possible statutorily to mandate police to make arrests in specific cases. The Home Office and HMIC have at various times advocated a policy of 'preferred arrest'. In their most recent inspection, HMIC suggested '[w]here a power of arrest exists, the alleged offender should normally be arrested (HMIC, 2014: 77-78). Authorised Professional Practice for domestic abuse issued by the College of Policing⁸ also states:

'Where an offence has been committed in a domestic abuse case, arrest will normally be 'necessary' within the terms of the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984 (PACE) to protect a child or vulnerable person, prevent the suspect causing injury or criminal damage and/or allow for the prompt and effective investigation of the offence'.

As an increase in homicides was not found for US states that had 'recommended' arrest laws, the Iyengar study does not provide evidence to question the existing policy of preferred arrest in England and Wales.

Technology for gathering evidence: 'The camera never lies'

Very limited evidence was found in relation to actions an attending officer could take beyond initial attendance and arrest. The review did find two studies relating to the effectiveness of technology for evidence gathering in domestic abuse cases. A small controlled trial in the US (Garcia, 2003, ++) found digital photographic evidence led to a higher number of guilty pleas and a higher rate of conviction, while a more recent UK randomised controlled trial of body worn video cameras (Owens et al, 2014, ++) found use of the technology increased the proportion of detections that resulted in criminal charges. One theory behind use of technology is that the method of evidence gathering is considered neutral and free from any personal bias of the police officer, and therefore is considered procedurally fair by both victims and perpetrators. An additional perceived benefit is that technology for evidence gathering captures more nuanced information of the incident and context at the moment the officer attends the scene – information that is less likely to be able to be refuted by the perpetrator.

The study of the impact of digital photographic evidence was a small controlled trial that examined the impact of evidence gathering technology on guilty pleas, convictions and sentence severity in cases where digital photographic evidence was submitted to the court compared to cases where such evidence was not used. Allocation was not fully randomised as officers could not jeopardise a case where photographic evidence would normally be required. The study aimed to determine whether photographic evidence influenced how domestic assaults were then adjudicated (Garcia 2003, ++). Groups were matched on prior criminal history. A statistically significant difference was found between the two groups in terms of the proportion of guilty pleas: a significantly higher number of guilty pleas were entered where photographic evidence was presented. Offenders were also more likely to be convicted. Due the small sample sizes, results were inconclusive as to whether there was an impact on sentence severity.

The UK randomised controlled trial of body worn cameras (Owens et al, 2014 ++), found a significant difference in the proportion of cases that resulted in a criminal charge compared to the control group where body worn cameras were not worn. Officers were trained in the use of the cameras and instructed to burn relevant video footage to disc for retention. The use of the cameras was, however, less frequent than originally intended. The body worn camera trial was unable to detect an effect on the impact on rates of convictions due to the length of the trial. While the presence of technology for evidence gathering may increase guilty pleas, and

⁸ <http://www.app.college.police.uk/app-content/major-investigation-and-public-protection/domestic-abuse/>

by implication may prove to be more cost effective than arrest followed by no further action due to insufficient evidence, the direct impact of the use of technology for evidence gathering by police in preventing future incidents of domestic violence is not clear as there are numerous potential confounding factors, such as the effect of conviction, sentences, and access to treatment and support services. Officers did report that they felt more confident in making an arrest wearing the body worn camera.

Mechanisms and moderators

The evidence for mechanisms and moderators on police first response interventions is also rather limited.

Mechanisms

Deterrence

The US arrest experiments were premised on the experience of being arrested in and of itself acting as a specific deterrent to future abusive behaviour (see Sherman and Berk, 1984, ++). Deterrence theory is, however, based on the notion that offenders will curtail or restrict their behaviour if there is a high degree of certainty of being caught **and punished**. So while it is possible that the simple involvement of the police will be enough to deter some offenders – those with a high 'stake in conformity', for example – it is unlikely that a committed abuser will be deterred by arrest alone, especially if they believe that their partner will not make or support a complaint. Deterrence as a mechanism for reducing the future incidence of domestic abuse can only properly be examined in the context of what occurs post-arrest in relation to criminal justice sanctions. Examining the impact of arrest and subsequent punishment was beyond the scope of the MDVE and SARP studies.

A time-lagged general deterrence effect on wider society prompted by social learning has also been proposed, as potential offenders observe that domestic violence is taken seriously by the police and offenders will likely be arrested (see Cho and Wilke, 2010, ++). This macro-level impact would be extremely difficult to evaluate however, especially in a controlled experimental way.

Moderators

Stake in conformity

Stake in conformity is a theory which proposes that people who have strong bonds with the community benefit from and have an interest in conforming to society's behaviours and values. The threat of losing one's good standing, or reputation; the shaming effects of being involved with the police, or being seen by one's neighbours as being in trouble with the police; the threat of losing one's employment and so on all serve as a brake on abusive behaviour, over and above the experience of immediate arrest and detention. Arrest may therefore be moderated, or work best, if the offender has a higher stake in conformity. Conversely, offenders without such pro-social bonds may be less likely to be deterred from repeat abuse as they have less to lose, or do not share in conformist values.

Felson et al (2005, +++), using national survey data, found no association between rates of recidivism and offenders' income level or marital status. This study was not able to capture data on offenders' employment status, however, which may be an important measure of stake in conformity.

Yates et al (2008, +) re-analysed a pooled dataset from three SARP studies (Charlotte, Colorado and Omaha). Logistic regression models found that the odds of reoffending decreased by 66% for a low stake in conformity group (comprising unemployed offenders with a less than high school education) when they received 'mediation' as opposed to arrest. Mediation was defined as '[presenting] offenders with an alternative to arrest consisting of police talking to, counselling with, and/or separating the offender and victim' (Yates et al, 2008: 290). These findings should be interpreted with caution. The authors highlight the low proportion of reoffending overall – a substantial majority of low stake in conformity offenders who were arrested did not reoffend. Additionally, it was not clear what outcome was used for measuring reoffending – official records, or victim reports. The Maxwell et al meta-analysis suggested a stronger impact for arrest was seen when using victim reports.

Offender type

Johnson and Goodlin-Fahncke (2015, +) attempted to explore the effect of arrest on recidivism for offenders with different personality types. They pooled data from three of the SARP studies and conducted cluster analysis to allocate perpetrators to one of four personality types first suggested by Holtzworth-Munro and Stuart (1994): family only, borderline dysphoric, generally violent antisocial, and low-level antisocial⁹. The study found that there was no statistically significant difference in rates of reoffending for the family only and borderline dysphoric groups, but, for the antisocial groups, offenders who were arrested reoffended at higher rates than those who were not arrested.

The findings from this study should also be interpreted with caution. The original Holtzworth-Munro and Stuart study used recognised inventories for psychopathology, alongside measures of the severity of intimate and general violence, to allocate domestic abusers to personality types – such tests were not administered to offenders in the SARP studies. In the Johnson and Goodlin-Fahncke study, psychopathology was estimated by whether the offender had received psychotherapy counselling in the past, reported a substance abuse problem, or used substances during the domestic incident – an approach the authors described as a 'crude proxy measure' (Johnson and Goodlin-Fahncke, 2015: 20, +). It should also be noted, as with stake in conformity, that although a larger proportion of antisocial perpetrators reoffended if they were arrested compared to those who were not arrested, overall a substantial majority of the antisocial perpetrators arrested did not commit a further offence in the six month follow-up period using either police records or victim reports. Indeed, the authors cautioned against the findings being interpreted as favouring fewer arrests. They suggested the interpretation should be that 'arrest alone is not enough to protect ... victims from further abuse' and that interventions more likely to reduce future victimisation – 'prosecution, conviction, supervision, treatment, and empowerment of the victim' – all generally follow-on from arrest (Johnson and Goodlin-Fahncke, 2015: 27, +).

⁹ See footnotes 4, 5, 6, and 7 for definitions of these four personality types.

5. Discussion and Implications

This review found a paucity of experimental impact evidence relating to interventions by first responders in cases of domestic abuse. The majority of studies originated in the US and involved secondary analysis of either arrest experiments conducted more than twenty years ago, or national survey data. There appears to have been little attention paid to evaluating the impact of police first response until recent studies of the impact of technology on evidence gathering at the scene.

The review suggests police intervention can have a positive effect on future incidence of domestic abuse. Survey data has shown that in the US reporting to the police is associated with a decreased likelihood of further abuse. Pooled data from experimental studies has also showed that arrest of the perpetrator resulted on average in modest reductions in future assaults, compared with cases where the perpetrator was not arrested.

The review also highlighted emerging evidence that use of technology for gathering evidence might increase the likelihood of criminal charges being brought and offenders pleading guilty.

Implications for policy and practice

Though it seems clear that arresting a perpetrator is associated on average with a decreased likelihood of further abuse, the studies reviewed suggested that in many instances police attendance alone was sufficient to result in no further victimisation, and that abuse continued for around 40% of victims whose partner was arrested. These findings led the authors of one review to highlight the absence of any cost-benefit analysis relating to arresting the perpetrator in cases of 'misdemeanour' domestic assault. There are, however, numerous reasons why the presumption of arrest appears to a sensible policy in England and Wales, reflecting in part the different context between the present day UK and US cities some years previous.

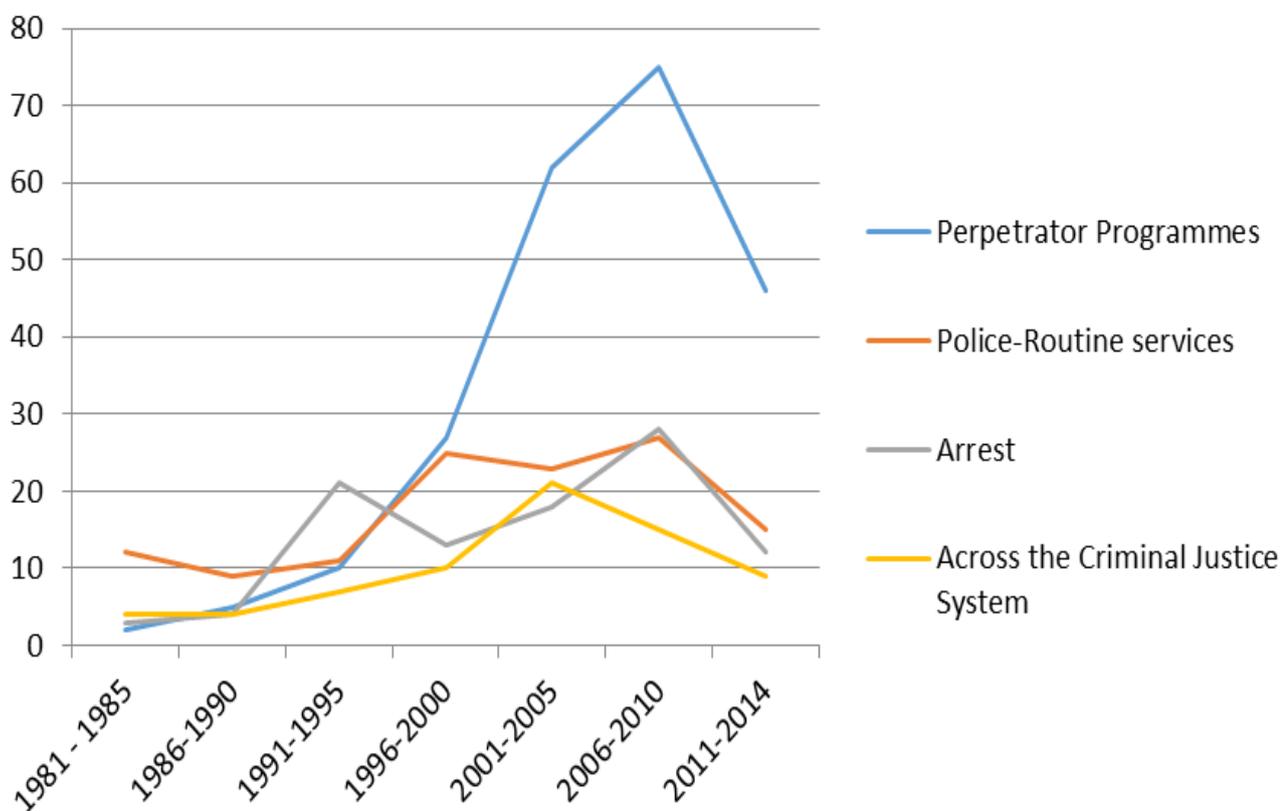
- The impact of arrest on the incidence of domestic violence may have been limited by the lack of available evidence and sanctions. Many arrests have resulted historically in 'no further action' due either to the victim not making a complaint, or there being a lack of evidence ('one word against the other'). And even where there has been sufficient evidence to bring a prosecution, existing laws did not permit for taking into account the totality of the abuse; abusers could only be charged with what had happened during the current incident, and if the current incident was for example a criminal damage then the level of sanction received would likely not act as a deterrent. This context has changed significantly in England and Wales. The new coercive control law permits a 'course of conduct' including non-physical abuse to be taken into account and carries a maximum punishment of five years imprisonment. The CPS are committed to mounting 'evidence-led' prosecutions that do not require a victim to make a complaint; such prosecutions may be advanced further by the use of technology in evidence gathering. While support for evidence-led prosecutions is not universal – proponents suggest it takes the pressure off the victim and helps achieve positive outcomes where high levels of coercion and control would otherwise prevent successful prosecution; others argue that taking actions against the wishes of the victim can in some cases disrupt their safety strategies and result in less desirable outcomes – arrest does present a window of opportunity to explore with a victim the best course of action.

- Deterrence is not the only mechanism through which arrest might impact on victim safety. Arrest creates what has been termed 'space for action' (see Kelly et al, 2013: 26) for the victim, a window of opportunity during which referrals can be made and specialist support services can engage. Kelly et al (2013) reported findings of the effectiveness of Domestic Violence Protection Orders (DVPOs), a civil provision that permits abusers to be excluded from their home address from a period of time. The evaluation concluded that there was less revictimisation following arrest and subsequent implementation of a DVPO than for arrest followed by 'no further action.' These findings suggest that arrest may be more effective when accompanied by further intervention.
- There is increasingly a suggestion in the literature on domestic violence that one-size-fits-all approaches are not desirable in relation to intervention when considering the wide range of situations and dynamics even among cases that come to the attention of the police. Indeed, qualitative research with victim-survivors has shown that not all victims want criminal justice sanctions or outcomes (see Hoyle and Sanders, 2000), especially if they are still relying on their own strategies to manage the abuse (see Kelly, 1999). While it is likely the case that victims have differing preferences for police intervention and that a particular course of action may be more appropriate in some cases than others, frontline officers lack the specialist knowledge and sometimes the time and resources to undertake the in-depth work that might dictate a course of action based on, for example, an offender's personality type. If there is any doubt, which with minimisation by the victim and manipulation by the perpetrator there likely will be, then the safest approach is to arrest and allow the matching of interventions to be decided by a domestic abuse specialist.
- Finally, there is perhaps a moral dimension to the decision to arrest. In the case of other violent crimes such as robbery, or even a non-violent offence such as burglary, it is not likely that arresting the perpetrator would be questioned, even if there was evidence to suggest that the offender may on average not reoffend following a warning from the police. The expectation would be that robbers and burglars should be arrested and held to account for their actions. It is difficult to see why that should not also be the case in relation to crimes of interpersonal violence.

Implications for research

The review included only a small number of studies of rigorous design that measured the effectiveness of police first response interventions for domestic violence. A recent systematic map of criminal justice interventions for domestic violence (Schucan-Bird et al, 2016) found that the research literature showed some interest in the late 1980's and 90's, but this was eclipsed subsequently by interest in the effectiveness of domestic violence perpetrator programmes.

Figure 1: Numbers of studies published relating to criminal justice interventions for domestic violence over time



There have been calls for experimental research on the effectiveness of arrest in a UK context¹⁰. With the developments in police responses to domestic abuse, first responding officers now routinely undertake risk assessments when attending domestic-related incidents which, if undertaken thoroughly, should give an indication of whether a pattern of coercive and controlling behaviour underlies the incident in question. With the introduction of the new coercive control law, if it was established that there was an underlying course of conduct not arresting the perpetrator and creating space for intervention with the victim may have serious implications for both the victim's immediate safety and their trust and confidence in the police to intervene.

An interesting finding from the pooled analysis of the arrest experiments data was that an overall effect on revictimisation was found for arrest only when using data from victim interviews. Some further victimisation may not be reported to the police, and a proportion of what is reported may not be recorded as such (see Myhill and Johnson, 2016). This finding has implications for the evaluation of domestic abuse interventions more widely and suggests that relying solely on police data may provide a misleading picture of the impact of a specific intervention.

Gaps in the research evidence for police first responses

This review suggests that there may be a relatively limited range of actions that a first responder can take in response to domestic abuse. There are however at least two further

¹⁰ <http://www.cam.ac.uk/research/news/mandatory-arrest-in-domestic-violence-call-outs-causes-early-death-in-victims>

interventions for which impact data could be tested, and a fresh context in which existing interventions might be evaluated.

Risk assessment

In England and Wales, a majority of forces use the 'Domestic abuse, stalking and harassment risk identification, assessment and management model' (DASH) for identifying, assessing and managing risk in cases of domestic abuse. The DASH involves a twenty-seven question, semi-structured interview with the victim which most forces stipulate must be completed by the attending officer at all incidents. This risk identification interview forms part of a wider risk assessment incorporating 'structured professional judgement.' Though there has been research on the ability of various risk assessment tools to predict future assaults, there is currently little evidence on whether risk management models achieve safer outcomes for victims. Based on qualitative work with victims, Robinson (2010: 129) suggests that there are psychological benefits to victims simply from participating in risk identification interviews, but that research to evidence these benefits is 'scant'.

Direct referrals

In most forces in England and Wales, the DASH model determines which cases are referred either to specialist domestic abuse officers and/or voluntary and charity sector specialist support workers. Depending on the force, the process of secondary risk assessment can result in a period of time passing between the initial risk assessment and follow-up contact with a specialist. Authorised Professional Practice issued by the College of Policing in 2015 states that attending officers should make victims aware of Victim Support and community-based support services. The impact of such referrals has not been evaluated.

Differentiating between different forms of abuse

When the US arrest experiments were implemented, there was little emphasis in the academic literature on differentiating between coercive control and acts of violence that do not form part of a continuous pattern of behaviour. More recently, key authors in the field of domestic violence have sought to distinguish between coercive control and disputes and 'fighting' that may occasionally be serious enough to come to the attention of the police but do not present an ongoing risk in the same way as does coercive control (see for example Stark, 2007). It may be that police attendance/arrest in and of itself is more likely to deter perpetrators of isolated or sporadic acts of domestic violence than coercive and controlling perpetrators engaged in a course of conduct. This suggestion would need further exploration.

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Appendix 1: Details of user involvement

Details of the membership of the Advisory Group for the systematic map

Name	Title	Organisation
Lis Bates	Head of Research and Evaluation	SafeLives
Simon Keress	Domestic Abuse and Sexual Violence Partnership Manager	Cambridgeshire Safer Communities Partnership Team
Hilary Fisher	Director of Policy, Voice and Membership	Women's Aid
Anon	Anon	College of Policing

Details of the membership of the stakeholder consultation group for the systematic map

Name	Title	Organisation
Hedy Cleaver	Professorial Research Fellow	Royal Holloway
Ms Clyde	Women's activist and founder of Women's refuges in the Clyde area, Scotland	Scotland
Liz Hughes	Staff Officer to Louisa Rolfe	ACPO
David Morran	Lecturer in Social Work	University of Stirling
Ian Sturgess	Domestic abuse and sexual violence coordinator	Office of the Police and Crime Commissioner for Norfolk
PC York (anon)	Police Officer	Yorkshire

Appendix 2: Inclusion and exclusion criteria for the map

Stage 1 initial map

Criteria	Inclusion	Exclusion
1. Language	Published in English	Published in any language other than English
2. Focus of report/ population of study	<p>Adults (aged 16 or over) who are or have been victims or perpetrators of domestic violence.</p> <p>OR</p> <p>Personnel who are working or have worked with victims or perpetrators of domestic violence.</p> <p>Domestic violence is any incident or pattern of incidents of controlling, coercive, threatening behaviour, violence or abuse between those aged 16 or over who are, or have been, intimate partners (regardless of gender or sexuality).</p> <p>Where studies include a mixed population (e.g. samples of adults and children; or samples of victims of dv and with victims of other forms of abuse), the sample should include a majority of the population group we are interested in and/ or present separate data for those different groups. If there is not sufficient information in</p>	<p>Populations that are not or have not been victims of perpetrators of domestic violence</p> <p>NOR</p> <p>Personnel who are working or have worked with victims or perpetrators of domestic violence. (Exclude Reports without data on victims or perpetrators of domestic violence OR without data on personnel who have worked with or work with victims or perpetrators of domestic violence)</p> <p>Population groups who are under 16.</p> <p>Victims or perpetrators of family abuse or abuse between family members who are not intimate partners</p> <p>Victims or perpetrators of child abuse, elder abuse, 'honour' based violence, Female Genital Mutilation (FGM), and forced marriage.</p>

the abstract to make this judgement, be inclusive at the mapping stage (and code this for those studies that are included).

Assault, abuse or violence that does not explicitly refer to domestic violence.

3. Intervention

Victims or perpetrators have come in contact with the criminal justice system/ interventions:

Victims or perpetrators have NOT come in contact with criminal justice system/ interventions:

Interventions delivered by the Criminal Justice System (i.e. police, Crown Prosecution Service, the courts, the probation service, National Offender Management Service, the Ministry of Justice)

Exclude interventions that are NOT delivered by Criminal justice system (i.e. Police, Crown Prosecution Service, the courts, the probation service, National Offender Management Service, the Ministry of Justice).

Interventions that are directly delivered by the criminal justice system prior to a conviction for domestic violence OR programmes that target convicted perpetrators.

Exclude interventions delivered by other public sectors (e.g. NHS), or the voluntary or third sector (e.g. Women's Aid) that have NOT been funded by the criminal justice system.

Secondary (targets 'at risk' groups) OR Tertiary criminal justice interventions (preventing convicted offenders committing further abuse)

Exclude interventions that are NOT directly delivered by the criminal justice system prior to a conviction for domestic violence NOR are they programmes that target convicted perpetrators

Include provision of routine services (policing, courts etc).

Exclude primary interventions aimed at preventing the initiation or onset of domestic violence

Include multi-agency interventions include an element of involvement from the criminal justice system.

Exclude interventions that take place within the military system or/ for military personnel.

Include specific following

interventions:

- Arrest
- Disclosure scheme
- Exclusion orders
- Independent Domestic Violence Advisors
- Integrated Services
- Multi-agency forums/
partnerships
- Perpetrator Programmes
- Protection Orders
- Restorative Justice
- Risk assessment
- Second-responder
programmes
- Specialist Domestic Violence
Courts

4. Study type

Systematic review (i.e. describes search strategies and inclusion criteria used) that includes outcome, economics and/ or process evaluation

Literature review or narrative review without explicit methods detailing search strategy and inclusion criteria

Systematic review of primary studies that do not include empirical data

OR

Exclude primary studies without empirical data, either numerical or textual

Primary study that examine the impact of CJS interventions in domestic violence or the mechanisms/ process by which the CJS is intervening in domestic violence (reports empirical data, either numerical or textual)

Commentaries, position papers, policy documents (i.e. reports without empirical data), methodological papers (e.g.. validation of measurement tools), historical analyses (before WW II), student textbooks without explicit reference to empirical research.

Exclude studies that do not tell us

about the impact of CJS intervention in domestic violence or the mechanism/ process of this intervention:

- Exclude prevalence studies- those that only identify or describe the prevalence of domestic violence.
- Exclude studies that only investigate risk factors for involvement in domestic violence.
- Exclude studies that use perpetrators/ victims as a convenience sample for the study (e.g.. to identify behavioural traits of offenders/ victims)

5. Geography

Systematic review includes studies OR primary study where data has been collected from OECD countries (Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Chile, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Korea, Luxemburg, Mexico, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, United Kingdom, United States)

Systematic review includes studies from non-OECD countries. Primary studies collect data from non-OECD countries.

6. No Abstract

If no abstract is provided, please undertake a Google search for the abstract.

Exclude studies where it is not possible to easily locate an abstract or summary of the report.

Appendix 3: Bibliographic databases

The search strategy for bibliographic databases combined search terms to describe domestic violence with search terms for criminal justice. Key terms identified from existing systematic reviews in criminal justice and domestic violence were used to develop a search string that was piloted and tested.

There are two ways of identifying terms for domestic violence. There are specific terms to describe domestic violence, and there are terms to describe violence between people who are or who have been in an intimate partner relationship. These terms were combined with those that describe the institutions, activities and actors of the criminal justice system. In practice it is difficult to search for study type in the databases as the study design may not be explicitly stated in the title or abstract or the study type filter may be inconsistently indexed (Hammerstrøm, 2010). For this reason the search strategy was restricted to the two concepts of domestic violence and criminal justice. The search strategy used different subject terms for each bibliographic database as these vary by database and discipline, combined with free text terms (or natural language) used consistently across all databases (see Appendix 4).

The following bibliographic databases were searched:

Criminology

- Australian Domestic and Family Violence Clearinghouse
- Criminal Justice Abstracts (CJA)
- National Criminal Justice Reference Service Abstracts Database (NCJRS)
- Campbell Library C2 SPECTR
- National Police Library (Heritage)

Psychology

- PsycArticles
- PsycINFO

Social Science

- ASSIA
- Social Science Citation Index

Systematic reviews

- Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials
- Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews
- DARE (Database of Abstracts of Reviews of Effectiveness)
- Work Package 1 database

Grey literature databases

- CrimDoc Criminology Library Grey Literature
- VAW Prevention Scotland
- Social Programs That Work
- Coalition for Evidence Based Policy

Website searches

The following websites were searched

Association of chief police officers <http://www.acpo.police.uk/>

Australian Institute of Criminology <http://www.aic.gov.au/>

CAADA (Co-ordinated Action Against Domestic Abuse) <http://www.caada.org.uk/>

Child and Woman Abuse Studies Unit <http://www.cwasu.org/>

Center for Evidence Based Crime Policy <http://cebcp.org/>

Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary (HMIC) <http://www.hmic.gov.uk/>

Home Office <https://www.gov.uk/government/organisations/home-office>

Ministry of Justice <https://www.justice.g.ov.uk/>

National Offender Management Service <http://www.justice.g.ov.uk/about/noms>

NICE National Institute for Health and Care Excellence <http://www.nice.org.uk/>

National Institute of Justice, <http://www.nij.gov/Pages/welcome.aspx>

Refuge <http://refuge.org.uk/>

The United States Department of Justice <http://www.justice.g.ov/cjs/>

Washington State Institute for Public Policy <http://www.wsipp.wa.gov/>

Women's Aid <http://www.womensaid.org.uk/>

WHO World Health Organisation <http://www.who.int/en/>

Online search engines

Google and Google Scholar

Hand searching of journal articles

In addition, bibliographies of included studies were scanned for other potentially relevant studies. As bibliographic databases do not always have more recent journals indexed, key journals below will be hand searched for relevant articles.

- Violence Against Women: (VAW). Sage Publications, Inc.
- Journal of Interpersonal Violence. Sage Publications, Inc.
- Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment and Trauma. Routledge.

Appendix 4: Search strategy

Bibliographic database search string ASSIA via Proquest

Concept 1. Criminal Justice

Concept 2. Domestic violence

Concept 3. Intimate relationship + violence

Concept 1 + (Concept 2 OR Concept 3)

1. ((SU.EXACT("Criminal justice") OR SU.EXACT("Criminal offences") OR SU.EXACT("Criminal sanctions") OR SU.EXACT("Criminal policy") OR SU.EXACT("Criminal justice policy") EXACT("Criminal law") OR SU.EXACT("Criminal justice system") OR "Criminal courts" OR SU.EXACT("Police authorities") OR SU.EXACT("Police officers") OR SU.EXACT("Police") OR SU.EXACT("Police projects") OR SU.EXACT("Prisons") OR SU.EXACT("Prison service") OR SU.EXACT("Remand prisons") SU.EXACT("Probation service") OR SU.EXACT.EXPLODE("Victims") OR SU.EXACT("Victimology") OR SU.EXACT.EXPLODE("Perpetrators") OR SU.EXACT.EXPLODE("Dangerous offenders" OR "Disabled young offenders" OR "Drunken offenders" OR "Ex-offenders" OR "Ex-prisoners" OR "Juvenile offenders" OR "Juvenile sex offenders" OR "Learning disabled young offenders" OR "Long term prisoners" OR "Maximum security prisoners" OR "Murderers" OR "Offenders" OR "Prisoners" OR "Probationers" OR "Recidivists" OR "Remand offenders" OR "Remand prisoners" OR "Sex offenders" OR "Suspected juvenile offenders" OR "Suspected offenders" OR "Violent juvenile offenders" OR "Violent offenders" OR "Violent sex offenders" OR "Violent suspected offenders" OR "Violent young offenders" OR "Young adult offenders" OR "Young offenders") OR SU.EXACT("Ex-offenders") OR "Defendants"))
2. AND ((SU.EXACT.EXPLODE("Domestic violence") ("Battered women"))
3. OR ((SU.EXACT("Assault") OR SU.EXACT("Violence") OR SU.exact("abuse") OR SU.exact("physical trauma"))
4. AND (SU.EXACT("Battered women") OR SU.EXACT.EXPLODE("Elderly husbands" OR "Ex-wives" OR "Former spouses" OR "Husbands" OR "Spouses" OR "Wives") OR SU.EXACT("Family relationships") OR SU.EXACT.EXPLODE("Abusive relationships") OR SU.EXACT("Functional relationships") OR SU.EXACT("Intimate relationships") OR SU.EXACT("Interpersonal relationships") OR SU.EXACT("Dyadic relationships") OR SU.EXACT("Marital relationships") OR SU.EXACT("Hierarchical relationships") OR SU.EXACT("Heterosexual relationships") OR SU.EXACT("Dual relationships"))))
5. OR ((Ti(crime OR criminal OR justice OR court* OR prosecut* OR judg* OR hearing OR trial OR police OR warrant OR probation OR parole OR mandat* OR sentanc* OR convict* remand OR prison OR law OR legal* OR offen* OR felony OR Indict* OR misdemeanor OR perpetrator OR accuse*) OR ab(crime OR criminal OR justice OR court* OR prosecut* OR judg* OR hearing OR trial OR police OR warrant OR probation OR parole OR mandat* OR sentanc* OR convict* remand OR prison OR law OR legal* OR offen* OR felony OR Indict* OR misdemeanor OR perpetrator OR accuse*))

6. AND ((ti("domestic violence" OR "domestic abuse" OR "interpersonal violence" OR "intimate violence" IPV OR DV OR batter*) OR ab("domestic violence" OR "domestic abuse" OR "interpersonal violence" OR "intimate violence" IPV OR DV OR batter*))
7. OR ((TI("intimate partner*" OR spous* OR partner OR relationship* OR girlfriend* OR boyfriend* OR dating OR famil* OR wife OR wives OR husband* OR "ex-partner*" OR ex-boyfriend* OR ex-girlfriend OR married OR marital OR interpersonal OR intimate) OR AB("intimate partner*" OR spous* OR partner OR relationship* OR girlfriend* OR boyfriend* OR dating OR famil* OR wife OR wives OR husband* OR "ex-partner*" OR ex-boyfriend* OR ex-girlfriend OR married OR marital OR interpersonal OR intimate))
8. AND ti(abuse OR assault* OR violence OR attack OR aggress ") OR ab(abuse OR assault* OR violence OR attack OR aggress"))))

Appendix 5: Data extraction tool

Section A: Administrative details

Guideline adapted from EPPI-Centre (2007) Review Guidelines for Extracting Data and Quality Assessing Primary Studies for Home Office Offender reviews. Version 1.0 London: EPPI-Centre, Social Science Research Unit.

A.1 Name of the reviewer	A.1.1 Details
A.2 Date of the review	A.2.1 Details
<p>A.3 Please enter the details of each paper which reports on this item/study and which is used to complete this data extraction. (1): A paper can be a journal article, a book, or chapter in a book, or an unpublished report.</p>	<p>A.3.1 Paper (1) Fill in a separate entry for further papers as required.</p> <p>A.3.2 Unique Identifier:</p> <p>A.3.3 Authors:</p> <p>A.3.4 Title:</p> <p>A.3.5 Paper (2)</p> <p>A.3.6 Unique Identifier:</p> <p>A.3.7 Authors:</p> <p>A.3.8 Title:</p>
<p>A.4 Main paper. Please classify one of the above papers as the 'main' report of the study and enter its unique identifier here. NB(1): When only one paper reports on the study, this will be the 'main' report.</p> <p>NB(2): In some cases the 'main' paper will be the one which provides the fullest or the latest report of the study. In other cases the decision about which is the 'main' report will have to be made on an arbitrary basis.</p>	<p>A.4.1 Unique Identifier:</p>
<p>A.5 Please enter the details of each paper which reports on this study but is NOT being used to complete this data extraction.</p>	<p>A.5.1 Paper (1) Fill in a separate entry for further papers as</p>

<p>NB A paper can be a journal article, a book, or chapter in a book, or an unpublished report.</p>	<p>required.</p> <p>A.5.2 Unique Identifier:</p> <p>A.5.3 Authors:</p> <p>A.5.4 Title:</p> <p>A.5.5 Paper (2)</p> <p>A.5.6 Unique Identifier:</p> <p>A.5.7 Authors:</p> <p>A.5.8 Title:</p>
<p>A.6 If the study has a broad focus and this data extraction focuses on just one component of the study, please specify this here.</p>	<p>A.6.1 Not applicable (whole study is focus of data extraction)</p> <p>A.6.2 Specific focus of this data extraction (please specify)</p>

Section B: Study Aims and Rationale

<p>B.1 What are the broad aims of the study? Please write in authors' description if there is one. Elaborate if necessary, but indicate which aspects are reviewers' interpretation. Other, more specific questions about the research questions and hypotheses are asked later.</p>	<p>B.1.1 Explicitly stated (please specify)</p> <p>B.1.2 Implicit (please specify)</p> <p>B.1.3 Not stated/unclear (please specify)</p>
<p>B.2 What is the purpose of the study? N.B. This question refers only to the purpose of a study, not to the design or methods used.</p> <p>A: Description Please use this code for studies in which the aim is to produce a description of a state of affairs or a particular phenomenon, and/or to document its characteristics. In these types of studies there is no attempt to evaluate a particular intervention programme (according to either the processes involved in its implementation or its effects on outcomes), or to examine the associations between one</p>	<p>B.2.1 A: Description</p> <p>B.2.2 B: Exploration of relationships</p> <p>B.2.3 C: What works?</p> <p>B.2.4 D: Methods development</p> <p>B.2.5 E: Reviewing/synthesising research</p>

or more variables. These types of studies are usually, but not always, conducted at one point in time (i.e. cross sectional). They can include studies such as an interview of head teachers to count how many have explicit policies on continuing professional development for teachers; a study documenting student attitudes to national examinations using focus groups; a survey of the felt needs of parents using self-completion questionnaires, about whether they want a school bus service.

B: Exploration of relationships

Please use this code for a study type which examines relationships and/or statistical associations between variables in order to build theories and develop hypotheses. These studies may describe a process or processes (what goes on) in order to explore how a particular state of affairs might be produced, maintained and changed.

These relationships may be discovered using qualitative techniques, and/or statistical analyses. For instance, observations of children at play may elucidate the process of gender stereotyping, and suggest the kinds of interventions which may be appropriate to reduce any negative effects in the classroom. Complex statistical analysis may be helpful in modelling the relationships between parents' social class and language in the home. These may lead to the development of theories about the mechanisms of language acquisition, and possible policies to intervene in a causal pathway.

These studies often consider variables such as social class and gender which are not interventions, although these studies may aid understanding, and may suggest possible interventions, as well as ways in which a programme design and implementation could be improved. These studies do not directly evaluate the effects of policies and practices.

C: What works

A study will only fall within this category if it measures effectiveness - i.e. the impact of a specific intervention or programme on a defined sample of recipients or subjects of the programme or intervention.

<p>D: Methods development Studies where the principle focus is on methodology.</p> <p>E: Reviewing/Synthesising research Studies which summarise and synthesise primary research studies.</p>	
<p>B.3 Do authors report how the study was funded?</p>	<p>B.3.1 Explicitly stated (please specify)</p> <p>B.3.2 Implicit (please specify)</p> <p>B.3.3 Not stated/unclear (please specify)</p>
<p>B.4 When was the study carried out? If the authors give a year, or range of years, then put that in. If not, give a 'not later than' date by looking for a date of first submission to the journal, or for clues like the publication dates of other reports from the study.</p>	<p>B.4.1 Explicitly stated (please specify)</p> <p>B.4.2 Implicit (please specify)</p> <p>B.4.3 Not stated/unclear (please specify)</p>
<p>B.5 What are the study research questions and/or hypotheses? Research questions or hypotheses operationalise the aims of the study. Please write in authors' description if there is one. Elaborate if necessary, but indicate which aspects are reviewers' interpretation.</p>	<p>B.5.1 Explicitly stated (please specify)</p> <p>B.5.2 Implicit (please specify)</p> <p>B.5.3 Not stated/ unclear (please specify)</p>

Section C: Actual sample

If there are several samples or levels of sample, please complete for each level

<p>C.1 What was the total number of participants in the study (the actual sample)? if more than one group is being compared, please give numbers for each group</p>	<p>C.1.1 Not applicable (e.g. study of policies, documents etc)</p> <p>C.1.2 Explicitly stated (please specify)</p> <p>C.1.3 Implicit (please specify)</p> <p>C.1.4 Not stated/ unclear (please specify)</p>
<p>C.2 What is the sex of the individuals in the actual sample? Please give the numbers of the sample that fall within each of the given categories. If necessary refer to a page number in the</p>	<p>C.2.1 Not applicable (e.g. study of policies, documents etc)</p> <p>C.2.2 Single sex (please specify)</p>

<p>report (e.g. for a useful table).</p> <p>If more than one group is being compared, please describe for each group.</p>	<p>C.2.3 Mixed sex (please specify)</p> <p>C.2.4 Not stated/unclear (please specify)</p> <p>C.2.5 Coding is based on: Authors' description</p> <p>C.2.6 Coding is based on: Reviewers' inference</p>
<p>C.3 What is the socio-economic status of the individuals within the actual sample? If more than one group is being compared, please describe for each group.</p>	<p>C.3.1 Not applicable (e.g. study of policies, documents etc)</p> <p>C.3.2 Explicitly stated (please specify)</p> <p>C.3.3 Implicit (please specify)</p> <p>C.3.4 Not stated/unclear (please specify)</p>
<p>C.4 What is the ethnicity of the individuals within the actual sample? If more than one group is being compared, please describe for each group.</p>	<p>C.4.1 Not applicable (e.g. study of policies, documents etc)</p> <p>C.4.2 Explicitly stated (please specify)</p> <p>C.4.3 Implicit (please specify)</p> <p>C.4.4 Not stated/unclear (please specify)</p>
<p>C.5 Please specify any other useful information about the study participants.</p>	<p>C.5.1 Alcohol/ drug dependant</p> <p>C.5.2. Married or living with a partner</p> <p>C.5.3. Mental health status</p> <p>C.5.4. Has children</p> <p>C.5.5. Has Previous arrests/ convictions</p> <p>C.5.6. court mandated vs. voluntary</p> <p>C.5.7. Age</p> <p>C.5.8. Level of education</p> <p>C.5.9. Employment status</p> <p>C.5.10. Previously participated in a domestic</p>

	<p>violence perpetrator programme?</p> <p>C.5.11. IQ</p> <p>C.5.12. Level of Risk</p> <p>C.5.13. Family history of domestic violence</p> <p>C.5.14. Income</p> <p>C.5.15. English speaking</p> <p>C.5.16. Domestic Offender type</p>
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Section D: Programme or intervention description

D.1 Country where intervention carried out	<p>D.1.1 Canada</p> <p>D.1.2 United States</p> <p>D.1.3 United Kingdom</p> <p>Please state which Country (England, Scotland, Northern Ireland, Wales)</p> <p>D.1.4 Sweden</p> <p>D.1.5. Finland</p> <p>D.1.6. Cyprus</p> <p>D.1.7. Germany</p> <p>D.1.8. Spain</p> <p>D.1.9. Canada</p> <p>D.1.10 Western Europe</p> <p>D.1.11. New Zealand</p> <p>D.1.12. Australia</p> <p>D.1.13. Unclear/ Not stated</p>
D.2 Location of intervention	<p>D.2.1 Correctional Institution</p> <p>Please use if the study takes place in a correctional institution e.g. Young Offender Institution</p>

	<p>D.2.2 Not in correctional institution</p> <p>D.2.3. At the scene</p> <p>D.2.4 Unstated /not clear</p>
<p>D.3 Type of Interventions</p> <p>D 3.17. Enforcement</p> <p>Use this code for interventions that enforce sanctions e.g. Curfews, restraint or control orders, tagging</p> <p>D.3.18. Health problems interventions (not mental health)</p> <p>Interventions to deal with specific health problems</p> <p>D.3.21. Legal system change</p> <p>Use this codes where intervention = changes in law and/or legal procedure e.g. effective sentencing guidelines</p> <p>D.3.25. Mental health targeted interventions Including personality disorders, learning difficulties</p> <p>D.3.33. Restorative Justice</p> <p>Use where focus of intervention is bringing victim and offender together so that offender is made to confront what they have done.</p> <p>D.3.37. Warrants for arrest issued when the perpetrator is not present</p>	<p>D.3.1. Advice</p> <p>D.3.2. Advocacy</p> <p>D.3.3. Anger/ Aggression management or similar</p> <p>D.3.4. Arrest</p> <p>D.3.5. Behavioural treatment (no further details)</p> <p>D.3.6. Body worn cameras</p> <p>D.3.7. Case management</p> <p>D.3.8. Cognitive behavioural therapy</p> <p>D.3.9. Cognitive behavioural Plus treatment retention</p> <p>D.3.10. Couples' group intervention</p> <p>D.3.11. Couples' therapy</p> <p>D.3.12. Counselling (no further details)</p> <p>D.3.13. Domestic Violence Courts</p> <p>D.3.14. Domestic violence Protection Order (DVPO)</p> <p>D.3.15. Domestic violence police unit</p> <p>D.3.16. Drug/alcohol treatment programmes</p> <p>D.3.17. Enforcement</p> <p>D.3.18. Health problems interventions (not mental health)</p> <p>D.3.19. Probation</p> <p>D.3.20. Lay outreach</p> <p>D.3.21. Legal system change</p>

	<p>D.3.22. Mandatory arrest</p> <p>D.3.23. Mediation</p> <p>D.3.24. Motivational interviewing /enhancement</p> <p>D.3.25. Mental health targeted interventions</p> <p>D.3.26. Models of police service delivery</p> <p>D.3.27. Monitoring</p> <p>D.3.28. Pro-feminist Psycho-educational (inc Duluth)</p> <p>D.3.29. Photographic evidence gathering</p> <p>D.3.30. Protection order</p> <p>D.3.31. Psychological therapy (no further details)</p> <p>D.3.32. Psychodynamic</p> <p>D.3.33. Restorative Justice</p> <p>D.3.34. Restore order</p> <p>D.3.35. Separation</p> <p>D.3.36. Supportive group therapy Plus treatment retention</p> <p>D.3.37. Warrants for arrest</p> <p>D.3.38. Ordered to appear at court</p>
<p>D.4 If a programme or intervention is being studied, does it have a formal name?</p>	<p>D.4.1 N/A Not applicable (no programme or intervention)</p> <p>D.4.2 Yes (please specify)</p> <p>D.4.3 No (please specify)</p> <p>D.4.4 Not stated/ unclear (please specify)</p>
<p>D.5. Content of the intervention package Describe the intervention in detail, whenever possible copying the authors' description</p>	<p>D.5.1 Details</p>

<p>from the report word for word. If specified in the report, also describe in detail what the control/ comparison group(s) were exposed to.</p>	
<p>D.6 Aim(s) of the intervention</p>	<p>D.6.1 Not stated</p> <p>D.6.2 Not explicitly stated (Write in, as worded by the reviewer)</p> <p>D.6.3 Stated (Write in, as stated by the authors)</p> <p>CBT</p> <p>Pro-feminist psycho educational</p> <p>Duluth model (no further details)</p> <p>Duluth, CBT</p> <p>Psychoeducational</p> <p>Transtheoretical theory of change</p> <p>Deterrence effect</p> <p>Domestic violence typologies</p> <p>Stake in Conformity</p> <p>Labelling theory</p>
<p>D.7 Year intervention started Where relevant</p>	<p>D.7.1 Details</p>
<p>D.8 Duration of the intervention Choose the relevant category and write in the exact intervention length if specified in the report</p> <p>When the intervention is ongoing, tick 'OTHER' and indicate the length of intervention as the length of the outcome assessment period</p>	<p>D.8.1 Not stated</p> <p>D.8.2 Not applicable</p> <p>D.8.3 Unclear</p> <p>D.8.4 One day or less (please specify)</p> <p>D.8.5 1 day to 1 week (please specify)</p> <p>D.8.6 1 week (and 1 day) to 1 month</p>

	<p>(please specify)</p> <p>D.8.7 1 month (and 1 day) to 3 months (please specify)</p> <p>D.8.8 3 months (and 1 day) to 6 months (please specify)</p> <p>D.8.9 6 months (and 1 day) to 1 year (please specify)</p> <p>D.8.10 1 year (and 1 day) to 2 years (please specify)</p> <p>D.8.11 2 years (and 1 day) to 3 years (please specify)</p> <p>D.8.12 3 years (and 1 day) to 5 years (please specify)</p> <p>D.8.13 more than 5 years (please specify)</p> <p>D.8.14 Other (please specify)</p>
<p>D.10 Person providing the intervention (tick as many as appropriate)</p>	<p>D.10.1 Counsellor</p> <p>D.10.2 Health professional (please specify)</p> <p>D.10.3 parent</p> <p>D.10.4 peer</p> <p>D.10.5 Psychologist</p> <p>D.10.6 Researcher</p> <p>D.10.7 Social worker</p> <p>D.10.8 Teacher/lecturer</p> <p>D.10.9 Probation service</p> <p>D.10.10 Prison staff</p> <p>D.10.11 Court worker</p>

	<p>D.10.12 Police Officer</p> <p>D.10.13. Therapist</p> <p>D.10.13 Unstated/ not clear</p>
<p>D.11 Was special training given to people providing the intervention? Provide as much detail as possible</p>	<p>D.11.1 Not stated</p> <p>D.11.2 Unclear</p> <p>D.11.3 Yes (please specify)</p> <p>D.11.4 No</p>
<p>D.12. Intensity of the Intervention</p>	<p>D.11.1. Daily</p> <p>D.11.2. 2-4 per week</p> <p>D.11.3. 1-2 per week</p> <p>D.11.4. less than weekly (give frequency)</p> <p>D.11.5. Unclear/ not stated</p> <p>D.11.6. not applicable</p>
<p>D.13 What treatment/ intervention did the control/comparison group receive</p>	<p>D.13.1 No control group Use this code if participants acted as own control e.g. in pre-post test design</p> <p>D.13.2 treatment as usual (please specify)</p> <p>D.13.3 alternative intervention (please specify)</p> <p>D.13.4 Not stated/ unclear</p>

Section E: Results & Conclusions

<p>E.1 What are the results of the study as reported by authors? Please give as much detail as possible and refer to page numbers in the report(s) of the study, where necessary (e.g. for key tables).</p> <p>Please use facility for extracting data/ outcomes where appropriate</p>	<p>E.1.2 numerical data</p> <p>E.1.3. Official records recidivism</p> <p>E.1.4. Victim reports recidivism</p> <p>E.1.5. Repeat violence (source unclear)</p>
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	<p>E.1.6. Perpetrator self-report</p> <p>E.1.7 Victim satisfaction with programme</p> <p>E.1.8. Perpetrator psychological variables</p> <p>E.1.9. Programme outcomes</p> <p>E.1.1 text</p>
E.2. Follow up period	<p>E.2.1. At completion of the programme</p> <p>E.2.2. One month</p> <p>E.2.3. Three months</p> <p>E.2.4. Six months</p> <p>E.2.9 Eight months</p> <p>E.2.10 Eleven months</p> <p>E.2.5. Twelve months</p> <p>E.2.6. 13-21 months</p> <p>E.2.7. 22-36 months</p> <p>E.2.8 4-5 years</p> <p>E.2.11 Throughout treatment</p>
E.3. Programme completion rate/ attrition	<p>E.3.1. Attrition rate reported (details)</p> <p>E.3.2. Attrition rate not reported</p> <p>E.3.3. Not applicable</p>
<p>E.4. Where economic analysis completed what are the results Please give all relevant data</p> <p>All data relating to costs</p> <p>All data relating to benefits</p> <p>For studies where costs and benefits compared between two alternatives please report all costs and benefits for both alternatives</p>	<p>E.4.1 N/A No economic analysis</p> <p>E.4.2 Details (complete sections below)</p>

For cost benefit analysis financial costs are lower in	N/A No economic analysis The experimental or intervention group The control group
For cost benefit analysis benefits are lower or harm greater in	N/A No economic analysis The experimental (intervention) group The Control (or comparison group)
Are there any obvious shortcomings in the reporting of the data?	Yes (please specify) No
Do the authors report on all variables they aimed to study as specified in their aims/research questions? This excludes variables just used to describe the sample.	Yes (please specify) No
E.7 What do the author(s) conclude about the findings of the study? Please give details and refer to page numbers in the report of the study, where necessary.	E.7.1 Details

Section F: Study Method

<p>F.1 Study Timing Please indicate all that apply and give further details where possible</p> <p>-If the study examines one or more samples but each at only one point in time it is cross-sectional</p> <p>-If the study examines the same samples but as they have changed over time, it is a retrospective, provided that the interest is in starting at one timepoint and looking backwards over time</p> <p>-If the study examines the same samples as they have changed over time and if data are collected forward over time, it is prospective provided that the interest is in starting at one</p>	<p>F.1.1 Cross-sectional</p> <p>F.1.2 Retrospective</p> <p>F.1.3 Prospective</p> <p>F.1.4 Not stated/ unclear (please specify)</p>
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<p>timepoint and looking forward in time</p>	
<p>F.2 when were the measurements of the variable(s) used as outcome measures made, in relation to the intervention Use only if the purpose of the study is to measure the effectiveness or impact of an intervention or programme i.e. its purpose is coded as 'What Works' in Section B2 -</p> <p>If at least one of the outcome variables is measured both before and after the intervention, please use the 'before and after' category.</p>	<p>F.2.1 Not applicable (not an evaluation)</p> <p>F.2.2 Before and after</p> <p>F.2.3 Only after</p> <p>F.2.4 Other (please specify)</p> <p>F.2.5 Not stated/unclear (please specify)</p>
<p>F.3 What is the method used in the study? NB: Studies may use more than one method please code each method used for which data extraction is being completed and the respective outcomes for each method.</p> <p>A=Please use this code if the outcome evaluation employed the design of a randomised controlled trial. To be classified as an RCT, the evaluation must:</p> <p>i). compare two or more groups which receive different interventions or different intensities/levels of an intervention with each other; and/or with a group which does not receive any intervention at all AND</p> <p>ii) allocate participants (individuals, groups, classes, schools, LEAs etc) or sequences to the different groups based on a fully random schedule (e.g. a random numbers table is used). If the report states that random allocation was used and no further information is given then please keyword as RCT. If the allocation is NOT fully randomised (e.g. allocation by alternate numbers by date of birth) then please keyword as a non-randomised controlled trial</p> <p>B=Please use this code if the evaluation compared two or more groups which receive different interventions, or different intensities/levels of an intervention to each other and/or with a group which does not receive any intervention at all BUT DOES NOT allocate participants (individuals, groups, classes, schools, LEAs etc) or sequences in a</p>	<p>F.3.1 A=Random experiment with random allocation to groups</p> <p>F.3.2 B=Experiment with non-random allocation to groups</p> <p>F.3.3 C=One group pre-post test</p> <p>F.3.4 D=one group post-test only</p> <p>F.3.5 E=Cohort study</p> <p>F.3.6 F=Case-control study</p> <p>F.3.7 G=Statistical survey</p> <p>F.3.8 H=Views study</p> <p>F.3.9 I=Ethnography</p> <p>F.3.10 J=Systematic review</p> <p>F.3.11 K=Other review (non-systematic)</p> <p>F.3.12 L=Case study</p> <p>F.3.13 M= Document study</p> <p>F.3.14 N=Action research</p> <p>F.3.15 O= Methodological study</p>

fully random manner. This keyword should be used for studies which describe groups being allocated using a quasi-random method (e.g. allocation by alternate numbers or by date of birth) or other non- random method

C=Please use this code where a group of subjects is tested on outcome of interest before being given an intervention which is being evaluated. After receiving the intervention the same test is administered again to the same subjects. The outcome is the difference between the pre and post test scores of the subjects.

D=Please use this code where one group of subjects is tested on outcome of interest after receiving the intervention which is being evaluated

E=Please use this code where researchers prospectively study a sample (e.g. learners), collect data on the different aspects of policies or practices experienced by members of the sample (e.g. teaching methods, class sizes), look forward in time to measure their later outcomes (e.g. achievement) and relate the experiences to the outcomes achieved. The purpose is to assess the effect of the different experiences on outcomes.

F=Please use this code where researchers compare two or more groups of individuals on the basis of their current situation (e.g. 16 year old pupils with high current educational performance compared to those with average educational performance), and look back in time to examine the statistical association with different policies or practices which they have experienced (e.g. class size; attendance at single sex or mixed sex schools; non-school activities etc).

G= please use this code where researchers have used a questionnaire to collect quantitative information about items in a sample or population e.g. parents views on education

H= Please use this code where the researchers try to understand phenomenon from the point of the 'worldview' of a particular, group, culture or society. In these

F.3.16 P=Secondary data analysis

studies there is attention to subjective meaning, perspectives and experience'.

I= please use this code when the researchers present a qualitative description of human social phenomena, based on fieldwork

J= please use this code if the review is explicit in its reporting of a systematic strategy used for (i) searching for studies (i.e. it reports which databases have been searched and the keywords used to search the database, the list of journals hand searched, and describes attempts to find unpublished or 'grey' literature; (ii) the criteria for including and excluding studies in the review and, (iii) methods used for assessing the quality and collating the findings of included studies.

K= Please use this code for cases where the review discusses a particular issue bringing together the opinions/findings/conclusions from a range of previous studies but where the review does not meet the criteria for a systematic review (as defined above)

L= please use this code when researchers refer specifically to their design/ approach as a 'case study'. Where possible further information about the methods used in the case study should be coded

M=please use this code where researchers have used documents as a source of data e.g. newspaper reports

N=Please use this code where practitioners or institutions (with or without the help of researchers) have used research as part of a process of development and/or change. Where possible further information about the research methods used should be coded

O=please use this keyword for studies which focus on the development or discussion of methods; for example discussions of a statistical technique, a recruitment or sampling procedure, a particular way of collecting or analysing data etc. It may also refer to a description of the processes or stages involved in developing an 'instrument' (e.g. an assessment procedure).

<p>P= Please use this code where researchers have used data from a pre-existing dataset e.g. The British Household Panel Survey to answer their 'new' research question.</p>	
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Section G: Methods-treatment of groups

<p>G.1 If Comparisons are being made between two or more groups*, please specify the basis of any divisions made for making these comparisons Please give further details where possible</p> <p>*If no comparisons are being made between groups please continue to Section I (Methods - sampling strategy)</p>	<p>G.1.1 Not applicable (not more than one group)</p> <p>G.1.2 Prospective allocation into more than one group e.g. allocation to different interventions, or allocation to intervention and control groups</p> <p>G.1.3 No prospective allocation but use of pre-existing differences to create comparison groups e.g. receiving different interventions or characterised by different levels of a variable such as social class</p> <p>G.1.4 Other (please specify)</p> <p>G.1.5 Not stated/ unclear (please specify)</p>
<p>G.2 How do the groups differ?</p>	<p>G.2.1 Not applicable (not in more than one group)</p> <p>G.2.2 Explicitly stated (please specify)</p> <p>G.2.3 Implicit (please specify)</p> <p>G.2.4 Not stated/ unclear (please specify)</p>
<p>G.3 Number of groups For instance, in studies in which comparisons are made between group, this may be the number of groups into which the dataset is divided for analysis (e.g. social class, or form size), or the number of groups allocated to, or receiving, an intervention.</p>	<p>G.3.1 Not applicable (not more than one group)</p> <p>G.3.2 One</p> <p>G.3.3 Two</p> <p>G.3.4 Three</p>

	<p>G.3.5 Four or more (please specify)</p> <p>G.3.6 Other/ unclear (please specify)</p>
<p>G.4 If prospective allocation into more than one group, what was the unit of allocation? Please indicate all that apply and give further details where possible</p>	<p>G.4.1 Not applicable (not more than one group)</p> <p>G.4.2 Not applicable (no prospective allocation)</p> <p>G.4.3 Individuals</p> <p>G.4.4 Groupings or clusters of individuals (e.g. classes or schools) please specify</p> <p>G.4.5 Other (e.g. individuals or groups acting as their own controls - please specify)</p> <p>G.4.6 Not stated/ unclear (please specify)</p>
<p>G.5 If prospective allocation into more than one group, which method was used to generate the allocation sequence?</p>	<p>G.5.1 Not applicable (not more than one group)</p> <p>G.5.2 Not applicable (no prospective allocation)</p> <p>G.5.3 Random</p> <p>G.5.4 Quasi-random</p> <p>G.5.5 Non-random</p> <p>G.5.6 Not stated/unclear (please specify)</p>
<p>G.6 If prospective allocation into more than one group, was the allocation sequence concealed? Bias can be introduced, consciously or otherwise, if the allocation of pupils or classes or schools to a programme or intervention is made in the knowledge of key characteristics of those allocated. For example, children with more serious reading difficulty might be seen as in greater need and might be more likely to be allocated to the 'new' programme, or the opposite might happen. Either would introduce bias.</p>	<p>G.6.1 Not applicable (not more than one group)</p> <p>G.6.2 Not applicable (no prospective allocation)</p> <p>G.6.3 Yes (please specify)</p> <p>G.6.4 No (please specify)</p>

	G.6.5 Not stated/unclear (please specify)
G.7 Study design summary In addition to answering the questions in this section, describe the study design in your own words. You may want to draw upon and elaborate on the answers already given.	G.7.1 Details

Section H: Methods - Sampling strategy

H.1 What is the sampling frame (if any) from which the participants are chosen? e.g. telephone directory, electoral register, postcode, school listings etc. There may be two stages - e.g. first sampling schools and then classes or pupils within them.	H.1.1 Not applicable (please specify) H.1.2 Explicitly stated (please specify) H.1.3 Implicit (please specify) H.1.4 Not stated/unclear (please specify)
H.2 Which method does the study use to select people, or groups of people (from the sampling frame)? e.g. selecting people at random, systematically - selecting, for example, every 5th person, purposively, in order to reach a quota for a given characteristic.	H.2.1 Not applicable (no sampling frame) H.2.2 Explicitly stated (please specify) H.2.3 Implicit (please specify) H.2.4 Not stated/unclear (please specify)
H.3 How representative was the achieved sample (as recruited at the start of the study) in relation to the aims of the sampling frame? Please specify basis for your decision.	H.3.1 Not applicable (e.g. study of policies, documents, etc.) H.3.2 Not applicable (no sampling frame) H.3.3 High (please specify) H.3.4 Medium (please specify) H.3.5 Low (please specify) H.3.6 Unclear (please specify)
H.4 If the study involves studying samples prospectively over time, what proportion of the sample dropped out over the course of the study? If the study involves more than one group, please give drop-out rates for each group	H.4.1 Not applicable (e.g. study of policies, documents, etc.) H.4.2 Not applicable (not following samples

<p>separately. If necessary, refer to a page number in the report (e.g. for a useful table).</p>	<p>prospectively over time)</p> <p>H.4.3 Explicitly stated (please specify)</p> <p>H.4.4 Implicit (please specify)</p> <p>H.4.5 Not stated/unclear (please specify)</p>
<p>H.5 For studies that involve following samples prospectively over time, do the authors provide any information on whether, and/or how, those who dropped out of the study differ from those who remained in the study?</p>	<p>H.5.1 Not applicable (e.g. study of policies, documents, etc.)</p> <p>H.5.2 Not applicable (not following samples prospectively over time)</p> <p>H.5.3 Not applicable (no drop outs)</p> <p>H.5.4 Yes (please specify)</p> <p>H.5.5 No</p>
<p>H.6 If the study involves following samples prospectively over time, do authors provide baseline values of key variables, such as those being used as outcomes, and relevant socio-demographic variables?</p>	<p>H.6.1 Not applicable (e.g.. study of policies, documents, etc.)</p> <p>H.6.2 Not applicable (not following samples prospectively over time)</p> <p>H.6.3 Yes (please specify)</p> <p>H.6.4 No</p>

Section I: Methods - recruitment and consent

<p>I.1 Which methods are used to recruit people into the study? e.g. letters of invitation, telephone contact, face-to-face contact.</p>	<p>I.1.1 Not applicable (please specify)</p> <p>I.1.2 Explicitly stated (please specify)</p> <p>I.1.3 Implicit (please specify)</p> <p>I.1.4 Not stated/unclear (please specify)</p> <p>I.1.5 Please specify any other details relevant to recruitment and consent</p>
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<p>I.2 Were any incentives provided to recruit people into the study?</p>	<p>I.2.1 Not applicable (please specify)</p> <p>I.2.2 Explicitly stated (please specify)</p> <p>I.2.3 Not stated/unclear (please specify)</p>
<p>I.3 Was consent sought? Please comment on the quality of consent, if relevant.</p>	<p>I.3.1 Not applicable (please specify)</p> <p>I.3.2 Participant consent sought</p> <p>I.3.3 Other consent sought</p> <p>I.3.4 Consent not sought</p> <p>I.3.5 Not stated/unclear (please specify)</p>

Section J: Methods - Data Collection

<p>J.1 Which methods were used to collect the data? Please indicate all that apply and give further detail where possible</p>	<p>J.1.1 Criminal Justice System records Please state e.g. court records</p> <p>J.1.2 Focus group interview</p> <p>J.1.3 One-to-one interview (face to face or by phone)</p> <p>J.1.4 Observation</p> <p>J.1.5 Self-completion questionnaire</p> <p>J.1.6 self-completion report or diary</p> <p>J.1.7 Examinations</p> <p>J.1.8 Clinical test</p> <p>J.1.9 Practical test</p> <p>J.1.10 Psychological test (e.g. I.Q test)</p> <p>J.1.11 Hypothetical scenario including</p>
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	<p>vignettes</p> <p>J.1.12 Secondary data such as publicly available statistics</p> <p>J.1.13 Other documentation</p> <p>J.1.14 Not stated/ unclear (please specify)</p> <p>J.1.15 Please specify any other important features of data collection</p> <p>J.1.16 Coding is based on: Author's description</p> <p>J.1.17 Coding is based on: Reviewers' interpretation</p>
<p>J.2 Details of data collection instruments or tool(s). Please provide details including names for all tools used to collect data, and examples of any questions/items given. Also, please state whether source is cited in the report</p> <p>J.2.6. Treatment Readiness, Treatment Responsivity, and Treatment Participation and Gain Scales</p> <p>Serin and Kennedy (1997, unpublished). These scales are structured interviews designed to assess treatment readiness and responsivity factors that could affect an offender's response to treatment.</p> <p>J.2.7. Antisocial Personality Symptoms</p> <p>This measure is a checklist of 11 symptoms described in the fourth edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (American Psychiatric Association 1994) under Antisocial Personality Disorder.</p> <p>J.2.8. Borderline Personality Organization</p> <p>BPO (Oldham et al, 1985). This instrument is</p>	<p>J.2.1 Not stated/ unclear (please specify)</p> <p>J.2.2 Revised Conflict Tactics Scale</p> <p>J.2.3 The Timeline Followback interview (TLFB)</p> <p>J.2.4. Goal Attainment Scale-Family Violence (GAS-FV; Correctional Service Canada 2001)</p> <p>J.2.5. University of Rhode Island Change Assessment-Batterers (URICA-B: Levesque et al. 2000)</p> <p>J.2.6. Treatment Readiness, Treatment Responsivity, and Treatment Participation and Gain Scales</p> <p>J.2.7. Antisocial Personality Symptoms</p> <p>J.2.8. Borderline Personality Organization</p> <p>J.2.9. Paulhus Deception Scale</p> <p>J.2.10. Personal Reaction Questionnaire</p> <p>J.2.11. Interpersonal Relationship Scale</p> <p>J.2.12. Statistical Information on Recidivism (SIR-R; Nuffield)</p>

<p>a 30-item self-report measure that assesses components of a borderline personality</p> <p>J.2.9. Paulhus Deception Scale</p> <p>Paulhus 1990) is a 40-item self-report measure designed to assess two subscales of socially desirable responding: self-deceptive enhancement and impression management.</p> <p>J.2.10. Personal Reaction Questionnaire</p> <p>The Personal Reaction Questionnaire (Blackburn and Fawcett 1999) is a 125-item, multi-trait, self-report inventory designed to measure cognitive, affective, and behavioral dispositions relevant to offender populations.</p> <p>J.2.11. Interpersonal Relationship Scale</p> <p>(Hupka and Rusch 2001) is a 27-item self-report measure that assesses six aspects of jealousy: threat to exclusive companionship, self-deprecation/envy, dependency, sexual possessiveness, competition and vindictiveness, and distrust.</p> <p>J.2.12. Statistical Information on Recidivism (SIR-R; Nuffield)</p> <p>The SIR-R scale is an actuarial tool that anchors the static risk assessment assesses risk for general reoffending within 3 years of community release.</p> <p>J.2.15. Working Alliance Inventory (WAI)</p> <p>three components of therapeutic relationships a) the bond between the therapists and client b) agreement on the goals of treatment c) agreement on the tasks required to achieve treatment goals</p>	<p>J.2.13. Assignment Assessment Rating Scale (ACRS)</p> <p>J.2.14. State-Trait Anger Expression Inventory (STAXI)</p> <p>J.2.15. Working Alliance Inventory (WAI)</p> <p>J.2.16. Attitudes Towards Correctional Treatment (ACT) scale</p> <p>J.2.17. Dyadic Adjustment Scale - (relationship satisfaction)</p> <p>J.2.18. URICA-DV-R</p> <p>J.2.19. Safe At Home Scale (SAH)</p> <p>J.2.20. Stages of Change questionnaire (SOCQ)</p> <p>J.2.21. Revised Gudjonsson Blame Attribution Inventory (BAI-R)</p> <p>J.2.22. Abusive Relationships Inventory</p> <p>J.2.23. Conflicts Tactics Scale Form N(CTS)</p>
<p>J.3 Do the authors' describe any ways they addressed the repeatability or reliability of their data collection tools/methods? e.g. test-re-test methods</p> <p>(where more than one tool was employed, please provide details for each)</p>	<p>J.3.1 Details</p>

<p>J.4 Do the authors describe any ways they have addressed the validity or trustworthiness of their data collection tools/methods? e.g. mention previous piloting or validation of tools, published version of tools, involvement of target population in development of tools.</p> <p>(Where more than one tool was employed, please provide details for each)</p>	<p>J.4.1 Details</p>
<p>J.5 Was there a concealment of which group that subjects were assigned to (i.e. the intervention or control) or other key factors from those carrying out measurement of outcome - if relevant?</p> <p>Not applicable - e.g. analysis of existing data, qualitative study.</p> <p>No - e.g. assessment of reading progress for dyslexic pupils done by teacher who provided intervention</p> <p>Yes - e.g. researcher assessing pupil knowledge of drugs - unaware of whether pupil received the intervention or not.</p>	<p>J.5.1 Not applicable (please say why)</p> <p>J.5.2 Yes (please specify)</p> <p>J.5.3 No (please specify)</p>

Section K: Methods - data analysis

<p>K.1 Which methods were used to analyse the data? Please give details of approach methods including statistical methods.</p>	<p>K.1.1 Explicitly stated (please specify)</p> <p>K.1.2 Implicit (please specify)</p> <p>K.1.3 Not stated/unclear (please specify)</p> <p>K.1.4 Please specify any important analytic or statistical issues</p>
<p>K.2 Did the study address multiplicity by reporting ancillary analyses, including subgroup analyses and adjusted analyses, and do the authors report on whether these were pre-specified or exploratory?</p>	<p>K.2.1 Yes (please specify)</p> <p>K.2.2 No (please specify)</p> <p>K.2.3 Not applicable</p>
<p>K.3 Do the authors describe strategies used in the analysis to control for bias from</p>	<p>K.3.1 Yes (please specify)</p>

<p>confounding variables?</p>	<p>K.3.2 No</p> <p>K.3.3 Not applicable</p>
<p>K.4 For evaluation studies that use prospective allocation, please specify the basis on which data analysis was carried out. 'Intention to intervene' means that data were analysed on the basis of the original number of participants, as recruited into the different groups.</p> <p>'Intervention received' means data were analysed on the basis of the number of participants actually receiving the intervention.</p>	<p>K.4.1 Not applicable (not an evaluation study with prospective allocation)</p> <p>K.4.2 'Intention to intervene'</p> <p>K.4.3 'Intervention received'</p> <p>K.4.4 Not stated/unclear (please specify)</p>
<p>K.5 Were appropriate steps taken to establish reliability/validity of analysis e.g. assumptions for statistical analysis met triangulation in qualitative analysis</p>	<p>K.5.1 Not appropriate/needed</p> <p>K.5.2 Yes appropriate steps taken (please specify)</p> <p>K.5.3 No appropriate steps not taken (please specify) If you use his code please specify what you think should have been done</p> <p>K.5.4 No stated/ unclear</p>

Section M: Methods - Mechanism/s or mediator/s activated

<p>M.1. Do the authors test for mechanisms and/or mediators? (see aims of intervention)</p>	<p>M.1.1 N/A No</p> <p>M.1.2 (Transtheoretical) Stages of change</p> <p>M.1.3. Group cohesion</p> <p>M.1.4. Childhood trauma</p> <p>M.1.5. Therapeutic Working Alliance</p> <p>M.1.6. Trait anger</p> <p>M.1.7. Risk, Needs, Responsivity</p> <p>M.1.8. alcohol/ drug addiction</p> <p>M.1.9. Minority ethnic group</p>
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	<p>M.1.10. Domestic violence typologies</p> <p>M.1.11. Deterrence effect</p> <p>M.1.12. stake in conformity</p> <p>M.1.13. Victim empowerment and support</p> <p>M.1.14. Quality and quantity of evidence</p> <p>M.1.15. Accountability</p> <p>M.1.16. Confidence and efficacy</p> <p>M.1.17. Labelling effect</p>
<p>M.2. Do authors discuss potential mediators and mechanisms to explain variation in their results? (see discussion section)</p>	<p>M.2.2. No</p> <p>M.2.1. Programme completion/ attrition</p> <p>M.2.2. Treatment delivery</p> <p>M.2.3. Offender typology</p> <p>M.2.4. Learning styles</p> <p>M.2.5. Risk, Need and Responsivity</p> <p>M.2.6. Study design</p> <p>M.2.7. Type of treatment</p> <p>M.2.8. recidivism report(ed by)</p> <p>M.2.9. Offender motivation</p> <p>M.2.10. counsellor relationship/ interactions</p> <p>M.2.11. Partner's views about violence</p> <p>M.2.12. Setting</p> <p>M.2.13. Group dynamics</p> <p>M.2.14. Age</p> <p>M.2.15. As above</p> <p>M.2.16. Implementation</p> <p>M.2.17. Practical limitations</p>

	M.2.18. Marital status M.2.19. Labeling effect M.2.20. "race"
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Appendix 6: Characteristics and results of included studies

Study, mechanisms measured	Moderators	Results
<p>Short title: Felson et al (2005) Police intervention</p> <p>Country of study • USA</p> <p>Number of Participants • Total=2565</p> <p>Intervention group: Arrest=22.2% (n=569); not reported to the police=43.5% (n=1116)</p> <p>Control group: reported, no arrest=34.3% (n=880)</p> <p>Intervention • Arrest; report</p> <p>Control • No arrest</p> <p>Mechanism • Deterrence effect • Retaliation effect</p>	<p>Sex of participants • Mixed</p> <p>Ethnicity of participants • Offender – black=18.4%, other=81.6%</p> <p>Other characteristics • Socio-economic status of participants - below poverty threshold (not specified)=33% • Offender alcohol/ drug use - No=40%; yes=42.1%; uncertain=17.9%, • Relationship status - spouses cohabiting =8.7%; spouses living apart=35.9%; partners living apart=40.9%; ambiguous=14.5% • Offender age - under 18=4.8%; 18 to 29=42.7%; over 30=52.5% • Victim education - mean years=12.6</p> <p>Data collection methods • National survey data/victim interviews</p> <p>Follow up period • Participants are interviewed 6 times in three years</p>	<p>Victim reports recidivism</p> <p>The results show that offenders are much less likely to repeat their offense when an incident is reported to the police. The odds of reoffending when the incident was not reported to the police was 89%. B .64 (13 ExpB 1.89).</p> <p>Results do not indicate evidence of a deterrent effect for arrest. The coefficient is in the predicted direction but is small and not statistically significant (b=-0.25 to -.23).</p> <p>Offenders with prior offenses reoffended in 35% of the unreported incidents but only 22% of incidents that were reported with no arrest. Offenders with no prior offenses reoffended in 10% of the unreported incidents but only 5% of incidents that were reported with no arrest.</p> <p>Offenders who were drinking or using drugs at the time of the incident are more likely to re-offend.</p> <p>Weight of evidence D +++</p>

<p>Short title: Owens (2014) Essex body worn video trial</p> <p>Country of study • United Kingdom</p> <p>Number of participants in the study • Total: n=308 Intervention group: n=70 Control group: n=238</p> <p>2,761 cases attended by at least one officer wearing body worn camera out of (36% of 7,609 domestic violence incidents attended)</p> <p>Intervention • Body worn cameras</p> <p>Control • Control group did not wear body cameras</p> <p>Mechanism • Evidence gathering for prosecution</p>	<p>Sex of participants • Females - control=22%, treatment group=23%</p> <p>Other characteristics</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The age distribution was similar, with a slightly smaller number of under 30 year olds in the treatment group (30%) compared to the control group (36%). <p>Duration • 4 months</p> <p>Special training? • Yes</p> <p>Data collection methods</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Criminal Justice System records • One-to-one interview (face to face or by phone) of police officer • Self-completion questionnaire 	<p>Official records recidivism</p> <p>No differences were found in numbers of detections or in incidents being recorded as crimes, or rates of arrest. A significantly higher proportion of incidents attended by at least one officer wearing BWV resulted in a criminal charge rather than another sanction detection outcome (81% of sanction detections were charges in the treatment group compared to 72% in the control group).</p> <p>Two-thirds of officers surveyed (27 of 36) felt that the cameras did not work well at night. Half of those officers interviewed stated an increased confidence in getting convictions with the cameras, as they felt the cameras gave more detail than a statement could capture.</p> <p>Two-thirds of officers surveyed (26 of 36) did feel that the software for burning footage was easy to use and almost two thirds of those surveyed felt they were given enough training to use body worn video properly (25 of 36). Further, on a positive note, just over half the officers surveyed disagreed with the statement that they 'felt uncomfortable wearing a camera' (20 of 37).</p> <p>Weight of evidence D ++</p>
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<p>Short title: Sherman and Berk (1984) The specific deterrence effect</p> <p>Country of study • USA</p> <p>Number of Participants • Total=330 case reports, 205 victim interviews</p> <p>Intervention group: Arrest n=136</p> <p>Control group: Advise n=89</p> <p>Separate n=89</p> <p>Intervention • Arrest</p> <p>Control • Advice or separation</p> <p>Mechanism • Deterrence effect</p>	<p>Ethnicity of participants • White – victims=57%, suspects=45%; Black – victims=23% suspects=36%; native American – victims=18%, suspects=16%; Other - victims=2%, suspects=3%</p> <p>Other characteristics •</p> <p>Prior domestic assaults - victim assaulted in last 6 months=80%; police interventions in DV incident in last 6 months=60%.</p> <p>Prior arrests of Male suspects - ever arrested for any offense=59%; ever arrested for crime against person=31%; ever arrested on an alcohol offense=5%; ever arrested on DV Statute=29% • Age - mean age victims=30, suspects=32 • Level of education: < high school – victims=43%, suspects=42%; high school only - victims=33%, suspects=36%; > high school victims=24%, suspects=22% • Unemployment - victims=61%, suspects=60% • Couple in Counselling Program=27%.</p> <p>Duration • Offender was rarely incarcerated for more than a week</p> <p>Special training? • Yes</p> <p>Data collection methods • Criminal Justice System records; Self-completion questionnaire</p> <p>Follow up period: 6 months</p> <p>Attrition rates • For victims: after the first wave, there was gradual attrition so that by the last wave, only 161 respondents remained (for a response rate of 49%).</p>	<p>Official records recidivism</p> <p>The arrest treatment reduced repeat occurrences by a statistically significant amount (coef. -0.97, t = -2.28* P<.05). 26% of those separated recidivated compared to 13% of those arrested. The mediation treatment was statistically indistinguishable from separation or arrest.</p> <p>Victim reports recidivism</p> <p>Results suggest a different ordering of the effects, with arrest still producing the lowest recidivism rate (19%), but with advice producing the highest (37%).</p> <p>Weight of evidence D ++</p>
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<p>Short title: Garcia (2003) Digital photographic evidence Country of study • USA Number of Participants • Total = Intervention group: Cases with photos=27 (36%) Control group: Cases without photos=49 (64%) Intervention • Photographic evidence gathering Control • No photographic evidence taken Mechanism • Evidence gathering for prosecution</p>	<p>Prior criminal history • Yes - intervention n=19, 79%; control - n=29, 64%. No-intervention - n=5, 21%; control - n=16, 36% History of battery • Yes - intervention n=10, 42%; control - n=14, 31%. No - intervention - n=14, 58%; control - n=31, 69% Charge type • Misdemeanour - intervention - n=22, 81%; control - n=40, 93%. Felony - intervention - n=5, 19%; control n=3, 7% Duration • 11 months Special training? • Yes Which methods are used to recruit people into the study? • Instructed by the prosecutor's office Data collection methods • Focus group interview • Photographic evidence</p>	<p>Official records recidivism When medical assistance, charge type, and prior criminal history were controlled for, the existence of digital photographic evidence was shown to significantly impact the likelihood of obtaining guilty pleas and convictions. Pled guilty: treatment 64% n=16, comparison group 28% n=11 Pled not guilty: treatment 36% n=9, comparison 72% n=28 χ^2 value 8.003 ** Conviction yes: treatment 65% n=17, comparison 37% n=14 Conviction no: treatment 35% n=9, comparison 63% n=24 χ^2 5.036* Sentence type - custody time: yes treatment 64% n=5, comparison 21% n=3 Sentence type, custody time: no treatment 36% n=5, comparison 79% n=11 χ^2 5.250* * P>.05, ** P>0.005</p> <p>Weight of evidence D ++</p>
<p>Short title: Maxwell et al (2002) Preventive effects of arrest Country of study • USA Number of participants • Total = 4032 Intervention group: Arrest n=1,748 Control group: Non-arrest n=2,284 Intervention • Mandatory arrest Control • A variety of non-arrest treatments Mechanism: • Deterrence effect</p>	<p>Sex of participants • Male offenders; female victims Ethnicity of participants • African-American=50.6%; White=37.5%; Hispanic=10.8%; Asian/Other=1% Other characteristics • Use of drugs or alcohol=44.9% • Relationship with Victim - married=56.5% separated=2.3% divorced=1% current/past intimate=40.2% • Prior arrest=40.1% • Mean age=32.2 • Employed=71.6%. Data collection methods • Criminal justice system records; one-to-one interview (face to</p>	<p>Official records recidivism Using the three outcome measures derived from the criminal history information, the arrest treatment was associated with a reduction in recidivism rates, but none of the differences between the two treatment groups were statistically significant. 6 months prevalence rate. n=4,032. ExpB 0.96, SE0.08</p>

	<p>face or by phone) Follow up period • Six months; twelve months</p>	<p>Victim reports recidivism For the two outcome measures based on victim interview data, these negative effects [i.e. reduction in recidivism] were statistically significant.</p> <p>N=3,147, 6 months prevalence rate ExpB 0.70, SE0.08***p<0.001</p> <p>Weight of evidence D ++</p>
<p>Short title: Cho and Wilke (2010) Estimating the Impact of Batterer Arrest</p> <p>Country of study • USA</p> <p>Number of participants • Total =3,495 cases included in the analysis.</p> <p>Intervention group: Arrest n=774 (22%)</p> <p>Control group: Not arrest 2,721 (78%)</p> <p>Intervention • Arrest</p> <p>Control • No arrest</p> <p>Mechanism • Deterrence effect</p>	<p>Sex of participants • Male offenders; female victims</p> <p>Ethnicity of participants • White -2,919 (84%); Black -488 (14%); Others - 88 (2%)</p> <p>Other characteristics • Marital status - married=603 (17%); widowed=42 (1%); divorced=871 (25%); separated=870 (25%); never married=1,109 (32%) • Injury – minor =2,167 (62%); severe=298 (8%); no injury=1,030 (30%) • Age - mean=30.87 • Educational attainment - under high school=669 (19%); high school=1,415 (41%); over high school=1,411 (40%).</p> <p>Data collection methods • National survey data/victim interviews</p> <p>Follow up period • One year</p>	<p>Victim reports recidivism The odds of revictimization for victims whose partners had been arrested were 43.2% less than those whose partners had not been arrested, after controlling for age, race, marital status, educational attainment, injury, and survey redesign.</p> <p>B -.566, SE.104, Wald 29.815, <i>df</i>1 p-value 0.000, ExB.568</p> <p>Weight of evidence D ++</p>

<p>Short title: Johnson and Goodlin-Fahncke (2015) Exploring the effect of arrest</p> <p>Country of study • USA</p> <p>Number of participants • Total = 2,412 out of 3,765 cases from the four combined datasets</p> <p>Intervention • Arrest</p> <p>Control • Mediation or separation</p> <p>Mechanism • Deterrence effect</p>	<p>Sex of participants • Male offenders; female victims</p> <p>Other characteristics • Domestic Offender type.</p> <p>Data collection methods</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Criminal justice systems records; victim interviews (unspecified) <p>Follow up period • Six months</p>	<p>Official records recidivism</p> <p>Offender types: 17% of all of the family-only batterers experienced a new IPV arrest. Of those in the arrest condition, 18.2% (125 cases) experienced a new IPV arrest, while 16.0% of those in the control group (88 cases) experienced a new arrest. Of the borderline dysphoric subtypes in the arrested condition, 23.7% (86 cases) experienced a new IPV arrest within six months, while 22.9 % of those in the control group (64 cases) experienced a new arrest. Neither of these differences were statistically significant. For the generally violent/antisocial batterer subtypes, arrest actually resulted in an increased likelihood for a new IPV arrest. Of the batterers assigned to the arrest condition, 29.6% (74 cases) were rearrested. Of the control group, 21.4% were rearrested, a statistically significant difference at $p=.037$. Finally, of the low-level antisocial batterer cases in the arrest condition, 35.2 percent (25 cases) were re-arrested for a new IPV offense within 6 months. Only 7.9 percent (3 cases) of those in the control group experienced re-arrest during that period. This difference was statistically significant at $p=.002$, suggesting that arrest actually had a provocative effect among these types of batterers.</p> <p>Victim reports recidivism</p> <p>Results based on victim self-reports showed the same differences as those from official records.</p> <p>Weight of evidence D +</p>
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<p>Short title: Iyengar (2009) Certainty of arrest Country of study • USA Number of participants • 36,442 intimate partner homicides Intervention: • Mandatory arrest Control • Discretionary arrest Mechanism • Deterrence effect</p>	<p>Sex of participants • Mixed Data collection methods • Criminal Justice System records</p>	<p>Official records recidivism There appears to be a discrete increase of about 0.4 intimate partner homicides per 100,000 in states that implement mandatory arrest policies. The results suggest that mandatory arrest laws are responsible for an additional 0.8 murders per 100,000 people. This corresponds to a 54 percent increase in intimate partner homicides.</p> <p>Weight of evidence D +</p>
<p>Short title: Yates et al (2008) Mediation versus arrest Country of study • USA Number of participants • Total =1045 offenders Intervention • Mediation Control • Other intervention including arrest Mechanism • Deterrence effect •Stake in conformity</p>	<p>Ethnicity of participants • Black=633 (60.2%); other (mostly White)=412 (39.2%). Other characteristics • Highest education – high school graduates=832 (79%); not high school graduates=213 (20.2%) Data collection methods • Criminal Justice System records; victim interviews Follow up period • Six months</p>	<p>Stake in conformity For the group who were unemployed with less than a high school education, compared to those who were not mediated, those who were mediated were significantly less likely to recidivate. Those who were mediated were about 66% less likely to have an occurrence of domestic abuse within six months after mediation for domestic abuse. Among the employed and high school educated sample group offenders, mediation has no significant effect on future occurrence of domestic abuse.</p> <p>Weight of evidence D +</p>

Appendix 7: Characteristics of the Spouse Abuse Replication Program studies

Omaha, Nebraska. Dunford, Huizinga, and Elliott (1989)

Suspects of misdemeanor domestic violence were randomized to one of three conditions: arrest, separation or mediation. Officers in the separation condition warned offenders to stay away from the victim for a minimum of eight hours. Outcome measures were recidivism measured by official records of new arrests and complaints, and victim reported forms of repeat violence, including: 1. fear of injury, 2. pushing-hitting 3. physical injury. Interview follow ups were at six months after the presenting offence. Victim interviews were conducted in their own homes and in strict privacy. Victims were not always sure of the exact nature of police action that took place. The most common form of "mediation" was to ask the victim to leave the premises (21%) or to give victims legal advice (17%). 77% of victims report that police presence stopped the fights between the victim and offender. In the separation condition it was victims who were asked to leave the premises in around a third of cases (32%). 66% percent of victims in the arrest group did not want the offender arrested.

Colorado Springs, Colorado. Berk et al (1991)

A partially randomised controlled trial running from 1987 – 1989.

The Colorado Springs Police Department randomly assigned 1,658 incidents of misdemeanor spousal violence to one of four treatments:

- (1) An emergency order of protection for the victim coupled with arrest of the suspect;
- (2) An emergency order of protection for the victim coupled with immediate crisis counselling for the suspect;
- (3) An emergency order of protection only;
- (4) Restoring order at the scene with no emergency order of protection.

Outcomes were recidivism measured by police records and victim reports following interview after six months, with a response rate of victim reports at 64%. 18% of the cases were not randomised to the treatment condition as intended. Differential effects of arrest were examined for two types of offenders: "good risks", those offenders who were currently employed either in the civilian labour force or in the military and "bad risks": those offenders that were unemployed or no employment status could be determined. Authors hypothesised that "good risk" offenders would be more deterred by arrest as they had more to lose and that the "bad risk" offenders would not be deterred by arrest, and might even retaliate against the victim.

Charlotte, North Carolina. Hirshel et al (1991)

A randomised controlled trial testing three police responses: 1. Advising and possibly separating the couple. 2. Issuing a citation to the offender (an order requiring the offender to appear in court to answer specific charges). 3. Arresting the offender. Measures of recidivism were obtained from official records after 6 months, and victim interviews shortly after the incident at 3 months and again at 6 months. Participants were heterosexual spouses, or in

spouse-like relationships. Interviews were conducted with victims after 6 months by trained female interviewers.

16.5% of all offenders reoffended within 6 months according to official records. There were no significant differences in rates of reoffending between the three groups. An offender's prior offense record was highly predictive of rearrest.

For the victim interviews at three months and six months, victims were asked about six types of victimisation 1. Threatened to hurt her, 2. Actually hurt or tried to hurt her, 3. Threatened to hurt any member of the family, 4. Actually hurt or tried to hurt any member of the family 5. Threatened to damage property, 6. Actually damaged property

Dade County, Florida. Pate and Hamilton (1992)

Formal and informal deterrents to domestic violence: the Dade County spouse assault experiment (The Metro-Dade Spouse assault experiment)

A randomised controlled trial in Dade County, Florida involving 907 cases of probable cause misdemeanour domestic violence offences where the adult victim and offenders were still at the scene. In the first 13 months of the trial couples were eligible only if they were married or had been married. Outcome data is measured by whether a subsequent assault had occurred within 6 months of the first presenting incident. Authors hypothesise that informal sanctions (such as approval or disapproval of neighbours, family etc) mediate the effect of formal sanctions (such as arrest)]. The study found overall formal sanctions (arrest) had no long term deterrence effect of subsequent reassault. However, within this group arrest was significant deterrent effects for employed offenders compared to unemployed offenders and a significant escalation in reoffending in unemployed offenders. There were no significant effects for marital status. The combination of marital status and employment status into a composite "commitment" variable, found a significant deterrence effect for arrest.

Milwaukee, Wisconsin. Sherman et al. (1992b)

A policy of mandatory arrest had already been adopted by the city by the time this replication trial was tested. As "no arrest" was no longer an option, the trial in Milwaukee randomised 1,200 eligible cases of incidents of misdemeanour domestic violence incidents to arrest/ hold (long arrest- the standard condition), arrest/ release (short arrest- experimental condition) and a warning. Repeat incidents of domestic violence against any victim or against the same victim were measured by reports to the city's battered women's shelter hotline, official reports of arrest and victim's reports.