

BATTERER INTERVENTION SYSTEMS IN CALIFORNIA AN EVALUATION



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Batterer Intervention Systems in California: Executive Summary

Domestic violence represents both a serious criminal justice and public health problem. Every year in California over 100,000 arrests are made for misdemeanor and felony domestic violence charges while countless additional cases of intimate-partner violence go unreported. The social, economic, and personal costs of domestic violence make it a critical area for evaluating the effectiveness of the justice system response to this crime.

Since 1994, California law has required defendants who are convicted and granted probation in domestic violence cases to complete a certified batterer intervention program (BIP). In addition, recognizing the severity of the problem of intimate-partner violence and the unique challenges these cases present, many superior courts in California have adopted specialized procedures for handling domestic violence cases such as using dedicated calendars and holding periodic review hearings with offenders.

This study seeks to take advantage of the fact that each jurisdiction in California manages its domestic violence caseload somewhat differently. We begin by documenting the different ways that courts, departments of probation, and BIPs intervene with domestic violence offenders in a sample of five jurisdictions—Los Angeles, Riverside, San Joaquin, Santa Clara and Solano. We then compare the efficacy of the justice system response across jurisdictions, looking primarily at differences in rates of program completion and re-offense by offenders.

Drawing on a sample of over a thousand men enrolled in treatment programs across the five jurisdictions, this study is the largest of its kind ever conducted.¹ It lays the foundation for improving the justice system response to domestic violence and for future research to untangle the complex relationships among the individual characteristics of men who commit domestic violence, the BIPs that are charged with treating these men, and the efforts of courts and departments of probation to hold offenders accountable and ensure victim safety.

Findings

- The men who find their way into the justice system and ultimately enroll in BIPs appear to be non-representative of the larger social problem of domestic violence. The sample of men convicted of domestic violence offenses drawn for this study generally had low levels of educational attainment, were poor, majority Hispanic, and had lengthy criminal records;
- Slightly more than one third of the men convicted of domestic violence in our sample report that they still live with their victim; about one third of the men reported that they live with children;

- BIPs appear to incorporate multiple approaches to intervention with domestic violence offenders into their programs, integrating components of cognitive behavioral therapy, the Duluth model and other methods that they determine are appropriate and effective;
- The educational topics that BIPs identified as important to helping offenders end their abuse appear to be consistent with the legislative requirements for these programs;
- Offenders' rates of program completion varied across different BIPs. The reason for this, however, appears to be in part that the characteristics of men who are enrolled in different BIPs varies systematically across programs. The statistical significance of the differences in program completion across BIPs declines as additional, individual-level variables are added to the model;
- In contrast to the weak correlation between program completion and BIP, there is no statistical association at all between programs and an offender's likelihood of re-offense;
- For offenders who successfully completed the 52-week BIP, attitudes and beliefs showed small, positive, changes along a number of dimensions including taking greater personal responsibility, understanding the effect of abuse on others, and anger management;
- The strongest predictors of whether or not men were re-arrested following intake in a BIP were individual characteristics of the offenders, not the characteristics of jurisdictions or BIPs in which offenders were enrolled.² Men who were more educated, older, had shorter criminal histories, and did not display clear signs of drug or alcohol dependence had a lower likelihood of re-arrest;
- Whether probation or the court is primarily responsible for oversight of the offenders made no difference in the likelihood of re-arrest. This finding is similar to the conclusion of a recent study in which judicial supervision of domestic violence offenders—with comparisons between supervision of different intensity and compared with no supervision at all—was found not to make any significant difference on recidivism 12 months after sentencing;²
- Even after controlling for individual characteristics, two jurisdictions showed statistically significant differences in outcomes for offenders. Using Los Angeles as the base for comparison, offenders in Solano County had a likelihood of re-arrest at 12 months after intake that is one-third the likelihood of offenders in Los Angeles County, while offenders in Santa Clara County were 1.6 times as likely to be arrested as offenders in Los Angeles.

Implications for Policy

- Because of the salience of individual characteristics in predicting program completion and re-offense, enhanced risk and needs assessment at intake may improve offender treatment.

Penal Code §1203.097(b)(1) lays out detailed offender assessment requirements but limits these to offenders who are on formal probation. The collection of information on basic risk and needs factors of offenders who are informally as well as those that are formally supervised by probation would allow BIPs to tailor their treatment more narrowly.

- Drug/alcohol treatment may be essential to help offenders end their abuse.

Indicators of risk for drug and alcohol abuse are strong predictors of non-completion of batterer intervention programs and senior program staff in the BIPs generally agreed that addressing the topic of alcohol and drug abuse is important to helping offenders end their domestic violence. Because many BIPs have limited resources and little leverage over offenders enrolled in their programs, it may be useful for departments of probation and the courts to consider how best to support BIPs in requiring batterers at risk for substance abuse to attend some reasonable form of drug/alcohol treatment in conjunction with their enrollment in the BIP.

- The current BIP fee structure may hinder differentiated case management.

Enhanced risk and needs assessment combined with heightened attention to drug/alcohol abuse suggest that the justice system may need to engage in more differentiated case management with domestic violence offenders. One more piece of the puzzle of differentiated case management has to do with fees.

The current method of assessing and paying fees, all managed at the BIP level, may pose a barrier to a differentiated treatment model because Pen. Code §1203.097 mandates probation departments to evenly allocate referrals of indigent clients among approved programs. Thus, the effort to assign the right socioeconomic balance to different programs may undermine efforts to assign men to programs on the basis of the characteristics that put them most at risk for re-offense.

Moreover, it is not clear that enough higher-income men are available in the system to cross-subsidize the costs of the lower-income men in programs. Creating a more differentiated treatment model might require an exploration of alternative fee distribution and payment plans. This might grant BIPs the financial freedom to accept enrollments on the basis of service need rather than have to consider a client's ability to pay.

Implications for Research

- The effort to understand the impact of the justice system as a whole is hampered by variation *within* jurisdictions.

Differences in court practice from location to location within jurisdictions, as well as large variability in outcomes across BIPs within jurisdictions undercut efforts to evaluate the justice system response. Instead, in some cases we have findings related to different systems within a single jurisdiction that cannot be completely disentangled.

Further integration of the qualitative data will assist with the interpretation of the findings. Once the qualitative differences within jurisdictions are better understood, quantitative analysis that excludes outlying court locations where these introduce too much variability might be a fruitful path for recapturing the system perspective that motivated this study. Given the clustering of large numbers of offenders in specific courts and in some specific BIPs, this may be a near- to medium-term follow-up study with this data set.

- Clearer specification of system intervention measures is needed.

System intervention measures such as “probation contact,” “court review,” or even “attendance” at a BIP are all inherently limited by the variability in how these interventions occur across locations. Consistent with the other observations here, more qualitative information on what these variables really are in practice—whether probation contact is a face-to-face interview at the department of probation as opposed to a check-in by telephone or whether the review at the trial court is in open court in front of a judge or handled by a courtroom clerk—will assist in distinguishing among different systems.

- More information on BIPs is needed to understand and identify promising practices.

The challenge of interpreting outcomes given the variability across jurisdictions is compounded by variability across BIPs. Although this study captured measures of BIP priorities for teaching and training related to different elements of the intervention, the findings did not show sufficient variability to introduce the data into our quantitative models and to begin teasing out the effects that these programs produce on offender outcomes.

In the future, this information will need to be combined with independent measures if we are to clearly understand the approach intervention programs are taking in their work with clients. Further, we need to learn more about BIPs as practitioner groups and/or organizations in terms of their staffing levels and role differentiation, the training and professional experience levels of program staff, the supplementary services BIPs are able to provide clients directly or indirectly, and the resources these organizations have at their disposal to sustain their work with batterers. Such information is essential to our ability to understand BIPs in their various organizational forms, as well as to identify promising program approaches and practices.

Layout of the Report

This report is organized to isolate and describe the variation that is found at different levels of analysis in the five study jurisdictions. After introducing the study in Chapter 1, Chapters 2 through 4 move from the highest level of analysis – the jurisdictional differences across counties – to successively lower levels of analysis – the BIPs, and then the individuals within the programs. In Chapter 5, the variables that are described in the preceding chapters are brought together for the final evaluation of outcomes.

- Chapter 1 outlines the research design and methodology employed. This chapter places the study in the context of previous research on this topic, lays out the logic model for the study, defines the study population, and discusses the various types and sources of data collected;
- Chapter 2 provides an overview of the five jurisdictions in the study including both qualitative description of the coordination of domestic violence cases among justice system partners and quantitative measures of court and probation oversight of offenders;
- Chapter 3 looks more closely at the actual content of BIP curriculum and teaching strategies in the study jurisdictions. This chapter describes the findings of a survey of 45 BIPs in the study jurisdictions on the educational topics and teaching methods employed by BIPs;
- Chapter 4 describes the offenders enrolled in the study, including detailed information on age, race/ethnicity, family living arrangements, educational attainment, income levels, criminal history, and risk of drug/alcohol dependence;
- Chapter 5 brings together all of the variables described in the preceding chapters to evaluate the impact of the jurisdiction on two primary outcome measures: program completion and re-arrest. This chapter also evaluates changes in attitudes and beliefs among a smaller sub-sample of men who completed the BIP during the study period;
- Chapter 6 summarizes the study findings and looks at the implications for both policy and research.

Endnotes Executive Summary

1. This study looks exclusively at men who committed domestic violence offenses against female partners in an effort to understand the justice system response to the largest proportion of the domestic violence caseload and to minimize the variability within the sample.
2. All findings discussed in this Executive Summary are statistically significant at a level of .01 or .05 unless otherwise noted.
3. Melissa Labriola, Michael Rempel, and Robert C. Davis, *Testing the Effectiveness of Batterer Programs and Judicial Monitoring*, Center for Court Innovation (November 2005).

Chapter 1: California's Batterer Intervention Systems

Introduction

Every year in California over 100,000 arrests are made for misdemeanor and felony domestic violence charges.¹ Since 1994, California law has required defendants who are convicted and granted probation in these cases to complete a certified batterer intervention program (BIP).² In addition, recognizing the severity of the problem of intimate-partner violence and the unique challenges these cases present, many superior courts in California have adopted specialized procedures for handling domestic violence cases such as using dedicated calendars and holding periodic review hearings with probationers.

Adopting specialized procedures for handling domestic violence cases generally requires that courts coordinate their activities more closely with other justice system partners. Law enforcement, district attorneys, public defenders, the courts, probation departments, BIPs, victim-assistance programs, and other social service providers compose a *batterer-intervention system*. Working together, they form the system that confronts batterers with a variety of potential sanctions—ranging from incarceration to intensive monitoring by probation and the courts—as well as a requirement for rehabilitation through mandatory counseling and educational programs designed to change the attitudes and behavior of batterers.

Despite the clear interdependence of different justice system partners in the monitoring of domestic violence offenders, research on the efficacy of the justice system response to domestic violence has historically focused on individual components of the system. As a result, while arrest policy, domestic violence court monitoring, and BIP treatment modality have all been studied to determine the impact of these interventions, it remains unclear which elements of the system—sanctions, judicial review, frequency of review, intervention program modality, or some combination of these and other factors—ultimately reduce the likelihood of further violence by the batterer.

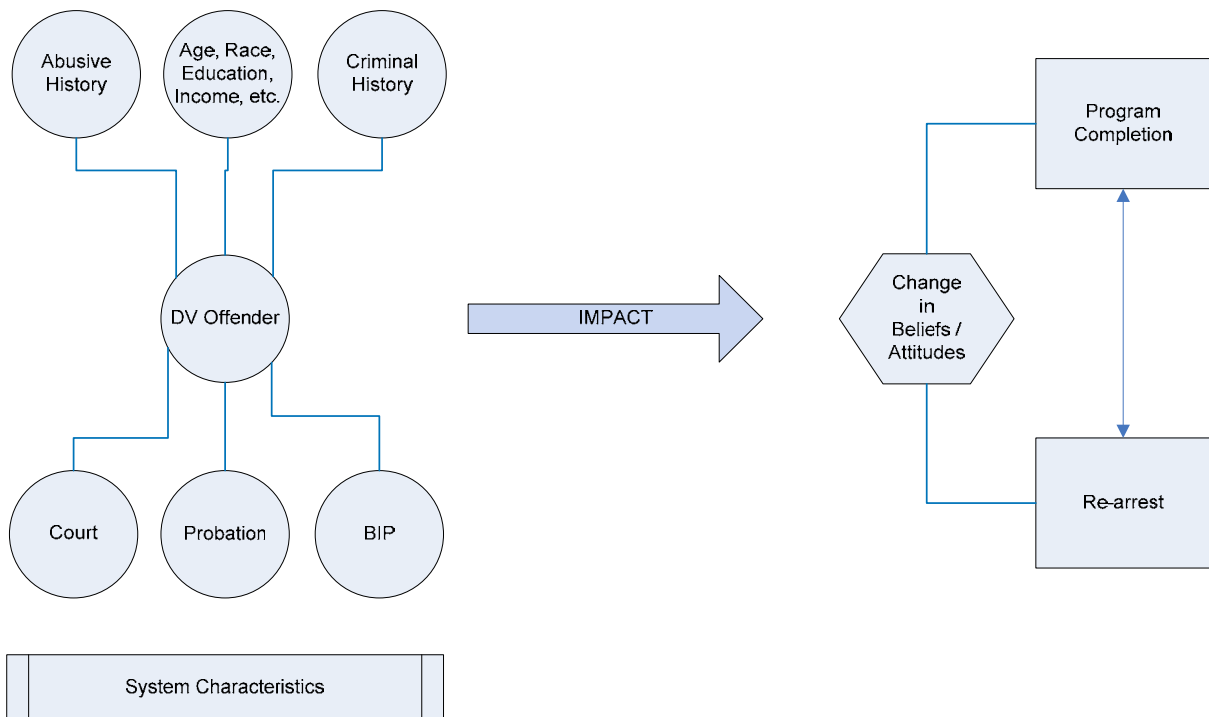
This study takes a systems perspective in evaluating the oversight of domestic violence offenders in five counties in California. The goal is not to study the effectiveness of these different jurisdictions per se, but rather to specify the system components and collaborative relationships among justice system partners that are most likely to improve compliance with court-ordered treatment programs and reduce re-offense in domestic violence cases. This study looks to document the differences that exist across jurisdictions and to understand the combined effect on domestic violence offenders of court, probation, and BIP oversight in different jurisdictions.

California's large population makes the state's justice system particularly well-suited for this type of evaluation. The large number of participants attending batterer intervention programs in the state made it possible to study a sample that provides greater confidence in the significance of the findings than in previous studies. Recent studies by Davis et al. and Feder and Forde³ used total sample sizes of 376 and 404 respectively. In a four-site, cross-state evaluation conducted by Gondolf, the total sample size is 840.⁴ This report draws on a sample of over a thousand men enrolled in treatment programs in five jurisdictions in the state.

In addition, the diversity of both case processing and BIP treatment models within a common legal framework makes it possible to hold a number of important factors constant while studying the effects of a range of other variables in the operation of the batterer intervention system. Regularly scheduled review by the court and the frequency of that review, frequency of oversight by probation, BIP treatment modality, and coordination among justice system partners can all be evaluated for their effect on offender compliance with the terms of probation and likelihood of reoffense. Rather than use random assignment—which has proved problematic in previous studies of batterer intervention programs—this study uses a quasi-experimental design, taking advantage of existing variation in the monitoring of batterers in California.⁵

The methodology and operationalization of measures is discussed in more detail below, but in brief the study isolates specific components of the batterer intervention system to assess how differences in the system interventions affect outcomes for men who are in the system.⁶ Figure 1-A presents the logic model of the study and refers to these components of the batterer intervention system as “system characteristics”; it shows the logical relationship between these system characteristics, the characteristics of batterers, and the outcomes that the justice system seeks.

Figure 1-A. Logic Model of Study Including Principal Variables



Literature Review

In their review of the literature on batterer intervention, Davis et al. organize this research into three categories. Early research is characterized by studies that were largely qualitative and

descriptive seeking a better understanding of batterers, victims, and how the justice system and intervention programs work. Typically these studies lacked comparison groups against which to evaluate the outcomes.⁷ More recent work in the field focuses on comparative outcome evaluation and can be classified into those that are based on experimental design and those that are based on quasi-experimental design.⁸

Regardless of design and methodology, research into the effectiveness of court-ordered treatment for batterers and periodic review of batterers has produced mixed results on whether or not these programs reduce the likelihood of further violence from an abusive partner.⁹ One of the most exhaustive studies to date evaluated four sites in four different states and concluded that “the success of the programs appears to be related to the intervention system as a whole, and the programs may be inextricably embedded in the larger system.”¹⁰

Perhaps the most important reason for the uncertainty regarding program effectiveness is the existence of vast differences in the design and implementation of batterer intervention systems across the country. Comparative studies that can hold very little constant across multi-site evaluations face an enormous challenge in disentangling the impact that different components of the system contribute to program effectiveness. Furthermore, differences in system components are usually operationalized and measured with insufficient detail. Comparison groups are often dichotomized on the basis of the presence or absence of certain components, making the program a black box.

A growing body of literature on implementation analysis points to the importance of looking into the black box. By identifying and measuring system components more carefully, it is possible to link process evaluation with outcome analysis.¹¹ This study takes advantage of existing variation in system components at the level of the courts, probation, and batterer intervention programs. Because these components operate within a common statutory framework, a number of important system-level variables are held constant.

Research Design and Methods

As noted above, this study is designed as a quasi-experimental evaluation of batterer intervention *systems*. Although the statutory framework governing the handling of domestic violence cases in California applies statewide, important differences across counties make it possible to identify and measure different case-processing practices within county jurisdictions—the system—and to evaluate the impact of these practices on outcomes for domestic violence offenders.

This section describes the operationalization of the research design, the methods used to evaluate different components of the system, data collection instruments, and the data set on which we conduct analysis in subsequent chapters. We use both qualitative and quantitative methods to describe the various components of the justice systems in the study while the outcome data is entirely quantitative.

Changes to Original Study Methodology

Court and Probation Jurisdictions

The initial study design proposed to construct a sample in which half of the jurisdictions used dedicated domestic violence calendars and regularly scheduled review hearings, and the other half did not. Other considerations included finding courts that represented both Northern and Southern California and identifying jurisdictions large enough to provide substantial numbers of domestic violence offenders for the study over the course of three months of intake. Based on these criteria, the Superior Courts of Contra Costa, Los Angeles, Riverside, San Joaquin, Santa Clara, and Solano Counties were invited and agreed to participate in the research study.

However, before data collection started, Contra Costa County decided not to participate. Although the superior court and probation department had both agreed to provide the necessary data, some directors of the BIPs in the county were reluctant to take part. Many BIPs were participating in another research study at the time, and several felt it would be too difficult to manage the additional workload required to participate in this study.

The effect of losing Contra Costa County as a study jurisdiction at first appeared to be negligible. Enrollment projections provided by BIPs that had agreed to participate in the other five jurisdictions suggested that there would be more than enough subjects to compensate for the loss of Contra Costa, so a decision was made not to recruit another study county.

Program Fidelity

The original study proposal envisioned identifying the principal treatment model of BIPs in the study jurisdictions, developing quantitative measures of these treatment models, and assessing the fidelity of the programs' adherence to the models. Researchers and policymakers in health and education have long recognized the importance of measuring how faithfully intervention mechanisms are implemented at the program level in order to draw accurate conclusions about the impact of different models. Program fidelity has only recently been addressed in domestic violence research.¹²

In our evaluation of program models, however, it became clear that different intervention models as practiced in California are not distinct enough to allow for the clear categorization of programs, let alone for the measurement of program differences according to categories. Even those BIPs that self-identified as adhering to one model or another borrow heavily from various traditions in their curricula and teaching style in practice. This finding prompted the research team to adopt a new approach in assessing the substantive content of BIPs.

Rather than evaluate the fidelity of programs to models that could not be fully disentangled from one another, we administered a survey of program content and teaching approach to BIPs in our study jurisdictions. This survey was developed on the basis of program descriptions and syllabi provided by BIPs, extensive interviews with program directors, and a thorough review of literature on domestic violence intervention models. Using the review of this information, a Program Content Survey (PCS) was developed to assess the substantive content of BIPs by collecting information from the programs regarding the following:

- The importance that programs attach to different educational topics;
- The frequency with which various educational topics are addressed in group;
- The importance that programs attach to certain teaching strategies and techniques; and
- The frequency with which different teaching strategies and techniques are employed in group.

The administration, results, and analysis of the PCS are discussed in greater detail in Chapter 3.

System Characteristics

Measures of system characteristics include descriptive, qualitative information on the court, probation, and BIPs as well as quantitative data related to the nature and type of system contact with domestic violence offenders. A qualitative overview of the operations of the court and probation in the five jurisdictions in this study are provided in Chapter 2. This information is based primarily on interviews with key informants from the courts and probation and with directors of BIPs in the study jurisdictions, but it also incorporates some elements of the quantitative data collected for the study.

Appendix A provides a partial list of interviews conducted for the qualitative overview. This list is partial because it cannot document all of the back and forth that was involved in collecting data and that often resulted in a conversation or comment that was subsequently incorporated into the descriptive overview. Phone conversations, in-person interviews, stakeholder review of preliminary findings, conversations at conferences with directors of BIPs and staff from departments of probation and the courts, and observation of group sessions all contributed to the “thick description” in Chapter 2.

Quantitative measures of justice system contact with domestic violence offenders are drawn from the case management systems of the courts, from the probation departments, and from the attendance records of the BIPs. In one case, the research team constructed a database to assist a county department of probation in collecting data. To collect the quantitative data, staff in the courts and departments of probation were given unique identifiers—usually the court case number, probation number, and/or Criminal Identification Information number—for individuals in the sample and asked to match their records against these identifiers.

Data drawn from the courts’ case management systems include two types of data for each of the offenders enrolled in the study: charging information and post-sentencing hearings scheduled and held. Data from the departments of probation include the number and type of contacts that offenders had with probation.

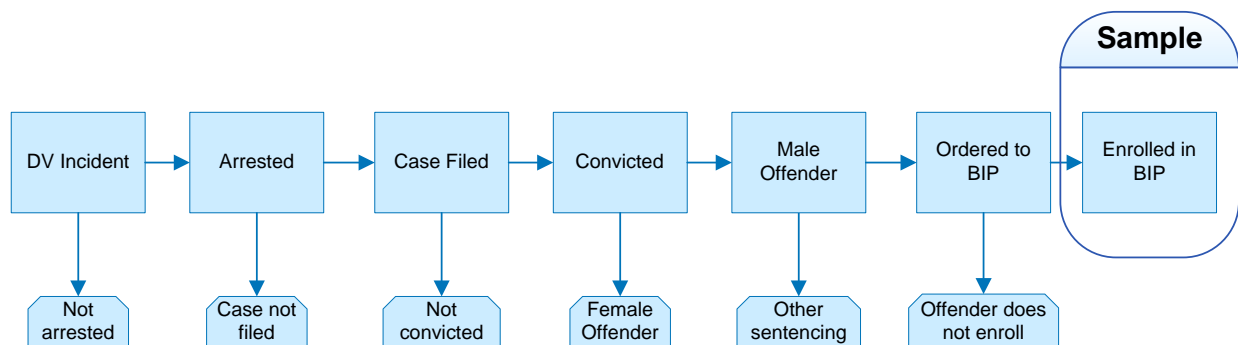
Study Population

One key decision that was made to minimize variability across the sample was to limit the study to male offenders. Although domestic violence is perpetrated by and against both males and females, including offenders of both genders would have introduced yet one more major dimension along which the analysis would need to be stratified. Since the clear majority of domestic violence offenders who come before the courts are men, we focused the study on male offenders to capture the largest segment of domestic violence case processing by the justice system.

The study sample was further narrowed to include only men who were convicted of a *criminal* domestic violence offense against a female partner and ordered to attend a BIP as a condition of probation. Once again, this decision was made to limit the variability of the sample. Men may arrive at a BIP from a number of different paths including as a condition of a family court matter or even voluntarily. To increase the likelihood of capturing the effects of the justice system intervention, we chose to limit the variability of the underlying characteristics of the sample population.

Figure 1-B provides a graphic representation of the narrowing of the sample from the incidence of domestic violence in the general population through the justice system and into this study. We provide this diagram as a means of clarifying the scope of the research. As we show in Chapter 4, the characteristics of the study sample are not representative of either the population at large nor of domestic violence offenders generally. The fact that our sample does not reflect the broader social problem of domestic violence is a result of this winnowing process from domestic violence incident to enrollment in a BIP. As a result, conclusions that are drawn on the basis of this research need to be clearly delimited as applying only to those cases that fall into the far right-hand box in Figure 1-B.

Figure 1-B. Narrowing of the Study Sample from Domestic Violence Incident to BIP Enrollment



Offender Characteristics: Participant Data Collected

Participating batterer intervention programs were asked to collect a variety of data on study enrollees. Many BIPs already collected very similar if not the same information on offenders as part of their intake process. To standardize these measures, however, we requested that BIPs collect the information on uniform data collection sheets, including:

- **Demographic Data**

The Supplemental Information Form (see Appendix B), administered at the intake session that each offender must complete before attending group sessions, was used to collect demographic data including education level; ethnicity; income; relationship to victim; family status; and whether the client had received counseling, had previously enrolled in a BIP, or had received treatment for drug/alcohol abuse or anger management. To help match the client data to court and probation records, the Supplemental Information Form also asked for the study enrollee's court case number and probation case number.

- **Revised Conflict Tactics Scale 2 and CAGE**

The Revised Conflict Tactics Scale 2 (CTS2) questionnaire (see Appendix C), filled out by the client at intake, seeks to assess behavior in the following areas: negotiation, psychological aggression, physical assault, injury, and sexual coercion. The questionnaire solicits responses to a series of statements about how the offender has dealt with disagreements with his partner over the last 12 months, with possible responses ranging from "never" to "more than 20 times." The questionnaire was modified slightly, with permission and exclusively for the purposes of this study, to include the CAGE assessment of alcohol abuse¹³ and two questions regarding the respondent's current employment status. The instrument was translated into Chinese, Korean, and Spanish.

- **Criminal History**

In addition to the data collected by the programs, arrest history data was obtained from the California State Department of Justice (DOJ) for each enrollee. The DOJ database compiles information on arrests made by any law enforcement agency statewide. For this study, the database was queried for each offender's adult arrest history, including the date(s) of arrest, offense(s) charged, status of the offense(s), and disposition.

These data serve primarily as control variables, although the DOJ criminal history data also provides outcome data for tracking re-arrests. As control variables, this data allows us to isolate the impact of the intervention system on batterer behavior, providing greater confidence that the outcomes observed are not the result of spurious correlation with individual characteristics such as criminal history, age, or alcohol/drug dependence.

Outcome Data Collected

The original study design proposed an outcome analysis based on two elements: program completion and re-arrest. To measure program completion, BIPs were asked to collect data on offender attendance in programs, including absences, termination, completion, and/or reenrollment, as applicable, and the date(s) of occurrence. For those who failed to complete the program, specific reasons for discharge (e.g., multiple absences, violation of probation, or re-arrest for any offenses) were recorded as well. For those programs without computerized attendance records, we developed an attendance data collection form to facilitate collection of this information (see Appendix D). Where we were able to provide assistance for data collection, members of the research team went on-site to BIP locations to assist in pulling case files and recording attendance data.

Attendance data may serve as both an outcome and a predictor variable depending on how it is used. For example, as an outcome variable, we might evaluate the individual characteristics that are correlated with longer periods of uninterrupted attendance; as a predictor variable, we might examine the effect on re-arrest of longer or shorter periods of uninterrupted attendance. Detailed attendance records, however, are less complete and their quality is less certain than data for the less-nuanced measures of program completion and termination.

Re-arrest data was collected from the same DOJ data download used to obtain an offender's criminal history. With cessation of further violence by the batterer as the ultimate goal of the batterer intervention system, re-arrest is defined simply as any record of arrest contained in the DOJ database including:

- Re-arrest for any offense (distinguishing between re-arrest for domestic violence and re-arrest for other crimes); and
- Violation of any probation conditions.

In addition to program completion and re-arrest data, one more outcome measure was added to the study: changes in the attitudes and beliefs of offenders. In the discussions regarding study methodology that took place as part of the BIP recruitment process, many BIP directors expressed concern that re-arrest and program completion data would not capture the more subtle effects of their programs. When it became clear that these programs may not have agreed to participate unless additional outcome measures were put into place, we then sought out a data collection instrument to capture more subtle changes in client behavior and attitudes as a result of participating in a BIP.

The instrument selected, called the BIP Process Survey (see Appendix E), is a questionnaire developed by Dr. Eric Mankowski of Portland State University in Oregon. It assesses psychosocial change and is composed of five subscales designed to assess a person's (1) sense of personal responsibility, (2) power and control beliefs, (3) understanding of the effects of abuse on others, (4) dependency on partner, and (5) anger control and management skills. Because this instrument seeks to measure change in the subject population, it needed to be administered twice during the time that clients were enrolled in the BIP—once approximately four weeks after intake and again just prior to program completion.

Though using the new questionnaire would require more work for BIPs, interestingly many directors—outside of those who had voiced concerns about the original outcome measures—expressed interest in administering this instrument to clients in their programs. As a result, the questionnaire was adopted on a voluntary basis for use in the study. BIPs in all jurisdictions sent data on this measure, although the size of the sample in Solano County is so small that the analysis of this measure excludes that jurisdiction.

Sampling Frame

The study design called for tracking offenders from the point at which they enrolled in the BIP through a 6-month period *after* completing the 52-week program or from termination, as applicable. To ensure adequate time for post-program monitoring, a 3-month sampling frame

(April to July 2006) was established, and BIPs were asked to collect and submit data on all eligible clients who enrolled during the sample period.

Data Collected

Constructing the sample

Data collection commenced with a major recruitment effort to encourage BIPs to participate in the study. We sent information packets to certified BIPs in the five counties and held meetings to communicate directly with programs about the study and to encourage participation. Of the 155 certified BIPs in the five study jurisdictions, 73 agreed to participate in the study.

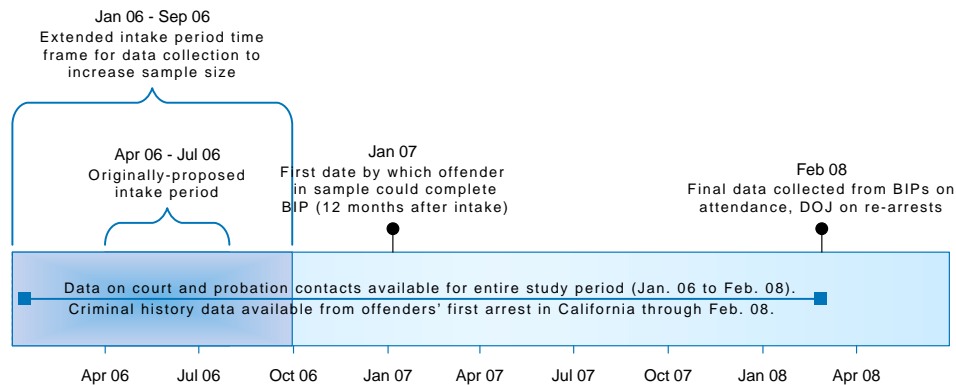
In addition to assessing the willingness of BIPs to participate in the project, we collected estimates of program enrollment to begin to estimate sample size. Based on these estimates, we expected the study to include more than 2,000 clients over three months of intake. As noted previously, even with the loss of Contra Costa County as a study jurisdiction and with only about half of the certified programs agreeing to participate in the study, the estimates provided by BIPs that had agreed to participate in the study actually exceeded the original DOJ estimates for the sample size of the study.

However, once data collection started, it became clear that the projections were overestimated. One cause might have been a misunderstanding of the client profile that was eligible to participate (i.e., parolees, referrals from Family Court, and offenders whose victims were not a current or former wife or girlfriend were among those excluded from the study). Another possibility is that the paperwork required to enroll and track the study participants became too burdensome to undertake for every eligible client, given that most BIPs operate with little to no administrative support staff. Newspaper articles in Los Angeles suggested that changes in law enforcement charging practices may have contributed to a decline in the number of domestic violence cases in that jurisdiction, but this does not explain the lower numbers that we saw across all of the study jurisdictions.¹⁴

Regardless of the cause, the lower-than-expected enrollment rates required us to shift tactics to increase the sample size. Project staff contacted and visited BIPs to encourage submission of client data and in some cases actually assisted with data collection from client records. Additionally, the intake period was extended two times from the initially designated period of April to July 2006. First, the sampling frame was extended to September 2006, with most BIPs agreeing to continue data collection for the additional two months. When that extension failed to produce enough enrollments to meet the projected study population of 2,000, the intake period was extended again for a group of BIPs that had already submitted some client data. Those BIPs were asked to submit basic descriptive data for clients enrolled as early as January 2006.

Figure 1-C shows the original time frame established for data collection; the extended time frame that was used to capture a large enough sample for the study; and a number of different relevant time frames for the analysis, including the minimum and maximum amount of time for which follow-up data was available on offenders based on enrollment.

Figure 1-C. Study Time Frame



By extending the time frames for program enrollment and through our enhanced recruitment efforts, we were able to compile an initial sample size of 1,457 clients enrolled in 53 BIPs. Table 1-A, below, shows the breakdown of the total sample by jurisdiction and also shows how complete the data is on different data measures. For example, although we received case numbers for 1,457 clients, supplemental information—demographic data, employment status, and relationship to the victim—was submitted for only 1,425 clients. While the fundamental information on clients needed to properly control for individual characteristics is relatively complete, the BIP Process Survey used to measure attitudes and beliefs was completed by only 685 clients following intake, and both pre- and post-program results are available for only 233 men in the sample.

All three data collection instruments for offenders—the CTS2, the Supplemental Information Form, and the BIP Process Survey—were administered on paper by the BIPs and returned by mail to the research team. Data was then entered from these forms into an Access database created for study.

Table 1-A. Sample Size on Variables for All Data Collected

	Los Angeles	Riverside	San Joaquin	Santa Clara	Solano	Total
Offenders Enrolled in BIPs	511	183	272	403	88	1,457
CTS2	432	169	223	340	73	1,237
Supplemental Information	499	179	269	390	88	1,425
BIP Attendance Records	471	161	272	396	86	1,386
BIP Program Completion/Termination ¹⁵	490	165	272	403	88	1,418
All of the Above	410	151	223	340	73	1,197
Number of Certified BIPs	115	18	6	10	6	155
BIPs Sending Client Data	27	8	5	9	4	53
BIP Process Survey—Intake	232	91	143	207	12	685
BIP Process Survey—Completion	93	37	53	109	10	302
Both Pre- and Post-BIP Process Surveys	74	30	32	90	7	233
Matched with BIP Records						
Court Docket Records	459	168	266	390	81	1,364
Probation Supervision Records ¹⁶	19	57	271	384	28	759
DOJ Arrest History Records	434	156	254	387	72	1,303

A significant amount of time was devoted to tracking and logging attendance data. Obtaining this information was relatively easy from those programs with computerized attendance records but much more time-consuming for programs that track attendance manually. In some cases, project staff traveled to BIPs to record attendance information on study enrollees because programs could not spare the time or staff to do so.

Obtaining reliable termination and completion data for the study sample proved more challenging than anticipated. While we obtained information on the final status of 1,418 of the 1,457 enrollees in the study (see Table 1-B below), it is only for the 687 individuals who completed the study that we can consider those outcomes to be final. Those whose final status was listed as “terminated,” “active,” or “terminated and reenrolled” may have had a subsequent change in status. For example, an active or reenrolled individual could later be terminated or complete the program. A person whose status was recorded as “terminated” may have actually reenrolled in another BIP, with his status improperly recorded as “terminated” when it should have been “terminated and reenrolled.”

Table 1-B. Final Status of Enrollees as of February 2008

	Number	Percent
Completed	687	47%
Terminated	569	39%
Active	70	5%
Terminated and Re-enrolled	92	6%
No Data (BIP could not locate client data)	39	3%
Total	1,457	100%

In some jurisdictions the courts might have been able to fill in the missing information regarding termination and re-enrollment; however, even if recorded, the data is not kept in an easily accessible format. While scheduling and occurrence of post-sentencing hearings are recorded in a court's case management system, details such as the name of the BIP are usually recorded in a text field in the register of actions. Tracking details such as whether or not an offender who was terminated re-enrolled in a program that was not participating in the study was not possible given the large sample size of this study. The availability and format of the termination and completion data impacted the analyses that could be undertaken in this study; further details are included in Chapters 4 and 5.

Court and Probation Data

Project staff coordinated closely with Information Systems staff in the courts and probation departments to establish protocols for the matching, collection, and transfer of study data. A similar process was undertaken to secure arrest history data from the DOJ. Multiple rounds of testing were undertaken to make sure that the data could be matched from one source to another. Courts were requested to provide, for each offender enrolled in the study, the charges levied and the hearings held, specifically for the case that resulted in the referral to the BIP.

Charge data is based on a uniform DOJ code hierarchy, making this data relatively easy to work with across jurisdictions. In contrast, data on court hearings and probation contacts with offenders presented more of a challenge. There is no single statewide case management system for the California courts or for county departments of probation. As a result, each court and department of probation maintains its own unique database and corresponding coding system. This means that what is coded in one court as a "Proof of Enrollment" hearing may be called a "Probation Hearing Re: Enroll 52 Week Batterers Pgm" in another court. To further complicate matters, the text field to enter information on a hearing is usually a freeform field, meaning that the same "Probation Hearing Re: Enroll 52 Week Batterers Pgm" may also be referred to as a "Probation Hearing Re: Enroll 52Wks" or "Probation Hearing RE: Enroll 52WK BATTERER." Because each of these entries is worded slightly differently, they initially appear as three different types of hearings even though they seem to have the same purpose.

For purposes of analysis, the hearings data was consolidated into a common set of codes. Project staff collaborated with court staff familiar with criminal case data entry to determine how best to consolidate the numerous different codes into the following 10 hearing types, focusing just on post-sentencing hearings (See Table 1-C). In the analysis, this data was further collapsed to examine the frequency of contact with the court, distinguishing primarily between those contacts that are the result of an offender's violation of the terms of probation—such as arraignment on probation violation/warrant and bench warrant hearing—and those hearings that are held as part of a court's ongoing monitoring of offenders—such as progress report, proof of enrollment in program, and review hearing.

Table 1-C. Consolidated Codes Used for Hearings Data Analysis

Code	Description
AVP	Arraignment on Probation Violation/Warrant
BWH	Bench Warrant Hearing
PCK	Probation Check/Hearing
PGR	Progress Report
POC	Proof of Completion
POE	Proof of Enrollment in Program
PVH	Probation Violation Hearing
RIN	Reinstate Domestic Violence Program
RWH	Review Hearing
SVP	Sentencing on Probation Violation

Summary

In this chapter we provide an overview of the research design and methods used for this study. We describe the system and offender characteristics in terms of the data that was collected from courts, probation departments, and batterer intervention programs. We also describe how the offender data sample and sampling frame were constructed, and explain some of the obstacles encountered in assembling this data. In the next chapter we delve into the system characteristics more fully with a qualitative description of the batterer intervention systems in the five study counties.

Endnotes Chapter 1

1. California State Department of Justice, Criminal Justice Statistics Center, Monthly Arrest and Citation Register (MACR) (2003).
2. Pen. Code §1203.097 specifies that for a person “granted probation for a crime in which the victim is a person defined in Section 6211 of the Family Code, the terms of probation shall include” among other requirements “successful completion of a batterer’s program.” Fam. Code §6211 defines “Domestic Violence” as “abuse perpetrated against any of the following persons: (a) a spouse or former spouse. (b) a cohabitant or former cohabitant, as defined in Section 6209. (c) a person with whom the respondent is having or has had a dating or engagement relationship. (d) a person with whom the respondent has had a child, where the presumption applies that the male parent is the father of the child of the female parent under the Uniform Parentage Act (Part 3 commencing with Section 7600) of Division 12). (e) a child of a party or a child who is the subject of an action under the Uniform Parentage Act, where the presumption applies that the male parent is the father of the child to be protected. (f) any other person related by consanguinity or affinity within the second degree.”
3. R. C. Davis, B. G. Taylor, and C. C. Maxwell, *Does Batterer Treatment Reduce Violence? A Randomized Experiment in Brooklyn*, final report to the National Institute of Justice, Washington, DC (2000); L. Feder and D. R. Forde, *A Test of the Efficacy of Court-Mandated Counseling for Domestic Violence Offenders: The Broward Experiment*, final report to the National Institute of Justice, Washington, DC (2000).
4. E. W. Gondolf, *Batterer Intervention Systems: Issues, Outcomes, and Recommendations* (Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, 2002).
5. For a discussion of the methodological limitations of experimental evaluations see E. W. Gondolf, “Limitations of Experimental Evaluation of Batterer Programs” (2001) 2(1) *Trauma, Violence and Abuse*.
6. Although a fraction of the domestic violence cases that come through the system involve female batterers, the number of these cases is too small and the variation that they would introduce into an evaluation such as this too great to include them as part of the sample. The explicit focus of this study is men who are convicted of battering women.
7. E. W. Gondolf, *id.* note 3. Examples of research in this category include A. DeMaris and J. K. Jackson, “Batterers Reports of Recidivism After Counseling” (1987) 68 *Social Casework* 458–465; J. L. Edleson and R. J. Grusznski, “Treating Men Who Batter: Four Years of Outcome Data from Domestic Abuse Project” (1988) 12 *Journal of Social Service Research* 3–22.
8. Major studies based on experimental design include F.W. Dunford, “The San Diego Navy Experiment: An Assessment of Interventions for Men Who Assault Their Wives” (2000) 68 *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology* 468–476; two studies funded by NIJ, one in New York City and the other in Broward County, FL, *id.* note 3; and a current NIJ-funded study in New York, M. Rempel, “Testing the Impacts of Court Monitoring and Batterers’ Intervention Programs,” unpublished progress report (2005). Numerous quasi-experimental studies have been conducted including E. W. Gondolf, *id.* note 4; D. G. Dutton, “The Outcome of Court-Mandated Treatment for Wife Assault: A Quasi-experimental Evaluation” (1987) 1 *Violence and Victim* 163–175; R. Dobash. et al., “Reeducation Programs for Violent Men: An Evaluation” (1996) 46 *Research Findings* 1–4.
9. Studies showing success in batterer intervention programs include R. M. Tolman and L. W. Bennet, “A Review of Qualitative Research on Men Who Batter” (1990) 5 *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 87–118; S. H. Lund, N. E. Larsen, and S. K. Schultz, “Exploratory Evaluation of the Domestic Abuse Project,” in L. Ohlin and M. Tonry, eds., *Family Violence* (University of Chicago Press, 1989). A positive evaluation of domestic violence courts can be found in A. R. Gover, J. M. MacDonald, and G. P. Alpert, “Combating Domestic Violence: Findings from an Evaluation of a Local Domestic Violence Court” (2003) *Criminology and Public Policy*. Studies that raise questions about the effectiveness of batterer intervention programs include R. C. Davis, B. G. Taylor, and C. C. Maxwell; Feder and Forde, *id.* note 3.
10. *Id.* note 8.
11. A. Browne and A. Wildavsky, “Should Evaluation Become Implementation,” in A. J. Love, ed., *Developing Effective Internal Evaluation: New Directions for Program Evaluation* 1983 (20) 101–103; A. J. Love, “Beyond the Black Box: Practical Methods for Evaluating Implementation,” in J. S. Wholey, H. P. Haltry, and K. E. Newcomer, eds., *The Handbook of Practical Program Evaluation*, 2nd ed. (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 2004).
12. E. Bowen and E. Gilchrist, “Comprehensive Evaluation: A Holistic Approach to Evaluating Domestic Violence Offender Programmes,” *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology* (2004) 48(2).

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13. CAGE is an acronym formed by taking the first letter of key words for each of the four questions of the assessment (felt like you should cut down on drinking or drug use; felt annoyed by others criticizing your drinking or drug use; felt guilty about drinking or drug use; ever had an eye opener to steady nerves or get rid of a hangover).
 14. *L.A. Daily News*, “‘Fudged’ Crime Stats Hide Domestic Abuse” (May 9, 2006).
 15. We were not able to obtain final outcome data for 39 clients.
 16. The low number of probation supervision records collected in some jurisdictions reflects the practice in these counties of assigning low-level criminal offenders to court-supervised or “informal” probation rather than formally supervising these probationers.

Chapter 2: Five Batterer Intervention Systems in California

Introduction

California state law appears to create a uniform statewide system for the processing of misdemeanor and felony domestic violence convictions. Penal Code §1203.097 defines the terms of probation with which men convicted of domestic violence offenses are required to comply.¹ This section of the penal code includes specific provisions related to length of batterer intervention programs, size of groups, contents of BIP curricula, training of program staff, coordination with other justice system partners, and requirements for certification by county departments of probation. Indeed, the details contained in statute present such a strong appearance of standardization that some judicial officers have voiced their concerns about the application of a “one-size fits all” approach to the processing of domestic violence cases.

The apparent uniformity created by Pen. Code §1203.097, however, belies the operational reality of domestic violence case processing. Departments of probation, prosecuting attorneys, and public defenders are all part of local government—mostly county but sometimes city—and often operate quite differently from one jurisdiction to another. Until 1998, California’s courts were also administratively integrated into county government, and the legacy of unique local practices remains. As a result, the justice system response to domestic violence can vary considerably across and sometimes even within a single superior court jurisdiction.

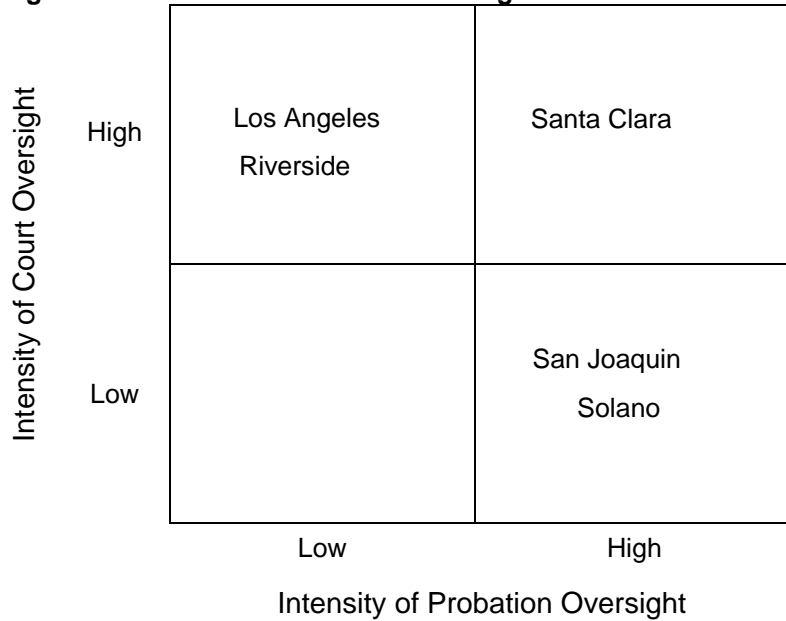
Differences in the ways that probation, courts, and law enforcement handle domestic violence cases from one county to the next may be further accentuated by differences in the BIPs themselves. Once again, although the penal code outlines relatively standard program content and format across the state, local variation is the rule, not the exception. Within the parameters established by Pen. Code §1203.097, there is considerable latitude for variability in BIP operations in terms of intervention strategies, background and training of facilitators, and operational capabilities for working with domestic violence offenders.

Understanding the effects of batterer intervention systems on men who are convicted of domestic violence crimes, therefore, requires that we understand differences across and within study jurisdictions that might influence the outcomes for men attending BIPs. In the following pages, we provide a qualitative overview of case-processing practices in the five counties from which our sample is drawn.

Domestic Violence Case Processing in Five California Counties

As noted in Chapter 1, we selected jurisdictions for this study with an eye toward capturing variation in court and probation oversight of domestic violence offenders and to provide a sufficiently large sample size to conduct statistical analysis of these variations. Figure 2-A, below, provides an overview of how the five systems in this study rank along two dimensions identified at the outset as critical to the justice system response to domestic violence: intensity of court oversight and intensity of probation oversight.

Figure 2-A. Court and Probation Oversight of Offenders



The different systems in the study are placed within these four quadrants on the basis of data drawn from court and probation records. The location of the different jurisdictions on the horizontal axis, representing intensity of probation oversight, is based on the frequency of offender contact with probation shown in the shaded cells of Table 2-A. While probation departments matched a little more than 50 percent of the total number of offenders in our sample, the range across different jurisdictions shows considerable variation, from a low of about 4 percent in Los Angeles to more than 99 percent of records matched in San Joaquin.

Table 2-A: Probation Records and Offender Contact with Probation

	Los Angeles	Riverside	San Joaquin	Santa Clara	Solano	Total
Total Study Sample Size	511	183	272	403	88	1,457
Probation Supervision Records Matched (N)	19	57	271	384	28	759
Probation Supervision Records Matched (%)	3.7%	31.1%	99.6%	95.3%	31.8%	52.1%
Average Number of Probation Contacts Per Month During First 3 Months After Intake (applied only to those offenders on formal probation)	1.03	1.24	0.90	0.67	2.55	0.88
Average Number of Probation Contacts Per Month During First 3 Months After Intake (applied to entire sample)	0.04	0.39	0.89	0.64	0.84	0.46

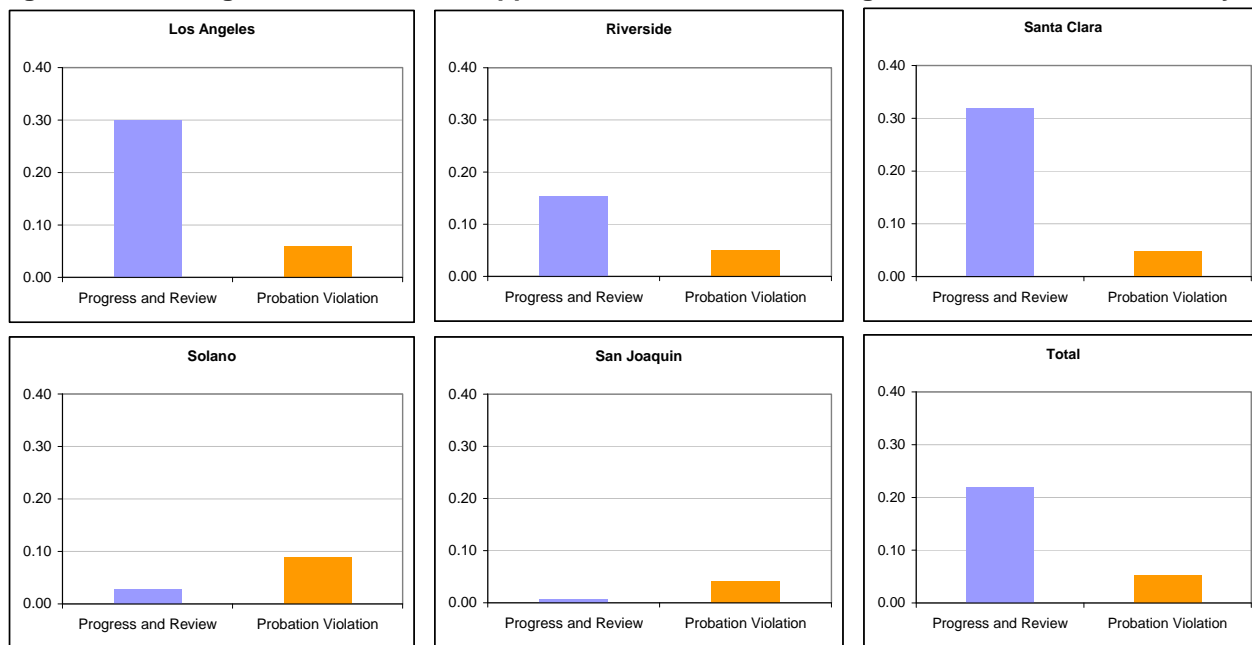
Matching of records provides one measure of oversight in that it corresponds roughly to the number of offenders who are on formal supervision by the department. Two other measures that can be used to estimate the intensity of probation oversight are (1) the average number of contacts with offenders who are on formal probation and (2) the average number of contacts for the entire sample. The latter measure—average number of probation contacts applied to the

entire sample—is used for locating jurisdictions on the horizontal axis because it appears to be a better representation of the intensity of probation oversight for the *system* as a whole. However imperfectly, this measure captures information about all of the offenders in the sample, not just those on formal probation. Looking at probation contacts only for those offenders who are on formal probation would inflate the estimate of probation supervision for a jurisdiction with a very low number of offenders on formal probation. For example, for the 19 offenders who appear in the probation database in Los Angeles, the level of oversight is actually quite high.

Jurisdictions are located along the vertical axis, representing intensity of court oversight, based on the data shown below in Figure 2-B. This data shows court appearances by offenders in the sample, distinguishing between court appearances that result from an offender violating the conditions of probation and those court appearances that are part of the court’s ongoing oversight of the offender, shown here as progress and review hearings.

The bars in Figure 2-B represent the average number of court appearances per month during the first three months following intake. Once again, the variation along this dimension is clear. The offenders in the sample from Santa Clara and Los Angeles have an average of almost one-third of a hearing per month for progress and review alone, suggesting that on average every offender in these jurisdictions returns to court once during the first three months following intake.

Figure 2-B: Average Number of Court Appearances Per Month During First Three Months in Study



BIP Attendance Policy

Another type of offender oversight is the absence policy adopted in each jurisdiction. Although Pen. Code §1203.097(a)(6) states that any absence from the BIP without good cause or three absences with good cause require a court referral,² attendance policies in most if not all jurisdictions in the state appear to be more lenient than state law specifies. These policies came under criticism in a report to the Attorney General of California and in a Bureau of State Audits

(BSA) report discussed later in this chapter. According to the BSA report, the department of probation in San Joaquin County allowed as many as seven absences before terminating an offender from the BIP, while the departments of probation in Los Angeles, Riverside, and San Joaquin Counties all allowed makeup sessions for excused absences.

The BSA report had a clear and possibly measurable effect on the practices of the San Joaquin department of probation, which we discuss below. However, the focus of the BSA report on probation department policy may obscure underlying, intra-system variability because the frontline responsibility for monitoring and enforcing attendance policy resides with the BIPs. For example, while the BSA report points to a Los Angeles probation department policy of allowing three absences, this official policy is largely irrelevant to 96 percent of the men in our sample from that county because they are not formally supervised by probation.

The specifics of attendance policies reflect a commonality among jurisdictions—generally being more lenient than state law allows—and some differences that we do not fully understand. Important issues that we have not fully captured but that probably make a difference in the batterer intervention system’s impact include how decisions are made regarding termination, allowances for makeup classes, and the level of support that BIPs receive from the courts and probation in enforcing specific policies.

Table 2-B shows one measure of attendance policy differences across systems captured at the level of individual BIPs. Looking at the entire sample, on average men who completed the program or were still enrolled in the BIP at the end of the data collection period had 3.2 absences. Consistent with our interviews of key informants and with the BSA report, however, we can see variability across jurisdictions. San Joaquin’s more lenient absence policy is reflected in a higher-than-average number of absences than other jurisdictions, while Santa Clara’s stricter policy is reflected in a lower-than-average number of absences.

Table 2-B. Absences for Men Who Completed or Were Still Enrolled in BIP

	Los Angeles	Riverside	San Joaquin	Santa Clara	Solano	Total
Average Number of Absences	3.0	3.3	4.2	2.9	3.4	3.2
Number Completed or Still Enrolled	185	55	110	188	28	566

Besides the systemwide measures of oversight described above, each jurisdiction has unique features and policies for processing criminal domestic violence cases that may influence offender outcomes. The following sections consist of qualitative descriptions of each of the study jurisdictions to provide additional detail regarding case processing that cannot be captured through broader categorizations of court and probation oversight. While these descriptions cannot capture every element of the justice system that is relevant to domestic violence case processing, the intention is to highlight system policy in a number of key areas related to domestic violence. Specifically, these areas include court policy for monitoring offender compliance with the terms of probation; the department of probation’s policies for monitoring

offender compliance and for certification and approval of BIPs; and points of collaboration among the court, probation, and BIPs in the different jurisdictions.

Los Angeles County

Looking again at Figure 2-A, the principal differentiation among study jurisdictions that we capture quantitatively is the intensity of court and probation oversight. Los Angeles County shows a high level of court oversight and relatively little probation oversight, reflecting the fact that relatively few offenders are formally supervised.

The department of probation appears to function in a reasonably uniform manner across the entire county of Los Angeles; however, prosecuting attorneys may differ in their approach to domestic violence crimes from location to location in the county depending on the city boundaries within which cases are prosecuted. The court, while unified in its organizational structure as a single superior court since 2000, also still retains certain features of its former organizational structure under which it once operated. That earlier structure included 26 municipal court locations, 14 superior court locations, and 1 justice court.

Court

The 580 offenders from Los Angeles County in our sample were processed in more than 30 different court locations in the county. The largest single group of men, 156, were processed in the Long Beach courthouse. Another 57 were processed in the downtown court location, and more than 20 offenders were processed in each of another six locations, accounting for 168 men in the Los Angeles sample. Five or fewer men each were processed in 11 different locations in Los Angeles.

Because our sample is weighted heavily toward Long Beach and because the Long Beach courthouse is well known for its domestic violence case processing, our coverage of case-processing practices is most reflective of this court. Judges from Downey and El Monte were also consulted, and the description of Los Angeles County draws on these interviews and on interviews with other justice system partners as well.

In Long Beach, domestic violence cases are assigned to a vertical calendar, meaning that they are handled by a single judge from arraignment through post-disposition. Following sentencing, domestic violence offenders in Long Beach are referred to the Public Health Office in the courthouse, where they are provided a list of BIPs from which to select. The Public Health Office then records the BIP that is selected and follows up with the BIP three weeks after sentencing to confirm enrollment in the program.

The court in Long Beach and at least two other locations in Los Angeles County schedule review hearings for one month after sentencing to confirm enrollment. Key informants reported that, by the time of the enrollment confirmation hearing, offenders often fail to enroll for a variety of reasons such as inability to pay or loss of a job. After admonishing the offenders to enroll, the court will generally set another proof-of-enrollment hearing. Once the offenders have enrolled,

the Los Angeles courts we contacted then set regular three-month review hearings. In Long Beach, BIP progress reports are hand delivered by defendants to the judge in sealed envelopes at the review hearing.

Probation

The probation department in Los Angeles County reports that it tracks probationers' compliance only for *felony* domestic violence cases. The fact that the vast majority of the cases in this study are misdemeanor cases means that probation had effectively no contact with men in the study and did not monitor compliance with orders. Matching the records of men in the study with department of probation records confirms the extremely limited oversight role played by probation in Los Angeles, as shown in Table 2-A above. Of the 511 men enrolled in BIPs in the Los Angeles sample, the database from the department of probation supervision records matched with only 19 offenders.

Resources for the certification and monitoring of BIPs in Los Angeles are also scarce. The department of probation reports that it has two monitors to track approximately 130 programs in the county and to track compliance with continuing educational requirements for program facilitators. Our interviews with the department of probation indicated that this allows the department to visit each BIP about twice a year to review files and sit in on group sessions. It does not allow for monitoring every facilitator in the programs that employ multiple facilitators.

Collaboration Among justice system partners

The level of coordination among justice system partners in Los Angeles is relatively low. There do not appear to be any formal, regularly scheduled meetings among justice system partners in Los Angeles County to coordinate domestic violence issues. Neither the West Covina nor Los Angeles Central courts—the two court locations other than Long Beach that contributed qualitative information about case-processing practices in the county—held regular meetings with justice system partners.

Although there do not appear to be regularly scheduled meetings of justice system partners in Long Beach either, at this location the district attorney and public defender are present at all hearings and enjoy a good working relationship with one another and the court. The department of probation, however, does not have the resources necessary to assign a probation officer to Long Beach or any of the other domestic violence courtrooms in Los Angeles County.

Riverside County

Riverside County appears in the same quadrant of Figure 2-A as Los Angeles. While the court appears to provide a relatively high level of oversight of domestic violence offenders, the department of probation has relatively little contact with offenders.

Court

Data from the Superior Court of Riverside County on the 183 men in the sample from this jurisdiction do not allow us to distinguish among the four different court locations where domestic violence cases are heard. The inability to distinguish among court locations may create challenges of interpretation because of differences in case-processing practices between downtown Riverside and the other locations. In downtown Riverside, domestic violence cases are assigned to a dedicated calendar and regularly scheduled review hearings are held for offenders at three-month intervals. The other locations in Riverside where domestic violence cases are heard do not hold regularly scheduled review hearings.

Because the average number of hearings for domestic violence offenders in Riverside, shown in Figure 2-B, combines the results from these different case-processing practices across locations, this average may not provide an accurate representation of the court's practice as a whole. Further analysis will need to distinguish between the offenders processed in the main location downtown and those in the outlying locations.

In terms of BIP referral and follow-up, Riverside has a unique system in place to ensure that men granted probation for domestic violence crimes show up at a BIP and continue to attend. A nonprofit entity, the Volunteer Center, operates in Riverside's mid-county and central locations and serves as an intermediary between the court, the offender, the BIP, and probation.³ Men convicted of a domestic violence crime in Riverside and granted probation must report to the Volunteer Center for intake and assignment to a BIP.

Key informants in Riverside suggested that while the review calendar in the main location was valuable, they also believed that the value had been diminished somewhat recently by the establishment of relatively short-term assignments of judicial officers to that calendar. Due to heavy workload in the court the judicial officer assigned to the domestic violence calendar in the downtown location rotated approximately every six months during the data collection period. Riverside informants believed that this limits the effectiveness of the review calendar by creating discontinuity in the oversight of offenders.

Another nuance of the court review process in Riverside is that these hearings are not necessarily in-court appearances before the judge. In some cases the progress review will occur with the clerk receiving and approving the paperwork or with a probation officer reviewing the report in the hall. As one informant from Riverside commented, this mode of reviewing progress reports diminishes the "audience impact" of everyone in court seeing success.

Probation

As noted above, in Riverside the Volunteer Center manages the intake and assessment of domestic violence offenders. In terms of offender monitoring, most probationers are misdemeanants sentenced to informal, court-supervised probation. The probation department assigns one probation officer to the domestic violence court to review progress reports for those who are informally supervised. During the study period, Riverside County had received a Violence Against Women Act grant that allowed them to fund two additional probation officer positions to supervise domestic violence offenders under formal probation. In the department's desert division, probation also assigns a clerical position to monitor offenders.

Riverside's department of probation is active in monitoring BIPs and serves a coordinating function among justice system partners. The county appears to be unique among the jurisdictions in this study by requiring BIP facilitators to be either registered interns or licensed therapists with the Board of Behavioral Sciences. According to an informant from the department of probation, within California only San Diego and Riverside Counties require this level of training for BIP facilitators.

Riverside also appears to be unique in publishing detailed standards for BIPs. A booklet of over 100 pages, the "Standards for the Intervention and Treatment of Court Ordered Domestic Violence Offenders" is published by the department of probation annually and provides information on applying to become a certified BIP; references to appropriate penal code sections; clarification of the domestic violence intervention standards including intake procedures, length of treatment, content of programs, guidelines related to communication with the courts and referring agencies, and more.⁴ This publication reflects a clear vision within the department of probation about what the county is seeking in program curriculum and content delivery as well as an effort to ensure adherence to that vision.

Collaboration among justice system partners

Riverside has a moderate level of coordination among justice system partners, with the department of probation generally orchestrating this collaboration. The probation department holds twice annual meetings of justice system partners. These meetings are broadly attended by BIPs, judges who sit on domestic violence assignments, and representatives from the offices of the district attorney and public defender, as well as representatives from parole and the Volunteer Center.

The meetings are for reviewing changes to the law, coordinating case management among justice system partners, and serving as a forum for the department of probation to reiterate its standards of practice to directors of BIPs. At a meeting attended by the members of the research team, justice system partners worked to resolve problems related to probationers failing to enroll in a BIP, clarified interpretations of the penal code, and discussed the problem of unpaid fees.

In addition to these biannual meetings, since 1997 the Riverside department of probation has organized an annual Inland Empire Domestic Violence Conference. The conference is attended by justice agencies and BIPs from Riverside and other jurisdictions. The meeting generally

involves presentations on recent research or changes in domestic violence law and also sponsors BIP training.

San Joaquin County

San Joaquin County presents a sharp contrast from Los Angeles and Riverside Counties. In San Joaquin County, monitoring of offenders in criminal domestic violence cases is largely a function of the probation department while there is relatively little oversight of offenders from the court.

Court

The superior court hears domestic violence in four locations—Stockton, Tracy, Manteca, and Lodi—and the court holds internal meetings on a monthly basis to coordinate the handling of domestic violence cases. These monthly meetings are held in addition to bimonthly meetings of the criminal bench.

Despite these meetings to coordinate the court's response to domestic violence, one informant from the court indicated to us that local court practices remain different across the different court locations in San Joaquin. For purposes of analysis these differences may be less important than differences in Riverside because about three-quarters of the sample from San Joaquin—263 of the 348 offenders—were processed at the downtown location, with the rest of the sample evenly distributed in Lodi, Manteca, and Tracy.

Probation

San Joaquin County was one of the jurisdictions selected for case file review by the BSA for its 2006 audit of domestic violence case processing. As a result of that audit's findings, the San Joaquin department of probation revised a number of its case-processing practices. Most of those changes were implemented in and around February 2007, which was during the data collection phase of the present project. As a result, offenders in the sample were exposed to a blend of past and current practices.

In the absence of a dedicated review calendar for domestic violence offenses in San Joaquin, BIP referral and follow-up are the responsibility of probation. Following sentencing, probationers have two to three weeks to come to probation for intake and placement. The department of probation normally needs about this long to get the probationer's data into its system and set up the case file. Probation then conducts an intake with the offender including a risk assessment.

As noted above, the department of probation in San Joaquin County implemented a number of changes in the management of its caseload as a result of the BSA report. Prior to the BSA report, released in November 2006, probation officers had some latitude in choosing a course of action for offenders who were out of compliance with the terms of probation, especially in the area of program absences. Since the release of the report, probation has eliminated some of that discretion, transferring responsibility to the courts for making decisions regarding violations of the terms of an offender's probation.

The probation department regularly monitors BIPs, but department officials indicated that San Joaquin has had the same BIPs since 1996 so there is more emphasis on ongoing program monitoring rather than certification of new programs. The department recently revised and formalized its monitoring practices and guidelines for maintaining certification.

Collaboration among justice system partners

In the downtown Stockton location, a representative from probation is in the court during the domestic violence calendar and provides information to the judge. Coordination between court and probation, however, varies by location within the county. Informants in San Joaquin County indicated that while coordination with the Stockton court worked well, coordination with outlying courts did not necessarily work as well.

The San Joaquin County probation department holds quarterly meetings with BIPs to discuss the “problem of the quarter.” Since November 2006, that has meant responding to the BSA report, but generally the issues involve standardization of policies. These meetings appear to be exclusively between the probation and BIPs without the involvement of other justice system partners.

Santa Clara County

The justice system response to domestic violence in Santa Clara County appears to be among the most intensive and coordinated of the jurisdictions in our sample. The county ranks high on the intensity of oversight of domestic violence offenders by both the court and department of probation. Additionally, this jurisdiction appears to have the most restrictive policy concerning absences and credits issued for BIP classes previously taken: offenders who are terminated from a BIP receive no credit for previous classes, regardless of the number of classes completed at the time of termination. Moreover, the actions taken by the court and probation are closely coordinated with one another through a number of different institutions within the county.

Court

Although the offenders in our sample were processed in four locations, about 82 percent of the sample—317 cases out of 388—were processed in the downtown San Jose location, where most criminal domestic violence cases in Santa Clara County are heard. The domestic violence court there was reorganized during the course of the study. Under the current arrangement, one judge oversees arraignments, settlements, and case assignment to two departments. One department hears preliminary hearings, court trials, and jury trials, while the other hears preliminary hearings, review hearings, sentencing hearings, and probation violation hearings.

Offenders are required to complete an orientation with the department of probation within 10 days of sentencing and are required to return to court within 30 days for a proof-of-enrollment hearing. (Previously the court had established proof-of-enrollment hearings at 90 days from referral because of difficulties getting copies of the police report to probation and BIPs.)

Following the proof-of-enrollment hearing in Santa Clara, review hearings are scheduled every 60 to 90 days until program completion. Although Pen. Code §1203.097 requires that BIPs submit progress reports on offenders every three months, in Santa Clara the court requires these every two months.

Probation

In addition to the court's supervision, the department of probation also maintains a high level of oversight of domestic violence offenders. All offenders initially start out under formal supervision, though there are varying levels of supervision depending on the individual's score on a risk assessment instrument administered at probation intake. Probation maintains several types of specialized supervision caseloads, including Spanish-speaking clients, deaf/mute clients, and domestic violence offenders with co-occurring mental health disorders.

In terms of BIP oversight, according to the department of probation, fully certified programs are subject to preannounced visits annually, and conditionally certified programs (those applying towards certification) are visited once every six months.

Collaboration among justice system partners

In addition to the high level of oversight by both the court and probation independent of one another, Santa Clara County also appears to have the most actively coordinated response to domestic violence among the jurisdictions in our study. The Domestic Violence Council (DVC) and two standing committees of the DVC—the Batterer Intervention Committee (BIC) and the Court Systems Committee (CSC)—all meet monthly to address different aspects of domestic violence in Santa Clara.

The DVC, established in 1991 as an advisory body to the board of supervisors, seeks to improve coordination among the court, members of the community, victims, and county agencies and departments. Monthly BIC meetings—attended by representatives of the court, probation, the district attorney's office, the public defender's office, and directors of BIPs—are held to exchange information needed to address offender accountability and victim safety. Monthly CSC meetings include the BIC attendees as well as representatives from the private bar, law enforcement, and other service providers (in addition to BIPs). The focus of the CSC is to improve the court's handling of domestic violence cases and to educate service providers so that they can assist victims in accessing and navigating the court system.

The Superior Court of Santa Clara County is actively engaged in coordinating its response to domestic violence both internally and in collaboration with other justice system partners. Internally, the Domestic Violence Coordinating Committee (DVCC) meets every other month to follow up on issues that arise in other forums. Domestic violence court judges also schedule quarterly meetings to meet with probation, BIPs, the district attorney's office, and the public defender's office.

Finally, a group organized by the court called Filling the Gaps provides an overview to the court and justice system partners to help coordinate domestic violence issues in the court. Filling the

Gaps meets every three to four months to discuss reports from various committees of the DVC—the research committee, firearms committee, and safety committee—and identify gaps and concerns related to domestic violence cases that cross different case types such as family, criminal, probate, and juvenile. To assist with the coordination of these cases the Superior Court of Santa Clara County recently hired a case manager to locate and track related criminal, family, and juvenile cases and ensure that judges are aware of restraining orders or other pending matters that may have been issued from a different division of the superior court.

Solano County

Solano County most closely resembles San Joaquin County in terms of the level of court oversight (low) and probation oversight (high). Solano is also unique in that it offers a deferred entry of judgment plea to certain low-level, mostly first-time offenders. These cases are supervised informally by the courts rather than through the probation department.

Court

Data provided by the court does not allow us to identify the particular location in which the offenders in the Solano sample were processed, but misdemeanor domestic violence cases are heard in two locations in the county: Fairfield and Vallejo. In both sites the cases are arraigned in a single department presided over by a commissioner. Felony cases are randomly assigned to a judge on the criminal bench.

Offenders are required to report to probation within two days of sentencing. Although there does not appear to be any follow-up hearing to confirm enrollment in the program—probation handles this—the court does track misdemeanor cases by setting review hearings at 6 months from program enrollment and at 18 months to verify program completion. Progress reports for men on informal probation are faxed to the court, while progress reports for men on formal probation are sent to the department of probation.

Probation

The probation department conducts the intake and monitoring of offenders sentenced to formal probation. Two probation officers oversee specialized caseloads in the jurisdiction, including one who monitors cases where children witnessed the domestic violence and/or cases where there are family reunification issues. The other specialized caseload is for offenders who require intensive supervision. The offender is referred to a program at his intake with probation and then scheduled for a follow-up meeting in two weeks at which he is required to show proof of enrollment.

In Solano County the district attorney's office also plays a monitoring role similar to that of the department of probation. It has dedicated domestic violence prosecutors who follow cases and develop relationships with victims in order to monitor compliance. The prosecutors assigned to domestic violence cases can recalendar cases for a court hearing when they encounter problems with compliance and can charge offenders with violations as well as new charges.

With respect to certification and monitoring of BIPs in Solano County, the probation department employs a clinical services associate to conduct program monitoring, including observing facilitators and conducting file reviews.

Collaboration among justice system partners

At our initial meeting with representatives of the department of probation in 2007, we learned that probation was in the process of implementing a new domestic violence database. The new system was designed to link BIPs directly to probation via a web-based program that would allow BIPs to transfer information on enrollment and progress directly into a database viewable by court and probation staff.

Probation meets quarterly with BIPs to reiterate the specifics of state law and county policy regarding these programs. It does not appear that the court or other criminal justice agencies are present at those meetings. The new domestic violence database, which will track offender enrollment and progress continuously, may be an important step in improving the sharing and exchange of information.

Other Issues

In addition to these jurisdiction-specific features, two additional issues common to all five systems in the study are worth highlighting. They either made the practice of processing domestic violence offenders different from the letter of the law or may have changed local case processing during the course of the study.

Jail Overcrowding

Informants in all the systems we studied cited jail overcrowding as a problem. The exact magnitude of the problem may not have been the same in all jurisdictions. And in one jurisdiction we learned that the implication of overcrowding—the reduced percentage of time offenders would actually serve if they opted for a jail sentence—changed over the course of the study. Nonetheless, interviews with representatives of courts, departments of probation, and BIPs in all of the study jurisdictions referred to jail overcrowding as a problem in providing credible sanctions to domestic violence offenders. Jail sentences were frequently reduced to ease jail overcrowding, and domestic violence offenders familiar with the justice system were said to opt out of the probationary term and choose jail time instead, knowing that the time served would be a fraction of the actual sentence.⁵

External Scrutiny

A number of high-profile, statewide reports on the justice system response to domestic violence were released either during or around the time of this study. In some jurisdictions it was clear that a particular report had changed the practice of case processing, and we noted these changes in the descriptive overview of individual jurisdictions. Even where a direct impact of these

reports was not clear, the possible impact should be kept in mind as an external factor that may have altered the practices in any one of the jurisdictions during the course of this study.

- Data collection was initiated less than a year after the release of a report to the California Attorney General that was critical of law enforcement, court, and probation department responses to domestic violence.⁶
- Partly in response to the report to the Attorney General, the Chief Justice of the California Supreme Court appointed a task force in September 2005, to recommend changes to improve court practice and procedure in domestic violence cases. The task force worked throughout the study period and released its report to the Judicial Council of California in January 2008. As part of the work of the task force, the Judicial Council approved a new Batterer Intervention Program Progress Report form to be used by probation departments or BIPs to inform the courts of the progress of offenders enrolled in BIPs.⁷
- In November 2006, the Bureau of State Audits released a report that highlighted failures of county probation departments and the courts to comply with state law related to BIPs. The BSA report focused on practices in five California counties, including three counties that are part of the present study: Los Angeles, Riverside, and San Joaquin.⁸

Summary

This chapter provides a qualitative overview of the batterer intervention system in each of the five study jurisdictions, describing relevant characteristics of the courts and probation departments and the level of collaboration among justice system partners. In addition to the county-specific characteristics, two issues common to all jurisdictions—jail overcrowding and external scrutiny—are also highlighted. Continuing this report’s thematic progression from overarching, system-wide traits to more individualized levels of analysis, the next chapter discusses characteristics of and findings related to the batterer intervention programs that participated in this study.

Endnotes Chapter 2

1. California law applies equally to men and women. As noted in the previous chapter, our sample is restricted to male domestic violence offenders so we use the term “men” here both as a reflection of that fact and for the sake of simplicity.

2. *Keeping the Promise: Victim Safety and Batterer Accountability*, Report to the California Attorney General from the Task Force on Local Criminal Justice Response to Domestic Violence (June 2005), pp. 68–69; and *Batterer Intervention Programs: County Probation Departments Could Improve Their Compliance with State Law, but Progress in Batterer Accountability Also Depends on the Courts*, California State Auditor, Bureau of State Audits (November 2006), pp. 22–24.

3. The Riverside County Department of Probation has a clerical position in its desert location that monitors offenders. Although this discussion is focused on the role that the Volunteer Center plays in the management of the domestic violence caseload, the nonprofit agency provides referral and intake services for programs other than the BIPs. The Volunteer Center refers offenders to court-ordered programs for community service, anger management, parenting, and child abuse in addition to the BIP referrals.

4. *Standards for the Intervention and Treatment of Court Ordered Domestic Violence Offenders* (2008), Alan M. Crogan, Chief Probation Officer, Riverside County Probation Department.

5. A *Los Angeles Times* article cites Los Angeles County Sheriff Lee Baca’s estimate that “male inmates serve an average of 70% of their sentences.” While the exact percentage of time served by men convicted of domestic violence crimes is not known, in all of the study jurisdictions, the fact that few offenders serve the full length of their sentences was cited as problematic for creating effective sanctions for offenders. See “Los Angeles County Braces for an Influx of State Prisoners,” *L.A. Times*, (May 27, 2008).

6. *Keeping the Promise*, *id.* note 2.

7. *Recommended Guidelines and Practices for Improving the Administration of Justice in Domestic Violence Cases*, Final Report of the Domestic Violence Practice and Procedure Task Force (January 2008) and Judicial Council Form CR-168.

8. *Batterer Intervention Programs*, *id.* note 2.

Chapter 3: Batterer Intervention Program Content

Introduction

Despite the measurable differences in court and probation oversight of domestic violence offenders, batterer intervention programs (BIPs) are probably the single most important component of the justice system's intervention in these cases in California. Even in jurisdictions with active monitoring by probation and regular review hearings by the court, the mandatory, weekly, two-hour BIP sessions give these programs, among all the justice system partners, the most continuous, direct contact with domestic violence offenders. While BIPs are an essential part of the justice system's response to domestic violence, they are in an equally important sense nested within the justice system. They are subject to state law regarding the form and content of their programs, and they must be certified annually by the county department of probation.

To better understand the impact of domestic violence case processing across the five jurisdictions in this study, we sought information about the content of the intervention programs. This chapter describes and evaluates data that the research team collected about the content of different BIPs in our study jurisdictions. Survey data on the importance that BIP directors place on various educational topics and skills training as well as on the frequency with which these are taught in group sessions indicates that there is little difference across jurisdictions in the reported content of programs. While this finding suggests that it may be possible to effectively hold the program content constant across jurisdictions, substantial variation in *outcomes* across BIPs within and across jurisdictions suggests something different. It may be that the content of the programs as described in these survey instruments is less important than the actual implementation of the content in group sessions.

In addition to finding very similar approaches across all of the study jurisdictions, the survey of program content found that BIPs across the entire sample have adopted integrative approaches to their intervention models. BIPs report employing educational models and skills training that include, at a minimum, elements of both the Duluth and cognitive-behavioral models (see Appendix F for an overview of each model.) These findings also indicate that programs tend to emphasize educational topics over skills training for batterers, suggesting that BIPs find it necessary to introduce program content in a way that is appropriate for the educational and developmental levels of their clients.

Background

The Program Content Survey (PCS) was developed to assess the substantive content of the BIPs participating in this study. The goal of this assessment was to provide the research team with information on the educational topics, coping skills, and teaching techniques that BIPs employ in their interventions with male offenders. On that basis, the PCS seeks to document the full array of elements that any intervention program might incorporate into its educational treatment program with the expectation that no single BIP would cover all of these materials or techniques.

The strategy for the development of the PCS was to first identify the principal sources of information pertaining to intervention models designed for male batterers. Two models for the treatment for abusive men figured prominently in this process: the Duluth model and the cognitive-behavioral model. Although numerous other sources of information were drawn upon to construct the PCS—including BIPs’ own program descriptions and course syllabi, as well as articles and books focusing on intervention and treatment approaches to domestic violence—the influence of these two models is so pervasive that their components formed a significant proportion of the items contained in the PCS.

The development of the survey involved an iterative process, beginning with gathering information from the sources described above. The information gathered from these sources was at an intermediate level of generality, focusing on educational concepts and topics identified as important in a 52-week program, coping strategies and techniques training thought useful to help batterers end their abusive behavior, and the teaching strategies facilitators employed in their interventions with offenders.

After identifying these indicators, we narrowed the list to avoid unnecessary overlap and to achieve reasonable time limits for the administration of the survey. We developed additional survey items to assess whether a specific concept, coping strategy, or teaching technique was employed by a given BIP. As we produced drafts of this survey from the list of indicators and items, we circulated them among members of the research team. Clinical advisors working with participating BIPs reviewed the drafts once they became more advanced, and their feedback was integrated into subsequent versions of the PCS. We maintained this iterative process until we arrived at the present survey, which was then mailed to participating BIPs.

Administration Procedure for the PCS

BIPs participating in the study received by mail the PCS along with an instruction sheet and relevant contact information for a member of the research team. After the initial mailing, we contacted BIPs through e-mail messages and/or phone calls to encourage completion of the survey and to answer questions related to the survey. The instructions for the PCS indicated that a senior group facilitator or program manager who was highly familiar with the intervention program curriculum and men’s groups should fill out the survey. Respondents were encouraged to consult with other facilitators about the specifics of program elements as they thought necessary.

The instructions also encouraged respondents to think of one or two of their group facilitators (including themselves if appropriate) who best characterized how their program approached the use of its curriculum and intervention with batterers. They were then encouraged to use these facilitators as referents when responding to the survey. If ongoing consultation with these and other program facilitators was deemed helpful when filling out the PCS, respondents were encouraged to do so.

We provided decision criteria to respondents to help them select those educational topics, coping strategies, and teaching techniques that their programs covered. In addition, we provided

suggestions to respondents for determining how frequently program elements were covered during class sessions and for rating the importance of PCS items. Finally, we assured respondents that their personal identities as well as their organizations' identities would remain confidential. Of the 73 BIPs that received the PCS, 45 completed and returned the survey.

Caveats Concerning Responses to the PCS Data

As the PCS instructions indicated, the subjects and topics covered by the survey represent a broad overview of what intervention programs with varying orientations might cover. We did not anticipate that a single intervention program could or should try to cover all of the program elements identified in the survey given the limited time and resources many programs have at their disposal. However, the majority of programs did indicate that they undertook teaching and training in most of the areas covered by the PCS.

This suggests that while programs appear quite ambitious about what they try to cover in their 52-week programs, there may be significant overestimation by many BIPs regarding the scope and intensity of the *formal* training they undertake with batterers. Where specifics of any tendency toward overestimation of program content and activity is not known, anecdotal information suggests that the more highly trained facilitators had a tendency to be more conservative in their estimates of what their programs undertake in terms of the formal curriculum.

The moderate response rate of 61 percent achieved in the administration of the PCS suggests that caution should be used in interpreting the findings to characterize intervention approaches for a given court jurisdiction. Further, jurisdictions vary greatly in the number of BIPs that participated in the present study, reflecting a number of factors including the tendency for counties with smaller populations to have proportionately fewer BIPs. The relatively small number of BIPs present in certain counties reduces the power of statistical tests and thus makes it difficult to detect reliable differences among jurisdictions in their approaches to batterer intervention.

As may also be seen in the forthcoming description of findings for the PCS, the very utility of court jurisdiction as a reliable way to group BIPs, in relation to their responses to the PCS, may be called into question. This suggests that there may be more useful ways to categorize BIPs in relation to their approaches to batterer intervention, and it constrains what can be concluded about jurisdictional differences.

Findings

Educational Topics

The educational topics identified by survey respondents as important in helping their clients end their domestic violence appear quite consistent with state and local mandates calling for holding

batterers accountable for their domestic abuse. Further, those elements rated as being of higher importance by program staff appear central to the Duluth and cognitive-behavioral models described previously, although innovative approaches related to attachment and personality theories,¹ interpersonal communication, and community-cultural approaches are also reported. (See Table 3-A below for educational topics rated of highest importance and Table 3-A1 of Appendix G for all other subjects.)

Ratings of Importance: Educational Topics

Across court jurisdictions, educational concepts commonly identified by the preceding models as important to successful intervention programs were frequently rated highly, including the importance of addressing:

- Accountability and personal responsibility
- Beliefs and attitudes that provide the basis for domestic abuse
- Stress management and effective coping
- Power and control in abusive situations
- Management of anger and emotion
- Understanding the effects of abuse

More specifically, survey items assessing BIPs' coverage of holding batterers accountable, the common defense mechanisms used by batterers to justify their abuse (including minimization and blaming, power and control issues in abusive relationships, anger and emotion management, attitudes and beliefs underlying abusive behavior, stress and coping, and alcohol and substance abuse) are all thought to be important to very important to cover during a 52-week program (Table 3-A). This indicates that BIPs may be taking a cross-disciplinary approach to the topics and issues they address in group sessions and/or through assignments that facilitators make during a 52-week program.

Table 3-A. Importance Ratings for Educational Topics

Item	Educational Topics Explained or Discussed				Average Rating of Importance, by Jurisdiction					
	Topics and Issues	Coding Cat.	N of BIPs Covering Topic	Average Importance	LA	RIV	SC	SJ	Sol	Sig.
Q2A	Accountability and taking responsibility for domestic abuse	Accountability	43	4.8	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.0	4.8	ns*
Q17A	Denial of abuse as defense mechanism	Defense Mechanisms: Batterers	42	4.5	4.4	4.7	4.1	5.0	4.5	ns
Q21A	Effects of abuse on children	Abuse	43	4.5	4.3	4.3	3.9	4.0	4.5	ns
Q35A	Minimization of abuse as defense mechanism	Defense Mechanisms: Batterers	43	4.5	4.6	4.9	4.3	4.5	3.8	ns*
Q22A	Effects of abuse on partner	Abuse	43	4.5	4.6	4.3	4.0	4.7	4.8	ns
Q43A	Power and control dynamics in abusive relationships	Power & Control	42	4.4	4.4	4.4	3.9	4.8	5.0	ns
Q50A	Understanding the personal consequences of one's abusive behavior	Abuse	42	4.3	4.3	4.4	3.8	4.7	5.0	ns
Q29A	Identification of abuse triggers (anger, fear, grief, loss, separation, jealousy)	Anger & Emotion Management	42	4.3	4.5	4.7	2.9	4.7	5.0	ns*
Q49A	Time-out technique or procedure explained	Anger & Emotion Management	43	4.3	4.5	4.4	3.3	4.5	5.0	ns*
Q4A	Anger and anger triggers	Anger & Emotion Management	43	4.2	4.3	4.6	3.3	4.5	4.8	ns
Q6A	Beliefs and attitudes leading to domestic abuse	Attitudes & Beliefs	43	4.2	4.5	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	ns
Q7A	Blaming of others as defense mechanism	Defense Mechanisms: Batterers	41	4.2	4.4	4.7	3.9	3.8	3.5	ns
Q14A	Conflict resolution techniques	Conflict Resolution & Negotiation	43	4.2	4.6	4.4	3.0	4.2	4.3	ns*
Q20A	Domestic abuse: What is it behaviorally? (e.g., emotional, economic, sexual, isolation, intimidation)	Abuse	43	4.2	4.3	4.3	3.9	4.0	4.5	ns
Q13A	Cognitive restructuring	Cognitive-Behavioral	42	4.2	4.5	4.3	3.5	3.5	4.8	ns*
Q53A	Wheel of power and control in relation to domestic abuse	Power & Control	42	4.1	4.4	4.3	3.6	3.5	4.8	ns*
Q30A	Identification of high-risk situations	Stress & Coping	42	4.1	4.4	4.4	3.5	3.7	4.3	ns*
Q1A	Accepting and working with victim's anger, resentment, and distrust as result of abuse	Accountability	41	4.1	4.4	3.7	4.3	3.7	3.5	ns*
Q41A	Personal responsibility and honesty on an everyday basis	Accountability	42	4.0	4.2	4.0	3.9	3.3	3.5	ns

Note 1: LA=Los Angeles, RIV=Riverside, SC=Santa Clara, SJ=San Joaquin, Sol=Solano

Note 2: ns=Nonsignificant differences among jurisdictions at the 5 percent level or beyond; ns*=Nonsignificant differences with Tests for Homogeneity of Variance indicating that jurisdiction is not a reliable way to group BIPs for the corresponding item.

Jurisdictional Differences and the Importance of Educational Topics

It is important to note that no significant differences were found among jurisdictions in terms of the average ratings with which they assigned importance to educational topics rated as important to very important for helping batterers. However, statistically significant differences were noted among a number of educational topics thought by respondents to be *less* important in ending domestic abuse (Table 3-A1 of Appendix G). They include the following educational topics, all significantly different at the level of 5 percent or better:

- Client’s family of origin as a source of his attitudes and beliefs;
- Coping with separation and/or divorce from a partner;
- Cultural and societal norms supporting aggression against women and others;
- Healthy versus unhealthy relationships with a domestic partner;
- Racism as related to client’s self-concept and attitudes to self and partner; and
- Effects of domestic abuse on other adults and the community.

Variation in the ratings of importance of these topics may be linked to a number of factors, including differences in views about the causes of domestic abuse among male batterers, the specific needs of local client populations, and differences among BIPs in their interpretation of local mandates for the treatment of abuse.

Jurisdiction as a Grouping Variable and the Importance of Educational Topics

Grouping BIPs in accordance with the court jurisdiction in which they are located often does not appear to be a statistically reliable way of characterizing their ratings of the importance of educational topics in ending domestic abuse. This is largely because differences among BIPs within a given court jurisdiction are often larger than differences among jurisdictions.

For example, ratings of the importance of educational topics—including accountability for domestic abuse, minimization of abuse by batterers, anger and emotion management, and conflict resolution—all vary more among BIPs in the same court jurisdiction than across jurisdictions (Table 3-B, below, and Table 3-B1 of Appendix H). This suggests that differences among BIPs in terms of the emphasis they place on a number of important educational topics are probably better captured by other grouping concepts. This may include the philosophical and clinical orientation of BIPs, the training and skill sets of facilitators, and the characteristics and needs of client groups.

Frequency of Coverage of Educational Topics

Reports of the frequency with which educational topics are covered by BIPs are generally aligned with their ratings of importance. In other words, the more important an educational topic was judged to help batterers end their abusive behavior, the more frequently that subject tended

to be explained or discussed in group sessions. For example, topics including accountability and taking responsibility for domestic abuse, denial and minimization of abuse, and time-out technique are correlated at a significance level of 5 percent or better, and reside within the list of top 10 educational topics in terms of importance and the frequency with which they are covered. (See Table 3-B for educational topics taught more frequently and Table 3-B1 of Appendix H for all other subjects.)

Exceptions to this rule include the topic of alcohol and substance abuse, where the rating of importance (22nd out of 53 potential subjects) was higher than the frequency with which it was covered (34th out of 53 potential subjects) in group. The importance rating of this topic may reflect the fact that many batterers participating in this study appear to be at risk for alcohol and substance abuse, while its moderate frequency of coverage may reflect caution by facilitators about focusing too much on topics that may provide their clients with excuses for their abusive behavior (e.g., I abused my spouse because I was drinking). Further, many program curricula are challenged with having to cover quite a number of important issues, and facilitators may believe that only fully developed substance abuse treatment programs can adequately help their clients. For these and other reasons facilitators might rate the subject of alcohol and substance abuse as quite important but cover it less frequently.

A second subject that is illustrative of the rare tendency for ratings of importance and frequency of coverage to diverge is clients using blame as a defense mechanism. In this case the relative frequency of coverage was quite high (4th out 53 possible subjects), while the rating of importance was somewhat lower (12th out of 53 subjects).

Table 3-B. Frequency of Coverage of Educational Topics

Item	Educational Topics Explained or Discussed		N of BIPs Covering Topic	Average Frequency of Coverage	Average Frequency of Coverage, by Jurisdiction					
	Topics and Issues	Coding Cat.			LA	Riv	SC	SJ	Sol	Sig.
Q2A	Accountability and taking responsibility for domestic abuse	Accountability	43	38.3	34.0	46.5	46.5	37.8	33.4	ns*
Q43A	Power and control dynamics in abusive relationships	Power & Control	42	36.4	32.4	34.4	43.4	44.7	36.1	ns*
Q50A	Understanding the personal consequences of one's abusive behavior	Abuse	42	33.8	30.9	37.2	35.8	37.7	33.4	ns*
Q7A	Blaming of others as defense mechanism	Defense Mechanisms: Batterers	41	32.7	31.6	40.5	34.5	31.8	18.8	ns
Q17A	Denial of abuse as defense mechanism	Defense Mechanisms: Batterers	42	32.2	28.3	34.4	36.1	37.8	33.4	ns
Q35A	Minimization of abuse as defense mechanism	Defense Mechanisms: Batterers	43	31.9	30.1	37.5	39.1	27.3	25.8	ns
Q51A	Violence prevention plan for client	Planning	37	30.9	30.3	30.7	27.4	39.5	33.4	ns
Q20A	Domestic abuse: What is it behaviorally? (e.g., emotional, economic, sexual, isolation, intimidation)	Abuse	43	30.5	28.6	35.9	34.6	27.4	28.4	ns
Q49A	Time-out technique or procedure explained	Anger & Emotion Management	43	30.2	29.6	30.0	27.2	34.3	33.4	ns
Q29A	Identification of abuse triggers (anger, fear, grief, loss, separation, jealousy)	Anger & Emotion Management	42	30.1	27.1	36.1	24.0	37.8	33.4	ns

Note 1: LA=Los Angeles, Riv=Riverside, SC=Santa Clara, SJ=San Joaquin, Sol=Solano

Note 2: ns=Nonsignificant differences among jurisdictions at the 5 percent level or beyond; ns*=Nonsignificant differences with Tests for Homogeneity of Variance indicating that jurisdiction is not a reliable way to group BIPs for the corresponding item.

Coping Skills Training

Ratings of Importance: Coping Skills Training

Among facilitators responding to the PCS, training batterers in anger and emotion management emerged as among the most highly rated coping skills. More specifically, facilitators strongly endorsed the teaching of anger management and time-out techniques; they rated emotion expression skills training somewhat lower, though it still received high ratings of importance across jurisdictions. BIPs appear to be working solidly within the cognitive-behavioral school when they focus on the cognitive management and expression of emotion, for within this model poorly regulated emotion responses to stressful situations are thought to be important correlates of abuse among batterers.²

Ranking slightly below the most highly rated coping strategies in importance are conflict resolution skills, cognitive restructuring techniques to manage negative moods and self-talk, and positive forms of assertiveness training. Training clients to reflect and analyze their own behavior and life situations follows closely behind; clients learning to analyze their own behavior (to identify their abusive styles and areas of personal responsibility) and critical thinking skills were rated as important. (See Table 3-C for coping skills training rated of highest importance and Table 3-C1 of Appendix I for the full list.)

The high ratings of these cognitively oriented coping skills are consistent with anecdotal reports from clinicians and certainly with literature bearing on thinking and reasoning among batterers. All of this indicates that the decision to batter may be based on unexamined cognitive rules influencing batterer's coping responses³ or misperceptions about what is actually at stake in an exchange with their domestic partners (e.g., their manhood, status as head of household, or their very survival).⁴

Of the remaining forms of coping skills training, all except three were rated somewhat important or higher across court jurisdictions. They include a mix of cognitive-behavioral techniques (e.g., alternative reactions to perceived problems, positive self-talk, countering techniques for irrational or problematic behavior, and thought switching and reframing), stress and coping training (e.g., relaxation and stress management training), interpersonal skills training (i.e., reflective listening training), and problem solving and planning (e.g., learning to manage one's finances and time). This rather broad approach to teaching coping skills suggests that BIPs may have taken a relatively integrative approach to intervention with batterers, focusing at various points during the intervention program on cognitive, emotional, behavioral, and social-interpersonal skills.

Table 3-C. Importance of Coping Skills Training: Skills and Techniques

Item	Coping Skills Training		N of BIPs Covering Topic	Average Importance	Average Rating of Importance, by Jurisdiction					
	Skills and Techniques	Coding Cat.			LA	Riv	SC	SJ	SoI	Sig.
Q1b.	Anger management skills and techniques	Anger & Emotion Management	45	4.6	4.5	5.0	4.3	4.8	5.0	ns*
Q21b.	Time-out technique training and practice	Anger & Emotion Management	44	4.4	4.5	4.7	3.4	4.5	5.0	ns*
Q5b.	Conflict resolution skills and/or techniques	Conflict Resolution & Negotiation	45	4.2	4.3	4.6	3.6	4.0	4.8	ns*
Q4b.	Cognitive restructuring techniques to manage negative moods and negative self-talk	Cognitive-Behavioral	45	4.2	4.3	4.4	3.7	3.8	4.8	ns*
Q2b.	Assertiveness training (while demonstrating respect for self and partner) as alternative to aggression	Interpersonal Skills	44	4.0	4.3	4.0	3.1	3.7	4.5	ns
Q3b.	Client practices analyzing his own behavior to identify the specifics of his abusive style and areas of personal responsibility	Cognitive-Behavioral (Duluth)	41	3.9	3.9	3.4	4.4	3.7	4.3	ns
Q9b.	Emotional expression skills training	Interpersonal Skills	44	3.8	3.9	4.0	3.6	3.0	4.0	ns
Q7b.	Critical thinking skills for clients/abusers	Cognitive-Behavioral (Duluth)	41	3.7	4.1	3.4	3.7	2.5	4.3	ns*
Q14b.	Personal self-control techniques when parenting to avoid abusive behavior	Stress & Coping	41	3.7	3.8	4.3	3.0	3.7	3.3	ns
Q15b.	Positive self-talk training	Cognitive-Behavioral	40	3.7	3.9	3.9	3.1	2.8	4.8	ns
Q11b.	Alternative reactions to perceived problems or threats taught and practiced	Cognitive-Behavioral (Duluth)	41	3.7	3.7	4.6	3.4	2.7	4.0	ns
Q19b.	Relaxation and stress management training	Stress & Coping	41	3.6	3.8	3.4	3.0	3.7	4.0	ns
Q13b.	Negotiation and compromise skills training	Conflict Resolution & Negotiation	43	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.6	2.7	3.5	ns
Q18b.	Reflective listening training	Interpersonal Communication	41	3.4	3.6	3.3	2.7	3.3	4.3	ns
Q6b.	Countering technique for irrational or problematic beliefs	Cognitive-Behavioral	37	3.4	3.8	3.3	3.1	1.7	4.5	ns
Q16b.	Problem-solving skills training for dealing with everyday living, including managing finances and time	Problem Solving & Planning	39	3.2	3.5	3.6	2.7	2.5	3.3	ns
Q10b.	Emotional sensitization exercises to help client learn to identify his emotions	Stress & Coping	36	3.1	3.5	3.1	2.1	2.5	4.0	ns
Q20b.	Thought switching and reframing training.	Cognitive-Behavioral	34	3.0	3.2	3.7	1.7	1.8	4.5	ns*

Note 1: LA=Los Angeles, Riv=Riverside, SC=Santa Clara, SJ=San Joaquin, Sol=Solano

Note 2: ns=Nonsignificant differences among jurisdictions at the 5 percent level or beyond; ns*=Nonsignificant differences with Tests for Homogeneity of Variance indicating that jurisdiction is not a reliable way to group BIPs for the corresponding item.

The four forms of coping skills training that, on average, were thought to be of more marginal importance in abuse intervention included relatively focused cognitive-behavioral techniques typically employed in the treatment of individuals in a more formal therapeutic context.⁵ They include decatastrophizing and depathologizing techniques, label shifting or relabeling training, and reattribution skills training. This last set of findings may be best understood when placed in the context of the preferred intervention mechanism employed by most BIPs in California.

The overwhelming majority of BIPs participating in this study work with court-ordered batterers in two-hour group sessions. In contrast, many of the techniques that are commonly used in traditional forms of cognitive-behavioral therapy were designed to be employed in individual sessions between a therapist and client. In these single-client sessions each program of treatment is tailored to the client's needs in strict accord with an extensive assessment process that highlights cognitive and behavioral strengths and weaknesses. This is not to suggest that cognitive-behavioral techniques cannot or are not effectively adapted to group treatment models. Rather it indicates that this is an inherently challenging process and may be less achievable for group facilitators who do not have access to specialized training or curriculum materials that fully support this approach.

Ratings of Importance: Coping Skills Training Versus Educational Topics

A review of Tables 3-A and 3-C indicates that 19 educational topics were rated as ranging from important to very important in helping batterers end their abusive behavior. It is interesting to note that only 5 types of coping skills training attain this average level of importance. This may suggest that many BIPs responding to the PCS may place greater initial emphasis on the importance of helping clients understand their abuse and its implications, with somewhat less emphasis on training clients in new forms of coping with and adapting to stressors in their daily lives. This is consistent with certain abuse intervention models⁶ as well as anecdotal evidence from interviews suggesting that some facilitators may try to tailor what is emphasized in their intervention programs to the developmental level of their clients. More specifically, as clients develop a deeper understanding of the causes and consequences of their domestic violence, are able to take greater responsibility for their abuse, and become more skilled in their coping behavior, facilitators may assign more advanced subjects and skills for them to learn.

Reliability of Court Jurisdiction as a Grouping Variable: Coping Skills Training

Court jurisdiction again proved to be inconsistent in its reliability as a way to group BIPs in terms of their ratings of the importance of coping skills training. For example, court jurisdiction does not appear to be a statistically reliable way of classifying BIPs in terms of their importance ratings of the four most highly rated coping skills or of two of the four coping skills rated as least important (Table 3-C). This suggests that the approach BIPs are taking to training is probably influenced by factors beyond those including the court jurisdiction in which they reside, the local licensing requirements with which they must comply, and the justice system partners with whom they most frequently interact.

Frequency of Use: Coping Skills Training

On average, the frequency with which BIPs responding to the survey teach coping skills is consistently related to their ratings of importance. For example, the two coping strategies rated highest are also most frequently taught by responding BIPs. (See Table 3-D for coping skills most frequently covered and Table 3-D1 of Appendix J for the full list.) In fact, the correlation between rating of importance of coping skill and frequency of use in group training is significant at the level of one-tenth of one percent or beyond ($p < .001$) for all but one technique.

An exception to this rule is reattribution skills training, the cognitive-behavioral coping skill rated as of lowest importance across BIPs. The highly specific nature of this cognitive-behavioral technique, its association with formal approaches to cognitive-behavioral therapy, and its inconsistent use across BIPs may contribute to its divergence from the overall norm.

Ratings of Frequency of Use: Coping Skills Training Versus Educational Topics

A review of Tables 3-B and 3-D indicates that 10 educational topics were reportedly used in 21 to 52 group sessions in the course of a 52-week intervention program (with data in these tables representing the midpoint of each frequency interval), while 2 types of coping skills training attained this intense level of use.

This pattern of findings parallels those described for ratings of importance of survey items by BIPs. It appears to add to the qualitative evidence suggesting that BIPs responding to the PCS place somewhat greater emphasis on helping their clients understand their abuse and its implications relative to training clients in new forms of coping and adaptation. However, these findings should not be interpreted as characterizing any single BIP in terms of its program emphasis, nor that the emphasis of programs remains the same throughout the course of a 52-week program. We may learn more through further analysis of this data, along with its triangulation with other independent sources of information.

Table 3-D. Frequency of Coping Skills Training: Skills and Techniques

Item	Coping Skills Training		N of BIPs Covering Topic	Average Frequency of Coverage	Average Frequency of Coverage, by Jurisdiction					
	Skills and Techniques	Coding Cat.			LA	Riv	SC	SJ	Sol	Sig.
Q1b.	Anger management skills and techniques	Anger & Emotion Management	45	31.9	26.2	43.5	31.6	37.7	33.4	ns
Q21b.	Time-out technique training and practice	Anger & Emotion Management	44	30.8	29.6	38.9	27.5	30.7	28.1	ns*
Q5b.	Conflict resolution skills and/or techniques	Conflict Resolution & Negotiation	45	28.4	27.0	34.5	27.2	27.3	28.1	ns
Q4b.	Cognitive restructuring techniques to manage negative moods and negative self-talk	Cognitive-Behavioral	45	26.3	22.7	32.9	25.7	29.1	30.6	ns
Q2b.	Assertiveness training (while demonstrating respect for self and partner) as alternative to aggression	Interpersonal Skills	44	21.2	21.8	26.9	18.8	13.7	23.1	ns
Q3b.	Client practices analyzing his own behavior to identify the specifics of his abusive style and areas of personal responsibility	Cognitive-Behavioral (Duluth)	41	29.7	24.6	42.1	31.6	34.1	30.9	ns
Q9b.	Emotional expression skills training	Interpersonal Skills	44	25.4	24.2	30.1	25.6	23.6	25.6	ns
Q7b.	Critical thinking skills for clients/abusers	Cognitive-Behavioral (Duluth)	41	24.9	23.2	23.8	34.3	20.4	25.6	ns
Q14b.	Personal self-control techniques when parenting to avoid abusive behavior	Stress & Coping	41	20.9	20.8	24.2	17.0	20.6	22.3	ns
Q15b.	Positive self-talk training	Cognitive-Behavioral	40	23.1	23.5	22.6	20.5	25.5	23.1	ns
Q11b.	Alternative reactions to perceived problems or threats taught and practiced	Cognitive-Behavioral (Duluth)	41	26.4	23.9	35.9	34.2	17.5	20.6	ns
Q19b.	Relaxation and stress management training	Stress & Coping	41	20.6	20.2	27.3	13.8	25.8	18.0	ns

Note 1: LA=Los Angeles, Riv=Riverside, SC=Santa Clara, SJ=San Joaquin, Sol=Solano

Note 2: ns=Nonsignificant differences among jurisdictions at the 5 percent level or beyond; ns*=Nonsignificant differences with Tests for Homogeneity of Variance indicating that jurisdiction is not a reliable way to group BIPs for the corresponding item.

Teaching Strategies and Techniques

Ratings of Importance: Teaching Strategies and Techniques

Techniques that give the group facilitator a central role in the teaching and training in groups, techniques that emphasize insight into and accountability for one’s abuse, and rehearsal of new forms of positive coping behavior were rated as more important by BIPs responding to the survey. More specifically, group facilitators rated the following teaching techniques as ranging from very important to moderately important. (See Table 3-E for teaching strategies and techniques rated of highest importance and Table 3-E1 of Appendix K for the full list.).

- Group discussions structured and led by a facilitator
- Analysis by clients of their own abusive behavior and anger triggers
- Facilitator's therapeutic/educational confrontation of clients
- Challenging attitudes and beliefs that encourage abuse by group members
- Facilitator's leading clients through a description of some to their most severe incidents of abuse
- Lectures or formal presentations by facilitator
- Homework focused on clients' plans for ending their abuse
- Role-playing led by the facilitator
- Rehearsal of cognitive-behavioral strategies in group
- Rehearsal of coping strategies (e.g., time-out technique)

The influences of both the Duluth and cognitive-behavioral approaches to instruction are clearly evident in many of these teaching strategies and techniques. In any given BIP, however, the approaches may well be configured to represent a hybrid approach to batterer intervention as BIPs are taking a view to teaching that draws upon a number of the most prominent models in domestic violence intervention.

Instructional techniques that were rated as of clearly lower importance included those that emphasize attachment issues and strategies for addressing them (e.g., female facilitators lead groups to address gender-based issues of client trust); the use of advanced students as discussion or role-play leaders; employing quizzes and tests to check on clients' learning and mastery of course content; and various forms of homework requiring reading and writing assignments that focus on some aspect of a batterer's abusive attitudes, beliefs, or behavior.

Ratings of Frequency of Use: Teaching Strategies and Techniques

The ratings for the frequency of use of educational strategies and techniques parallel the ratings of their importance (see Table 3-E for teaching strategies and techniques used most frequently and Table 3-E1 of Appendix K for the full list), which is to suggest that the more important a technique was rated, the more frequently it was used. In fact, correlations between importance and frequency are quite substantial, never dropping below a zero order correlation of .6 and all significant at the level of one-tenth of one percent or beyond ($p < .001$).

Jurisdictional Differences: Teaching Strategies and Techniques

Only a single jurisdictional difference in the ratings of importance of instructional strategies was found—the use of films and videos not specifically made for domestic violence courses but relevant to domestic abuse. This suggests again that there is considerable consistency across

BIPs in the way they approach teaching batterers. The form of this cross-jurisdictional agreement appears to place the group facilitator at the center of instruction, teaching clients to become accountable for and critically aware of their abuse while emphasizing positive forms of thinking and behaving as alternatives to abusive behavior (See Table 3-E and Table 3-E1 of Appendix K).

Reliability of Court Jurisdiction as a Grouping Variable: Teaching Strategies and Techniques

As noted before, the jurisdiction within which BIPs are located has no measurable effect on BIPs in relation to the ratings of the importance of teaching strategies and the frequency with which they are used in group (Table 3-E and Table 3-E1 of Appendix K).

Table 3-E. Importance and Frequency of Teaching Strategies and Techniques

Item	Teaching Strategies and Techniques	N of BIPs Covering Topic	Average Rating of Importance and Frequency, by Jurisdiction							
			Average		LA	Riv	SC	SJ	Sol	Sig.
			Import.	Freq.						
7c.	Group discussion: Structured and led by facilitator	44	4.6	41.9	4.4	5.0	4.6	4.7	5.0	ns*
1c.	Client instructed in the analysis of his own abusive behavior to become aware of personal anger triggers and other aspects of his abusive style and cycle of violence	43	4.3	30.5	4.3	4.4	3.6	4.8	5.0	ns*
26c.	Therapeutic/educational confrontation of clients by group facilitator	41	4.0	33	4.0	3.7	3.9	3.8	4.8	ns
9c.	Group members allowed to take the lead in challenging attitudes and beliefs that encourage domestic violence	40	3.7	29.8	3.6	2.9	4.7	3.3	4.0	ns*
3c.	Facilitator leads client through a description of some of his most severe incidents of partner abuse	40	3.6	23.6	3.5	3.1	4.3	3.7	3.8	ns
18c.	Lecture or formal presentation by facilitator	37	3.5	31.6	3.4	3.7	3.7	3.5	3.3	ns
10c.	Homework: Client develops prevention or safety plan to prevent future abuse	38	3.4	21.3	3.2	3.0	3.7	3.7	4.3	ns
24c.	Role-playing led by group facilitator	39	3.3	17.5	3.8	2.7	3.0	2.2	4.3	ns
21c.	Rehearsal of cognitive and behavioral skills in group	37	3.3	24	3.5	3.1	3.4	2.3	3.8	ns
22c.	Rehearsal of coping strategies (e.g. time-out).	35	3.3	26.2	3.6	3.3	2.7	2.0	4.5	ns
25c.	Therapeutic/educational confrontation of clients by "advanced students/clients" in group sessions	33	3.1	25.3	3.5	3.0	2.9	2.2	2.8	ns
6c.	Films and videos: Developed specifically for domestic violence courses	35	2.9	11.5	2.9	3.1	2.9	2.0	4.3	ns

Note 1: LA=Los Angeles, Riv=Riverside, SC=Santa Clara, SJ=San Joaquin, Sol=Solano

Note 2: ns=Nonsignificant differences among jurisdictions at the p<.05 level or beyond; ns*=Nonsignificant differences with Tests for Homogeneity of Variance indicating that jurisdiction is not a reliable way to group BIPs for the corresponding item.

Summary of Findings

The educational subjects identified as important by BIPs in helping batterers end their domestic abuse appear consistent with legislative mandates intended to hold offenders accountable for

their abusive behavior. The program elements that were rated more highly in importance also appear to be central to some of the most influential domestic violence intervention models developed in this county. These include efforts to (1) hold batterers accountable and personally responsible for their domestic violence; (2) make batterers aware of (and change) the attitudes and beliefs that underpin their abusive behavior, including issues related to power and control as well as the management of anger, emotion, and stress in domestic situations; and (3) give batterers an understanding of the effects and implications of domestic abuse.

It is important to note that no significant differences were found among jurisdictions in terms of the average ratings with which facilitators assigned importance to educational topics rated as important to very important for helping batterers. However, statistically significant differences were noted among a number of educational topics thought by respondents to be less important in ending domestic abuse. Variation in the ratings of the importance of these topics as well as the highly correlated frequency with which they are taught may be influenced by facilitators' judgments concerning the needs of the client groups they serve, the beliefs prevalent in BIPs about the etiology of domestic violence, and different interpretations among BIPs regarding the requirements of local and state mandates for the treatment of domestic abuse.

Anger and emotion management emerged among facilitators as some of the most highly rated coping skills for batterers to learn. The high ratings of these cognitively oriented coping skills are consistent with the view that domestic violence is often based on the batterers' misperceptions that their domestic status and even image of themselves as men are at stake in contentious domestic situations and must be defended at all costs. Of the remaining forms of coping skills training, the majority were rated as somewhat important or higher across court jurisdictions. They include a mix of cognitive-behavioral techniques, stress and coping training, interpersonal skills training, and problem solving and planning. This rather broad approach to teaching coping skills suggests that BIPs have taken a relatively integrative approach to intervention with batterers, focusing at various points during the intervention program on cognitive-behavioral, emotional, and social-interpersonal skills.

Many BIPs responding to the PCS appear to place greater emphasis on the importance of helping clients understand their abuse and its implications than they place on training clients in new forms of coping with and adapting to stressors in their domestic lives. This approach is consistent with a number of prominent abuse intervention models,⁷ as well as anecdotal evidence from interviews suggesting that intervention program directors may believe that they initially need to focus on helping batterers develop a basic understanding of their abuse, its proximal origin and implications, and a few simple coping strategies. They may introduce more demanding forms of coping skills once they've developed a foundation of basic awareness. This in turn suggests that some facilitators tailor the curriculum to the educational and developmental levels of their clients.

The frequency with which BIPs report teaching educational topics appears to vary with their ratings of its importance. An even stronger relationship was observed between ratings of importance and the frequency of coverage for coping skills training. In other words, the more important an educational topic or coping skill is judged to be by facilitators, the more frequently

it appears to be addressed in group. Anecdotal evidence from interviews with highly trained senior facilitators suggests that there may also be important nuance in this approach. Some important topics may be introduced at critical points when batterers are developmentally ready while other, less important topics, are covered to facilitate the development and readiness of clients.

Approaches to teaching that emphasize insight and accountability by batterers into their abusive behavior, approaches that involve facilitators centrally in the teaching and training that occurs in group, and strategies that emphasize the rehearsal of new forms of positive coping behavior were rated as more highly important by BIPs responding to the survey. It was noted earlier that the influences of both cognitive-behavioral and Duluth approaches were evident in many of these teaching strategies and techniques, they may be configured by facilitators into hybrid approaches to intervention that reflect their own training and background as well as perceptions of the needs of their client groups. Ratings of the frequency of use of teaching strategies and techniques assessed by the PCS appear to underline this last fact, with BIPs more frequently using those approaches they rated as more useful in helping clients end their abuse.

Court jurisdiction was generally not useful for grouping BIPs in relation to their approaches to training batterers in new forms of positive coping or the approaches to teaching that they employ in the treatment of batterers. Further, no statistically significant differences were observed in importance ratings of the four most highly rated coping skills or in two of the four coping skills rated as least important. This suggests that the approach BIPs are taking to teaching and training may be influenced by system-level factors beyond those of jurisdiction.

Summary

In this chapter we discuss how the Program Content Survey was developed to try to better understand the content and educational methods used in 52-week domestic violence programs. The findings indicate that program curriculums are consistent with legislative mandates. However, what little differentiation exists between programs as measured on the Program Content Survey does not provide enough evidence to determine whether certain methods used in BIPs yield better outcomes. Greater differentiation was found among offender characteristics, however, which we examine in the next chapter.

Endnotes Chapter 3

1. D. Dutton and D. Sonkin, eds., *Intimate Violence: Contemporary Treatment Innovations* (Binghamton, NY: The Haworth Press, Inc. 2002).
2. L. K. Hamberger and J. M. Lohr, "Proximal Causes of Spouse Abuse: A Theoretical Analysis for Cognitive-Behavioral Interventions," in P. L. Caesar and L. K. Hamberger, eds., *Treating Men Who Batter: Theory, Practice and Programs* (New York: Springer, 1989); E. Pence and M. Paymar, *Education Groups for Men Who Batter: The Duluth Model* (New York: Springer, 1993).
3. C. Murphy and C. Eckhardt, *Treating the Abusive Partner: An Individualized Cognitive-Behavioral Approach* (New York: The Guilford Press, 2005).
4. E. Pence and M. Paymar, *id.* note 2.
5. H. Sinclair, "A Community Activist Response to Intimate Partner Violence," in E. Aldarondo and F. Mederos, eds., *Programs for Men Who Batter: Intervention and Prevention Strategies in a Diverse Society* (Civic Research Institute, 2002).
6. *Id.* note 3.
7. *Id.* note 5.

Chapter 4: Offender Profiles

Introduction

Gathering detailed information on offender characteristics is a critical component of this study. The purpose, however, is not so much to help increase our understanding of domestic violence offenders, such as which characteristics contributed to their abusive behavior or which set of risk or protective factors are associated with their different propensities for compliance. Rather, the need for offender profile data arises from the non-experimental nature of the study design, in which study subjects recruited from different jurisdictions may exhibit different characteristics, and these different characteristics may lead to different propensities for compliance independent of any system-level impacts that might exist. With system-level impacts as the primary focus of this study, offender profiles thus provide a means of rendering statistically more comparable the study samples across the different jurisdictions. In other words, they function as control variables in a multivariate analysis framework, which is discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

A brief descriptive analysis of offender profiles, however, will provide essential context leading to the analysis of outcome measures in the following chapter. In Table 4-A measures of offender characteristics are grouped into four categories: (1) family relations, including relationship with the victim (wife or girlfriend) and children, and living arrangements with them; (2) socioeconomic status, including income, employment, education, and race/ethnicity; (3) measures of criminal history constructed from the California State Department of Justice (DOJ) arrest records and CAGE indicator of alcohol/drug abuse; and (4) indicators of abusive behavior and conflicts with the victim, as measured by the revised Conflict Tactics Scale 2 (CTS2) concerning the frequency of various forms of conflict (as well as positive, non-abusive interactions with the victim) in the past year. Measures that vary across the jurisdictions at statistically significant levels (1 and 5 percent levels) are indicated in the table.

Family Relations

There are noticeable differences across the jurisdictions regarding the relationship between the offender and his victim and children, as well as in his living arrangements with them. Overall, approximately 40 percent of the offenders were living with the victim at the time of program enrollment. By jurisdiction, it varies from a low of 35 percent in San Joaquin County to a high of 50 percent in Solano County. With regard to relationship with the victim, slightly less than one-half (45 percent) involved either current or former wife, with no statistically significant difference across the jurisdictions.

Significant differences exist across the jurisdictions in the proportion of offenders who had children *and* were living with them at the time of program enrollment, ranging from 28 percent in Los Angeles County to 48 percent in Solano County.

Table 4-A . Offender Characteristics, by Jurisdiction

Risk Factors	Los Angeles	Riverside	Santa Clara	Solano	San Joaquin	Total Sample	Valid Sample Size
Family Relations							
Percent Living with Victim**	36%	46%	36%	50%	35%	38%	1,405
Percent Victim Was Wife (current or former)	47%	42%	42%	48%	44%	45%	1,411
Percent Living with Children**	28%	40%	32%	48%	36%	33%	1,384
Socio-economic Status							
Percent with Some College**	27%	19%	27%	25%	13%	23%	1,376
Percent Employed Full-Time	50%	53%	45%	51%	42%	47%	1,176
Percent Lost Job in Past Year	21%	20%	24%	17%	23%	22%	1,167
Average Annual Income**	\$17,324	\$20,865	\$20,086	\$16,113	\$10,976	\$17,489	1,146
Percent African American**	20%	13%	9%	32%	18%	17%	1,361
Percent Hispanic**	58%	45%	57%	15%	46%	51%	1,361
Percent White**	12%	34%	22%	28%	27%	22%	1,361
Percent "Other"***	9%	8%	11%	25%	9%	10%	1,361
Percent Needing Interpreter**	34%	12%	21%	7%	10%	22%	1,457
Average Age at Intake	33.90	33.77	33.93	34.85	32.66	33.68	1,328
Criminal History and Drug/Alcohol Abuse							
Average Age at First Arrest**	25.87	24.69	24.90	24.30	22.90	24.78	1,301
Average Number of Prior Arrests for All Offenses**	5.56	6.48	7.70	7.49	7.90	6.87	1,303
Average Number of Prior Arrests for Assault Offenses**	2.43	2.95	3.05	3.76	3.65	2.99	1,303
Average Number of Prior Arrests for DV Offenses**	1.55	1.91	2.11	2.36	2.36	1.96	1,303
Average Number of Prior Arrests for Drug Offenses**	1.27	1.63	2.48	2.00	1.96	1.85	1,303
Average Number of Prior Arrests for Felony Offenses	3.25	3.87	3.21	3.67	3.91	3.46	1,303
Average CAGE Score (0-4)	1.15	1.27	1.42	1.25	1.24	1.26	1,164
Abusive Behavior Indicators (CTS2)							
Negotiation**	57.59	62.77	66.07	71.75	57.97	61.53	1,237
Psychological Aggression	22.15	27.46	24.85	30.34	23.56	24.35	1,237
Physical Aggression	7.24	7.78	5.91	7.63	7.00	6.93	1,237
Injury (of Offender) Resulting from Conflicts	2.77	2.06	2.18	3.05	2.02	2.39	1,237
Sexual Coercion	3.31	3.36	1.85	2.71	2.82	2.79	1,237

** Differences across jurisdictions statistically significant at 1 percent level; * significant at 5 percent level.

Further analysis reveals not only correlations among the three family-relation variables—whether the offender was living with the victim, was married to the victim, or was living with children—but also different subgroup patterns across the jurisdictions. With each of the three binary variables representing two subgroups, a total of eight subgroups can be created when the three variables are combined. The distribution of these smaller subgroups shows that about three-quarters of the total sample fall into three major categories:

- The largest subgroup consists of offenders whose victims are other than their wives, and who were not living with their victims or with any children at the time of program enrollment. This subgroup represents approximately 35 percent of the total sample.
- The second major subgroup is made up of offenders whose victims are their wives. However, they were not cohabitating at the time of program enrollment, and no children were staying with them either. Approximately 20 percent of the total belongs to this subgroup.
- The third major subgroup consists of offenders whose victims are their wives and who were living with their victims and their children. Slightly less than 20 percent of the total falls into this subgroup.

Our data further suggests the existence of correlations between each of the three variables and other socioeconomic characteristics of the offenders. Belonging to one rather than another of the three paired subgroups—living with the victim, being married to the victim, or living with children—appears to contribute to a positive (or negative) correlation with employment status and income. Thus, an offender whose wife is the victim, who is living with the victim, and who has children living with him as well is more likely to be employed and earning a higher income. Offenders with these “positive” characteristics are also shown to have a less extensive criminal arrest record; they also tend to be older. Level of education completed, however, is found not to be correlated with family-relation characteristics.

Table 4-B. Major Subgroups Based on Offender’s Relationship with Victim and Children

	Los Angeles	Riverside	Santa Clara	Solano	San Joaquin	Total	Valid Sample Size
Victim other than wife, not living with victim or children	35%	33%	38%	30%	36%	36%	485
Victim is wife, not living with victim or children	23%	13%	20%	8%	19%	19%	263
Victim is wife, living with victim and children	16%	22%	17%	26%	17%	18%	242
Subgroup Total	74%	69%	74%	64%	72%	73%	990

Whether viewed theoretically as stake-in-conformity indicators (investment in status quo such as marriage and employment that may act as deterrence from non-conforming behaviors) or as measures of the degree to which the offender’s life was in a settled or unsettled condition (associated with more or less stress), the significant differences across the jurisdictions in offender profiles, as shown in Table 4-A, suggest that these are important “control” variables that need to be addressed in comparing outcomes across the jurisdictions.¹

For the largest subgroup—those who lack any of the “positive” elements as measured by the family-relation variables—the data shows that Santa Clara County has the largest proportion of these cases at 38 percent of total within the jurisdiction, and Solano County has the smallest proportion at 30 percent.

The study sample in Solano, again, consists of the lowest proportion (8 percent) of the second subgroup (wife being the victim, but not living with the victim or children) among the jurisdictions. Riverside County has a similarly smaller proportion of these cases at 13 percent of total, relative to approximately 20 percent in the three remaining jurisdictions.

Consistent with the patterns for the first two subgroups, the data further shows that the Solano sample contains a higher proportion (26 percent) of the third subgroup than the other jurisdictions. As noted above, those in the third subgroup reveal more of what appear to be “positive” characteristics, suggesting perhaps that the offenders are in a relatively more settled situation in their life. Riverside County shows a slightly lower proportion of these cases (22 percent) relative to Solano, but noticeably higher than the other three jurisdictions.

Regardless of the specific mechanisms by which family dynamics may affect the offender’s performance in terms of either program compliance or re-offense behavior, the different subgroup compositions described above point to significantly different offender profiles across the jurisdictions, which need to be taken into consideration in outcome analysis.

Other than the three large subgroups described above, each of the remaining five subgroups—e.g., offenders who lived with a victim who was not their wife but lived with children or offenders who live with a victim who is their wife but does not live with children—represents a small fraction of the total sample, ranging from 3 to 9 percent.

Socioeconomic Status

Various socioeconomic indicators in Table 4-A depict an offender population that is generally of low status, with limited education, a low employment rate, and low income—and overwhelmingly of minority race/ethnicity background.

Overall, more than one-quarter of the total sample attained a high school education or less, while merely 5 percent graduated from college. Educational levels are lowest in San Joaquin County, with less than 15 percent having attended some college and less than 2 percent finishing an undergraduate or higher degree.

While the data shows statistically significant differences in educational attainment across the jurisdictions, only marginally significant differences exist in employment status. Overall, slightly less than one-half (47 percent) of the sample were fully employed at the time of program enrollment, varying from a low of 42 percent in San Joaquin County to a high of 53 percent in Riverside County. The data further indicates about 20 percent experienced job loss or work hour

reduction in the past year, and only approximately 40 percent of the total sample had stable employment in the recent past.

Further analysis of the relationship between educational attainment and employment status shows that only a small fraction of those with college degrees were faring better in employment, with approximately 60 percent fully employed—higher than the rest of the sample by a little more than 10 percentage points. For those without a college degree, increments of additional education—from “less than high school” to “high school graduate” to “some college, including associate’s degree”—do not seem to have had any impact on the employment status of the offenders.

The lack of a strong correlation between education and employment, which is typically expected to exist in the general population, as well as the overall low-level, marginal employment the study subjects, suggests the existence of some underlying, persistent, unobserved factors influencing both education and employment status of the offenders, for which the various socioeconomic indicators are serving as close proxies.

Self-reported income provides further evidence of the offenders’ low socioeconomic status consistent with the results from other variables discussed above. With nearly 20 percent of the sample reporting no income in the past one year, the overall average income reported is less than \$20,000 per year (an average of \$17,500 and a median of \$14,500). The study subjects in San Joaquin include an especially high percentage reporting no income at all—36 percent of the total relative to approximately 20 percent in Solano County and 15 percent in the other three jurisdictions.

When subgroups defined by various income and educational levels are examined in conjunction, the data shows that nearly 60 percent of the total sample had no more than a high school education along with a reported annual income of less than \$25,000. At the high end of the income-education continuum, a mere 2 percent of the total sample consists of college graduates with a reported income higher than \$40,000 per year.

The racial/ethnic composition of the sample provides yet another important indicator regarding the status of the offenders, with nearly 80 percent of the total coming from minority groups. As Table 4-A shows, Hispanics are the largest group overall at approximately 50 percent of the total, followed by 22 percent whites, 17 percent African Americans, and 10 percent “others.” Furthermore, approximately 35 percent of Hispanics and “others”—or 22 percent of the entire sample—speak a native language other than English, indicating their status as recent immigrants.

Differences in the racial/ethnic composition of the samples are quite substantial across the jurisdictions. In Los Angeles and Santa Clara Counties, Hispanics account for almost 60 percent of the total, whereas they represent merely 15 percent of the total in Solano County. Los Angeles has the lowest proportion of whites at 12 percent, compared with 34 percent in Riverside County. African Americans are the smallest group in Santa Clara (9 percent of the total) but the largest group in Solano (32 percent of the total).

At first glance, the offender’s age at intake appears to be fairly comparable across the jurisdictions, at an average of approximately 34 years. Ranging from 18 to 74, the overall age distribution is skewed to the right—the higher end of the continuum, as shown in Figure 4-A, with slightly over 40 percent under the age of 30. About one-third of the total sample are between the ages of 30 and 40, with the remaining 25 percent over the age of 40.

Figure 4-A. Distribution of Age at Intake, by Jurisdiction

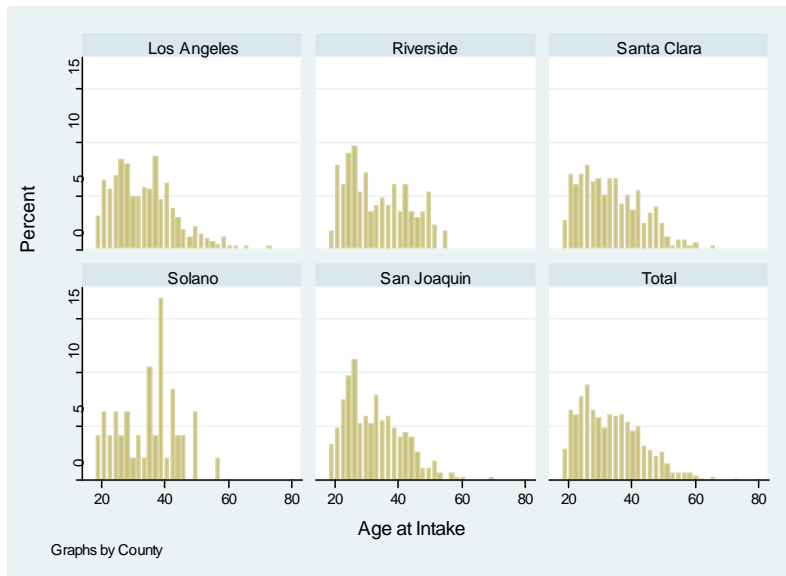
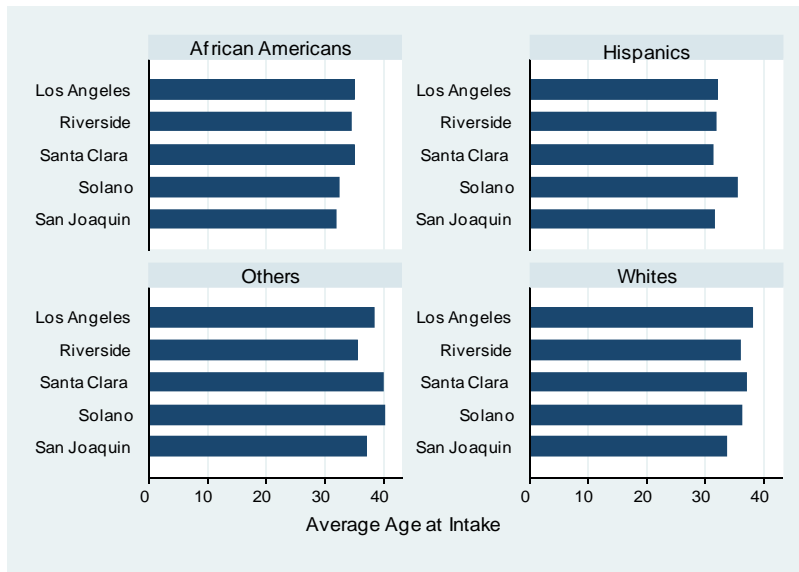


Figure 4-B. Average Age at Intake, by Jurisdiction and Race/Ethnicity

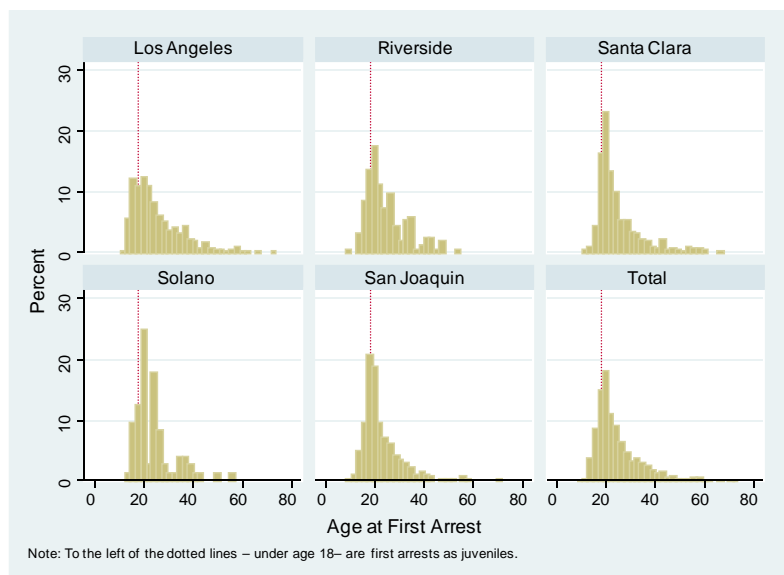


Further analysis reveals that age at intake varies significantly by race/ethnicity groups. Hispanics tend to be younger, with an average age of 32; they are followed by African Americans at 34, whites at 36, and finally “others” at a little over 38. Within each race/ethnicity group, there is also evidence of some variance across the jurisdictions, as shown in Figure 4-B. For example, the average age of African Americans is approximately 32 in San Joaquin, compared with 35 in Los Angeles. There is a similar difference between San Joaquin and Los Angeles for whites, with averages of approximately 34 and 38, respectively. When differences across jurisdictions in racial/ethnic composition are taken into consideration, it is clear that offenders in San Joaquin tend to be younger as a whole, whereas differences in other jurisdictions can be attributed to their different race/ethnicity.

Criminal History and Drug/Alcohol Abuse

Age at first arrest serves as an indicator of an offender’s age for onset of criminal activities. Combined with age at intake, this variable also provides information regarding the length of time that an offender has been engaged in criminal activities.

Figure 4-C. Distribution of Age at First Arrest, by Jurisdiction



From both perspectives—age of onset and length of criminal history—the data reveals some noticeably different patterns across the jurisdictions, as shown in Figure 4-C and Figure 4-D. An analysis of distributional patterns of age at first arrest, as shown in Figure 4-C, indicates that approximately 17 percent of the total sample were first arrested as juveniles (under the age of 18). These juvenile-onset offenders constitute the smallest proportion of the total in Santa Clara County at 9 percent of the total, compared with approximately 15 percent in Riverside and Solano Counties, and slightly over 20 percent in Los Angeles and San Joaquin Counties. Different distributional patterns also exist across the jurisdictions for those whose first arrest occurred over the age of 18—the late-onset offenders—resulting in an overall average age of

approximately 26 in Los Angeles at the highest end, compared with 23 in San Joaquin at the lowest end.

Figure 4-D. Length of Criminal History, by Jurisdiction



Just as differences in offender age at intake across the jurisdictions partly reflect the different racial/ethnic composition of the sample, it is important also to consider race/ethnicity in examining the age at first arrest. African Americans tended to have the first arrest on their criminal record at a younger age than other groups. Using African Americans as the comparison group, Hispanic offenders experienced their first arrest 2 years later, whites 4 years later, and “others” 10 years later than African Americans in the sample.

A complicating factor in the analysis above is related to offenders who recently moved to the country, which may result in incomplete, truncated arrest records available in the DOJ arrest database. If we control for immigrant status by using the flag in the court record that indicates “interpreter needed” as a proxy for recent immigration, then there is no longer any difference between Hispanics and African Americans in age of first arrest. In other words, Hispanics who did not need an interpreter, suggesting that they have been in the country longer than those who did need an interpreter, have a first arrest on their criminal record at about the same age as African Americans in the sample.

The later onset age for “others” is also reduced from 10 to 8 years, again relative to African Americans. Compared within Hispanics and “others,” two subgroups with significant numbers of non-English speakers, the age at first arrest for non-English-speaking Hispanics is approximately 6 years older than for their English-speaking counterparts (28 versus 22), and for non-English-speaking “others” 11 years (39 versus 28). While truncated arrest records could be partly responsible for the differences noted above, it is also reasonable to assume that non-English

speakers are differentiated from their native counterparts by other unobserved characteristics as well, resulting in real differences in criminal history records.

Overall, the length of criminal history for offenders in the sample is approximately 9 years (median of 7 years) for the entire sample, with noticeable differences across the jurisdictions, as shown in Figure 4-D. In all jurisdictions, a substantial proportion of offenders had been in the criminal justice system for a relatively short time, less than one to two years from first arrest to intake. Overall they represent approximately 25 percent of the total, ranging from approximately 20 percent in Solano and San Joaquin to more than 30 percent in Los Angeles (the sum of the first two bars on the left side of each county's histogram). While the offenders in Los Angeles appear to have a shorter criminal history, with offenders in Solano and San Joaquin on the high end, the appearance of the differences again can be attributed to the composition of different race/ethnicity groups and non-English speakers.

Closely correlated to the length of criminal history are the various frequency measures of prior arrests shown in Table 4-A, including counts of all offense types, assaults, domestic violence offenses, drug- and alcohol-related offenses, and felonies. The overall average number of prior arrests including all offense types is close to 7 (median of 5), with significant variances across the jurisdictions. The average arrest counts range from a high of 7.9 in San Joaquin to a low of 5.6 in Los Angeles.

Further breakdown by offense type shows that, on average, approximately half of the prior arrest records consist of assault charges (overall average of 3); approximately 40 percent involving domestic violence charges (overall average of 2, as a subset of the general assault category); and approximately 20 percent related to drug and alcohol charges. The relatively high frequency of prior arrests, along with the diversity of offense types, suggests a profile of chronic offenders whose recent domestic violence offense could be merely an episode in the trajectory of a long criminal career.

Analysis of the full range of prior arrest records (from 1 to 48) also reveals that, despite an overall profile exhibiting characteristics of chronic offenders, for approximately 20 percent of the total sample the offense that led to their current conviction was their first arrest on record of any offense type. Consistent with the analysis above on average prior arrests, offenders with a single prior arrest constitute the largest proportion in Los Angeles at approximately 25 percent of the total, compared with 18 percent in Riverside and approximately 14 percent in the other three jurisdictions.

It is interesting to note that, while it is reasonable to expect older age to be associated with longer arrest records, there is no significant difference across the age groups in the proportion of first offenders. For those under the age of 25 at intake, the proportion of first offenders is slightly higher at 22 percent of the total; for the other age groups of 25 to 30, 30 to 40, and over 40, the relevant percentages are 17, 17, and 19, respectively.

The different patterns of prior arrest records by age groups can be seen most revealingly by box-whisker plots, as shown in Figure 4-E, with different age subgroups shown separately within each jurisdiction. With the horizontal axis representing the number of prior arrests, the box width

represents the dispersion of cases between the first and third quartiles (25th and 75th percentiles) of the samples with respect to their prior arrests; the vertical line within each box represents the median value of prior arrests within each subgroup. The whiskers, stretching out in both directions from the median value, along with dots denoting individual cases extending further beyond the whiskers, provide a measure of outward dispersions and outlier cases—offenders with relatively large or extreme number of prior arrest records relative to the norm within each subgroup.

A few salient observations from Figure 4-E are summarized below:

- The two age groups under 30 are characterized by smaller dispersions (as represented by box width and whisker length) as well as lower median values, in clear distinction from their older counterparts in the two age groups over 30.
- While the dispersions in older age groups stretch out farther into the higher end in the continuum of prior arrest records—indicating an increasingly larger proportion of chronic offenders—there exists a sizable proportion of low-level offenders in all age groups, consistent with the discussion above regarding first-time offenders.
- In terms of greater dispersions of prior arrest frequencies being associated with older age groups, the association appears to be weaker in Los Angeles and Riverside compared with Santa Clara and San Joaquin. In other words, prior arrest frequencies show a stronger positive correlation with offender age in Santa Clara and San Joaquin than in Los Angeles and Riverside, suggesting the existence of some structurally persistent factors contributing to different offender profiles among the jurisdictions.

Figure 4-E. Number of Prior Arrests of All Offense Types, by Age Group and Jurisdiction

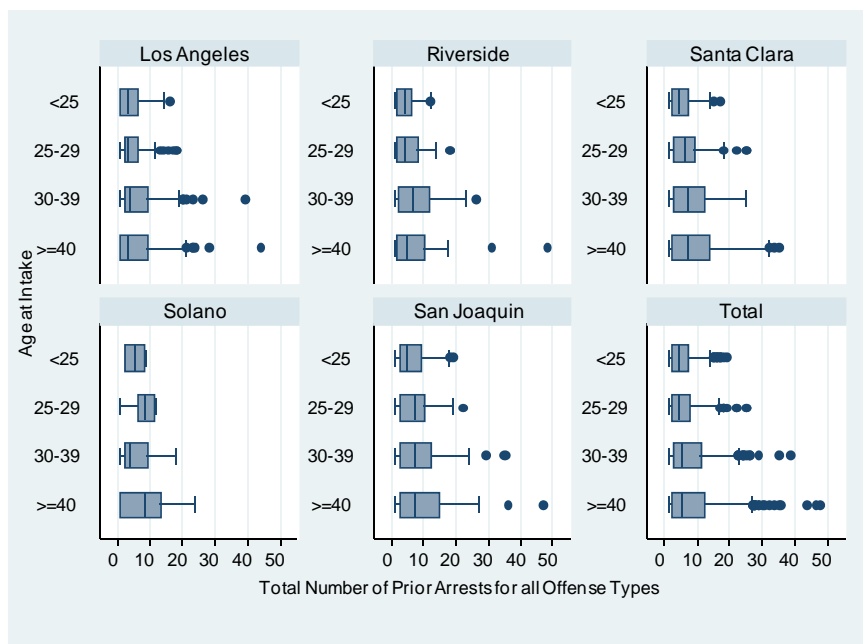
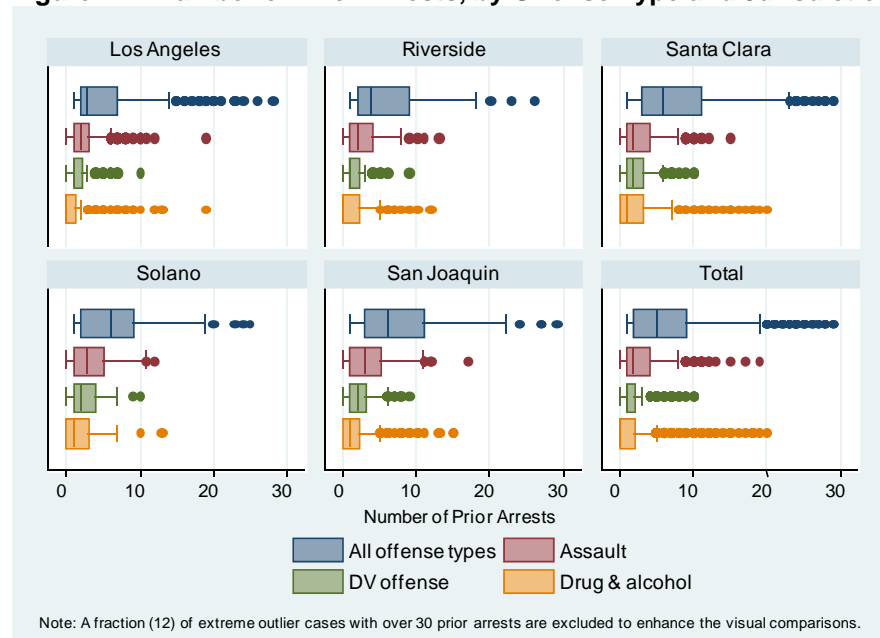


Figure 4-F. Number of Prior Arrests, by Offense Type and Jurisdiction



When the focus of analysis is shifted to specific offense types from total offenses, as depicted above, different patterns of offender profiles persist among jurisdictions. Figure 4-F shows the dispersion of prior arrests by jurisdiction, with offenses grouped into four categories: all offenses, assaults, domestic violence as a subset of overall assaults, and offenses related to drug and alcohol charges. Measured by any of these indicators, offenders in Los Angeles and Riverside consistently show fewer prior arrests relative to Santa Clara and San Joaquin. The different patterns remain unchanged even when controlling for potential confounding factors including race/ethnicity, current age, and non-English-speaking status of the offenders. The offender profile in Solano is relatively more difficult to ascertain because of its smaller sample size.

Drug/Alcohol Abuse as Measured by CAGE Score

An offender’s level of drug/alcohol abuse is closely correlated with arrest history. Higher scores on the drug/alcohol risk-assessment instrument correspond to a greater likelihood of previous arrest. The CAGE assessment, administered at intake, was used to screen for potential drug/alcohol abuse among study enrollees (see Table 4-C).

Table 4-C. CAGE Score, by Jurisdiction

Score	Los Angeles		Riverside		Santa Clara		Solano		San Joaquin		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
0	201	49%	74	46%	122	38%	35	49%	96	47%	528	45%
1	62	15%	24	15%	54	17%	6	8%	29	14%	175	15%
2	71	17%	24	15%	60	19%	13	18%	36	17%	204	18%
3	43	10%	18	11%	48	15%	9	13%	26	13%	144	12%
4	33	8%	20	13%	33	10%	8	11%	19	9%	113	10%
Total	410		160		317		71		206		1,164	
Average Score	1.13		1.29		1.42		1.28		1.24		1.26	

Table 4-C shows that a little less than one half of the study population reported a score of zero on the CAGE assessment, ranging from 38 percent in Santa Clara County to 49 percent in Los Angeles and Solano Counties. A score of one on the CAGE suggests some drug/alcohol abuse while a score of two or greater is considered to indicate a drug/alcohol problem with about 90 percent accuracy. Thus, slightly more than one half of the study population showed at least some signs of possible drug/alcohol abuse while 40 percent of offenders in the study reported a score of two or higher.²

A related indicator of drug/alcohol abuse is whether the study subject is currently or has previously been enrolled in a drug or alcohol treatment program. As part of the intake process, offenders were asked whether they were currently enrolled in a drug/alcohol treatment program or had been enrolled in one previously. Although there is a correlation between higher CAGE scores and higher enrollment rates (see Table 4-D), the substance abuse program enrollment rate seems low for those who self-report most or all of the signs of drug alcohol abuse. For respondents with a CAGE score of 4, the enrollment rates in drug/alcohol treatment programs ranged from a low of 21 percent in San Joaquin to a high of 58 percent in Santa Clara.

Table 4-D. Percent of Offenders Enrolled in Drug/Alcohol Treatment Programs Within Last 12 Months, by CAGE Score and Jurisdiction

CAGE Score	Los Angeles	Riverside	San Joaquin	Santa Clara	Solano	Average
0	3%	4%	4%	8%	11%	5%
1	11%	8%	14%	26%	33%	17%
2	15%	13%	8%	25%	15%	17%
3	26%	22%	38%	38%	44%	33%
4	27%	45%	21%	58%	25%	38%

The co-occurrence of drug/alcohol abuse and domestic violence is a complete topic in itself and is beyond the scope of this research.³ Nevertheless, the self-reported data on the CAGE and the variance across jurisdictions in the proportion enrolled in drug/alcohol treatment programs suggest a number of issues. On one hand, it may indicate the need for enhanced screening of drug/alcohol issues as part of the probation or BIP intake process. It may also signal the difficulty of addressing all treatment needs at once; for some offenders, particularly those trying to maintain stable employment, attending and paying for both a weekly BIP program and drug/alcohol treatment sessions at the same time may be too difficult.

Revised Conflict Tactics Scale 2 (CTS2)

The CTS2 questionnaire (see Appendix C) seeks to measure the extent to which certain behavior and tactics have been used by a couple during a conflict.⁴ The self-administered questionnaire consists of 39 questions,⁵ aligned along five subscales, which attempt to assess a client's behavior in the following areas:

- Negotiation
- Psychological aggression
- Physical assault
- Injury

- Sexual coercion

The CTS2 was administered at program intake to 1,457 study enrollees. Of those, 1,237 surveys contained enough valid responses for analysis; 220 surveys had to be omitted because the respondent failed to answer enough questions pertaining to a subscale to generate a valid score.

Even for the 1,237 cases with “valid” responses that allowed for the calculation of subscale scores, there appears to be considerable suppression effects in the responses, leading to an overall underestimation of the prevalence of abusive behavior among the study subjects. There are likely to be multiple sources responsible for suppression effects in the responses, including social desirability (especially given the intrusive nature of some of the questions) and denial (from both psychological and legal perspectives). Furthermore, the self-administered survey may present considerable cognitive challenges for the respondents—who, as noted above, are generally limited in their educational attainment—that they are likely to exhibit “satisficing” behavior in completing the questionnaire; that is, putting in only minimally required effort in answering the questions. This would further affect the validity of the data.

An analysis of the survey data suggests the existence of suppression effects in the responses. The cross-item variance of responses for each of the subscales was calculated to help determine whether the responses were valid. To illustrate, a respondent who answered every question with “never” was probably not responding honestly, because some questions in a subscale are worded so that a response of “no” or “never” is the desired answer, and some are worded so that an answer of “no” or “never” is a very undesirable response. The variance across each of the subscales was calculated for each respondent. Some variance is expected as a result of the wording of the questions on the survey, so the surveys with little to no variance are probably invalid responses.

As another way to determine whether surveys were filled out truthfully, BIP staff were asked to flag intake materials, including the CTS2 survey, that appeared to be inaccurate. A comment box was provided for program staff to record their observations, such as “client circled zero on all questions” or “client reports he has never been violent in questionnaire but police report indicates [victim] has bruises on both of her eyes/cheeks.” Based on observations made by BIP staff administering the survey, some respondents might have been uncomfortable revealing information about past acts of violence because they mistakenly believed that the information might be used to prosecute them for another crime or could affect the status of their current case.

With these caveats on data limitations, the scores for each subscale were calculated and are shown in Table 4-E. When reviewing these scores it is important to remember that for the negotiation scale, higher scores indicate the reporting of more positive interactions with the partner. For the other four scales, higher scores are associated with more negative interactions.

Table 4-E. CTS2 Scores by Subscale, by Jurisdiction

County	Negotiation**	Psychological Aggression*	Physical Aggression	Injury (of Self) Inflicted by Partner	Sexual Coercion
Los Angeles	57.47	22.22	7.25	2.68	3.32
Riverside	62.91	27.12	7.70	2.30	3.30
Santa Clara	66.05	24.84	5.93	2.19	1.86
Solano	72.14	30.58	7.62	3.05	2.73
San Joaquin	57.97	23.56	7.00	2.02	2.82
Total	61.53	24.35	6.93	2.39	2.79

*Statistically significant differences at 5%; **statistically significant at 1%

The data shows that while respondents were more likely to report acts of psychological aggression against their partners, they were less likely to self-report behavior that resulted in physical injury. This pattern may reflect less willingness on the part of clients to disclose severe forms of abuse or it may indicate that severe forms of abuse are less common among the client population—or both.

CTS2 Prevalence Scores

In order to overcome the likelihood that clients underreport the frequency of abusive incidents, another way to examine the CTS2 data is to convert the five subscales into prevalence scores. Prevalence scores are useful primarily when certain behavior is less common or where there is good reason to believe it is underreported. They represent the proportion of a client population that reports *any* occurrence of abusive behavior as assessed within each CTS2 subscale. Prevalence scores of this kind tend to be much less prone to response bias, and they tend to be more accurate indicators of how common abuse is among the current client group.

Table 4-F displays the prevalence scores for four of the subscales on the CTS2 that assess some form of abuse. Each subscale is also broken into minor and severe DV incidents.

Table 4-F. CTS2 Prevalence Scores, by Jurisdiction

County	Psychological Aggression		Physical Aggression		Injury (of Self) Inflicted by Partner		Sexual Coercion	
	Minor	Severe	Minor	Severe	Minor	Severe	Minor	Severe
Los Angeles	89%	52%	71%	39%	36%	13%	23%	10%
Riverside	88%	59%	64%	40%	41%	11%	20%	5%
Santa Clara	90%	53%	68%	38%	38%	11%	15%	8%
Solano	90%	50%	66%	34%	39%	10%	18%	6%
San Joaquin	87%	57%	63%	36%	33%	9%	15%	9%
Total	89%	54%	67%	38%	37%	11%	19%	8%

The data in Table 4-F suggests the following:

- Only about 10 percent of all respondents denied any abusive incidents at the intake session.
- Minor forms of abuse are more frequently reported than major forms, but it is striking how common some form of abuse is across clients, regardless of county of residence.
- The distribution of most forms of abuse does not vary by county. The exception to this rule can be seen in the sexual coercion scale. For this form of domestic abuse, there are statistically significant differences among county prevalence scores for minor forms of sexual coercion.

Despite these findings, overall the CTS2 data is of relatively limited value in predicting outcomes because of the high likelihood of suppressed responses and the extreme skewed distribution of the data.

Summary

In this chapter we present data on over 1,000 domestic-violence offenders in our sample and examine the profiles of these men. These profiles will serve as controls to ensure the validity of the system-level analysis. We look at three major types of offender data: family relations, socio-economic status, criminal history and alcohol/drug abuse. Two supplemental instruments, the CAGE and CTS2, were also administered to study enrollees to further assess behavior and predict outcomes. Statistically-significant differences were found for certain characteristics across the three types of offender data, though the predictive power of the CTS2 data is low due to response suppression and the skewed distribution of the data. The importance of these offender characteristics becomes more apparent in Chapter 5 where we use the data on individual characteristics as part of the statistical models to evaluate two principal outcome measures: program completion and re-offense.

Endnotes Chapter 4

1. L. W. Sherman and D. A. Smith, "Crime, Punishment, and Stake in Conformity: Legal and Informal Control of Domestic Violence" (1992) *57 American Sociological Review* 680–690.
2. See "Alcohol and Substance Abuse Evaluation," <http://emedicine.medscape.com/article/805084-overview>, Amy Cohagan, Richard Worthington (2007).
3. Lisa Lightman and Francine Byrne, "Addressing the Co-occurrence of Domestic Violence and Substance Abuse" (2005) *Journal of the Center of Families, Children and the Courts* 53-72.
4. Straus, Hamby, Boney-McCoy, and Sugarman (1996).
5. The original CTS and CTS2 questionnaires are designed to measure the behavior of the respondent and the respondent's partner (from the point of view of the respondent). For the purposes of this study, the survey instrument used in the present study included only the questions directed at the respondent.

Chapter 5: Analysis of System Impacts

Introduction

For domestic violence offenders convicted and ordered to attend a 52-week BIP, successful program completion is one key outcome variable. Indeed, a common criticism of the justice system response to domestic violence and of evaluations of BIPs relates to the fact that such a small percentage of offenders actually complete the programs.¹ Program completion, however, is largely a means to an end. The ultimate goals of the criminal sanction, especially participation in a BIP, are to hold the offender accountable and to increase victim safety by preventing re-offense. To analyze the system impacts on domestic violence offenders across jurisdictions, therefore, we focus primarily on two outcome measures: (1) program completion and (2) re-offense. With a somewhat more limited data set we also look at the impact of the BIPs on offenders' attitudes and beliefs.

Program Completion and Termination

Data sources for program completion came from participating BIPs providing updates on their clients' status on a regular basis. One immediate question that presented itself in evaluating the data had to do with the meaning of "program termination." At first glance it appeared that program termination could be treated simply as the opposite of successful program completion. The dichotomy between termination and completion, however, misrepresents the reality in which it is not uncommon to see termination followed by reenrollment—with the possibility of the sequence repeated more than once for some individuals—and subsequently the possibility of successful completion.

Variations across counties and across BIPs in policies and practices with regard to termination, re-enrollment, and whether prior attendances are given credit should all play an important role in determining the offender's ultimate chance of completing the program. Given the varying patterns across the jurisdictions regarding the sequence of termination and reenrollment, it becomes necessary to examine program completion rates in conjunction with termination patterns.

Table 5-A shows the number and percentage of offenders who either completed the 52-week program by the end of data collection in early February 2008 or had a record of having been terminated regardless of whether they were subsequently reenrolled in the program following the termination. The first thing to note in the table is that there are more cases with available data for tracking and analyzing terminations than program completions. This is largely due to cases that had an earlier termination record, but updated information indicated that the offenders were still active in the program as of the end of data collection.²

In general, completion and termination rates across the jurisdictions present a fairly consistent picture: jurisdictions with higher completion rates relative to another jurisdiction tend to show lower termination rates as well. The exceptions are the results in Santa Clara and San Joaquin.

While San Joaquin shows the highest termination rate at 64 percent compared with 55 percent in Santa Clara, there is no significant difference in their completion rates—52 percent in San Joaquin and 50 percent in Santa Clara.

Table 5-A. Program Completion and Termination at End of Data Collection

Jurisdiction	Successful Completion			Termination		
	Total Sample	Number of Completions	Completion Rate	Total Sample	Number of Terminations	Termination Rate
Los Angeles	422	237	56%	471	209	44%
Riverside	145	90	62%	158	65	41%
Santa Clara	376	187	50%	399	220	55%
Solano	86	56	65%	86	35	41%
San Joaquin	227	117	52%	272	173	64%
Total	1,256	687	55%	1,386	702	51%

Note: Without controlling for confounding factors, differences across jurisdictions are statistically significant at 1 percent level for both outcome measures.

In addition to the termination rates shown in Table 5-A as a static, end-point measure, Figure 5-A displays a dynamic picture of the growing proportion of program clients terminated over a span of 400 days from program intake. With the passage of time (represented on the horizontal axis), each client who is terminated from a program at a different time after enrollment adds to the total number of terminations, contributing to the upward movement of the lines depicting the different rates of termination in each jurisdiction.

Figure 5-A. Cumulative Program Termination Rate from Intake to 400 Days

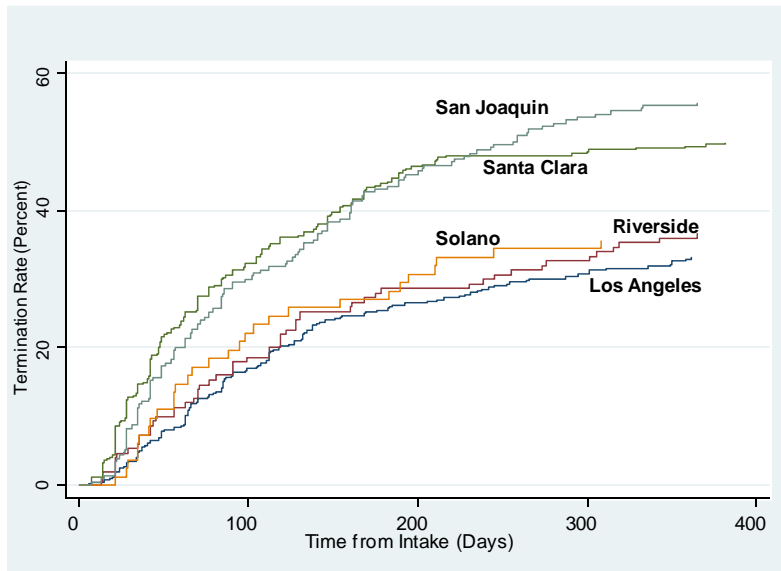


Figure 5-A helps to show how patterns of termination change over time. Although the *final* program outcomes in Santa Clara and San Joaquin vary—as Table 5-A reveals—Figure 5-A shows that the two jurisdictions actually follow a very similar trajectory over a substantial

duration of the follow-up period. It is only approximately 250 days after program enrollment that the patterns of program termination begin to diverge. Survival analysis of the trend lines shows no statistically significant difference between Santa Clara and San Joaquin. The other three jurisdictions (Los Angeles, Solano, and Riverside) show similar paths throughout the entire follow-up period, in clear distinction from the patterns in Santa Clara and San Joaquin.

Descriptive Analysis of Risk Factors

Before delving into the analysis of system impacts or teasing out the relationship between termination and completion, this section provides a descriptive analysis of major risk factors that were found to have a strong correlation with program terminations and completions. The analysis is largely descriptive in nature, as the potential confounding effects of each of the risk factors in interaction with one another are not controlled for. For example, if the data reveals a strong correlation between offender-victim relationship and program completion, this connection might result from the effect of offender age as an intervening factor because offender age is correlated with both offender-victim relationship and program completion. When the potential confounding effect of offender age is controlled for, what was attributed to the positive impact of marital status might prove to be either exaggerated or merely the result of a spurious correlation with offender age.

Similar confounding effects are likely to exist in various other socioeconomic and demographic variables examined in this section. Following this descriptive analysis, the next section discusses results from various regression models in which the issue of confounding effects is specifically addressed. Regression analysis is also the statistical technique employed to address the central questions of the study, including the analysis of system-level impacts and the role of different justice system interventions in the overall system-level impacts.

Risk factors examined in Table 5-B are organized into the following categories, similar to those presented previously in the offender profile section:

- Family relations, including offender relationship with the victim and children;
- Current (as of program enrollment) employment and income level;
- Socio-demographic factors; and
- Criminal history and drug/alcohol abuse.

Relationship with Victim and Children

Without considering possible interactions with confounding factors, Table 5-B shows that an offender has a noticeably higher chance of successfully completing the program if he is living with the victim at the time of program enrollment, if he has children and is living with them, and if the victim is his wife—either current or former—as opposed to a girlfriend. With the difference in program completion between the various comparison groups in the range of 10 to 15 percentage points, the impacts of these family-relations variables appear to be important risk/protective factors, as discussed in Chapter 4, on offender profiles.

Table 5-B. Risk Factors and Program Completion Rate

	Number of Cases	Completion Rate		Number of Cases	Completion Rate
<u>Lives with Victim</u>			<u>Age at Intake</u>		
No	742	51%	<25	254	49%
Yes	467	61%	25 - 29	231	50%
Total	1,209	55%	30 - 39	358	56%
			>= 40	304	63%
<u>Victim Is Wife-- Current or Former</u>			Total	1,147	55%
No	674	48%	<u>CAGE Score (drug/alcohol abuse)</u>		
Yes	540	63%	0	438	57%
Total	1,214	55%	1	147	54%
<u>Lives with Children</u>			2	174	48%
No children	316	51%	3	128	38%
Lives with children	402	63%	4	99	45%
Visits children regularly	301	49%	Total	986	52%
Does not visit children regularly	170	50%	<u>Age at First Arrest</u>		
Total	1,189	54%	<18	186	40%
<u>Lost Job in Past Year</u>			18 - 24	543	52%
No	773	53%	25 - 29	147	63%
Yes	216	44%	30 - 39	160	63%
Total	989	51%	>=40	97	81%
<u>Employment Status</u>			Total	1,133	55%
Employed full-time	472	60%	<u>Total Prior Arrests</u>		
Employed part-time	162	51%	1	210	76%
Not employed	367	41%	2 - 3	258	65%
Total	1,001	51%	4 - 5	161	55%
<u>Income</u>			>=6	506	42%
\$0 - \$4,999	284	48%	Total	1,135	55%
\$5,000 - \$14,999	264	47%	<u>Prior Assault Arrests</u>		
\$15,000 - \$24,999	260	59%	1	443	67%
\$25,000 - \$39,999	211	61%	2	221	57%
>=\$40,000	106	68%	3-4	233	49%
Total	1,125	54%	>=5	238	38%
<u>Education: Some College or More</u>			Total	1,135	55%
No	911	52%	<u>Prior DV Arrests</u>		
Yes	271	62%	1	608	62%
Total	1,182	55%	2	252	53%
<u>Race/Ethnicity</u>			>=3	275	43%
African American	193	39%	Total	1,135	55%
Hispanic	615	60%	<u>Prior Drug Arrests</u>		
White	245	50%	No	559	64%
Other	127	69%	Yes	576	47%
Total	1,180	55%	Total	1,135	55%
<u>Non-English Speaker</u>			<u>Prior Felony Arrests</u>		
No	963	50%	No	122	66%
Yes	293	69%	Yes	1,013	54%
Total	1,256	55%	Total	1,135	55%

Note: Differences across comparison groups in completion rates are all statistically significant at a minimum of 5% level based on ANOVA.

Employment and Income

Consistent with the results associated with family-relations factors above, the financial condition of the offenders as measured by employment status and income appears to point to the positive

impact of a more stable living situation on program completion. Offenders who reported that they were fully employed at the time of program enrollment—about 50 percent of the total sample—had a completion rate of 60 percent. Compared with this group, the program completion rate for those employed only part-time is lower by 9 percentage points. The rate drops by an additional 10 percentage points to 41 percent for offenders who are unemployed, which accounts for approximately 35 percent of the total sample.

A slightly different measure of economic stability—job loss in the past year—shows similar impacts on program completion. Those who experienced recent job loss had a completion rate of approximately 45 percent, again about 10 percent lower than those who did not experience it.

The negative impact of economic disadvantage on program completion is also evident as measured by self-reported income by the offenders. With annual income grouped into five categories, the data suggests a nonlinear income effect, with two relevant threshold points affecting program completion rates. Offenders whose self-reported income fell into the first and second intervals—below \$5,000 per year, and between \$5,000 and \$14,999—had very similar completion rates, approximately 50 percent. As the income of offenders increased in the third and fourth intervals—between \$15,000 and \$24,999 and between \$25,000 and \$39,999—the corresponding completion rate rises by about 10 percentage points, to approximately 60 percent. Those in the highest income group in the sample—above \$40,000, representing about 10 percent of the total sample—had a completion rate of almost 70 percent.

In addition to self-reported income, another proxy measure of income, the amount of fees charged for program attendance, reveals similar impacts on program completion. For those charged less than \$20 per week (about 15 percent of the total sample), approximately 40 percent successfully completed the program, compared with a completion rate of 50 percent for those charged between \$20 to \$25 per week (representing 20 percent of the total sample). For the more than 60 percent of the program clients charged over \$25 per week, the completion rate rises to nearly 60 percent.

The strength of the connection between fees and completion rate varies to some extent among the jurisdictions. The clear exception is Santa Clara County, where the correlation is almost nonexistent at fee levels under \$40. However, the approximately 15 percent of clients in Santa Clara charged over \$40 had a completion rate of 75 percent compared with a rate of about 45 percent for the rest of the clients.

Socio-demographic Factors

Socio-demographic variables that revealed significant correlation with completion rate include education, race/ethnicity, whether the offender is identified as a non-English speaker, and age at intake.

Years of educational attainment, aggregated into two groups (offenders who completed only high school or less and those who attended some college or more), have a strong positive correlation with program completion. There is a 10 percent difference in completion rates between the two groups: 52 percent for high school graduates versus 62 percent for those with some college or more.

A comparison by race/ethnicity shows differences in completion rates ranging from a high of 69 percent for the “other” group and a low of 39 percent for African Americans. Both of these groups account for a minority proportion of the total sample: 11 percent for “others” and 16 percent for African Americans. As the largest group in the sample (slightly more than half of the total), Hispanics completed the programs at a rate of 60 percent. Whites, who make up 21 percent of the total sample, showed a completion rate of 50 percent.

As noted in Chapter 4, on offender profiles, approximately 35 percent of Hispanics and “others” are non-English-speaking, and they appear to exhibit different profiles compared with their English-speaking counterparts. Analysis results of completion rates provide noticeably higher completion rates for non-English speakers. For Hispanics, the difference in completion rates between English and non-English speakers is 12 percentage points: 55 percent for the former and 67 percent for the latter. The difference between the two subgroups for those in the “other” race/ethnicity category is more than 15 percentage points, with 82 percent of non-English speakers completing the program compared with 65 percent of English-speaking offenders.

For the four age-at-intake groups presented in Table 5-B, there is virtually no difference in completion rate between those under the age of 25 and those between 25 and 29; both completed the program at a rate of about 50 percent. The completion rate rises slightly to 56 percent for those between the ages of 30 and 39. For those above 40—representing about one-quarter of the total sample—the completion rate rises further to 63 percent.

Criminal History and Drug/Alcohol Abuse

All measures of criminal history in Table 5-B show a consistently negative impact on completion rate. In general, those with earlier onset of criminal activities and recording a higher number of prior arrests (regardless of offense type) are less likely to complete the program.

Among offenders whose first arrest occurred before the age of 18, only 40 percent completed the program successfully. The completion rate rises to 52 percent for those first arrested between the ages 18 and 24; it rises further to 63 percent for the next two age groups (25 to 29 and 30 to 39). For those who experienced their first arrest over the age of 40, 81 percent completed the program successfully.

With prior arrest records grouped into various offense types, the five different measures for prior arrests in Table 5-B show similar patterns of correlation with completion rate. Without differentiating offense types, data shows that first offenders—those with one prior arrest—completed the program at a rate of 76 percent. In contrast, the completion rate is only 42 percent for those with more than six prior arrests. In between the two groups, it appears two additional priors are associated with a decline of approximately 10 percentage points in completion rate: declining from 76 percent for first offenders to 65 percent for those with 2 to 3 prior arrests, and dropping further to 55 percent for those with 4 to 5 prior arrests. Other prior arrest measures limited to specific offense types—including offenses involving assault, domestic violence, drug, or felony charges—all show similarly strong correlations with program completion rate.

Similar to the predictive power of prior drug arrests in relation to program completion, it is important to note that CAGE scores, as a simple but highly effective tool for initial assessment of drug and alcohol problems, also indicate a strong correlation between drug/alcohol problems and program completion. For approximately 45 percent of the offenders whose CAGE score revealed no clear sign of drug/alcohol issues (score=0), nearly 57 percent completed the program. As the CAGE score rises, suggesting more severe problems with drug and alcohol, the completion rate tends to decline.

Regression Analysis of Program Completion and Termination

Given the correlations between the variables described above and program completion, these risk factors serve as control variables in regression analyses in the following section. To the extent these control variables represent the relevant factors that affect the offender's propensity for program completion, regression models provide a means of answering the central questions of this study.

- Do system impacts vary significantly across jurisdictions?
- Do the impacts vary systematically across programs within jurisdictions?
- To what extent do variances at the program level account for differences in jurisdictional effects?

It is important to note that the term “effect” used in the following discussion should be considered within the context of the study design, specifically, the scheme of comparison in examining different outcome variables. There are comparisons across jurisdictions; there are also comparisons regarding the relative impact from the program versus probation and court supervision at the jurisdictional level. The common element in all comparisons consists of batterers enrolled in 52-week programs and under some form of probation or court supervision. When referring to “program effect,” therefore, the analysis does not attempt to answer the question of whether the programs are working in holding the batterers accountable compared with other intervention strategies in which the offenders are not enrolled in 52-week programs.

Regression Method

Table 5-C shows regression results for *program completion* based on two basic models. These models seek to disentangle the effects of multiple variables operating at different levels—individual offenders with different profiles, BIPs that vary in their policies and treatment models, and the jurisdictional effect of court and probation oversight. Models 1 to 4 use regular regression for handling dependent variables with binary outcomes (yes or no for program completion). In these basic models, program-level effects are treated as an estimation problem related to the fundamental assumptions of regression analysis.³ Without appropriately addressing the interactions between individual offenders and programs in their nested structure, regular regression models may lead to biased or misleading results concerning system-level impacts.

As a base comparison model, model 1 in Table 5-C includes jurisdictions as the only independent variables. This model does not control for any confounding factors at the level of

individual offenders or correct any estimation problems noted above. Models 2 to 4 enhance the base model successively in the following ways by

- improving the accuracy of significance testing (model 2);
- adding a subset of demographic factors to the model to test the stability of the model in response to the inclusion of control variables as well as changes in sample size caused by missing data in control variables (model 3), and;
- presenting a full model with all relevant control variables available included in the model (model 4).⁴

Models 5 to 7 are specified in the same manner as models 2 to 4 with regard to the set of control variables included, but variances at the program level are examined explicitly using a special multilevel regression model.⁵ In addition to estimates of jurisdictional effects (as represented by a series of binary variables), multilevel models also provide an estimate of program-level variances, along with standard errors for testing the statistical significance of the estimate.

Findings from Regression Analysis

Comparison of the various regression models shows there are significant confounding effects that arise from both program- and individual offender-level variables. This can be seen in the steady decline of statistical significance associated with the jurisdiction variables as additional variables are added to the base model in the regular models (2 to 4). The same declining significance can also be seen in the estimates of program-level effects in the multilevel models (5 to 7).

What appear at first glance in Table 5-A to be statistically significant differences in completion rates across the jurisdictions can be attributed largely to some systematic variances across the programs and differences in offender profiles. In other words, these regression models provide no strong evidence that the different intervention strategies at the system level have any impact on BIP completion rates independent of program-level effects and offender profile differences. The only exception is in Solano County, where results suggesting a higher completion rate cannot be explained away by the observable confounding factors included in the models.

Table 5-C. Regression Results for Program Completion

Dependent Variable: Program Completion	Logistic Regression Models				Multilevel Logistic Regression Models		
	(1) [†]	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<i>Jurisdiction (Los Angeles as the base comparison group)</i>							
Riverside	1.277 (1.24)	1.277 (0.79)	1.511 (1.40)	1.498 (1.64)	1.155 (0.32)	1.404 (0.82)	1.456 (1.08)
Santa Clara	0.772 (1.81)	0.772 (1.01)	0.840 (0.66)	0.886 (0.47)	0.991 (0.02)	0.981 (0.06)	0.958 (0.15)
Solano	1.457 (1.53)	1.457 (1.52)	2.007 (1.87)	3.709 (2.61)**	1.896 (1.17)	2.683 (1.91)	3.895 (2.54)*
San Joaquin	0.830 (1.13)	0.830 (0.61)	1.092 (0.30)	1.233 (0.87)	1.076 (0.17)	1.315 (0.71)	1.265 (0.71)
<i>No children as base comparison group</i>							
Lives with children			1.286 (1.54)	1.088 (0.40)		1.331 (1.62)	1.115 (0.50)
Visits children regularly			0.865 (0.98)	0.804 (0.86)		0.957 (0.24)	0.829 (0.85)
Does not visit children regularly			0.884 (0.43)	0.810 (0.59)		0.909 (0.44)	0.806 (0.79)
Education: some college or more			1.607 (2.25)*	1.543 (1.65)		1.693 (3.28)**	1.574 (2.20)*
Victim is wife--former and current			1.551 (3.53)**	1.398 (1.76)		1.456 (2.69)**	1.353 (1.69)
Non-English speaker			2.247 (4.70)**	1.061 (0.32)		2.143 (4.23)**	1.089 (0.35)
<i>Employment Status (employed full-time as base comparison group)</i>							
Employed part-time				1.007 (0.03)			0.975 (0.11)
Not employed				0.785 (1.43)			0.780 (1.33)
<i>Race/ethnicity (African American as base comparison group)</i>							
Hispanic				2.613 (2.93)**			2.717 (3.96)**
Other				1.926 (1.46)			2.014 (1.93)
White				1.629 (1.27)			1.664 (1.88)
<i>Total prior arrests for any offense (single, first offense as base comparison group)</i>							
2-3				0.797 (0.71)			0.768 (0.87)
4-5				0.621 (1.44)			0.601 (1.41)
>=6				0.551 (1.70)			0.540 (1.60)
<i>Total prior arrests for DV offenses (single, first offense as base comparison group)</i>							
2				1.013 (0.07)			1.002 (0.01)
>=3				0.760 (0.95)			0.751 (1.28)
Had prior felony arrests				0.782 (0.83)			0.793 (0.78)
Had prior arrests for drug offenses				0.700 (2.58)**			0.704 (1.79)
Age at intake				1.036 (3.32)**			1.036 (2.82)**
Age at first arrest				0.999 (0.10)			0.998 (0.10)
<i>CAGE Score (0 as base comparison group)</i>							
CAGE = 1				0.953 (0.16)			0.932 (0.30)
CAGE = 2				0.668 (1.88)			0.665 (1.78)
CAGE = 3				0.444 (3.54)**			0.427 (3.27)**
CAGE = 4				0.705 (1.17)			0.700 (1.29)
Program level variance					0.619 (2.64)**	0.424 (2.22)*	0.131 (1.01)
Observations	1,256	1,256	1,143	802	1,256	1,143	802

Absolute value of z statistics in parentheses; * significant at 5%; ** significant at 1%.

[†] In models 2 to 4, Huber-White sandwich estimate of variance is used for robust estimates of standard errors that adjust for intraclass correlations at the level of batterer intervention programs.

Table 5-D. Regression Results for Program Termination

Dependent Variable: Program Termination	Logistic Regression Models				Multilevel Logistic Regression Models		
	(1) [†]	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<i>Jurisdiction (Los Angeles as the base comparison group)</i>							
Riverside	0.876 (0.71)	0.876 (0.42)	0.728 (1.06)	0.763 (1.09)	0.932 (0.17)	0.747 (0.72)	0.778 (0.76)
Santa Clara	1.541 (3.16)**	1.541 (1.89)	1.468 (1.79)	1.344 (1.44)	1.183 (0.48)	1.187 (0.52)	1.222 (0.75)
Solano	0.860 (0.63)	0.860 (0.55)	0.526 (1.37)	0.357 (1.75)	0.641 (0.87)	0.358 (2.00)*	0.339 (2.14)*
San Joaquin	2.191 (5.01)**	2.191 (2.63)**	1.726 (1.95)	1.753 (1.88)	1.902 (1.63)	1.623 (1.30)	1.964 (2.08)*
<i>No children as base comparison group</i>							
Lives with children			0.666 (2.60)**	0.800 (1.08)		0.647 (2.57)*	0.781 (1.18)
Visits children regularly			0.987 (0.12)	1.043 (0.21)		0.889 (0.68)	1.004 (0.02)
Does not visit children regularly			0.981 (0.07)	1.068 (0.22)		0.975 (0.12)	1.079 (0.29)
Education: some college or more			0.604 (2.66)**	0.604 (2.27)*		0.560 (3.83)**	0.577 (2.88)**
Victim is wife--former and current			0.673 (3.61)**	0.756 (1.63)		0.711 (2.58)**	0.772 (1.53)
Non-English Speaker			0.426 (5.63)**	0.812 (1.24)		0.455 (4.60)**	0.797 (0.99)
<i>Employment Status (employed full-time as base comparison group)</i>							
Employed part-time				1.094 (0.46)			1.109 (0.47)
Not employed				1.468 (2.23)*			1.451 (2.10)*
<i>Race/ethnicity (African American as base comparison group)</i>							
Hispanic				0.464 (2.41)*			0.441 (3.37)**
Other				0.544 (1.43)			0.520 (1.90)
White				0.658 (1.22)			0.625 (1.79)
<i>Total prior arrests of any offense (single, first offense as base comparison group)</i>							
2-3				1.510 (1.57)			1.538 (1.55)
4-5				2.052 (2.00)*			2.023 (2.10)*
>=6				2.089 (2.13)*			2.063 (1.98)*
<i>Total prior arrests of DV offenses (single, first offense as base comparison group)</i>							
2				0.960 (0.19)			0.963 (0.18)
>=3				1.267 (0.95)			1.298 (1.20)
Had prior felony arrests				1.068 (0.26)			1.091 (0.31)
Had prior arrests for drug offenses				1.238 (1.73)			1.243 (1.15)
Age at intake				0.972 (2.52)*			0.971 (2.42)*
Age at first arrest				1.001 (0.04)			1.001 (0.09)
<i>CAGE Score (0 as base comparison group)</i>							
CAGE = 1				0.990 (0.04)			1.023 (0.10)
CAGE = 2				1.532 (1.71)			1.534 (1.96)
CAGE = 3				1.820 (2.69)**			1.891 (2.56)*
CAGE = 4				1.320 (0.96)			1.354 (1.14)
Program level variance					0.514 (2.76)**	0.404 (2.42)*	0.128 (1.16)
Observations	1,386	1,386	1,270	892	1,386	1,270	892

Absolute value of z statistics in parentheses; * significant at 5%; ** significant at 1%.

[†] In models 2 to 4, Huber-White sandwich estimate of variance is used for robust estimates of standard errors that adjust for intraclass correlations at the level of batterer intervention programs.

Relying on the same set of regression models but looking now at the impact of these variables on *program termination*, Table 5-D shows a somewhat different dynamic among the multiple levels of independent variables. In particular, results from both the regular and multilevel models indicate a statistically significant higher probability of termination in San Joaquin—in contrast to the lack of any significant difference in offenders’ completion rate in San Joaquin compared with other jurisdictions. In addition, the multilevel model shows that offenders in Solano are significantly less likely to be terminated from a BIP, consistent with the analysis of program completion in the previous model.

As described above, termination as an outcome measure is recorded as any incident of termination during the study period, regardless of the possibility in some cases of subsequent reenrollment and even eventual program completion. Differences across the jurisdictions in the prevalence of these cases may reflect different policies on sanctions against noncompliance.

In jurisdictions with more restrictive policies, a termination record may entail a more severe sanction such as probation revocation or incarceration, making it less likely for a case to reappear in the form of reenrollment and ultimately program completion. In jurisdictions where greater emphasis is placed on keeping offenders in a BIP, termination is less likely to translate into failure to complete the program. These different policy responses to program termination—extending to policies on absence, reenrollment, and credits for prior attendances—are essential to the system-level intervention that may produce the results described above for San Joaquin.

In addition to the different patterns of jurisdictional effects revealed by measures of completion versus termination, offender-level variables included in the regression models also show different patterns of association with the two outcome measures. Variables exhibiting stronger effects on termination, with weaker or no association with program completion, include living arrangements with children, employment status, prior arrest history, and prior arrest for drug charges. More specifically, an offender is less likely to experience termination if he has children and is living with them, is employed full-time, and has a less extensive prior arrest history. Offenders with prior drug arrests, in contrast, have a much lower probability of program completion, though only a slightly greater likelihood of program termination.⁶

Variables that show fairly stable and consistent impacts on both program termination and completion include relationship with victim, education, race/ethnicity, age at intake, and CAGE indicators of drug/alcohol abuse. Hispanics show a substantially higher chance of program completion compared with all other groups; older offenders have a greater chance of completing the program; higher CAGE scores—in particular, over the threshold value of 2—are associated with a lower probability of program completion; and finally, an offender whose victim is his wife (current or former), has a higher chance of completing the program than an offender whose victim is identified as a girlfriend.⁷

Some variables do not reveal any statistically significant impact on either completion or termination, including status as a non-English speaker, prior history of domestic violence arrests, and age at first arrest. The lack of statistical significance for these variables can be partly explained by the presence in the models of other correlated variables with more stable and robust

results. For example, the correlation between prior total arrests and domestic violence arrests is .47, and between the age at intake and age at first arrest .64.

Based on the different modes of analysis above—including descriptive analysis to examine the impact of individual risk factors, two types of regression models to address the nested structure of the multiple levels of interactions among explanatory variables, and survival analysis to trace the trajectory of program terminations over time—the study findings in this section can be summarized as follows:

- Offender characteristics are strongly correlated with the offender’s propensity to comply with program requirements and to complete the 52-week program. Higher risks for failure in the program are associated with offenders who tend to be younger, have limited education, are in a relatively unsettled living condition both economically as well as in terms of family relations, and have an extended history of criminal activities and drug abuse issues. These predictive factors associated with program completion or termination appear consistent with the salient criminogenic factors often cited in the literature for the criminal population in general.⁸
- There is evidence indicating the presence of “program effects,” to the extent that the patterns of both termination and completion exhibit program-level variances, although the nature of these effects remains unspecified and unidentifiable in the models constructed in this study. In fully specified models, the statistical significance associated with program-level effect is substantially reduced. This suggests that the appearance of program effect is to a large extent a reflection of systematic variances of offender characteristics in the programs.
- After controlling for both offender characteristics and program effects, offenders in San Joaquin show a higher propensity for early termination, whereas those in Solano tend to experience a lower rate of termination. Despite their higher risks for early termination, however, San Joaquin offenders are no less likely to complete the program compared with those in other jurisdictions—with the exception of Solano, which shows a higher rate of program completion.

Recidivism

While compliance with various program requirements is a critical component in the overall batterer intervention strategy, the ultimate goal attached to program completion and other conditions of probation is to hold the offenders accountable for their abusive behavior and to prevent them from re-offense in the future. As a proxy for re-offense, this section relies on re-arrest records from the statewide California State Department of Justice database to examine the patterns of recidivism and risk factors associated with them.

With the arrest records categorized into various offense types, Table 5-E presents re-arrest rates for two specific types: (1) arrests of any charges without differentiating offense types and (2)

arrests in which the charge specifies a spouse/partner as the victim. The length of follow-up time is 12 months from program enrollment until the end of data collection in February 2008.

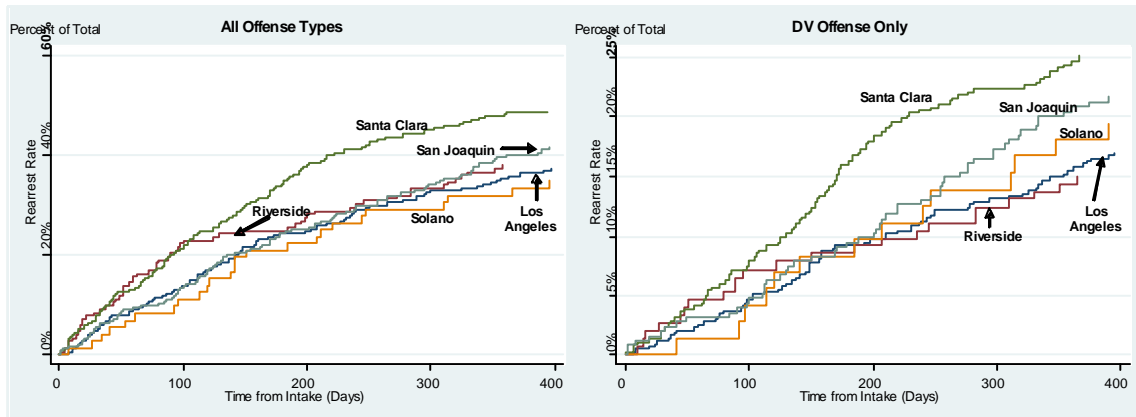
At the level of cross-jurisdictional comparisons alone (i.e., without controlling for confounding factors), Table 5-E shows noticeable differences for both measures of re-arrest. Overall, 40 percent of the study subjects were rearrested within 12 months for various offense types. Re-arrest rates range from 32 percent in Solano to 48 percent in Santa Clara. Of the total re-arrests, approximately one-half are related to domestic violence-specific offenses, leading to an overall domestic violence re-arrest rate of 19 percent.⁹ Here the highest re-arrest rate appears again in Santa Clara, at 25 percent. Following behind is San Joaquin at 21 percent, with the remaining jurisdictions between 15 and 20 percent.

Table 5-E. Re-arrests Within 12 Months After Program Enrollment

Jurisdiction	Total Sample	12-Month Re-arrests for Any Offense		12-Month Re-arrests for DV Offense	
		Number Re-arrested	Percent Re-arrested	Number Re-arrested	Percent Re-arrested
Los Angeles	435	155	36%	69	16%
Riverside	153	58	38%	23	15%
Santa Clara	389	188	48%	96	25%
Solano	72	23	32%	13	18%
San Joaquin	254	102	40%	53	21%
Total	1,303	526	40%	254	19%

Note: Without controlling for confounding factors, differences across the jurisdictions are statistically significant at 1% level for both recidivism measures.

Figure 5-B. Cumulative Re-arrest Rates Within 12 Months After Intake



The divergent trajectory of re-arrest rates among the jurisdictions can be viewed clearly in Figure 5-B which displays the increasing rates of re-arrests throughout the follow-up period. Santa Clara stands out on both measures in its distinct path compared with other jurisdictions. At around 200 days after intake, San Joaquin’s trajectory for domestic violence re-arrests is also showing signs of moving upward away from Riverside, Los Angeles, and Solano and toward Santa Clara.

It is important to note that, while the overall upward movement of re-arrest rates for all offense types show signs of leveling off over time—increasing from 27 percent at 6 months after intake to 40 percent at 12 months, a rate of change of approximately 50 percent over a follow-up period that doubled in length—there is no sign that the domestic violence re-arrest rates are showing a comparable trend. From an overall rate of 11 percent at 6 months after intake, it maintains a nearly constant rate of increase, almost doubling to 19 percent at 12 months after intake.

Descriptive Analysis of Risk Factors

Given the divergent patterns of re-arrest rates across the jurisdictions, it is necessary to examine the impacts of various risk factors associated with offender characteristics before any independent, system-level impacts can be isolated.

Table 5-F presents 12-month re-arrest rates for all offense types broken out by various categories of risk factors. Without accounting for interaction effects among the factors, differences in re-arrest rates across all the analytical categories are statistically significant.

Table 5-G presents the same breakdowns of risk factors but with re-arrests limited to domestic violence–specific charges. While most risk factors reveal similar correlations with the propensity for domestic violence re-arrests, it is worth noting some important differences between the two re-arrest measures.

The following variables all have statistically significant effects on both re-arrest measures, with offenders exhibiting an *increased* risk of re-offense if:

- The victim is not the offender’s wife;
- The offender has lower educational attainment;
- The offender is African American (compared to other groups);
- The offender speaks English (compared to Hispanics and “others” who do not);
- The offender is younger at the time of intake and younger at the time of his first arrest;
- The offender has an extensive prior arrest history including assaults, domestic violence, and drug-related charges.

Risk factors that are highly correlated with re-arrest rates in general but lacking any discernable impacts on domestic violence re-arrest rates include the following:

- Living arrangements with victim and children;
- Employment status, recent experience of job loss, and income;
- CAGE indicator of drug/alcohol abuse; and
- Presence of felony arrests in prior criminal history.

Table 5-F. Risk Factors and Re-arrests for All Offense Types 12 Months After Intake

	Number of Cases	Percent Arrested in 12 Months		Number of Cases	Percent Arrested in 12 Months
<u>Live with Victim</u>			<u>Age at Intake</u>		
No	769	44%	<25	279	51%
Yes	495	35%	25 - 29	261	40%
Total	1,264	40%	30 - 39	398	38%
			>= 40	330	34%
<u>Victim is Wife - Current or Former</u>			Total	1,268	40%
No	698	47%	<u>CAGE Score (drug/alcohol abuse)</u>		
Yes	570	31%	0	466	36%
Total	1,268	40%	1	158	41%
<u>Live with Children</u>			2	179	46%
No children	331	43%	3	137	51%
Lives with children	426	35%	4	108	53%
Visits children regularly	315	46%	Total	1048	42%
Does not visit children regularly	170	40%	<u>Age at First Arrest</u>		
Total	1,242	41%	<18	218	53%
<u>Lost Job in Past Year</u>			18 - 24	635	47%
No	815	40%	25 - 29	166	29%
Yes	240	49%	30 - 39	178	30%
Total	1055	42%	>=40	104	13%
<u>Employment Status</u>			Total	1,301	40%
Full-time employed	491	33%	<u>Total Prior Arrests</u>		
Employed part-time	166	46%	1	236	15%
Not employed	398	51%	2 - 3	295	32%
Total	1,055	41%	4 - 5	182	34%
<u>Income</u>			>=6	590	57%
\$0 - \$4,999	308	42%	Total	1,303	40%
\$5,000 - \$14,999	286	48%	<u>Prior Assault Arrests</u>		
\$15,000 - \$24,999	269	39%	1	494	29%
\$25,000 - \$39,999	213	37%	2	258	41%
>=\$40,000	109	29%	3-4	275	46%
Total	1,185	41%	>=5	276	55%
<u>Education: Some College or More</u>			Total	1,303	40%
No	965	43%	<u>Prior DV Arrests</u>		
Yes	276	29%	1	694	35%
Total	1,241	40%	2	293	45%
<u>Race/Ethnicity</u>			>=3	316	47%
African American	215	49%	Total	1,303	40%
Hispanic	667	37%	<u>Prior Drug Arrests</u>		
Other	133	31%	No	646	32%
White	283	46%	Yes	657	49%
Total	1,298	40%	Total	1,303	40%
<u>Non-English Speaker</u>			<u>Prior Felony Arrests</u>		
No	1023	43%	No	133	25%
Yes	280	30%	Yes	1,170	42%
Total	1,303	40%	Total	1,303	40%

Note: Differences across comparison groups in rearrest rates are all statistically significant at a minimum of 5% level based on ANOVA.

Table 5-G. Risk Factors and Re-arrests for Domestic Violence Offenses 12 Months After Intake

	Number of Cases	Percent Arrested for DV in 12 Months		Number of Cases	Percent Arrested for DV in 12 Months
<u>Live with Victim</u>			<u>Age at Intake**</u>		
No	769	20%	<25	279	26%
Yes	495	19%	25 - 29	261	21%
Total	1,264	20%	30 - 39	398	19%
Victim is Wife - Current or Former**			>= 40	330	14%
No	698	23%	Total	1,268	19%
Yes	570	15%	<u>CAGE Score (drug/alcohol abuse)</u>		
Total	1,268	19%	0	466	18%
<u>Live with Children</u>			1	158	22%
No children	331	21%	2	179	22%
Lives with children	426	19%	3	137	23%
Visits children regularly	315	21%	4	108	24%
Does not visit children regularly	170	14%	Total	1048	20%
Total	1,242	19%	<u>Age at First Arrest**</u>		
<u>Lost Job in Past Year</u>			<18	218	27%
No	815	20%	18 - 24	635	23%
Yes	240	23%	25 - 29	166	11%
Total	1055	20%	30 - 39	178	14%
Employment Status			>=40	104	8%
Full-time employed	491	17%	Total	1,301	19%
Employed part-time	166	23%	<u>Total Prior Arrests**</u>		
Not employed	398	22%	1	236	8%
Total	1,055	20%	2 - 3	295	17%
Income			4 - 5	182	17%
\$0 - \$4,999	308	19%	>=6	590	26%
\$5,000 - \$14,999	286	24%	Total	1,303	19%
\$15,000 - \$24,999	269	18%	<u>Prior Assault Arrests**</u>		
\$25,000 - \$39,999	213	18%	1	494	12%
>=\$40,000	109	15%	2	258	22%
Total	1,185	19%	3-4	275	23%
<u>Education: Some College or More**</u>			>=5	276	28%
No	965	22%	Total	1,303	19%
Yes	276	12%	<u>Prior DV Arrests**</u>		
Total	1,241	19%	1	694	14%
<u>Race/Ethnicity**</u>			2	293	26%
African American	215	27%	>=3	316	26%
Hispanic	667	18%	Total	1,303	19%
Other	133	10%	<u>Prior Drug Arrests*</u>		
White	283	21%	No	646	17%
Total	1,298	19%	Yes	657	22%
Non-English Speaker**			Total	1,303	19%
No	1023	21%	<u>Prior Felony Arrests</u>		
Yes	280	13%	No	133	15%
Total	1,303	19%	Yes	1,170	20%
			Total	1,303	19%

* Statistically significant at 5% level; ** statistically significant at 1 % level.

The fact that many of these non-significant factors capture some important aspects of the offender's socioeconomic status, which under most circumstances are strongly correlated with criminality, suggests the existence of a different set of factors contributing to batterer behavior in a criminal population. The persistence in the rate of domestic violence re-offense as shown in the survival chart (Table 5-B) above appears to point to the same conclusion. While the offender population in this study exhibits many of the characteristics that are typical of chronic offenders generally, their domestic violence may involve a different set of complex factors that are quite distinct from the general criminal population.

Regression Analysis of Recidivism

Having examined the different patterns of re-arrest rates across the jurisdictions as well as their correlations with various risk factors, in this section we apply the same analytical strategy employed in the analysis of program completion and termination to identify system-level impacts on recidivism.

No Clear Evidence of Program Effects on Re-arrest

Regression results for 12-month recidivism are displayed in Table 5-H for re-arrests for all offense types and Table 5-I for domestic violence re-arrests. At the level of system impacts (i.e., program effects and overall jurisdictional effects), analysis results for re-arrests are especially interesting in contrast to the findings on program completion and termination. In the previous section we saw that BIPs appear to exert some systematic impacts on offenders' propensity for program termination and completion, even though the precise impact is unspecified.

In contrast to the effect of programs on completion and termination, there is no clear evidence from various regression models indicating the presence of strong program effects on the likelihood of re-arrests. The lack of a program effect on re-arrest holds for all offense types and for domestic violence offenses. This finding can be seen first by comparing regression models 1 and 2. This pair of models allows for an examination of correlation patterns of model *error terms*, which provide a measure of the underlying robustness and bias of the regression model. Santa Clara shows a statistically significant impact in models 1 and 2 on both measures of re-arrests and, in both cases, is associated with *higher* risks of re-arrest than in other jurisdictions. There is almost no change between the two models in the level of statistical significance attached to these estimated effects. Within the framework of ordinary regression models, this result indicates the underlying stability of the regression error terms unaffected by any *cluster* patterns that might exist across programs.

Further evidence regarding the absence of program effects on re-arrests can be found in the analysis results from multilevel models, in which program-level effects are explicitly modeled to measure the size of their variances as well as the statistical significance of the variances. While differing in terms of the control variables specified in the models, estimates of program-level variance with respect to re-arrest patterns do not produce any significant results in models 5 through 7.

Jurisdictional Effects on Re-arrest

Without statistical evidence of a link between an offender's propensity for re-arrest and the program in which he was enrolled, jurisdictional effects that remain in the model can be attributed to either one of two sources. Jurisdictional effects might still be the result of confounding effects of observable offender profile variables or, after controlling for these individual-level variables, jurisdictional effects may in fact be a result of particular system-level organizational characteristics. In contrast to the analysis results for program completion and termination, the various regression models for re-arrests provide evidence of different patterns of jurisdictional impacts on re-arrest rates.

The regression models for program completion and termination in the previous section show a complex relationship between system impacts on completion and termination. System impacts not only vary by the specific outcome measure examined, but the stability of estimated effects—to the extent the effects are statistically significant at the jurisdictional level—appears to be subject to variations in model specifications. Thus estimated system impacts, as well as the statistical significance for the estimates, may increase or decrease depending on the control variables included in the models and on the specification of a multilevel structure for the models.

Compared with these relatively unstable findings associated with system impacts on program completion and termination, regression results in Table 5-H and Table 5-I provide evidence of statistically significant and stable impacts in Santa Clara in its jurisdictional effect on re-arrest rates. While mediated to some extent by offender profile variables included in different models, offenders in Santa Clara have consistently and statistically significant *higher* risks for re-arrest within 12 months after intake. This finding is consistent for re-arrest for all offense types as well as re-arrest only for domestic violence offenses.

In addition to the jurisdictional effect that we see in Santa Clara across both measures of re-arrest, offenders in Solano have a statistically significant *lower* risk of re-arrest but only on the measure of re-arrests for all offense types and not domestic violence re-offenses. It should be noted also that the evidence of jurisdictional impact in Solano is less robust than the evidence for Santa Clara in that it emerges only after differences in offender profiles have been controlled for in the models.

Table 5-H. Regression Results for 12-Month Re-arrests for All Offense Types

Dependent Variable: 12-Month Rearrests of All Offense Types	Logistic Regression Models				Multilevel Logistic Regression Models		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<i>Jurisdiction (Los Angeles as the base comparison group)</i>							
Riverside	1.103 (0.50)	1.103 (0.56)	0.938 (0.33)	1.112 (0.39)	1.110 (0.48)	0.941 (0.28)	1.131 (0.47)
Santa Clara	1.690 (3.68)**	1.690 (3.04)**	1.655 (2.89)**	1.683 (2.73)**	1.625 (2.88)**	1.635 (2.98)**	1.650 (2.40)*
Solano	0.848 (0.61)	0.848 (0.60)	0.580 (2.10)*	0.335 (2.93)**	0.830 (0.63)	0.577 (1.63)	0.332 (2.08)*
San Joaquin	1.212 (1.18)	1.212 (0.94)	0.943 (0.38)	0.865 (0.84)	1.185 (0.89)	0.941 (0.32)	0.858 (0.65)
<i>No children as base comparison group</i>							
Lives with children			0.889 (0.61)	0.929 (0.35)		0.889 (0.70)	0.928 (0.37)
Visits children regularly			1.266 (1.46)	1.240 (1.09)		1.263 (1.38)	1.236 (1.05)
Does not visit children regularly			0.924 (0.35)	1.015 (0.06)		0.922 (0.39)	1.013 (0.05)
Education: some college or more			0.474 (4.90)**	0.632 (2.16)*		0.470 (4.68)**	0.627 (2.45)*
Victim is wife--former and current			0.548 (4.65)**	0.731 (2.06)*		0.549 (4.55)**	0.728 (1.92)
Non-English speaker			0.613 (3.34)**	1.463 (1.75)		0.618 (2.92)**	1.477 (1.71)
<i>Employment Status (employed full-time as base comparison group)</i>							
Employed part-time				1.335 (1.15)			1.337 (1.34)
Not employed				1.481 (2.43)*			1.481 (2.29)*
<i>Race/ethnicity (African American as base comparison group)</i>							
Hispanic				0.621 (2.20)*			0.616 (2.16)*
Other				0.984 (0.04)			0.978 (0.06)
White				0.885 (0.47)			0.872 (0.56)
<i>Total prior arrests of any offense (single, first offense as base comparison group)</i>							
2-3				3.238 (4.36)**			3.259 (3.84)**
4-5				2.921 (2.94)**			2.945 (3.04)**
>=6				8.309 (5.62)**			8.338 (5.60)**
<i>Total prior arrests of DV offenses (single, first offense as base comparison group)</i>							
2				0.934 (0.36)			0.938 (0.33)
>=3				0.651 (1.94)			0.653 (2.09)*
Had prior felony arrests				1.428 (1.30)			1.419 (1.16)
Had prior arrests for drug offenses				0.886 (0.70)			0.883 (0.69)
Age at intake				0.972 (2.48)*			0.972 (2.46)*
Age at first arrest				0.990 (0.70)			0.990 (0.69)
<i>CAGE Score (0 as base comparison group)</i>							
CAGE = 1				1.005 (0.02)			1.014 (0.06)
CAGE = 2				1.572 (2.33)*			1.576 (2.14)*
CAGE = 3				1.301 (1.03)			1.312 (1.15)
CAGE = 4				1.239 (0.88)			1.244 (0.86)
Program level variance					0.000 (0.00)	0.000 (0.00)	0.000 (0.00)
Observations	1,303	1,303	1,202	941	1,303	1,202	941

Absolute value of z statistics in parentheses; * significant at 5%; ** significant at 1%.

† In models 2 to 4, Huber-White sandwich estimate of variance is used for robust estimates of standard errors that adjust for intraclass correlations at the level of batterer intervention programs.

Table 5-I. Regression Results for 12-Month Re-arrests for Domestic Violence Offenses

Dependent Variable: 12-Month Rearrests of DV Offenses	Logistic Regression Models				Multilevel Logistic Regression Models		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<i>Jurisdiction (Los Angeles as the base comparison group)</i>							
Riverside	0.938 (0.24)	0.938 (0.31)	0.812 (1.08)	0.854 (0.85)	0.938 (0.24)	0.812 (0.76)	0.854 (0.52)
Santa Clara	1.738 (3.14)**	1.738 (3.25)**	1.627 (2.93)**	1.558 (2.48)*	1.738 (3.14)**	1.627 (2.57)*	1.558 (1.96)*
Solano	1.169 (0.47)	1.169 (0.49)	0.856 (0.63)	0.484 (1.69)	1.169 (0.47)	0.856 (0.39)	0.484 (1.24)
San Joaquin	1.399 (1.66)	1.399 (1.54)	1.080 (0.40)	0.948 (0.25)	1.399 (1.66)	1.080 (0.35)	0.948 (0.21)
<i>No children as base comparison group</i>							
Lives with children			1.059 (0.29)	1.025 (0.11)		1.059 (0.29)	1.025 (0.11)
Visits children regularly			1.014 (0.07)	0.961 (0.17)		1.014 (0.07)	0.961 (0.17)
Does not visit children regularly			0.546 (2.57)*	0.495 (2.61)**		0.546 (2.17)*	0.495 (2.10)*
Education: some college or more			0.412 (4.04)**	0.510 (2.59)**		0.412 (4.11)**	0.510 (2.81)**
Victim is wife - former and current			0.621 (3.11)**	0.869 (0.73)		0.621 (2.88)**	0.869 (0.72)
Non-English Speaker			0.556 (3.80)**	0.935 (0.31)		0.556 (2.76)**	0.935 (0.24)
<i>Employment Status (employed full-time as base comparison group)</i>							
Employed part-time				1.079 (0.32)			1.079 (0.30)
Not employed				0.981 (0.11)			0.981 (0.10)
<i>Race/ethnicity (African American as base comparison group)</i>							
Hispanic				0.553 (2.78)**			0.553 (2.36)*
Other				0.460 (1.85)			0.460 (1.84)
White				0.689 (1.59)			0.689 (1.36)
<i>Total prior arrests of any offense (single, first offense as base comparison group)</i>							
2-3				2.647 (2.76)**			2.647 (2.49)*
4-5				2.194 (1.68)			2.194 (1.75)
>=6				3.700 (2.30)*			3.700 (2.85)**
<i>Total prior arrests of DV offenses (single, first offense as base comparison group)</i>							
2				1.526 (1.79)			1.526 (1.91)
>=3				1.418 (1.28)			1.418 (1.49)
Had prior felony arrests				1.013 (0.04)			1.013 (0.04)
Had prior arrests for drug offenses				0.802 (1.26)			0.802 (1.08)
Age at intake				0.961 (2.50)*			0.961 (2.89)**
Age at first arrest				1.011 (0.54)			1.011 (0.59)
<i>CAGE Score (0 as base comparison group)</i>							
CAGE = 1				1.234 (0.82)			1.234 (0.83)
CAGE = 2				1.511 (1.61)			1.511 (1.68)
CAGE = 3				1.152 (0.55)			1.152 (0.51)
CAGE = 4				1.297 (1.10)			1.297 (0.89)
Program level variance					0.000 (0.00)	0.000 (0.00)	0.000 (0.00)
Observations	1,303	1,303	1,202	941	1,303	1,202	941

Absolute value of z statistics in parentheses; * significant at 5%; ** significant at 1%.

[†] In models 2 to 4, Huber-White sandwich estimate of variance is used for robust estimates of standard errors that adjust for intraclass correlations at the level of batterer intervention programs.

In addition to the presence or absence of impacts at the program and jurisdiction level, regression results for offender profile variables included in the various regression models reveal patterns fairly similar to those presented in the descriptive analysis of individual risk factors in the previous section. In general, these variables are better predictors of re-arrests for undifferentiated offense types than as predictors of re-arrests for domestic violence offenses. Variables with a statistically significant impact on both re-arrest measures include education, race/ethnicity, total prior arrest history, and age at intake. Specifically, offenders in the sample have a lower propensity for re-arrest if they have some college education or more; are of Hispanic descent; have fewer prior arrests; and are older at the time of intake.

Risk factors that are significantly associated with re-arrests in general but lacking strong correlations with domestic violence re-offenses include offender relationship with the victim, employment status, and CAGE indicator of drug/alcohol abuse. It is worth noting that the variables that are the best predictors of re-arrests for all offense types rather than domestic violence offenses are also variables that exert a greater impact on termination than on completion in the regression models examining program termination and completion. This suggests the possibility that early termination from the programs and the overall propensity for re-arrests could be driven by a similar set of risk factors.

Many variables that did not show any significant impact on program completion or termination previously have similar results in the regression models for re-arrests. These include prior arrests on felony charges, prior arrests on drug/alcohol charges, and age at first arrest. The same reason presented above explaining their lack of statistical significance— i.e., the effect of a “weaker” variable being diminished when correlated with other variables with more robust effects— appears to be applicable here as well.

In addition to the variables examined above showing different impacts on the two re-arrest measures, there are two variables in the models that produced somewhat unexpected results: prior arrest history of domestic violence charges and offender’s relationship with children. For prior arrests on domestic violence charges, the correlation of that variable with overall prior arrest history is expected to reduce its predictive power in the models—or when its predictive power is unaffected by other correlated variables, it is expected to reveal stronger association with re-arrests for domestic violence offense than with the overall, undifferentiated re-arrest measure. The analysis results show that, compared with offenders who have only one prior arrest for domestic violence charges, those with three or more domestic violence prior arrests have a *lower* propensity for re-arrest of any offense type, other factors being controlled for. With regard to domestic violence re-arrests, there is a marginally significant impact (less than 90 percent confidence level) associated with *increased* risks for those with two prior arrests on domestic violence charges.

Previous analysis of an offender’s relationship with his children and program termination or completion suggests that compared with childless offenders, those who have children and are living with them have a better chance of completing the program (with marginal statistical significance) and a lower chance of being terminated from the program (with substantially larger statistical significance). In fully specified models, however, the statistical impact of this variable

is almost completely overtaken by other relevant socioeconomic variables with more robust effects. In regression models for re-arrest on domestic violence charges, offenders who have children but maintain irregular contact with them reveal consistently lower risks of domestic violence re-arrest than offenders who don't have children. With this factor showing persistent effects in various models specified with different control variables, it is not clear as to the nature this connection. In contrast to its impact on domestic violence re-arrests, an offender's relationship with his children reveals no statistical connection to the overall propensity for re-arrests.

Summary of Findings

To summarize the findings presented above regarding jurisdictional and program impacts on program completion, program termination, and recidivism, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- Batterer intervention programs tend to exert an independent influence on an offender's probability of maintaining continuous attendance (allowing for absences of varying degrees) in the program and ultimately successfully completing the 52-week program.
- When variances in offender characteristics across the programs are controlled for, program effects on both termination and completion are reduced substantially;
- While variances in completion and termination across the programs reflect different characteristics of the offenders who tend to enroll in specific programs, there is no evidence indicating any systematic variance across the programs in their clients' propensity for re-arrest.
- After accounting for individual- and program-level variances, jurisdictional differences remain persistent in both program outcomes and re-arrest rates.
 - Looking at system-level variance in program outcomes, offenders in San Joaquin exhibit higher risks for termination. Completion rates for offenders in San Joaquin, however, are no worse than those in other jurisdictions with the exception of Solano. In Solano, offenders in the sample are less likely to fail in the program with an early termination and more likely to continue through the end to complete the 52-week program;
 - Looking at system-level variance in re-arrest rates across the jurisdictions, offenders in Santa Clara show a persistently higher risk of re-offense while offenders in the sample in Solano showed a lower risk for re-offense.

While the different levels of statistical analysis presented clear answers on many questions, in particular with regard to the presence or absence of system impacts at the level of programs and jurisdictions, many questions remain unanswered. For example, the higher risks for re-arrests associated with offenders in Santa Clara are clearly shown in the regression models; they cannot be attributed to differences in either offender profiles or program characteristics in Santa Clara compared with other jurisdiction, as these potential confounding factors have been incorporated into the analysis.

Santa Clara is generally known for its close coordination among the justice system partners; however, this analysis does not provide an answer about the specific components of the system

or the causal mechanisms through which the particular intervention strategy adopted in the jurisdiction has led to higher re-arrest rates.

We should also point out that, from an analytical, modeling perspective, statistical findings are inherently constrained by the adequacy of the models in terms of observable confounding factors included in the models as controls as well as the underlying validity and accuracy of measurements for these control variables. To the extent measurement problems that might exist in some variables (such as the accuracy of the CAGE scores, or the potential undercounting of prior arrest records as a true measure of *actual* incidents of criminal activities) are randomly distributed across the various analytical categories, they should not lead to biased results within the regression analysis framework.

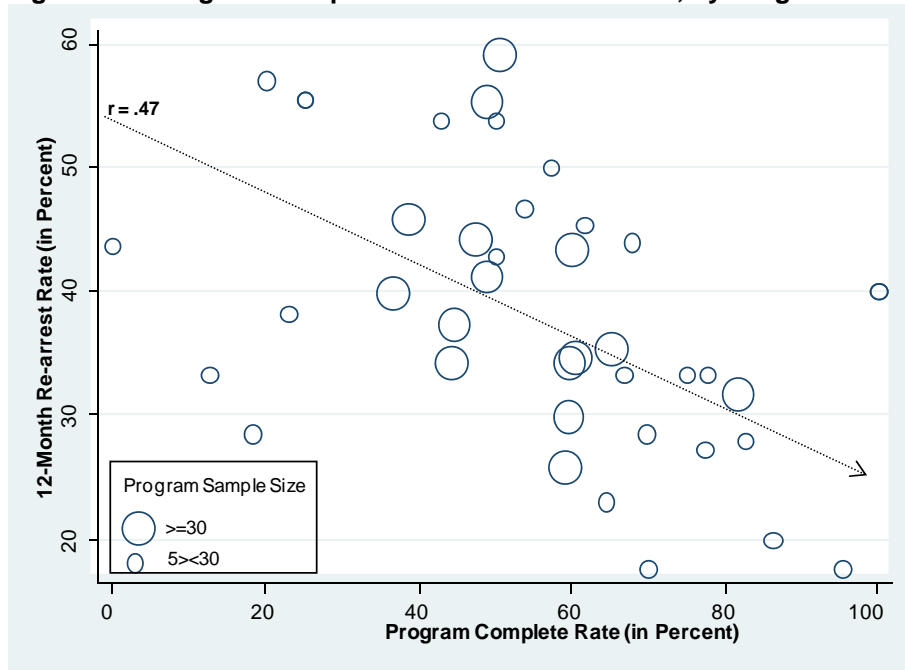
The bigger issue in a quasi-experimental design such as this study has to do with the adequacy of the models in fully capturing the factors that might affect the outcome variables examined in various models—the problem of omitted variables or underspecified models.¹⁰ We pointed out in the analysis of offender profiles that offenders in Santa Clara—and similarly those in San Joaquin—tend to exhibit greater prevalence in various risk factors often associated with chronic offenders, whether measured by socio-demographic and economic factors, patterns of family relations, or criminal history variables. While these control variables are highly predictive of the various outcome variables examined, thus *explaining away* some variances associated with jurisdictional effects, a substantial portion of the outcome variances remains *unexplained* owing to relevant variables that are unavailable, measured with questionable validity (such as Conflict Tactics Scale 2, or CTS2, scores gathered for this study) or simply unobservable. It is therefore plausible to assume that, given a more fully specified model consisting of more pertinent, predictive variables in relation to offenders' propensity for re-offense behavior, Santa Clara's higher re-arrest rate could be further explained away by confounding factors currently not controlled for in the models.

Relationship Between Program Completion and Recidivism

Having discussed the methodological limitation of the study, and in the absence of additional explanatory variables to augment the predictive models, we turn here to an examination of the relationship between program completion and re-arrest rates. This evaluation may shed some light on the different patterns of interactions among different system players in their efforts to hold batterers accountable.

One major challenge of modeling the relationship between program completion and re-arrest is the fact that these two events do not always sequence consecutively. In other words, re-arrest might occur before or after program completion and may or may not be directly linked to one another. As a result, any interaction that might exist between the two is not amenable to a clearly delineated causal model. At the aggregate level, however, one can examine completion and re-arrest rates by program.

Figure 5-C. Program Completion and Re-arrest Rates, by Program

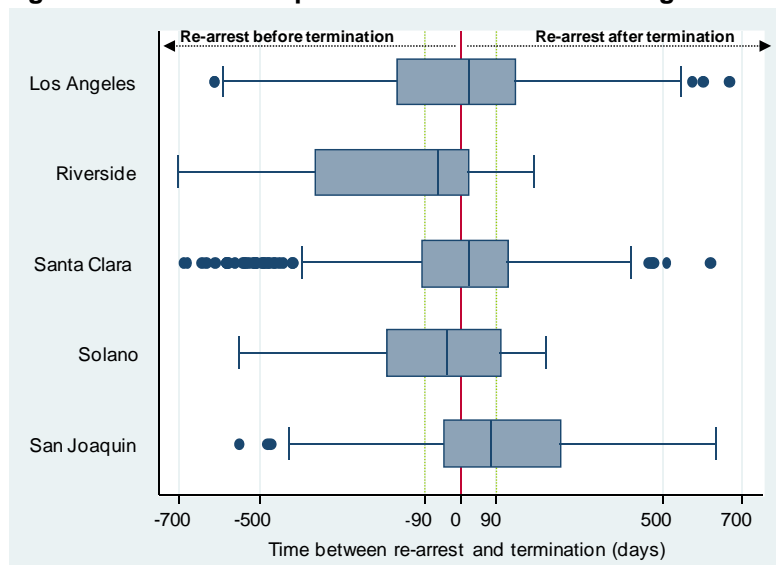


In Figure 5-C, each data point represents a batterer intervention program, with program sample size differentiated by the size of the circle. The horizontal axis represents program completion rate and the vertical axis represents re-arrest rate for any offense within 12 months after intake, with both rates measured at the aggregate program level.

The dispersion pattern of the data points, clustered loosely around the downward-sloping line, indicates the existence of some correlation between the two outcome measures, valid for both large and small programs. The inverse relationship means that a program with a lower re-arrest rate (moving downward on the vertical axis toward zero) is likely to see a larger percentage of its clients completing the program (moving farther to the right on the horizontal axis). The correlation is a modest one—the correlation coefficient of .47 between the two indicates that approximately 25 percent of the change in one variable can be explained by change in the other variable. However, this correlation suggests a series of causal chains, from offender’s risk factors to propensity for re-arrest and other forms of probation violation to program termination and program completion, that constrains the performance of a program.

To be sure, the causal chain represents merely a probabilistic model of how different factors might be connected to one another under normal circumstances. In response to the observed causal connections—subject to different interpretations of their meaning— different strategies, policies, and practices at different levels of the system nevertheless have sufficient room for discretionary actions to intervene and shape the interaction among different factors. An analysis of the timing of re-arrests in relation to program termination may provide some insights about the interaction between these two events as well as the different actions taken by the justice system partners in response to re-offenses committed by the offenders.

Figure 5-D. Relationship Between Re-arrest and Program Termination



The box-whisker plots in Figure 5-D display the timing of re-arrests in relation to the timing of program termination, which is represented by the vertical line at zero (days). To the left of that vertical line are re-arrests prior to termination from the program, and to the right are re-arrests after termination.

Re-arrests prior to termination, particularly those shortly before termination, may constitute causes for termination. In a different scenario, an offender may fail to show up for multiple consecutive sessions, which could lead to his termination from the program, following which he may reoffend. While the termination and re-arrest described in this scenario are related, they are certainly not linked to one another in a narrow causal sense; cases falling into this scenario are represented to the right of zero days.

With 50 percent of the cases in each jurisdiction represented by the box width, there appear to be significant variances in the timing of re-arrest and termination. The dispersion patterns in Riverside and San Joaquin present a mirror image of each other, with the majority of cases in Riverside (68 percent) rearrested before termination from program, and almost the same proportion in San Joaquin (67 percent) rearrested following termination. In Santa Clara and Los Angeles, re-arrests are fairly evenly distributed in relation to program termination with narrow majorities (56 and 58 percent respectively) of those who were re-arrested having already been terminated from program. In contrast, in Solano a majority (59 percent) of offenders who were re-arrested had not yet been terminated from program.

It is not clear how (or even whether) the different patterns depicted in Figure 5-D have any bearing on the overall jurisdictional effect discussed above. The varying prevalence of post-termination re-arrests may result directly from the different forms of sanctions implemented in individual jurisdictions, varying in the efficacy of their deterrence effect in holding offenders accountable. These patterns appear to point to system-level differences that may not be captured in the regression analysis of outcomes.

Changes in Beliefs and Attitudes

The outcome measures examined so far, including program completion and termination as well as re-arrest, are proxy measures of behavioral changes critical to the intervention strategy for domestic violence offenders. According to the logic model described in Chapter 1, Figure 1-A, behavioral changes resulting from system interventions and program participation may at some level be accompanied (or preceded) by psychosocial changes in offenders' beliefs and attitudes. Theoretically, psychosocial changes as measured by the pre- and post-BIP Process Survey could be incorporated into the full model to examine the causal path connecting program effects to psychosocial changes and to behavior changes.

As noted in Chapter 1, however, there are substantial gaps in the data collected for this instrument. When pre- and post-survey responses are matched by individual offenders at the final stage of data collection, only about 15 percent (233 offenders) of the entire sample have complete data available for measuring pre-post changes. Because of the small sample size as well as the potential sample selection bias, limited analysis of the data is presented, with the results shown in Table 5-J; a graphic display of the different patterns of the pre-post changes for the five subscales appears in Figure 5-E.

Table 5-J. Pre-Post Changes of BIP Process Survey

Sample Size	Personal Responsibility			Power and Control			Understanding the Effect of Abuse on Others			Dependency			Anger Management			
	Pre	Post	Change	Pre	Post	Change	Pre	Post	Change	Pre	Post	Change	Pre	Post	Change	
Los Angeles	74	4.59	4.72	0.13	4.67	4.78	0.12	3.12	3.34	0.23	4.39	4.55	0.16	4.43	4.60	0.16 *
Riverside	30	4.28	4.59	0.31 *	4.66	4.82	0.16	3.28	3.40	0.12	3.99	4.24	0.26	4.46	4.54	0.09
Santa Clara	90	4.89	5.19	0.30 **	4.49	4.84	0.35 **	3.78	4.42	0.64 **	4.27	4.53	0.25 **	4.68	4.79	0.12 *
San Joaquin	32	4.56	4.87	0.31 **	4.62	4.76	0.14	3.28	3.59	0.31 *	4.32	4.52	0.20 *	4.45	4.68	0.23 *
Total	226	4.68	4.91	0.24 **	4.59	4.80	0.20 **	3.41	3.79	0.38 **	4.29	4.50	0.21 **	4.55	4.68	0.14 **

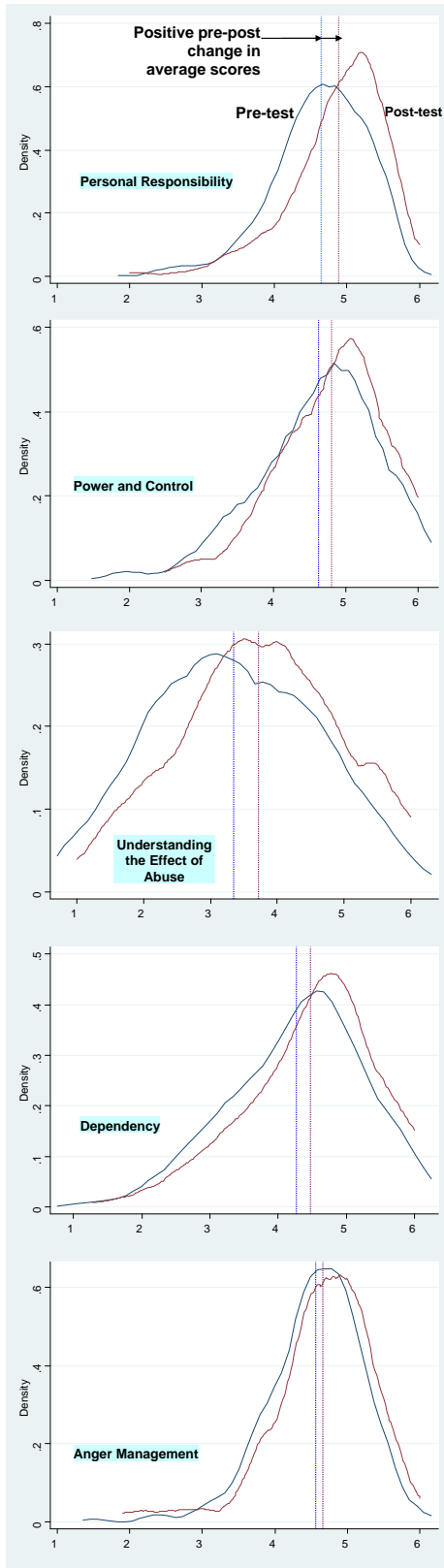
Note: BIP Process Survey not administered in Solano County due to small overall sample size.

* Statistically significant at 5% level, ** statistically significant at 1 % level, based on one-tailed t-test.

Ranging in values from 1 to 6, Table 5-J shows the five subscale scores from both the pre- and post-surveys, as well as the differences between the pre- and post-scores; due to its small sample size (seven cases with available data), results for Solano are not shown in the table. As higher scores associated with each subscale are deemed more desirable, positive changes measured by the instrument would lead to higher scores in the post-survey results. With varying degrees of statistical significance—some inevitably affected by small sample sizes, pre-post differences reveal positive changes, *on average*, in all five subscales and across all jurisdictions.

Overall, the subscale measuring the offenders' capacity for understanding the negative impact of their abusive behavior on others—closely related to the concept of empathy—shows the largest positive change, in particular for offenders in Santa Clara, where the average increases from 3.8 to 4.4. On the other hand, the anger management subscale, one of the topics covered commonly in the BIP curricula, shows relatively small positive changes. The other three subscales—measures of personal responsibility, power and control, and dependency—show similar levels of modest changes.

Figure 5-E. Pre- and Post-BIP Process Survey



In connection with the relative size of pre-post changes for the five subscales, Figure 5-E further shows differences in their underlying distribution patterns. It appears that three subscales—personal responsibility, power and control, and dependency—share similar characteristics, with the distribution curves skewed to the left. The empathy subscale (understanding the effect of abuse) approximates a normal curve in its distribution. Anger management also displays a normal curve but with a much narrower dispersion, suggesting greater homogeneity in the responses compared with the other subscales.

Comparisons across jurisdictions show no statistically significant differences for any of the subscales except for the empathy subscale, where respondents in Santa Clara appear to show significant change relative to other jurisdictions.

Summary

In this chapter we examined offender outcomes in terms of two principal measures: program completion and re-arrest. Attendance records for each offender enrolled in the study were analyzed to discern patterns in attendance, absences, and termination. We also identified offender characteristics that were strongly correlated with program termination and completion. Those risk factors were used as control variables in various regression analyses that were used to try to answer the central questions of the study: whether system impacts vary significantly across the jurisdictions; whether the impacts vary systematically across BIPs within a jurisdiction; and, whether program level variance accounts for differences in jurisdictional effects. Finally, we evaluated the findings of the BIP process survey which was administered to study enrollees at intake and just prior to program completion to attempt to measure psychosocial changes in offenders resulting from program enrollment. The next chapter summarizes the major findings of this study and discusses the implications of those findings for policy and future research.

Endnotes Chapter 5

- 1 See *Keeping the Promise: Victim Safety and Batterer Accountability*, Report to the California Attorney General from the Task Force on Local Criminal Justice Response to Domestic Violence (June 2005), p. 63; and *Batterer Intervention Programs: County Probation Departments Could Improve Their Compliance with State Law, but Progress in Batterer Accountability Also Depends on the Courts*, California State Auditor, Bureau of State Audits (November 2006), pp. 22–24.
2. Since a case would not be included in the sample for the calculation of completion rate if updated records indicated that the offender was still in the program, updated information available from programs, to the extent it varies among them, would likely affect the validity of the analysis. Therefore, an analysis of program intake and completion dates was conducted to examine the length of follow-up time across the jurisdictions. No evidence was found that suggests the existence of systematic sampling biases that would threaten the validity of program completion comparisons.
3. More specifically, the estimation problem concerns the error terms in regression models. In classical linear regression models, when error terms are correlated systematically—in the current context, across individuals within the same program—the assumption of constant variance of the error term is violated, leading to biased estimates of standard errors.
4. In testing and constructing various models, the process involves selecting control variables to assess their interactions (collinearity) as well as determining the appropriate forms of their measurements, such as transformation of a continuous scale to categories to evaluate the existence of nonlinear, threshold effects. Stability of the models is also assessed in response to the different patterns of missing data, depending on different sets of variables included in the models. Appendix L provides regression results for the same models discussed in this chapter, but in each table the analysis samples are restricted to the same sample sizes. Sample size restrictions changed to different degrees the coefficient estimates and significance levels for some variables. They do not, however, affect the substantive findings of the study.
5. Generalized Linear Latent and Mixed Models (GLLMM) implemented in Stata, a program created by Sophia Rabe-Hesketh. See S. Rabe-Hesketh and A. Skrondal, *Multilevel and Longitudinal Modeling Using Stata* (2008), Stata Press.
6. It is likely that the different predictive power of the two measures of prior arrest history is caused by the significant correlation between the two variables. With a correlation coefficient of .74—a measure of quantitative association between two variables, ranging in values from 1 for perfect correlation to 0 for no relationship at all, the stability of the results could be affected by sample size and the presence of other collinear variables in the models.
7. These variables are also correlated with program termination but in the reverse direction.
8. David P. Farrington, “Predicting Individual Crime Rates” (1987) 9 *Crime and Justice* 53–101.
9. With offense types expanded to include all crimes against persons, the overall re-arrest rate increases to 23 percent. This does not suggest, however, that only 4 percent (23 minus 19) had committed an assault offense in which the victim is not specifically identified as either spouse or partner, as the re-arrest measures are created based on the first instance of re-arrest occurring after intake without accounting for possible re-arrests of other offense types during the subsequent follow-up period.
10. Edward Leamer and H. Leonard, “Reporting the Fragility of Regression Estimates” (1983) 65 *Review of Economics and Statistics* 306–317.

Chapter 6: Policy Issues and Research Implications

Introduction

Domestic violence represents both a serious criminal justice and public health problem. While the offenders in our sample are not representative of men who commit domestic violence in the population at large, they do possess many of the same characteristics that are typical of the population caught up in the criminal justice system more generally: low levels of educational attainment, marginal employment, minority status, prior criminal history, and a tendency for drug and alcohol abuse. The crimes committed by the men in the sample are unique, however, because they involve an intimate partner—someone with whom the offender often has an ongoing relationship that may include cohabitation, shared responsibilities for raising children, and/or co-mingled finances.

In part because of the special relationship between the offender and the victim in domestic violence cases, the criminal justice system has struggled to find an appropriate response. Current policy embodied in Pen. Code §1203.097 represents an effort by lawmakers to correct past failures of the justice system to recognize the severity of the problem of domestic violence and to hold offenders accountable. This policy represents a combination of both deterrence and rehabilitation: sanctions against offenders for failure to comply with terms of probation as deterrence and educational programs for rehabilitation. It remains unclear how effective either component of the policy is in achieving the ultimate goals of holding offenders accountable and increasing victim safety.

In this study, our conceptual framework incorporates multiple levels of variance, from the different characteristics of individual offenders to programs differences and system level variables, especially different forms of intervention by probation and the courts. Measurements of variance at each of these levels are based on different approaches that are largely determined by our ability to identify, define, and capture the relevant data.

We collected an extensive amount of data from multiple sources at the level of individual offenders, including both legal and extralegal variables. At the level of batterer intervention programs (BIPs), differences in program characteristics are measured by an “inventory” survey that describes various program philosophies, curriculum topics, and treatment approaches and practices. In terms of probation or court supervision of offenders, both the proportion and frequency under either form of supervision are measured across the jurisdictions.

When we created statistical models to examine the relative efficacy of different modes of intervention/monitoring strategies, for various reasons we were not able to incorporate all quantitative measures into the models. The limited set of factors included in the empirical statistical analyses necessarily leads to a simplified representation of reality. Jurisdictional comparisons are based on broad categories, without their constituent elements decomposed and connected to the relevant outcome measures. We treated differences in program characteristics as statistical variances without pointing to the qualitative dimension of their differences. At the

level of individual offenders, the study is invariably constrained, as in all quasi-experimental study designs, by observable and measurable variables.¹

With the above limitations regarding data and measurement issues in mind, we can summarize the major findings of the study as follows:

- The men who find their way into the justice system and ultimately enroll in BIPs appear to be non-representative of the larger social problem of domestic violence. The sample of men convicted of domestic violence offenses drawn for this study generally had low levels of educational attainment, were poor, majority Hispanic, and had lengthy criminal records;
- Slightly more than one third of the men convicted of domestic violence in our sample report that they still live with their victim; about one third of the men reported that they live with children;
- BIPs appear to incorporate multiple approaches to intervention with domestic violence offenders into their programs, integrating components of cognitive behavioral therapy, the Duluth model and other methods that they determine are appropriate and effective;
- The educational topics that BIPs identified as important to helping offenders end their abuse appear to be consistent with the legislative requirements for these programs;
- Offenders' rates of program completion varied across different BIPs. The reason for this, however, appears to be in part that the characteristics of men who are enrolled in different BIPs varies systematically across programs. The statistical significance of the differences in program completion across BIPs declines as additional, individual-level variables are added to the model;
- In contrast to the weak correlation between program completion and BIP, there is no statistical association at all between programs and an offender's likelihood of re-offense;
- For offenders who successfully completed the 52-week BIP, attitudes and beliefs showed small, positive, changes along a number of dimensions including taking greater personal responsibility, understanding the effect of abuse on others, and anger management;
- The strongest predictors of whether or not men were re-arrested following intake in a BIP were individual characteristics of the offenders, not the characteristics of jurisdictions or BIPs in which offenders were enrolled.² Men who were more educated, older, had shorter criminal histories, and did not display clear signs of drug or alcohol dependence had a lower likelihood of re-arrest;
- Whether probation or the court is primarily responsible for oversight of the offenders made no difference in the likelihood of re-arrest. This finding is similar to the conclusion of a recent study in which judicial supervision of domestic violence offenders—with comparisons between supervision of different intensity and compared with no supervision

at all—was found not to make any significant difference on recidivism 12 months after sentencing;³

- Even after controlling for individual characteristics, two jurisdictions showed statistically significant differences in outcomes for offenders. Using Los Angeles as the base for comparison, offenders in Solano County had a likelihood of re-arrest at 12 months after intake that is one-third the likelihood of offenders in Los Angeles County, while offenders in Santa Clara County were 1.6 times as likely to be arrested as offenders in Los Angeles.

It bears repeating that the absence of statistically significant differences in the relative efficacy of probation versus court supervision, or among programs with different program philosophies and practices, needs to be understood in the context of the high-level and broad conceptual framework in which the jurisdictional and program features are defined, categorized, and measured. The “no difference” finding does not address the relative efficacy of any specific element that constitutes the “system,” nor the various programmatic elements that differentiate one program from another.

The similarities of outcomes across jurisdictions and the salience of individual variables in predicting outcomes may be caused by a number of factors related to the intervention itself or to the design of the research. As some of these factors may fall outside of the scope of the quantitative data collected and analyzed, this concluding section of the report draws upon the qualitative data gathered in the course of the research study from field observations and interviews—information that cannot easily be integrated into statistical models. Our concluding remarks are divided into two major sections, one that reflects issues of criminal justice policy and the other related to the research implications of our findings.

Criminal Justice System Policy Issues

Variation in Offender Characteristics May Allow for More Differentiated Case Management

The pattern of findings emerging from this study suggests that there are common characteristics among justice system partners across and within court jurisdictions, as well as common social and psychological characteristics among batterers participating in the study. As noted above, the characteristics of many of the men in our sample suggest that the domestic violence cases that find their way into the justice system and end up in BIPs are multidimensional problems. Many of the offenders in the sample have problems with financial stability, attained low levels of education, have prior criminal histories, and struggle with issues of drug and alcohol abuse. Despite these similarities, our data also suggests that the following are important forms of variation across offenders:

- While male batterers generally appear to struggle with unemployment or underemployment, there are also statistically significant differences in the educational attainment and thus the literacy level of these men;

- There is a relationship between employment and educational status and domestic living situation, with male batterers residing in a number of different types of domestic arrangements;
- Prior criminal arrests are not uncommon among male batterers, but the age of onset and the length of this history appear to vary widely;
- While many male batterers may be at-risk for alcohol and drug abuse, there is variation in these scores as well.

Qualitative data gathered from departments of probation in our study jurisdictions indicate that in some of the jurisdictions only formally supervised offenders are assessed prior to assignment to a BIP. Even when misdemeanants were assessed, it was unclear that the information was systematically used for purposes of placing the offender in a specific BIP or for requiring treatment for drug and alcohol abuse or mental illness. Instead, intake protocols used by departments of probation, when they occur, appear focused primarily on *risk*-assessment rather than *needs*-assessment.

Given the importance of individual risk factors identified in this study, screening mechanisms should seek, to the extent possible, to include needs assessment to assist in directing offenders to resources that might improve their chances of successfully completing the BIP and remaining violence free during and following their attendance in the program.

Enhanced Intake/Assessment May Improve Offender Treatment

Enhancing the needs assessment of offenders during intake would expand upon current law. Pen. Code §1203.097(b)(1) explicitly lays out a requirement for this type of assessment but limits it to offenders who are on formal probation. In these cases the probation department shall

make an investigation and take into consideration the defendant's age, medical history, employment and service records, educational background, community and family ties, prior incidents of violence, police report, treatment history, if any, demonstrable motivation, and other mitigating factors in determining which batterer's program would be appropriate for the defendant.

The penal code does not mandate a similar intake process for defendants who are sentenced to court-supervised or informal probation, and in three of the five study counties, the majority of offenders are informally supervised. However, in two locations, Riverside County and the Long Beach court in Los Angeles County, offenders under informal probation undergo a prescreening process with an intake component that is supervised by an outside party. In Riverside County, the non-profit Volunteer Center oversees the intake process, whereas in Long Beach the Public Health Office performs that function. Therefore, even at locations that do not supervise offenders formally, there may be mechanisms in place to ensure that every offender could be screened prior to enrollment in a BIP.

With clearer delineation of the risk factors associated with different offender populations, BIPs might be able to tailor their treatment more narrowly. The findings from the Program Content Survey (PCS), described more fully in Chapter 3, suggest that BIPs currently take a cross-disciplinary approach to their intervention with male batterers, with anecdotal reports from senior facilitators suggesting that this is necessary because a single treatment model simply does not capture the complex and varying needs, problems, and strengths of their clients and their partners. Further research, including consultation with BIP practitioners and those specializing in batterer intervention would be needed to develop this concept further.

Drug/Alcohol Treatment May Be Important to Help Offenders End Their Abuse

Many male batterers participating in this study indicate through their CAGE scores that they are at risk for alcohol and drug abuse, with anecdotal information from interviews with program staff suggesting that the incidence of this problem is even higher than the CAGE scores reveal. Further, higher CAGE scores are robust predictors of non-completion of batterer intervention programs, and senior program staff responding to the PCS point out that addressing the topic of alcohol and drug abuse is important in helping their clients end their domestic abuse.

Given the current mandate for domestic violence treatment outlined in Pen. Code §1203.097, the limited resources available to most BIPs in California as well as the limited leverage that they may exercise over offenders, it may be useful for departments of probation and the courts to consider how best to support BIPs in requiring batterers at risk for substance abuse to attend some reasonable form of drug/alcohol treatment in conjunction with their enrollment in the BIP.

Current BIP Fee Structure May Hinder Differentiated Case Management

One more piece of the puzzle of differentiated case management has to do with fees. The fees paid by batterers are designed to hold offenders accountable for their domestic violence, promote their sense of investment in the programs in which they enroll, and sustain intervention programs financially for their intervention work with enrollees. Generally paid on a sliding scale by batterers, the fees often represent only partial compensation for the costs of the intervention program. Nonpayment of fees was frequently cited as a reason for program termination and/or failure to complete the BIP, and the collection of fees sometimes appears to absorb a significant amount of the program staff's time and effort.

The current method of assessing and paying fees, all managed at the BIP level, may pose a barrier to a differentiated treatment model because Pen. Code §1203.097 mandates probation departments to evenly allocate referrals of indigent clients among approved programs. Thus, the effort to assign the right socioeconomic balance to different programs might very well undermine efforts to assign men to programs on the basis of the characteristics that put them most at risk for re-offense.

Moreover, given the predominance of lower-income men in these groups, it is not clear that enough differentiation exists along the dimension of income to sustain BIPs. More often than not, the BIP appears to make the final evaluation as to whether or not it can absorb another

indigent client into the program. Creating a more differentiated treatment model might require an exploration of alternative fee distribution and payment plans. This might grant BIPs the financial freedom to accept enrollments on the basis of service need rather than have to consider a client's ability to pay.

Research Implications

Systems Analysis Hampered by Variation *within* Jurisdictions

The first and perhaps most challenging of the findings as they relate to the methodology and implications for future research is the simple fact that the systems analysis that we sought to conduct was frequently undermined by the lack of “systemness” within jurisdictions. Differences in court practice from location to location within jurisdictions, as well as large variability in outcomes across BIPs within jurisdictions, undercut our efforts to evaluate the justice system response. Instead, in some cases we have findings related to different systems within a single jurisdiction.

Further integration of the qualitative data will assist with the interpretation of the findings. Once the qualitative differences within jurisdictions are better understood, quantitative analysis that excludes outlying court locations where these introduce too much variability might be a fruitful path for recapturing the system perspective that motivated this study. Given the clustering of large numbers of offenders in specific courts and in some specific BIPs, this may be a near- to medium-term follow-up with this data set.

Also, system intervention, measured as “probation contact,” “court review,” or even “attendance” at the BIP are all limited measures. Consistent with the other observations here, more qualitative information on what these variables really are in practice—whether probation contact is a face-to-face interview at the department of probation as opposed to a check-in by telephone or whether the review at the trial court is in open court in front of a judge or handled by a courtroom clerk—would assist in distinguishing among different systems.

More Information on BIPs Is Needed to Understand and Identify Promising Practices

In addition to the challenge presented by variability within individual jurisdictions, to some extent the BIPs remain black boxes. While the PCS captured valuable information related to the priorities for teaching and training that program facilitators attach to different elements of the intervention, it did not identify sufficient variability to introduce the data into our quantitative models and to begin teasing out the effects that these programs produce on offender outcomes.

In the future, this information will need to be triangulated with independent forms of data if we are to clearly understand the approach intervention programs are taking in their work with clients. Further, we need to learn more about BIPs as practitioner groups and/or organizations in terms of their staffing levels and role differentiation, the training and professional experience levels of program staff, the supplementary services BIPs are able to provide clients directly or indirectly, and the resources these organizations have at their disposal to sustain their work with

batterers. Such information is essential to our ability to open up the black box of the BIPs in their various organizational forms, as well as to identify promising program approaches and practices.

More Refined Psychosocial Measures of Individuals Are Needed

Additional data at the level of individual offenders may also be needed. While our measures of socioeconomic characteristics and criminal histories appear to differentiate offenders in the sample sufficiently to control for these factors, our data on the psychosocial characteristics of individuals is less robust. The Conflict Tactics Scale 2 (CTS2), in particular, did not detect differences among offenders, leaving considerable uncertainty about individual offenders in terms of their history of abusive behavior. Constraints on the CTS2 included the time period that BIPs could provide us for the assessment of each batterer, the particular session in which this assessment must occur, and the form it must take. Moreover, the self-reporting nature of this instrument coupled with its administration in a time-constrained intake session led to what appears to be various forms of suppression effect and response bias in the answers of new program enrollees.

This combination of factors severely limited the usefulness of the information, and along with other findings of this study suggests the need for a more in-depth assessment of batterers at a time and in a setting where they may provide more accurate responses. Further, any form of assessment that is undertaken should probably allow for a deeper understanding of the psychosocial profile of batterers, as well as sufficient contextual information about their life situations, to allow both practitioners and researchers to better understand them with the ultimate goal of preventing future domestic violence.

And, while the BIP Process Survey provided a useful tool for examining the impact of batterer intervention programs on the offender's attitudes and beliefs, instead of being limited to program completion and re-offense as outcome indicators, additional research that further refines and tests the instrument in different study contexts would improve our understanding of the psychosocial aspects of domestic violence behavior and the intervention programs.

Further analysis will also need to be conducted on the causal connection between psychosocial changes observed in the BIP Process Survey and behavioral changes as they relate to domestic violence. Given the lengthy criminal histories that many men in the study have as well as other risk factors that we identified, the finding of positive, statistically significant changes in attitudes and beliefs—however slight—should not be discounted. A more comprehensive theoretical understanding of these indicators, though, will be useful for future analysis.

Other Issues

At this point, the follow-up period for the study is necessarily short due to the time frame of the grant, but the data should be revisited and examined again at a later date for longer follow-up. An observation made by a number of the most senior clinicians participating in this study was that if the batterer had a significant history of domestic violence either as a childhood victim or an adult perpetrator, one should anticipate that change in abusive behavior would take time. More specifically, while we might anticipate that attitudes, beliefs, and behavior may begin to shift in a more pro-social direction in the first year of program assignment, deeper forms of

change in these domains may take years, often in conjunction with periodic contact and even reenrollment in programs aimed at reforming offenders.

This suggests the need to continue to follow graduates of these programs over a longer period of time than is permitted by the resources available in this study, particularly if we are to understand the full trajectory of change in these individuals, as well as the support services that may be necessary to sustain this change.

Finally, in our examination of patterns of re-arrests as an outcome indicator, the length of follow-up period is closely related to the time during follow-up when the offender is at large in the community versus being incapacitated in some form (detention, jail, treatment institution, or prison). The status of the offender and the amount of time in this status, thus, affect the offender's opportunity for re-offense and re-arrest.⁴ Thus, distinguishing between an incapacitation effect and a treatment effect is not possible with the current data set.

For an offender incarcerated for a substantial period of time during follow-up, the lack of re-offense reflects the direct impact of incapacitation effect, rather than any treatment effect from the batterer intervention program. The present study did not track the offenders' incarceration records as part of the follow-up analysis. As the likelihood for incapacitation may vary across the jurisdictions, reflecting partly the different sanctions applied by the courts and probation as well as the different overcrowding situation in local jails, future studies need to control for the potential confounding effect from incapacitation in order to better understand the system impact.

Endnotes: Chapter 6

¹ Edward E. Leamer, “Let’s Take the Con Out of Econometrics” (March 1983) 73(1) *The American Economic Review* 31–43.

² All findings discussed in this Executive Summary are statistically significant at a level of .01 or .05 unless otherwise noted.

³ Melissa Labriola, Michael Rempel, and Robert C. Davis, *Testing the Effectiveness of Batterer Programs and Judicial Monitoring*, Center for Court Innovation (November 2005).

⁴ Daniel F. McCaffrey, Andrew R. Morral, Greg Ridgeway, and Beth Ann Griffin, “Interpreting Treatment Effects When Cases Are Institutionalized After Treatment” (2007) 89 *Drug and Alcohol Dependence* 126–138.

Appendix A: Partial list of interviews conducted

Date	Institution	County
November 17, 2005	Court / Information Systems	Los Angeles
November 18, 2005	Court / Calendar	Los Angeles
November 18, 2005	BIPs / Presentation & Interview	Los Angeles
December 20, 2005	BIP	Los Angeles
January 26, 2006	Probation	Riverside
February 7, 2006	Probation	Riverside
February 7, 2006	"Volunteer Center"	Riverside
February 28, 2006	County Government / Information Systems	San Joaquin
February 28, 2006	Probation & BIPs	San Joaquin
April 27, 2006	BIP / Group Observation	San Joaquin
September 6, 2006	Probation	Riverside
September 25, 2006	Probation	Santa Clara
July 21, 2006	BIP	Santa Clara
August 1, 2006	BIP	Santa Clara
August 22, 2006	BIP	San Joaquin
November 20, 2006	BIP	San Joaquin/Solano
December 18, 2006	BIP	San Joaquin
February 5, 2007	Probation	Santa Clara
March 17, 2007	Probation	Los Angeles
March 20, 2007	Probation	Riverside
April 24, 2007	Probation	Los Angeles
June 18, 2007	BIP	Santa Clara
June 22, 2007	Probation	Los Angeles
June 26, 2007	Court	Solano
June 26, 2007	Probation	Solano
July 9, 2007	Court	San Joaquin
July 9, 2007	Probation	San Joaquin
August 9, 2007	Court	Riverside
August 23, 2007	Court	Santa Clara
October 19, 2007	Court / Probation / BIPs	Riverside
October 31, 2007	Court	San Joaquin
November 29, 2007	BIP	San Joaquin
February 27, 2008	Court	Solano
March 7, 2008	Court	Los Angeles
March 10, 2008	Court	Los Angeles
May 7, 2008	Court / Probation / BIPs / Other Justice System Agencies	Riverside / Temecula
May 30, 2008	Court / Probation / BIPs / Other Justice System Agencies	Riverside / Riverside
June 4, 2008	Court / Probation	Los Angeles
June 13, 2008	Court / Probation / BIPs / Other Justice System Agencies	Santa Clara
June 16, 2008	Probation / BIPs	San Joaquin
August 13, 2008	Court / Probation	Solano

Appendix B: Supplemental Information Form

Date:
Name:
Probation Case #:
Court Case #:
CTS2 Intake Form # (at bottom of CTS2)

Client's Supplemental Information Form (For Completion by Program Staff)

Directions to Staff Person: Please fill out this supplemental information sheet as completely as possible. If you need to refer to other forms of intake information please feel free to do so. Remember to staple this information sheet to the CTS2 once the client has finished filling out his form. Please mail all of this information back to the Office of Court Research in the stamped, self addressed envelopes provided.

Please check the box or fill in the answer that comes closest to describing your client:

1. Education level (Highest level completed)

- Less than high school
- High School Diploma / GED
- Some College / Tech School /A.A. Degree
- College Graduate
- Graduate or Professional Degree

2. Primary ethnicity

- Asian or Pacific Islander
- African American or Black
- American Indian or Alaskan Native
- Hispanic or Latino
- White
- Other, Please Describe:

3. What did this client indicate his income was for the previous year? (If he indicated an income range please list the range) _____

4. What is the relationship of the victim to the client?

- Former wife
- Former girlfriend
- Current wife
- Current girlfriend

5. Are the client and this person currently living together?

- No
- Yes

Appendix B: Supplemental Information Form

6. Does the client currently have children of his own that are living with him, living nearby, or living some distance away that he sees regularly?

- Client does not have children.
- Client has children that live with him.
- Client has children that do not live with him, but he visits them once a month or more.
- Client has children, but does not visit them regularly (less than once a month).

7. Has this client received any of the following services during the following time periods? Please check the appropriate box for each type of service.

	Currently enrolled	Yes, in the previous 12 months	Yes, more than a year ago	Never	Don't Know
Alcohol or drug treatment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Anger Management	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Counseling or therapy	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Batterer's Intervention Program	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Parenting class or training	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

8. If the client has been enrolled in a BIP in the last year, for how many weeks did he attend? (Please add all of the course sessions together regardless of the number of courses.)

9. What *weekly* enrollment fee is this client currently paying? _____

10. How accurate do you think the information is that this client provided?

- Accurate
- Somewhat inaccurate
- Highly inaccurate
- Very difficult to say

11. If the information seems inaccurate, please explain:

Appendix C: Revised Conflict Tactics Scale 2 and CAGE Assessment

Office Use Only

Date: _____
 Probation Case #: _____
 Court Case #: _____

Name: _____

CTS2 Behavior in Relationships

Introduction: In the following survey you will be asked some questions about what may have happened when you and your partner had disagreements or disputes about things in the last year. These questions will be about your behavior during these disputes, although we know that this may not represent a complete picture of what happened. On the other hand your answers to these questions will help us understand how you have handled these disagreements in the past, and how the program may help you find new ways of dealing with disagreements with your partner in the future.

Please think of how you have dealt with your partner over the last 12 months as you answer the following questions. While we want you to answer each accurately and truthfully, don't think too much about any single question. Just give us your best estimate of how often things have happened and move on to the next question.

If one of these things did not happen in the past year, but it happened before then go ahead and circle the number "7".

	Once	Twice	3-5 times	6 - 10 times	11 - 20 times	More than 20 times	Not in the past year	Never
1. I showed my partner I cared even though we disagreed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
2. I explained my side of a disagreement to my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
3. I insulted or swore at my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
4. I threw something at my partner that could hurt.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
5. I twisted my partner's arm or hair.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
6. I had a sprain, bruise, or small cut because of a fight with my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
7. I showed respect for my partner's feelings about an issue.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
8. I made my partner have sex without a condom.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
9. I pushed or shoved my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
10. I used force (like hitting, holding down, or using a weapon) to make my partner have oral or anal sex.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
11. I used a knife or gun on my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

Appendix C: Revised Conflict Tactics Scale 2 and CAGE Assessment

	Once	Twice	3-5 times	6 - 10 times	11 - 20 times	More than 20 times	Not in the past year	Never
12. I passed out from being hit on the head by my partner in a fight.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
13. I called my partner fat or ugly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
14. I punched or hit my partner with something that could hurt.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
15. I destroyed something belonging to my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
16. I went to a doctor because of a fight with my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
17. I choked my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
18. I shouted or yelled at my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
19. I slammed my partner against a wall.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
20. I said I was sure we could work out a problem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
21. I needed to see a doctor because of a fight with my partner, but I didn't.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
22. I beat up my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
23. I grabbed my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
24. I used force (like hitting, holding down, or using a weapon. to make my partner have sex.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
25. I stomped out of the room or house or yard during a disagreement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
26. I insisted on sex when my partner did not want to (But did not use physical force).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
27. I slapped my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
28. I had a broken bone from a fight with my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
29. I used threats to make my partner have oral or anal sex.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
30. I suggested a compromise to a disagreement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
31. I burned or scalded my partner on purpose.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
32. I insisted my partner have oral or anal sex (but did not use physical force).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

Appendix C: Revised Conflict Tactics Scale 2 and CAGE Assessment

	Once	Twice	3-5 times	6 - 10 times	11 - 20 times	More than 20 times	Not in the past year	Never
33. I accused my partner of being a lousy lover.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
34. I did something to spite my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
35. I threatened to hit or throw something at my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
36. I felt physical pain that still hurt the next day because of a fight with my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
37. I kicked my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
38. I used threats to make my partner have sex.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
39. I agreed to try a solution to a disagreement my partner suggested.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

Please circle the number that comes closest to describing things in the last year.

In the last year:	Yes	No
40. Have you felt you should cut down on your drinking or drug use?	1	2
41. Have people annoyed you by criticizing your drinking or drug use?	1	2
42. Have you felt bad or guilty about your drinking or drug use?	1	2
43. Have you had a drink or taken drugs first thing in the morning to steady your nerves or to get rid of a hangover?	1	2
44. Have you lost your job or had your hours at work greatly reduced?	1	2
45. What is your <i>current</i> employment status? (Please circle the alternative that is closest.)		
Employed full time for pay.	1	
Employed part-time for pay.	2	
Not employed for pay.	3	

Appendix D: Attendance Log

Program Name: _____

Client Name: _____ **Probation Case #:** _____

Intake Date: _____ **Court Case #:** _____

ATTENDANCE LOG

Instructions: Record the client’s attendance by marking each date the client was scheduled to attend, using the following key:

- Client attended the session
- Client did not attend- absence was excused
- Client did not attend- absence was **not** excused
- Client was terminated from program
- Date client reinstated into program, if applicable (mark subsequent dates of attendance or absence with circles and x’s as shown above).

January 2006

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21
22	23	24	25	26	27	28
29	30	31				

February 2006

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
			1	2	3	4
5	6	7	8	9	10	11
12	13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24	25
26	27	28				

March 2006

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
			1	2	3	4
5	6	7	8	9	10	11
12	13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24	25
26	27	28	29	30	31	

April 2006

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
						1
2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9	10	11	12	13	14	15
16	17	18	19	20	21	22
23	24	25	26	27	28	29
30						

May 2006

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
1	2	3	4	5	6	
7	8	9	10	11	12	13
14	15	16	17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24	25	26	27
28	29	30	31			

June 2006

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
				1	2	3
4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11	12	13	14	15	16	17
18	19	20	21	22	23	24
25	26	27	28	29	30	

July 2006

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
						1
2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9	10	11	12	13	14	15
16	17	18	19	20	21	22
23	24	25	26	27	28	29
30	31					

August 2006

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
		1	2	3	4	5
6	7	8	9	10	11	12
13	14	15	16	17	18	19
20	21	22	23	24	25	26
27	28	29	30	31		

September 2006

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
						1
2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9	10	11	12	13	14	15
16	17	18	19	20	21	22
23	24	25	26	27	28	29
30						

Appendix D: Attendance Log

October 2006

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21
22	23	24	25	26	27	28
29	30	31				

November 2006

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
			1	2	3	4
5	6	7	8	9	10	11
12	13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24	25
26	27	28	29	30		

December 2006

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
					1	2
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10	11	12	13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20	21	22	23
24	25	26	27	28	29	30
31						

January 2007

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12	13
14	15	16	17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24	25	26	27
28	29	30	31			

February 2007

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
				1	2	3
4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11	12	13	14	15	16	17
18	19	20	21	22	23	24
25	26	27	28			

March 2007

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
					1	2
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10	11	12	13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20	21	22	23
24	25	26	27	28	29	30
31						

April 2007

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21
22	23	24	25	26	27	28
29	30					

May 2007

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
		1	2	3	4	5
6	7	8	9	10	11	12
13	14	15	16	17	18	19
20	21	22	23	24	25	26
27	28	29	30	31		

June 2007

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
					1	2
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10	11	12	13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20	21	22	23
24	25	26	27	28	29	30

July 2007

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21
22	23	24	25	26	27	28
29	30	31				

August 2007

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
			1	2	3	4
5	6	7	8	9	10	11
12	13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24	25
26	27	28	29	30	31	

September 2007

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
						1
2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9	10	11	12	13	14	15
16	17	18	19	20	21	22
23	24	25	26	27	28	29
30						

October 2007

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12	13
14	15	16	17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24	25	26	27
28	29	30	31			

November 2007

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
				1	2	3
4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11	12	13	14	15	16	17
18	19	20	21	22	23	24
25	26	27	28	29	30	

December 2007

Su	Mo	Tu	We	Th	Fr	Sa
						1
2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9	10	11	12	13	14	15
16	17	18	19	20	21	22
23	24	25	26	27	28	29
30	31					

Appendix E: BIP Process Survey

Instructions for the BIP Process Survey

Background. The BIP Process Survey is designed to assess psychosocial change in a client as a result of enrollment in a batterer intervention program. Our objective is to learn more about how clients participating in the current study think about their relationship with their partners, as well as how they experience any interpersonal conflict that may occur. Toward this end your clients will be asked to indicate how much they agree or disagree with a series of statements in the survey.

Since this instrument is designed to track program impact on a psychosocial level, it should be administered twice for each client participating in the study. The first administration should occur toward the end of the first month of client enrollment, while the second should occur at the end of the 52 week intervention program. Please have client name and other ID information filled out on each survey for clients participating in the OCR study.

Administration procedure. Please administer the BIP Process Survey to a client after he has attended 4 to 5 weeks of class in your program. The BIP Process survey will take about 10 to 15 minutes to complete.

It is important to administer these surveys at a time that promotes accurate and complete responses, while also taking into consideration what is convenient for you and your clients. For example, if you think it best to administer this survey individually or in groups please do so. In all cases it is important to insure that clients will be undistracted by other things while completing the survey and that a staff person will be available to answer questions that may arise. Please remind clients that they should circle the number corresponding to their level of agreement with each statement in the survey.

It is also important for you to inform your clients that:

- There are no correct or incorrect responses to survey items. A client should simply respond to a question with his best sense of what describes his current views and experiences.
- All client responses are confidential. None of his individual responses will be shared with the courts, probation, or any other agency or group, nor will he be personally identifiable.

Survey administration on an individual basis. A number of methods may be considered when administering the BIP Process Survey to individual clients. For example, you may want to have clients fill out the survey:

- Before a regularly scheduled session by arriving early
- After a regularly scheduled group meeting or individual session
- During a regularly scheduled group meeting by briefly pulling a client from a group session

Survey administration in groups. If it is necessary to administer the survey in a group please make sure that clients participating in the study do not revise their answers as a result of these conversations.

Analysis of BIP Process Survey data. For important methodological reasons only those surveys corresponding to clients participating in the present OCR study may be processed and analyzed by the OCR. However, please forward all completed surveys to the OCR.

Clients' names and ID numbers. It is important to assign the proper client name and Court or Probation ID number to surveys completed by a clients participating in the OCR study. This will allow us to merge responses to the BIP Process Survey with client data that we have previously gathered. You may refer to the client rosters provided with the CTS2 to identify clients participating in the OCR study.

Forwarding completed surveys to the OCR. Please forward all surveys completed by clients to the OCR in the envelopes provided. You should forward these surveys at the beginning of each month.

Appendix E: BIP Process Survey

Copyright and limits of use: Please do not use the BIP Process Survey for any purpose other than the present OCR study.

Appendix E: BIP Process Survey

BIP Process Survey

Please take a few moments to think about specific violent or abusive conflicts you have had with your partner. Now, based on these memories, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I have control over whether I am abusive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I am responsible for my abusive behavior.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. If I'm upset, I usually take it out on my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. In a conflict with my partner, I usually get what I want.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. My abusive behavior has caused my family members to trust me less.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I am dependent on my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. My partner's behavior forces me to act abusively.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I feel powerless during conflicts with my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. When I am abusive, I feel that I am not under control of myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Taking a break helps me manage my anger.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. People in my life have been strongly affected by my abusive behavior.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I worry that my partner is going to leave me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I am in control of how I respond to my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I have lost relationships due to my abusive behavior.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I can control my anger during conflicts with my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. When I don't have the final say in discussions with my partner, I feel out of control.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. My abusive behavior has had long lasting effects on my family members.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. I don't know what I would do without my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. When I feel good about myself, I'm less likely to get into arguments.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. I can express my anger without becoming abusive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. Thinking positively about myself helps me avoid becoming abusive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. I worry about losing my relationship with my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. I am responsible for the effects my abusive behavior has on others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. When I am becoming angry, I can feel it in my body.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. The only person I can control is me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. When my partner disagrees with me, I feel alone.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. I'm responsible for my own happiness.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix E: BIP Process Survey

28. My abusive behavior has caused my family members to feel bad about themselves.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. I feel jealous when my partner spends too much time with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. I have a choice about whether I am abusive or not.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. My abusive behavior has hurt me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. I use violence to help me get what I want from my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. When my partner does something without me, I feel left out.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. I feel better about my relationship with my partner when I'm the one in control.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35. I know when I'm about to explode.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36. The main reason I'm in this group is because I have to be .	1	2	3	4	5	6
37. My happiness typically depends on my partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38. When I have a bad day, I take it out on people at home.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39. I am not responsible for my actions when I get in a rage.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40. I need my partner to make me happy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41. I know when I'm getting angry.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42. I would come to this program even if I was not required to.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Duluth Model

The Domestic Abuse Intervention Project of Duluth Minnesota has given rise to a model of domestic violence intervention that has proven highly influential in California over the last twenty-five years. Commonly referred to as the Duluth Model, it calls for a justice system intervention into this syndrome that is designed to orchestrate responses by a community's point of first emergency contact with a community's women's shelters, police department, district attorney's office, health department, and local court.

The Duluth project and model have also produced an influential domestic violence intervention and training program that has taken root in many other states of the union including California. The designers of this program make a number of important assumptions about domestic abuse including the view that most forms of domestic violence are male initiated, with the primary tone of this violence being coercive and instrumental in nature. More specifically, it assumes that male initiated violence in a domestic context is designed to control and even subjugate the female partner to a man's will and needs. The model also assumes that most forms of female initiated violence are primarily defensive and/or retaliatory in nature.¹

A third assumption is that male client referrals to batterer intervention programs are court ordered, which embeds offenders in the justice system including the courts and probation departments. This last assumption is thought to be critical to the intervention programs success, for it assumes an active and fully supportive judiciary, district attorney's office, and probation department who have found ways of working in a well orchestrated effort to charge, prosecute, convict if guilty, subsequently supervise, and treat domestic violence offenders. The success of this effort is thought to be linked to the existence of clear and certain criminal penalties for noncompliance as well as for re-offense².

Batterer intervention programs based on the Duluth Model will include a number of broad programmatic elements that are thought essential to addressing the basic causes of male domestic violence, which are viewed as being rooted in a belief system that creates rights and expectations for batterers in terms of their roles as partners, fathers, and members of their communities³. These program elements include an intake session and group orientation that lays out the obligations and expectations of clients over the course of the 27 week program, acquaints the men with specifics of the class process and course curriculum and materials, and administrative tasks. The various aspects of the curriculum are intended to be educational in nature, with the primary objective of the intervention being to move the core beliefs of male batterers away from a dominant sense of male privilege in relation to their partners and children, with coercion and violence as primary mechanism for achieving this end.

¹ Pence, E. Batterer programs: Shifting from community collusion to community confrontation. In P.L. Caesar & L.K. Hamberger (Eds.), *Treating men who batter: Theory, practice and programs*. New York: Springer, 1989.

² Pence, E. & Shepard, M. An introduction: Developing a coordinated community response. In E. Pence & M. Sheppard (Eds.), *Coordinating community responses to domestic violence: Lessons from Duluth and beyond*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, 1999.

³ Pence, E. & Paymar, M. *Education groups for men who batter: The Duluth model*. New York: Springer, 1993.

Appendix F: Duluth and Cognitive-Behavioral Models

The Duluth curriculum.

Of particular relevance for our understanding of the influence of this model are the educational topics and themes the Duluth Model posits as essential to an effective batterer intervention program. The basic assumptions underlying the Duluth educational curriculum are unique both for what they include and exclude. For example, because the Duluth Model assumes that the root cause of male domestic violence is a result of an internalized societal belief system that promoting the rights of males over others it seeks to reeducate clients rather than treat them psycho-therapeutically. Those approaches to intervention that would ascribe domestic violence to unique psychological or psycho-physiological problems of individuals are excluded from the Duluth model and intervention program.

A number of educational and instructional principles characterize the Duluth educational curriculum. They include but are not restricted to the following.

Curriculum content, teaching strategies, and educational themes.

- Curriculum materials presented in an intervention course should require a literacy level consistent with that of participating clients.
- Educational themes or issue must be directly related to the life experiences of clients.
- Expression of the theme or issue is based on images, pictures, and other materials that avoid needless abstraction, and are rooted in the “real moments of the lives” of clients.
- Themes covered in group should be drawn directly from the Power and Control Wheel that Duluth interventionists have developed. These themes are considered the “tools” of the curriculum.

Themes related to domestic abuse include

- Coercion and threats
- Economic abuse
- Emotional abuse
- Intimidation
- Isolation—isolating one’s partner
- Minimizing, blaming one’s partner, and rationalization of one’s abuse
- Using male privilege to achieve dominance
- Using/manipulating children to get at one’s partner

Themes related to equality and non-abusive attitudes and beliefs include:

- Economic partnership
- Honesty and accountability
- Negotiation and fairness
- Non-threatening behavior
- Responsible parenting
- Shared responsibility

Appendix F: Duluth and Cognitive-Behavioral Models

- Trust and support

The vehicles for conveying these educational themes rely heavily on the use of video vignettes, group discussion, role playing, and what has been termed a control log. These vehicles allow for communicating complex topics through the use of images and words, and as such are not heavily dependent on the literacy level of group participants⁴.

The discussion group. The group discussion and role plays occurring under the careful supervision of the facilitator, are intended to help clients develop the capacity and propensity for critical thinking and accountability. The group becomes one of the primary locations where new ideas are taught and the capacity to think critically is acquired. The environment of the group then must be fully supportive of batterers in their efforts to transform how they think about and behave toward their domestic partners. This then requires that groups hold the abuser fully accountable for his use of violence, while creating an environment that is free of the threat of violence and coercion. It would also have to find a way to be non-judgmental in relation with its members while enforcing a norm of full accountability, as well as requiring participants to be respectful of one another as well as women and children during the course of their group work. Further, the group must require that clients are committed to a lengthy process in which they are deeply honest with themselves and members of the group when discussing their own lives and behavior, while working toward full accountability to the woman they have harmed⁵.

The group facilitator. The group facilitator has an important and demanding role in group discussions. This involves guiding participants through the vignettes and challenging them to think critically during the iterative phases of analysis, problem solving, planning, more critical analysis and reflection, and so on. This pedagogical approach allows participants to review and critique abusive behavior that may be highly similar to their own, without having to immediately speak about the specifics of their own abusive attitudes and behavior. This appears to facilitate a deeper form of analysis and reflection than batterers might achieve if they were immediately asked to describe their own behavior, and may help break down the defense mechanisms of denial, minimization, and blame that are often employed by male batterers to thwart challenges to their abusive behavior by others⁶.

The video vignette. In order to facilitate their identification with the video simulations, vignettes are developed to reflect the characteristics of group participants, the domestic conditions in which they live, and issues that plausibly portray interchanges between abusive men like them and their partners. The responsibility of group participants, under the careful guidance of the facilitator, is to enter into a conversation with each other that

⁴ Pence, E. The Duluth domestic abuse intervention project. In E. Aldarondo & F. Mederos (Eds.): Programs for men who batter: Intervention and prevention strategies in a diverse society. Civic Research Institute, 2002.

⁵ Pence, E. & Paymar, M. Education groups for men who batter: The Duluth model. New York: Springer, 1993.

⁶ Ibid.

Appendix F: Duluth and Cognitive-Behavioral Models

cycles through analyses of abusive situations. During these conversations group members reflect and comment on what they have seen in each video, formulate alternative non-abusive forms of language and behavior for the male batterers in the film to undertake, engage in further reflective processes on what they have seen and experienced, and further revise their thinking and action plans for participants in the video vignettes, and then return to the reflection and comment⁷.

The control log. Within the Duluth framework the power of the structured group discussion is complemented and enhanced by the requirement of a “control log”. Control logs are used to help male clients identify and define their abusive actions and intentions; identify defense mechanisms that help preserve their abusive attitudes and behavior including denial, blaming, and minimization; deconstruct and further analyze “micro-actions” associated with their abuse; identify personal beliefs about the nature of authority, dependency, weakness, self-protection, strength, and love for critical analysis in group; and identify alternatives to specific abuse interactions that the client has engaged in during past relationships⁸.

The Cognitive-Behavioral Model.

Like the local community approach to domestic violence that would eventually give rise to the Duluth Model, the history of the development of cognitive-behavioral models in the treatment of domestic violence appear to have emerged from the needs of communities to respond to various forms of domestic violence occurring within their boundaries. Activists leading these efforts appear to have first sought out information to advise their intervention efforts, and in doing so discovered few models that would readily direct their efforts to develop intervention programs⁹. Turning to those members of their social networks with expertise in complementary areas of social and clinical practice, they developed intervention programs for batterers that were cognitive-behavioral in their immediate focus, while preserving a response that was more systemic in nature.

Cognitive-behavioral approaches to intervention with domestic batterers appear to embody a number of the same assumptions and imperatives seen in the Duluth model. For example, Dr. Kevin Hamberger’s description of a pioneering application of this approach in Wisconsin states that violence enacted within a domestic relationship is unequivocally unacceptable, and that the objective of domestic abuse is usually the control and domination of one’s domestic partner for self serving purposes. Further, both social and political factors are thought to foster and even facilitate the occurrence and perpetuation of domestic abuse, and that effective responses to such violence necessitate an active collaboration among community agencies and groups. Only then is it thought

⁷ Ibid.

⁸ Ibid.

⁹ Hamberger, Kevin. The men’s group program: A community-based, cognitive-behavioral, pro-feminist intervention program. In E. Aldarondo & F. Mederos (Eds.): Programs for men who batter: Intervention and prevention strategies in a diverse society. Civic Research Institute, 2002.

Appendix F: Duluth and Cognitive-Behavioral Models

that effective advocacy can be developed to change local institutional practices and social norms that place women at risk for violence, and/or fail to hold male batterers responsible for their violent behavior¹⁰.

While the responsibility for domestic violence is seen to reside solely with the male perpetrator, the violence itself is seen as learned behavior that occurs within a social and cultural context that often sanctions and sometimes tacitly encourages violence against women. Sources of this learning were assumed to include society and culture, the perpetrator's family of origin, as well as various forms of "trial and error learning" that the perpetrator engages in over time¹¹. In fact, it is the focus on social learning as the proximal mechanism for domestic violence that may uniquely identify cognitive-behavioral approaches to domestic violence intervention.

Two important conceptual assumptions in this approach are that cognitive processes of labeling and interpretation of life events are related to learned emotional and behavioral responses to similar prior events. The behavior that results is learned and organized through the receipt of reinforcement, with associated cognitive processes linked to these behaviors also receiving indirect reinforcement, with the latter form of reinforcement potentially generalizing an aggressive response from one domain to others quite quickly¹².

Consequently, a cognitive approach to intervention in domestic violence involves helping batterers understand how they habitually label certain situations as threatening, intolerable, and/or dangerous; the highly negative attributions they make to their domestic partner in these situations; the aggressive coping responses they resort to in order to defend themselves against perceived threats, and the underlying beliefs and more specific cognitive schemata that filter and maintain their existing patterns of thought, which in turn support their dysfunctional behavior. Cognitive behavioral approaches must then address the irrational elements of these cognitive processes, and through a structured and progressive approach to learning, train batterers in new ways of thinking and behaving in relation to their partners.

Within the context of group practice cognitive behavioral approaches may involve a relatively structured set of skill training lessons and exercises. In this approach facilitators are challenged to develop ways of addressing the particular needs and skill deficits of individual batterers within the context of a group. The structure that is required in group sessions involves establishing objectives for each session that involves goal setting, specific active-learning tasks, and criterion-based outcomes to assess and inform group members about the progress they have made. More specifically, early

¹⁰ Ibid.

¹¹ Hamberger, L.K. Cognitive behavioral treatment of men who batter their partners. *Cognitive and Behavioral Practice*, 4, 147-169, 1997.

¹² Hamberger, L.K & Lohr, J.M. Proximal causes of spouse abuse: A theoretical analysis for cognitive-behavioral interventions. In P.L. Caesar & L.K. Hamberger (Eds.), *Treating men who batter: Theory, practice and programs*. New York: Springer (1989).

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cognitive behavioral approaches are described as involving skills training in the following areas¹³:

- Arousal management which requires the batterer to learn new coping strategies that will allow him to more effectively handle stressful situations in his life, as well as relaxation training intended to augment and support these positive forms of coping.
- Assertive behavior training that will allow for respectful forms of communication with domestic partners, as well skills training in positive forms of conflict resolution.
- Cognitive restructuring including thought switching, with the goal involving the identification of and change in negative labeling and attribution processes providing the basis for the batterers' domestic abuse.

The collaborative approach that emerges involves the group facilitator playing an active leadership role in listening, confronting, coaching, and providing feedback, with more advanced members of the group participating in support of this process with the permission of the facilitator. Clients bring situation-relevant material to session where they actively rehearse alternative thought processes of varying types; and develop multiple options for labeling, interpreting, and self-instructing to deal with threatening domestic situations. The immediate goal is to develop and test specific behavioral strategies in relation to problem behavior or thinking processes that lead the batterer into abuse.

While the cognitive-behavioral approach is typically associated with single client treatment by a highly trained therapist, the model has been adapted to use in groups and appears to share much in common with the Duluth model at this level of operationalization. The Men's Group of Wisconsin employed related the following outline for a typical group session using a cognitive behavioral technique:

1st hour involves 10 minutes of introduction to new members joining the group; with the remaining 50 minutes typically devoted to 1) men sharing coping successes and difficulties, 2) group discussion and analysis including homework, and 3) feedback by the group facilitator.

2nd hour involves

1. didactic lecture and structured discussion that may include:

- beliefs and attitudes associated with male gender role training and its links to DV
- cognitive basis for feelings of jealousy
- development of coping strategies
- outline of personal plans for relating as an equal partner

¹³ Hamberger, Kevin. The men's group program: A community-based, cognitive-behavioral, pro-feminist intervention program. . In E. Aldarondo & F. Mederos (Eds.): Programs for men who batter: Intervention and prevention strategies in a diverse society. Civic Research Institute, 2002.

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- power and control in relationships,
 - role of prejudice and stereotyping in facilitating violence
 - understanding the impact of violence on children
2. Modeling by therapist or advanced student of new cognitive-behavioral strategy or skill
 3. Rehearsal of a cognitive skill area by students who have proper readiness
 4. Consideration of new cognitive-behavioral concept.

It should be clear from a review of this list of activities and training tasks that while this intervention model draws heavily on the cognitive-behavioral tradition, aspects of other intervention models including Duluth are present and even central to this type of intervention in groups.

Appendix G: Table 3-A1

Table 3-A1. Program Content Survey: Importance of Educational Topic										
Item	Educational Topics Explained or Discussed			Average Importance	Average Rating of Importance x County					
	Topic or Issue	Coding Cat.	N of BIPs Covering Topic		LA	RS	SC	SJ	SoI	Sig.
Q26A	Gender equality between partners and its implications for everyday behavior.	Attitudes & Beliefs	42	3.9	4.3	3.6	3.8	3.2	3.5	ns*
Q48A	Stress and stress management explained.	Stress & Coping	42	3.9	4.2	4.1	2.9	3.8	4.8	ns
Q3A	Alcohol and substance abuse.	Substance Abuse	43	3.9	4.2	4.6	2.8	4.0	3.5	ns
Q18A	Cycle of violence.	Abuse	42	3.9	3.9	4.1	3.0	4.7	4.8	ns
Q25A	Empathy as an essential aspect of close relationships.	Empathy	41	3.9	3.9	4.1	3.6	3.8	4.0	ns
Q52A	Wheel of Non-Violence in relation to interpersonal relationships.	Abuse	40	3.9	4.2	4.1	3.3	2.8	4.8	ns*
Q5A	Assertiveness and assertive behavior vs. aggression.	Conflict Resolution & Negotiation	43	3.8	4.1	4.1	3.0	3.5	3.3	ns
Q34A	Male privilege and patriarchy as contributor to clients' attitudes & behavior.	Attitudes & Beliefs	42	3.8	4.0	3.7	3.6	2.8	4.3	ns
Q51A	Violence prevention plan for client.	Planning	37	3.8	4.2	4.0	3.1	2.3	5.0	ns*
Q37A	Parenting: Appropriate discipline and punishment of children.	Parenting	42	3.7	4.1	3.7	2.9	3.5	3.8	ns
Q11A	Client's family as a source of attitudes, beliefs, and abusive behavior.	Attitudes & Beliefs	41	3.6	4.2	4.0	3.1	2.7	2.8	p<.02
Q28A	Health vs. unhealthy relationship with partner described in detail.	Interpersonal health	39	3.6	4.3	4.0	3.0	2.0	4.0	p<.02
Q40A	Personal boundaries (and the lack thereof) as central to domestic abuse.	Batterer Characteristics	40	3.6	4.0	4.1	3.1	2.0	4.8	ns*
Q33A	Jealousy and coping with jealousy.	Anger & Emotion Management	41	3.6	3.9	3.6	2.6	3.7	4.5	ns
Q46A	Sex role beliefs & expectations as they are related to abuse.	Attitudes & Beliefs	43	3.6	3.8	4.0	3.4	3.0	3.8	ns
Q31A	Interpersonal communication principles & skills explained.	Interpersonal communication	41	3.6	3.8	4.1	3.3	3.0	3.5	ns
Q36A	Negative self talk.	Cognitive-Behavioral	41	3.5	4.1	3.7	3.1	2.0	3.8	ns*
Q16A	Cultural and societal norms supporting aggression against women & others.	Attitudes & Beliefs	43	3.5	3.8	3.0	3.5	3.3	2.5	p<.05
Q10A	Client's family history of domestic abuse.	Abuse	42	3.4	4.2	4.0	3.1	2.7	2.8	ns
Q38A	Parenting: Effective co-parenting.	Parenting	40	3.4	4.1	3.3	3.0	2.3	2.8	ns*
Q27A	Handling criticism from spouse or partner.	Stress & Coping	40	3.3	3.9	2.6	3.1	2.5	3.3	ns*
Q24A	Emotional sensitization techniques explained.	Stress & Coping	38	3.3	3.8	2.4	2.9	2.2	1.5	ns*
Q39A	Parenting: Information, attitudes, and strategies for effective parenting.	Parenting	39	3.3	4.1	3.4	2.6	1.7	2.8	ns*
Q9A	Characteristics of male batterers.	Batterer Characteristics	40	3.3	3.9	3.9	2.8	2.7	3.0	ns
Q15A	Coping with separation and/or divorce from partner.	Stress & Coping	40	3.2	4.0	3.3	2.6	1.2	3.3	p<.01
Q19A	Domestic Abuse: What is it legally.	Abuse	41	3.2	3.9	3.1	2.8	2.3	2.5	ns
Q47A	Sexism and sexist oppression.	Attitudes & Beliefs	40	3.2	3.5	3.0	3.3	2.3	3.0	ns
Q32A	Interpersonal mis-communication explained.	Interpersonal communication	37	3.1	3.5	3.3	2.5	2.2	3.8	ns
Q23A	Effects of domestic abuse on other adults & the community.	Abuse	38	3.0	3.8	2.4	2.9	2.2	1.5	ns*

Appendix G: Table 3-A1

Educational Topics Explained or Discussed				Average Rating of Importance x County						
Item	Topic or Issue	Coding Cat.	N of BIPs Covering Topic	Average Importance	LA	RS	SC	SJ	SoI	Sig.
Q8A	Victims: Characteristics of abused women (e.g., attitudes, beliefs, & socialization).	Abuse	39	3.0	3.8	3.1	2.8	2.5	3.5	p<.02
Q12A	Co-Dependency with partner.	Batterer Characteristics	36	2.9	3.9	3.0	2.0	1.0	2.5	ns*
Q44A	Racism as related to clients self concept and attitudes to self and partner.	Attitudes & Beliefs	36	2.8	3.5	2.1	2.6	2.0	1.5	p<.03
Q42A	Personality disorders and DV.	Batterer Characteristics	30	2.3	2.3	2.1	2.5	1.7	2.5	ns
Q45A	Safety Plan for victim.	Planning	27	2.3	2.9	2.7	1.0	1.5	2.0	ns

Appendix H. Table 3-B1

Table 3B1. Program Content Survey: Frequency of Use of Educational Topics										
Item	Educational Topics Explained or Discussed			Average Intensity of Coverage	Relative Intensity of Use x County					
	Topic or Issue	Coding Cat.	N of BIPs Covering Topic		LA	RS	SC	SJ	SoI	Sig.
Q53A	Wheel of Power & Control in relation to domestic abuse.	Power & Control	42	29.2	29.2	28.6	33.2	25.5	28.1	ns
Q22A	Effects of abuse on partner.	Abuse	43	28.9	25.2	29.9	35.9	32.7	28.1	ns
Q4A	Anger and anger-triggers.	Anger & Emotion Management	43	28.6	27.6	36.1	24.1	30.7	25.6	ns
Q41A	Personal responsibility & honesty on an everyday basis.	Accountability	42	28.0	24.5	28.7	39.0	27.7	25.6	ns
Q21A	Effects of abuse on children.	Abuse	43	27.9	25.6	25.6	37.5	27.4	28.1	ns
Q18A	Cycle of violence.	Abuse	42	27.5	25.2	35.8	22.5	32.6	25.8	ns*
Q14A	Conflict resolution techniques.	Conflict Resolution & Negotiation	43	27.5	28.6	33.1	19.6	25.5	28.1	ns
Q13A	Cognitive restructuring.	Cognitive-Behavioral	42	27.5	25.1	34.4	27.2	27.7	27.9	ns
Q30A	Identification of high-risk situations.	Stress & Coping	42	27.0	27.6	30.0	21.1	27.6	28.4	ns
Q26A	Gender equality between partners and its implications for everyday behavior.	Attitudes & Beliefs	42	26.3	27.1	19.9	34.4	23.5	22.9	ns
Q52A	Wheel of Non-Violence in relation to interpersonal relationships.	Abuse	40	26.2	24.7	22.7	31.0	30.6	28.1	ns
Q25A	Empathy as an essential aspect of close relationships.	Empathy	41	26.1	20.9	25.6	37.5	31.8	25.8	ns
Q6A	Beliefs and attitudes leading to domestic abuse.	Attitudes & Beliefs	43	25.4	22.1	26.9	36.1	27.4	18.0	ns
Q28A	Health vs. unhealthy relationship with partner described in detail.	Interpersonal health	39	24.4	25.2	25.6	29.1	17.9	18.0	ns
Q48A	Stress and stress management explained.	Stress & Coping	42	24.3	20.3	29.9	19.7	32.0	33.4	ns
Q40A	Personal boundaries (and the lack thereof) as central to domestic abuse.	Batterer Characteristics	40	24.1	22.2	31.4	19.7	25.5	28.1	ns
Q34A	Male privilege and patriarchy as contributor to clients' attitudes & behavior.	Attitudes & Beliefs	42	23.7	20.2	24.1	31.4	21.6	30.9	ns
Q31A	Interpersonal communication principles & skills explained.	Interpersonal communication	41	23.2	22.6	30.0	25.6	15.3	20.5	ns
Q1A	Accepting and working with victims anger, resentment, distrust as result of abuse.	Accountability	41	22.3	19.3	24.0	28.6	27.9	18.0	ns
Q32A	Interpersonal mis-communication explained.	Interpersonal communication	37	21.4	20.2	27.3	20.5	15.3	25.6	ns
Q36A	Negative self talk.	Cognitive-Behavioral	41	21.1	20.7	26.9	24.1	7.6	20.6	ns*
Q33A	Jealousy and coping with jealousy.	Anger & Emotion Management	41	19.4	15.8	21.3	18.7	27.6	25.4	ns
Q5A	Assertiveness and assertive behavior vs. aggression.	Conflict Resolution & Negotiation	43	19.2	21.2	24.1	18.1	10.2	15.4	ns
Q46A	Sex role beliefs & expectations as they are related to abuse.	Attitudes & Beliefs	43	19.0	21.3	16.8	19.8	11.9	20.5	ns
Q27A	Handling criticism from spouse or partner.	Stress & Coping	40	19.0	19.3	21.4	22.6	11.2	17.9	ns
Q24A	Emotional sensitization techniques explained.	Stress & Coping	38	18.9	16.3	21.4	20.4	25.6	20.4	ns

Appendix H. Table 3-B1

Table 3-B1. Program Content Survey: Frequency of Use of Educational Topics										
Item	Educational Topics Explained or Discussed			Average Intensity of	Relative Intensity of Use x County					
	Topic or Issue	Coding Cat.	N of BIPs Covering		LA	RS	SC	SJ	SoI	Sig.
Q11A	Client's family as a source of attitudes, beliefs, and abusive behavior.	Attitudes & Beliefs	41	18.5	17.3	22.6	24.2	11.3	15.2	ns
Q3A	Alcohol and substance abuse.	Substance Abuse	43	18.3	18.2	27.0	18.4	13.6	10.1	ns
Q47A	Sexism and sexist oppression.	Attitudes & Beliefs	40	17.8	19.0	15.4	19.7	15.2	15.4	ns
Q23A	Effects of domestic abuse on other adults & the community.	Abuse	38	17.4	16.3	15.3	24.2	15.3	15.3	ns
Q16A	Cultural and societal norms supporting aggression against women & others.	Attitudes & Beliefs	43	16.5	16.3	13.9	25.6	13.6	10.1	ns
Q15A	Coping with separation and/or divorce from partner.	Stress & Coping	40	16.4	20.1	19.6	10.9	5.0	12.8	ns*
Q9A	Characteristics of male batterers.	Batterer Characteristics	40	16.3	16.4	19.6	15.4	17.8	10.1	ns
Q12A	Co-Dependency with partner.	Batterer Characteristics	36	16.1	18.3	13.9	11.1	10.3	18.8	ns
Q19A	Domestic Abuse: What is it legally.	Abuse	41	16.1	19.0	18.3	10.9	11.2	12.6	ns
Q37A	Parenting: Appropriate discipline and punishment of children.	Parenting	42	15.8	16.9	19.7	13.8	11.8	12.8	ns
Q45A	Safety Plan for victim.	Planning	27	15.7	21.5	17.5	5.0	5.0	5.0	ns*
Q38A	Parenting: Effective co-parenting.	Parenting	40	15.0	15.3	15.2	13.8	15.3	15.3	ns
Q39A	Parenting: Information, attitudes, and strategies for effective parenting.	Parenting	39	14.8	14.3	16.7	12.4	18.7	15.3	ns
Q44A	Racism as related to clients self concept and attitudes to self and partner.	Attitudes & Beliefs	36	14.8	19.7	11.3	10.9	10.1	5.0	ns
Q10A	Client's family history of domestic abuse.	Abuse	42	13.9	13.4	18.1	13.8	13.2	10.1	ns
Q42A	Personality disorders and DV.	Batterer Characteristics	30	12.8	12.4	7.1	15.3	22.3	10.3	ns
Q8A	women (e.g., attitudes, beliefs, & socialization).	Abuse	39	11.3	12.9	13.8	8.4	8.5	5.0	ns

Appendix I. Table 3-C1

Table 3-C1. Program Content Survey: Importance of Coping Skills Training										
Item	Coping Skills Training		N of BIPs Covering Topic	Average Importance	Average Rating of Importance x Jurisdiction					
	Strategy or Technique	Coding Cat.			LA	RS	SC	SJ	SoI	Sig.
Q1b.	Anger management skills & techniques.	Anger & Emotion Management	45	4.6	4.5	5.0	4.3	4.8	5.0	ns*
Q21b.	Time-Out technique training & practice.	Anger & Emotion Management	44	4.4	4.5	4.7	3.4	4.5	5.0	ns*
Q5b.	Conflict resolution skills and/or techniques.	Conflict Resolution & Negotiation	45	4.2	4.3	4.6	3.6	4.0	4.8	ns*
Q4b.	Cognitive restructuring techniques to manage negative moods and negative self talk.	Cognitive-Behavioral	45	4.2	4.3	4.4	3.7	3.8	4.8	ns*
Q2b.	Assertiveness training (while demonstrating respect for self and partner) as alternative to aggression.	Interpersonal Skills	44	4.0	4.3	4.0	3.1	3.7	4.5	ns
Q3b.	Client practices analyzing his own behavior to identify the specifics of his abusive style and areas of personal responsibility.	Cognitive-Behavioral (Duluth)	41	3.9	3.9	3.4	4.4	3.7	4.3	ns
Q9b.	Emotional expression skills training.	Interpersonal Skills	44	3.8	3.9	4.0	3.6	3.0	4.0	ns
Q7b.	Critical thinking skills for clients/abusers.	Cognitive-Behavioral (Duluth)	41	3.7	4.1	3.4	3.7	2.5	4.3	ns*
Q14b.	Personal self-control techniques when parenting to avoid abusive behavior.	Stress & Coping	41	3.7	3.8	4.3	3.0	3.7	3.3	ns
Q15b.	Positive self-talk training.	Cognitive-Behavioral	40	3.7	3.9	3.9	3.1	2.8	4.8	ns
Q11b.	Alternative reactions to perceived problems or threats taught and practiced.	Cognitive-Behavioral (Duluth)	41	3.7	3.7	4.6	3.4	2.7	4.0	ns
Q19b.	Relaxation & stress management training.	Stress & Coping	41	3.6	3.8	3.4	3.0	3.7	4.0	ns
Q13b.	Negotiation and compromise skills training.	Conflict Resolution & Negotiation	43	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.6	2.7	3.5	ns
Q18b.	Reflective listening training.	Interpersonal Communication	41	3.4	3.6	3.3	2.7	3.3	4.3	ns
Q6b.	Countering technique for irrational or problematic beliefs.	Cognitive-Behavioral	37	3.4	3.8	3.3	3.1	1.7	4.5	ns
Q16b.	Problem solving skills training for dealing with everyday living including managing finances, time management, etc.	Problem Solving & Planning	39	3.2	3.5	3.6	2.7	2.5	3.3	ns
Q10b.	Emotional sensitization exercises to help client learn to identify his emotions.	Stress & Coping	36	3.1	3.5	3.1	2.1	2.5	4.0	ns
Q20b.	Thought-switching and reframing training.	Cognitive-Behavioral	34	3.0	3.2	3.7	1.7	1.8	4.5	ns*
Q8b.	Decatastrophizing and depathologizing techniques.	Cognitive-Behavioral	32	2.7	3.0	2.6	1.7	2.7	3.0	ns
Q12b.	Label shifting or re-labeling training.	Cognitive-Behavioral	30	2.4	2.6	2.6	1.6	1.7	3.5	ns
Q17b.	Reattribution skills training.	Cognitive-Behavioral	18	1.5	2.0	1.4	1.7	0.0	0.7	ns*

Appendix J. Table 3-D1

Table 3-D1. Frequency of Coping Skills Training: Strategies and Techniques										
Item	Coping Skills Training		N of BIPs Covering Topic	Average Intensity of Coverage	Average Frequency of Use x Jurisdiction					
	Strategy or Technique	Coding Cat.			LA	RS	SC	SJ	SoI	Sig.
Q1b.	Anger management skills & techniques.	Anger & Emotion Management	45	31.9	26.2	43.5	31.6	37.7	33.4	ns
Q21b.	Time-Out technique training & practice.	Anger & Emotion Management	44	30.8	29.6	38.9	27.5	30.7	28.1	ns*
Q5b.	Conflict resolution skills and/or techniques.	Conflict Resolution & Negotiation	45	28.4	27.0	34.5	27.2	27.3	28.1	ns
Q4b.	Cognitive restructuring techniques to manage negative moods and negative self talk.	Cognitive-Behavioral	45	26.3	22.7	32.9	25.7	29.1	30.6	ns
Q2b.	Assertiveness training (while demonstrating respect for self and partner) as alternative to aggression.	Interpersonal Skills	44	21.2	21.8	26.9	18.8	13.7	23.1	ns
Q3b.	Client practices analyzing his own behavior to identify the specifics of his abusive style and areas of personal responsibility.	Cognitive-Behavioral (Duluth)	41	29.7	24.6	42.1	31.6	34.1	30.9	ns
Q9b.	Emotional expression skills training.	Interpersonal Skills	44	25.4	24.2	30.1	25.6	23.6	25.6	ns
Q7b.	Critical thinking skills for clients/abusers.	Cognitive-Behavioral (Duluth)	41	24.9	23.2	23.8	34.3	20.4	25.6	ns
Q14b.	Personal self-control techniques when parenting to avoid abusive behavior.	Stress & Coping	41	20.9	20.8	24.2	17.0	20.6	22.3	ns
Q15b.	Positive self-talk training.	Cognitive-Behavioral	40	23.1	23.5	22.6	20.5	25.5	23.1	ns
Q11b.	Alternative reactions to perceived problems or threats taught and practiced.	Cognitive-Behavioral (Duluth)	41	26.4	23.9	35.9	34.2	17.5	20.6	ns
Q19b.	Relaxation & stress management training.	Stress & Coping	41	20.6	20.2	27.3	13.8	25.8	18.0	ns
Q13b.	Negotiation and compromise skills training.	Conflict Resolution & Negotiation	43	20.3	22.5	21.1	16.7	17.4	18.0	ns
Q18b.	Reflective listening training.	Interpersonal Communication	41	18.6	20.5	16.8	15.3	18.7	18.0	ns
Q6b.	Countering technique for irrational or problematic beliefs.	Cognitive-Behavioral	37	26.2	26.2	25.6	36.1	11.8	25.6	ns
Q16b.	Problem solving skills training for dealing with everyday living including managing finances, time management, etc.	Problem Solving & Planning	39	19.8	16.9	28.9	15.3	30.8	15.3	ns
Q10b.	Emotional sensitization exercises to help client learn to identify his emotions.	Stress & Coping	36	23.7	22.4	31.8	23.3	23.1	20.6	ns
Q20b.	Thought-switching and reframing training.	Cognitive-Behavioral	34	23.3	22.1	24.1	29.2	22.3	23.1	ns
Q8b.	Decatastrophizing and depathologizing techniques.	Cognitive-Behavioral	32	22.4	23.0	28.0	17.8	19.6	22.3	ns
Q12b.	Label shifting or re-labeling training.	Cognitive-Behavioral	30	16.4	17.4	21.6	15.2	8.5	12.8	ns
Q17b.	Reattribution skills training.	Cognitive-Behavioral	18	15.8	14.4	22.0	18.7	.	5.0	ns

Appendix K. Table 3-E1

Table 3-E1. Importance and Frequency of Teaching Strategies and Techniques										
Item	Teaching Techniques and Strategies Topic or Issue	N of BIPs Covering Topic	Average Importance		Average Rating of Importance					
					LA	RS	SC	SJ	SoI	Sig.
7c.	Group discussion: Structured and led by facilitator.	44	4.6	41.9	4.4	5.0	4.6	4.7	5.0	ns*
1c.	Client instructed in the analysis of his own abusive behavior to become aware of personal anger triggers and other aspects of his abusive style & cycle of violence.	43	4.3	30.5	4.3	4.4	3.6	4.8	5.0	ns*
26c.	Therapeutic/educational confrontation of clients by group facilitator.	41	4.0	33	4.0	3.7	3.9	3.8	4.8	ns
9c.	Group members allowed to take the lead in challenging attitudes and beliefs that encourage domestic violence.	40	3.7	29.8	3.6	2.9	4.7	3.3	4.0	ns*
3c.	Facilitator leads clients through a description of some of his most severe incidents of partner abuse.	40	3.6	23.6	3.5	3.1	4.3	3.7	3.8	ns
18c.	Lecture or formal presentation by facilitator.	37	3.5	31.6	3.4	3.7	3.7	3.5	3.3	ns
10c.	Homework: Client develops prevention or safety plan to prevent future abuse.	38	3.4	21.3	3.2	3.0	3.7	3.7	4.3	ns
24c.	Role-playing led by group facilitator.	39	3.3	17.5	3.8	2.7	3.0	2.2	4.3	ns
21c.	Rehearsal of cognitive and behavioral skills in group	37	3.3	24	3.5	3.1	3.4	2.3	3.8	ns
22c.	Rehearsal of coping strategies (e.g. Time-out, etc.).	35	3.3	26.2	3.6	3.3	2.7	2.0	4.5	ns
25c.	Therapeutic/educational confrontation of clients by "advanced students/clients" in group sessions.	33	3.1	25.3	3.5	3.0	2.9	2.2	2.8	ns
6c.	Films & Videos: Developed specifically for domestic violence courses.	35	2.9	11.5	2.9	3.1	2.9	2.0	4.3	ns
11c.	Homework: Client keeps track of the specifics of his abusive behavior and is required to identify areas of personal responsibility & accountability.	31	2.9		3.1	2.9	3.7	1.5	2.5	ns
17c.	Homework: Writing assignments based on themes or topics presented in group session.	33	2.8		3.0	2.0	3.1	2.7	3.3	ns*
19c.	Mirroring technique toward validating client's feelings.	33	2.8		3.5	3.3	1.9	1.2	2.3	ns
4c.	Female facilitators lead groups to address gender-based issues of client trust, identification, and/or attachment.	31	2.8		3.1	3.0	3.4	0.7	2.5	ns*
5c.	Films & Videos: Not specifically made for DV courses, but relevant to domestic abuse.	38	2.7		3.5	2.0	2.9	0.8	2.5	p<.01
20c.	Quizzes and test for checking client's progress & mastery of course materials.	31	2.6		2.9	2.0	3.7	0.3	3.0	ns*
14c.	Homework: Letter of accountability.	24	2.2		2.1	1.6	2.0	2.5	3.5	ns*
23c.	Role-playing led by an advanced group member.	24	2.1		3.1	1.3	2.1	0.0	1.3	ns*
27c.	Unstructured group discussions focused on the client's semi-conscious sense of helplessness relative to the partner, fear of abandonment, and/or sense of shame.	25	2.0		2.6	2.0	1.9	0.7	1.8	ns
2c.	Co-leadership of group by two or more facilitators.	25	2.0		2.1	1.9	4.4	0.5	0.3	ns*
15c.	Homework: Reading assignments.	24	2.0		1.9	2.1	1.4	2.2	3.3	ns
16c.	Homework: Relapse prevention plan for client.	21	2.0		2.2	1.6	1.4	1.5	3.3	ns
13c.	Homework: Client's controlling behavior log.	22	1.8		2.1	0.9	3.4	0.7	1.3	ns
12c.	Homework: Client's anger journal assigned on a regular basis.	19	1.8		2.3	1.3	1.1	0.8	2.5	ns
8c.	Group discussion: Not structured by facilitator.	17	1.4		1.8	0.1	2.1	0.5	1.5	ns

Appendix L. Chapter 5 Regression Tables with Restricted Samples in All Models

Table L5-C. Regression Results for Program Completion

Dependent Variable: Program Completion	Logistic Regression Models				Multilevel Logistic Regression Models		
	(1) [†]	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<i>Jurisdiction (Los Angeles as the base comparison group)</i>							
Riverside	1.213 (0.81)	1.213 (0.83)	1.394 (1.46)	1.498 (1.64)	1.239 (0.61)	1.396 (1.04)	1.456 (1.08)
Santa Clara	0.773 (1.48)	0.773 (1.09)	0.888 (0.46)	0.886 (0.47)	0.864 (0.52)	0.971 (0.12)	0.958 (0.15)
Solano	2.442 (2.07)*	2.442 (3.11)**	2.776 (2.93)**	3.709 (2.61)**	2.620 (1.83)	2.924 (2.15)*	3.895 (2.54)*
San Joaquin	0.806 (1.04)	0.806 (0.97)	1.053 (0.23)	1.233 (0.87)	0.859 (0.45)	1.073 (0.23)	1.265 (0.71)
<i>No children as base comparison group</i>							
Lives with children			1.061 (0.30)	1.088 (0.40)		1.086 (0.41)	1.115 (0.50)
Visits children regularly			0.736 (1.52)	0.804 (0.86)		0.756 (1.36)	0.829 (0.85)
Does not visit children regularly			0.892 (0.37)	0.810 (0.59)		0.881 (0.51)	0.806 (0.79)
Education: some college or more			1.827 (2.81)**	1.543 (1.65)		1.866 (3.37)**	1.574 (2.20)*
Victim is wife - former and current			1.644 (3.05)**	1.398 (1.76)		1.606 (2.90)**	1.353 (1.69)
Non-English Speaker			2.015 (4.04)**	1.061 (0.32)		2.093 (3.65)**	1.089 (0.35)
<i>Employment Status (employed as base comparison group)</i>							
Employed part-time				1.007 (0.03)			0.975 (0.11)
Not employed				0.785 (1.43)			0.780 (1.33)
<i>Race/ethnicity (African American as base comparison group)</i>							
Hispanic				2.613 (2.93)**			2.717 (3.96)**
Other				1.926 (1.46)			2.014 (1.93)
White				1.629 (1.27)			1.664 (1.88)
<i>Total prior arrests of any offense (single, first offense as base comparison group)</i>							
2-3				0.797 (0.71)			0.768 (0.87)
4-5				0.621 (1.44)			0.601 (1.41)
>=6				0.551 (1.70)			0.540 (1.60)
<i>Total prior arrests of DV offenses (single, first offense as base comparison group)</i>							
2				1.013 (0.07)			1.002 (0.01)
>=3				0.760 (0.95)			0.751 (1.28)
Had prior felony arrests				0.782 (0.83)			0.793 (0.78)
Had prior arrests for drug offenses				0.700 (2.58)**			0.704 (1.79)
Age at Intake				1.036 (3.32)**			1.036 (2.82)**
Age at First Arrest				0.999 (0.10)			0.998 (0.10)
<i>CAGE Score (0 as base comparison group)</i>							
CAGE = 1				0.953 (0.16)			0.932 (0.30)
CAGE = 2				0.668 (1.88)			0.665 (1.78)
CAGE = 3				0.444 (3.54)**			0.427 (3.27)**
CAGE = 4				0.705 (1.17)			0.700 (1.29)
Program level variance					0.196 (1.28)	0.108 (0.96)	0.131 (1.01)
Observations	802	802	802	802	802	802	802

Absolute value of z statistics in parentheses; * significant at 5%; ** significant at 1%.

[†] In models 2 to 4, Huber-White sandwich estimate of variance is used for robust estimates of standard errors that adjust for intraclass correlations at the level of batterer intervention programs.

Appendix L. Chapter 5 Regression Tables with Restricted Samples in All Models

Table L5-D. Regression Results for Program Termination

Dependent Variable:	Logistic Regression Models				Multilevel Logistic Regression Models		
Program Termination	(1) [†]	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<i>Jurisdiction (Los Angeles as the base comparison group)</i>							
Riverside	0.932 (0.32)	0.932 (0.31)	0.775 (1.07)	0.763 (1.09)	0.902 (0.31)	0.771 (0.83)	0.778 (0.76)
Santa Clara	1.591 (2.76)**	1.591 (2.33)*	1.357 (1.46)	1.344 (1.44)	1.408 (1.30)	1.215 (0.78)	1.222 (0.75)
Solano	0.523 (1.61)	0.523 (1.78)	0.444 (1.81)	0.357 (1.75)	0.491 (1.46)	0.422 (1.81)	0.339 (2.14)*
San Joaquin	2.504 (4.58)**	2.504 (2.98)**	1.912 (2.07)*	1.753 (1.88)	2.752 (3.13)**	2.143 (2.50)*	1.964 (2.08)*
<i>No children as base comparison group</i>							
Lives with children			0.815 (1.01)	0.800 (1.08)		0.799 (1.13)	0.781 (1.18)
Visits children regularly			1.148 (0.91)	1.043 (0.21)		1.112 (0.53)	1.004 (0.02)
Does not visit children regularly			0.975 (0.09)	1.068 (0.22)		0.987 (0.05)	1.079 (0.29)
Education: some college or more			0.531 (3.26)**	0.604 (2.27)*		0.511 (3.85)**	0.577 (2.88)**
Victim is wife - former and current			0.618 (3.26)**	0.756 (1.63)		0.627 (3.00)**	0.772 (1.53)
Non-English Speaker			0.467 (4.88)**	0.812 (1.24)		0.459 (3.98)**	0.797 (0.99)
<i>Employment Status (employed as base comparison group)</i>							
Employed part-time				1.094 (0.46)			1.109 (0.47)
Not employed				1.468 (2.23)*			1.451 (2.10)*
<i>Race/ethnicity (African American as base comparison group)</i>							
Hispanic				0.464 (2.41)*			0.441 (3.37)**
Other				0.544 (1.43)			0.520 (1.90)
White				0.658 (1.22)			0.625 (1.79)
<i>Total prior arrests of any offense (single, first offense as base comparison group)</i>							
2-3				1.510 (1.57)			1.538 (1.55)
4-5				2.052 (2.00)*			2.023 (2.10)*
>=6				2.089 (2.13)*			2.063 (1.98)*
<i>Total prior arrests of DV offenses (single, first offense as base comparison group)</i>							
2				0.960 (0.19)			0.963 (0.18)
>=3				1.267 (0.95)			1.298 (1.20)
Had prior felony arrests				1.068 (0.26)			1.091 (0.31)
Had prior arrests for drug offenses				1.238 (1.73)			1.243 (1.15)
Age at Intake				0.972 (2.52)*			0.971 (2.42)*
Age at First Arrest				1.001 (0.04)			1.001 (0.09)
<i>CAGE Score (0 as base comparison group)</i>							
CAGE = 1				0.990 (0.04)			1.023 (0.10)
CAGE = 2				1.532 (1.71)			1.534 (1.96)
CAGE = 3				1.820 (2.69)**			1.891 (2.56)*
CAGE = 4				1.320 (0.96)			1.354 (1.14)
Program level variance					0.162 (1.41)	0.112 (1.19)	0.128 (1.16)
Observations	892	892	892	892	892	892	892

Absolute value of z statistics in parentheses; * significant at 5%; ** significant at 1%.

[†] In models 2 to 4, Huber-White sandwich estimate of variance is used for robust estimates of standard errors that adjust for intraclass correlations at the level of batterer intervention programs.

Appendix L. Chapter 5 Regression Tables with Restricted Samples in All Models

Table L5-H. Regression Results for 12-Month Re-arrests of All Offense Types

Dependent Variable: 12-Month Rearrests of All Offense Types	Logistic Regression Models				Multilevel Logistic Regression Models		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<i>Jurisdiction (Los Angeles as the base comparison group)</i>							
Riverside	1.188 (0.80)	1.188 (0.87)	1.042 (0.19)	1.112 (0.39)	1.191 (0.79)	1.047 (0.20)	1.131 (0.47)
Santa Clara	1.836 (3.68)**	1.836 (3.12)**	1.685 (2.66)**	1.683 (2.73)**	1.810 (3.31)**	1.657 (2.70)**	1.650 (2.40)*
Solano	0.408 (1.91)	0.408 (6.05)**	0.375 (5.45)**	0.335 (2.93)**	0.406 (1.91)	0.373 (2.04)*	0.332 (2.08)*
San Joaquin	1.221 (1.05)	1.221 (1.16)	0.979 (0.12)	0.865 (0.84)	1.218 (0.99)	0.977 (0.11)	0.858 (0.65)
<i>No children as base comparison group</i>							
Lives with children			0.899 (0.49)	0.929 (0.35)		0.898 (0.57)	0.928 (0.37)
Visits children regularly			1.281 (1.36)	1.240 (1.09)		1.281 (1.33)	1.236 (1.05)
Does not visit children regularly			0.856 (0.56)	1.015 (0.06)		0.855 (0.68)	1.013 (0.05)
Education: some college or more			0.525 (4.07)**	0.632 (2.16)*		0.522 (3.78)**	0.627 (2.45)*
Victim is wife - former and current			0.604 (4.01)**	0.731 (2.06)*		0.603 (3.40)**	0.728 (1.92)
Non-English Speaker			0.659 (2.55)*	1.463 (1.75)		0.662 (2.23)*	1.477 (1.71)
<i>Employment Status (employed as base comparison group)</i>							
Employed part-time				1.335 (1.15)			1.337 (1.34)
Not employed				1.481 (2.43)*			1.481 (2.29)*
<i>Race/ethnicity (African American as base comparison group)</i>							
Hispanic				0.621 (2.20)*			0.616 (2.16)*
Other				0.984 (0.04)			0.978 (0.06)
White				0.885 (0.47)			0.872 (0.56)
<i>Total prior arrests of any offense (single, first offense as base comparison group)</i>							
2-3				3.238 (4.36)**			3.259 (3.84)**
4-5				2.921 (2.94)**			2.945 (3.04)**
>=6				8.309 (5.62)**			8.338 (5.60)**
<i>Total prior arrests of DV offenses (single, first offense as base comparison group)</i>							
2				0.934 (0.36)			0.938 (0.33)
>=3				0.651 (1.94)			0.653 (2.09)*
Had prior felony arrests				1.428 (1.30)			1.419 (1.16)
Had prior arrests for drug offenses				0.886 (0.70)			0.883 (0.69)
Age at Intake				0.972 (2.48)*			0.972 (2.46)*
Age at First Arrest				0.990 (0.70)			0.990 (0.69)
<i>CAGE Score (0 as base comparison group)</i>							
CAGE = 1				1.005 (0.02)			1.014 (0.06)
CAGE = 2				1.572 (2.33)*			1.576 (2.14)*
CAGE = 3				1.301 (1.03)			1.312 (1.15)
CAGE = 4				1.239 (0.88)			1.244 (0.86)
Program level variance					0.000 (0.00)	0.000 (0.00)	0.000 (0.00)
Observations	941	941	941	941	941	941	941

Absolute value of z statistics in parentheses; * significant at 5%; ** significant at 1%.

[†] In models 2 to 4, Huber-White sandwich estimate of variance is used for robust estimates of standard errors that adjust for intraclass correlations at the level of batterer intervention programs.

Appendix L. Chapter 5 Regression Tables with Restricted Samples in All Models

Table L5-I. Regression Results for 12-Month Re-arrests of Domestic Violence Offense

Dependent Variable: 12-Month Rearrests of DV Offense	Logistic Regression Models				Multilevel Logistic Regression Models		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<i>Jurisdiction (Los Angeles as the base comparison group)</i>							
Riverside	1.019 (0.07)	1.019 (0.11)	0.811 (1.29)	0.854 (0.85)	1.019 (0.07)	0.811 (0.72)	0.854 (0.52)
Santa Clara	1.690 (2.60)**	1.690 (3.15)**	1.538 (2.58)**	1.558 (2.48)*	1.690 (2.60)**	1.538 (2.06)*	1.558 (1.96)*
Solano	0.741 (0.54)	0.741 (1.50)	0.620 (1.83)	0.484 (1.69)	0.741 (0.54)	0.620 (0.85)	0.484 (1.24)
San Joaquin	1.413 (1.47)	1.413 (1.92)	1.067 (0.37)	0.948 (0.25)	1.413 (1.47)	1.067 (0.27)	0.948 (0.21)
<i>No children as base comparison group</i>							
Lives with children			1.040 (0.18)	1.025 (0.11)		1.040 (0.17)	1.025 (0.11)
Visits children regularly			1.028 (0.12)	0.961 (0.17)		1.028 (0.13)	0.961 (0.17)
Does not visit children regularly			0.452 (2.86)**	0.495 (2.61)**		0.452 (2.47)*	0.495 (2.10)*
Education: some college or more			0.449 (3.35)**	0.510 (2.59)**		0.449 (3.51)**	0.510 (2.81)**
Victim is wife - former and current			0.704 (2.30)*	0.869 (0.73)		0.704 (1.90)	0.869 (0.72)
Non-English Speaker			0.617 (2.80)**	0.935 (0.31)		0.617 (2.02)*	0.935 (0.24)
<i>Employment Status (employed as base comparison group)</i>							
Employed part-time				1.079 (0.32)			1.079 (0.30)
Not employed				0.981 (0.11)			0.981 (0.10)
<i>Race/ethnicity (African American as base comparison group)</i>							
Hispanic				0.553 (2.78)**			0.553 (2.36)*
Other				0.460 (1.85)			0.460 (1.84)
White				0.689 (1.59)			0.689 (1.36)
<i>Total prior arrests of any offense (single, first offense as base comparison group)</i>							
2-3				2.647 (2.76)**			2.647 (2.49)*
4-5				2.194 (1.68)			2.194 (1.75)
>=6				3.700 (2.30)*			3.700 (2.85)**
<i>Total prior arrests of DV offenses (single, first offense as base comparison group)</i>							
2				1.526 (1.79)			1.526 (1.91)
>=3				1.418 (1.28)			1.418 (1.49)
Had prior felony arrests				1.013 (0.04)			1.013 (0.04)
Had prior arrests for drug offenses				0.802 (1.26)			0.802 (1.08)
Age at Intake				0.961 (2.50)*			0.961 (2.89)**
Age at First Arrest				1.011 (0.54)			1.011 (0.59)
<i>CAGE Score (0 as base comparison group)</i>							
CAGE = 1				1.234 (0.82)			1.234 (0.83)
CAGE = 2				1.511 (1.61)			1.511 (1.68)
CAGE = 3				1.152 (0.55)			1.152 (0.51)
CAGE = 4				1.297 (1.10)			1.297 (0.89)
Program level variance					0.007 (0.24)	0.009 (0.27)	0.016 (0.36)
Observations	941	941	941	941	941	941	941

Absolute value of z statistics in parentheses; * significant at 5%; ** significant at 1%.

[†] In models 2 to 4, Huber-White sandwich estimate of variance is used for robust estimates of standard errors that adjust for intraclass correlations at the level of batterer intervention programs.