

EXPLORING 2006 FELONY DOMESTIC VIOLENCE CASES
IN DALLAS COUNTY: CHARACTERIZATION
AND ANALYSIS

by

LYDIA MARIE JACOBSON-CONNOR

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of
The University of Texas at Arlington in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements
for the Degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN SOCIAL WORK

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT ARLINGTON

December 2008

Copyright © by Lydia Marie Jacobson-Connor

All Rights Reserved

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am indebted to my thesis advisor Emily Spence-Almaguer, a gifted researcher and educator, whose commitment to the social work profession has been a constant source of inspiration and encouragement. Dr. Spence's patience, understanding, and all too frequent pep talks made completion of this work possible. To my committee members, Drs. Jamie Page Brill, and Rebecca Hegar, I owe special thanks for their interest in my research project and critical evaluation of my work. I also owe librarians John Dillard and Joshua Been thanks for their significant contributions, in particular Mr. Been's private tutoring in GIS without which this work would not have been possible. There were several individuals at the Dallas County District Attorney's office who were instrumental to this project: Cindy Dyer, Gina Suick, Tania Loenneker, Gabriella Lucero, Peggy Burt, and the attorneys and protective order advocates who proved invaluable resources during my tenure at the DA's office. Ms Suick and Ms. Loennecker in particular were instrumental in both my educational experience as an intern and as a researcher within their division. To my mother, Maria Ellena Nejo, I owe special thanks for her never-ending support, encouragement, and child care services. To the following individuals I owe special thanks for their patience, support, and the ever-important ability to add levity to my life: my children Sydney and Olivia, my husband Charles, and friends Ruth Boyel, and Alice Chen. Finally, thanks to Martyn Abbott for his assistance with the difficult PDF conversions.

November 25, 2008

ABSTRACT

EXPLORING 2006 FELONY DOMESTIC VIOLENCE CASES IN DALLAS COUNTY: CHARACTERIZATION AND ANALYSIS

Lydia Marie Jacobson-Connor

The University of Texas at Arlington, 2008

Supervising Professor: Emily Spence-Almaguer

In 2004 the city of Dallas police department reported that among violent crimes, family violence was second only to assault in occurrence. This trend is observed throughout Dallas County, which is the focus of this exploratory study. The data consist of 904 family violence cases drawn from disposed felony family violence cases processed through the district attorney's office in 2006. I employed, geographic information systems, and bivariate and multivariate analysis to explore influences of family violence victims and the district attorney advocates on court outcomes. Variables used in these analyses included: 1) incident address, 2) filing an affidavit of non-prosecution, 3) advocate contact and 4) court outcome. Study findings suggest that felony family violence cases occur within predominantly poor, African American communities. In addition, relationship type and length appeared to predict victims filing affidavits of non-prosecution (i.e., requests to drop criminal charges). There was also evidence that advocates played a limited role in influencing court outcomes. The findings from this study bring to light the need for more research into the interactions between the criminal justice system and victims in order to better address their safety and multiple needs.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iii
ABSTRACT.....	iv
LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS.....	vii
LIST OF TABLES.....	viii
Chapter	Page
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Domestic Violence Prevalence and Scope.....	1
1.2 Definitions.....	4
1.3 Study Purpose and Goals.....	6
1.3.1 Rationale.....	6
2. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	9
2.1 Historical Perspective.....	9
2.1.1 Help Seeking.....	11
2.1.2 Community and Social Planning.....	13
2.2 Domestic Violence and the Criminal Justice System.....	14
2.2.1 Legislative Responses to Domestic Violence.....	14
2.2.2 Criminal Justice Responses to Domestic Violence.....	15
2.3 GIS Technology in the Social Sciences.....	16
3. METHODS.....	17
3.1 Sample Description.....	18
3.2 Study Variables and Analyses.....	19
4. RESULTS.....	21

4.1 Descriptive Statistics.....	21
4.1.1 Dallas County Demographics.....	21
4.1.2 Dallas County Felony Family Violence Statistics.....	22
4.1.3 Dallas County Felony Family Violence Crimes.....	24
4.2 Geographical Information Systems.....	25
4.3 Predictors of Filing an Affidavit of Non-Prosecution.....	25
4.3.1 Bivariate Analyse.....	27
4.3.2 Logistic Regression.....	28
4.4 Predictors of Filing Court Outcome.....	29
4.4.1 Bivariate Analyses.....	29
4.4.2 Logistic Regression.....	30
4.5 District Attorney Victim Advocate Impact on Victim.....	30
5. CONCLUSIONS.....	33
5.1 Geographic Distribution of Domestic Violence in Dallas County.....	33
5.2 Dallas County DA and Domestic Violence Victims.....	37
5.2.1 Indirect Measures of DA-Victim Interactions.....	37
5.2.2 DCDA Family Violence Victim Advocates and Victims.....	39
5.3 Study Limitations.....	40
5.4 Conclusions.....	41
5.5 Implications for Social Work.....	42
APPENDIX	
A. THEDALLAS COUNTY CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM.....	44
B. DATA DESCRIPTION TABLES.....	51
C. HISTORICAL TIMELINE.....	53
REFERENCES.....	56
BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION.....	62

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure		Page
4.1	Map of Dallas County Domestic Violence Study Cases.....	26
A.1	Family Violence Case Processing Procedure.....	46
A.2	Fishnet Map of Family Violence Incidents.....	49

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
4.1	2006 Felony Family Violence Cases.....	23
4.2	Dallas County Population Statistics, 2006.....	22
4.3	Felony Family Violence Case Charges, 2006.....	24
4.4	Relationship Type by Court Outcome, ANP, and AFFV.....	25
4.5	ANP and Independent Variable Bivariate Analyses.....	27
4.6	Logistic Regression Odds Statistics.....	28
4.7	ANP By Type of Crime.....	29
4.8	Court Outcome and Independent Variable Bivariate Analyses.....	29
4.9	Victim Consulted and Court Outcome Crosstabulation.....	31
4.10	Victim Wants and Court Outcome Crosstabulation.....	32
5.1	Crime Statistics, Violent Crime in Dallas City Council Districts, 2002....	35
5.2	Dallas City Council District Demographic and Statistical Data, 2007	35
A.1	Texas Felony Domestic Violence Offenses.....	45
A.2	Filing Agencies in Dallas County.....	45
A.3	2006 Police Jurisdiction Domestic Violence Incidents, Arrests, EPO's..	48
A.4	Dallas City Council District Demographic Data.....	50
B.1	Data Source Summary.....	52
C.1	Domestic Violence Timeline.....	54

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Domestic Violence Prevalence and Scope

Domestic violence is a social problem that affects societies in the United States and through out the world. In the United States domestic violence, dating violence, sexual assault, and stalking continue to be significant public health issues facing women and children, their families, and the communities in which they live (Campbell, 1999; Dutton, 2006; Dept. Health and Human Services, 2007; Tjaden, 2000). Based on US Department of Justice 2001 data “approximately 85% of victimizations by intimate partners were against women” (Rennison, 2000). Although the rate at which women experience domestic violence has been declining, from 9.8 per 1000 in 1993 to 5 per 1000 in 2001, battering continues to be the most significant cause of injury to women (Rennison, 2003). In 1993 there were 1.1 million non-fatal violent intimate partner crimes against women dropping to 588,490 in 2001 (Rennison, 2003; Rennison, 2000). The Department of Justice estimates that intimate partners kill 33% of female murder victims: In 2000 there were 1,247 women killed by their intimate partners (Rennison, 2003).

An estimated 943,718 women were battered in Texas in 2005 (Texas Council on Family Violence, 2005). Based on the 2006 Texas Department of Public Safety Uniform Crime Report there were 186,868 reported incidents of family violence (Texas Department of Public Safety, 2006a). Among reported family violence offenses, 96.7% were assaults; 72.3% simple assault, 15.7% aggravated assault, and 8.7% intimidation. Although 43% of family violence incidences report no injuries to female victims, the majority of cases report minor injuries (53%) and 4% report major injuries. Among reported major injuries, lacerations, possible internal injuries, and broken bones were noted in 70% of cases (Texas Department of Public Safety, 2006b). In the

state of Texas, since 1998 there have been 920 women killed by an intimate partner, 120 in 2006 alone (Texas Council on Family Violence, 2006). Among Texas homicides in 2006, 46% were committed by a spouse, and 24% were committed by an intimate partner. Finally, the Texas Health and Human Services Commission estimated that 982,916 direct services to family violence victims and their children were provided in 2006 (Texas Health and Human Services Commission, 2004).

Texas faces several challenges with respect to providing domestic violence victims services. To begin, while there remain large rural areas, Texas is also home to three of the largest US cities. Victims in rural communities are less likely to have shelter support services and therefore more likely required to travel greater distance to have their needs met. Across Texas, domestic violence shelters provided 11,996 adults with shelter services in 2005, and 12,356 adults with shelter services in 2006 (Texas Council on Family Violence, 2006; National Coalition Against Domestic Violence, 2006). In 2005 an estimated 23% of adults seeking shelter were turned away due to lack of space (Texas Council on Family Violence, 2006). In addition, Texas has a significant proportion of the population living below the poverty level. In 2006, approximately 13.3% of Texas families were living below the poverty level and 42% of families of female head of households with children fewer than 18 years of age were living below the poverty level (American Fact Finder, 2006). Finally, Texas boasts a significant immigrant population with diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds that require competent services and service providers.

Within Texas in 2006, Dallas County reported one of the highest levels of domestic violence incidents (21,293), second only to Harris County (33,801, Texas Department of Public Safety, 2006b). Dallas County crime statistics are presented and discussed later in the text, however it is noteworthy to point out that there appears to be an increase in the absolute number of victims, and the number of reported incidents since 2000 (Texas Department of Public Safety, 2006a & 2006b). It is also noteworthy to point out that a recent Community

Focus Group Survey identified that Dallas County's existing emergency domestic violence shelters (331 beds) are inadequate to serve the County's needs based on the number of reported incidents (Community Focus Group Report, 2002). Although Dallas County does not have a formal domestic violence coordinating council, the Dallas County Domestic Violence Coalition, and the Crime Victim Council of Dallas County facilitate communication and building relationships between various service providers, criminal justice staff, police, and victim advocates.

Nationally the cost of intimate partner violence was estimated to exceed 8.3 billion dollars a year "in the form of increased health care costs, absenteeism, reduced productivity, and related security costs" (Centers for Disease Control, 2007). The vast majority of expenditures, approximately 71%, are directed towards medical and mental health services (Centers for Disease Control, 2007; National Coalition Against Domestic Violence, 2006). The impact of domestic violence on women's physical and mental health has been discussed extensively in the literature. Reviews suggest that the predominant physical health effects of intimate partner violence (IPV) on women involve somatic (e.g., headache, insomnia) and gastrointestinal symptoms, both acute and chronic physical injuries (e.g., abrasions, lacerations, upper bodies injuries, bone fractures, head, back, and neck injuries), and injuries sustained in pregnancy to both mother and fetus (Campbell, 1999; Golding, 1999; Dutton, 2006). In addition, intimate partner violence and sexual assault result in increased gynecologic symptoms and the risk of contracting sexually transmitted diseases and HIV/AIDS (Campbell, 1999; Dutton, 2006). It has been estimated that approximately 35% of female victims of IPV report physical injuries and that 40% seek some form of professional medical treatment (Rennison, 2000). However, physical violence is not experienced in isolation by the body but rather with the emotional, psychological being such that mental health consequences necessarily result as well. The mental health issues most often reported among victims of IPV include depression,

suicide, posttraumatic stress disorder, and alcohol and drug abuse (Golding, 1999; Dutton, 2006).

The impact of domestic violence on families and communities is equally profound. Families experiencing violence are at increased risk of poverty, housing insecurity/instability, job and employment insecurity, healthcare and social service needs, as well as increased risk of continued victimization (Campbell, 2005). Families experiencing domestic violence are less likely to contribute to the community either materially or through civic involvement. Children exposed to violence are at greater risk of physical abuse and neglect, drug use, decreased academic performance, and future victimization (Campbell, 2005). Communities also feel the impact of domestic violence: As domestic violence penetrates individual households it also penetrates the walls of schools, area businesses, and community institutions bringing with it instability, fear, and anxiety.

1.2 Definitions

In the following section definitions of various terms relevant in domestic and family violence will be presented. In social science literature, domestic violence, wife battering, spousal abuse, and intimate partner violence are often used interchangeably to refer to violence inflicted by one member of a dating or intimate partner couple on the other member or partner. The broader term, family violence, refers to incidents involving individuals who are members of a family or household and can therefore involve individuals who are not related by consanguinity or through marriage.

In the social science literature the following summary definition of domestic violence stands out (Bancroft, 2007, p. 1);

“a pattern of coercive control of an intimate partner that may be primarily made up of psychological abuse, sexual coercion, or economic abuse that is punctuated by one or more acts of frightening physical violence, credible threats of physical harm, or sexual assault”.

Although coercion and control are not used in Texas law, there exists a clear understanding that control and coercion are central to a batter's violence against their partners among Dallas

County District Attorney (DCDA) Family violence prosecutors and advocates as reflected in the Family Violence definition of domestic violence, as a “pattern of behaviors meant to scare, harm, and ultimately control an intimate partner” (Family Violence Dynamics, 2005, p. 1).

Texas Statutes relevant to family and domestic violence for the most part appear in the Texas Code of Criminal procedures Title 1, Chapter 5, “Family Violence Prevention”, and Chapter 7a, “Protective Order for Victims of Sexual Assault”; and the Texas Family Code Title 4, Chapters 71, 81-88, 91 & 92, “Protective Orders and Family Violence”. The Texas Family Code, Sec 71.04 defines family violence as

“an act by a member of a family or household against another member of the family or household that is intended to result in physical harm, bodily injury, assault, or sexual assault or that is a threat that reasonably places the member in fear of imminent physical harm, bodily injury, assault, sexual assault, but does not include defensive measures to protect oneself” (Texas Family Code, 1997, p. 1).

A similar definition in the Texas Family Code is offered for dating violence in which “members of a current or past dating relationship” are involved (Texas Family Code, 1997, p. 1). In Texas a family includes “individuals related by consanguinity or affinity and includes former spouses, parents of the same child/foster child irrespective of marital or residence status”. Households are units composed of individuals that live or have lived in the same dwelling irrespective of whether they are related to each other (Texas Family Code, 1997). Finally, dating relationships are defined as “relationships between individuals who have or have had a continuing romantic or intimate relationship” and are based on length and nature of the relationship, and frequency and type of interactions between individuals in the relationship (Texas Family Code, 1997, p. 1).

Misdemeanor and felony domestic violence offences in Texas, just as in federal law, are distinguished based on the relative seriousness of the offense committed, and the prescribed sanction. Texas laws stipulating incarceration for more than one year for crimes committed are considered felonies, while misdemeanor offenses stipulate incarceration periods ranging from 5 days to one year (Appendix A, Table A.1).

1.3 Study Purpose and Goals

The purpose of this study was exploratory in nature and directed at gaining a better understanding of how victims, advocates, and the criminal justice system interact, and how these interactions impact felony case outcomes in Dallas County. The approach taken involved both geographic analysis and case file data analysis. The specific research questions addressed in this study are presented below.

- Is there a relationship between individual and community characteristics, and the geographic distribution of felony domestic violence cases in Dallas County?
- What factors predict victims' decisions to file applications of non-prosecution with the DA's office?
- What factors predict court outcome in felony DV cases in Dallas County?
- Is there a relationship between the length of time lapsed between case posting and victim advocate contact, and case outcome?
- Is there a relationship between victim advocate contact and court outcome?
- Does advocate contact facilitate the court outcome desired by the victim?

1.3.1 *Rationale*

It is generally accepted that domestic violence knows no boundaries, affecting individuals irrespective of race, ethnicity, religion, cultural background, socio-economic status, education, profession, or sexual orientation. Within Dallas County, there is evidence that family violence victims requesting services are ubiquitously distributed throughout the county. (Community Focus Group Report, 2002). In order to understand how the DA's office impacts victims one must first examine the environment where the violence is occurring, which will be addressed through geographic information system analysis. It would be reasonable to assume, based on service utilization that felony cases would be scattered throughout the county. If, however felony cases displayed distinct patterns of distribution, analyses directed at identifying factors associated with distribution would be useful for all domestic violence stakeholders. Such

information would facilitate development of targeted individual and community prevention, intervention and treatment programs.

Understanding how the DCDA's family violence division interfaces with victims is also essential to program development, particularly those directed at victim support. District and state attorney's offices function within political and institutional environments to serve victims, perpetrators, families, and communities within their jurisdictions. Within Dallas County, victims' first interactions with the DA's office generally occur through advocate contact and for the most part ends at trial or plea. Two indirect measures were used to explore DA-victim interactions, filing affidavits of non-prosecution (ANP; i.e., requests to drop the charges) and court outcome. Applications of non-prosecution require victims to make an appointment with advocates to complete a face-to-face interview. Identifying factors that predict ANP application could be particularly useful for planning and assessment of victim services within the DA's office. Similarly, looking outside the role of prosecutors to identify factors influencing court outcome could reveal individual and/or institutional characteristics worthy of prosecutor attention.

The primary goals of victim advocacy within the DA's office are to: 1) communicate with and provide support to all family violence victims, 2) provide information regarding processing of felony cases, 3) ascertain the victim's desired outcome for the case, and 4) provide referrals (Frederick, 2003). In general DCDA Family Violence advocates dedicate approximately 80% of their time to establishing a rapport with victims and providing advocacy within the DA's office, and 10 percent of their time accompanying victims in court. With respect to advocate contacts, high priority is given to cases in which the perpetrator is incarcerated; however for the most part victims are contacted in order of the date the case is presented to the family violence division for prosecution. Cases in which the perpetrator is incarcerated are high priority because it is during this time that victims can exercise greater freedom and are more likely able to engage with advocates.

Based on information obtained from the victim advocate program, it is approximated that 70% of victims were contacted by family violence advocates in 2006. Two indirect measures of advocate impact on victims were examined in this study. Although achieving the victim's desired case outcome is not a primary goal for family violence advocates, it served as an indirect measure of the impact of advocacy on victims. As a second indirect measure used examined whether time delay in victim contact by an advocate affected case outcome. The information gleaned from this exploratory study may assist in both enhancing and facilitating the development, delivery, and utilization of services provided for victims of domestic violence in Dallas County.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Historical Perspective

The entry of social work into the women's movement, and specifically into the battered women's movement, had its beginnings in the second wave of the feminist movement in the mid 1960's. It is noteworthy to mention the impact the first wave of the feminist movement had on making future efforts to address violence against women possible. The feminist movement began in Britain in the 18th century with the publication of Mary Wollstonecraft's "Vindication of the rights of women" in 1792 in which she argued that women were "intellectual equals to men but were deprived of the educational training to realize their full potential" (Huxman, 1996; Sen, 2005). A second publication, "Women in the 19th Century", by Margaret Fuller published in 1845, opened the floodgates for the feminist movement in the United States. The private vs. public status of women was at the fore front of the feminist movement throughout the 19th and 20th centuries, with the principal goal being women's suffrage (Huxman, 1996). Transporting women from the private realm into the public and political world was paramount to achieving this goal and would require a paradigm shift: Societal views of women as distinct individuals with rights would have to replace the dominant patriarchal view of women as the voiceless property of men. The political presence of women in society, brought about with the passage of voting rights in Britain and the US in the 20th century paved the way for the second and third waves of the women's movement as well as the battered women's movement.

The battle for equal rights, women's liberation, was the primary focus of the feminist movement of the 1960's to 1980's. Attacks against all barriers to equality for women were pursued from many fronts, societal, legal, and institutional. It was during this time that the

battered women's movement also began. There are several individuals whose contributions to the battered women's movement were significant. Susan Brownmiller's book "Against our will: men, women, and rape", published in 1975, focused attention on the male dominance of women through the violence of rape, and the power they gained therein (Hartmann, 1978; SafeNetwork, 1999,). In the late 1970's Dr. Lenore Walker first described battered women's syndrome in an attempt to explain why abused women remained with battering partners. Dr. Walker's characterization of battered women's syndrome incorporated the cyclical nature of battering and symptoms of "learned helplessness" (Rothenberg, 2002). Although subsequent research refuted this theory, Dr. Walker's work contributed to bringing attention to the battered women's movement (Timeline of milestones, 2000). Finally, Susan Schechter, social worker and feminist, is largely credited with having re-started the battered women's movement with the 1982 publication of "Women and male violence: the visions and struggles of the battered women's movement" (Danis, 2006).Ms. Schechter opened the first domestic violence shelter in Chicago and started the first domestic violence program in the United States in Boston, Advocacy for Women and Kids in Emergencies (AWAKE; SafeNetwork, 1999).

The formal entry of professional social work into the battered women's movement was viewed with skepticism by feminists and advocates (Pyles, 2004). Mental health professionals, therapists, and social work professionals, in working together, effectively reduced women's suffering in abusive relationships to individual pathologies (Pyles, 2004; SafeNetwork, 1999). Their misguided efforts threatened progress made towards bringing domestic violence into the public realm as a social problem that required political and legislative responses. As the negative stereotypes of battered women were broken down in the early and mid 1990's and pro-arrest and pro-prosecution policies were adopted by police and states attorneys, new challenges emerged. In the US today, victims of domestic violence are faced with a criminal justice system that remains largely inflexible to their diverse needs. In addition, perhaps as a result of the media's attention to extreme cases of domestic violence, we have come to a place

where “society is more aware of domestic violence, but individuals experiencing violence have adopted an “it’s not me” attitude” (Johnson, 2000). Because the vast majority of domestic violence experienced by women is not extreme, women are less able to identify themselves as victims and are discouraged from reporting or seeking help.

2.1.1. *Help Seeking*

Victims of domestic violence utilize private self-help, and informal and formal supports to varying degrees depending on a multitude of factors. Liang et. al. describe a conceptual framework for understanding help-seeking among survivors of domestic violence based in ecological systems, and cognitive theory (Liang, 2005). They divided the decision-making processes into three stages influenced by individual, familial, economic and socio-cultural factors in a feedback loop system. The three stages include: recognizing and defining the problem, deciding to seek help, and selecting the help provider. Victims’ definitions of their problems may vary depending on their readiness for change, their relationship with the abuser, reactions of support networks, and gender, class, and cultural pressures (Liang, 2005). In deciding to seek help Liang suggests that victims assess their safety and resources, as well as examining prior personal experiences with seeking help (Liang, 2005). In the final stage victims select the helping source, which is guided by how they’ve defined the problem as well as the personal and familial costs and benefits of disclosure/seeking help.

Victim supports fall into three categories, private, informal and formal. Private supports generally involve utilizing coping skills like placating and resisting dealing with abuse. Informal supports include those provided by family, and friends, while formal supports include seeking assistance from police, legal aid, mental-health professionals, healthcare professionals, social or casework assistance, housing or emergency shelter services, and educational services. There is some evidence to suggest that domestic violence victims most often seek community-based or professional services (Morrison, 2006). In a study on help seeking of victims of IPV

and rape (forced sex) Coker found that victims with at least some college, and those who experienced severe violence were more likely to seek assistance/help (Coker, 2000).

Although there remain many unknowns regarding the impact of culture on help seeking behaviors, and despite disparate research findings, the volume of research in this area reflects the growing realization that culture impacts women's response to domestic violence (Allen, 2004; Liang, 2005; Morrison, 2006). Texas, which has significant Hispanic and African American populations, and growing Asian and immigrant populations, the need for cultural sensitivity and awareness continues to be paramount to addressing victims' needs. Although limited in scope, a brief discussion of culture in help seeking is presented. Among Hispanic women, significant barriers to help exist in part due to acculturation (language preference), and cultural barriers (Lipsky, 2006). African American victims often struggle with identity issues, associated with the generally held stereotype that they are strong and aggressive women who do not tolerate abuse. This belief, often held by African American women in addition to the general public has been suggested to result in limited or ineffectual emotional support from family, friends and social service providers (Morrison, 2006). Some research also suggests that African American women may be more reluctant to seek help from police or the criminal justice system due to staggering rate of arrest and incarceration of African American men (Morrison, 2003).

There is growing attention focusing on the experiences of underserved populations of women including those with disabilities, the elderly, lesbian women, and among ethnic and religious minorities (Anderson, 1997; Lauritsen, 2004). It is also widely suggested that incidents of intimate partner violence are underreported throughout the United States. However, victim involvement with the criminal justice system is not always a choice made by the victim. Several studies on victims' routes of entry into the criminal justice system suggest that victims who engage willingly experience greater satisfaction with outcomes than women who are coerced to engage police or prosecutors (Felson, 2005; Romkens, 2006). Within Dallas county,

emergency protection orders are often obtained by police officers on behalf of victims they feel are in eminent danger (See Appendix A, Table A.3).

2.1.2. Community and Social Planning

In the 1980's efforts were made throughout the US to develop community response programs directed at supporting domestic violence victims through organized and coordinated service delivery. The systems that were developed brought together legal and judicial departments, health care professionals, social service agencies, and victim advocacy organizations. The philosophical basis on which the community response systems were developed lie in ecological systems theory: Individuals and their families experience violence within the context of their immediate environment, within neighborhoods and communities with which they have connections, within the workplace, and in the political, economic, and cultural landscape of the time. The goals of establishing coordinated response systems varied depending on community needs, participation of stakeholders, and available resources but generally included improving outcomes for victims and reducing recidivism (Allen, 2004; Slaght, 2005; Salazar, 2007).

Researchers have found that council effectiveness can be profoundly affected by philosophical approaches taken towards domestic violence by criminal justice participants (Slaght, 2005). In particular, Slaght found that changes in judicial and states attorney's personnel altered criminal justice responses to victims both in terms of case prosecution and outcome conditions. In addition, limited involvement (or the changing quality of involvement) from critical stakeholders (healthcare providers, religious leaders) as well as changes in funding also appeared to alter council effectiveness their study (Slaght, 2005). However, for the most part, evaluation of community council effectiveness proved inconclusive with some researchers finding improved outcomes (e.g., increased perpetrator arrest, Slaght, 2005; Salazar, 2007), and others finding only moderate changes with respect to criminal justice outcomes (Allen, 2006).

2.2 Domestic Violence and the Criminal Justice System

Within the United States, tremendous progress has been made in addressing violence against women both politically, legislatively, and criminally. In order to understand how to move forward, it is important to briefly examine the past. A review of salient legislative and criminal justice responses to domestic violence are presented in the following sections.

2.2.1 Legislative Responses to Domestic Violence

Eighteenth century US law was based on the British common law, which prescribed the suspension of individual rights of women upon marriage. During this time laws not only permitted but encouraged chastisement of married women, and also provided for spousal exceptions in rape cases. It wasn't until the early 1900's that most US states had passed laws making chastisement illegal. However, many states still recognized the spousal exception in rape cases well into the 20th century. It was also during this time that special family courts were being created to manage domestic violence cases. The formation of family courts however proved a significant step backwards as these courts removed cases of violence against women from the criminal justice system (Schechter, 1982; SafeNetworks, 1999; Timeline of Milestones, 2000). In the mid 1960's the combined work of family courts, psychiatric communities, and social work professionals, brought to the forefront a pathologic component of female battering returning the focus to individual and societal ailments, which also posed a threat to progress in addressing violence against women (Schechter, 1982; SafeNetworks, 1999).

However, despite decades of missteps, significant changes in state laws implemented in from the mid 1960 through the mid 80's forged a new beginning towards protecting battered women. Class action law suits in New York, Oklahoma, and California made violence against women crimes against the state not just the individual. Women also gained access to legal actions of protection through civil protective and restraining orders. The Victims of Crimes Act of 1986, the Violence Against Women Act (VAWA) of 1994, and its expansion in 1999 to protect the elderly, immigrants, and dating relationships, Crawford v Washington in 2004, and the

reauthorized VAWA of 2005 were among the most significant federal legislative and judicial actions taken in response to violence against women.

Prior to the 2004 Supreme Court ruling in *Crawford v. Washington*, the use of excited utterance hearsay exception enabled domestic violence case prosecution when victims refused to cooperate or testify against their abuser. The *Crawford* decision however, limited the use of excited utterance by subjecting the admissibility of testimonial out-of-court statements to the requirements of witness confrontation (Byrom, 2005, Jaros, 2005). Although the court left a great deal unclear in their decision, they did specify that *Crawford* requirements would not apply to excited utterances as long as they are spontaneous, and non-testimonial in nature (Byrom, 2005, Jaros, 2005). In addition the court specified that testimonial statements made by victims who become unavailable for confrontation purposes due to the defendant's misconduct were admissible because of forfeiture of the right to confrontation (Byrom, 2005, Jaros, 2005).

2.2.2 Criminal Justice System Responses to Domestic Violence

Dramatic change with respect to police response to domestic violence incidents came following publication of Sherman and Berk's Minneapolis study in which they suggested arrest was an effective deterrent to domestic violence (Sherman, 1984). Mandatory arrest laws were subsequently passed in many states across the nation, largely as a result of the level of public attention the study received. It is noteworthy to point out the political environment at that time was one in which the pendulum was swinging swiftly and with great force towards tough punitive sanctions for crimes. President Reagan's "tough on crime", and "war on drugs" approaches to criminal justice cultivated a perfect environment for sweeping changes to take place. Although 20 years have passed, there remains a great deal of debate regarding pro-arrest policies towards domestic violence. Police jurisdictions today have a broad range of tools available when responding to incidents in particular issuance of emergency protective orders (EPO). In some jurisdictions EPO's can be issued on behalf of victims perceived to be in

eminent danger. Many jurisdictions also staff crime victim advocates who are available to provide immediate referral for services and shelters.

Pro-prosecution policies, which spread rapidly among state attorney's offices in the 1990's, added to the criminal justice arsenal for fighting domestic violence. Although certainly hampered by the Crawford decision, pro-prosecution policies continue today despite the lack of empirical research suggesting significant benefit to victims' safety, or toward reducing recidivism. In fact several studies have suggested that pro-prosecution policies place victims at greater risk of future violence (Ford, 1999; Romkens, 2006).

2.3 GIS Technology in the Social Sciences

Geographic Information Systems (GIS) is a powerful tool for data management, mapping and analysis that has been growing in use in social science research over the past decade. Through the use of analytical tools available with GIS, researchers are able to geographically join and relate special data to data tables allowing powerful analyses. GIS had been employed to examine child maltreatment as well as domestic violence (Bogat, 2005, Ernst, 2000, Hoefler, 1994). In 2005 Bogat et.al used GIS analysis to study how community violence influenced the mental health functioning of female victims of domestic violence (Bogat, 2005). For the purposes of this study a spatial data map was created plotting felony incidents occurring within the Dallas County. Community demographic information was extracted from the city of Dallas Department of Economic Development web publications for each City Council District in the city of Dallas.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

This study was exploratory in nature and utilized secondary analysis of data from the Dallas County District Attorney's Office (DCDA). The author conducted a Community and Administrative Practice internship within the DCDA Family Violence division and received approval to conduct a research project from the Chief Prosecutor, Family Violence Division, Cindy Dyer (Approved May 22, 2007). IRB approval (No. 07.308e) to conduct this research was received from the University of Texas at Arlington Office of Research Integrity and Compliance on October 12, 2007. The DCDA data was extracted from two Dallas County data sources including; the District Attorney felony case files, and county criminal and court records databases. DA felony case files contained information collected by police, prosecutors, and victims advocates as well as court documents. A list of data extracted for use in this study appears in Appendix B, Table B.1. Upon extraction of all pertinent case information, data were de-identified (i.e., victim and perpetrator names, and court case numbers were deleted) and stored on a flash drive for coding and analysis.

Twenty-two of the 53 jurisdictions in Dallas County filed the felony domestic violence cases used in this study (see Table A.2 in Appendix A). The process by which family violence assault cases arrive to the felony family violence division is outlined in Figure A.1 in Appendix A. Briefly, police officers responding to 911 calls collect incident information and file official police reports which are submitted to investigating officers. Investigating officers then file the case with the DA's office, which submits felony cases to the grand jury for billing. Cases billed true are then assigned to a family violence prosecutor, and to a victim advocate. Victim advocates prioritize cases for victim contact based on the perpetrator's location (i.e., in jail or not).

Immediate attention is paid to cases in which the perpetrator is in jail. All other victim contacts are made based on an ascending date order. Advocates attempt to contact all family violence victims either by phone or written correspondence. On average, 75% of DCDA felony family violence cases are plead out of court with the remaining either going to trial or being dismissed.

3.1 Sample Description

The non-probability sampling procedure, availability or convenience sampling, was utilized in this study. The cases were selected from the Family Violence Division log, which lists all felony cases handed down by the grand jury to the family violence prosecutors. DC felony case numbers and victim and perpetrator names were collected from the logbook. Utilizing case numbers and names, additional data was then collected from the DC criminal and court databases. Cases eligible for inclusion in this study met the following criteria: the criminal incident occurred in the 2006 calendar year (January 1, through December 31), were disposed in 2006, and were not transferred out of the Family Violence division. All data extraction from case files was performed in the Records division. Similarly, data extraction from county databases was performed within the Family Violence division offices on department computers.

There were a total of 1599 cases handled by the Family Violence division in 2006, of those reviewed 904 cases (~ 56%) were eligible for inclusion in this study. Eligible felony case files were thoroughly reviewed and relevant data was extracted and entered in a Microsoft Excel file. There were 187 felony case files (~ 21%) unavailable for examination due to removal from the records division for use in active case investigations or prosecutions. Data collected from cases for which files were missing (only database information was collected) were utilized exclusively for the purpose of compiling demographic information, and for descriptive analyses.

In addition to DCDA felony data, crime statistics data were also extracted from public data sets available through both state and federal criminal justice web sites as well as national domestic violence web sites. US census data pertaining to socio-economics, education, and population demographics were also extracted for use in GIS analyses.

3.2 Study Variables and Analyses

The geographic distribution of domestic violence cases in Dallas County was assessed utilizing several GIS tools including ArcMap and ArcCatalogue versions 9.1. Two types of shapefiles were created; a county street shapefile (defining lines), and an incident address shapefile (defining points). Shapefiles store location, shape, and attributes of geographic features. The incident addresses, modified to locate the block as opposed to exact address for the purposes of confidentiality (e.g., 5708 was recoded to 5700, 18955 was recoded to 18900), were geocoded using ArcMap. The joined Census block group and incident shapefile produced a majority of cells with one or two domestic violence incidents. Preliminary analysis on these data proved cumbersome and inconclusive. For that reason, a modified GIS fishnet tool, developed by Joshua Been (2006), was used. A 20 x 20 fishnet grid was created to obtain a county area shapefile. The grid was then joined to the census block group shape file and a mathematic conversion was run to generate a weighted shapefile containing point count (incident events) and census statistics. The independent variables used in the limited analysis included only census data representing averages or percentages: household size, ratio of income to poverty, and female head of household income to poverty level. Averaging population over an area, for example, would produce un-interpretable data.

Logistic regression was conducted to assess whether victim/perpetrator relationship characteristics and perpetrator criminal history affected victims' decisions to apply for an affidavit of non-prosecution. The model dependent variable, filing ANP, was dichotomous (0 = no A&P, 1= A&P). The predictor variables included relationship length and type, presence of children in victim's household, and perpetrator's criminal history. Relationship length, measured in years, and type were drawn from police reports and advocate contact forms. Relationship type, (see Appendix B, Table B.1), was recoded into two categories (0 = married, 1 = ex-spouse/IP). The number of children the victim had at the time of the incident was collected from police reports and advocate contact forms. These data were then transformed into nominal

data in which no children was coded 0, and any children was coded 1. In the second model the defendant's criminal history was added as a dichotomous variable (0 = criminal history, 1 = no known criminal history).

Logistic regression was also conducted to assess which factors significantly influenced court outcome. In the model examined, the independent variable, court outcome, was dichotomized such that probation was coded 0 and incarceration was coded as 1. The factors included crime and perpetrator characteristics, victim wants, and justice system characteristics. In the first model predictor variables included perpetrator age and criminal history, reporting jurisdiction, initial charge, victim ANP status, and time delay from grand jury hearing to sentencing. Perpetrator age remained a scale variable. Jurisdiction was dichotomized to allow comparison of Dallas (recoded 0, the largest contributor of felony cases) and all other reporting jurisdictions (coded 1). Initial charge was recoded as violent non-sexual (0) and non-violent terroristic (1). Sexual crimes were excluded from this model due to small sub-sample size. The delay in time from grand jury hearing to sentencing was used as an indicator of the relative amount of time delayed in justice system handling.

Bivariate analyses were conducted to examine the relationship between DCDA victim advocate involvement and court outcome. For the purpose of these analyses, court outcome was coded as 0 = dismissed, 1 = probation, and 2 = incarceration. Independent variables included: victim advocate contact, the time lapsed (in days) from the date of the incident to victim advocate contact, and the victim's desired court outcome. Victim-advocate contact was a dichotomous variable with no contact coded 0 and victim contact coded 1. The time lapsed from incident date to victim contact was left as scale data and was calculated based on recorded dates. Victim's desired court outcome was predominantly collected from victim advocate contact interview, but on occasion was also reported by police.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The findings resulting from the analyses discussed in the previous chapter are presented. This chapter is organized into five sections: (1) descriptive statistics; (2) GIS; (3) predictors of ANP filing, and (4) predictors of court outcome, and (5) DC District Attorney Victim advocacy.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Demographic and descriptive data pertaining to victims, perpetrators, and domestic violence crimes in Dallas County are critical to understanding the impact of victim advocacy on victims and felony court outcomes. This chapter begins with a brief review of pertinent demographic and descriptive analyses of several individual, and crime characteristics among 2006 disposed felony cases.

4.1.1 Dallas County Demographics

In 2006, Dallas County was the 2nd-most populist county in Texas with a total population of 2,345,815. Dallas is the largest city in the county and is ranked 2nd largest in Texas and 9th largest in the country. The city of Dallas accounts for approximately 51% of Dallas County's total population, with Carrollton, Garland, Grand Prairie, Irving, Mesquite, and Richardson accounting for an additional 41%. Table 4.1 below presents summary statistics comparing Dallas County to the cities listed above. The City of Dallas maintained the largest percent minority population in the county while Richardson had the lowest (67.3% and 25.9% respectively). Among family households, Irving had the largest percentage of female head of households with children under 18. The city of Dallas and Irving had the largest percentage of families living below the poverty level at 19.1% and 13.2% respectively. Richardson and

Carrollton on the other hand had the largest percentage adults 25 years and older with a bachelors degree or higher (45.9 and 40.6% respectively).

4.1.2 Dallas County Felony Family Violence Statistics

Felony family violence victims included in our data set ranged in age from 16 to 96 years with a mean age of 34.1 (SD = 12.8). Among perpetrators, ages ranged from 17 to 89 with a mean age of 33 (SD = 10.5). Eighty two percent of victims in Dallas County were women, while approximately 18% were male.

Table 4.1 2006 Felony Family Violence Cases

	Total Family Violence Cases				Intimate Partner Cases			
	Victim	n	Perpetrator	N	Victim	N	Perpetrator	n
Gender		730		904		621		627
Female	82.3		13.7		86.8		13.1	
Male	17.7		86.3		13.2		86.9	
Race		726		904		618		627
African American	50.1		55.8		50.6		56.8	
Hispanic	20.5		17.9		21.5		19.1	
White	29.4		26.3		27.9		24.1	
Age		728		903		617		623
16-25	30.7		28.3		32.9		27.4	
26-35	28.1		34.5		31.9		36.6	
36-45	23.9		24.9		22.9		23.8	
≥ 46	17.1		12.2		17.3		12.2	

n = valid cases, results reported in % valid cases

With respect to victim characteristics, there were important differences between the larger demographic profile of Dallas County and those of victims of felony family violence crimes included in our study (see Table 4.2). Fifty percent of victims were African Americans, in contrast to 20.7% of the county population. Conversely, the white county population was approximately 58.1%, while white victims constituted only 29% of those in the data set. Hispanic victims in our data set represented 20% while they constituted 37.7% of the total county population. Asians were also underrepresented in our data set by approximately an order of magnitude at .4% compared to 4.4% in Dallas County. Interestingly, the racial profile of perpetrators followed closely that for victims. African Americans were disproportionately

Table 4.2 Dallas County Population Statistics, 2006

	Tot Pop	% White	% Black	% Asian	% Hisp	Family Below PL	Individual Below PL
Dallas CO.	2345815	58.1	20.7	4.4	37.7	13.7	16.6
Dallas	1192538	52.9	24.2	2.3	43.1	19.1	22.1
Carrollton	122269	74.6	7.2	12.7	28.6	6.2	7.4
Garland	240876	57.5	13.3	9.8	35.1	11.0	13.6
Grand Prairie	155593	61.5	15.2	5.8	41.5	11.8	13.7
Irving	205920	68	12.5	10.3	41.7	13.2	14.5
Mesquite	137653	68.7	17.9	4.6	25.8	7.7	9.0
Richardson	97191	75.2	8.2	12.5	17.7	4.0	7.3
	Avg. HH Size	Avg. Family Size	% Fam HH w/ Child	% FHHh w/Child	% High School / Higher	% BA / Higher	% >16 yr In work force
Dallas CO.	2.81	3.51	53.9	14.3	74.4	26.2	70
Dallas	2.66	3.5	53.5	16.1	70.4	26.6	69
Carrollton	2.98	3.62	60.9	9.3	84.9	40.6	75.2
Garland	3.15	3.62	52.5	11.4	72.4	18.2	70.9
Grand Prairie	3.12	3.61	58.2	11.4	77.8	21	72.4
Irving	2.73	3.42	54	16.8	74	30	75.3
Mesquite	2.99	3.51	50.9	11.8	80.6	18.7	72.4
Richardson	2.64	3.21	41.7	7.6	88.8	45.9	68.1

Avg, average; BA, Bachelor's Degree; Dallas CO., Dallas County; Fam, Family; FHHh, Female Head of Household; HH, Household.

represented at 55% of perpetrators, while Hispanics were underrepresented among perpetrators at 18% in our data set.

4.1.3 Dallas County Felony Family Violence Crimes

There were 1,599 felony domestic violence cases in 2006, based on Dallas County District Attorney data, of those 904 cases (56%) were examined in this study. Aggravated assault and assault with bodily injury accounted for approximately 80% of the family violence cases examined in this study. A break down and comparison between all DCDA cases and those examined for this study is presented in Table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3 Felony Family Violence Case Charges, 2006

INITIAL CHARGE	All Case		Study Cases	
	TOTAL	Percent	TOTAL	Percent
Violent Non-Terroristic				
Aggravated Kidnapping	13	0.8	5	0.5
Aggravated Robbery, DW	23	1.5	6	0.7
Aggravated Assault, DW	737	48	394	44
Assault Bodily Injury/Family Violence	477	31	324	36
Assault Enhanced	9	0.6	4	0.4
Kidnapping	2	0.1	1	0.1
Non-Violent Terroristic				
Burglary Habitation	45	2.9	41	4.5
Retaliation	24	1.6	10	1.1
Stalking	18	1.2	12	1.3
Violation of Protective Order/Assault	66	4.3	40	4.4
Sexual				
Aggravated Sexual Assault	10	0.7	6	0.7
Sexual Assault	28	1.8	8	0.9
Other				
Murder	4	0.3	3	0.3
Injury Elderly Person/Serious Bodily Injury	1	<.1	3	0.3
Injury Elderly Person, Invalid, Child	47	3	26	2.9
Attempted Sex, UPD Felon	6	0.4	4	0.4
Possession Controlled Substance, Burglary Building, Evading Arrest, Child Endangerment, Injury Elderly, Interference with emergency call, Theft	24	1.6	16	1.8

Among the DV cases examined, 457 (50.6%) involved married or intimate partner couples, 165 (18.3%) involved separated or divorced couples, and 90 (10%) involved non-IP

relationships (Table 4.4). Applications for affidavits of non-prosecution were obtained through the DA's office in 191 (26.5%) cases. Court determinations of affirmative findings of family violence were found in 217 (28.9%) cases. The distribution of case outcomes was as follows: 8.5% of cases were dismissed (74 cases), 60.2% received probation (520 cases), and 38.2% received some type of incarceration (30 cases, n=864).

Table 4.4 Relationship Type by Court Outcome, ANP, and AFFV

Relationship Type	ANP (n=720)	AFFV (n=750)	Court Outcome (n=864)		
			Dismissed	Probation	Incarceration
Married/IP	135	123	25	247	166
Ex-Spouse/-IP	31	42	11	96	53
Non-IP	16	14	4	57	28
Relationship Unknown	9	38	34	60	83

4.2 Geographic Information Systems

As displayed in Figure 4.1 below, felony incidents of family violence in Dallas County appeared to follow four patterns: aligned along freeways and highways, relative dense clusters, diffusely scattered, and areas with limited/no incidents. Cases tracked along several highways including: Hwy 75 north of University Park into Richardson, east along IH 30, southeast along Hwy 175, south along IH 35 and Hwy 67, and in far west Dallas along Hwy 80. More dense clusters of incidents occurred in east central Dallas (north and south around Fair Park), in south Dallas surrounding Oak Cliff, and in far west Dallas and Irving. Of equal interest were the areas in which there seemed to be an absence of felony incidents, particularly in north Dallas, Coppell, northeast Dallas surrounding White Rock Lake, and in southeast Dallas and the far southeastern portion of Dallas County.

4.3 Predictors of Filing an Affidavit of Non-Prosecution

Of the 904 cases included in this study, 582 (~64%) were cases in which a FV advocate attempted to contact the victim, and of those 370 (~41%) victim contacts were completed as either witness contacts and/or affidavit of non-prosecution interviews. In 90% of cases in which

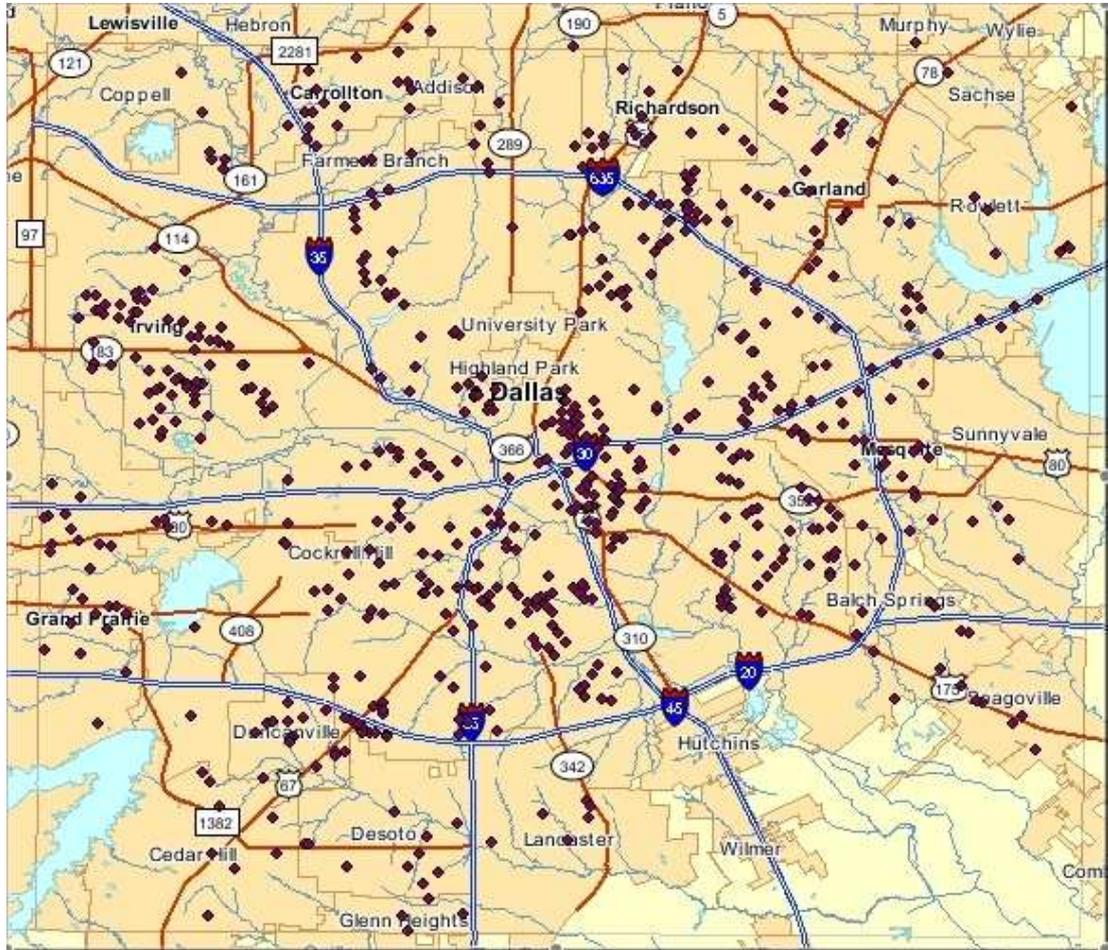


Figure 4.1 Map of Dallas County Domestic Violence Study Cases

an attempted contact was made (n = 520) the victim-perpetrator relationship had been characterized as either married/IP or ex-spouse/-IP. It is noteworthy to point out that of the 712 cases in which relationship type was known, 87.4% were intimate partner relationships (i.e., married, IP, divorced/separated, ex-IP).

4.3.1 Bivariate Analysis

The variables considered for analysis included those reflecting victim characteristics, relationship characteristics, the crime, and perpetrator criminal history. Using cross tabulation, it was found that victim age, gender, and race as well as perpetrator criminal history were not significantly associated with filing for an affidavit of non-prosecution (see Table 4.5). Victim-perpetrator relationship type and length, the victim having children under 18, and initial charge were found to be significantly associated with a victims' decision to file for an affidavit of non-prosecution as shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 ANP and Independent Variable Bivariate Analyses

Variable	AP	No AP	Significance
Age ^a	m = 33.83, s = 12.0	m = 34.2, s = 13.1	t= .365, df = 792, p= .363
Gender ^b	Female (n = 191) 83.8%	(n = 538) 81.8%	$\chi^2 = .381, df = 1,$ p = .537
	Male 16.2%	18.2%	
Race ^b	African American (n = 189) 49.2%	(n = 536) 50.45	$\chi^2 = 2.566, df = 2,$ p = .277
	Hispanic 24.3%	19.2%	
	White 26.5%	30.4%	
Relationship Type ^b	Married (n = 166) 27.7%	(n = 455) 19.6%	$\chi^2 = 8.984, df = 2,$ p = .05
	Intimate Partner 53.6%	51.2%	
	Ex-IP/separated/divorced 18.7%	29.2%	
Relationship Length (years) ^a	m = 5.95, s = 5.49	m = 4.49, s = 4.38	t= -3.191, df = 499, p= .005
Victim Children < 18 ^b	Children Reported (n = 176) 36.9%	(n = 479) 51.4%	$\chi^2 = .0107, df = 1,$ p = .001
	No Children Reported 63.1%	48.6%	
Initial Charge ^b	Viol. Non-Sexual (n = 191) 89.5%	(n = 708) 79.5%	$\chi^2 = .0110, df = 3,$ p = .05
	Non-Viol/Terroristic 5.8%	13.4%	
	Sexual 1.6%	1.6%	
	Other 3.1%	5.5%	
Criminal History ^b	No Prior FV Conviction (n = 162) 33.8%	(n = 485) 34.2%	$\chi^2 = 2.876, df = 2,$ p = .237
	Prior FV Conviction 36.8%	35.1%	
	Other Criminal History 29.4%	30.7%	

a. Independent t-test: m = mean, s = standard deviation, equal variance assumed

b. Chi square: % of total

Results from chi square test of independence comparing the frequency of filing an ANP among married couples, intimate partners, and separated/divorced couples revealed a significant interaction ($\chi^2(2) = 8.984, p < .05$). Married women were more likely to apply for an ANP than women in intimate partner couples or those separated/divorced/ex-IP. Interestingly, filing for an ANP was least likely among victims who were separated from the perpetrator (i.e., ex-IP, separated, divorced). The results also suggest that victims with children under 18 years of age were less likely to file an ANP than women with no children. Finally, with respect to the nature of crimes, victims of violent non-sexual crimes were more likely to file an ANP than not file.

4.3.2. Logistic Regression

Logistic regression was conducted to assess whether the predictor variables, relationship length and type, victim having children under 18 years of age, initial charge, and perpetrator's criminal history significantly predict applying for an affidavit of non-prosecution. Criminal history was incorporated into the model despite bivariate results to further examine this variable when dichotomized. The model analysis suggests that the variables included significantly predict whether or not a victim applies for an A&P, $\chi^2 = 18.663, df = 5, N = 448, p < .005$. Odds ratios are presented in Table 4.6. These data suggest that the odds of applying for an A&P modestly increases with relationship length, 6% per year. The data also suggest that the type of relationship impacts a victim's decision to apply for an affidavit of non-prosecution; women involved in intimate relationships being more likely to apply.

Table 4.6 Logistic Regression Odds Statistics

	Sig.	Exp(B)	Lower CI	Upper CI
Relationship Type	.050	.588	.346	.999
Relationship Length	.009	1.059	1.014	1.105
Victim has children	.151	1.375	.890	2.125
Initial Charge	.058	.514	.258	1.024
Perpetrator Criminal History	.375	.817	.523	1.277

It is noteworthy to point out that although initial charge did not significantly predict ANP in our model, chi square analysis revealed that victims of non-violent/terroristic crimes were

more likely to not file affidavits of non-prosecution, while victims of violent non-sexual crimes were more likely to file ($\chi^2(1) = 9.109, p = .003$, Table 4.7).

Table 4.7 ANP By Type of Crime

		Violent non-Sexual	Non-Violent/Terroristic	Total
No ANP Filed	Count	563	95	658
	% within Initial Charge	76.7%	89.6%	
	% of Total	67.0%	11.3%	78.3%
ANP Filed	Count	171	11	182
	% within Initial Charge	23.3%	10.4%	
	% of Total	20.4%	1.3%	21.7%

4.4 Predictors of Court Outcome

In general, cases were presented to the family violence unit approximately 2 weeks after grand jury billing. Similarly, sentencing generally took place immediately following the trial or at plea such that time delays are reasonably reflective of the amount of time required for DA case processing.

4.4.1 Bivariate Analyses

The variables selected to examine court outcome reflected perpetrator characteristics, type of crime and responding jurisdiction, criminal justice characteristics, and victim wants. As a measure of the delay in justice system processing, I used the amount of time lapsed from grand jury hearing to sentencing. The variables examined, and results from bivariate analyses are presented in Table 4.8 below. The results suggest that time lapsed from grand jury findings to sentencing were significantly associated with court outcome. Cases for which the time lapse was shortest were more likely to receive probation, while those taking the longest amount of time were more likely to be dismissed.

Table 4.8 Court Outcome and Independent Variable Bivariate Analyses

Variable	Dism.	Prob.	Incar.	Significance
DF Age	m= 35.07 s = 12.44	m = 32.7 s = 10.29	m=32.76 s = 10.58	$F = 1.596, df = 2, p = .203$
DF Race	African American (n = 50) 67.6%	(n = 254) 55.2%	(n = 180) 54.5%	$\chi^2 = 7.606, df = 4, p = .107$
	Hispanic (n = 5) 6.8%	(n = 85) 18.5%	(n = 64) 19.4%	
	White (n = 180) 25.7%	(n = 64) 19.4%	(n = 86) 26.1%	
	(n = 12) 31.6%	(n = 126) 35.5%	(n = 88) 38.1%	
	(n = 56) 75.7%	(n = 300) 65.2%	(n = 237) 71.8%	

Table 4.8 Continued

Other Crime(s)	(n=12) 31.6%	(n=100) 28.2%	(n=73) 31.6%		
Initial Charge				$\chi^2 = 1.949, df = 6, p = .924$	
Viol Non-Sexual	(n = 62) 83.8%	(n = 376) 81.7%	(n = 268) 82.0%		
Non-Viol/Terroristic	(n = 6) 8.1%	(n = 55) 12.0%	(n = 37) 11.3%		
Sexual	(n = 2) 2.7%	(n = 7) 1.5%	(n = 4) 1.2%		
Other	(n = 4) 5.4%	(n = 22) 4.8%	(n = 18) 5.5%		
Jurisdiction				$\chi^2 = 4.770, df = 6, p = .574$	
DPD	(n = 44) 59.5%	(n = 267) 58.4%	(n = 192) 58.5%		
GGPIR- PD	(n = 17) 23.0%	(n = 75) 16.4%	(n = 64) 19.5%		
All other PD	(n = 13) 17.6%	(n = 114) 24.9%	(n = 72) 22.0%		
Time lapse GJ – Sentence	m = 159 s = 104.982	m = 106.56 s = 80.835	m = 130.75 s = 95.017	$F = 14.828, df = 2, p = .000$	
Victim Wants Court Outcome				$\chi^2 = 5.665, df = 4, p = .226$	
Dismissal	(n = 3) 30%	(n = 45) 40.2%	(n = 27) 50.9%		
Probation/Lesser Charge	(n = 4) 40.0%	(n = 52) 46.4%	(n = 16) 30.2%		
Incarceration	(n = 3) 30.0%	(n = 15) 13.4%	(n = 10) 18.9%		
Advocate Contact	Yes	(n = 18) 24.3%	(n = 160) 34.8%	(n = 93) 28.2%	$\chi^2 = 5.753, df = 2, p = .056$
No	(n = 56) 75.7%	(n = 300) 65.2%	(n = 237) 71.8%		

4.4.2 Logistic Regression

Despite results from bivariate analyses, logistic regression was conducted to assess whether variable reductions would reveal important relationships. The variables in our model (initial charge, perpetrator’s criminal history, responding jurisdiction, and time lapse from grand jury hearing to sentencing) were included as predictors of court outcome in felony domestic violence cases. When all four predictor variables were considered together, they did not significantly predict court outcome, $\chi^2 = .610, df = 4, N = 426, p = .962$.

4.5 District Attorney Victim Advocate Impact on Victim

A chi-square test of independence was calculated comparing time lapsed from grand jury billing to advocate contact and court outcome. A weak but significant interaction was found ($\chi^2(8) = .02216, p = .005$) between time lapsed and court outcome. The results suggest that cases in which advocates attempt contact within a week of grand jury billing likely involve incarceration. Interestingly, incarceration decreases as time lapse to advocate contact increases from 28.9% at 1 week to 9% at more than 6 weeks delay time. Cases in which attempted advocate contact occurred within 10 days accounted for ~34% of all cases with 41.3% resulting in incarcerations, 30.1% in probation, and 27.8% in dismissals. The data also

suggest that the vast majority of case dismissals occur in cases in which the lapse time ranges from 2 to 6 weeks, 77.8%.

A chi-square test of independence was calculated comparing advocate contact and court outcome, $\chi^2(2) = 5.75, p = .056$. Although the data did not achieve statistical significance, it is important to note that when examining all felony cases processed, those in which an advocate contacted the victim were more likely to receive probation as compared to those in which no contact was made as displayed in Table 4.9. Among dismissed cases, 76% of victims had not been contacted by a FV advocate. Similar results were found among cases in which the perpetrators were incarcerated, where victims in 71% of cases had not been consulted.

Table 4.9 Victim Consulted and Court Outcome Crosstabulation

Victim Consulted or Not Consulted		Dismissed	Probation	Incarceration	Total
Consulted	Count	18	160	193	271
	% in Court Outcome	24.3%	34.8%	28.2%	
	% of Total	2.1%	18.5%	10.8%	31.4%
Not Consulted	Count	56	300	237	593
	% in Court Outcome	75.7%	65.2%	71.8%	
	% of Total	6.5%	34.7%	27.4%	68.6%

A chi-square test of independence was calculated comparing victim desired court outcome and final court outcome. No significant relationship was found ($\chi^2(4) = 5.66, p = .23$). These data suggest that final court outcome is independent of what the victim wants. It is noteworthy to point out that of 175 cases, 75 victims asked for the case to be dismissed, 72 wanted the perpetrator to receive probation, and 28 asked for the perpetrator to be incarcerated. Again, although not statistically significant, victims requesting probation were the most likely to have their desires met as displayed in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10 Victim Wants and Court Outcome Crosstabulation

Victim Desired Court Outcome		Court Outcome			
		Dismissed	Probation	Incarceration	Total
Dismissal	Count	3	45	27	75
	% in Court Outcome	30%	40.2%	50.9%	
	% of Total	1.7%	25.7%	15.4%	42.9%
Probation	Count	4	52	16	72
	% in Court Outcome	40%	46.4%	30.2%	
	% of Total	2.3%	29.7%	9.1%	41.1%
Incarceration	Count	3	15	10	28
	% in Court Outcome	30%	13.4%	18.9%	
	% of Total	1.7%	8.6%	5.7%	16.0%

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS

Within domestic violence research there is a paucity of work exploring the interactions among state attorney's offices, their victim advocates, and the victims they serve (Hartley, 2003; Jordan, 2004; Portwood, 2007). This study was directed at exploring domestic violence in Dallas County with the intent of shedding light on the how these interactions impact victims. It is in understanding the nature of these interactions that criminal justice departments, communities, and helping agencies will be better able to serve victims of domestic violence. The information gleaned from these studies can then be used to promote the development of more effective and meaningful family violence advocacy within the county.

5.1 Geographic Distribution of Domestic Violence in Dallas County

Based on the reported ubiquitous distribution of family violence incidents in 2001 in Dallas County, it would be reasonable to assume that felony family violence incidents, although perhaps not ubiquitous, would be homogeneously distributed throughout the county (Community Focus Group Report, 2002). However, the geographic distribution of felony family violence cases appeared scattered in some areas, occurred in dense clusters in others, leaving several large areas with limited or no cases. It is important to mention here that criminal prosecution of family violence cases can proceed as either misdemeanors or felonies. The process of directing cases for misdemeanor or felony prosecution occurs within the DA's office after the investigating officer files the case; see Figure A.1 in Appendix A. These determinations, made by DCDA attorneys, are based on legal and factual sufficiency and rely heavily on the reports presented to the DCDA by police investigators. The distribution map presented in this study, representative of the more violent domestic violence cases, is likely

vastly different from a map including both misdemeanor and felony cases which might display a more homogenous scattering of cases.

Extrapolating from 2002 violent crime data and 2007 estimates of demographic and economic data for four Dallas city council districts shed light on community characteristics that may in part explain the distribution of felony family violence incidents in Dallas County. Within the city of Dallas, where the vast majority of felony cases took place, family violence incidents were scattered to the east inside Hwy 635, and south between IH 30 and IH 20, concentrating in City Council District 4. In addition, high density clustering occurred in the area surrounding Fair Park in east central Dallas within City Council District 7. Districts 11 and 12 in far north Dallas, and the area surrounding White Rock Lake in District 9 had very low felony cases in our data set. Because district 9 covers a significant area extending east to Hwy 635 and is therefore not reflective of the isolated White Rock Lake community it was excluded from this limited discussion.

Crime statistics for 2002 suggest that in districts 4 and 7 family violence incidents were among the highest in the city while they were among the lowest in districts 11 and 12 (see Table 5.1 below, Analyze Dallas, 2002). It is noteworthy to point out that “family violence was the most committed violent crime, roughly twice the amount of aggravated assault cases, and ranked second among violent crimes” in Dallas in 2002 (Analyze Dallas, 2002).

Table 5.2 summarizes demographic information available through the City of Dallas Economic Development department for city council districts 4, 7, 11, and 12 (Council District Profiles, 2008). Table A.4 in Appendix A summarizes the same information for the ten remaining Dallas city council districts. The racial breakdown of the four districts of particular interest is striking when considering violent crime in general and domestic violence in particular. In districts 4 and 7 (which had the highest levels of violent crime in 2002), African Americans make up over 50% of the population. Districts 4 and 7 also have lower per capita incomes, larger percentages of the population living below the poverty level, and larger percentages of

female-headed households. These districts also have a lower percentage of the population with college degrees (Bachelor's or graduate, Council District Profiles, 2008).

Table 5.1 Crime Statistics, Violent Crime in Dallas City Council Districts, 2002

Council District	Murder	Homicide	Agg. Ass.	Assault	Robbery	Auto	FV	Hate	Gang
1	13	3	394	1483	386	64	1042	11	106
2	25	6	775	2432	937	174	1151	26	123
3	28	11	628	2296	412	90	1439	10	99
4	24	8	993	2908	590	112	1897	23	82
5	16	8	631	2253	359	57	1388	18	92
6	26	22	865	2247	708	131	1363	19	116
7	36	11	1310	3655	744	168	2089	14	109
8	23	10	667	2717	335	55	1773	32	65
9	8	5	379	1736	403	46	1223	13	46
10	13	8	431	2033	436	54	1425	19	27
11	6	8	211	927	242	15	608	8	62
12	3	1	102	695	72	2	458	5	9
13	3	8	298	1423	359	38	894	13	48
14	2	3	356	1445	551	48	625	11	46

Table 5.2 Dallas City Council District Demographic and Statistical Data, 2007

	District 4	District 7	District 11	District 12
Total Population	80,136	86,975	98,328	114,704
Population Density	3,642.5	3,765.1	6,643	7,037
White	9.5%	15.0%	53.9%	74.5%
Black	59.2%	53.1%	9.7%	7.0%
Hispanic (Any Race)	29.8%	28.6%	28.7%	8.3%
Other	1.5%	3.3%	7.7%	10.2%
Per Capita Income	28,702	30,323	74,869	54,299
Avg. Home Value	55,930	62,287	213,893	216,018
% Pop. Below PL	22.9%	26.9%	11.6%	4.1%
Avg. Household Size	3.1	2.8	2.1	1.9
% Female Headed Household	8.5%	6.4%	2.6%	3.5%
% HS Graduate^a	32.5%	31.0%	15.8%	12.1%
% Bachelors/GraduateDegree^a	6.7%	7.8%	28.7%	38.1%

a. Highest educational level attained.

There is a great deal of research literature suggesting that low income, single, young women of color are at greater risk of domestic violence than other women, and results from this study suggest this is the case in Dallas County as well. The factors involved in modulating risk, however remain highly disputed. Race, culture, socioeconomic status, marital status, age, and a multitude of environmental factors have all been explored among various populations of

victims. The most frequently cited work is that of Tjaden and Thoennes in which higher levels of intimate partner violence were found among African American women than white women (Tjaden, 1999). However, as Ferraro pointed out “distinctions among the various types of violence” were not considered in the survey analyzed such that results could misrepresent what is considered to be common couple violence (Johnson, 2000). Socioeconomic status has also been suggested to significantly associate with intimate partner violence, however here too findings vary. Beyond the typical considerations within the field of domestic violence lie environmental factors like community disorder, and community violence and the role they play in modulating social scrutiny; social and institutional control. It seems prudent for researchers to consider the impact that social control has on communities, and the impact resulting from increased institutional (i.e., criminal justice) control on victims of domestic violence. In a recent Spanish study, researchers found that social disorder negatively associated with domestic violence reporting (Garcia, 2007). In this study, improvement of socioeconomic status was found to increase the odds of having positive feelings about reporting (Garcia, 2007). It is reasonable to suggest that in an environment lacking social control, higher police presence could result in increased police contact with community residents. Increased police presence could then expose victims to greater risk of contact with the criminal justice system, and therefore reporting. Further investigation of socioeconomic status, and social control and needed to understand the nature of increased risk of victimization of black women who are over represented among domestic violence victims.

Sokoloff, in an article on domestic violence and race, class and gender argued that the primacy of gender and the role of culture in explaining domestic violence fail due to the fact that structural forms of violence, control, and discrimination women experience are not simultaneously considered (Sokoloff, 2005). The intersectional theories approach to examining social problems like domestic violence focus on the multiple oppressions individuals experience. They suggest for example, that “the lack of adequate institutional support in the form of social

services as well as the intrusions and coercive controls by states and their agencies are levels of violence experienced by battered women, which occur in ways that are racialized as well as gendered and classed” (Sokoloff, 2005). Coker presents similar arguments that women’s experiences of domestic violence occur within social and political contexts in which they are further rendered powerless and subjected to institutional controls (Coker, 2004). Application of intersectional theory in domestic violence research would make way for greater progress in understanding why and how domestic violence does not affect every person equally.

The apparent lack of incidents of felony cases in the southern quadrant of the county however, may be due in part to jurisdiction resources. In 2006 for example, the Wilmer, and Hutchins police departments received 911-callresponse assistance from county sheriff’s officers. A more in depth study of police department policies, officer training, crime victim advocacy, and community characteristics is needed to fully understand the cause(s) of lower reporting in this region. It is noteworthy to point out that beginning in 2007 the Dallas police department initiated a prostitution diversion program directed at addressing high levels of criminal activity along the I30 corridor including prostitution, and arms and human trafficking. It may be no coincidence that felony cases in this study also tracked along this region.

5.2. Dallas County DA and Domestic Violence Victims

In the following sections victim interactions with the DCDA family violence division are explored. Indirect measures were used as this was a secondary analysis of data.

5.2.1 Indirect Measures of DA-Victim Interactions

Results from analysis performed on victims’ decisions to file for affidavits of non-prosecution in some ways conflict with published results, but appear to be in line with others. Relationship type and length in this study were found to be predictive of ANP application by victims: involvement in longer relationships and being involved intimately with the perpetrator at the time of the incident both increasing the likelihood of filing. In a study of public satisfaction with police Wilson found that among married women, more were satisfied with police arrest of

the perpetrator than were dissatisfied (Wilson, 2004). As they discuss, at the time of the incident married/IP victims desire that the perpetrator be removed. Victims, who know best their circumstances, appeared to use the criminal justice system to their benefit, ultimately not desiring prosecution, but services to address other needs (Wilson, 2004). In another study of mostly (90%) African American victims, lack of social support systems, experienced by both married women and intimate partners, proved to be a barrier among domestic violence victims (Bennett, 1999). Consideration of the significant barriers that exist for victims in dealing with states attorney's offices is also important when considering relationship type and follow through. Criminal justice systems are confusing and frustrating to victims. The process is often slow in responding and achieving criminal resolutions, and therefore fails to address the immediate safety concerns victims have (Bennett, 1999). Throughout the process victims often function in a state of fear and are conflicted over sanctions that could be imposed against the perpetrator.

One discrepancy appears when examining the impact type of crime has on ANP/follow through. In the present study we found victims of violent non-sexual crimes more likely to file ANP's while Bennett found that suffering severe abuse predicted follow through with prosecution. However, severity in their study does not equate to violent non-sexual incidents in the current study.

In this study 43% of victims who voiced an opinion regarding desired court outcome wanted their cases dismissed (41% wanted probation, 16% wanted incarceration). There are several reasons that likely contributed to victims desire to have cases dismissed including the following: the responding police officer's behavior/demeanor, the context of incident, cultural background, events that transpired between the couple prior to the incident, consequences/sanctions, prior history of arrest/incarceration, and loss of employment. It is clear however; that further investigation directed at understanding the factors that influence follow through among victims is necessary in order to provide victims with meaningful solutions to secure their personal safety and that of their families.

5.2.2 DCDA Family Violence Victim Advocates and Victims

Findings pertaining to the impact advocates had on victims proved inadequate for meaningful interpretation. This is likely due to the limitations of this study discussed in the limitations section. There are several points that must be considered when exploring advocate impact. Advocacy within the DCDA office is approached through efforts to create safe means of communication, by listening to and validating victims' comments, and perhaps most importantly by showing respect for victims' rights to make decisions (Frederick, 2003). However, advocates employed within states attorney's offices are advocating in a decidedly political environment, and one whose primary goal is criminal prosecution. Advocating on behalf of victims for specific court outcomes could prove difficult for several reasons including advocate credibility among prosecutors. Prosecutors, for example, could discount advocates who repeatedly request dismissals. Advocates must then determine which cases require advocacy for dismissal and which do not. Based on the author's limited interactions with crime victim advocates at professional meetings, there may be a willingness among advocates to promote prosecution even when victims are requesting to drop charges, particularly in cases in which they perceive the victim to be in eminent danger.

An important question that arises from this discussion is why emphasis is placed on victim's desired case outcome as a matter of inquiry. Within the criminal justice system there are formal formats that provide for victim input, however there are no formal procedures that provide victims with the power to influence court sanctions in criminal cases. At the sanctioning phase, victims are offered the opportunity to make victim impact statements, per the Victims of Crimes Act of 1986. Therapeutic and restorative justice approaches at earlier phases of prosecution, although applied extensively within the juvenile justice system, have been limited to non-penetration rape cases within domestic violence (Koss, 2004). Within the domestic violence literature, mention of the need for flexibility, responsiveness and victim empowerment with respect to the criminal justice system appears frequently, however with limited discussion

or empirical support. Recognizing that some court sanctions may put victims at further risk, and that these risks may vary on a case by case basis, it is worthwhile to examine the relationship between victims' desired outcomes and actual outcomes.

5.3 Study Limitations

A number of study limitations may have influenced the results obtained. To begin are those limitations associated with secondary analyses in general. Most significantly perhaps is the high volume of missing and incomplete data as well as reduced data quality of information entered by police officers, victim advocates, and county court data entry clerks. Among police reports, information pertaining to race/ethnicity, victim's children, and perpetrator criminal history were not consistently documented or included. With respect to advocate contacts and ANP interviews, the type, volume and level of detailed information collected varied. In addition, based on 2006 advocate contact records, approximately 70% of all victims were interviewed, however only 41% were observed in disposed case files. It is possible that printed forms were overlooked among the often mass of file documents, they were inadvertently left out of the case files, or that there are actual differences between this sample of felony data and all cases processed that year. In either case, advocate contact data included in this study may not be representative of the case population. Finally, it also became apparent that data entry among county court clerks varied such that conditions were not reliably documented on the file jacket or in the database.

Despite these limitations, the distribution of crimes appears to be fairly accurate in light of the results presented in Table 4.1.3. When comparing all 2006 felony cases with those used in this study there were only large differences among aggravated robber/deadly weapon (1.5% v .7%), burglary of a habitation (2.9% v 4.5%), and sexual assault (1.8% v 0.9%). For the most part, however, the distribution of study cases were representative of all felony cases processed in 2006.

5.4. Conclusions

By way of brief summary: The current study provides evidence that felony domestic violence cases were not distributed homogenously throughout the county but distributed to areas of dense clustering, areas with some scattering, as well as areas in which no cases appeared. Within the city of Dallas, city council districts with the highest percentage of family violence incidence tended to be predominantly poor and African American.

Although several factors were found to be associated with victims' filing for affidavits of non-prosecution only relationship type and length were found be significantly predictive of filing. In addition, the amount of time lapsed between grand jury billing and sentencing was found to be significantly associated with court outcome. The longer the delay in processing a case the more likely it would be dismissed, while cases processed within shorter periods of time would in general receive probation. Interestingly however, cases in which advocates attempted victim contact within one week of grand jury billing were most likely to receive incarceration. With respect to the impact advocates have on court outcome, no significant association was found. In addition it was found that victims' desired court outcome was not significantly associated with the final court outcome.

This exploratory study of felony family violence incidents in Dallas County has raised a number of important issues. Study results suggest that family violence incidents occur to a greater extent in communities with large African American populations. The affected areas tend to be populated by those with lower incomes and less education. In order to effectively serve and support victims, and reduce the incidence of domestic violence, increased emphasis on identifying and understanding the factors that predict geographic distribution in the County are paramount. The application of intersectional theories in study design would facilitate achieving these goals through in depth studies of victims' experiences of and responses to violence within these highly segregated communities.

If the goal is to develop more effective community and criminal justice responses to domestic violence a better understanding of the factors that predict outcome and those that impact victim's choices and desires for criminal justice responses to their victimization must also be examined. Particular attention therefore must be paid to the interactions of responding and investigating police officers, prosecutors, and victim advocates with crime victims. Although results from this study suggest victim advocate interaction with victims had limited influence on court outcome, it is possible that these results are not representative of all cases. It is also important to consider that the family violence division had only begun their advocate program in 2005, when the first advocate was hired. Establishing advocate roles, defining procedures for involvement and interactions, and learning the most efficient and effective methods of victim contact within the district attorney's office will likely result in more reliable data which may facilitate more in depth analysis.

5.5. Implications for Social Work

The role of social work in domestic violence advocacy has changed since its beginnings in the battered women's movement, and demands for change continue as our understanding of the profound effect violence against women has on the lives of victims, their families, and the communities in which they live and work. This is perhaps best summarized by Linda Mills in the following statement, "A tolerance for the diversity of battered women and their responses to abuse may, surprisingly enough, be just the panacea we need to reduce violence in women's lives" (Mills, 1998). This study has shed light on the experiences of family violence victims in Dallas County through their interactions with the DCDA's office. It is incumbent upon the criminal justice system to engage communities and public and private agencies that provide the vast majority of direct services to victims in Dallas County, in order to continue making progress in both securing justice for crimes committed while simultaneously providing victims with needed services and meaningful security. More importantly perhaps, this study adds to the volume of work that has identified disproportionate experiences of violence against African

American women. Findings of the 2002 North Texas Council of Governments on victim advocacy in Dallas County revealed that there was a need for legal advocacy and for culturally competent social services for domestic violence victims. Further exploration of the geographic distribution of family violence incidents within highly segregated communities like those within Dallas County is paramount to developing meaningful programs to reduce violence against women.

The implications of these findings to social work professionals in particular are that they must play a more central role in defining the goals of advocacy within criminal justice agencies. The DCDA Family Violence division was created in 1994, and although advocates have been among family violence personnel since 1994, they did not appear within the felony division until 2005. Clearly defined goals of, as well as limitations to advocacy are important to establish not only for advocacy personnel but for the victims they serve. The conflicts that necessarily arise for advocacy in an agency whose primary goal is successful prosecution will only begin to be broken down through continued discourse within criminal justice departments. Family violence crimes have continued to increase over the past 5 years, as have the number of victims in need of assistance. It is clear from these statistics that efforts to prevent domestic violence in Dallas County must continue and that social work and social workers must take leading roles in addressing the many and varied needs of victims.

APPENDIX A

DALLAS COUNTY AND THE DALLAS COUNTY DISTRICT ATTORNEY'S
FAMILY VIOLENCE DIVISION

TableA.1. Texas Felony Domestic Violence Offenses

1 st Degree - Punishable by life or 5 – 99 years in prison or 2 – 10 yrs probation	
	Aggravated Kidnapping
	Aggravated Sexual Assault/Deadly Weapon
	Aggravated Sexual Assault/Serious Bodily Injury
	Burglary of a Habitation (with intent to commit a felony other than theft)
	Murder
2 nd Degree - Punishable by 2 – 20 years in prison or 2 – 10 years probation	
	Aggravated Assault/Deadly Weapon
	Aggravated Assault/Serious Bodily Injury
	Aggravated Kidnapping (Safe release)
	Burglary of a Habitation (with intent to commit theft/assault)
	Sexual Assault
	Stalking (2 nd)
3 rd Degree - Punishable by 2 – 10 years in prison or 2 – 10 years probation	
	Assault Bodily Injury – Enhanced
	Kidnapping
	Retaliation
	Stalking
	Unlawful Restraint (risk of serious bodily injury)
	Violation of Protective Order – Assault
	Violation of Protective Order – Enhanced

Table A.2. Dallas County Filing Agencies

Drug Enforcement Administration	De Soto PD
*Dallas PD & Municipal Court	*Duncanville PD
Dallas Fire Department	*Farmers Branch PD
FBI (Dallas)	*Garland PD
TDPS (Austin, Dallas, Narcotics)	*Grand Prairie PD
*Dallas County Sheriff	*Highland Park PD
District Attorney	Hutchins PD
JP Court	*Irving PD
Southwestern Bell Telephone	Kleberg PD
Texas Department of Human Resources	*Lancaster PD
Texas State Labor Department	*Mesquite PD
Southern Methodist University	*Richardson PD & MC
Texas Board of Private Investigators and	*Sachse PD
Private Security Agencies.	*Seagoville PD
District Attorney – Crime Div	Sunnyvale PD
Parkland Memorial Hospital	University Park PD
Dallas Area Rapid Transit	Wilmer PD
*Addison DP	UT Medical School
*Balch Springs PD	Dallas Constables Office 2004
Buckingham City PD	*Rowlett PD
*Carrollton PD	County Magistrate
*Cedar Hill PD	*Glenn Heights PD
*Cockrell Hill PD	Euless PD
*Coppell PD	Dallas –Fort Worth Airport

*Agencies filing cases included in this study.

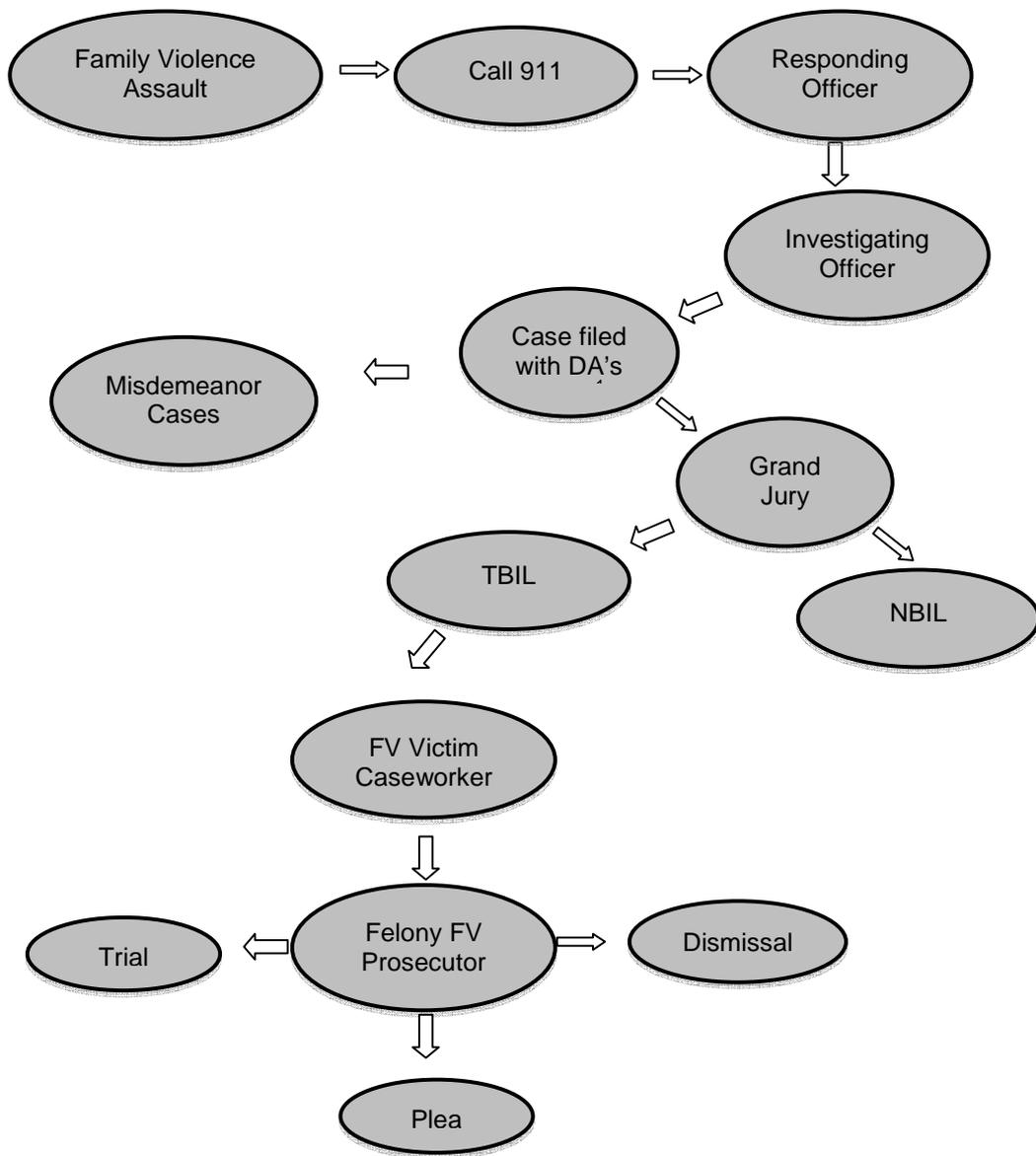


Figure A.1 Family Violence Case Processing

¹Once the case is filed with the DCDA's office it is processed through the Intake/Grand Jury division, which is responsible for making the determination of whether the case proceeds as a misdemeanor, felony, or dropped from criminal prosecution. DCDA attorneys follow guidelines presented in the Texas Code of Criminal Procedure, and in Texas case law in making misdemeanor/felony determinations. The procedure is described in the text presented below which was copied from: Intake/Grand Jury Division (2008). Dallas County District Attorney's office Retrieved on 11/01/08 from <http://www.dallasda.com/intake-grandjury.html>.

¹ **Dallas County District Attorney's Office: The Intake/Grand Jury Division**

The Intake/Grand Jury Division is responsible for reviewing all criminal cases filed by any police or law enforcement agency, including Federal authorities, where the crime occurred in Dallas County. DCDA attorneys and staff handle in excess of 80,000 cases a year, and that number is steadily rising.

DCDA lawyers very often work with law enforcement early in an investigation, assisting the authorities with legal information and advice well before the case is ever filed. Division attorneys frequently travel to the various agencies in the County, meeting with officers on an individual or group basis, to provide legal education. The attorneys must also examine every misdemeanor and felony offense filed for both legal and factual sufficiency, rejecting those cases where one or the other of these is missing.

Once misdemeanor offenses are accepted, DCDA attorneys draft the pleadings, and forward the completed cases to the courts for prosecution. Once felony offenses are accepted, DCDA attorneys forward the cases to the Dallas County Grand Jury for their review. DCDA attorneys present each felony offense accepted the DCDA Office to one of the four sitting Grand Juries, and if the Grand Jury agrees that the charges should proceed, they will return an indictment.

DCDA attorneys then prepare the indictment and supporting documentation for each case, obtain the Grand Jury Foreman's signature, and deliver the indicted cases to the district courts for prosecution. Division attorneys regularly meet with defense attorneys to go over the allegations being made against their clients, before the cases are presented to a Grand Jury.

Table A.3. 2006 Police Jurisdiction Domestic Violence Incidents, Arrests, and EPO^a

	DV incidents reported	DV arrests	EPO's filed
Carrollton ^b	448	Not provided	178
Cedar Hill	273	99	69
Coppell	90	66	16
DeSoto	326	114	64
Farmers Branch	88	107	31
Glenn Heights	103	66	6
Irving	459	Not provided	Not provided
Lancaster	747	353	240
Mesquite	959	Not tracked	Not tracked
Richardson	334	210	Not tracked
Rowlett	362	162	Not tracked
Sachse	2 (felony)	2 (felony)	3
Seagoville	120	94	38
University Park	6	6	5

a. Emergency protective order (EPO)

b. In Carrollton, both incidents and EPO have been on the increase since 2001. EPO 78 (2001) to 178 (2006), DV offenses 325 (2001) to 448 (2006).²

² Requests for information were submitted by the author, as an individual, to each Dallas County police jurisdiction requesting both domestic violence statistics and information pertaining to officers and advocates working with domestic violence victims. A summary of response information is presented in this footnote.

The Richardson police department had four officers on the investigative unit of CAPERS that receive specialized conference training in child victims, and battered women. There were also two trained advocates responding to victims in crisis that received crime victim training.

The Carrollton police department had 12 rotating FACT officers that provided support to beat officers. FACT officers were emergency protective order (EPO) trained, and well versed in completing family violence packets. There were three social service employees (2 full time, 1 part time), and two interns covering all shifts. Advocates provided referral services, information and assistance with EPO's and crime victim compensation (CVC), and crisis intervention to crime victims. This jurisdiction responds to 3 counties, Dallas, Collin, and Denton.

The Coppell police department had a crime victim liaison that responded to all crime victims. With respect to family violence cases, the liaison would assist in securing EPO's on behalf of both cooperative and uncooperative victims.

The Grand Prairie police department officers received training from the victim service coordinator. Training covered victim assistance, CVC/relocation resources, and EPOs. Officers were responsible for filing EPO's although advocates also assisted. The department employed a victim service coordinator and 2 civilian investigators that provided referral information, legal aide information, and CVC/relocation resources. This jurisdiction served both Tarrant and Dallas counties.

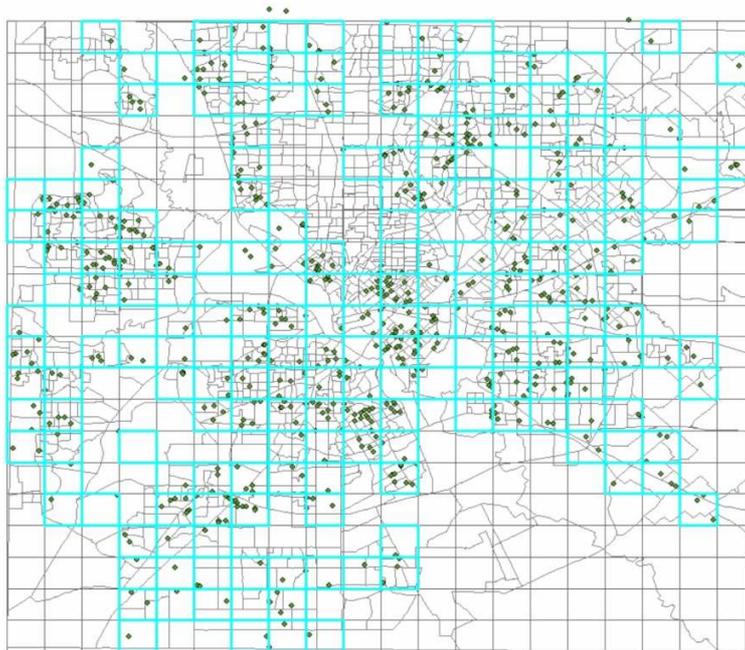


Figure A.2 Fishnet Map of Domestic Violence Incidents (20 x 20)

Table A.4 City Council District Demographic and Economic Data, 2007

	1	2	3	5	6
Total Population	76,367	92,126	115,891	84,814	80,475
Population Density	7567.1	5419.2	2259.1	3249.6	2664.7
White	12.4	14.3	19.2	11.9	11.0
Black	5.6	10.3	36.0	54.7	9.8
Hispanic (Any Race)	80.4	70.6	42.4	32.0	77.1
Other	1.6	4.8	2.4	1.4	2.1
Per Capita Income	19,480	42,125	28,928	24,146	35,408
Avg. Home Value	62,957	63,973	87,988	60,647	75,987
% Pop. Below PL	22.3	21.9	15.6	17.9	22.8
Avg. Household Size	3.5	3.0	3.22	3.2	3.5
% Female Headed Household	4.1	2.9	4.3	6.8	3.5
% HS Graduate	22.1	18.5	25.9	32.1	19.2
% Bachelors Degree	4.8	10.2	11.7	7.3	7.1
	8	9	10	13	14
Total Population	111,737	85,912	84,291	69,543	99,202
Population Density	1977.6	4150.3	5657.1	3132.6	6086.0
White	20.1	55.9	48.3	61.0	67.0
Black	57.0	13.6	29.0	10.6	9.5
Hispanic (Any Race)	21.4	26.2	14.1	24.4	18.7
Other	1.5	4.3	8.6	4.0	4.8
Per Capita Income	18,244	50,280	44,617	101,285	60,366
Avg. Home Value	49,017	136,573	157,716	274,495	171,568
% Pop. Below PL	15.2	10.4	10.6	11.5	10.1
Avg. Household Size	2.9	2.3	2.3	2.34	1.8
% Female Headed Household	5.8	3.6	3.2	2.9	2.3
% HS Graduate	34.7	23.9	18.9	16.4	12.7
% Bachelors Degree	6.9	19.3	26.9	28.4	32.9

APPENDIX B

DATA DESCRIPTION TABLES

Table B.1 Data Source Summary

Concept	Variable	Level	Source	Description	Measurement
Geographic Characteristics	D		PR	Incident Address	Block address
	D		PR	Jurisdiction	Police
	D		PR	Zip code	Address Zip code
CW & DF Demographic Information	I		PR	Race	AA, Hisp, White, Asian
	I		PR	Gender	Female, Male
	I		PR/DA	Age	Years
	I		PR/DA	Incident location	Home, Work, Other
	I		PR/DA	V/DF Relationship	IP, Married, Ex-, Non-IP
	I		PR/DA	V/DF Relat. Length	Years
	I		PR/DA	V/DF children	<18yrs
Victim	I		PR/DA	V other children	<18yrs
	I		DA	V Contacted	Yes, No
	D		DA	ANP	Yes, No
	I		DA	Reason for ANP	Safety, Recant, Unco-op.
	I		DA	V Wants: Sanction	Dismissal, Probation, Prison
Crime	I		DA	V Wants: Treatment	Any type of treatment
	I		PR	DF Criminal History	No FV, prior FV, other
	I/D		PR	Initial Charge	Table A.1
	I		C	Charge Level	F1, F2, F3
	I		C	Disposed Charge	Dismissed, Misd., Felony
	D		C	Court Outcome	Dism., Prob., Prison, Fine
	I		C	Prison time	Years
	I		C	Probation time	Years
	I		C	Fine	Amount
	I		DA	DA Work Product	Yes, No
Dallas County District Attorney	I		DA	Days laps Inc-GJ	Years, days
	I		DA	Days laps GJ-AD	Years, days
	I		DA	Days laps AD-WP	Years, days
	I		DA	Days lapse GJ-Sentencing	Years, days
	I		DA	Findings of FV	Yes, No
Socio-economic	I		DA	Affidavit of Indigence	Yes, No
	I		PR/DA	CW/DF Employment	Emp, Unemp, Other

Abbreviations: AD, initial advocate contact; C, Court record database; D, dependent variable; DA, district attorney work product (victim interview or ANP application); DF, defendant; GJ, grand jury bill date; I, Independent variable; PR, police report; V, victim; WP, date of advocate-victim interview, or victim ANP appointment.

APPENDIX C

HISTORICAL TIMELINE

Table C.1: Domestic Violence Timeline

1792	Mary Wollstonecraft – Proponent of education for women and kinder treatment of women by husbands and partners
1824	Mississippi Supreme Court – Bradley v. State – Husband can administer “moderate chastisement in cases of emergency”
1829	England – Husband’s power of chastisement abolished
1845	Sweden – Inheritance Law passed giving women equal inheritance rights
1857	Massachusetts Court – Recognizes Spousal rape exemption – Marriage to victim is defense to rape.
1871 –	Alabama – Rescinds legal right of men to beat wives.
1894	Massachusetts and Maryland – Pass laws making wife beating illegal Mississippi – Chastisement overruled
1911	New York – Family Court created – begins systematic diversion and exclusion of violence against wives from the criminal justice system
1945	California – Statute – Wife-Abuse and child abuse become felony crimes. Same year CA Superior Court Judge ruled wife-abuse law unconstitutional because it discriminates on the basis of sex by only making mention of husbands.
Early 1960	Battered Women’s movement begins. Family courts, psychiatric and social work approaches however have reduced criminal assaults of women by husbands/significant others to problems of individual or social pathology.
1965	Law prohibiting discrimination against women in employment and requiring equal pay for equal work the Equal Rights Act – first brought before the congress in 19.., has yet to pass but is brought forth every year since then.
1976	Domestic Violence Act – Allows for temporary eviction of violent partner using civil injunction.
1979	Office on Domestic Violence is established in the US Department of Health and Human Services
1981	Office on Domestic Violence is dismantled after the election of President Reagan.
1982	Susan Schechter publishes Women and Male violence: The visions and struggles of the battered women’s movement. Battered women’s movement symbolizes organizations serving battered women and their children. (1982)
1985	Tracey Thurman wins suit against Connecticut Police Department for negligence and violation of her civil rights. Husband receives 15-year sentence for attacking her.
1990	Emergency protective orders can be obtained outside of normal court hours in 23 states.
1992	19 State require arrest for violation of protection orders
1993	United Nations –Issues a Declaration on the elimination of violence against women. As of 2008 – US and Sudan remain the only countries that have not ratified this declaration.
1994	Violence Against Women Act, part of the federal Crime Victims Act, is passed by congress and signed into law by President Clinton. Creates federal right to sue assailant for gender-based violence and provides that states and American Indian nations give full faith and credit to each other’s restraining orders. Provides funding for rape and domestic violence victims, training to increase police and court official’s sensitivity, and allows women to seek civil rights remedies for gender-related crimes.

Table C.1 Continued

1996 To date Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Main, Massachusetts, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, Oregon, Vermont, Wisconsin, and the District of Columbia have completely repudiated the marital rape exemption. Louisiana, Missouri, North Dakota, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, South Dakota, and Utah recognize marital rape exemption unless the parties are separated. Illinois and Mississippi retain total exemptions for marital rape. California, spouse can be prosecuted for aggravated or first degree rape, but still retains immunity from prosecution for "lesser" attacks.

REFERENCES

- Allen, N. E. (2006). An examination of the effectiveness of domestic violence coordinating councils. *Violence Against Women*, 12(1), 46-67.
- American Fact finder. (2006). *Fact Sheet: Dallas County Texas*, United States Census Bureau, Retrieved on 01/27/07 from <http://factfinder.census.gov>.
- Analyze Dallas. (2002). *Crime Statistics, Violent Crime Data*. Retrieved 10/01/08 from <http://www.analyzedallas.org/AnalyzeDallas/Pages/BrowseDataSets.aspx>.
- Anderson, K. L. (1997). Gender, status, and domestic violence: An integration of feminist and family violence approaches. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 59(3), pp. 655-669.
- Bachman, R., & L. E. Saltzman. (1995). Violence against women: Estimates from the redesigned survey. *Bureau of Justice Statistics*, US Department of Justice, pp. 1-8. Ref for victimization rate based on marital status
- Bancroft, L. (2007, April). Responding to domestic violence in family court. Symposium conducted at the Family Place Domestic Violence Training, Dallas Texas.
- Bennett, L., Goodman, L., & M. A. Dutton. (1999). Systemic obstacles to the criminal prosecution of a battering partner. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 14(7), 761-772.
- Bogat, G. A., Leahy, K., von Eye, A., Maxwell, C., Levendosky, A. A., & W. S. Davidson II. (2005). The influence of community violence on the functioning of women experiencing domestic violence. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 36(1/2), 123-132.
- Byrom, C. E. (2005). The use of the excited utterance hearsay exception in the prosecution of domestic violence cases after Crawford v. Washington. *The Review of Litigation*. 24(2), 409-428.
- Campbell, J. C. (1999). Forced sex and intimate partner violence: Effects on women's risk and women's health. *Violence Against Women*, 5(9), 1017-1035.
- Campbell, J. C. (2005). Assessing dangerousness in domestic violence cases: History, challenges, and opportunities. *Criminology & Public Policy*, 4(4), 653-672.
- Centers for Disease Control (2007). Intimate partner violence prevention scientific information: Consequences, Department of Health and Human Services. Retrieved 06/10/08 from: <http://www.cdc.gov/ncipc/dvp/IPV/ipv-consequences.htm>.
- Coker, A. L., Derrick, C., Lumpkin, J. L., Aldrich, T. E., and R. Oldendick. (2000). Help-seeking for intimate partner violence and forced sex in South Carolina. *American journal of Preventive Medicine*, 19(4), 316-324.
- Coker, D. (2004). Race, poverty, and the crime-centered response to domestic violence. *Violence Against Women*, 10(11), 1331-1353.

- Community Focus Group Report. (2002). *Domestic violence focus group: Dallas County comprehensive community plan*. North Texas Council of Governments, Criminal Justice Program. Retrieved on 08/10/07 from http://www.nctcog.org/cs/cj/cjplans/dallas_focus_groups/dvplan.asp.
- Council District Profiles. (2008). *Council District Factsheets*, City of Dallas Office of Economic Development, Retrieved 10/28/08 from http://www.dallas-ecodev.org/council_profiles.html.
- Danis, F. S. (2003). The criminalization of domestic violence: What social workers need to know. *Social Work*, 48(2), 237-246.
- Danis, F. S. (2006). A tribute to Susan Schechter. The visions and struggles of the battered women's movement. *Journal of Women and Social Work*, 21(3), 336-341.
- Dugan, L. (2003). Domestic violence legislation: Exploring its impact on the likelihood of domestic violence, police involvement, and arrest. *Criminology & Public Policy*, 2(2), 283-312.
- Dutton, M. A., Green, B. L., Kaltman, S.I., Roesch, D. M., Zeffiro, T. A., and Elizabeth D. Krause (2006). Intimate partner violence, PTSD, and adverse health outcomes. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 21(7), 955-968.
- Ernst, J. S. (2000). Mapping child maltreatment Looking at neighborhoods in a suburban county. *Child Welfare*, 79(5), 555-572.
- Family Violence Dynamics. (2005). Dallas County District Attorney's Office, Symposium conducted at the Intern Training Seminar, Dallas, Texas.
- Felson, R. B., Ackerman, J. M., & C. A. Gallagher (2005). Police intervention and the repeat of domestic violence. *Criminology*, 43(3), 563-588.
- Ford, D. A. (1999). Coercing victim participation in domestic violence prosecutions. *Journal of interpersonal violence*, 18(6), 669-684.
- Fox, G. L., Benson, M. L., DeMaris, A. A., & J. V. Wyk. (2002). Economic distress and intimate violence: testing family stress and resources theories. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 64, 73-807.
- Fraser, A. S. (1999). Becoming human, the origins and development of women's human rights. *Human Rights Quarterly*, 21(4), 853-906.
- Fredrick, L. (2003). Effective advocacy on behalf of battered women. *Battered Women's Justice Project*, National Online Resource Center on Violence Against Women, Retrieved 10/08/08 from <http://new.vawnet.org/category/Documents.php?docid=904>.
- Garcia, E., & J. Herrero. (2007). Perceived neighborhood social disorder and attitudes toward reporting domestic violence against women. *Journal Interpersonal Violence*, 22(6), 737-752.
- Golding, J. M. (1999). Intimate partner violence as a risk factor for mental disorders: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Family Violence*, 14(2), 99-132.

- Hartley, C. C. (2003). A therapeutic jurisprudence approach to the trial process in domestic violence felony trials. *Violence Against Women, 9*(4), 410-437.
- Hartman, H. I., & E. Ross (1978). Comment on "On writing the history of rape", *Signs, 3*(4), 931-935.
- Hoefler, R. A., Hoefler, R. A., & R. A. Tobias (1994). Geographic information systems and human services. *Journal of community practice, 1*(3), 113-127.
- Huxman, S. S. (2005). Mary Wollstonecraft, Margaret Fuller, and Angelina Grimke: Symbolic convergence and a nascent rhetorical vision. *Communication Quarterly, 44*(1), 16-28. Wollstonecraft information
- Jaros, D. (2005). The lessons of People v Moscat: Confronting judicial bias in domestic violence cases interpreting Crawford v Washington. *The American Criminal Law Review, 42*(3), 995-1009.
- Johnson, M. P., & K. J. Ferraro, (2000). Research on domestic violence in the 1990s: making distinctions. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 62*, 948-963.
- Jones, D. A., & J. Belknap, (1999). Police responses to battering in a progressive pro-arrest jurisdiction. *Justice Quarterly, 16*(2), 249-273.
- Jordan, C. E. (2004). Intimate partner violence and the justice system. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 19*(12), 1412-1434.
- Kingsnorth, R. F., & R. C. Macintosh (2004). Domestic violence: predictors of victim support for official action. *Justice Quarterly, 21*(2), 301-328.
- Koss, M. P., Bachar, K. J., Hopkins, C. Q., & C. Carlson. (2004). Expanding a community's justice response to sex crimes through advocacy, prosecutorial, and public health collaboration. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 19*(12).
- Lauritsen, J. L., & R. J. Schaum. (2004). The social ecology of violence against women. *Criminology, 42*(2), 323-357.
- Liang, B., Goodman, L., Tummala-Narra, P., & S. Weintraub. (2005). A theoretical framework for understanding help-seeking processes among survivors of intimate partner violence. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 36*(1,2) 71-84.
- Lipsky, S., Caetano, R., Field, C. A., & G. L. Larkin. (2006). The role of intimate partner violence, race, and ethnicity in help-seeking behaviors. *Ethnicity and Health, 11*(1), 81-100.
- Mills, Linda (1998) Mandatory arrest and prosecution policies for domestic violence: A critical literature review and the case for more research to test victim empowerment approaches. *Criminal Justice and Behavior, 25*, 306-318.
- Morrison, K. E., Luchok, K. J., Richter, D. L., & D. Parra-Median. (2006). Factors influencing help-seeking from informal networks among African American victims of intimate partner violence. *Journal of Intimate Partner Violence, 21*(11), 1493-1511.

- National Coalition Against Domestic Violence, (2006). *Domestic violence facts: Texas*, pp. 1-2, Retrieved 16/10/08 from http://www.ncadv.org/resources/FactSheets_294.html.
- Portwood, S. G., & J. F. Henay, (2007). Responding to violence against women: Social science contributions to legal solutions. *International Journal of Law and Psychiatry*, 30, 237-247.
- Purvin, D. M. (2007). At the crossroads and in the crosshairs: social welfare policy and low-income women's vulnerability to domestic violence. *Social Problems*, 54(2), 188-210.
- Pyles, L. , & J. L. Postmus. (2004) Addressing the problem of domestic violence: How far have we come? *Affilia*, 19, 376-388.
- Rennison, C. M., & S. Welchans, (2000). Intimate partner violence. *Bureau of Justice Statistics, Special Report*, pp. x –x. Retrieved on 09/21/07 from <http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/bjs/pub/pdf/ipv.pdf>.
- Rennison, C. M., (2003). Intimate partner violence, 1993 – 2001, *Bureau of Justice Statistics, Crime Data Brief*, pp. 1-2. Retrieved on 09/21/2007 from <http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/bjs/pub/pdf/ipv01.pdf>.
- Romkens, R. (2006). Protecting prosecution. Exploring the powers of law in an intervention program for domestic violence. *Violence Against Women*, 12(2), 160-186.
- Rothenberg, B. (2002). The success of the battered woman syndrome: An analysis of how cultural arguments succeed. *Sociological Forum*, 17(1), 81-103. Lenore Walker ref.
- SafeNetwork. (1999). Minnesota Center Against Violence and Abuse, *Herstory of domestic violence: A timeline of the battered women's movement*. Retrieved on 9/14/08 from <http://www.mincava.un.edu/documents/herstory/herstory.html>.
- Salazar, L. F., Emshoff, J. G., Baker, C. K., & T. Crowley. (2007). Examining the behavior of a system: An outcome evaluation of a coordinated community response to domestic violence. *Journal of Family Violence*, 22, 631-641.
- Schechter, S. (1982). *Women and male violence: The visions and struggles of the battered women's movement*. Boston: South End Press.
- Scott, D. L. (2005). Warrantless arrest in domestic violence: is it effective. *The Social Policy Journal*, 4(2), 3-22.
- Sen, A. (2005). Mary, Mary, quite contrary!, *Feminist Economics*, 11(1), 1-9. Wollstonecraft paper
- Sherman, L. W., & R. A. Berk. (1984). The specific deterrent effects of arrest for domestic assault. *American Sociological Review*, 49, 261-272.
- Simpson, S. S., Bouffard, L. A., Garner, J., & L. Hickman, (2006). The influence of legal reform on the probability of arrest in domestic violence cases. *Justice Quarterly*, 23(3), 297-316.

- Slaght, E., & M. Hamilton. (2005). A coordinated response to intimate partner violence: Lessons from an exploratory study. *Journal of Community Practice*, 13(2), 45-59
- Sokoloff, N. J., & I. Dupont. (2005). Domestic violence at the intersections of race, class, and gender. *Violence Against Women*, 11(1), 38-64.
- Texas Code of Criminal Procedures, (1985) Code of Criminal Procedure, Chapter 5. Family Violence Prevention, pp 1-5.
- Texas Council on Family Violence. (2006). *List of women killed statistics*. Retrieved on 10/01/07 from <http://www.tcfv.org/pdf/dvam07/women%20killed%20statistics.pdf>.
- Texas Council on Family Violence. (2005). *Family violence statistics in Texas*, pp. 1-2.
- Texas Department of Public Safety. (2006a). *Annual report of 2006 UCR data collection: Crime in Texas 2006 overview*. pp 1-8. Retrieved 08/10/07 from: http://www.txdps.state.tx.us/director_staff/public_information/2006CIT.pdf.
- Texas Department of Public Safety. (2006b). *The Texas Crime Report for 2006*. Chapter 5: Family Violence, pp 47-58. Retrieved 10/10/07 from: <http://www.txdps.state.tx.us/crimereports/06/cit06ch1.pdf>.
- Texas Family Code, Title 4. Protective orders and family violence, General Provisions, Chapter 71 Definitions, §§ 71.001-71.0021 (1997).
- Texas Health and Human Services Commission. (2004) *Fact Sheet: Intimate partner violence in Texas*, pp 1-3. Retrieved 6/30/08 from http://www.hhsc.state.tx.us/programs/familyviolence/Facts/Texas_IPV_FactSheet.pdf
- Tjaden, P., and N. Thoennes. (2000). Full report of the prevalence, incidence, and consequences of violence against women: Findings from the National violence against women survey. Washington, DC: National Institutes of Justice, U.S. Department of Justice. Retrieved 09/20/07 from <http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/nij/pubs-sum/183781.htm>.
- Timeline of milestones. (2000). *Millennium: Ending domestic violence website*. Retrieved on 9/14/08 from <http://dvmillennium.org/timeline.htm>.
- Wilson, S., & J. L. Jasinski, (2004). Public satisfaction with the police in domestic violence cases: the importance of arrest, expectations, and involuntary contact. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, 28(2), 235-254.
- Zweig, J. M., * M. R. Burt, (2006). Predicting case outcomes and women's perceptions of the legal system's response to domestic violence and sexual assault. *Criminal Justice Policy Review*, 17, 202-223.

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Lydia Connor began graduate studies in social work in January 2004 with an interest in working with children. She conducted her first internship with the Woodrow-Long Youth and Family Center in the Dallas Independent School district as a CAP student. Her interests soon turned to women and children and grew further during her second internship with the Dallas County District Attorney's office. An opportunity to conduct her thesis research presented itself while working at the DA's office.

Mrs. Connor received her bachelor's degree in biology from the University of Texas at Austin, and her PhD in Human Biological Chemistry and Genetics from the University of Texas at Galveston. She spent two years in fellowship training at the University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center at which point she resigned her position to stay home with her children. Her interest in pursuing a career in social work came through her experiences volunteering, in particular work with the Collin County Children's Advocacy Center.

Mrs. Connor's interests lie in continuing work with survivors of domestic violence with the goal of securing an administrative position. In particular she looks forward to working within an agency in which she can be involved in grant preparation and participating and evaluation program evaluation.