

**UNDERSTANDING AND PREDICTING INTIMATE FEMICIDE:  
AN ANALYSIS OF MEN WHO KILL THEIR INTIMATE FEMALE PARTNERS**

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**A dissertation submitted to the Department of Psychology in partial fulfilment of  
the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

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**Abstract**

To understand why men kill their female partners a Binary Model of intimate femicide was proposed. This model conceptualizes intimate femicide as perpetrated by two different types of men. Alpha Murderers are undercontrolled men with a history of abusing their intimate female partners. They maintain frequent contact with other abusive men. The murders committed by these men tend to be impulsive and triggered by intense anger. Beta Murderers are overcontrolled men with no known history of abusive behaviour. They are less likely to associate with men who they know or suspect to be abusive. The murders committed by Beta Murderers were preceded by suicidal ideation or attempts, which are later manifested as a planned murder suicide. To validate the Binary Model questionnaires were completed by 89 men sentenced for the murder of an intimate partner, 151 men incarcerated in a federal penitentiary for an offence other than the murder of an intimate partner, and 102 nonincarcerated men. Support was obtained for the Binary Model of intimate femicide. Multiple regression analysis contributed to the identification of variables significantly differentiating intimate murderers from men in the two control groups. This process demonstrates the potential for the development of an empirically based approach for the identification of men at risk of killing their current or estranged intimate female partners.

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The women and children who lost their lives at the hands of the men reported on in this paper.

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## CHAPTER 1

## Introduction

**“Ay, let her rot and perish, and be damed tonight; for she shall not live”.**

**(Othello, p. 922, in Shakespeare, 1982)**

There is a vast and growing body of knowledge on violence against women yet the most severe form of violence, the killing of women by their male partners, has received little attention. This is surprising since statistics show that women are more likely to be killed by husbands and boyfriends than by strangers (Campbell, 1992; Crawford & Gartner, 1992; Stout, 1991; Statistics Canada, 1991; 1989; U.S. Department of Justice, 1992). This study was undertaken to address this important issue by identifying characteristics that reliably discriminate men who kill their female partner from those who do not. Studies of this type are critical to the development of reliable risk assessment instruments to identify men at risk of killing their partners so that interventions to manage this risk can be implemented.

The term commonly used to refer to the killing of women by their partners is intimate femicide (Radford & Russell, 1992). Intimate femicide is a subcategory of domestic homicide referring specifically to homicides where a woman is killed by someone with whom she was intimately involved. The term intimate femicide is less restrictive than uxoricide (wife murder). This study restricts its focus to intimate heterosexual relationships. Hence the intimate partners of female homicide victims are defined as husbands, common-law

husbands, and boyfriends, either current at the time of the homicide or estranged.

This study applies a multiple comparison group design consisting of a sample of men convicted for having killed an intimate female partner (intimate murderers), a sample of men convicted for an offence other than intimate femicide (general offenders), and a sample of nonincarcerated men (community controls).

#### The Prevalence of Intimate Femicide

**"In industrialized Western countries...between 40 and 60 percent of culpable homicides involve people who have been in a relationship initiated out of sexual attraction and associated with different qualities of loving". (Nettler, 1982, p. 107).**

The frequency of intimate femicide is striking and clearly highlights this topic as worthy of the attention of researchers. With the exception of serial killers, almost all cases of males killing females occur in the context of an ongoing intimate relationship (Dutton, Starzomski, Saunders & Bartholomew, 1992). Men who killed their wives or common-law partners account for the largest group of offenders in homicides involving family members (Statistics Canada, 1989).

According to Canadian statistics, in 1991, 85 men killed their wives (Statistics Canada, 1991). Considering other intimate partners in addition to husbands (e.g., boyfriends, extramarital and estranged lovers) Statistics Canada

(1991) found that slightly more than half (120) of female murder victims in 1991 were killed by a current or estranged intimate partner. Begin (1991) identified the problem as being more serious concluding that 62% of all women murdered in Canada are killed by their partners. More recently, Wilson, Daly and Wright (1993) concluded that a married woman in Canada is about nine times more likely to be killed by her husband than by a stranger. They based this on the finding that between 1974 and 1990 a total of 1333 women were killed by their husbands. This number represents 49% of a total of 2699 women who were the victims in solved homicides perpetrated by men. By including the 112 women slain by their lovers (4% of femicides) with the 1333 women killed by their husbands, the total number of intimate femicides committed between 1974 and 1990 is approximately 1445 (53% of all male perpetrated femicides).

On a provincial scale, Crawford and Gartner (1992) found that between 1974 and 1990, 551 women were killed in Ontario by a current or estranged intimate partner. This translates to an average of about 34 intimate femicides each year in Ontario. These researchers further state that women killed by intimate partners accounted for between 61% and 78% of all adult female victims of homicide. Specific to Toronto, Gartner and McCarthy (1991) reported that the majority of women killed between 1921 and 1988 were killed by intimate partners.

With respect to an offender population, six male offenders killed a partner / ex-partner between August 1992 and June 1997 (Correction Service of Canada, 1997). Five of these murders occurred while the man was on supervision in the

community. In one case the offender killed his ex-partner, her spouse and then himself. The sixth intimate femicide occurred during a conjugal visit within a correctional facility. One of the perpetrators was serving a life sentence for the murder of his previous wife at the time he committed his second intimate femicide. Two others were serving sentences for the murder of a woman with whom they were not intimately involved. In response to the six intimate femicides, the Correctional Service of Canada (CSC) identified the need to assess offenders for risk of committing family violence and to develop correctional plans to manage and possibly reduce any identified risks.

Crawford and Gartner (1992) report that of the developed countries, only the United States has a worse record on the killing of women than Canada. The U.S. Department of Justice (1992) revealed that of 1,330 women killed in the U.S. in 1991, 847 were killed by their husbands and 483 were killed by their boyfriends. According to Stout (1991) approximately four women are killed in the U.S. every day by intimate partners.

The finding that a large percentage of femicides are perpetrated by a present or former intimate male partner represents a global pattern (Landau & Hattis Rolef, 1998). So apparent is this pattern that United Nations (1989) reported that based on all of the available research evidence it appears that violence against women in the home is a universal problem, occurring across all cultures and in all countries.

The range in the femicide statistics reported in this section reflects the

scope of the definition of intimate femicide adopted. For example some definitions restrict the perpetrator to husbands only while others include boyfriends and lovers. Even with a narrow definition, however, the incidences of intimate femicides are a stark contrast to the data for men killed by their spouses which accounted for approximately 8% of all adult male victims of homicide. To keep the rate of intimate femicides in perspective, Ellis (1987) noted that although there were 565 wives suspected of having been killed by their husbands in Canada between 1971 and 1981, this constitutes only one wife in every 96.6 thousand being killed by her husband. Such a low base rate serves as a reminder that intimate femicide is not an epidemic; however, it should not detract from the importance of this problem. It might be stated that it is the peculiarity of the intimate murderer which makes this study intrinsically interesting. As Burnett (1989) noted, "the unique, the non normal, the rare are often much more important to our understanding of the normal than big numbers found in a mathematical curve" (p. 4).

#### Justice Systems Response to Intimate Femicide

The legal system responds to intimate femicide in the most severe manner available within the limits of the law, often incarcerating the perpetrator for the remainder of his life. Crawford and Gartner (1992) explored the justice systems response to intimate femicides that occurred in Ontario between 1974 and 1990. They found that in most cases the accused were charge with First-Degree Murder (50% of cases). The disposition handed down by the court, however, was



most frequently a Second-Degree Murder conviction (30% of cases). Almost one quarter (24%) of the intimate murderers were found Not Guilty by reason of insanity. This is interesting because, as will be seen later in this section, there is little evidence that such a large percentage of intimate femicides can be attributed to the offender's mental status. The majority of the perpetrators (27%) received a sentence of 20 years or more, 25% received a sentence of 10 years, and 20% were sentenced to between 11 and 19 years. A detailed summary of Crawford and Gartner's findings is provided in Table 1. With respect to sentencing, Dawson and Gartner (1998) observed that men estranged from their partners as well as common-law partners and boyfriends were more likely to have prior criminal records. They point out that having a prior criminal record likely contributes to a more severe sentence. Therefore, the sentence may not entirely reflect the index offence.

Table 1

Legal Reactions to Intimate Femicide

## Initial charges laid

First-degree murder	50%
Second-degree murder	34%
Manslaughter	5%
Young offender	11%

## Disposition of case

First-degree murder conviction	18%
Second-degree murder conviction	30%
Manslaughter conviction	18%
Criminal negligence conviction	2%
Assault conviction	2%
Not guilty by reason of insanity	24%
Acquitted of all charges	3%
Charges dismissed	3%

## Length of sentence for those convicted

No prison time, probation	5%
Less than 2 years + 1 day	3%
2 years + 1 day - 5 years	10%
5 - 9 years	10%
10 years	25%
11 - 19 years	20%
20 or more years	27%

**Note:** From \*Women Killing: Intimate Femicide in Ontario, 1974-1990\* (Table A.5) by M. Crawford and R. Gartner, 1992, Toronto, Ontario: Women's Directorate Ministry of Social Services. Copyrighted 1992 by Ontario Women's Directorate. Reprinted by Permission.

### Research Related to Intimate Femicide

**"Intimate femicide is the missing link in social science research on violence against women." (Stout, 1991, p. 476).**

A review of the literature on intimate femicide confirms Stout's (1991) observation that this topic has received little attention. According to Campbell (1992), "More research and health care dollars are spent on female infertility, premenstrual syndrome (PMS) and complications of pregnancy than on understanding and preventing one of the primary threats to the health of young women: femicide." (p. 99). Forty-four years ago, Wolfgang (1956) commented on the "paucity" of studies and data that describe and analyse husband-wife homicides. Intimate femicide has only recently begun to experience an increase in research attention. This interest has come from sociologists (e.g., Chimbos, 1978; Crawford & Gartner, 1992; Dawson & Gartner, 1998; Goetting, 1989), social workers (e.g., Stout, 1993, 1992, 1991, 1989), criminologist (e.g., Avakame, 1999, 1998; Landau & Hattis Rolef, 1998), health care practitioners (e.g., McFarlane, Campbell, Wilt, Sachs, Ulrich and Xu, 1999), and psychologists (e.g., Daly & Wilson, 1988; Dutton & Kerry, 1999; Wilson & Daly, 1993; Wilson, Daly & Wright, 1993). Campbell and Runyan (1998) recognized this interdisciplinary interest as one of the exciting developments in femicide research.

Much of the existing literature on intimate femicide is marked by a number of methodological limitations. The available literature is often based on qualitative investigations, frequently analysed and reported in a subjective

manner without any formal statistical analysis (Kilpatrick & Lockhart, 1991). Hence, there is little in the way of sound empirical data. Second, earlier investigations tended to focus on spousal homicide, ignoring gender as a variable, thus combining data from both men who kill their wives and women who kill their husbands. There are several problems related to ignoring gender as a variable in studies of this nature. For example, when research has explored gender and homicide, it has been found that homicide is a male-dominated act (Silverman & Mukherjee, 1987; Wilson & Daly, 1993). Furthermore, spousal homicides involving a female victim are in many respects different from those involving a male victim (Campbell, 1992). Third, much of the available data relates to demographic and situational variables often derived from archival data such as police and coroner's reports. Such data offer little about the dynamics that motivate a man to kill his intimate female partner. Fourth, when data has been reported on men who commit intimate femicide, it has frequently evolved from self-report or clinical observation. Few studies made use of psychometrically validated measures, protected against social desirable responses, and / or controlled for subjects' denials and minimizations. Many researchers (Edleson & Brygger, 1986; Hastings & Hamberger, 1988; Sonkin, Martin & Walker, 1985) have aptly noted that men deny and minimize their own level of abuse. Specific to incarcerated men is the conclusion that the validity of self-report inventories completed by these men are particularly low (Hart, Forth & Hare, 1992). Fifth, the studies to date have often neglected to include relevant

control or comparison groups that would provide a contextual basis for interpretation of data. Despite the shortcomings of the available literature on intimate femicide the remainder of this section reviews some of the more meritorious studies.

Crawford and Gartner (1992) completed a descriptive analysis of intimate femicide in Ontario between 1974 and 1990. Data was obtained from the Office of the Chief Coroner of Ontario and supplemented with information from Regional and Municipal police forces, the Ontario Provincial Police and "other unofficial sources." Crawford and Gartner found that the rate of intimate femicide varied from year to year; however, there was no apparent trend over time. The victims tended to be between 20 to 39 years of age, living with a husband or common-law husband, and of Canadian birth. Eighty percent had children and almost 50% were employed. Although most victims were married to and living with their killers, approximately 31% were estranged from their partners. Crawford and Gartner were surprised to discover that none of the women were killed by a divorced spouse.

The offenders were on average four years older than their victims, employed, possessed an average of 10 years of education, and of Canadian birth. Consistent with Goetting (1989) over half of the offenders had criminal records. In most of the cases, the offender had assaulted the victim in the past, resulting in police intervention. These intimate murderers were also preoccupied with control and sexual ownership of their female partners. Crawford and Gartner

identified the predominant motive for intimate femicide (in 45% of the cases) to be the offenders' anger or rage over estrangement from their partners. Intimate femicides typically occurred in the home of the victim and there were often witnesses (frequently children) present. Forty-one percent of the men who killed their intimate partners and 32% of their victims had been drinking prior to the murder. In only 3% of the cases was there any evidence of drug use around the time of the killing.

Of particular interest to this author was, first, the finding that intimate femicides are frequently characterized by the use of "excessive violence, beyond what is necessary to kill a person" (Crawford & Gartner, 1992, p. 45). Crawford and Gartner noted that the use of multiple methods to kill the victim and prolonged and extremely brutal attacks appear to be more common than in the killings of men. Second, in almost one third of the intimate femicides the victims were also sexually assaulted and / or sexually mutilated. In another 22% of the cases, the victim's body was found partially or completely unclothed. Crawford and Gartner speculate that due to the large amount of missing data the figures on sexual assault and mutilation may represent only a minimum estimate. Finally, these researchers found the killings of these 551 women by their intimate partners actually resulted in a total of 767 deaths. Of the additional 216 deaths, 62 were children, while of the remaining number the majority were offenders who committed suicide. Concerning the former, Wilson, Daly and Daniele (1995) reported that intimate femicides where one or more children are also killed

represents 4.3% of the wife killings in Canada between 1974 and 1990. With respect to perpetrator suicide Crawford and Gartner found that 32% of the men committed suicide after the killing of their intimate partner and 7% attempted suicide. The finding of the use of excessive violence, the high incidence of murder-suicides, and the high incidence of post estrangement femicide are explored in greater detail in following sections.

As a result of their analysis of intimate femicides in Ontario, Crawford and Gartner (1992) concluded that those posing the greatest threats to the lives of women are their intimate partners, rather than the strangers who they are taught to fear. Landau and Hattis Rolef (1998) conducted a similar investigation to that of Crawford and Gartner. Their review of police records, court files and newspaper articles related to 76 cases of intimate femicide that took place in Israel between 1990-1995 produced similar results.

Dawson and Gartner (1998) analysed archival data from 703 intimate femicides that occurred in Ontario between 1974 and 1994 to determine whether differences in relationship state and relationship status were associated with differences in the characteristics of intimate femicides and the people involved in them. Relationship state refers to whether the victim and offender were estranged at the time of the crime. Relationship status refers to whether the victim and offender were legally married, living common-law, or dating. Results on relationship state revealed that in cases where the murder occurred in an estranged relationship, the victims were more likely to be employed and less

likely to be under the influence of drugs and / or alcohol at the time of their death. Perpetrators of these murders tended to be employed and to have a prior criminal record. These men were less likely to have used drugs and / or alcohol around the time of the murder. Intimate femicides committed by estranged male partners were more likely to involve guns and to occur in public places, often in the presence of witnesses. The results on relationship status showed that men who killed the woman they were legally married to were significantly more likely (than common-law husbands and boyfriends) to use a gun and to commit suicide following the murder. They were, however, less inclined to sexually assault the victim during the offence. Common-law husbands and boyfriends who kill their partners were likely to be younger, to have a criminal record, and less likely to have children than intimate murderers who were legally married to their victims. In contrast to legally married men, common-law husbands were more likely to be unemployed, whereas boyfriends were less likely to have a known history of violent behaviour and more likely to kill victims in public. There were few differences between intimate femicides perpetrated by common-law husbands and boyfriends.

In a similar study to that of Dawson and Gartner (1998), Silverman and Mukherjee (1987) considered the level of intimacy in the relationship between homicide victims and their killers. The homicides considered were not restricted to intimate femicides. Focussing just on the aspects of this study that relate to intimate femicide, Silverman and Mukherjee differentiated marital categories



according to marital stability. Legal and common-law marriages were classified as "stable" while "unstable relationships" referred to those where the partners were separated, divorced, or legal annulled. When the two marital categories were compared, the rate of homicide in the "unstable relationships" was over three times higher than in the "stable relationships". When gender was controlled for, males killed females 76% of the time in "stable relationships", but all of the homicides occurring in "unstable relationships" were committed by males.

McFarlane, Campbell, Wilt, Sachs, Ulrich and Xu (1999) explored the association between stalking and intimate femicide. Data on 141 actual and 64 attempted intimate femicides were obtained from closed police records from ten major American cities. This archival data was supplemented with data collected from close acquaintances of murder victims and, in cases of attempted femicide, from the victim herself. This study was limited by its inclusion of same sex perpetrators with male perpetrators, its reliance on the police records, and information from sources that are likely to be biased (e.g., friends and family of murder victims and victims of assault). McFarlane et al. found that during the 12 months before an attempted or actual intimate femicide more than three fourths of the victims were stalked and two thirds were physically assaulted. Former intimate partners were more likely than current intimate partners to stalk their eventual victim. These researchers refer to this finding as support for the hypothesis that abused women are at the greatest risk for further harm or actual death from the point of ending the relationship to about two years postseparation.

McFarlane et al. concluded that both assault and stalking are risk factors for lethal and near-lethal violence - especially when they occur together.

### The Use of Excessive Violence

In his classic study of homicide in Philadelphia, Wolfgang (1956) found that of the 53 husbands who killed their wives, 44 did so violently. Wolfgang defined a violent homicide as one involving two or more acts of stabbing, cutting or shooting, in the process of slaying the victim. Severe beatings resulting in death were also classified as violent homicides. If more than five acts were involved in the death, the murder was labelled excessively violent. Wolfgang's data revealed that the category of more than five acts (excessively violent) accounted for 24% of all violent spousal homicides. Wolfgang concluded that spousal homicides were violent to a greater degree than homicides in general. Many researchers have reached a similar conclusion (Duncan & Duncan, 1978; Goode, 1971). Crawford and Gartner's (1992) data on intimate femicides revealed that more than half of the stabbings involved multiple stab wounds, "in many cases, dozens of wounds over the entire body" (p. 45). They found that beatings and bludgeonings were typically prolonged attacks with numerous injuries. Additionally, Crawford and Gartner found that almost one fifth of the cases involved multiple methods. Campbell (1992) also reported high incidences of excessive violence in intimate femicides.

There is no clear explanation for why men use such extreme violence in killing their female partners. Campbell (1992), however, interprets it as a

"conscious determination to kill" (p. 103). Campbell's interpretation, can be enhanced by exploring the literature suggesting that violence between strangers is generally rational and instrumental whereas family violence is predominantly irrational and expressive (Gillis, 1986; Hotaling & Straus, 1989; Megargee, 1982). Gillis (1986) for example, noted that the closer the ties between the offender and the victim, the more often homicides seem to be a spontaneous emotion-laden act. The offenders high emotional arousal may therefore contribute to the hideous nature of so many intimate femicides. Concerning the impulsivity component identified by Gillis, researchers Lee, Zimbardo, and Bertholf (1977) found that on the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) sudden (impulsive) murderers tended to be significantly more overcontrolled and passive than habitual offenders who were more undercontrolled and assertive. The Lee et al. study is based on the work of Megargee, Cook and Mendelsohn (1967) who pioneered the study of the overcontrolled criminal. Megargee et al. and more recently, Gudjonsson, Petursson, Sigurdardottir and Skulason (1991) suggest that overcontrolled criminals are excessively inhibited against expressing anger or asserting themselves; consequently, they experience extreme frustrations as they are exploited by others. Over time this results in increasing levels of frustration within the individual who also lacks an appropriate means of expressing anger and aggressive impulses. These emotions build up to the point where the excessively strong inhibitions are overcome and there is an explosive release of emotions in the form of extreme aggression. Conversely, Megargee et

al. and Gudjonsson et al. describe the undercontrolled criminal as an individual who has never developed control over the expression of aggression because of the pattern of rewards and punishments within their family or social group. Hence, they lack internal controls and lash out when provoked. Concerning the type of offence perpetrated by the overcontrolled and the undercontrolled offender, Megargee et al. suggested that the chronically overcontrolled person will often commit a more violent crime than will the undercontrolled person. However, these authors go on to state that if the provocation is sufficiently great, the undercontrolled person can also commit an extremely violent crime.

Empirical support for the Megargee et al. typologies is lacking; however, it has been suggested that this may be due to the method by which these groups are identified and not necessarily with the theoretical construct (DuToit & Duckitt, 1988). In an effort to address this issue and validate the theoretical construct, DuToit and Duckitt had trained raters use file information to establish groups of overcontrolled violent, undercontrolled violent and nonviolent male criminal offenders. The subjects from these groups were then administered measures of personality, hostility and control. DuToit and Duckitt's findings differentiated the overcontrolled violent offenders from the other two groups which were not statistically indistinguishable, thereby providing general support to Megargee et al.'s typologies. It is noteworthy that differences on the Overcontrolled Hostility (OH) scale of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) were highly significant, confirming the validity of this scale in differentiating

overcontrolled and undercontrolled individuals.

Together the foregoing suggests that, compared to chronic wife assaulters who do not kill their partners, the man who violently kills his female partner may be an overcontrolled individual who in response to some specific situation lashes out impulsively and irrationally towards his wife. The act may have a cathartic effect, thereby releasing pent-up emotions which have been accumulating as a consequence of the man's overcontrolled and passive personality. Such a scenario would support Gillis' (1986) view that homicides between closely related people are emotionally laden.

Although the explanation presented here is appealing, Quinsey, Arnold and Pruesse (1980) conducted a study which does not support such a view. These researchers examined six types of offenders. Two of these groups are of interest to the present discussion: homicide / attempted homicide of a family member or girlfriend and homicide / attempted homicide of a nonfamily member. Quinsey et al. hypothesised that those who kill a relative or girlfriend would have the highest overcontrolled hostility scores. However, there was no difference in overcontrolled hostility between these two groups. The researchers concluded that overcontrolled hostility is not a significant discriminator of type of offense. The subjects in this study were all residents of a psychiatric facility, and therefore may not be representative of offenders in the correctional system.

Bartol (1991) concluded that the evidence suggests that the etiology of violent behaviour may be similar whether it is used against a family member or a

stranger.

To understand severe wife assault, Dutton (1988) turned to Zimbardo's (1969) work on deindividuated violence. Dutton's connection between severe wife assault and deindividuation may assist in understanding the excessive use of violence in intimate femicide. Dutton noted that in incidents of severe wife assault both, victims and the police describe the abuser as being in a highly aroused state of rage during the attack. These men are usually unresponsive to begging and pleading from the victim and in some cases the beating continued until the abuser was too exhausted to continue. According to Dutton, in these cases the batterer suffers an inability to recall the actual assaultive incidents even after public attention has subsided. This is despite the abuser's ability to recall the events leading up to the assault as well as the aftermath. Dutton describes this memory lapse as resulting from "the shift in control over the batterer's behaviour from external, environmental, stimuli to internal, proprioceptive (physical) stimuli" (Dutton, 1988, p. 61). The abusers arousal is believed to be so high that his focus of attention is shifted away from his partner and onto his own self generated stimulation. Dutton suggested that the abuser in a deindividuated state is "attuned to and registering only stimuli from within" (p. 61). Therefore the abuser is unable to recall the actual assaultive incident because it was never stored in his memory. Although Dutton believes the concept of deindividuation provides an interesting position from which to explore severe wife assault, he notes that this will require further investigation.

Offering another explanation for the extreme violence perpetrated by some abusive men Gottman, Jacobson, Rushe, Shortt, Babcock, Taillade and Waltz (1995) identified two types of batterers. Type 1 batterers experience a decelerating heart rate when abusive while type 2 batterers experience an accelerating heart rate when responding abusively. The authors suggest that the type 1 batterer engages in more severe violence, is more likely to be violent outside of the family, is emotionally abusive, observed violence in his family of origin, and is drug dependent.

#### Offender Suicide

One of the most consistent findings concerning intimate femicide is the high incidence of offender suicide following the murder (Crawford & Gartner, 1992; Kratcoski, 1990; Palmer & Humphrey, 1980; Wolfgang, 1956). In contrast there are few examples of homicide-suicide among strangers or those in short-term relationships (Stack, 1997). Of the 90 homicide-suicides studied by Palmer and Humphrey (1980), 66% involved members of the same family and of those 85% involved husbands who killed their wives and then committed suicide. Similarly, Kratcoski (1990) found that all of the homicide - suicide cases in his study of homicides committed by older offenders involved a husband committing suicide after murdering his wife. Crawford and Gartner (1992) found that 32% of the perpetrators of intimate femicide committed suicide after killing their partner and 7% attempted suicide; this compares to 8% and 1% for non-intimate women killers. Similarly, Statistics Canada (1990) reports that 36% of the husbands who

killed their wives committed suicide afterwards. Wolfgang (1956) also found high rates of suicide among men who killed their wives. Wolfgang reported that of 47 wives who killed their husbands only one committed suicide; however, of the 53 men who killed their wives 10 committed suicide. He attributed this difference to greater feelings of guilt and remorse on the part of husbands. These emotions were considered to result from the tendency of husbands to kill their wives without provocation, compared to wives who tend to kill their husbands following some form of provocation. It might also be that the intent on the part of the husband (although abusive) was not to kill his wife. As noted earlier, Gillis (1986) reported that when the relationship between the victim and the offender in a homicide is close, the homicide often seems to be a spontaneous and emotion-laden act. In cases where men commit / attempt suicide after murdering their wife, it is possible that the murder was the result of a spontaneous and emotion-laden act as Gillis suggests. However, once realizing what he has done, feelings of fear, panic, regret and remorse may contribute to the man then taking his own life.

Despite the appeal of this explanation, Daly and Wilson (1988) note that in spousal homicides the killer often leaves evidence (e.g., a note) suggesting the murder-suicide was a "planned whole". Daly and Wilson add that unplanned suicides done out of remorse for having killed appears to be a rare event. According to these authors, 192 perpetrators of intimate femicide killed themselves immediately after the homicide but only 3 committed suicide days or



weeks later (a delay that might reflect remorseful brooding). Daly and Wilson conclude that murder-suicide is a "spectacularly futile act in which the murderer carries out a course of action that is devastating to his own interests, just for the sake of inflicting damage on another" (p. 219).

The basic irrationality of murder-suicide requires further explanation. Since Wolfgang does not provide statistics on attempted suicides, an alternate explanation of his findings may be that, as the suicide literature has repeatedly demonstrated, males tend to use more lethal means to kill themselves and are hence more successful than females. Assuming that the weapon used in a suicide following a murder is the same weapon used in the murder, there may be support for this alternative explanation. Statistics Canada (1989) reported that men predominantly kill their wives by shooting them (48% of husbands and 34% of common-law husbands) while wives predominantly kill their husbands by stabbing them (45% of wives and 65% of common-law wives). Given that men use a more lethal means to kill their wives, it is likely that they are also using the same highly lethal method in those cases where they attempt suicide. Finally, when the high rates of suicide are considered in light of the findings suggesting that spousal batterers exhibit high levels of depression (e.g., Hastings & Hamberger, 1988), they may not appear as mystifying. It is well established in the literature on suicide that depression is an antecedent to suicide. In exploring the relationship between depression and homicide, Rosenbaum and Bennett (1986) found a high rate of depressive disorders among domestic murderers. These

researchers posit that anger and aggression in suicidal people can be considered as aggression turned inward (in a psychoanalytic sense), which may be expressed explosively in homicidal behaviour instead of suicidal behaviour or in murder followed by suicide. According to Rosenbaum and Bennett, the precipitating event resulting in depression in homicidal cases is quite often sexual infidelity, either real or imagined. In contrast they found that in non-homicidal depressed patients, the depression was often attributed to losses and failures. Rosenbaum and Bennett consider homicidal depression to be a narcissistic reaction to situations that produce hurt pride, shame, and humiliation. Furthermore, these emotions were thought to result in lowered self-esteem and depression as well as intense anger that may be expressed in violent and homicidal behaviour.

Rosenbaum (1990) compared 12 couples involved in murder-suicide to 24 couples involved in homicide in which the perpetrator did not commit suicide. Although this study is based on archival data, does not control for gender of the perpetrator nor attempted suicides, it uncovered some noteworthy findings. Rosenbaum's findings reveal two distinct groups of spousal murderers. When compared to perpetrators who did not kill themselves, perpetrators of murder-suicide were older, primarily of middle-socioeconomic status, had a longer relationship with their victim, and in 75% of the cases suffered from a depressive disorder. In contrast, the perpetrators of murder not followed by suicide were of lower socioeconomic status and none suffered from a depressive disorder.

Rather, 67% of those in this group met the criteria of antisocial personality disorder (33% of the perpetrators of murder-suicide received this diagnosis), 50% had a substance abuse problem (versus 17% of the perpetrators of murder-suicide) and 21% had an adjustment disorder versus 8% of the perpetrators of murder-suicide. Rosenbaum's findings are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2

Rosenbaum's 1990 findings

	Perpetrators of Murder-Suicide	Perpetrators of Murder
Depressive Disorder	75%	0%
Substance Abuse	17%	50%
Adjustment Disorder	8%	21%
Antisocial Personality Disorder	33%	67%

Unnithan, Corzine and Huff-Corzine (1994) theorize that the choice between homicide and suicide depends on attributional issues. They believe that a person who attributes the cause of their problems to themselves and who is depressed and feels helpless is likely to choose suicide. In contrast, a person who attributes the cause of their problem to others and who feels angry rather than depressed will opt for homicide. With regard to homicide-suicide Stack (1997) suggest that both attributional styles may be present due to extreme ambivalence. Since homicide-suicide is most common in intimate relationships, this ambivalence is thought to relate to feelings of not being capable to live with

the other person (hate) and at the same time experiencing feelings of being incapable of living without the other person (love).

Daly and Wilson (1988) noted that murder-suicide is higher among men who stalk and kill their estranged partners as opposed to other wife killers. Based on their Canadian data, Daly and Wilson found that 35% of the men who killed their estranged wives killed themselves compared to 22% of the men who killed wives from whom they were not estranged. Daly and Wilson believe that a key factor in these murder-suicides is the man's "fiercely proprietary jealousy". They state that this jealousy which is so useful in intimidating wives and rivals is at best a double edged sword.

To this point we have been considering "murder-suicides"; however, we could turn this around and consider "suicide-murder". By looking at this issue from such a perspective, it may be that the murder of a partner was a part of a man's suicide plan. Palmer and Humphrey (1980, p. 106) found "...The killing of someone in close relationship to the offender, often a wife, appeared to be part of the evolving process of suicide". Consequently, the initial motive could be suicide and the murder of a partner could be secondary. Furthering this position, Duncan and Duncan (1978) posits that for men who kill their family members and then themselves, the family members represent the extended self. The goal is total suicide. Consequently, Block and Christakos (1995) caution that when a man is at risk of suicide, his partner and children are at risk of being murdered.

With regard to the implications of the high rate of suicide among men who kill their spouses, Palmer and Humphrey (1980) suggest that "marital strife" may in certain instances be a signal to implement suicide intervention techniques. These researchers believe that such an intervention may reduce the probability of a homicide as well as of a suicide that may follow thereafter. In cases where men have killed their spouses, it is further recommended that appropriate interventions may help to avert the offender's suicide.

#### Post-Estrangement Femicide

Crawford and Gartner (1992) determined that at least 31% of the intimate femicides they studied were committed by men estranged from their partners. When cases in which the victim had threatened to leave were included, estrangement or threat of estrangement occurred in about 45% of the intimate femicides. Campbell (1992) reached similar conclusions regarding the association between estrangement and femicide. Focussing specifically on uxoricide in Canada, New South Wales, Australia and Chicago, Wilson and Daly (1993) concluded that women are killed more often in estranged relationships than in coresiding relationships. These researchers identify estrangement as a significant risk factor for uxoricide. More precisely, the time immediately after estrangement presents the greatest risk (Stout, 1993; Wallace, 1986; Wilson & Daly, 1993). According to Campbell (1992) this may arise out of the man's desperate attempts to reassert power and control or "reclaim ownership." Based on the available literature, estrangement appears to be a risk factor for intimate

femicide. However, Wilson and Daly (1993) caution that the mere association between estrangement and femicide does not necessarily imply causality. They note that an alternative explanation may be that separated couples usually have a history of discord and it is possible that if the woman left the relationship at a time when she felt in increased danger, she would have been killed regardless of if she stayed or left. Similarly, Rodgers (1994) suggests that abusive men become estranged as a result of their behaviour; consequently, it is violence-proneness that could lead to estrangement and not estrangement that leads to violence. Wilson and Daly note, however, if it is the man's desire to keep his female partner, then killing her is counterproductive. The answer to this puzzle may be ambivalence. Stack (1997) suggested that extreme ambivalence evidenced by a vacillation between anger and love results in the man feeling that he cannot live with his partner and at the same time feeling that he cannot live without her.

### Abusive Men

To facilitate an understanding of men who kill their intimate female partners, a review of the more voluminous literature on men who abuse (but do not kill) their partners may be of value. Attempts to uncover a batterer typology have been inconclusive. This may be due in part to the variety of approaches taken by researchers. Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart (1994) and Dutton (1988) suggest that differing profiles of wife assaulters in the literature may be the result of sampling differences. Some researchers study the batterer directly; however,

as Maiuro, Cahn, and Vitaliano (1986) report, much of the research has relied on victim reports to develop psychological profiles of batterers. The available literature suggests that batterers are not a homogeneous group (Hamberger & Hastings, 1986).

Hart, Dutton, and Newlove (in press) used the Million Clinical Multiaxial Inventory (MCMI-II) to explore the prevalence of personality disorder in wife assaulters. Although these researchers believe that the MCMI-II may have overestimated the prevalence of personality disorder, their results are presented here because even when conservative cutoff scores were used, high rates of personality disorders remained. When the MCMI-II base-rate (BR) cutoff of 74 was used, 90% of the assaulters evidenced some form of personality disorder. Using a more stringent BR of 84, the prevalence of personality disorder in the sample dropped to 80%. The most common diagnoses were Aggressive/Sadistic and Passive-Aggressive personality; however, Narcissistic and Antisocial were also quite prevalent. In discussing their findings, Hart et al. noted that contrary to popular belief, very few men appeared to suffer from serious problems with dependency. In fact, dependent personality disorder was the least frequent diagnosis in the sample. The researchers were also intrigued by the unexpected high frequency of Sadistic personality disorder. However, in light of Crawford and Gartner's (1992) observation that intimate femicides are frequently characterized by the use of excessive violence, extreme brutality and mutilation, the high frequency of sadistic personality disorder appears less puzzling.

Hamberger and Hastings (1986; 1988) investigated the personality profiles of male spouse abusers. These authors consider batterers to be a heterogeneous group manifesting no single or predominant profile type. Relative to normative standards, they exhibited marked psychopathology. Hastings and Hamberger (1988) studied 43 non-battering males identified by the Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS). This group was compared to a group of male batterers identified through court records, or self referral, and whose abusive behaviour was also confirmed by the CTS. Hastings and Hamberger found that batterers were more dysphoric on the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) and showed evidence of marked personality disorder, mood and other symptom disturbance, and cognitive and affective problems on the MCMI relative to non-battering males (Hastings & Hamberger, 1988). Batterers obtained significantly lower scores than non-batterers on the Novaco Anger Scale (NAS). The authors speculated that this unexpected finding may have been due to batterers denying and minimizing their aggression when presented with a highly face-valid instrument such as the NAS. In summary, the findings of Hastings and Hamberger depict the batterer as a "psychologically rigid and unstable individual who, while capable of forming highly intense relationships, is self-absorbed to such an extent that true empathy and reciprocity in relationships is impossible" (p. 44).

In a replication of an earlier study (Hamberger & Hastings, 1985), Hamberger and Hastings (1986) explored the personality profiles of males known to be abusive to their partners. The subjects in this study were 99 men arrested



and ordered to undergo an assessment at a domestic violence abatement program. These men were assessed with the MCMI, the NAS and the BDI.

Hamberger and Hastings factor analysed the first eight (the Basic Eight) MCMI scales and obtained three factors. The first factor, interpreted as a schizoid/borderline factor, identified ten subjects. The profile depicted these men as withdrawn and asocial individuals who are likely to be moody and hypersensitive to interpersonal slights. Others may describe them as volatile and overreactive to trivial interpersonal friction. Although they may be relatively calm and controlled one moment, they may become extremely angry and aggressive the next. These men exhibit extremely high levels of anxiety and depression, as well as a likelihood of alcohol problems. This group showed high levels of depression on the BDI and high levels of anger proneness on the NAS. Using the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM III) Hamberger and Hastings identified this group as Borderline Personality Disordered. Thirteen men were identified by the second factor referred to as Narcissistic/Antisocial. These men appeared to be very self-centered and rigid individuals likely to insist that their values, perceptions and rules be accepted by others. They tended to use others to meet their own needs and only reciprocate when it works to their advantage. Their self perception leads them to feel entitled to be treated well by others according to "their" own standards. Hesitation or refusal by others to respond to their demands likely results in threats and aggression. These men reported low levels of dysphoria, a high energy level and a tendency to abuse

alcohol and drugs. The BDI scores for these men was very low. Despite obtaining high aggression scores on the MCMI, the men in this group obtained very low scores on the NAS. Based on the above, this group received a DSM III diagnosis of Narcissistic/Antisocial personality disorder. The third factor, labelled Passive Dependent/Compulsive, consisted of 16 men who appeared to be tense, rigid individuals, likely to behave in a weak, passive or ingratiating manner. These men exhibit a low level of self-esteem and a strong need for one or a few significant others. Failure to meet these needs may result in rebellious hostile feelings. Although these men reported only mild dysphoria on the MCMI, their self reported energy level was extremely low and their BDI scores were high. With regard to expression of anger, these men had slight elevations on the MCMI; however, the NAS revealed very low levels of anger proneness. This finding was inconsistent with the earlier study (Hamberger & Hastings, 1985) in which high Factor 3 subjects showed considerable anger proneness, but little likelihood of acting out their anger.

Of interest was the finding of a fourth group of twelve men who scored high on both factor I and factor 2. Thus, according to Hamberger and Hastings, these men combined the angry, sullen, volatile qualities of group I with the aggressive, narcissistic qualities of group II to produce an extremely aggressive, unpredictable sort of antisocial personality. Also of interest was a group of eleven men who scored high on factor 2 and factor 3 and low on factor I. These men were described as gregarious, superficially charming and self dramatizing

as a way of gaining the attention, admiration and support of others. According to Hamberger and Hastings, when the dependency and security of these men is threatened, they may react with sudden brief disorganized hostility.

Summarizing their findings, Hamberger and Hastings were surprised at the similarity of results between their earlier study and the replication discussed here. Based on their two studies, these researchers concluded that most of the abusive men in their sample showed evidence of a personality disorder or other psychopathology; however, there was no common abuser personality profile.

Gondolf (1988) applied cluster analysis to data collected from 6,000 women admitted to shelters in Texas. Despite the methodological problems associated with collecting data from victims in crisis, Gondolf's findings are reviewed here. The cluster analysis produced three typologies. Type I, identified as the Sociopathic Batterer, accounted for five to eight percent of batterers. These men were described as extremely abusive to both their wife and children. This type of individual tends to be unpredictable and extremely diverse in their abusive behaviours, often using a weapon and in some cases sexually abusing his victim. As a result of his victim reporting his abuse to authorities the Sociopathic Batterer is the most likely of the three types of batterers to have a criminal record. The criminal record of these individuals is not, however, limited to incidents of domestic assault. The Type II batterer, labelled the Antisocial Batterer represents about 30% to 40% of batterers. These men are in many ways similar to the Sociopathic Batterer with the exception that they are less

likely to have a criminal record. The Type III batter, referred to as the Typical Batterer represents the most commonly seen type of batterer. The abuse perpetrated by these men is less severe compared to the other two typologies. The men in this group are less likely to have used a weapon, more likely to be apologetic following their abusive behaviour and are the least likely to have an arrest record. According to Gondolf, the victims of this type of abuser are the most likely to return to him.

Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart (1994) proposed a typology of male batterers consisting of three subtypes identified as family only, dysphoric / borderline, and general violent / antisocial. As the name implies family only batterers restrict their violence / abuse to the confines of the family. The abuse perpetrated by these men was expected to be of lesser frequency and severity than that of the other two subtypes, and likely not to include psychological and sexual abuse. These men were expected to exhibit little psychopathology and either no personality disorder or a passive-dependent disorder. Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart hypothesized that the abusive behaviours of these men results from a combination of poor communication skills, mild problems with impulsivity, and dependency on and preoccupation with their partners. Related to the latter, these men respond abusively when their fear of rejection and abandonment increases. After the abuse they experience guilt and remorse and are able to empathize with their partner. Another type of batterer proposed by Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart was the dysphoric / borderline batterers. These

men are more inclined to engage in moderate to severe wife abuse, including psychological and sexual abuse. Unlike family only batterers, however, they do not restrict their violent / abusive behaviours to the family. Lastly, Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart describe the generally violent / antisocial batterers as those who engage in moderate to severe abuse including psychological and sexual abuse. These men tend to perpetrate the most extramarital violence and to have the most extensive criminal involvement. A major shortcoming of Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart's typologies is that it has not been validated.

In a study assessing the relationship between Borderline Personality Organization (BPO) and wife assault, Dutton (1994) found that high BPO men are more angered and assaultive in response to intimacy issues and may be angered by the very experience of intimacy. The findings of this study lead Dutton to conclude that BPO is a useful construct that relates to a variety of emotions and behaviours that are abuse related.

The need for further research on men who are violent towards their partners was emphasised by the United Nations (1989) statement that "...violent men must be studied in order to determine how far their violence is the result of individual psychopathology or a result of social norms that condone and support subordination of women and thus male violence" (p. 99). More recently, Walker (1995) called for a shift away from unidimensional views of abusive behaviour of men to a multidimensional approach.

### Abusers versus Murderers

Little attention has been devoted to the relationship between men who kill their intimate female partners and men who assault but do not kill their intimate female partners.

Dutton and Kerry (1999) compared Million Clinical Multiaxial Inventory (MCMI) profiles of 90 incarcerated intimate murderers to those from 50 nonlethal spouse abusers attending a court-mandated treatment program. Based on MCMI profiles the most common personality disorders associated with intimate murderers were passive-aggressive (61%), self-defeating (51%), avoidant (49%), and dependent (46%). These “overcontrolled” personality types, common among intimate murderers, differed from the undercontrolled personality (antisocial, aggressive-sadistic) of the nonlethal abusers.

Wilson, Johnson and Daly (1995) attempted to explore the differences between lethal and nonlethal violence against wives. This study was, however, limited by its reliance on archival data and responses from a sample of Canadian women, to questions concerning their experiences of abuse. Wilson et al. failed to sample abusive males or perpetrators of intimate femicide. As Lenton (1995) aptly notes, “we cannot continue to focus exclusively on the victims unless we believe that the etiology of the behaviour is to be found within the victims” (p. 321).

Concerning assaults and homicides in general, Doerner (1988) and Doerner and Speir (1986) contend that many aggravated assaults are failed

homicide attempts. Adopting this position leads to speculation that there is no significant difference between men who abuse their partners and men who kill their partners. Others, however, (Dunn, 1976; Bartol, 1991) suggest that there is a distinction between aggravated assault and homicide. Dunn noted that the aggravated assault rate is at least twenty times that of homicide. Given this disparity he finds it is difficult to imagine that even one-quarter of all aggravated assaults were attempted homicides or would have been homicides except for the intervention of medical care. Specific to intimate femicide, Statistics Canada (1993) reported that one in four married women reported violence by their spouses, but Ellis (1987) concluded that in Canada between 1971 and 1981 only one wife in every 96.6 thousand was killed by her husband.

The preceding contributes to the hypothesis that there is a significant difference between men who abuse their partners and men who kill their partners. Consistent with this Dutton (1988) suggests that there may be several subpopulations of wife assaulters, adding that generalizations between wife assaulters who use moderate violence and those who use severe violence should be made cautiously. By referring to the "typical nonincarcerated wife assaulter", Dutton gives the impression that the incarcerated wife assaulter, and likely the intimate murderer, represent a significant deviation from this "typical" group. Perhaps the most convincing support for the position that men who kill their partners may be different from men who abuse their partners comes from Crawford and Gartner (1992). These authors found that in only 6% of the intimate

femicides was the murderer considered to be the final act of serial abuse. This number is surprisingly low and is not supported by others such as Campbell (1992) and Wilson and Daly (1992). Wilson, Daly and Wright (1993) view uxoricide as on the same dimension as wife abuse rather than a "motivationally distinct phenomenon" (p. 286). They note that in both wife assault and uxoricide, the predominant issues appear to be adultery, jealousy, desertion and male control. Campbell (1992) reached the same conclusion regarding femicide. Wilson and Daly (1993) note that uxoricide represents the "dysfunctionally extreme manifestations of violent inclinations whose lesser manifestations are effective in coercion..." (p. 12).

Only recently has attention been devoted to the relationship between men who kill their partners and those who abuse but do not kill their partners. Given the limited data on this issue, attempts to link these types of behaviours should be carefully considered. As Lenton (1995) aptly notes "...we do not know enough about violence against women to permit aggregating all types of abuse in a single analysis" (p. 306). Similarly, with respect to homicide Landau and Hattis Rolef (1998) emphasize that because of the unique features of intimate femicide it should not be combined in studies of homicide in general.

#### Difficulties in Studying Intimate Femicide

There are problems associated with research into homicide that should be considered when studying intimate femicide. For example, Doerner (1988) and Doerner and Speir (1986) state that we often erroneously assume that victims die



because they sustained a wound. These researchers note that studies on homicide fail to consider the role of available medical resources. They contend that appropriate medical resources influence mortality rates and hence may "prevent aggravated battery cases from slipping into homicide statistics" (Doerner & Speir, 1986, p. 320). The role of medical intervention is an important intervening variable when considering homicide statistics particularly across geographic locations. The role of medical intervention may explain Crawford and Gartner's (1992) finding that three of the four Ontario cities with the highest rates of intimate femicide (Kenora, Barrie and North Bay) were three of the smallest cities (populations of less than 50,000) included in the study. Perhaps the geographic location and smaller size of these cities contributed to higher femicide rates as a result of longer intervention times on the part of medical personnel and/or hospitals that may not be as well equipped as those in larger cities. No doubt there are other explanations for this finding.

Another problem plaguing the study of intimate femicide concerns the low base rate of this behaviour. Recall that Ellis (1987) reported that in Canada only one wife in every 96.6 thousand is killed by her husband. If this is the case, efforts to understand men who kill their intimate partners versus those who do not present a formidable challenge. The task becomes one of identifying the variables that differentiate the one husband who kills his wife from the 96.6 thousand who do not. Along with the low base rate, the high incidence of suicide (40%) among perpetrators of intimate femicide (Crawford & Gartner, 1992;

Palmer & Humphrey, 1980; Statistics Canada, 1990; Wolfgang, 1956) serves to reduce an already small sample. The high suicide rate may also contribute to surviving murderers not being representative of all men who kill their partners.

Crawford and Gartner (1992) identified a further problem specific to the study of intimate femicide. They note that it is difficult to obtain accurate estimates of the number of intimate femicides because of the shortcomings and limitations of most records. These researchers estimate the true incidence of intimate femicide to be about 25% higher than what is officially recorded. They support their claim by citing several deaths initially classified as accidents or suicides that were later determined to be intimate femicides. Crawford and Gartner also point to the many women classified as missing and the number of unsolved femicides.

Lastly, the search for a theoretical perspective from which to explore intimate femicide, provides several obstacles. Notably, most of the traditional theories of wife abuse do not consider individual differences of the offender. Thus, they are unable to explain why some but not all men abuse their partners. Additionally, although the theories of violence and aggression offer some insight into intimate femicide they are limited by their focus on strangers or enemies as targets of violence (Dutton, 1985). Commentators have noted that only recently has the literature on hostility and aggression considered male hostility and aggression towards women (Check, 1988; Sonkin, Martin & Walker, 1985). Perhaps the most significant theoretical obstacle is that theories of wife abuse

have generally neglected the murder of a female partner. Attempts to understand intimate femicide via the existing theories of wife abuse requires the assumption that the dynamics underlying these two acts are the same. The available literature offers little support for this assumption further complicating our meagre understanding of intimate femicide.

#### Understanding Intimate Femicide

**"The literature concerning family homicide is replete with descriptions masquerading as explanations" (Duncan & Duncan, 1978, p. 179).**

Efforts to understand the etiology of intimate femicide differ with respect to the range of factors thought to contribute to this behaviour. At one extreme are the broad based, traditionally sociological, theories that emphasize the influence of a patriarchal society. At the other extreme are the clinical perspectives that describe intimate femicide as an act carried out by a minority of psychiatric / psychological disturbed men. Adopting the former perspective would result in a high incidence of false positives were we to attempt to identify men who pose a risk to be femicidal. Adopting the latter perspective would result in a high incidence of false negatives. As for most human behaviour, the most compelling explanations for intimate femicide consider multiple contributing factors.

Expanding on Dutton's (1988) views on severe wife assault, it is possible that men who kill their partners violate their internalized prohibitions against murder due to "high arousal, anxiety about relinquishing control to their wife and

the perceived seriousness of the conflict issue" (Dutton, 1988, P. 57). As Bandura (1979) noted, moral people perform culpable acts through processes that disengage evaluative self-reactions from such conduct.

Wilson and Daly (1992) contribute to an understanding of intimate femicide by emphasizing the role of male proprietariness. They defined proprietariness as an encompassing mind set referring not just to the emotional force of one's desire for exclusivity, but also to feelings of entitlement. Daly and Wilson (1988) noted that men do not easily let women go; instead, they search them out to plead, threaten and sometimes kill. Wilson and Daly (1992) suggest that a "... man who hunts down and kills a woman who has left him has lapsed into futile spite, acting out his dominance to no useful end" (p. 90). These authors attempted to apply the concept of male proprietariness to some of the consistent demographic findings pertaining to uxoricide. With regard to the higher incidence of uxoricide among estranged couples, they suggest that a man's proprietariness may lead him to respond with violence as a result of any real or perceived indication that the wife intends to leave the relationship. Consistent with this view is the finding that many abused women who have separated from their abusive partners report that their former partner's violence increased in severity at the time of separation (Statistics Canada, 1993). In response to the higher rate of uxoricide in common-law relationships, Wilson and Daly suggest that in these relationships husbands may be less secure in their proprietary claims over wives. Finally, concerning the often reported age disparity between partners in

uxoricide, these authors postulate that older men with much younger wives may feel especially threatened by possible infidelity or desertion, and behave jealously and coercively.

In an attempt to understand why femicides are disproportionately perpetrated by intimate partners, Gartner and McCarthy (1991) refer to the "opportunity perspective". This hypothesis contends that homicides occur when victims and offenders come in contact with each other in the absence of persons or things that protect the victim or discourage the offender. The opportunity perspective is consistent with the finding that a large number of intimate femicides occur in the victim's home. In considering the "opportunity perspective" one might expect the presence of someone else to serve as an inhibiting factor thereby reducing the likelihood of a man abusing or killing his partner. This does not appear to be the case. Dobash and Dobash (1984) found that 75% of the incidence of male-female violence were witnessed. Felson and Steadman (1983) reported a 70% witness rate as do Gartner and McCarthy (1991). The witnesses are often children, perhaps accounting for their ineffectiveness as a protecting factor (Gartner & McCarthy, 1991).

The chronic catathymic process outlined by Revitch and Schlesinger (1981) and Meloy (1992) provides a intriguing perspective from which to view intimate femicide. These authors describe the catathymic crisis as a psychodynamic process that is affect laden and which manifests itself as an explosion of aggressiveness typically resulting in death or injury to someone in close

proximity. Frequently, such homicides occur in an intimate heterosexual relationship due to tension arising from jealousy or estrangement that threatens the ego of the perpetrator.

Revitch and Schlesinger describe the chronic catathymic process as occurring in three stages commencing with an incubation stage. During this stage, which can last from a day to a year, the offender is obsessed with the future victim. This obsession may account for the stalking behaviour preceding some femicides. The person in this stage experiences frustration, depression, and helplessness, sometimes accompanied by "schizophrenic like" thinking. Depression is the most common emotion associated with this stage and it likely contributes to alternating thoughts of suicide as well as of murder of the "ego threatening subject". Revitch and Schlesinger describe the threats of murder that frequently precede an intimate femicide as a plea for help that is often misunderstood or ignored. The second stage of the chronic catathymic process is referred to as the violent act. In this stage the homicidal impulses overpower the suicidal impulses. With the commission of the murder the suicidal thoughts are believed to completely disappear. According to Revitch and Schlesinger, the thoughts and actions of the first two stages are experienced by the offender as unreal and ego-alien, hence, the absence of insight. Meloy (1992) disagrees, suggesting instead that the experiences of the first two stages may be either ego-syntonic or dystonic. Meloy's hypothesis will be expanded on later. In the final stage of the catathymic process the offender has an intact memory of the murder

and experiences a feeling of relief.

The chronic catathymic process is an attractive model for exploring intimate femicide because it integrates depression, suicide and murder, all of which are characteristic of intimate femicide. The threat to the individual's ego brought about by the tension associated with jealousy and estrangement may be conceived as arising out of our patriarchal society that espouses male proprietariness, thus linking the catathymic crisis to the sociological model. Dutton and Kerry (1999) discuss the relationship between a catathymic crisis and abandonment killing (intimate femicides motivated by estrangement and / abandonment). These authors suggest that impending or recent abandonment can trigger a catathymic crisis.

Duncan and Duncan (1978) note that murderers share similar character traits and backgrounds with those who do not commit murder. For this reason, these authors believe that "psychoanalytic formulations describing the ego malformation, borderline personality organization and character pathology and narcissism of the homicidal offender, although useful, do not explain the particular lethal expression of his destructive aggressiveness" (Duncan & Duncan, 1978, p. 183). It is further suggested that the psychological characteristics mentioned do not make murder inevitable. According to these authors, a variety of interacting factors is required for murder to occur. With regard to the broader topic of familial homicide, Duncan and Duncan propose that these murders follow a sequence beginning with the perpetrator and victim

being bound to each other. As the partners spend more time together they withdraw from others and the relationship is described by Duncan and Duncan as being both possessive and exclusive. Social isolation follows. Resentment then develops due to each partner feeling cheated because of their belief that they are giving more than they are receiving. According to Duncan and Duncan, the resentment increases and the partners try to alter the exclusiveness but their emotional entrapment and social isolation impedes such efforts. This is followed by a middle phase of increasing tension in the relationship. Next is the homicidal phase during which the murder is committed. Duncan and Duncan suggest that the act of killing irrevocably locks the killer to his victim. "It both fastens and severs the ties that bind" (Duncan & Duncan, 1978, p. 185). Thus the killer preserves forever his "intrapsychic relationship" with the victim while destroying the interpersonal one. The authors suggest that the murder occurs basically because of the perpetrator's defective control of his aggressiveness. In the final phase, referred to as the restoration phase, the killer "confirms his own separate existence and forcefully impresses this now valid existence on others" (Duncan & Duncan, 1978, p. 185). The authors hypothesize that the act of murder restores the killer's psychic integrity and identity. Immediately following the murder, Duncan and Duncan note that the killer appears relieved and manifests no evidence of guilt or remorse. However, they believe that over time the offender begins to feel the loss of the victim, upon whom he was so dependent emotionally. At this point, he may become depressed and his feelings of



hopelessness may result in destructive aggressiveness that is inadequately controlled. The Duncan's recommend that treatment targeting the offender's defective control of his impulses is required to reduce the chances of him killing again.

Other attempts to explain interspousal homicide have been made by Kurland (1955), who considers this act in terms of pathological traits and relationships observed between partners. While Cormier (1961) viewed interspousal homicide as committed as a way out of an impasse.

Based on a review of seventy homicides which did not occur during the commission of other crimes, Luckenbill (1977) proposed a six-stage transactional model describing homicide as the culmination of an intense interchange between an offender and a victim. Luckenbill's model is reviewed here because it provides yet another approach to understanding intimate femicide. The process begins with the victim affronting the offender by making some direct verbal expression, by refusing to cooperate or comply with the request of the offender, or by making some physical or nonverbal gesture. The situation progresses to stage two during which the offender interprets the victim's actions as personally offensive (whether they were or not). In stage three of the model the offender retaliates with a challenge or an actual physical attack, with the goal of "saving face". This leads to stage four, where the offender interprets the victim as not complying. In stage five the victim and the offender become involved in what Luckenbill describes as a "commitment to battle". According to Luckenbill,

individuals progress to this stage because they "appeared to fear displaying weakness in character and consequent loss of face, and because resolution of the contest was situationally bound, demanding an immediacy of response" (p. 184). It is in this stage that the victim is killed. In the sixth and final stage the offender either flees the scene, remains voluntarily, or is apprehended.

Luckenbill noted that when the offender was intimately related to the victim, they typically remained on the scene and notified the police. To summarize, Luckenbill envisions murder as the outcome of a dynamic interchange between an offender, victim and in some cases bystanders.

## CHAPTER 2

## A Binary Model of Intimate Femicide

**"...the truth is: There are unlimited potential theories to explain any fact pattern". (Rychlak, 1981, p. 28)**

Many believe that it is the patriarchal society in which we live that contributes to the abuse of women by men (eg. Yllo & Straus, 1990). Ellis (1987), describes patriarchy as consisting of three components. The first is a differentiation clearly separating male/female roles. The second involves a role stratification whereby the lowest ranking male is higher than any female. The third component is a set of cultural norms and values that legitimizes the role differentiation and role stratification. Patriarchal societies instill in men feelings of proprietariness and male dominance over women. Taking the concept one step further, Smith (1990) proposed two types of patriarchy, "social" and "familial". The former refers to male domination at the social level, while the latter refers to male domination within the family.

To examine the relationship between patriarchy and the abuse of women, Yllo and Straus (1990) studied the rates of wife beating in American states and the degree to which each state was characterized by a patriarchal social structure and patriarchal family norms. It was hypothesised that in states where a lot of inequality existed between the sexes women would be more likely to be trapped in abusive marriages and violence may be used to keep them "in their places". Conversely, it was hypothesised that in states where women have

achieved a high status they may also be at risk for abuse. This principle has been termed the backlash hypothesis. Yllo and Straus speculated that as the patriarchal structure and traditional gender roles break down some husbands may use violence in an attempt to retain control and bolster their threatened masculinity. Support was obtained for both hypotheses. To account for their findings, Yllo and Straus proposed that two different processes may be involved. They suggest that states with high sexual inequality resulted in men resorting to force and control to keep women "in their places" (Yllo & Straus, 1990, p. 397). In fact, states with male-dominant norms had twice as much wife beating as states with more equalitarian norms. In the states where women had a high status it was suggested that abuse resulted from conflict due to the confusion of traditional roles. More recently, Avakame (1999) reported partial support for the backlash hypothesis as it relates to intimate femicides in the U.S.

Returning to the characteristics of intimate femicide reviewed earlier, it will be recalled that one of the most striking and consistent findings concerning intimate femicide has been that approximately 30-40 percent of the men who kill their partners commit suicide immediately afterwards (Crawford & Gartner, 1992; Statistics Canada, 1990; Palmer & Humphrey, 1980; Wolfgang, 1956). Inclusion of men who attempted suicide but did not kill themselves increases the number of intimate murderers for whom suicide was related to the murder of their partner to about 50%.

The findings of Yllo and Straus (1990) as well as the high incidence of

suicide following intimate femicides suggests that the act of intimate femicide may be conceptualized as having two distinctly different etiologies. One involving the murder of an oppressed woman who attempted to emancipate herself. The other being a murder-suicide / suicide attempt in which a socially inept and dependent man kills his liberated and independent partner, due in part to what Yllo and Straus have referred to as a confusion of traditional roles. Furthermore, the distinction between these etiologies likely centres around the offender himself.

To assist in making the act of intimate femicide less perplexing, a Binary Model of intimate femicide is proposed. This model evolved out of the difficulties encountered in formulating a generalized theory to account for all of the variables identified in intimate femicide. The Binary Model divides men who kill their partners into two groups. One group is comprised of men who kill their partner but do not attempt / commit suicide afterwards. These men will be referred to as Alpha murderers. The other group of men labelled Beta murderers includes men who killed their partner and then either committed or attempted suicide immediately afterwards. The Binary Model of intimate femicide follows these two groups of men through five stages. Stage I, termed the Pre-murder stage provides a general overview of these men with regard to how they define their masculinity, their attitudes towards women and their relationship with their partner. Stage II, termed the Precipitating event (or immediate situation) focuses on the incident or issues which served as a trigger to the ensuing murder. Stage

III, the Lethal Act, is concerned with the actual attack and murder. Stage IV, the Post Murder, explores the time interval immediately following the murder. Finally, Stage V, Adjustment to Incarceration, considers the men who did not commit suicide. The focus of Stage V, is on how the man copes with incarceration and the knowledge that he has murdered his partner.

The Binary Model integrates the critical elements of intimate femicide identified in the literature in a manner that is, according to Andrews and Bonta (1994), rationally organized and testable: The Binary Model integrates cultural, social and psychological variables as well as the immediate situation of action. This approach, is consistent with the perspective that the most effective approach to understanding the abuse of women is one which integrates the behaviour of the individual abuser with social variables such as the patriarchal social context, unequal power distribution and culturally supported patterns of gender relations (Cunningham, Jaffe, Baker, Dick, Malla, Mazaheri & Poisson, 1998; Dutton, 1985; Tolman & Bennett, 1990). A multidimensional approach such as that offered by the Binary Model enables us to account for individual differences without losing sight of how they relate to and are shaped by larger social systems (Andrews & Bonta, 1994; Dutton, 1985).

During the development of the Binary Model of intimate femicide, Dutton's (1988) requirements of a general psychological theory of wife abuse was used as a guide. Applying Dutton's criteria, the Binary Model of intimate femicide strives to:

1. account for the homicidal behaviours of the majority of intimate murderers and to show how, as a group, intimate murderers differ from non-assaultive males;
2. originate with the individual, attempting to develop theoretical constructs from his life space;
3. identify the antecedents to intimate femicide (and by implication how they may be changed);
4. make predictions that can be subjected to empirical evaluation;
5. be non-reductionistic; that is to explain behaviour at the psychological, not the neurological level;
6. have utility for intervention strategies with intimate murderers and men who pose a high risk of committing such an offence;
7. attend to the social context in which intimate femicide occurs.

The development of the Binary Model was also guided by Andrews and Bonta's (1994) conditions of a good theory. These authors suggest that a good theory should be internally consistent; the assumptions and explanatory variables within the theory should fit together. Additionally, it is recommended that the theory be externally consistent thereby enabling it to fit with other specific theories. Andrews and Bonta also note that the most empirically defensible theories of criminal conduct will be those that assign causal significance to at least two of the major risk factors for such behaviour. The risk factors referred to are antisocial cognitions, antisocial associates, a history of antisocial behaviour

and antisocial personality. The latter is defined by "restless energy, adventuresomeness, impulsiveness, low verbal intelligence, poor problem-solving skills, hostility and a callous disregard for other people and responsibility" (Andrews & Bonta, 1994, p. 109).

The Binary Model of intimate femicide, which is discussed in detail in the remainder of this section, serves as the theoretical framework upon which the present study is based.

#### Stage I - Pre-Murder

**"O curse of marriage, that we can call these delicate creatures ours, and not their appetites! I had rather be a toad, and live upon the vapour of a dungeon, than keep a corner in the thing I love for other's uses. Yet this is the plague of great ones". (Othello, p. 916, in Shakespeare, 1982).**

Based on the Feminist perspective that the abuse of women is attributed to patriarchal forces, the Binary Model begins by considering the role of patriarchy in intimate femicide. Since patriarchy represents a set of attitudes, values, and beliefs, its inclusion here is consistent with psychology of criminal conduct promoted by Andrews and Bonta (1994). Central to the Binary Model is the concept of familial patriarchy, defined as "a discourse which supports the abuse of women who violate the ideals of male power and control over women in intimate relationships" (DeKeseredy & Kelly, 1993, p. 26). DeKeseredy and Kelly (1993) suggest that familial patriarchy involves an insistence on women's



obedience, respect, loyalty, dependency, sexual access, and sexual fidelity. Consistent with this view, Wilson and Daly (1993) have identified a desire for exclusivity and feelings of entitlement as male characteristics that may contribute to intimate femicide. Noteworthy, men who espouse the ideology of familial patriarchy have been found to be more inclined to abuse their female partners than men who do not adhere to such an ideology (DeKeseredy & Kelly, 1993; Smith, 1990). Similarly, Dutton (1988) found that wife assaulters possessed a high need for power and control over their wives. According to Gross (1978), this need for power and control is especially evident when men are frustrated in their attempts to gain power at work or in other settings that they cannot control.

The patriarchal attitudes discussed above are likely acquired and maintained through processes of Social Learning theory. This theory contends that through reinforcement and punishment an individual comes to define certain behaviours as favourable or unfavourable. These definitions can be directly reinforced and can also serve as cues to the behaviours of others. "Therefore just as the reinforcement balance of aversive and rewarding stimuli affect the probability of behaviour occurring, the balance of favourable and unfavourable definitions affect behaviour outcomes" (Akers, La Greca & Sellers, 1988; p. 38). Consequently, the more individuals espouse definitions of a behaviour as positive, or neutralizing definitions, which justify or excuse the behaviours, the more likely they are to engage in it. Social learning theory would suggest that most males acquire patriarchal attitudes, values and beliefs as boys. Through

instrumental conditioning and modelling, these are later strengthened by reward and differential association or weakened by punishment. Akers et al. (1998) note that the groups (peer, family, work, etc.) one is associated with controls sources and patterns of reinforcement, provide normative definitions, and exposure to behaviour models. Bowker (1983) suggests that men socialize their married peers into an ideology of male dominance, including the importance of keeping wives in line, by force if necessary. As it relates to the foregoing, the General Personality and Social Psychological perspective to criminal behaviour (Andrews & Bonta, 1994) contends that those who share similar views and behaviours associate with each other.

Therefore, whether it is abusive behaviour or other criminal behaviours, associates reinforce and maintain the attitudes, values, and beliefs of the individual. When these attitudes, values, and beliefs maintain positive and neutralizing definitions of male dominance, the risk of abusive behaviour increases. Smith (1991), for example, found that the male friends of abusive men provided ideological support for such violence. Smith's findings are limited, however, given that they are based on women's perceptions of their husband's male friends approval of abuse and not on data collected directly from male peers. More recently, Riggs and Caulfield (1997) found that of the 125 male college students in their sample, those who had aggressed against their dating partners were significantly more likely than those who had not to expect that violence would result in their winning the argument that preceded their

aggression. In contrast, men who had not aggressed against their partners were more likely to believe that the use of violence would result in an end to the relationship. Worthy of note was a trend for aggressive subjects to expect feeling less guilty following an aggressive act than nonaggressive subjects.

Furthermore, men who had expectations of winning the argument and who experienced less guilt participated in more severe aggression.

The concept of patriarchy likely gives rise to strong feelings of jealousy among men who espouse this ideology. The role of jealousy in abusive relationships has been identified by several authors (Barnett, Martinez & Bluestein, 1995; Brisson, 1981; Hilberman & Munson, 1978; Pagelow, 1981; Wasileski, Callaghan-Chaffee & Chaffee, 1982). Romantic jealousy has been defined as "a complex of thoughts, feelings, and actions which follows threats to the existence or the quality of the relationship, when those threats are generated by the perception of a real or potential attraction between one's partner and a (perhaps imaginary) rival" (White, 1981, p. 129). With regard to jealousy, Barnett, Martinez and Bluestein (1995) found that male batterers (44 uncounselled wife beaters and 46 counselled wife beaters) were significantly more jealous than 46 nonviolent happily married males. However, the male batterers were not significantly more jealous than 44 nonviolent unhappy married men. Jealousy was found to be negatively correlated with marital satisfaction level. Barnett et al. concluded that jealousy was not the primary precipitant to battering, but it may interact with other variables, such as emotional dependency, to increase the

possibility of abuse.

As it relates to spousal homicide, Nettler (1982) describes jealousy as a mixed emotion, that evolves out of insecurity and is comprised of anxiety, depression, suspicion, and hatred. Jealousy may precipitate spousal homicide (Daly, Wilson & Weghorst, 1982) and when this occurs Nettler believes that the jealous killer can kill a person with whom they are still in love or one who was once loved but is now despised.

Both Alpha and Beta murderers have been socialized in a traditional society which espouses male dominance and a set of standards dictating appropriate male behaviour, the expression of emotions, and the measures of male success. Evolving from these standards Sawyer (1970) suggested that the stereotypic man is a dominator-achiever, and a closed individual who finds it difficult to express emotion. Similarly, Brannon (1976) posits that boys learn that manliness involves achieving success, independence, aggressiveness, and an avoidance of typical female behaviour. Common measures of male success emphasize economic success and success with women. With regard to economic success, Gelles and Cornell (1985) suggest that a critical component in violence and abuse is inadequate financial resources. These authors emphasize the role of structural stress, which they state develops as a consequence of the man being unable to achieve the expectations of society, significant others and themselves.

Both the Alpha and Beta murderers have internalized the "masculine

ideal" (Gross, 1978), which evolves from the societal expectations discussed above, yet they are both insecure in their masculinity. It is this insecurity that differentiates these men from men who do not abuse / murder their intimate female partners. Where the Alpha and Beta murderers differ is with respect to how they respond to this insecurity.

### Alpha Murderers

The Alpha murderer overcompensates for his insecure masculinity by subscribing to an exaggerated form of masculinity. Hence, he may best be described as a "male zealot", who oversubscribes to the masculine role image (Gross, 1978). He adopts a traditional sex role orientation associated with a dominant role in the relationship with his partner, thereby treating her as a "valued sexual and reproductive commodity that might be usurped by rivals" (Wilson & Daly 1993, p. 13). These men maintain their position of dominance and control over their partner by the overt use of force and/or threats. Alpha murderers are likely undercontrolled men who respond to any actual or perceived threat to their position of dominance with excessive anger and aggression. These assumption are consistent with the findings of Hershorn and Rosenbaum (1991) who identified a group of undercontrolled hostile husbands, whose aggressive behaviour was frequently directed solely to family members. As a result of his dominance, the Alpha murderer places severe restrictions on his partner's independence. Alpha murderers are men who have an discernible history of abusing their partners.

In social settings Alpha murderers are inclined to be extroverted and gregarious. In their relationships these men are likely to be emotionally detached, viewing their partner more as a possession and as a symbol to be held out to the world as evidence of his virility and success. Consequently, the sexual partner becomes an instrument used to achieve status in the eyes of those who really count, the male peer group (Gross, 1978). Since his masculinity is so tightly bound to his relationship with his partner, the Alpha murderer is very possessive and extremely jealous, giving rise to what Wilson and Daly (1993) have termed paranoid jealousy.

Alpha murderers closely resemble Hamberger and Hastings (1986) Narcissistic/Antisocial batterers discussed earlier. These batterers were described as self-centered, rigid men who feel entitled to be treated well by others according to their own standards. Hamberger and Hastings believed that for these batterers, hesitation, or refusal by others to respond to their demands often results in threats and aggression. The Alpha murderer also resembles Hamberger and Hastings Group I batterer who was described as volatile, unpredictable and hypersensitive to criticism. Alpha murderers also resemble Dutton's (1988) tyrannical personality disordered abuser and Hershorn and Rosenbaum's (1991) undercontrolled hostile husband. Evidence of an Alpha murderer may also be derived from Hart, Dutton and Newlove (in press), who it will be recalled found that many male abusers were diagnosed as aggressive/sadistic, antisocial or narcissistic.

### Beta Murderers

The Beta murderer responds to his insecure masculinity by outwardly abandoning his quest to achieve the masculine ideal and withdrawing, especially from contact with other men. Thus, he may be perceived as having been much less successful in living up to the expectations of a man as defined by society. This man's unsuccessful struggle to define his masculinity likely extends back to his childhood and may be quite apparent in his adolescence. As an adult, his masculinity remains invalidated and poorly defined. Consequently, he possesses a low self-esteem and is insecure. These men are likely to be introverted and socially inept. They likely began dating much later than their peers and had fewer dating relationships. As an adult these men find themselves with a limited social support system, isolated, and dependent on their partner for social contact and support. As a result of all of the factors discussed here these men may overvalue the relationship. The Beta murderer likely has a nontraditional relationship with his partner as evidenced by his passive and dependent role. For these men, their female partner may represent more than a commodity as suggested by Wilson and Daly (1993); she may be perceived as a self object or extension of self. Due to their excessive dependence and their inability to contribute emotionally to the relationship, these men place a great emotional drain on their partners whose needs are consequently not satisfied. For the men in this group any success or independence experienced by their wife only serves to threaten their already poor self image and sense of security. As noted by

Gross (1978), a man's dependency on a woman is not compatible with the internalized masculine ideal.

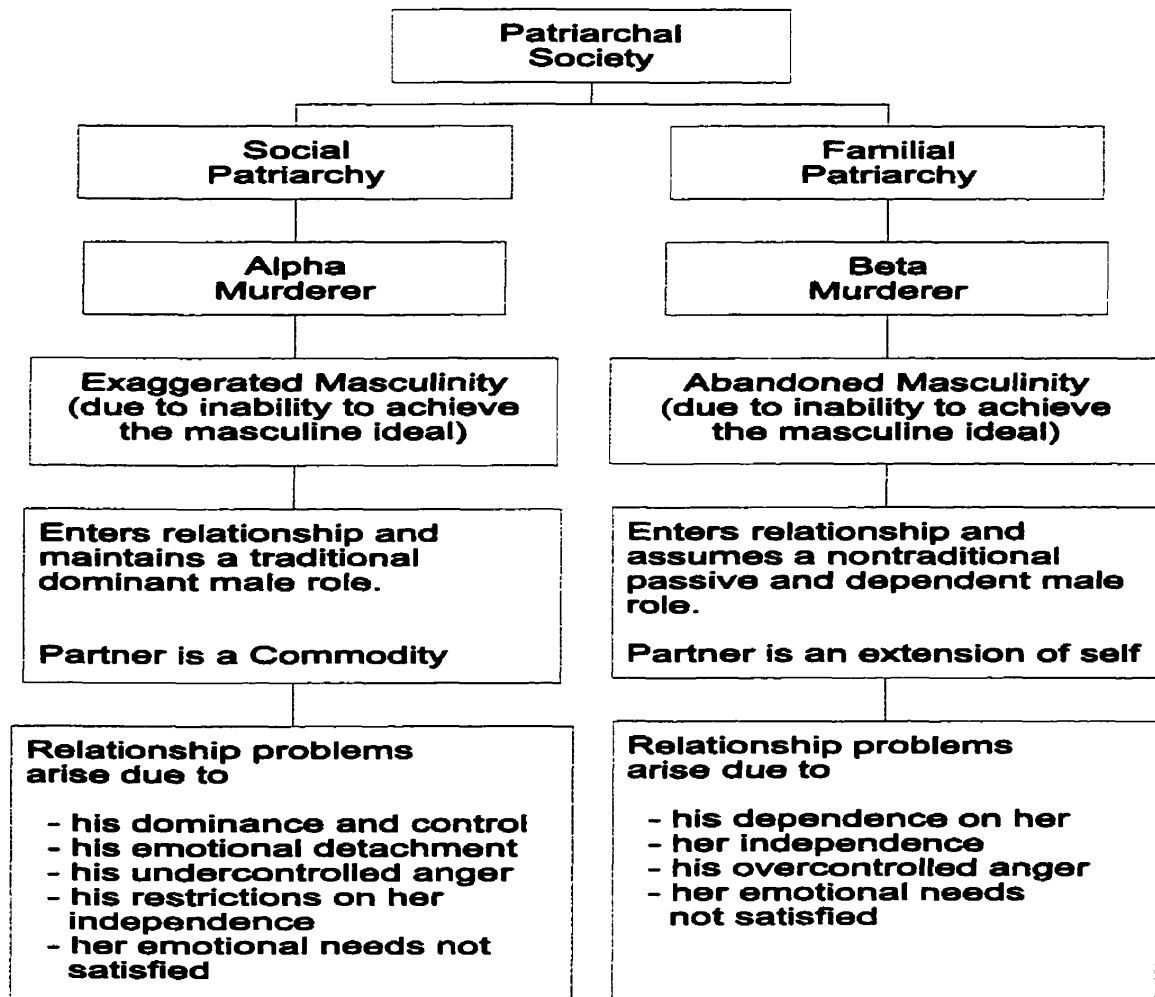
Unlike the Alpha murderer, the Beta murderer has little to no known history of abusing his partner. The absence of confirmed abuse prior to some acts of intimate femicide was supported by Showalter, Bonnie and Roddy (1980). Riggs and Caufield's (1997) data suggest this may arise from an expectation that the use of abusive behaviours would result in an end to the relationship. Although the Alpha murderer was described as undercontrolled, the Beta murderer is likely to be overcontrolled and unassertive. Factor analysis of MMPI profiles from 112 convicted murderers revealed a group of overcontrolled murderers (Biro, Vucovic, & Djuric, 1992). The profile of the Beta murderer presented here resembles the overcontrolled male batterer (Hershorn & Rosenbaum, 1991) the dependent and unassertive abuser (Dutton, 1988) and the passive dependent/compulsive batterer (Hamberger & Hastings, 1986). The latter were described as tense and rigid men who behave in a weak, passive or ingratiating manner. They possess a low self-esteem and are dependent. In addition, the men in this group evidenced high levels of depression. For these men, failure to satisfy their need for a few significant people in their life may result in rebellious hostile feelings (Hamberger & Hastings, 1986). Although Beta murderers do not exhibit the overt control in their relationship that the Alpha murderer exhibits, they are probably no less controlling; however, they may use a covert or passive control. Thus consistent with the findings of Hart, Dutton, and



Newlove (in press), they may be considered passive-aggressive in their behaviour.

Consistent with the Alpha and Beta distinction presented here, Gondolf (1988), applied cluster analysis to data provided by battered women and obtained two general clusters. One cluster was comprised of severely abusive and extremely antisocial men and accounted for 48% of the abusive men. The other cluster identified 52% of the abusive men as less abusive and minimally antisocial. Figure 1 summarizes the critical components of Stage I of the Binary Model.

Figure 1. Stage I (Pre-Murder) of the Binary Model.



Stage II - Precipitating Event

**"She turned to folly and she was a whore".**

**(Othello, p. 929, in Shakespeare, 1982).**

Hastings and Hamberger (1988) reported that to a casual observer there are no clear signs separating abusive from nonabusive men; the same may be said of men who kill their partners. It is only within the confines of an intimate relationship and particularly when the man perceives a threat to his masculinity or to his position of control that he is likely to respond violently. With respect to the nature of the threat, Smith (1993) found that women who repudiated their husband's familial patriarchy ideology were more likely to be abused. More specifically, the intimate femicide literature identifies the woman's actual or perceived infidelity and/or estrangement as an important threat or precipitating events (Wilson & Daly, 1993; Statistics Canada, 1993; Crawford & Gartner, 1992; Campbell, 1993; Silverman & Mukherjee, 1987; Rosenbaum & Bennett, 1986). The Binary Model assumes that the overt precipitating event in intimate femicide is perceived or actual infidelity and/or abandonment arising from a man's adherence to the ideology of familial patriarchy. The Binary Model proposes that the underlying precipitating event is the threat both Alpha and Beta murderers (both of whom have a fragile sense of masculinity) feel to their masculinity.

Both Alpha and Beta murderers are hypervigilant individuals who are continually seeking out support for their belief that their wife has been unfaithful and/or that she plans to leave the relationship. Consequently, some of these

men may satisfy the diagnostic criteria for a delusional disorder-jealous type. Employing Hupka's (1984) definition of jealousy as a situation or predicament that an individual is in, as opposed to an emotion as it is defined in Stage I, it is possible that the woman's real or perceived infidelity combined with her threats or plans to leave the relationship confronts the man with the predicament of jealousy. For both the Alpha and Beta murderer, the predicament of jealousy produces a general feeling of ill will and injustice, which Buss and Perry (1992) refer to as hostility. Hostility according to Buss and Perry is the cognitive component of aggressive behaviour. This general feeling of hostility when experienced within the man's "focus of concern" (Hupka et al, 1985, p. 438) produces different reactions in the two types of intimate murderers. This difference is discussed in the following section.

#### Alpha Murderer

The focus of concern for the Alpha murderer is likely to be a loss of control over his partner resulting in a direct threat to his masculine identity. As a result, he is likely to feel cheated, humiliated, betrayed, and to fear public shame. He feels a righteous vindication and embarks on what Campbell (1992) has described as a desperate attempt to reassert power and control or reclaim ownership, or according to Rosenbaum and Bennett (1986), the man accelerates his attempts to control his partner. When the Alpha murderer sets out on his mission to re-establish order he is, according to Dobash and Dobash (1979), living up to the cultural prescriptions of male aggressiveness and dominance and female

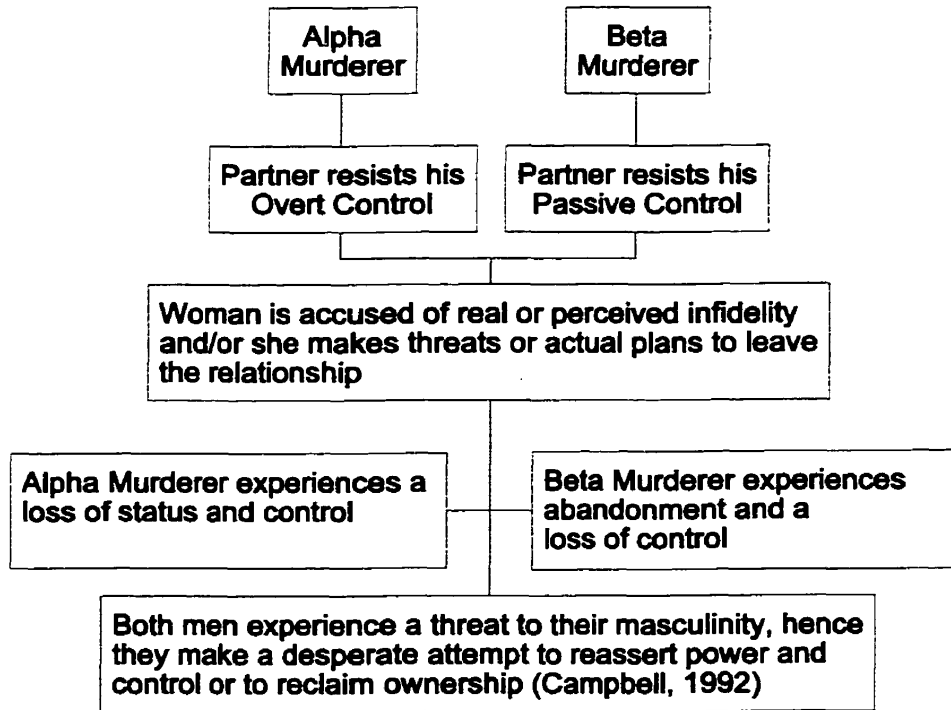
subordination.

### Beta Murderer

In contrast, the focus of concern for the Beta murderer is likely to be abandonment in response to the threat of his partner's independence, infidelity or estrangement. This is akin to Dutton's (1988) abandonment anxiety and abandonment rage (Dutton, 1995). According to Dutton (1995) the latter has its origins in early development, including attachment and object relations. Dutton and Kerry (1999) endorse the word abandonment rather than estrangement. They describe estrangement as a misnomer that appears to mean recent or imminent abandonment. According to these authors, "abandonment means that the eventual perpetrator was left or expects to be left by the eventual victim; whereas estrangement means simply that the perpetrator and victim are separated. Clearly, if the male left he would have a reduced motive to kill" (p. 288). For the Beta murderer, abandonment is likely to be accompanied by the traditionally "less masculine" emotions of hurt, depression, hopelessness, fear, and failure. Consistent with this view, Rosenbaum and Bennett (1986) observed that the precipitating event that results in depression in homicidal cases is often sexual infidelity, either real or imagined. The man may also experience feelings of fear over the loss of his self identity, over the loss of the one upon whom he is dependent and the threat of never being able to find another woman. Finally, there is the realization that he has again failed as a "man", by his inability to "satisfy and keep his woman". As noted by Andrews and Bonta (1994)

"particularly stressful circumstances and depressive or psychotic states may weaken normal controls" (p. 112). Figure 2 offers a graphic representation of Stage II of the Binary Model.

Figure 2. Stage II (Precipitating Event) of the Binary Model



### Stage III - Lethal Act

**"Damn her, lewd minx! O, damn her! Damn her! Come, go with me apart; I will withdraw, to furnish me with some swift means of death, for the fair devil". (Othello, p. 918, in Shakespeare, 1982).**

The Lethal Act is considered a final attempt to reestablish control at any and all cost. The man is willing to violate moral and social norms to restore his identity as a man. Obviously not all men are willing to go to such an extreme. Alpha and Beta murderers are, however, an extreme subgroup of the male population. The Personal, Interpersonal and Community-Reinforcement Perspective (PIC-R; Andrews, 1982) offers some insight into why some but not all men resort to femicide. This perspective considers factors that encourage as well as those that discourage deviant behaviour. Andrews suggests that these factors may be highly individualistic and that their importance may vary over time and situations.

In Stage III emotions aroused in the previous stage are labelled as anger, and then expressed either outwardly or inwardly. As noted by Dutton (1988), the psychological and behavioural results of perceived loss of a partner can lead to panic and hysterical aggression. The role of anger in intimate femicide has been suggested by others (e.g., Crawford & Gartner, 1992; Duncan & Duncan, 1978); however, it has not been established. Maiuro, Cahn and Vitaliano (1986) concluded that domestically violent men have significant problems expressing their desires in a socially appropriate manner and this was related to their



expression of anger and hostility.

In Stage III the hostility experienced in the previous stage, considered the cognitive component of aggression, evolves into either ego-syntonic or ego-dystonic anger (Meloy, 1992). According to Buss and Perry (1992), anger "involves physiological arousal and preparation for aggression" (p. 457). As such, Buss and Perry consider anger to be the emotional or affective component of aggressive behaviour. Anger is further described by these authors as the "prelude to aggression" (p. 457). The man in this stage progresses from affective (anger) to "instrumental or motor behaviour" (Buss & Perry, 1992, p. 457) (aggression). This aggression may be initially verbal, but in the case of intimate femicide inevitably escalates to physical. Buss and Perry define aggression as behaviour that hurts or harms others.

To account for the extremely brutal nature of the lethal act Dutton (1988) believes a shift in control occurs within the man whereby his behaviour shifts from responding to external (environmental) stimuli to internal (physical) stimuli.

#### Alpha Murderer

Given his restricted range of emotional expression, labile character, undercontrolled expression of anger, patriarchal values, and peer group that supports the use of aggression, the Alpha murderer responds impulsively with an outward display of ego-syntonic anger. Consequently, for the Alpha murderer the murder of his partner may have involved little to no forethought. Rather it may be perceived as an impulsive attempt to reestablish dominance and control

in the relationship. The Alpha murderer thus expresses his anger outward and directed at his partner. During the lethal attack of the woman, the man's anger may intensify as he, conscious of his actions, blames her for causing him to behave in this manner; as a result, the attack intensifies becoming more prolonged and brutal. Given that the attack of the Alpha murderer is impulsive anger expressed towards his partner, it is unlikely that these men will also kill children involved in this relationship. However, bystanders who may attempt to intervene would be at risk of injury or death.

The behaviour of the Alpha murderer in Stage III resembles Luckenbill's (1977) model of homicide discussed earlier.

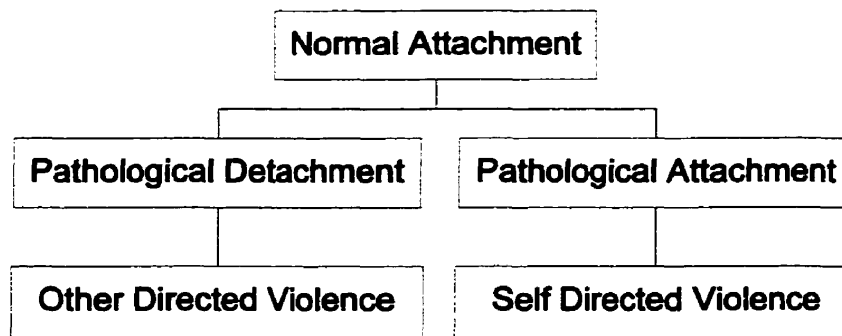
### Beta Murderer

Due to his passive-aggressive character and his overcontrolled expression of anger, coupled with feelings of depression and hopelessness, the Beta murderer directs his ego-dystonic anger inward. Consequently, he makes the decision to commit suicide. However, to commit suicide in response to a partner leaving would be perceived as an act of weakness, proving to the world once and for all that the Beta murderer is a "lesser man". Suicide would demonstrate to everyone that this man was dependent on his partner and that she was able to take control and hurt him. As a final attempt to validate his masculinity, the Beta murderer opts to murder his partner before committing suicide. The act of murder thus serves to demonstrate his power and control over his partner. An alternate way of viewing the murder-suicide is that because of his feeling of

proprietaryness and ownership of his female partner the Beta murderer, like the Alpha murderer, adopts the "if I can't have her no one can" mentality. At this point he decides to kill her and what began as a suicide plan becomes a murder-suicide plan. Thus unlike the Alpha murderer, the actions of the Beta murderer are not impulsive, but planned. This is consistent with Daly and Wilson (1988) who reported that the killer in a murder-suicide often leaves a note suggesting that the murder-suicide was a "planned whole". Furthermore, these authors suggest that unplanned suicides done out of remorse for having killed are rare events.

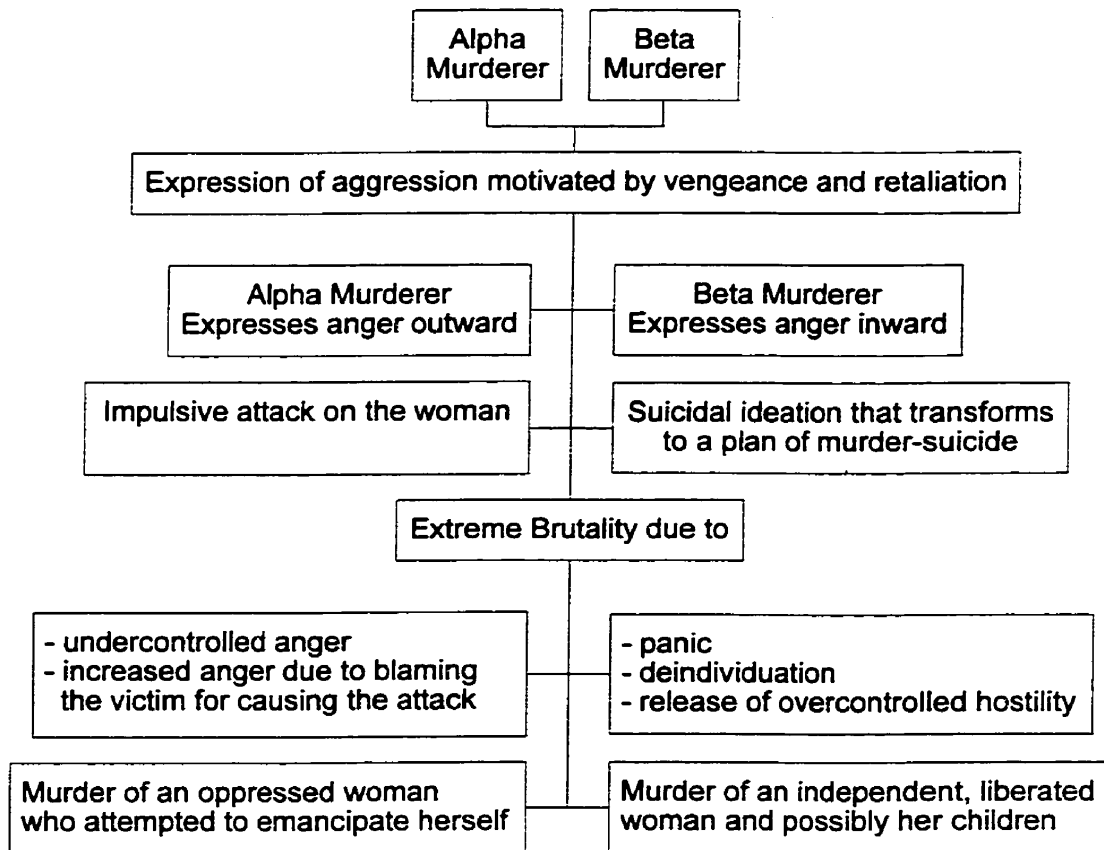
At the instant the Beta murderer attacks his partner he may be in a state of panic. He may experience deindividuation or a release of his overcontrolled anger. This all contributes to making the attack on the victim equally or perhaps more brutal than the attack perpetrated by the Alpha murderer. The behaviour of the Beta murderer can be summarized by Megargee, Cook and Mendelsohn's (1967) statement concerning the overcontrolled murderer: "Hence, a person who has never been known to speak a harsh word may suddenly become a murderer" (p. 250). Supporting the description of the Beta Murderer presented in this stage, Dutton and Kerry (1999) found that intimate femicides motivated by estrangement / abandonment were exclusively committed by men with overcontrolled dependent type personalities as measured by the MCMI. The three stages of the Binary Model presented thus far are similar to Meloy's (1995) perception of attachment (see Figure 3).

Figure 3. Meloy's Model of Attachment



Meloy's pathologically detached individual who directs his violence towards others is similar to the Alpha murderer of the Binary Model. While the pathologically attached individual whose violence is self directed mirrors the Beta murderer. Figure 4 summarizes Stage III of the Binary Model.

Figure 4. Stage III (Lethal Act) of the Binary Model



Stage IV - Post Murder

**"O, I were damed beneath all depth in hell but that I did proceed upon just grounds to this extremity". (Othello, p. 929, in Shakespeare, 1982).**

Alpha Murderer

Through the act of killing his partner, the Alpha murderer has demonstrated and reestablished his dominance in the relationship. The act of murder has restored his psychic integrity and identity (Duncan & Duncan, 1978). Consequently, the Alpha man's murderous behaviour is rewarded.

Following the murder of their partner, Alpha murderers rationalize their behaviour as being a typical reaction by any man faced with an unfaithful or rebellious woman. Furthermore, because the Alpha murderer considers his partner a possession, he feels justified in using force to take back what is his (Gross, 1978). Hence, the Alpha murderer feels confident that he will not be severely punished for his actions, if at all. This confidence is so strong that it overpowers the Alpha man's distrust for the authorities and so he remains on the scene and notifies the police.

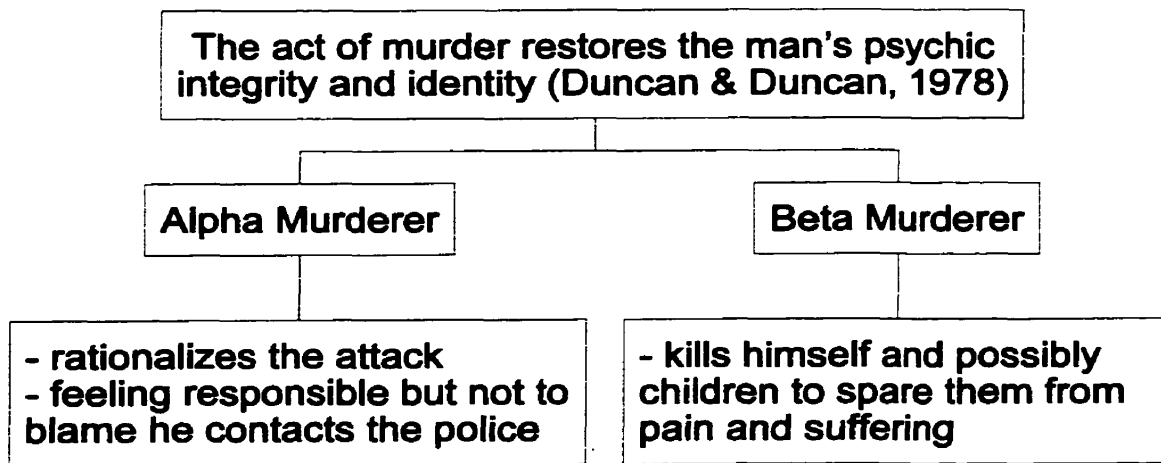
Beta Murderer

Following the murder of his partner, the Beta murderer carries out the final step in his plan, that being suicide. If there are young children in this relationship they may also become victims of the murder-suicide because of the man's concern over sparing them from the effects of having to deal with the death of

both parents and his concern over who will care for them. Figure 5 highlights the critical components of Stage IV of the Binary Model.



Figure 5. Stage IV (Post Murder) of the Binary Model



Stage V - Adjustment to Incarceration

**"For nought did I in hate, but all in honour". (Othello, p. 930, in Shakespeare, 1982).**

Alpha Murderer

Once incarcerated, it is expected that the Alpha murderer's adherence to stereotypical male values and beliefs enables him to adjust well to the traditionally "macho" prison culture. These men are likely to manifest little or no remorse. In fact, they may even perceive themselves as a victim of lying friends and relatives, crooked lawyers, "male bashing feminists" or a corrupt judicial system. The Alpha murderer may blame these groups or individuals for his receiving what he believes to be an excessively harsh sentence. Furthermore, these men are likely to minimize the details of, and their role in, the murder. Victim blaming is common.

Henderson and Hewstone (1984) make an interesting distinction between excuses and justifications. According to these authors, an excuse involves an acceptance that the act was wrong but a denial of responsibility. The excuse is established by claims of self defence, provocation or attempts to rationalize the act. A justification involves the denial that the act was wrong, but an acceptance of responsibility. This is achieved by aligning with some "norm, value, or authority other than the one that was violated" (Felson & Ribner, 1981, p. 138). It is expected that the Alpha murderer will be more prone to use excuses in describing the murder of his partner.

It is unlikely that the Alpha murderer poses a significant security risk in prison and as a result he will probably receive favourable evaluations from correctional staff. Unfortunately, unless the dynamics outlined in the Binary Model are addressed, these men will continue to pose a risk should they re-enter an intimate heterosexual relationship.

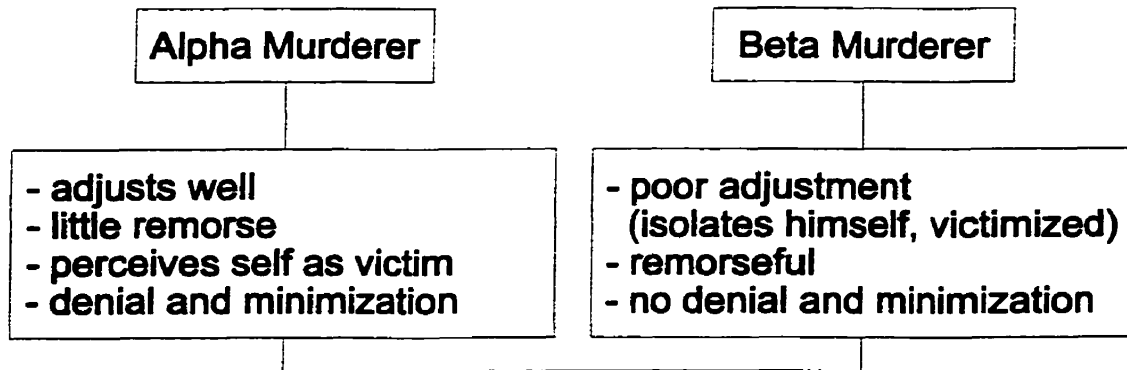
### Beta Murderer

Although suicide was a prominent part of the Beta murderer's plan, there will be cases in which these men survived the suicide attempt or were unable to carry out this component of their plan. As a result there will be a small number of Beta murderers who have been incarcerated. In the prison environment these men are likely to isolate themselves from others, becoming very withdrawn and associating with perhaps no more than one or two others. The underassertive and dependent personality of the Beta murderer coupled with their fragile masculine identity probably predisposes this type of man to abuse by other inmates.

Unlike the Alpha murderer, the Beta murderer likely exhibits signs of remorse. In addition, the Beta murderer will be more likely to accept responsibility for the murder of his partner without using excuses or justifications as defined by Henderson and Hewstone (1984). Like the Alpha murderer, the Beta murderer is apt to receive favourable reports from institutional staff. However, he is also likely to remain a risk if he were to reenter a relationship without addressing the issues that resulted in the murder of his partner. Figure 6

provides a summary of the fifth and final stage of the Binary Model.

Figure 6. Stage V (Adjustment to incarceration) of the Binary Model



## Research Hypothesis

### Hypothesis 1

The cornerstone of the Binary Model is the hypothesis that intimate murderers are not a homogeneous group; rather, there are two distinct profiles of men who murder their intimate female partners: Alpha Murderer and Beta Murderers. The Alpha Murderer was expected to be an impulsive man who ascribes to traditional gender roles and the use of power and control over women. The possessiveness and control these men exhibit in intimate relationships was thought to be tied to intense feelings of jealousy that is manifested as anger. Alpha Murderers would be expected to have a history of aggressive behaviour, including abuse of a female partner. Alpha Murderers are considered to be extraverted, sexually promiscuous and socially active men, who maintain a large circle of male associates, most of whom share similar attitudes, values and behaviours, particularly with respect to women.

The murder committed by the Alpha Murderer was hypothesized as an impulsive event, precipitated by feelings of intense anger. Following the murder of their partner, Alpha Murderers were expected to exhibit little remorse and/or guilt and to attribute their offence to external influences. These men were expected to encounter little difficulty adapting to incarceration.

In contrast the Beta Murderer was characterised as an insecure, over-controlled, dependent man with poor self-esteem. Beta Murderers were expected to have a restricted social life and to have been involved in few

dating/marital relationships. The characteristics of these men contribute to intense jealousy in intimate relationships, that trigger's feelings of depression, hopelessness, and abandonment, further weakening their already fragile self-image.

Beta Murderers were expected to have a history of suicidal behaviour, including an attempted/successful suicide, related to the murder of their partner. It was hypothesized that the murder(s) perpetrated by these men would be precipitated by feelings of rejection, hopelessness, and depression. Furthermore, these murders were expected to be planned, carried out with a weapon, and more likely to include the murder of children. In discussing their offence, Beta Murders were expected to acknowledge their guilt and express sincere remorse. It was assumed that these men would be more inclined to encounter difficulty adjusting to incarceration.

When all of the elements of hypothesis 1 were integrated, Alpha Murderers were considered more akin to a typical federal inmate than Beta Murderers who would resemble a more prosocial group of nonincarcerated men.

### Hypothesis 2

The most vital issue concerning intimate femicide relates to prediction and prevention. It was hypothesized that there are variables that significantly differentiate intimate murderers from other men. Furthermore, these differences could serve as predictor variables to assist in the identification of men at risk of killing a partner. The objective here was twofold: a) to validate risk factors

identified in the literature, and b) to identify new risk factors. The following variables were examined with respect to their utility as predictors of intimate femicide.

### I. Demographic variables

#### Age.

Being four or more years older than one's wife/girlfriend has been associated with intimate femicide (Crawford & Gartner, 1992). With respect to the Alpha/Beta typology, perpetrators of homicide followed by suicide were found to be approximately 10 years older than perpetrators of homicide only (Rosembaum, 1990; Stack, 1997).

### II. Situational Characteristics

#### a.) Estrangement.

Estrangement has been identified as a significant risk factor in intimate femicides (Campbell, 1992; Crawford & Gartner, 1992; Daly & Wilson, 1988; Wilson & Daly, 1993). Consequently, a high percentage of intimate murderers were expected to report having become estranged from their victim not long before having killed her.

#### b.) Major life stressors.

Intimate murderers were expected to have encountered a greater number of major life stressors (e.g., job loss, death of someone dear, bankruptcy etc.) during the year preceding the murder of their partner.



c.) Intoxication.

Consistent with the Binary Model's emphasis on male attitudes, values, and beliefs, and the findings of Crawford and Gartner, intoxication was not expected to be a significant predictor variable in intimate femicides.

III. Personality Characteristics

a.) Anger.

Although estrangement is considered the precipitating event in intimate femicides, it is the man's reaction of anger and rage that results in the act of murder. Consequently, anger was expected to be a major correlate of intimate femicide.

b.) Overcontrolled / undercontrolled hostility.

The Binary Model describes intimate femicides as impulsive acts, committed by undercontrolled men or planned acts carried out by overcontrolled, passive men as part of a murder-suicide. Therefore, both extreme overcontrolled and extreme undercontrolled hostility were expected to be correlated with intimate femicide.

c.) Jealousy.

Jealousy was incorporated into the Binary Model and it has been identified by several researchers (Daly & Wilson, 1988; Nettler, 1982; Wilson & Daly, 1993) as a contributing factor in intimate femicide.

d.) Control.

A man's preoccupation with control and sexual ownership in intimate

relationships has been proposed as a risk factor in intimate femicides (Crawford & Gartner, 1992).

#### IV. Criminal History

##### a.) Official criminal involvement.

Quinsey et al. (1980) found that among incarcerated men, those who murdered or attempted to murder family members or girlfriends had the least number of previous admissions to correctional facilities. Consequently, intimate murderers were expected to have less documented involvement with the criminal/justice system than other inmates. Therefore, criminal history in general was not anticipated to be a valid predictor of intimate femicide.

##### b.) History of abusive behaviour.

Frequent and extreme abuse has been proposed as a precursor to intimate femicide (Crawford & Gartner, 1992; Radford & Russel, 1992). Therefore, intimate murderers were expected to manifest a pattern of frequent and extreme abuse in their intimate relationships, particularly their relationship with the murdered woman.

The remainder of this paper is devoted to evaluating the two research hypotheses.

## CHAPTER 3

### Method

**“...we cannot continue to focus exclusively on the victims unless we believe that the etiology of the behaviour is to be found within the victim.” (Lenton, 1995, p.321)**

To date much of the research into intimate femicide has relied on information from police and/or coroner reports, or newspaper articles. The present study set out to obtain data directly from men who committed acts of intimate femicide and to use this information to evaluate the hypotheses set forth earlier.

#### Participants

The data reported in this study was collected from 342 adult males, 240 of whom were incarcerated, federal inmates, and 102 of whom were men not known to have a criminal history. These participants were grouped in the following manner.

##### I. Intimate murderers.

These men were all inmates of the Correctional Services of Canada (CSC) incarcerated for the murder of a female partner (defined as wife, common-law wife or girlfriend, either current at the time of the offence or estranged). Since an offender's charges merely refer to the offence (e.g., Manslaughter, First Degree murder, etc.) and not to the victim, identifying intimate murderers was not a straightforward task. The identification process involved selecting all men

incarcerated for murder (First Degree or Second Degree) or Manslaughter, and then reviewing their prison records to identify the victim and their relationship to the offender. Using this procedure and contacting all federal penitentiaries in Ontario, a total of 149 intimate murderers were identified. In an effort to increase the subject pool, four federal penitentiaries outside of Ontario were contacted and an additional 23 intimate murderers were located, bringing the potential subject pool to 171 men. Of this total, 89 agreed to participate in the study, corresponding to a 52% participation rate. Although the reason given by the men who declined to participate was not recorded, common reasons included difficulty over revisiting painful memories, denial of guilt, or lawyers' advice not to discuss the case because it was under appeal.

Dawson and Gartner (1998) suggest that intimate murderers be subdivided according to the nature of their relationship with the victim (husband, common-law, boyfriend) and the state of that relationship at the time of the offence (estranged, together). The premise being that characteristics associated with intimate femicide differs depending on the intensity of the relationship between the victim and the offender. The present study did not differentiate intimate murderers in this manner because to do so would reduce an already small sample size and it may be premature to do so given that the study of intimate femicide is in its infancy.

## 2. General offenders

Efforts were made to recruit men for this group from the penitentiaries

where intimate murderers had already been identified. Hence, like intimate murderers, general offenders were also federal incarcerates of CSC, thereby serving sentences of two years or more. Using the penitentiaries alphabetical listing of inmates, every fifth name was selected to form the pool of eligible men for the general offender group. If one of these men happened to be an intimate murderer, the next name on the list was selected. Of the 204 inmates contacted 151 agreed to participate, a 74% participation rate. The resulting group was thus comprised of 151 men incarcerated for an offence other than intimate femicide.

Table 3 shows the distribution of inmate participants by institution and the security level of the institution where they were incarcerated. Clearly, some institutions, such as Warkworth, housed large numbers of intimate murderers compared to other institutions. Efforts were made, however, to approximate equal proportions of intimate murderers and general offenders from each facility and security level. Of the intimate murderers who participated in this study, 14% were incarcerated in a minimum security facility, 80% in a medium security facility and 6% in a maximum security facility. This compared to 20%, 76%, and 4% respectively, for the general offenders. Among the intimate murderers 82% were incarcerated in Ontario, 11% in British Columbia, and 7% in Manitoba. Four percent of the general offenders were from British Columbia and the remainder (96%) were drawn from institutions in Ontario. Geographical matching was considered of only limited importance given that interprovincial (Regional) transferring of inmates is quite common.

Table 3

Distribution of Inmate Subjects

Institution	Security Level	Intimate	General
		Murderers ( <u>n</u> = 89)	Offenders ( <u>n</u> = 151)
Bath	Medium	5 (5.8%)	14 (9.3%)
Beaver Creek	Minimum	3 (3.5%)	17 (11.3%)
Collins Bay	Medium	8 (9.3%)	13 (8.6%)
Frontenac	Minimum	7 (8.1%)	0
Joyceville	Medium	8 (9.3%)	10 (6.6%)
Kingston	Maximum	5 (5.8%)	6 (4.0%)
Matsqui	Medium	3 (3.5%)	6 (4.0%)
Mission	Medium	4 (4.7%)	0
Pittsburgh	Minimum	2 (2.3%)	13 (8.6%)
Stony Mountain	Medium	6 (7.0%)	0
Warkworth	Medium	35 (39.3%)	72 (47.7%)
William Head	Medium	3 (3.5%)	0

3. Nonincarcerated community comparison group

There were 102 nonincarcerated, male residents of the province of Ontario, who volunteered to participate in the study. Some of these men were recruited through community service groups (the Lions and Kiwanis clubs). The researcher would attend a meeting of one of these groups, and read the recruitment announcement and consent form, answer questions and enlist

volunteers. The remainder of the men in this group were respondents to a recruitment announcement that was placed in YMCA fitness centres in Belleville, Kingston and Toronto. Table 4 identifies the city or town from which subjects in the community control group were located.

Table: 4

Place of Residence for the Community Sample

City / Town	n
Belleville	23 (22.5%)
Trenton	24 (23.5%)
New Liskeard	19 (18.6%)
Toronto	21 (20.6%)
Kingston	15 (14.7%)
Total	102 (100%)

Measures

For continuity and to enhance construct validity, the scales/items that comprise the research questionnaire were selected to complement the Binary Model of intimate femicide. Given that the most useful scales are theory-driven (Cicchetti, 1994; Embretson; 1996; Millon, 1987), new scales were created specifically for this study whenever suitable scales were not available. In developing these scales items were chosen for their ability to provide " . . . as comprehensive a range of content coverage as will do justice to a full range of the meaning of the concept being measured" (Cicchetti, 1994, p. 287). Andrews

and Bonta's (1994) "Big Four" correlates of criminal behaviour (antisocial attitudes, antisocial behaviour, antisocial personality and antisocial associates) provided an additional framework upon which scales were selected for inclusion in this study.

A range of common response formats was used (multiple choice, rating scales etc.). The less frequently utilized approach of having subjects provide short answers to open-ended questions was also incorporated in the questionnaire. Smith (1994) endorsed the use of open-ended questions noting that they enhance rapport between the researcher and the respondent and allow the respondent to qualify their responses. Smith also contended that open ended questions may reduce the threat of a question related to violence because it allows the respondent to qualify their response.

Throughout the development of the research questionnaire, a conscious effort was made to ensure that the wording was clear, concise, and at a level that would be easily understood by the average reader. To determine the extent to which this goal was attained, readability statistics were requested from Word Perfect 6.0, Grammatik (Corel, 1997). The research questionnaire was found to contain words with an average of 1.55 syllables. It received a vocabulary complexity rating of 6 and a sentence complexity rating of 31, on scales where 100 is considered "very complex." The Flesch-Kincaid grade level statistic, generated by Grammatik, revealed that a minimum of a grade 6 education was required to understand the questionnaire. Additionally, four established



researchers reviewed the questionnaire for clarity and content validity.

Three very similar versions of the research questionnaire were used. The version presented to intimate murderers included specific questions about the killing of their intimate partner. The version administered to general offenders was not as specific in referring to the subjects index offence. Lastly, the version prepared for subjects in the community control group did not contain detailed questions concerning criminal offences and incarceration. A generic sample of the research questionnaire is presented in Appendix A. Whenever questions were worded differently, for a specific subject group, the various versions are presented. Similarly, Appendix A identifies questions unique to a particular version of the questionnaire. The sample questionnaire shown in Appendix A includes the cover page for the intimate murderer version. Appendix B shows the cover page for the general offender version and Appendix C shows the cover page for the community control version. The general offender version was pretested on a random sample of 10 offenders from Warkworth Institution and resulted in minor adjustments.

The questionnaire began with several demographic questions, followed by the research scales ordered according to the five stages of the Binary Model. To avoid repetition, psychometric data derived from the present study is included in the description of the measure.

#### Stage I measures

Stage I of the Binary Model emphasizes the role of patriarchy, as well as

traditional male values and beliefs. There is also a focus on male associates and their role in supporting traditional male values and beliefs.

#### Acceptance of interpersonal violence (AIV)

Burt (1980) developed the AIV (see Appendix A, #22 - 27) to assess the belief that force and coercion are legitimate means by which a man can gain a woman's compliance. The six items selected by Burt, for inclusion in this scale, derived from a much larger item pool that was pretested and subjected to item analysis. Responses to the AIV are made on a seven-point scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." In scoring this scale, items 23, 24, and 26 were reversed; thus, high scores reflect support for the use of force and coercion by males against females.

Based on a random sample of 598 adults (only 40% of whom were male), Burt (1980) reported a mean of 18.2 (SD 5.9). In contrast, 338 subjects from the present study generated an overall mean of 12.1 (SD 4.9). The Cronbach's Alpha level of .45 obtained in this study was lower than Burt's .59. Alpha levels in this range cast doubt on the internal consistency of this scale (Cicchetti & Sparrow, 1990); nevertheless, the AIV was retained because it is a short scale that has received considerable attention in the research literature.

#### Sex role stereotyping (SRS)

The SRS (Burt, 1980) (see Appendix A, #28 - 36) assesses traditional gender roles by having subjects respond to nine statements on a seven-point scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Items for this scale

were selected in the same manner as that used for the AIV and the scale was normed with the same sample (Burt, 1980). For scoring purposes, items 29 and 36 are reversed, so that low scorers are supportive of traditional gender roles. The overall mean on the SRS for 342 subjects in the present study was 43.7 (SD 8.3) compared to Burt's mean of 37.6 (SD 10.5). The internal consistency ( $\alpha = .70$ ) was lower than that reported by Burt ( $\alpha = .80$ ).

With regard to the AIV and the SRS, Burt noted, "if sex role stereotyping is a precondition for targeting women as potential victims of attack then acceptance of interpersonal violence may be the attitudinal releaser of assaultive action" (Burt, 1980, p. 229).

#### Relationship Control Scale (RCS)

To augment the SRS five statements targeting the level of control a man exerts in his relationship with intimate female partners were prepared for inclusion in the research questionnaire (see Appendix A, #38 - 42). These items used a five-point rating scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Low scores are associated with greater use of control. The mean obtained in this study for 342 subjects was 15.8 (SD 2.5) and the scale yielded an internal consistency of  $\alpha = .43$ .

#### Patriarchal Beliefs Scale (PBS)

In their study of woman abuse in dating relationships, DeKeseredy and Kelly (1993) employed a measure, referred to here as the PBS (see Appendix A, #43 - 50). The PBS contains eight items, which respondents rate on a five-point

scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." In the current study the middle "don't know" response was changed to "neither agree nor disagree." In scoring the PBS, the first two items are reversed, so that low scores correspond to stronger patriarchal beliefs.

DeKeseredy and Kelly (1993) administered the PBS to 1,307 Canadian male college and university students and obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .79. Based on responses from 341 adult males in the present study, the PBS generated a mean score of 33.0 (SD 4.2). Using data from this study, the internal consistency for the items was  $\alpha = .70$ .

#### Your Patriarchal Attitudes Scale (YPAS)

Also derived from DeKeseredy and Kelly's (1993) study, the YPAS (see Appendix A, #51 - 58 Column A) asks men to respond with a "yes," "no" or "don't know" as to whether they would approve of a man slapping his wife/girlfriend, in each of eight different situations. To encourage a forced choice, the "don't know" response category was omitted in this study. When responses to the YPAS are summed, low scores equate to attitudes more supportive of the abuse of a woman.

Based on their sample of 1,307 males, DeKeseredy and Kelly found the YPAS to have a Cronbach's alpha of .76. Responses from 295 males in the present study yielded an alpha level of .70.

#### Other Men's Patriarchal Attitudes (OMPA)

The OMPA, (DeKeseredy & Kelly, 1993) (see Appendix A, #51 - 58,

column B) contains the same items as the YPAS; however, instead of responding to the items directly, men are asked to state under what conditions most men would approve of a man slapping his wife/girlfriend. As with the YPAS, the authors included a "don't know" response choice, which was omitted for the purposes of this study. When item responses are summed, low YPAS scores equate to a stronger endorsement of the view that most men would be supportive of the abuse of a woman.

DeKeseredy and Kelly (1993) report this scale as having a Cronbach's alpha of .80. Data from the 295 male respondents in this study generated an alpha level of .83.

#### Male Attitude Scale (MAS)

The MAS (see Appendix A, #59 - 63) developed by Hanson (1992) consists of five-items that are responded to on a five-point scale. The items reflect patriarchal beliefs and attitudes, hence it was included to supplement the PBS and YPAS. A total score for the MAS is derived by reversing item 63 and summing all responses. A high score corresponds to more stereotypical or traditional male attitudes and behaviours. Data from 340 males in this study resulted in a coefficient alpha of .56.

#### Your Associations Measure (YAM)

It is widely believed that peer groups have a significant influence on the attitudes and behaviour of an individual (Akers et al., 1988; Andrews & Bonta, 1994; Bowker, 1983; Smith, 1991). To explore this relationship, the YAM

(Hanson, 1992) (see Appendix A, #64 - 75) was adopted for inclusion in this study. The YAM is a 13 item scale which asks subjects about the behaviour of their peers. A few questions also require respondents to comment on how they would react to specific behaviours of their peers. Items are scored on a five-point Likert scale. High scores are indicative of a strong negative influence by a negative peer group. With item 76 omitted (number of male friends) the YAM achieved an alpha level of .84 in this study.

#### Routine activities scale (RAS)

The RAS (DeKeseredy & Kelly, 1993) (see Appendix A, #77a-g) explores the amount of time a man interacts exclusively with other men in a variety of activities (sports, working, etc.) over a typical month. According to DeKeseredy and Kelly, the responses of the males in their study yielded an inter-item correlation of Cronbach's alpha of .73. Responses to the RAS in the present study provided an alpha of .76.

#### Projected Image (PI)

The PI, (Hanson & Wallace-Capretta, 2000) (see Appendix A, #78a-e), consists of five items corresponding to the image a man wants others to have of him. Subjects respond on a five-point scale. Based on 340 respondents from the present study, the inter-item correlation for this scale was  $\alpha = .81$ .

#### Self Image Scale (SIS)

The SIS (Black, 1985)(see Appendix A, #79a-n) is a bipolar scale that asks subjects to describe themselves by using a five-point scale to respond to 15

pairs of adjectives. Items a, d, f, h, j, l, and n are scored on a scale ranging from 1 to 5, while the remaining items are scored on a scale ranging from 5 to 1. Responses are summed for all 15 items, with a high score representing a positive self image and a low score representing a negative self image. Data from the 342 subjects who responded to this scale as part of this study yielded an alpha level of .99.

#### **Sexual Relationship History (SRH)**

The SRH (see Appendix A, #80 - 90) written for this study, consists of an array of questions concerning a man's sexual behaviour, all of which are considered to be of value in the validation of the Binary Model. Some of the items (#80 - 86f, 88a) were summed to provide a measure of promiscuous sexual behaviour. The higher the score on this subscale, the greater is the respondent's promiscuity. This measure of promiscuity may be limited by its low inter-item correlation ( $\alpha = .40$ ).

#### **Jealousy Scales (JS)**

Jealousy has been considered a predisposing factor to intimate femicide (Nettler, 1982; Wilson & Daly, 1993). To investigate this relationship, the JS (Hupka, Buunk, Fulgosi, Ortega, Swain & Tarabrina, 1985) (see Appendix A, #94 - 135) was included in the research questionnaire. Hupka et al. administered 69 items relating to romantic jealousy and romantic envy to 1,194 female and 877 male university students in seven countries. Subjects responded on a seven-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." Factor analyses

revealed two factors in all seven countries. The first was a romantic jealousy factor called "Threat to Exclusive Relationship." According to Hupka et al., this factor refers to "the romantic and existential experience in which the partner pays attention to other persons or becomes involved in activities which exclude the individual" (p. 432). The second "Self-Depreciation-Envy", refers to a person's "negative social comparison of themselves with others in reference to qualities that are important for obtaining partners and maintaining romantic relationships" (p. 435). All but one country (Hungary) also had a dependency factor, which refers to "the primacy of the romantic partner in one's life and the degree to which the meaning of life is contingent upon the relationship with the partner" (p. 434). Beyond these similarities, there were some factors unique to some countries. Because Canada was not one of the countries included in the Hupka et al. study, and based on their conclusion that men and women in Western nations are concerned with similar interpersonal relationship issues, the items high on the above three factors for the American sample (128 males and 143 females) were chosen for inclusion in this study.

In the scoring of the JS items 102,117,120,132 were reversed, so that high scores indicate feelings of a threat in jealousy and envy situations. Data from the 330 men who responded to the JS in the present study resulted in this scale obtaining a Cronbach's alpha of .90.

#### Response to Jealousy (R.J.)

Hupka (1984) offers a novel perspective of jealousy, suggesting that it



refers to a situation or predicament in which one finds themselves. According to Hupka et al. (1985), knowing that someone is jealous specifies the predicament the person is in, but provides no indication of what the individual is feeling. Hence, the emotion that is experienced in a jealous situation is dependent upon the individual's focus of concern (Hupka, 1984).

To identify a man's primary emotional reaction to a jealous situation, the R.J. (see Appendix A, #136 - 146) scale was formulated for this study. The R.J. consists of eleven items describing various jealousy provoking situations, ranging from seeing your partner dancing with one of your friends at a party, to suspecting your partner of having an affair. Respondents choose from a list of 16 reactions, the word or phrase best describing how they would feel in response to each of the situations. For each scenario, respondents were also required to rate the strength of their emotional reaction and the extent to which each situation would bother them. Ratings are made on a five-point Likert scale.

Scoring of this scale is a three stage process. First, the word or phrase the subject selected in part "A" as best representing his reaction to the jealousy provoking situation was weighted by its corresponding intensity score from part "B". Second, intensity scores from part "B" were summed to provide a level of intensity of emotion a respondent reported. High scores indicate an intense emotional reaction. The 11 part "B" items have an inter-item reliability of  $\alpha = .85$ . When these items were summed, the 318 subjects yielded a mean score of 41.7 (SD = 8.0). Lastly, part "C" of each item was summed to provide a measure of

the extent to which jealousy provoking situations bothered a man. Elevated scores on these items indicate that the respondent reported being very bothered by the specific situation. The 11 item part "C" items correlate at  $\alpha = .82$  and the total mean was 28.8 (SD = 7.7; n = 317).

### Stage II measures

The scales described in this section target variables that may function as antecedents or precipitators of criminal behaviour.

#### Reasons for offence (RFO)

Using an open ended question format, inmates were asked to list the reason(s) for their present offence (see Appendix A, #261). Responses were coded according to locus of attribution, depending on whether the offender attributed his offence to the victim, himself or a situational factor (Dutton, 1986; Henderson & Hewstone, 1984). To be attributed to the victim, a reason had to emphasize the behaviour or characteristics of the victim. Also included was any reference to victim provocation or to perceived acts of aggression by the victim, such as victim denigration of the offender's significant others or verbal abuse by the victim. To be attributed to the offender, reasons had to involve the offender's characteristics or behaviour, such as temper, arousal, chronic alcohol problem, upholding reputation, or pride. To be attributed to the situation, a reason had to emphasize nonpersonal situational factors such as self defence, argument, acute stress, or drunkenness where the man has no history of chronic alcohol problems. With respect to the latter, if it was difficult to establish whether

intoxication was the result of chronic or acute use it was considered chronic and attributed to the offender rather than the situation. In addition to coding locus of attribution, responses were also coded as either excuses or justifications.

Excuses, acknowledge that the offence happened but refer to it as unintentional.

Excuses include reference to an accident, drinking, drugs, state of mind (e.g., "I was mad," "I wanted to scare her", etc.). Alternately, justifications involve an acceptance of responsibility with reference to the situation or circumstances.

Justifications may include reference to self defence, the victim's wrong doings, conflicts with the victim or helping another. To estimate reliability of the coding of locus of attribution and justification and excuses, 69% of the reasons provided by intimate murderers were independently coded by two raters. There was an 89% agreement for the coding of locus of attribution and a 92% agreement for the coding of justifications and excuses. Thus there was high inter-rater reliability in the coding of these variables.

The RFO was expected to inform Stage V processes as well as Stage II, given that the latter attends to excuses and justifications.

Life satisfaction scale (LSS)

The LSS (see Appendix A, #92) is a 9-item scale, composed for this study, to measure the level of satisfaction subjects had with respect to various aspects of their lives. Two versions of the LSS were utilized. The offender version was worded in the past tense and required subjects to comment on their level of life satisfaction in the year prior to their offence. The nonoffender version was

worded in the present tense and asked respondents to comment on their present level of life satisfaction. Responses were made on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." A high score on this scale represent a strong sense of life satisfaction. An analysis of data obtained from 337 participants in this study produced an Alpha of .89 and a mean score of 30.0 (SD = 8.85).

#### Conflict Tactics Scale - modified (CTS-M)

Physical and psychological abuse of ones partner(s) was measured using a modified version of the Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS-M) (see Appendix A, #93). The CTS (Straus and Gelles, 1986) is a reliable measure with both concurrent and construct validity (Straus, 1990), and is frequently used in research on abuse (Schafer, 1996). The version used in this study consisted of 18 items describing acts of physical or psychological abuse. Using a six-point scale, subjects report on the frequency with which they have used each of the acts against their partner; consequently, higher scores correspond to more frequent and severe abuse. The inter-item correlation with the sample in this study produced a coefficient alpha of .89 and the mean was 30 (SD = 11.2 ,n = 337).

After responding to the 18 items, subjects in this study were asked to review all of the items and circle those they considered to be a form of abuse. Additionally, they were asked to give brief explanations as to why they carried out the behaviours they identified in their responses to the CTS items. Lastly, respondents were asked to describe the worst thing that they have ever done to

a wife or girlfriend and explain their reason for acting the way they did. It was the inclusion of tasks beyond responding to the 18 items that constituted the modifications made to the CTS for its use in this study.

#### Consequences (Con)

The Con (Hanson, 1992) (see Appendix A, #149) consists of 10 items relating to consequences a man has incurred as a result of abusing a partner. These consequences range from having a partner leave temporarily, to being sentenced to jail for assaulting or harassing a partner. An additional item asks if the individual has ever participated in treatment for his assaultive behaviour. Responses are made on a five point scale extending from "Never" to "More than 10 times," so that a high score identifies the respondent as having experienced frequent consequences due to his abuse behaviour.

To establish the Con scale as a measure of spousal abuse, it was correlated with the CTS, using data from this study. The Con correlated with the CTS (total),  $r=.57$  ( $p<.000$ ), with the CTS's physical abuse items,  $r=.57$  ( $p<.000$ ), and with the CTS's psychological abuse items,  $r=.50$  ( $p<.000$ ). The Con obtained an Alpha coefficient of reliability of .88. The mean for this scale based on responses from 325 males in the present study was 1.6 (SD 3.3).

#### Reasons for relationship split (Reasons)

The Reasons inventory (Appendix A, #91a-d) contains four items created for this study. It asks whether subjects have had relationships end because of their abusive behaviour toward a partner, abuse of drugs / alcohol, jealousy, or

other reasons (specified by the subjects). Responses to the Reasons inventory are made by circling a number on a scale ranging from none to 10, in increments of one. Responses greater than ten required a specific number. In the present study, data was obtained on this scale for 326 men. Upon analysis an alpha level of .50 was obtained for the four items that comprise this scale and the overall mean score was 3.0 (SD 5.4). This scale was significantly correlated with the CTS,  $r=.36$ ,  $p<.01$ , thereby supporting its inclusion in the research questionnaire as a measure of abusive behaviour. Men who score high on the Reasons inventory have experienced frequent relationship termination due to their unacceptable behaviour.

#### Marital-Adjustment Test (MAT)

Marital adjustment as defined by Locke (1951) is a process of adaptation by a couple, enabling them to avoid or resolve conflicts, thereby contributing to feelings of satisfaction with the marriage and each other. The MAT (Locke & Wallace, 1959) (see Appendix A, #150) was selected as a measure of marital (relationship) adjustment, due to its popularity as a clinical and research instrument and its good psychometric properties (Barnett, Martinez & Bluestein, 1995). Part one of this instrument asks respondents to rate the happiness of their relationship. Part two of the MAT ask respondents about the level of agreement he and his partner reach in dealing with a variety of issues such as finances, in-laws, and recreation. The final section of the MAT consists of five multiple choice questions such as "Do you and your partner engage in outside

activities together?"

Locke and Wallace (1959) provide a scoring key for the MAT with scores ranging from 2 - 158. Based on a sample of 118 married men and 118 married women, Locke and Wallace provided two cut off scores. Individuals in well adjusted relationships obtained a mean score of 135.9, whereas those in maladjusted relationships obtained a mean score of 71.7. The authors report a reliability coefficient of .90 for this scale; data from 247 men in the present study, generated an alpha of .74 and a mean of 103.5 (SD = 27.6). Consistent with the general focus of the research questionnaire, intimate murderers were instructed to base their response to the MAT on their relationship with their victim. Community controls and general offenders were instructed to respond based on their present or most recent intimate relationship.

### Stage III measures

Stage III of the Binary Model, concerns the lethal act. Consequently, the scales in this section address specific aspects of the offence and the role of anger and aggression.

#### Offence Information Questionnaire (OIQ)

The OIQ (see Appendix A, #257 - 260) was prepared as a means of obtaining information from intimate murderers concerning their present offence. This questionnaire explores the offender's living arrangements at the time of the offence, as well as the quality of the relationship he shared with his partner at the time of the offence. The OIQ is also concerned with the use of a weapon and the

means by which it was obtained. Lastly, the OIQ asks questions about the offence, such as whether the offenders intention was to kill the victim.

#### Aggression Questionnaire (AQ)

The AQ (see Appendix A, #152 - 180) is a self-report instrument developed by Buss and Perry (1992) as an improvement upon the more widely known Buss Durkee Hostility Inventory (Buss & Durkee, 1957). Buss and Perry administered an initial pool of 52 items to 612 male and 641 female introductory psychology students. Through factor analysis, these items were reduced to the final 29. The factors obtained formed the following four scales of the AQ: Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Anger, and Hostility. According to Buss and Perry (1992), both Physical and Verbal Aggression involve hurting or harming others and they represent the instrumental or motor component of behaviour. Anger, according to the authors, involves physiological arousal and preparation for aggression and represents the emotional or affective component of behaviour. Lastly, Hostility, which consists of feelings of ill will and injustice, represents the cognitive component of behaviour.

Respondents rate each of the 29 items of the AQ on a scale of 1 (Extremely Uncharacteristic of me, modified to, Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Extremely Characteristic of me, modified to, Strongly Agree). Subscale scores are the sum of the ratings for its items. The total score is the sum of all scores with items 158 and 169 reversed. High total and subscale scores are representative of more intense levels of the construct (e.g., anger). Responses



from 337 male subjects in the present study contributed to an alpha level of .88 and an overall mean score of 107.3 (SD = 16.1). This was much higher than the mean total score of 77.8 (SD = 16.5) obtained by Buss and Perry's sample of 612 male introductory psychology students.

#### **Emotional Path (EP)**

To explore the offender's emotions within the framework of the Binary Model and to better understand the progression of events leading to the offence, the EP (see Appendix A, #255) was developed. This scale is modelled after one successfully employed by Zamble and Quinsey (1991) in their study of federal recidivists in Ontario. Meloy (1992) applied a similar procedure in his Systematic Self Report of Violence (SSRV) scale. The EP requires the offender to identify the extent to which he was experiencing each of 28 different emotional states at five different intervals, spanning the times prior to, during and following the offence. Zamble and Quinsey noted that although offenders may have difficulty understanding why they perpetrated their offence, they can usually remember their thoughts and feelings when they committed the crime. Subjects respond on a Likert scale, where high ratings indicate that the particular emotion was experienced with considerable intensity. To facilitate the scoring of this scale, the 28 emotional states were reduced through factor analysis. The outcome of this process is described in detail in the results section.

#### **Vengeance Scale (VS)**

Stage III of the Binary Model considered vengeance and retaliation to be

motivating influences for both Alpha and Beta murderers. To investigate the role of vengeance in intimate femicide, the Vengeance Scale (Stuckless & Goranson, 1992) (see Appendix A, #181 a - t) was adopted.

This 20-item questionnaire is responded to on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from “disagree strongly” (1) to “agree strongly” (7). Ten of the 20 items (a, d, e, h, i, k, m, p, r, s) are scored in the reverse direction, therefore, high scores indicate high vengefulness. Stuckless and Goranson (1992) report a Cronbach alpha of .92 and test-retest reliability of .90 based on data from 122 female and 29 male undergraduate students. A sample of 337 males in the present study, yielded a coefficient alpha of .90. The mean for this sample was 52.1 (SD = 17.5); lower than the mean of 76.9 (SD = 22.89) for the males in Stuckless and Goranson's sample.

#### Overcontrolled Hostility (OH) Scale

The OH scale is a 31-item sub-scale of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) (see Appendix A #182-212), considered to be effective in discriminating overcontrolled assaultive criminals from undercontrolled assaultive criminals, nonviolent criminals, and non-criminals (Megargee, Cook & Mendelsohn, 1967). This scale evolved from data collected from four criterion groups. An “Extremely Assaultive group” (n=14) of men convicted of murder, voluntary manslaughter, mayhem or assault with a deadly weapon; a “Moderately Assaultive group” (n=25) of men convicted of battery; a group of men convicted for nonassaultive crimes (n = 25) and a group of men

who did not have a known offence history (n = 46).

High OH scores are suggestive of a conflict between strong aggressive impulses and strong inhibitions against the expression of aggression (Megargee et al., 1967).

Megargee et al. (1967) report a coefficient of internal consistency of .56 for the OH scale, based on a combined sample of offenders and college students. More recently, Butcher et al. (1989) obtained internal consistency coefficients for the MMPI-2 of .34 for men and .24 for women. Thus leading Graham (1993, p.152) to conclude, "Clearly, the OH scale is not very internally consistent." When a reliability analysis was carried out on the MMPI-2 OH scale, using the present sample of men, an alpha level of .32 was obtained. The mean OH score based on 337 men in this study was 14.4 (SD = 3.1).

#### Anger Questionnaire

Five items expected to be related to anger were written for and included in the Research Questionnaire. These items (see Appendix A, #213) were responded to as True/False with regard to how they pertained to the respondent. Item "d" was reverse scored. A low score on this scale reflects a dysfunctional approach to dealing with anger.

With item "c" omitted, the Anger Questionnaire achieved an internal reliability of  $\alpha = .63$ . To explore its validity the Anger Questionnaire was correlated with the Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992). The Anger Questionnaire correlated  $r = .41$ ,  $p < .01$  with the total from the Aggression

Questionnaire (AQ).

Stage IV measures

The major distinction between the Alpha Murderers and Beta Murderers was thought to occur at Stage IV, the post murder stage, in which Beta Murders were expected to attempt suicide.

History of Attempted Suicide (HAS)

To address suicidal thoughts and behaviour, the HAS (see Appendix A, #214) was developed. The first four questions on the HAS are general questions that were answered by all subjects in the study (e.g., questions relating to suicidal thoughts and/or attempts). The second set of four questions explore the role of suicide in relation to the offence; consequently, they were completed only by the offenders. Although the HAS had a high internal consistency ( $\alpha=.91$ ), the nine items were not summed to provide a total score, but were considered independently.

Response Following Offence (RFO)

To gain insight into an offenders behaviour immediately following the commission of their offence, the RFO (see Appendix A, #262p) asked them to select from a list of five responses all that applied to them. The list included responses such as "took-off and tried to hide," "called the police," "tried to kill myself", etc. Offenders were also requested to list any "other" responses (not listed) that they made immediately following the offence. The second part of the RFO (262q), was open-ended question requiring the offender to provide a reason

for responding as he did to the offence. Responses to items 262p and 262q were not summed.

#### Stage V measures

The final stage of the Binary Model of intimate femicide considers the offender at the time of his involvement in the study, i.e., following his arrest and sentencing.

#### Attitudes Towards Offence (ATO)

The 9 item ATO (see Appendix A, #262a,b,c,d,e,j,k,l,m) was devised to explore offenders' attitudes toward their offence. The items are scored on a five-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). Item e is reverse scored. A low score is associated with stronger feelings of remorse and guilt. Responses from 197 inmates yielded a reliability coefficient of .51.

#### Guilt-Remorse Scale (GRS)

To investigate offenders' feelings of offence-related guilt and remorse, the GRS (see Appendix A, #262r to y) was developed. The GRS comprises 8 items, which are responded to on a five-point Likert scale. When item s was reversed and items r to y were summed, a low total score was associated with stronger feelings of remorse and a greater acceptance of responsibility for the offence. Based on responses from 159 inmates, the GRS obtained a Cronbach coefficient alpha of .68. Summation of these items produced a mean score of 18.0 (SD 5.9).

### **Attitude Toward Sentence (ATS)**

To investigate offenders' attitudes toward their sentence, the 6 item ATS was formulated (see Appendix A, #262 f,g,h,i,n,o). The first four items were responded to on five point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). Items n and o required the respondent to select the statement that conveyed his legal response, if any, to his sentence and conviction. To score the ATS items f and h were reversed. Items n and o were regrouped so that, "wanting to appeal," "wish I had appealed" and "plan to appeal" were scored as a 3; "did not appeal" was scored as a 5. Therefore, a low score on the ATS corresponded to an adverse attitude toward ones sentence and the belief that the justice system acted unfairly. A high total score suggested a more accepting attitude toward one's treatment by the justice system. Data from 200 inmates produced a coefficient alpha of .80.

### **Adjustment to Incarceration Inventory (ATII)**

Inmates' adjustment to incarceration was examined through the nine item ATII (see Appendix A, #263), which was written for this study. The ATII solicits information on such things as program involvement, prison friendships, and inmates perspectives on their sentence. Items a to e are considered individually. Items f to j are responded to on a 4-point scale, ranging from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (4). When item g is reverse scored and items f to j are summed, a measure of adjustment to prison is obtained, with high scores suggesting good adjustment. Data from 210 male inmates in the present study

yielded a coefficient alpha of .52 for these 5 items.

**Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding Version 6 (BIDR-6)**

To address concerns about self-presentation bias, the BIDR-6 (Paulhus, 1991) (see Appendix A, #215 - 254) was included in the test battery. The BIDR-6 consists of two subscales, each containing 20 items. The Self-Deceptive Enhancement (SDE) subscale taps the tendency of respondents to give self-reports that are honest but positively biased. According to Paulhus (1991) SDE correlates highly with extroversion and low neuroticism, suggesting an energetic, positive orientation to life. The SDE subscale also shows a strong positive association with self-esteem and negative associations with depression and anxiety. Those who score high on SDE actually believe their overly positive self-reports. The second construct, labelled Impression Management (IM), addresses the tendency to provide inflated self-descriptions in public settings. This construct has been found to be highly correlated with measures traditionally known as lie scales. Thus, high scorers on IM are consciously responding in a socially desirable fashion. Items on the BIDR-6 are stated as propositions and respondents rate their agreement with each statement on a 7-point scale.

The BIDR-6 was well suited as a measure of social desirable responding for this study because of its use with offenders in a variety of contexts (Kroner & Weekes, 1994; Millson & Weekes, 1994; Weekes & Millson, 1994), as well as with assaultive husbands (Dutton & Hemphill, 1992).

Paulhus (1991) reports coefficient alphas ranging from .70 to .82 for the

SDE and .80 to .86 for the IM scale. In the present study, the SDE obtained an alpha of .61 while the IM obtained an alpha of .84. With the SDE and IM combined, the 295 men who responded to this scale as a part of the present study generated an alpha of .83, which is within the range of alphas reported by Paulhus (.83 to .85). Paulhus reported five - week test-retest, stability coefficients of .69 and .65 for the SDE and IM scales respectively. He further noted that the BIDR-6 has demonstrated concurrent validity, construct validity, discriminant validity, and convergent validity.

#### Procedure

Approval for this study was received from the Carleton University Psychology Department's Ethics Review Committee and from the Regional Research Committee of CSC (Ontario). The treatment of participants in this study was in accordance with the ethical standards of the Canadian Psychological Association (CPA) and Carleton University ethical guidelines.

Subjects were recruited through individual interviews during which the goals of the study were explained, along with the conditions of their participation, e.g., confidentiality, the freedom to withdraw, and the right to register any complaints with the university (see Appendix D). Inmates were informed that their participation or refusal would have no positive or negative impact on their incarceration. They were further notified that none of the information they shared as part of this study would be used in relation to their case. Men who expressed a willingness to participate in the study were required to confirm their



understanding of the study and their willingness to participate by signing an informed consent form (see Appendix E). On the Informed Consent Form, participants were offered the option of requesting a summary of the outcome of this study. Ultimately, a summary (see Appendix F) was sent to the 42 men who requested it and provided an address to which it could be sent. After signing the Informed Consent Form, participants were required to complete the Introduction Form (see Appendix G). This form provided a means of assessing reading comprehension while also introducing participants to the various question formats used in the questionnaire. Because the Introduction Form asks questions about the Consent Form, it has the additional feature of ensuring informed consent.

Two intimate murderers were excluded from the sample due to their poor comprehension of the English language, and one because he was actively psychotic. All of the men who volunteered for the general offender and community control groups were able to successfully complete the Introduction Form.

All participants completed the research questionnaire in supervised groups, ranging in size from 3 to 7 individuals. The test supervisor ensured that the subjects worked independently and were not disruptive. Although subjects were encouraged to complete the entire questionnaire in one sitting, institutional schedules/routines, necessitated a second session for a small number of the inmate participants. On these occasions the second session was scheduled on

the same day as the first. Upon completion of the test battery, participants were debriefed on an individual basis and given a Debriefing Form (see Appendix H). Any remaining questions were answered at this time.

### Data management

All data management and analysis was conducted through SPSS 6.1 for Windows (SPSS Inc., 1994; Norusis, 1993; 1994a; 1994b). Prior to any analysis of the raw data, all variables were examined for accuracy of data entry, by generating a printout of all data.

Coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1951) was then calculated to evaluate the internal consistency for the scales employed in this study. An alpha level of .70 is traditionally considered desirable, but Schmitt (1996) has noted that in some cases measures with lower levels of alpha may still be useful. In keeping with Schmitt's contention, scales which obtained alpha levels lower than .70 but had meaningful content coverage were maintained and cautiously interpreted. Where possible the construct validity of scales developed for this study was explored by correlating the scale with another measure of the same construct with established construct validity.

Missing data was handled in accordance with guidelines provided by Tabachnick and Fidell (1989). If items were missing from scales and it seemed reasonable to prorate them this was done using available data. If items were to be analysed on their own missing values were not prorated.

The central issue throughout the data analysis was the extent to which

reliable mean differences on the dependent variables were associated with group membership. Because groups were formed along only one dimension, most analyses were one-way between subjects ANOVA. When multiple comparisons were carried out, the Bonferroni technique was used to adjust the observed significance level, thereby, guarding against Type 1 error. When all three research groups were included in an analysis of variance, an F-test of significance was used and rejection of the null hypothesis was based on a conservative alpha level of .01 (2-tailed,  $z = 2.58$ ). A number of issues were considered, and a priori decision rules, concerning statistical power adopted. Selection of a medium effect size ( $f = 0.25$ ; Cohen, 1988), an alpha level of .01, a total sample size of 342, and three research groups, yielded a critical  $F(2, 339) = 4.67$ ,  $\Lambda = 21.38$  and power of 0.95. Therefore, any such analysis had a 95% probability of rejecting the null hypothesis. Comparisons involving only two of the research groups utilized a two independent samples t-test of significance and a more liberal alpha level of .05 (2-tailed,  $z = 1.96$ ). Selection of a medium effect size ( $d = 0.50$ ; Cohen, 1988) and an alpha level of .05, for comparisons involving intimate murderers ( $n=89$ ) and general offenders ( $n=151$ ) produced,  $\Delta = 3.74$ , critical  $t(238) = 1.97$  and power of 0.96. When the same parameters were applied to analysis involving intimate murderers ( $n=89$ ) and community controls ( $n=102$ )  $\Delta = 3.45$ , critical  $t(189) = 1.65$  and power = 0.96. Therefore, comparisons of intimate murderers to either general offenders or community controls had a 96% probability of detecting a moderate effect size.

CHAPTER 4

Results

**“Good data analysis involves a mixture of common sense, technical expertise and curiosity.” (Norusis, 1994; p. 1)**

Demographic characteristics of the sample

Age

The intimate murderer group had the highest mean age of the three research groups. A one way ANOVA, using the Bonferroni procedure to adjust for post hoc multiple comparisons showed intimate murderers to be significantly older than general offenders  $F(2, 339) = 4.7, p < .01$ . Table 5 shows this difference to be about five years. Intimate murderers were not significantly older than men in the community sample.

Table 5

Age of Subjects

Intimate Murderers (n = 89)			General Offenders (n = 151)			Community Controls (n = 102)			F
$\bar{x}$	SD	Range	$\bar{x}$	SD	Range	$\bar{x}$	SD	Range	
45.3	11.70	25-78	40.2	13.0	20-81	43.7	15.0	20-89	IM vs GO **

Note. IM = intimate murderers; GO = general offenders, \*\*  $p < .01$

Marital / Family

As can be seen in Table 6 the men in the community sample were primarily married (63%) at the time of their participation in this study compared to

only 15% of the general offenders and 7% of the intimate murderers. Not surprisingly, most of the intimate murderers identified themselves as widowed or single (67%). The data further reveals that the community sample is much more committed to the traditional institution of marriage. These men were more likely to enter into marriage rather than a common-law relationship and only 10% had been married more than once. In contrast, the majority of the general offenders (47%) had never been married; rather, they were apt to have been involved in common-law relationships. Intimate murderers did not show much of a preference between marital and common-law relationships. A post hoc comparison of the mean number of legal marriages by group, using a Bonferroni adjustment, revealed that intimate murderers were significantly more likely to have been married once or more compared to general offenders  $F(2, 338) = 5.2, p < .01$ . A similar analysis, focussing on common-law relationships found men from the community sample to be significantly less likely than men from either inmate group to have ever been involved in such a relationship  $F(2, 336) = 36.14, p < .000$ . Whether it was a marriage or common-law relationship, intimate murderers show less stability in their relationships as evidenced by their involvement in multiple relationships. Perhaps the most interesting aspect of this data relates to the identification of 11 intimate murderers, who despite being incarcerated for the murder of an intimate partner, described their current marital status as either married or common-law. This suggests that since killing their partner these men have remarried or entered into a common-law relationship. In

discussing this issue we are reminded that intimate murders were advised that items on the research questionnaire pertaining to their wife/girlfriend were to be answered as they apply to the victim of their offence.

As would be expected the men in this study tended to be older than their female partners. On average, victims of intimate murderers were 3.3 (SD = 7.44) years younger than the offender; however, this ranged from 20 years younger to 20 years older. The partners of general offenders were on average 2.2 (SD = 7.84) years younger than these men, ranging from 29 years younger to 22 years older. Men in the community control group had partners who were an average of 2.5 (SD = 4.57) years younger but the age range was more restricted, ranging from 18 years younger to 10 years older. Comparison of the mean age difference between participants in this study and their intimate partners by research group failed to achieve significance  $F(2, 279) = .62, p > .01$ . There was no significant difference between groups with respect to the number of children residing in the home  $F(2, 322) = 3.68, p > .01$ . Reflecting their more stable marital histories, men in the community sample were less likely to have step children.

Table 6

Marital / Familial Related Data

Variable	Intimate Murderers (n = 89)		General Offenders (n = 151)		Community Controls (n = 102)	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
<b>Current marital status</b>						
married	6	6.7	23	15.3	64	62.7
common-law	5	5.6	30	20.0	10	9.8
divorced	16	18.0	30	20.0	3	2.9
separated	2	2.2	12	8.0	5	4.9
single	30	33.7	51	34.0	19	18.6
widower	30	33.7	4	2.7	1	1.0
<b>Ever legally Married</b>						
never	22	25.0	71	47.0	23	22.5
once	42	47.7	53	35.1	69	67.6
twice	20	22.7	22	14.6	9	8.8
3 times or more	4	4.5	5	3.3	1	1.0
<b>Ever in a Common-Law Relationship</b>						
never	24	27.9	40	26.5	70	68.6
once	30	34.9	56	37.1	29	28.4
twice	18	20.9	40	26.5	3	2.9
3 times or more	14	16.3	15	9.9	0	0.0
<b>Wife/Girlfriend</b>						
older than subject	19	21.6	44	29.7	15	14.9
same age as subject	12	13.6	17	11.5	24	23.8
younger than subject	57	64.8	87	58.8	62	61.4
<b>Children</b>						
biological	58	65.2	88	58.3	74	72.5
step	28	31.5	45	29.8	11	10.8
none	20	22.5	47	31.1	27	26.5
<b>Number of children residing in your home</b>	$\bar{x} = 1.16$ SD = 1.22		$\bar{x} = 1.42$ SD = 1.77		$\bar{x} = 1.78$ SD = 1.24	

Education

A comparison of the mean level of education for the men in the three research groups indicated that the community control subjects had a significantly higher level of education than did either of the inmate groups  $F(2, 322) = 41.6, p < .000$ . Similarly, the intimate partners of men from the community sample had a significantly higher level of education than the intimate partners of the two inmate groups  $F(2, 322) = 18.0, p < .000$ . Table 7 indicates that most intimate murderers (44.2%) reported some secondary school education as was the case for their female partners (38.8%).



Table 7

Education Level of Subjects and their Female Partners

Education	Intimate Murderers		General Offenders		Community Controls	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
<b>Male Subjects</b>						
no schooling	1	1.2	3	2.1	0	0
some elementary	4	4.7	8	5.7	0	0
elementary	4	4.7	5	3.3	2	2.0
some secondary	38	44.2	72	51.1	13	13.3
some college	14	16.3	23	16.3	20	20.4
college	13	15.1	10	7.1	18	18.4
some university	5	5.8	14	9.9	8	8.2
university	7	8.1	6	4.3	37	37.1
<b>Female Partners</b>						
no schooling	2	2.4	2	1.4	0	0
some elementary	7	8.4	6	4.3	0	0
elementary	4	4.7	8	5.7	3	3.0
some secondary	33	38.8	64	45.4	19	19.0
some college	16	18.8	24	17.0	23	23.0
college	9	10.6	15	10.6	21	21.0
some university	7	8.2	9	6.4	8	8.0
university	7	8.2	13	9.2	25	25.0

Employment / Economic Status

At the time of the offence resulting the death of their partner 61% of the

intimate murderers reported that they were employed full time and 71% identified themselves as the major family earner. At the time of their offence, 52% of the general offenders were employed full time and 64% described themselves as the major family earner. In contrast 68% of the community sample identified themselves as the major family earner. Most of the partners of the men in the community sample (70.3%) were employed either full or part time, this number dropped to 58.5% and 52.4% respectively for the partners of the general offenders and the intimate murderers. Despite this, only 8.5% of the intimate murders and 13% of the general offenders reported that their wives/girlfriends were homemakers. The community group reported a significantly higher annual income than either of the inmate groups  $F(2, 335) = 30.21, p < .000$ . Intimate murderers reported an average annual income of between \$30,000 and \$39,000. This was about \$10,000 higher than the average reported by the general offenders and about \$10,000 lower than the average for the men in the community group.

### Criminal History

The men in this study were asked a variety of questions concerning their involvement in criminal behaviour. This information is summarized in Table 6. It will be recalled that intimate murderers were significantly older than general offenders. Table 6 shows that this may be due to the fact that they were significantly older (31.0 years, SD 15.5) when they first became involved with the law compared to the general offenders (24.3 years, SD 14.4)  $F(2, 247) = 6.02, p$

< .002. Intimate murderers were also significantly older at the time of their current conviction (39.2 years, SD 12.8 versus 34.8 years, SD 13.5)  $F(1, 237) = 6.09, p < .01$ . This age difference may also have been due to the fact that intimate murders are primarily serving Life sentences (84.3%) compared to general offenders (16.5%). Nevertheless these two groups of inmates did not differ significantly with respect to time incarcerated since being arrested on their present conviction  $F(1, 235) = 2.9, p > .09$ . Fewer of the intimate murderers had involvement with the social and correctional services outlined in Table 8.

A total of 14 (14%) men from the community group reported having been convicted for a criminal offence. Of these men, 11 provided their age at the time of their first criminal conviction. The upper portion of Table 8 shows this to have been on average 24.2 years.

Table 8

Subjects Criminal Involvement

	Intimate Murderers (n = 89)			General Offenders (n = 150)			Community Controls (n = 11)			Sig
	$\bar{x}$	SD	Range	$\bar{x}$	SD	Range	$\bar{x}$	SD	Range	
Conviction										
Age at first criminal conviction	31.0	15.5	12-72	24.3	14.4	8-80	24.2	11.6	10-49	.00*
Age at present conviction	39.2	12.8	18-72	34.8	13.5	14-80	n/a			.01
Months incarcerated	70.1	50.2	0-237	57.0	63.9	1-328	n/a			.11
Months served on present sentence	67.2	47.2	6-235	53.9	63.5	1-328	n/a			.09
		n	%		n	%		n	%	
<u>Admitted to</u>										
foster home	5		5.6	24		15.9	2		2.0	
group home	3		3.4	33		21.9	0		0	
young offender institution	5		5.6	27		17.9	0		0	
detention centre	26		29.2	69		45.7	0		0	
provincial prison	36		40.4	83		55.0	0		0	
federal prison	89		100	151		100	0		0	
<u>Marital status at time of arrest</u>										
married	27		30.3	32		21.2				
common-law	19		21.3	49		32.5				
divorced	6		6.7	14		9.3		n/a		
separated	14		15.7	13		8.6				
single	15		16.9	39		25.8				
widowed	7		7.9	2		1.3				

Note: \* Difference between intimate murderers and general offenders.

Table 9 classifies the present offence(s) of the offender groups. The table identifies general offenders as a criminally diverse group of men.

Table 9

Offence(s) for which Inmate Subjects are Incarcerated

Offence	Intimate Murderers		General Offenders	
	n	%	n	%
Property offence	0	0	31	20.7
Threatening & possession of weapon	0	0	17	11.3
Robbery	0	0	36	24.0
Arson	1	1.1	2	1.3
Common assault	0	0	6	4.0
Assault causing harm	0	0	9	6.0
Drug related offences	1	1.1	9	6.0
Indecent assault	0	0	16	10.7
Rape	0	0	14	9.3
Other sexual charges	0	0	32	21.3
Mischief	0	0	1	0.7
Driving related	0	0	7	4.6
Violate court order	0	0	1	0.7
Attempted murder	0	0	6	4.0
Manslaughter	15	17.0	9	6.0
Murder (2 <sup>nd</sup> degree)	58	65.2	11	7.3
Murder (1 <sup>st</sup> degree)	17	19.1	14	9.3
Other	0	0	1	0.7

**Note.** Percentages do not total 100 because some men are serving time for more than one conviction.

In summary the demographic data show intimate murderers to be

significantly older than most other offenders. These men were just as likely to enter into traditional marriages as they were to establish common-law relationships. They also exhibited a pattern of having been involved in more than one marital (common-law) relationship. There was no significant age difference between intimate murderers and their victims. Intimate murderers were typically employed, at the time of the offence (as were their partners) and they had a total family income of between \$30,000 and \$39,000. Compared to other offenders intimate murderers were significantly older at the time of their first contact with the law and at the time of their current conviction (for the murder of their partner). The majority, 65% of intimate murderers, were serving a sentence for 2<sup>nd</sup> Degree Murder. With respect to time incarcerated since being arrested, the inmate groups did not differ significantly. Men from the community control group and their partners both had a significantly higher level of education than men from the two inmate groups and their partners. Additionally, the community control group reported a significantly higher annual income.

Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (BIDR-6)

Recognizing the effects of social desirable responding, the analysis of individual scales is preceded by a review of subjects responses to the BIDR-6. This scale offers insight into the manner in which subjects responded to the Research Questionnaire. The data collected with the BIDR-6 yielded a reliability coefficient of .83. On the IM factor of the BIDR-6 there were no significant differences between intimate murderers 82.6 (SD 22.3) and community controls

77.7 (SD 18.7), nor did the latter group differ from the general offenders 74.5 (SD 19.8). The only significant difference observed was between the intimate murderers and the general offenders  $F(2, 320) = 4.20, p < .01$ . The data suggest that intimate murderers perhaps more so than any of the other two samples were more inclined to skew their responses in a socially desirable direction. Means on the SDE factor were 89.4 (SD 12.2) for intimate murderers, 88.1 (SD 12.2) for general offenders and 87.3 (SD 11.5) for the community controls. None of these group differences were significant. The means reported here are all within one standard deviation of those reported by Kroner and Weeks (1994).

Table 10 depicts the number of subjects from each group who scored greater than one standard deviation above the mean on the SDE and IM factors of the BIDR. Interestingly, subjects from the community control group were more inclined to respond in a socially desirable fashion. This was evident from the higher percentage of these men who scored greater than one standard deviation above the mean on both the SDE (19%) and the IM (20.2%). However, attention to the means and standard deviations reported in Table 8 reveals that among subjects included in the table, inmates tended to have a broader range of BIDR scores. Consequently, the correlation between each measure used in this study and the BIDR is reported in the following sections.



Table 10

Subjects Scoring More Than One Standard Deviation Above the Mean on the BIDR

Group	n	Percentage	Mean	SD
<b>Self-Deceptive Enhancement</b>				
Intimate Murderers	13	16.9	106.7	3.9
General Offenders	24	16.3	107.9	6.8
Community Controls	19	19.0	103.5	4.4
<b>Impression Management</b>				
Intimate Murderers	14	18.2	114.5	7.3
General Offenders	20	13.6	107.6	12.5
Community Controls	20	20.2	103.5	5.3

Note. Percentage is based on all subjects in the specific group.

Stage I (Pre-Murder) Results

Recall that Stage I of the Binary Model emphasizes the role of patriarchy, traditional male values and beliefs and the impact of male associates on these values and beliefs. The results of the Stage I measures are presented in this section. Table 11, which summarizes the results from Stage I measures, includes a listing of the obtained (coefficient) alpha levels for each measure and, where available, alpha levels reported by others. The table also lists the means and standard deviations for each of the research groups on each of the scales. The significance level reported was adjusted using the Bonferroni approach and is based on an alpha of .01. Table 12 lists the correlations between the Stage I

Measures and the BIDR. With the exception of self-image, peer associates and jealousy, the measures were not substantially correlated with the BIDR.

Furthermore, the direction of significant correlations tended to be consistent across the three subject groups. These results suggest little need to control for the BIDR in analyses involving Stage I measures.

Table 11  
Summary of Results from Stage I Measures

Scale	Alpha Reported	Alpha Obtained	Intimate Murderer		General Offender		Community Control		P
			mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	
Acceptance of Interpersonal Violence (Q22-27)	0.59	0.45	11.8	4.8	12.3	5.0	11.9	4.9	NS
Sex Role Stereotyping (Q28-36)	0.80	0.70	43.7	8.4	43.2	8.1	44.5	8.5	NS
Relationship Control (Q38-42)	N/S	0.43	15.4	2.8	15.6	2.3	16.3	2.5	NS
Patriarchal Beliefs (Q43-50)	0.79	0.70	32.7	4.1	32.9	4.0	33.4	4.6	NS
Your Patriarchal Attitudes (Q51a-58a)	0.76	0.70	15.3	1.3	15.6	1.0	15.6	0.8	NS
Other Mens Patriarchal Attitudes (Q51b-58b)	0.80	0.83	13.8	2.4	13.6	2.5	14.3	1.9	NS
Male Attitudes (Q59-63)	N/S	0.56	10.1	3.8	10.8	3.7	10.4	3.5	NS
Your Associates (Q64-75)	N/S	0.84	17.9	9.6	17.9	9.4	13.0	7.8	CC vs GO*** CC vs IM***

(table continues)

Scale	Alpha Reported	Alpha Obtained	Intimate Murderer		General Offender		Community Control		P
			mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	
Number of current friends (Q76)	N/A	N/A	11.6	15.8	10.4	9.9	14.0	15.6	NS
Routine Activities Scale (Q77a-77g)	0.73	0.76	18.8	7.8	20.1	7.2	14.3	5.7	CC vs GO*** CC vs IM***
Projected Image (Q78a-78e)	N/A	0.81	11.9	4.6	12.6	5.0	12.1	4.6	NS
Self Image (Q79a-79n)	N/A	0.99	52.3	8.9	53.2	8.9	53.8	8.0	NS
Promiscuous Sexual Behaviour (Q80-88)	N/A	0.40	48.8	35.6	65.7	78.0	38.0	38.7	CC vs GO***
Jealousy Scale (Q94-135)	N/A	0.90							
Self-Depreciation Envy			28.0	11.5	26.1	9.5	27.8	10.3	NS
Threat to Exclusive Relationship			34.5	12.6	32.8	10.8	34.0	12.2	NS
Dependency			26.7	7.9	23.8	7.2	26.9	7.7	GO vs CC**
Response to Jealousy (Q136-146)	N/A								
Intensity		0.85	42.3	8.0	41.2	8.4	42.0	7.5	NS
Extent		0.82	29.9	9.0	27.9	7.5	29.2	6.6	NS

CC = Community Controls ;GO = General Offenders; IM = Intimate Murderers; \* p < .05, \*\* p < .01,\*\*\* p < .001

Table 12

Pearson Correlation between Stage I Measures and BIDR factors (SDE & IM)

Scale	Intimate Murderer		General Offender		Community Control	
	SDE	IM	SDE	IM	SDE	IM
Acceptance of Interpersonal Violence (Q22-27)	.12	.12	.03	.03	-.04	.08
Sex Role Stereotyping (Q28-36)	.18	.20	.11	.03	.03	-.15
Relationship Control (Q38-42)	.15	.19	.13	.10	.11	.03
Patriarchal Beliefs (Q43-50)	-.08	-.18	.11	.08	-.01	-.18
Your Patriarchal Attitudes (Q51a-58a)	.13	-.01	.10	.09	.08	-.02
Other Mens Patriarchal Attitudes (Q51b-58b)	.04	.01	.14	.01	.12	-.05
Male Attitudes (Q59-63)	-.22	-.32**	-.09	-.40**	-.07	-.16
Your Associates (Q64-75)	-.29*	-.35*	-.22**	-.28**	-.39**	-.47**
Number of current friends (Q76)	-.22	-.12	.16	.00	.05	-.08
Routine Activities Scale (Q77a-77g)	-.07	-.20	.04	-.28**	.02	-.10
Projected Image (Q78a-78e)	.06	-.26	-.09	-.27**	-.26**	-.31**
Self Image (Q79a-79n)	.48**	.13	.47**	.17*	.30**	.08
Promiscuous Sexual Behaviour (Q80-88)	.07	-.08	-.12	-.12	-.02	-.17
Jealousy Scale (Q94-135)						
Threat to Exclusive Relationship	-.44**	-.31**	-.13**	-.12	-.37**	-.16
Self-Depreciation Envy	-.51**	-.43**	-.40**	-.16	-.33**	-.12
Dependency	-.37**	-.13	-.22**	-.09	-.07	.20*
Response to Jealousy (Q136-146)						
Intensity	-.04	-.21	.03	-.10	.03	.00
Extent	-.41**	-.40**	-.45**	-.21*	-.31**	-.01

Note. \* p < .05 (2-tailed significance); \*\* p < .01 (2-tailed significance)

Attitudinal Measures

The data yielded no significant group differences on any of the attitudinal measures selected to assess Stage I constructs (this included the Projected Image and Self Image scales).

Behavioural Measures

The Sexual Relationship History (SRH) scale targeted sexual history and behaviour. On the Promiscuous Sexual Behaviour (PSB) subscale general offenders appeared to be the most promiscuous, differing significantly from community controls  $F(2, 333) = 6.9, p < .001$ . Data from three of the more interesting PSB items are presented in Table 13.

Table 13

Sexual History

Item	Intimate Murderer		General Offender		Community Controls		F
	$\bar{x}$	SD	$\bar{x}$	SD	$\bar{x}$	SD	
Age started dating	15.3	2.3	15.0	3.2	16.1	2.1	GO vs CC $p < .004$
Age of first sexual experience with a woman	17.5	3.6	16.1	4.5	19.1	3.4	GO vs CC $p < .000$
Number of female sexual partners	22.7	61.1	27.7	53.5	8.9	16.3	GO vs CC $p < .009$

When asked whether they had ever had sex with a woman while in a relationship with another woman, 46% of the general offenders admitted to doing

so, compared to 43% of the intimate murderers and 30% of the community controls. Given that this question required a “yes” / “no” response, a Pearson Chi-square test was applied. A significant difference was obtained between community controls and general offenders ( $p < .01$ ).

Some of the SRH items not included in the PSB subscale provided interesting results. When questioned about their wife/girlfriend’s fidelity, community controls were the most confident in their partners’ fidelity, with 49% reporting that they were sure of their partner’s fidelity. In contrast 31% of the general offenders and only 21% of the intimate murderers expressed confidence in her fidelity. Similarly, intimate murderers were the most confident in their belief that their partners were unfaithful, with 43% reporting that they were sure of her infidelity. This compared to 27% for general offenders and 16% for community controls. These differences were statistically significant ( $\chi^2 = 23.73$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

The SRH also required subjects to reflect on their intimate relationships with women and identify, from five different options, what they believed to be the most difficult aspects of a relationship. A summary of responses is presented in Table 14. Efforts were made to combine some of the response categories in order to reduce the number of cells in the table with expected counts less than five; however, this could not be accomplished without losing some important categories. Consequently, the obtained Pearson chi-square statistic should be cautiously interpreted.

Table 14

Issues Subjects found most Difficult to deal with in their Intimate Relationships

Issue	Intimate Murderers			General Offenders			Community Controls		
	%	<u>n</u>	res	%	<u>n</u>	res	%	<u>n</u>	res
Starting the relationship	14	10	-3.0	11	15	-9.5	31.2	29	12.5
Keeping the relationship going	27.4	20	1.8	27.5	38	3.5	19.4	18	-5.3
Ending the relationship myself	27.4	20	-0.9	32.6	45	5.5	23.7	22	-4.6
My partner ending the relationship	20.5	15	1.3	16.7	23	-2.9	20.4	19	1.6
Establishing trust	1.4	1	-1.4	5.8	8	3.5	1	1	-2.1
No particular difficulties	2.7	2	-0.2	2.9	4	-0.1	3.2	3	0.2
Other	6.8	5	2.0	3.5	5	0.0	1	1	-2.3

**Note.** res = residual; A positive residual indicates that more cases were observed than would be expected if the null hypothesis were true. A negative residual indicates that fewer cases were observed than would be expected if the null hypothesis were true. Residual should be cautiously considered for cells in the table above containing less than 5 subjects.

Associates

In accordance with Andrews and Bonta (1994) the role of male associates in supporting the attitudes and behaviours measured by the scales reviewed above was explored. There was no significant difference between the groups concerning the number of friends they currently have. When asked to report on the amount of time they spend involved in activities with other men, via the Routine Activities Scale (RAS), there was no difference between the inmate



groups; however, the community group differed significantly from both general offenders and intimate murders  $F(2, 320) = 21.6, p < .000$ . This finding reveals that in a typical month, when not incarcerated, subjects from the two inmate groups spend significantly more time engaged in activities with other men, compared to men in the community control group. On the Your Associates Measure (YAM) the two inmate groups did not differ significantly; however, the community group differed significantly from the intimate murderers  $F(2, 330) = 10.4, p < .001$  and from the general offenders  $F(2, 330) = 10.4, p < .000$ . This suggests that association with a peer group that endorses male dominant attitudes and the abuse of women was more common among inmates in the study.

### Personality

On the Dependency factor of the Jealousy Scale, general offenders scored significantly lower than community controls  $F(2, 328) = 6.2, p < .007$ . Contrary to the Binary Model, this suggests that general offenders rather than intimate murderers are more concerned with “the primacy of the romantic partner in [their] life and the degree to which the meaning of life is contingent upon the relationship with the partner” (Hupka et al, 1985; p. 434). This finding does not support dependency, as measured by the Jealousy Scale, as a correlate of intimate femicide. There were no significant group differences on either the Threat to Exclusive Relationship factor or the Self-Depreciation Envy factor of the Jealousy scale.

The Response to Jealousy scale contained 11 questions, each containing three parts. To part one, the respondent identified an emotion that corresponded to the jealousy provoking situation. In part two, he reported the intensity associated with the emotion and in part three, he identified the extent to which the situation would bother him. All three parts of this scale were analysed independently and then the items from part one were weighted by responses to part two. No significant group differences were observed.

### Summary

With the exception of a few interesting findings gleaned from some individual items none of the principal Stage I measures generated any significant results. In keeping with the Binary Model, intimate murderers did not differ from other men on most measures of patriarchy, gender stereotyping or the acceptance of interpersonal violence. This supports the Binary Model's contention that men in Western Societies espouse a common value system regardless of whether they have killed/abused a female partner or not. The data relating to male associates was consistent with the position that frequent contact with men who support male dominant attitudes and the abuse of women is a risk factor for abuse and femicide. The finding that intimate murderers were more apt to identify their wife/girlfriend as having been unfaithful supports the role of perceived or actual infidelity in intimate femicide.

### Stage II (Precipitating Event) Results

The results from the Stage II measures, which target variables that may

function as antecedents or precipitators of criminal behaviour and specifically intimate femicide, are summarized in Table 15. The significance levels reported were adjusted using the Bonferoni approach and is based on an alpha of .01.

Table 15

Summary of Results from Stage II Measures

Scale	Alpha Reported	Alpha Obtained	Intimate Murderer		General Offender		Community Control		P
			mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	
Life Satisfaction (Q92)	N/A	0.89	30.4	10.0	28.7	9.2	31.4	6.8	NS
Reasons for relationship split (Q91a-d)	N/A	0.50	2.9	4.4	3.4	4.2	2.3	7.5	NS
Marital Adjustment Test (Q150)	0.90	0.74	95.0	27.1	105.1	23.6	106.2	29.4	GO vs IM * CC vs IM **
Conflict Tactics Scale (Total) (Q93)	N/A	0.89	31.8	13.3	28.8	10.5	26.8	9.7	CC vs IM **
CTS Physical	N/A		12.4	5.0	10.7	3.2	10.2	2.8	IM vs GO **
CTS Psychological	N/A		19.4	9.4	18.1	8.3	16.6	7.5	IM vs CC ***
Consequences Scale (Q149)	N/A	0.88	2.8	4.4	1.8	3.2	0.32	1.1	NS CC vs GO*** CC vs IM****

CC=Community Controls; GO=General Offenders; IM=Intimate Murderers; \* p < .05, \*\* p < .01, \*\*\* p < .001, \*\*\*\* p < .0001

Table 16 presents the correlations between responses to Stage II measures and the BIDR. As with the Stage I measures, the correlations between the BIDR and Stage II measures were similar across groups. Consequently, the BIDR was not controlled for in subsequent analyses involving Stage II measures.

Table 16

Pearson Correlation between Stage II Measures and BIDR factors (SDE & IM)

Scale	Intimate Murderer		General Offender		Community Control	
	SDE	IM	SDE	IM	SDE	IM
Life Satisfaction (Q92)	.23	.21	.14	.04	.55**	.33**
Reason for relationship split (Q91a-d)	-.24	-.18	-.08	-.24**	-.18	-.12
Marital Adjustment Test (Q150)	.18	.29*	.20*	.18*	.28**	.30**
Conflict Tactics Scale (Q93)						
Total Score	-.39**	-.35**	-.16	-.30**	-.31**	-.38**
CTS Physical Abuse	-.30*	-.23*	-.02	-.07	-.21*	-.20*
CTS Psychological Abuse	-.40**	-.38**	-.20*	-.35**	-.32**	-.41**
Consequences Scale (Q149)	-.17	-.08	.05	-.02	-.17	-.16

Note. \*  $p < .05$  (2-tailed significance); \*\*  $p < .01$  (2-tailed significance)

Life Stressors

Efforts to understand criminal behaviour often focus on events that lead up to or preceded the offence. Included among these antecedents are life stressors. This section considers the more distal stressors reported by men in the two inmate groups during the year prior to the commission of their present offence(s). In a later section attention will be devoted to more immediate antecedents,

specifically those that existed in the 24-hour period before the offence. For comparison, subjects in the community control group were asked whether they had experienced any of the same stressors within the past year. SPSS crosstabs was run and the chi-square test applied to assess the null hypothesis that groups do not differ. Unfortunately, the low frequency of affirmative responses to the life stress items made it difficult to carry out reliable tests of significance due to violations of the assumptions required for a chi-square test (most expected cell counts greater than 5 and none less than 1). Despite this limitation, the data is provided as a matter of interest in Table 17. Noteworthy, is the finding that a significantly greater number of intimate murderers ( $p < .02$ ) had a wife/girlfriend leave them during the year preceding their murder of a partner. Also worthy of note is that 10% of the intimate murderers reported that they had been arrested and/or charged for assaulting or threatening an intimate female partner within the year preceding the commission of their offence. During the one year time period intimate murderers experienced the highest percentage of hospitalizations for mental health reasons (6.7%).

Table 17

Problems Experienced by Inmates in the Year Prior to their Offence or in the Past Year for Nonincarcerated Subjects

Problem	Intimate Murderers			General Offenders			Community Controls			p
	n	%	res	n	%	res	n	%	res	
hospitalized (physical)	10	11.2	-1.8	26	17.6	6.4	9	8.8	-4.5	NS
hospitalized (mental)	6	6.7	3.9	1	0.7	-2.5	1	1.0	-1.4	.006*
seeing a lawyer about separation	7	7.9	3.1	2	1.4	-4.5	6	5.9	1.5	.04*
seeing a mediator about separation	3	3.4	1.7	1	0.7	1.2	1	1.0	-0.5	NS*
marital counselling	5	5.6	1.3	4	2.7	-2.1	5	4.9	0.8	NS*
arrested / charged for assaulting / threatening wife girlfriend	9	10.1	4.3	9	6.1	1.1	0	0.0	-5.4	.007*
substance abuse program	6	6.7	1.0	13	8.8	4.7	0	0.0	-5.7	.01*
male batters program	3	3.4	1.9	1	0.7	-0.7	0	0.0	-1.2	NS*
wife/girlfriend to shelter	4	4.5	2.7	1	0.7	-1.2	0	0.0	-1.5	.02*
you left wife/girlfriend	14	15.7	2.4	24	16.2	4.8	6	5.9	-7.2	.03*
wife/girlfriend left you	20	22.5	6.9	22	14.9	0.2	8	7.8	-7.0	.02*

Note. res = residual: A positive residual indicates that more cases were observed than would be expected if the null hypothesis were true. A negative residual indicates that fewer cases were observed than would be expected if the null hypothesis were true.

\* indicates that the chi-square assumption of most expected cell counts greater than 5 and none less than 1 was not met.

Similar to the data reported in Table 17, inmates in this study were asked

questions relating to stressors experienced by both themselves and their wives during the year preceding their offence. On most of the issues explored, the two inmate groups did not differ significantly. In other words, intimate murderers and their partners did not encounter significantly different life stressors compared to general offenders and their partners. The notable exception for inmates was that significantly more intimate murderers (39%) had separated from their partners during the year preceding their offence ( $p < .004$ ). This compared to 21% for the general offenders. The Life Satisfaction Scale failed to yield any significant group differences.

#### Intimate Relationships

The Marital Adjustment Test (MAT), Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS), the Consequences Scale (CS), and the Reasons for Relationship Split Inventory (Reasons) offered insight into the relationship between the men in this study and their intimate female partners. On the MAT intimate murderers scored significantly lower than both the general offenders ( $p < .02$ ) and the community controls ( $p < .01$ )  $F(2, 332) = 4.8$ , reflecting significantly poorer marital adjustment. When considered in its entirety, the data compiled with the CTS (total score) revealed that intimate murderers scored as significantly more abusive toward their intimate female partners than community controls  $F(2, 332) = 4.8, p < .007$ . Analysis of the two factors of the CTS revealed that on the Physical Abuse factor intimate murderers scored significantly higher than both general offenders ( $p < .002$ ) and community controls ( $p < .000$ )  $F(2, 332) = 9.0$ .



This is consistent with the findings of the MAT and identifies intimate murderers, at their own admission, as the most physically abusive men in this study. This finding may, however, be the direct result of these men reporting behaviours that were related to the murder of their partner, for instance, “used a knife or gun on her,” the last item on the CTS. There were no significant group differences on the Psychological Abuse factor of the CTS.

When between group differences were explored for total scores on the CS, intimate murderers and general offenders reported having experienced significantly more consequences due to their abusive behaviour relative to the community control group,  $p < .000$  and  $p < .001$  respectively  $F(2, 322) = 14.2$ . Table 18 lists the individual items from the CS and the percentage of men from each group who report having experienced such consequences in response to their abusive behaviours.

Table 18

Percentage of Subjects whose Abusive Behaviours Attracted Intervention

Intervention	Once			More than once		
	IM	GO	CC	IM	GO	CC
Partner left temporarily	18	24	5	11	8	4
Partner left permanently	10	18	5	5	6	0
Police called	14	30	1	8	4	1
Talked to by police	15	22	1	5	2	1
Ordered to leave house by police	5	10	1	4	0	0
Arrested for assaulting / harassing	15	18	0	6	5	0
Convicted for assaulting / harassing	13	20	0	5	3	0
Sentenced for assaulting / harassing	12	21	0	3	1	0
Treatment recommended	7	7	3	3	3	0
Attended treatment	3	6	1	4	3	1

Note. IM = intimate murderer; GO = general offender; CC = community controls

The Reasons for Relationship Split scale failed to reveal any significant group differences.

The big question. Why?

Intimate murderers were presented an open-ended question requiring them to identify their primary reason(s) for killing their partner. Sixty-eight of the subjects provided a reason; 49 gave one basic reason and 19 gave more than one reason. Each reason in a multiple response was considered independently. All reasons were reviewed and themes appearing with high frequency were used to establish seven groupings. Reasons involving anger, loss of control or

jealousy (jealousy often appeared in reasons mentioning anger and loss of control) were grouped under the theme of "anger." Any reference to the victim engaging in an extramarital affair was grouped under the theme of "infidelity." References to the victim engaging in a behaviour that provoked the man (e.g., insulting him; attacking him; taking/damaging his property; blackmailing him) were grouped under the theme of "provocation." Mention of the offender's feelings of depression, thoughts of suicide, or stress were grouped as "dysphoria". A reason referring to the offender being under the influence of alcohol or drugs was classified as "intoxication". References to the victim having left the relationship or making plans to do so were grouped under the theme of "estrangement". Lastly, reasons appearing with low frequency (e.g., "I was psychotic"; "I wanted the insurance money so I could marry another woman"; "she asked me to help her commit suicide"; "self defence") were placed into an "other" category. The data based on these groupings are summarized in Table 19. The most frequent reason cited referred to the man's anger and/or loss of self control; however, this may be related to other frequently cited reasons, such as "her infidelity", "her provocation of him", "his intoxication", etc. Clearly, there is overlap in the reasons offered, given the response format used. Of the reason provided by intimate murderers it was interesting to note that few subjects attributed the murder to an accident (n = 1) or self defence (n = 3). Interestingly, when intimate murderers were asked to respond to the statement "in my interaction with the victim just prior to the offence she said or did something

which provoked me to act as I did", 70% (58) agreed.

Table 19

Reasons given by Intimate Murders for Killing their Female Partners

Reason	n	Locus of attribution			Justification	Excuse
		Offender	Victim	Situation		
Anger / lost control / jealousy	25	23	0	2	2	23
Dysphoria / stress	16	11	0	5	1	15
Her infidelity	13	0	13	0	13	0
She provoked / attacked me	10	0	10	0	10	0
Intoxication	8	8	0	0	0	8
Estrangement	8	2	6	0	7	1
Other	17	7	3	7	10	7
<b>Total</b>	<b>97</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>54</b>

A cursory review of Table 19, reveals that the majority of intimate murderers attributed the murder of their partner to variables related to themselves and the reasons they offered tended to be in the form of an excuse.

Summary

Data generated from Stage II measures reveal several antecedents occurring with significantly greater frequency among men who went on to kill their partner. In the 12-month period preceding the killing of their partner, intimate

murderers were more likely to have been hospitalized for mental health reasons, arrested/charged for assaulting/threatening their wife or girlfriend, and to have their wife or girlfriend leave them. In keeping with the preceding, intimate murderers evidenced a significantly poorer level of marital adjustment compared to men in the other two groups. In at least 10% of the cases of intimate femicide, the man's abuse of his partner had brought him to the attention of the authorities. The most frequent motive cited for killing ones intimate partner related to the man's anger, loss of emotional control, and/or jealousy.

#### Stage III (Lethal Act) Results

The results from the Stage III measures are summarized in Table 20. Multiple comparisons were adjusted for using the Bonferroni approach and are based on an alpha of .01. Table 21 outlines the relationship between Stage III measure and the BIDR. This table reveals a pattern of significant positive correlations between measures of aggression and the BIDR. Furthermore, this pattern is consistent across all groups. Saunders (1991) noted that such findings may be due to the possibility that people with a high need for approval really do have less aggression or that it may be due to a conformist attitude rather than denial. Similarly, the high positive correlations between the BIDR and Overcontrolled Hostility is not unusual given the characteristics associated with an overcontrolled individual. In light of the foregoing, it was not deemed necessary to control for the BIDR in analyses involving Stage III measures.

Table 20

Summary of Results from Stage III Measures

Scale	Alpha Reported	Alpha Obtained	Intimate Murderer		General Offender		Community Control		P
			mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	
Aggression Questionnaire (Total) (Q152-180)	N/A	0.88	108.7	17.4	105.1	15.7	109.5	15.2	NS
Anger	N/A	0.75	27.8	4.7	26.6	4.5	27.1	5.0	NS
Hostility	N/A	0.85	30.2	6.2	29.8	6.5	30.8	5.5	NS
Physical Aggression	N/A	0.77	34.0	7.2	32.2	6.9	34.5	6.0	CC vs GO*
Verbal Aggression	N/A	0.62	16.6	3.5	16.2	2.9	17.1	3.4	NS
Vengeance Scale (Q181a-t)	0.92	0.90	47.3	15.0	53.6	19.4	53.8	15.5	IM vs GO * IM vs CC *
Overcontrolled Hostility (Q182-212)	0.56	0.32	15.2	3.3	14.6	2.8	13.4	2.8	CC vs GO ** CC vs IM ***
Anger Questionnaire (Q213a-e)	N/A	0.63	6.7	1.3	6.6	1.3	6.3	1.3	NS

CC=Community Controls; GO=General Offenders; IM=Intimate Murderers, \* p < .05, \*\* p < .01, \*\*\* p < .000

Table 21

Pearson Correlation between Stage III Measures and BIDR factors (SDE & IM)

Scale	Intimate Murderer		General Offender		Community Control	
	SDE	IM	SDE	IM	SDE	IM
Aggression Questionnaire (Q152-180)						
Total	.39**	.57**	.27**	.51**	.55**	.53**
Anger	.30**	.47**	.29**	.33**	.48**	.36**
Hostility	.45**	.37**	.36**	.35**	.48**	.46**
Physical Aggression	.28*	.52**	.09	.48**	.42**	.49**
Verbal Aggression	.14	.46**	.10	.26**	.26**	.25**
Vengeance Scale (Q181a-t)	-.12	-.15	-.06	-.41	-.32**	-.28**
Overcontrolled Hostility (Q182-212)	.40**	.47**	.16	.41**	.20	.20
Anger Questionnaire (Q213a-e)	.19	.09	.15	.13	.17	-.06

Note. \* =  $p < .05$  (2-tailed significance); \*\* =  $p < .01$  (2-tailed significance)

Of the Stage III measures the Vengeance Scale successfully differentiated intimate murderers from general offenders ( $p < .02$ ) and from community controls ( $p < .03$ ),  $F(2, 327) = 4.6$ . Unfortunately, this difference was not in the expected direction: the intimate murderers appear to be significantly less vengeful. This finding may be associated with the results from the Overcontrolled Hostility scale, which identified intimate murderers as the most overcontrolled group of men in this study. Their mean score, however, only differed significantly from community controls  $F(2, 323) = 9.3$ ,  $p < .000$ . Both the Anger and the Aggression questionnaires failed to significantly differentiate intimate murderers from other men. On the physical aggression factor of the Aggression

Questionnaire, community controls scored significantly higher  $F(2, 324) = 4.1, p < .02$  than general offenders.

The offence information questionnaire was used to illicit additional information on the circumstances related to intimate femicide. In response to specific questions about the murder of their partner 50% of intimate murderers stated that except for what others have told them they have no detailed recollection of the offence. Only 11% of the intimate murderers claimed to have planned to kill their partner prior to seeing her. This is interesting given that 19% of these men are serving a First Degree Murder sentence, thereby suggesting that the courts concluded that premeditation was involved more often than the men in the intimate murderer group report. Regardless of whether the murder was premeditated, 19% of these men reported that their actions at the instant of offence were intended to kill the victim, perhaps explaining the higher than expected number of First Degree Murder sentences. Most of the intimate murderers (72%) admitted to using a weapon in the commission of the lethal act. Consistent with observations of Cooper (1994) and Stout (1993), Table 22 shows that when a weapon was used it was likely to be a knife or hatchet (55%), which according to Table 23 was readily available. In 60% of the cases the weapon was available in the perpetrator's home.



Table 22

Murder Weapon in Intimate Femicides

Weapon	Frequency ( <u>n</u> = 64)	Percent
Knife / Hatchet	35	54.7%
Rifle / Shot gun	11	17.1%
Bat / Club / Hammer / Rope	8	12.5%
Hand gun	8	12.5%

Table 23

How Murder Weapon was Obtained

Means	Frequency ( <u>n</u> = 60)	Percent
Weapon was in the house	36	60.0%
Bought it	10	16.6%
Weapon was in the vicinity of the crime	6	10.0%
Don't know	4	6.6%
Stole it	3	5.0%
Borrowed it	1	1.6%

Of the 29% (25) of intimate murderers who did not use a weapon to kill their partners, the majority 60% (15) stated that they strangled or suffocated her, 28% (7) beat her to death and 4% (1) killed her in a fire, the remaining 8% (2) stated they did not know or could not remember how they killed their victim.

Emotions play a critical role in the chain of events leading up to an offence

(Zamble & Quinsey, 1991). To better understand the emotions that motivated intimate murders to kill their partners, data from the Emotions subscale was analysed. Because the data reported here focuses on the period of time from 24 hours before the murder to 24 hours after, it offers insight into more proximal antecedents to the offence than those discussed earlier. As our focus shifts to the emotions men recall experiencing shortly before, during, and after the murder of their partner we are reminded that 70% of the intimate murderers claimed that in their interaction with the victim just prior to the offence she said or did something to provoke him to kill her.

Principal components analysis (PCA) was performed to consolidate the 28 variables in the Emotions scale to a smaller set of components. The sample size of 151 general offenders and 89 intimate murderers, relative to the 28 variables in the Emotions scale, was large enough to conduct PCA (see Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989 p. 603). The two inmate groups were pooled because it was expected that only component scores and not the component structure would differ for these groups. This was confirmed by running separate PCA's for each of the two inmate groups, the result of which yielded almost identical components. Pooling the data produced the added benefits of a larger sample size.

Following the initial PCA components with eigenvalues of greater than 1 were examined. The optimal number of components was, however, derived from performing several PCA's, each time specifying a different number of

components, repeating the scree test, and examining the residual correlation matrix. Orthogonal (Varimax) rotation was used to simplify the interpretation of components. This type of rotation offers simplicity in the reporting of results and has advantages over oblique rotation when it comes to using factor scores as dependent variables.

The components obtained through PCA provide a concise understanding of how offenders reported feeling at various intervals prior to, during, and after the commission of their offence. Table 24 provides a listing of these components and their eigenvalues along with the variables that comprise each factor and their loadings from a rotated factor matrix. From Table 24 it is apparent that the composition of factors (e.g., dysphoric) change across time.

Table 24

Factors and their Eigenvalues and Variables that Define each Factor and their Loadings

	24hrs Before	At the Moment	During	24 hrs After	Now
	<b>Dysphoric (7.8)</b>	<b>Dysphoric (5.7)</b>	<b>Dysphoric (7.0)</b>	<b>Shame -Fear (3.5)</b>	<b>Fear (3.2)</b>
	depressed (.67)	depressed (.73)	sad (.64)	ashamed (.84)	nervous (.78)
	tired (.55)	helpless (.72)	hurt pride (.67)	embarrassed (.79)	rejected (.74)
	helpless (.67)	ashamed (.79)	depressed (.77)	nervous (.67)	desperate (.72)
	ashamed (.76)	embarrassed (.71)	tired (.71)	humiliated (.63)	afraid (.75)
F	embarrassed (.78)	rejected (.81)	helpless (.82)	like a failure (.65)	frustrated (.65)
A	nervous (.64)	like a failure (.81)	ashamed (.66)	afraid (.70)	scared (.75)
C	rejected (.68)	frustrated (.71)	embarrassed (.70)	scared (.68)	
T	desperate (.67)	sad (.74)	rejected (.68)		
O	humiliated (.79)	hurt pride (.73)	humiliated (.76)		
R	like a failure (.81)	humiliated (.80)	like a failure (.76)		
1	afraid (.63)		hopeless (.85)		
	hopeless (.81)		frustrated (.68)		
	frustrated (.72)		lonely (.81)		
	lonely (.80)				
	sad (.60)				
	like someone else (.49)				

(table continues)

	24 hrs Before	At the Moment	During	24 hrs After	Now
	<b>Good</b> <b>(1.8)</b>	<b>Fear</b> <b>(1.6)</b>	<b>Anger</b> <b>(1.6)</b>	<b>Rejected</b> <b>(1.9)</b>	<b>Shame</b> <b>(2.1)</b>
F					
A	happy (-.70)	nervous (.71)	rage (.86)	rejected (.74)	depressed
C	at peace	afraid (.68)	angry (.80)	cheated (.78)	(.60)
T	(-.72)	scared (.80)	cheated (.52)	desperate	ashamed
O	in control			(.65)	(.80)
R	(-.72)			frustrated	embarrassed
	relieved			(.57)	(.83)
2	(-.50)				humiliated
					(.61)
	<b>Anger</b> <b>(1.7)</b>	<b>Anger</b> <b>(1.3)</b>	<b>Fear</b> <b>(1.5)</b>	<b>Dysphoric</b> <b>(1.8)</b>	<b>Helpless</b> <b>(1.9)</b>
F					
A					
C	rage (.68)	rage (.80)	scared (.64)	tired (.74)	tired (.66)
T	angry (.79)	angry (.79)	nervous (.76)	helpless (.56)	helpless (.74)
O	cheated (.55)		afraid (.71)	hopeless	hopeless
R	hurt pride			(.58)	(.70)
	(.59)			lonely (.55)	lonely (.61)
3				sad (.57)	
	<b>* Excited</b> <b>(.67)</b>	<b>Good</b> <b>(2.0)</b>	<b>Good</b> <b>(1.9)</b>	<b>Good</b> <b>(1.6)</b>	<b>At peace</b> <b>(2.2)</b>
F					
A					
C	excited (.82)	happy (.70)	happy (.66)	happy (.74)	happy (.67)
T		at peace	in control	at peace	at peace
O		(.70)	(.63)	(.76)	(.80)
R		in control	relieved (.56)	relieved (.72)	in control
		(.67)	excited (.62)		(.77)
4		relieved (.70)	at peace		relieved (.70)
			(.64)		
				<b>Anger</b> <b>(1.3)</b>	<b>Anger</b> <b>(.82)</b>
F					
A					
C				rage (.81)	rage (.64)
T				angry (.82)	angry (.64)
O					
R					
5					

(table continues)

	24 hrs Before	At the Moment	During	24 hrs After	Now
F A C T O R					*Nothing <b>(.50)</b> numb (.71)
6					

Note. \* not a true factor, this represents a single variable; eigenvalues (bold) are the sum of squared loadings.

To simplify further analyses, variables that consistently defined a factor across the five time intervals were combined to form scales related to each factor. Table 25 lists these scales, the variables that comprise them, and their corresponding Cronbach's coefficient alpha. The table shows alpha levels ranging from .62 to .95, thereby supporting the use of the scales as reliable measures.

Table 25

Scales Measuring Emotions Associated with the Offence at Different Time

Intervals

Factor / Scale	24 hrs Before		At the Moment		During		24 hrs After		Now	
	$\alpha$	$\lambda$	$\alpha$	$\lambda$	$\alpha$	$\lambda$	$\alpha$	$\lambda$	$\alpha$	$\lambda$
Dysphoric	.94	5.0	.95	5.4	.95	.52	.92	1.3	.90	2.0
depressed helpless rejected humiliated hopeless frustrated lonely hurt pride like failure										
Good	.72	1.8	.70	1.9	.62	1.6	.70	1.9	.74	2.2
happy at peace in control relieved										
Anger	.80	1.1	.87	1.3	.88	1.4	.82	1.3	.71	0.8
rage angry										
Fear	N/A	N/A	.87	1.6	.87	1.5	.83	1.4	.87	1.7
nervous afraid scared										

(table continues)

Factor / Scale	24 hrs Before		At the Moment		During		24 hrs After		Now	
	$\alpha$	$\lambda$	$\alpha$	$\lambda$	$\alpha$	$\lambda$	$\alpha$	$\lambda$	$\alpha$	$\lambda$
Shame	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	.88	1.7	.88	1.7
ashamed embarr - assed humiliated										
Excited	N/A	0.7	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Nothing / Numb	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	0.5

Note.  $\alpha$  = alpha level and  $\lambda$  = eigenvalue.

Scores for each scale in Table 25 were calculated by computing the average of a subject's score on the items comprising that scale. Missing values were omitted during the computation of factor structure but prorated when generating scale scores. Using these scores as dependent variables, the mean scores for the intimate murderers were contrasted with those of the general offenders. From Table 26 it is interesting to note that there were no significant group differences up to 24 hours before the commission of the offence. At the moment the offender came into contact with the victim, or for those whose offence did not involve a victim, just prior to the offence, significant differences become apparent. Intimate murderers experienced significantly more intense feelings of dysphoria, anger, and rejection. During the offence general offenders reported significantly stronger positive feelings (good), which continued 24 hours



after the offence and was also present at the time of their participation in the study. In contrast, during the offence intimate murderers experienced significantly more intense negative feelings (dysphoria, anger, fear, shame, rejection). Intimate murderers were also more likely to experience a feeling of numbness or absence of affect. During the 24-hour period following the offence and at the time of their participation in this study (now) the level of anger reported by intimate murderers decreased so that the two groups no longer differed on this emotion. With the exception of a sense of numbness, intimate murderers continued to experience significantly stronger feelings of dysphoria, fear, shame, and rejection from the 24-hour period following the murder of their partner to the present time. For whatever reason, general offenders claimed to be experiencing strong feelings of excitement during their current incarceration.

Table 26

Intimate Murderers versus General Offenders

Emotion	24 hrs Before	At the Moment	During	24 hrs After	Now
Dysphoric	ns (.27)	<b>.02</b> $\eta^2 = .03$ IM high	<b>.000</b> $\eta^2 = .11$ IM high	<b>.000</b> $\eta^2 = .08$ IM high	<b>.003</b> $\eta^2 = .05$ IM high
Good	ns (.60)	ns (.50)	<b>.02</b> $\eta^2 = .04$ GO high	<b>.02</b> $\eta^2 = .03$ GO high	<b>.03</b> $\eta^2 = .03$ GO high
Anger	ns (.63)	<b>.02</b> $\eta^2 = .03$ IM high	<b>.000</b> $\eta^2 = .17$ IM high	ns (.15)	ns (.41)
Fear	ns (.35)	ns (.88)	<b>.04</b> $\eta^2 = .03$ IM high	<b>.004</b> $\eta^2 = .05$ IM high	<b>.04</b> $\eta^2 = .03$ IM high
Shame	ns (.40)	ns (.12)	<b>.01</b> $\eta^2 = .04$ IM high	<b>.005</b> $\eta^2 = .04$ IM high	<b>.04</b> $\eta^2 = .02$ IM high
Rejected	ns (.07)	<b>.001</b> $\eta^2 = .06$ IM high	<b>.000</b> $\eta^2 = .14$ IM high	<b>.02</b> $\eta^2 = .03$ IM high	<b>.04</b> $\eta^2 = .02$ IM high
*Nothing	ns (.72)	ns (.14)	<b>.000</b> $\eta^2 = .16$ IM high	<b>.001</b> $\eta^2 = .06$ IM high	ns (.73)
*Excited	ns (.12)	ns (.60)	ns (.91)	ns (.19)	<b>.01</b> $\eta^2 = .04$ GO high

Note. \* not a true factor, this represents a single variable; ns = no significant difference; Along with the Eta squared ( $\eta^2$ ) values is the group that scored high on the factor (GO = general offender & IM = intimate murderer).

Because the emphasis in this paper is on murderers and it has been

suggested that intimate homicides differ from other homicides (Parker & Toth, 1990; Avakame, 1998; Landau & Hattis-Rolef, 1998) it seemed reasonable to not only compare intimate murderers to general offenders but more specifically also to other murderers. Consequently, the 28 nonintimate murders (those whose victim was someone other than an intimate female partner) included in the general offender group were compared to the intimate murderers and the findings presented in Table 27. As in the previous analysis, the groups do not differ significantly up to 24 hours prior to the offence. At the moment they came in contact with the victim, as well as during the murder, intimate murderers reported significantly stronger feelings of dysphoria and rejection. During the offence, intimate murderers also reported great feelings of anger and a numbing of emotions. Noteworthy, 24 hours after the offence the anger of the intimate murderer appears to have lessened and it was the other murderers who experienced significantly stronger feelings of anger. Consistent with the data on general offenders reported in Table 26 other murderers reported feelings of excitement at the time of their participation in the study.

Table 27

Intimate Murderers versus Other Murderers

Emotion	24 hrs Before	At the Moment	During	24 hrs After	Now
Dysphoric	ns (.21)	<b>.05</b> $\eta^2 = .05$ IM high	<b>.01</b> $\eta^2 = .09$ IM high	ns (.09)	ns (.25)
Good	ns (.94)	ns (.97)	ns (.53)	ns (.44)	ns (.35)
Anger	ns (.47)	ns (.19)	<b>.01</b> $\eta^2 = .08$ IM high	<b>.05</b> $\eta^2 = .05$ OM high	ns (.23)
Fear	ns (.60)	ns (.60)	ns (.91)	ns (.48)	ns (.14)
Shame	ns (.19)	ns (.07)	ns (.12)	ns (.17)	ns (.66)
Rejected	ns (.12)	<b>.01</b> $\eta^2 = .08$ IM high	<b>.01</b> $\eta^2 = .10$ IM high	ns (.81)	ns (.58)
*Nothing	ns (.71)	ns (.30)	<b>.05</b> $\eta^2 = .05$ IM high	ns (.52)	ns (.58)
*Excited	ns (.51)	ns (.78)	ns (.36)	ns (.75)	<b>.04</b> $\eta^2 = .05$ OM high

Note. \* not a true factor, this represents a single variable; ns = no significant difference. Along with the Eta squared ( $\eta^2$ ) values is the group that scored high on the factor (IM = intimate murderer & OM = other murderers).

Data from Stage III measures revealed that intimate murderers were more over-controlled and less vengeful than men in the other two groups. Intimate murderers did not differ significantly from other men on measures of anger and aggression.

Data concerning the act of intimate femicide suggests that these murders are primarily unpremeditated attacks in which the man uses a weapon that was readily available in the home to kill his partner. Attention to the emotions preceding, during, and following an intimate murder were contrasted with those related to other offences. Compared to general offenders, intimate murderers reported significantly stronger feelings of dysphoria, anger, and rejection at the moment they came into contact with the victim. These emotions persisted during the offence where intimate murderers also reported strong feelings of fear, shame, and in some cases, an absence of emotion. All of these emotions (except anger) persisted 24 hours after the offence. At the time of their participation in this study intimate murderers continued to report significantly stronger feelings of dysphoria, fear, shame, and rejection compared to general offenders who, in contrast, reported feeling good, and excited. Compared to other murders, intimate femicides appear to have been triggered by feelings of dysphoria and rejection. Perhaps contributing to the brutality of most intimate femicides, intimate murderers reported experiencing strong feelings of anger, dysphoria and rejection during the offence or an absence of emotion ("blacking out"). For about one fifth of the intimate murderers, their intention at the time of the assault was to kill the victim. The only emotion that significantly differentiated the two groups of murderers after the murder was the presence of anger among nonintimate murderers. At the time of their participation in this study, nonintimate murderers were more likely to report a feeling of excitement.

### Stage IV (Post Murder) Results

The critical element in Stage IV of the Binary Model was the relationship between suicide and intimate femicide. Items from the Suicide Questionnaire were crosstabulated and tested for significance using the Pearson chi-square test. Table 28 reveals that intimate murderers were significantly more likely to have had suicidal ideations and to have attempted suicide.

Table 28

#### Suicide History

Suicide Item	Intimate Murderers	General Offenders	Community Controls	Pearson chi-square
Thought of killing myself	63% (54)	42% (63)	29% (29)	.00
Attempted suicide	48% (41)	19% (28)	3% (3)	.00

Table 29 provides data on the subgroup of men who reported having attempted suicide at some time in their lives. When the number of suicide attempts was put to an ANOVA with a Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons ( $\alpha = .01$ ), the mean number of suicide attempts failed to differ significantly across groups. Data from the number of suicide attempts that required hospitalization was crosstabulated. The obtained Pearson chi-square was significant  $p < .000$ . Intimate murderers were much more likely to require hospitalization for a suicide attempt, suggesting that these attempts may have been more severe than those of other subjects.

Table 29

Summary of Data for Subjects who have Attempted Suicide

Item	Intimate Murderers ( $n = 41$ )	General Offenders ( $n = 28$ )	Community Controls ( $n = 3$ )	P
number of suicide attempts	$\bar{x} = 2.0$ SD = 1.7	$\bar{x} = 2.0$ SD = 1.4	$\bar{x} = 1.0$ SD = 0	NS
hospitalization required	30.1% (25)	10.2% (15)	1.0% (1)	.000
once	27.7% (23)	8.8% (13)	1.0% (1)	NS
twice	2.4% (2)	0.7% (1)	0	NS
three times	0	0.7% (1)	0	NS
attempts before recent offence	$\bar{x} = 1.1$ SD = 1.4	$\bar{x} = 1.5$ SD = 1.4	N/A	.24
planned suicide as part of offence	Yes = 18	Yes = 13	N/A	.00
attempted suicide as result of offence	Yes = 27	Yes = 10	N/A	.00

The data revealed that 25 of the 41 intimate murderers with a history of suicidal behaviour had attempted suicide prior to their most recent offence. This suggests that overall 29% of the intimate murderers had experienced feelings of hopelessness and desperation sufficient enough to prompt a suicide attempt at some point in their life, prior to killing their partners. In comparison 19 of the 28 general offenders with a history of having attempted suicide had done so prior to

their most recent offence. An analysis of the mean number of suicide attempts before the most recent offence failed to identify any significant group differences.

Table 29 further shows that 18 (23%) of the intimate murderers reported having planned to commit suicide as part of their offence, this compared to 13 (9%) of the general offenders. This difference was significant  $p < .000$ . When it came to actually making a suicide attempt in relation to the offence, there was a sharp increase among intimate murderers with 27 (31%) of these men having attempted suicide shortly after killing their partner. In contrast there was a slight decrease among the general offenders with 10 (7%) of these men reporting a suicide attempt shortly after their offence. The two inmate groups differed significantly ( $p < .000$ ) on rates of suicide attempts following the offence. Table 30 outlines the number of suicide attempts made by inmates in this study during the time interval ranging from one month before to one month after their most recent offence. The table shows an increase in suicidal behaviour by intimate murderers right after and within hours after killing their partner.

Table 30

Proximity of Suicide Attempt Relative to the Offence

Group	month before	week before	day before	right after	hours after	day after	week after	month after
Intimate Murderer	1	1	1	13	5	2	1	4
General Offender	2	0	1	4	1	1	1	0



The Emotions Scale provided information to explore how intimate murderers who attempted suicide following their offence were feeling before the murder. Of the 27 intimate murderers who attempted suicide 23 reported feeling “somewhat” or “very much” dysphoric and rejected during the 24-hour period preceding the murder of their wife/girlfriend. None reported feeling just dysphoric, just rejected or neither dysphoric nor rejected. Further exploration revealed that 7 of the 23 had a wife/girlfriend terminate their relationship within the past year, perhaps accounting for the feelings of rejection and dysphoria. The four men who did not report experiencing these emotions prior to the offence, yet attempted suicide as a result of the offence, reported feeling “somewhat” or “very much” fearful and ashamed during the 24-hour period after the offence. This may offer insight into their motivation to kill themselves.

Given that not all offenders attempt/commit suicide immediately following the commission of their offence, it was important to explore additional responses. The Response Following Offence scale required inmates to describe their reactions immediately following the commission of their offence. The scale allowed for multiple responses to this question (e.g., “remained on the scene,” and “tried/wanted to kill myself”). Table 31 summarizes these responses. A separate cross tabulation was generated for each response listed in the table and Chi-square tests (2-tailed) were carried out on each 2X2 table, thereby yielding the significance levels shown.

Table 31

Reaction of Inmates Immediately after Committing their Offence

Reaction	Intimate Murderers ( <i>n</i> = 89)	General Offenders ( <i>n</i> = 151)	P
Took off / tried to hide	13 (15%)	59 (39%)	.000
Called / waited for the police	26 (29%)	20 (13%)	.002
Called an ambulance / 911 / other for help	18 (20%)	1 (0.7%)	.000
Remained at the scene of the crime	31 (35%)	32 (21%)	.020
Tried / wanted to kill myself	20 (22%)	8 (5%)	.000
Carried on normally with my life	1 (1%)	19 (13%)	.002
Don't recall / I am innocent	9 (10%)	6 (4%)	.058
Other	10 (11%)	10 (7%)	.212

In many respects the responses of intimate murderers to their offence differed significantly from general offenders. Overall, intimate murderers were more inclined to remain at the crime scene, notify the police and/or ambulance, and to attempt suicide.

In an open-ended question, inmates were further asked to offer a reason for responding as they did following the offence. Responses were grouped into the seven common themes outlined in Table 32. The percentages reported in the table relate to valid responses with missing values excluded. Due to the low frequency (less than 5) with which some reasons were given, significance levels were based on Fisher's exact test. Consistent with the findings above, the

actions of intimate murderers following the offence were less likely to be motivated by a desire to “get away“, flee the crime scene. Most intimate murderers and general offenders responded out of fear and the realization of what they had done.

Table 32

Reason Offenders Provided for their Response Following the Offence

Reason	Intimate Murderers (n=89)	General Offenders (n=151)	P
To get away	4 (6%)	27 (25%)	.002
I was apprehended / wanted to be apprehended	1 (2%)	9 (8%)	.096
Afraid / realized what I had done	43 (64%)	43 (40%)	.002
I was drunk / stoned / insane	6 (9%)	7 (7%)	.559
I blacked out	6 (9%)	1 (1%)	.011
To explain my actions	5 (8%)	2 (2%)	.105
I felt nothing	0	9 (8%)	.028
I am innocent	1 (2%)	2 (2%)	.999
Other	1 (2%)	8 (7%)	.160
Missing	22	43	N/A

Note. Significance levels were computed with Fisher’s exact test

The results from the Stage IV measures reveal that suicidal behaviour/ideation was common among intimate murderers. These men were also more likely than suicide attempters in the control groups to require hospitalization as a result of their suicide attempts. Although only about one fifth

of the intimate murderers reported a plan to commit suicide as part of the murder of their partner, when it actually came to making a suicide attempt in relation to the offence this figure increased to almost one third. Overall, intimate murderers were less likely to flee the scene of the crime, typically because they were afraid and/or had realized what they had done.

#### Stage V (Incarceration) Results

The final stage of the Binary Model considered the inmate at the time of his participation in this study. Group means from the Attitude Toward Offence (ATO) scale were put to an independent sample t-test (2-tailed, 99% confidence interval). General offenders reported significantly stronger feelings of guilt and remorse compared to intimate murderers  $F(1,195) = 8.15, p < .005$ . The mean scores from individual ATO items are presented in Table 33.

Table 33

Attitudes Toward Ones Offence

Item	Intimate Murderers	General Offenders	P
When I think of my offence I can't believe I did such a thing	4.7 (.82)	4.2 (1.2)	.00*
When I think of my offence I think of all I've lost	4.3 (1.1)	4.3 (1.0)	.68
When I think of my offence I try to think of something else	3.0 (1.4)	3.0 (1.3)	.61
When I think of my offence I just want to get on with my life	3.5 (1.3)	4.1 (1.1)	.00*
When I think of my offence I wonder why I did not do it sooner	1.2 (.73)	1.5 (.80)	.02*
There is nothing I can do to make up for what I did	3.7 (1.5)	3.0 (1.5)	.00
I was out of control during the offence	4.3 (1.1)	3.6 (1.4)	.00*
The offence occurred because I was too drunk / stoned to stop	2.6 (1.7)	2.4 (1.5)	.44
At the time of the offence, most men would have responded the way I did.	2.4 (1.1)	2.3 (1.2)	.65

**Note.** \* Levene's test for equality of variances resulted in the t-test being computed on the assumption that the variances in the 2 groups is different. Responses were made on a 5-point scale ranging from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (5). Standard deviations in parentheses.

Table 33 shows that compared to general offenders, intimate murderers experience significantly greater difficulty accepting that they were capable of committing the offence. Similarly, they were more likely to believe that there was nothing they could do to compensate for having committed murder. This

difference may, however, have resulted from the fact that among the general offenders are a number of men who have committed offences that may not be as difficult to accept as would murder (recall Table 9). Compared to general offenders, intimate murderers were more likely to attribute their offence to them having been out of control.

The Guilt-Remorse scale (GRS) was designed to explore the level of responsibility inmates are willing to assume for their offence, and their feelings of remorse. A independent samples t-test of total scores failed to uncover significant group difference. A review of individual GRS items, however, revealed that while incarcerated, intimate murderers reported spending significantly more time thinking about the victims of their offence than did general offenders whose offence involved a victim [ $F(1,186) = 26.5, p < .000$ ]. Furthermore, intimate murderers espoused significantly more positive emotions (love, like) for their victims than did general offenders [ $F(1,178) = 48.5, p < .000$ ]. Intimate murderers were significantly more likely to believe that their victim(s) could have prevented the offence [ $F(1,185) = 15.3, p < .000$ ] although they were not likely to blame the victim for the offence.

Concerning inmates' attitudes toward their prison sentence, the ATS revealed that as a group intimate murderers were significantly more inclined to express a negative attitude toward their sentence and the belief that in their case the justice system acted unfairly [ $F(1,198) = 10.8, p < .001$ ]. Data from individual ATS items are presented in Table 34. In keeping with the overall group

difference on the ATS, Table 34 shows that intimate murderers were significantly more likely to believe that all the facts were not presented in court, to question the accuracy of evidence presented in court, and to appeal their sentence.

Table 34

Attitude Toward Sentence

Item	Intimate Murderers	General Offenders	P
I don't think all the details came out in court	2.0 (1.4)	2.8 (1.5)	.01
Overall I think the sentence I received was a fair one	3.0 (1.5)	3.4 (1.5)	.11
The judge in my case acted unfairly	3.3 (1.4)	3.6 (1.4)	.20
The evidence given in court was accurate	2.6 (1.3)	3.0 (1.3)	.04
Appealed / did not appeal conviction	3.5 (1.8)	3.9 (1.7)	.11
Appealed / did not appeal sentence	3.2 (1.8)	3.7 (1.8)	.04

Note. A low score corresponds to an adverse attitude toward ones sentence and the belief that the justice system acted unfairly. Standard deviations in parentheses.

The Adjustment to incarceration scale did not yield any significant differences between the two inmate groups with respect to how well they have adapted to prison life. Intimate murderers, however, reported incurring significantly fewer institutional charges during their incarceration than general offenders  $F(1,229) = 8.4, p < .004$ .

The Stage V measures characterized intimate murderers as exhibiting less intense feelings of guilt/remorse than general offenders. This paralleled

their belief that their victim(s) could have prevented the offence. Despite this, intimate murderers did not blame their victim(s), whom they thought of often, usually with considerable affection. Intimate murderers were more inclined to express a disparaging attitude toward their sentence and the justice system in general, leading them to appeal their sentence more often than general offenders. Intimate murderers did not encounter greater difficulty adjusting to incarceration compared to general offenders but their lower frequency of institutional charges implies that they pose less of a security and management concern for correctional staff.

#### Summary of Individual Scales

In this section, scales included in the research questionnaire were analysed independently. Intimate murderers were found to have a history of involvement in many marital relationships (marriage and common-law). At the time of their offence they were likely employed with an annual family income of \$30,000 to \$39,000. When convicted intimate murderers were older than most other offenders.

Intimate murderers did not differ from other men on measures of patriarchy, gender stereotyping, or acceptance of interpersonal violence. They were, however, more over-controlled and perhaps for this reason did not differ significantly from other men on measures of vengeance, anger, and aggression.

The data identified incidents in the year preceding the murder which served as predictors. Among these was poor marital adjustment, psychiatric



hospitalization, being arrested/charged for assaulting/threatening an intimate female partner, and having a partner leave the relationship. Additionally, intimate murderers were the most inclined to identify their wife/girlfriend as having been unfaithful.

Most intimate murders were not premeditated but in at least 20% of the attacks the objective was to kill the woman. Intimate murderers tended to report feelings of dysphoria and rejection prior to, during, and following the murder of their partner. Anger identified before and during the murder gave way to shame and fear afterwards. Compared to other offenders intimate murderers were less apt to flee the crime scene, often out of fear and/or the realization of what they had done. While only one fifth of the intimate murderers planned a murder suicide, one third actually attempted suicide following the murder of their partner. Intimate murderers were the group most likely to have a history of suicidal ideation/intent and to have required hospitalization as a result of their suicidal behaviours.

Compared to other inmates, intimate murderers do not appear to encounter any more difficulty adjusting to incarceration. Once in custody they present few security concerns as evidenced by a low frequency of institutional charges, despite their belief that the judicial system has not been fair to them. Intimate murderers reported spending more time thinking about their victims than general offenders whose offence involved harm to a victim. Furthermore, these thoughts were more positive, despite the finding that these men are likely to

believe that the victim could have prevented the offence.

The data analysis to this point has treated intimate murderers as a homogeneous group, however, this is not how they were depicted by the Binary Model. Subsequent analysis concentrates on the Alpha Murderer and Beta Murderer typology proposed by the Binary Model.

### Evaluation of the Research Hypothesis

#### Hypothesis 1

The principal hypothesis in this study and the cornerstone of the Binary Model, relates to the presence of two distinct profiles of men who murder their intimate female partners. Alpha Murderers were considered to have a history of behaving abusively in intimate relationships to an extent that it likely culminated in the murder of their wife/girlfriend. Conversely, Beta Murderers were distinguished by minimal abusive behaviour and a greater likelihood of having engaged in a murder-suicide. Concerning the latter, a history of suicidal behaviour was considered to be inversely correlated with a history of abusing one's partner. Simply stated the null hypothesis was that intimate murderers constitute a homogeneous group.

To evaluate this hypothesis, and explore the existence of an Alpha/Beta typology among intimate murderers, principal components analysis with orthogonal (varimax) rotation was used. Thirteen variables, from the research questionnaire, targeting the primary tenet of the Binary Model were included in the analysis. This analysis was based on 64 of the 89 intimate murderers for

whom there was no missing data on any of these variables. The ratio of subjects to variables satisfied the 5:1 ratio recommended for an analysis of this type. Bartlett's test of sphericity ( $p < .000$ ) and Kaiser's measure of sampling adequacy (.58) offered confidence in the factorability of the correlation matrix.

Examination of eigenvalues and the scree plot suggested two factors accounting for 40% of the total variance. These factors are summarized in Table 35.

Table 35

Factor Loadings, Communalities (h<sup>2</sup>), and Percent of Variance for Principal Components Analysis and Varimax Rotation for Intimate Murderers.

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	h <sup>2</sup>
Involvement in a male batterers program during the 12 months preceding the murder of my intimate female partner.	-0.08	-0.15	0.81
Wife/girlfriend left our relationship during the 12 months preceding her death.	0.23	0.35	0.64
Seeing a lawyer concerning separation/divorce during the 12 months preceding the murder of my intimate female partner.	-0.13	0.04	0.70
During your relationship was your wife/girlfriend unfaithful?	0.11	0.16	0.77
Approximately how many different women have you had sexual relations with?	0.33	-0.37	0.31
Your Associations Measure total	0.58	-0.17	0.78
Aggression Questionnaire total	-0.83	-0.09	0.72
*Overcontrolled-Hostility Scale total	-0.78	-0.03	0.69
Conflict Tactics Scale total	0.72	0.11	0.76
Consequences Scale total	0.29	0.16	0.81
Feelings of dysphoria 24 hours before the murder of my intimate female partner.	0.01	0.89	0.83
Feelings of rejection 24 hours before the murder of my intimate female partner.	0.10	0.92	0.87
Attempted suicide as a result of the death of my wife/girlfriend.	0.10	0.52	0.57

(table continues)

	Factor 1	Factor 2
Percent of variance	22.4	17.3
Eigenvalues	3.0	2.3

Note. \* low score = undercontrolled hostility

Factor 1, which accounted for 22.4% of the total variance, depicts an impulsive (undercontrolled) man who admits to abusing his wife/girlfriend (CTS-total) and having this behaviour attract negative attention/consequences (Consequences Scale). Socially, the man defined by this factor associates with a peer group that supports violence and abuse directed against women and he has had numerous female sexual partners. This factor has a striking resemblance to the Alpha Murderer of the Binary Model and was therefore assigned this label.

Factor 2, accounting for 17.3% of the total variance, describes an intimate murderer who experienced strong feelings of dysphoria and rejection during the 24-hour period preceding the murder of his partner. These feelings may be associated with having an intimate relationship end over the course of the preceding year. Consistent with the emotions experienced prior to the murder, these men were likely to attempt suicide following the murder of their intimate female partner. Unlike the men characterized by factor 1, these men did not have association with a negative peer group nor did they have as many female sexual partners. Factor 2 was labelled the Beta Murderer because of its close resemblance to the Beta Murderer portrayed by the Binary Model

Factor 1 was used as a guide to develop a set of classification criteria for Alpha Murderers. To be classified as an Alpha Murderer an intimate murderer had to meet each of the three conditions set out in Table 36. The cutoff scores in Table 36 were based on the finding that 31% of the intimate murderers had attempted suicide shortly after murdering their partner. Using this information cutoff scores that approximated the 31<sup>st</sup> percentile were selected for the CTS and the YAM. Given that a low OH score was associated with factor 1 the cutoff score that approximated the 69<sup>th</sup> percentile was selected for this scale. When these criteria were applied to the sample of intimate murderers, 46% (39/85) of the men were classified as Alpha Murderers.

Table 36

Criteria for Alpha Murderer

Scale	Score
Conflict Tactics Scale	> 22
Your Association Measure	> 11
Overcontrolled - Hostility	≤ 17

When information from factor 2 was used to establish criteria for classifying Beta Murderers, the cardinal feature of this profile; a suicide attempt as a result of the offence was required as was feeling either “somewhat” or “very much” dysphoric and rejected during the 24-hour period before the murder. These criteria resulted in 27% (23/85) of the sample of intimate murderers being

classified as Beta Murderers.

Of the intimate murderers not classified above 13% (11/85) met the criteria of both the Alpha and the Beta Murderer and 14% met neither criteria. Therefore, the criteria reported above classified 73% of the intimate murderers as either Alpha or Beta Murderers.

Suicide is central to the Binary Model and hypothesis 1 maintained that among intimate murderers a history of suicidal behaviour/ideation would be inversely correlated with a history of abuse of a partner. Consequently, if suicidal behaviour is anger and aggression turned inward, one would expect it to be less common among men who express their anger and aggression outwardly through abusing their partners. To further evaluate hypothesis 1 measures of abuse (CTS; Reason for relationship split inventory, q91a-d; Consequences Scale, q149a-j) were correlated with measures of suicidal behaviour (Suicide Questionnaire, q214a-g) using Kendall's tau-b. Two separate analyses were run, one including all subjects and one including only intimate murderers. The relationships from the analysis including all subjects are presented in Table 37. Examination of the last two columns of the table reveals that some of the measures of abuse were significantly correlated with both suicidal ideation (q214a) and suicide attempt (q214b). A high score on the two suicide items represents the presence of that behaviour; therefore, men who report having had suicidal ideations score high on a measure of psychological abuse (CTS-Psy) and general abuse (CTS-Tot). The same pattern was present for men who have

attempted suicide. Additionally, having attempted suicide was correlated with an increase in consequences (Con-Tot) a man experienced as a result of his abusive behaviour. From Table 37 it will be noted that suicidal ideation (q214a) and behaviour (q214b) are positively correlated with psychological but not physical abuse.

Table 37

Relationship Between Abuse and Suicide Measures for all Subjects

	CTS -Psy	CTS -Phy	CTS -Tot	Rs -Tot	q214A	q214B
Con-Tot	$\tau=.32$ <b><math>p&lt;.000</math></b>	$\tau=.45$ <b><math>p&lt;.000</math></b>	$\tau=.37$ <b><math>p&lt;.000</math></b>	$\tau=.24$ <b><math>p&lt;.000</math></b>	$\tau= .07$ $p<.18$	$\tau= .15$ <b><math>p&lt;.003</math></b>
CTS-Psy	X	$\tau=.45$ <b><math>p&lt;.000</math></b>	$\tau=.93$ <b><math>p&lt;.000</math></b>	$\tau=.25$ <b><math>p&lt;.000</math></b>	$\tau= .13$ <b><math>p&lt;.004</math></b>	$\tau= .11$ <b><math>p&lt;.02</math></b>
CTS-Phy	X	X	$\tau=.56$ <b><math>p&lt;.000</math></b>	$\tau=.11$ <b><math>p&lt;.02</math></b>	$\tau= .07$ $p<.18$	$\tau= .04$ $p<.40$
CTS-Tot	X	X	X	$\tau=.25$ <b><math>p&lt;.000</math></b>	$\tau= .11$ <b><math>p&lt;.01</math></b>	$\tau= .09$ <b><math>p&lt;.04</math></b>
Rs-Tot	X	X	X	X	$\tau= .04$ $p<.39$	$\tau= .07$ $p<.15$

Note.

$\tau$  = Kendall's Tau-b (2-tailed)

Con-Tot = total score from the Consequences Scale (q149a-j)

CTS-Psy = psychological abuse factor of the CTS (q93a-i)

CTS-Phy = physical abuse factor of the CTS (q93 j-r)

CTS-Tot = total of the CTS-Psy and CTS-Phy (q93a-r)

Rs-Tot = total score from the Reasons for relationship split inventory (q91a-d)

q214a = have you ever thought of killing yourself? (yes=1, no=0)

q214b = have you ever attempted suicide? (yes=1, no=0)

When the preceding analysis was repeated, using only the intimate murderer sample, the results depicted in Table 38 were obtained. Focussing on



the suicide related items which appear in the last four columns of the table it is evident that having had suicidal thoughts (q214a) and having made a suicide attempt (q214b) are significantly associated with psychological abuse of a partner. Consistent with the research hypothesis, suicidal behaviours were not significantly correlated with physical abuse as measured by the Consequences scale, the Reasons inventory, the Physical abuse factor of the CTS, and the total CTS. As hypothesized, physical abuse was negatively correlated with suicidal ideation and attempt but these correlations were small and not significant.

Table 38

Relationship Between Abuse and Suicide for Intimate Murderers

	CTS - Psy	CTS - Phy	CTS - Tot	Rs - Tot	q214 a	q214 b	q214 c	q214 e
Con- Tot	$\tau=.30$ $p<.000$	$\tau=.45$ $p<.000$	$\tau=.36$ $p<.000$	$\tau=.16$ $p<.09$	$\tau= -.03$ $p<.80$	$\tau= -.01$ $p<.91$	$\tau=.15$ $p<.28$	$\tau= -.00$ $p<.98$
CTS- Psy	X	$\tau=.53$ $p<.000$	$\tau=.91$ $p<.000$	$\tau=.33$ $p<.000$	$\tau= .19$ $p<.04$	$\tau=.18$ $p<.05$	$\tau= .21$ $p<.11$	$\tau= -.15$ $p<.10$
CTS- Phy	X	X	$\tau=.65$ $p<.000$	$\tau=.23$ $p<.000$	$\tau= -.08$ $p<.39$	$\tau= -.06$ $p<.51$	$\tau= .10$ $p<.46$	$\tau= .07$ $p<.43$
CTS- Tot	X	X	X	$\tau=.32$ $p<.000$	$\tau= -.12$ $p<.20$	$\tau=.12$ $p<.20$	$\tau=.17$ $p<.20$	$\tau= -.09$ $p<.31$
Rs- Tot	X	X	X	X	$\tau= .06$ $p<.55$	$\tau= .05$ $p<.60$	$\tau=.23$ $p<.10$	$\tau= -.03$ $p<.79$

Note.

$\tau$  = Kendall's Tau-b (2-tailed)

Con-Tot = total score from the Consequences Scale (q149a-j)

CTS-Psy = psychological abuse factor of the CTS (q93a-i)

CTS-Phy = physical abuse factor of the CTS (q93 j-r)

CTS-Tot = total of the CTS-Psy and CTS-Phy (q93a-r)

Rs-Tot = total score from the Reasons for relationship split inventory (q91a-d)

q214a = have you ever thought of killing yourself? (yes=1, no=0)

q214b = have you ever attempted suicide? (yes=1, no=0)

q214c = how many suicide attempts have you made?

q214e = how many of your suicide attempts occurred before your most recent offence?

It was further identified that attempting suicide following the murder of an intimate partner was significantly correlated (Kendall's tau-b) with having attempted suicide prior to murdering one's partner ( $\tau = .47, p < .01$ ).

Overall, the data presented in this section offers reasonable support for the presence of two basic intimate murderer profiles. The data further suggests that suicidal behaviour may be associated with psychological but not physical abuse of a partner and that prior suicidal behaviour is strongly correlated with attempting suicide after killing an intimate partner.

### Hypothesis 2

The emphasis of hypothesis 1 was explanatory; for hypothesis 2 the goal was prediction. Multiple regression was used to identify variables that reliably differentiate intimate murderers from other men. Group membership was dummy coded and served as the criterion; variables which significantly differentiated intimate murderers from other men served as predictors. Among these predictors, categorical variables were dummy coded. Predictor variables which were highly correlated were either combined or one was removed from the analysis in an effort to maximize the ratio between the number of subjects and the number of predictors. Standard multiple regression was then performed to

predict intimate murderers using 13 predictor variables which significantly differentiated them from community controls. This procedure was repeated using the 13 predictor variables which significantly differentiated intimate murderers from general offenders. In both analyses the ratio of cases to independent variables was between the ideal (20:1) and the minimum (5:1) suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (1989). An additional regression was carried out using intimate murderers and the two control groups combined (other men). This analysis yielded a 21:1 ratio of cases to independent variables. Following each analysis, tests of significance were used to delete variables which could be removed from the equation without a substantial loss in predictability, thereby simplifying the results and further maximizing the ratio between the number of subjects and the number of predictors.

Results from the regression analysis involving intimate murderers and community controls are summarized in Table 39 and those from the analysis involving intimate murderers and general offenders appear in Table 40. Both tables display the unstandardized regression coefficients (B), the standardized regression coefficients ( $\beta$ ), the zero-order correlation and R,  $R^2$ , and adjusted  $R^2$ . The R for the regression associated with the analysis involving intimate murderers and community controls was significantly different from zero,  $F(13,132) = 12.74, p < .000$ . Table 39 shows that six of the regression coefficients differed significantly from zero. The six variables that contributed significantly to the prediction of group membership included three total scale scores (Routine

activities scale, Consequences scale, Vengeance scale) and three individual items (ever attempted suicide, your highest level of education, and suspicion of a partners infidelity). These six variables in combination accounted for 21% of the unique variance. When the .35 in shared variability is considered, 56% of the variability in group membership (intimate murderers versus community controls) was predicted by knowing scores on the thirteen independent variables.

Table 39

Standard Multiple Regression of a set of Predictor Variables on GroupMembership (Intimate Murderers versus Community Controls)

Variable	Mean	SD	B	$\beta$	zero-order
common law relationship	0.49	0.50	.097	.098	.36
Your Associates Measure	16.03	9.15	.005	.082	.35
Routine Activities Scale	16.67	6.89	.012**	.170	.37
Marital Adjustment Test	101.16	29.52	-.001	-.054	-.21
Conflict Tactics Scale	30.20	12.53	-.003	-.069	.25
Consequences total	1.42	3.40	.024**	.167	.37
psychiatric hospitalization	0.03	0.18	-.256	-.094	.14
Vengeance Scale	51.41	15.99	-.007***	-.209	-.24
Over-controlled Hostility Scale	13.96	3.11	.017	.109	.24
ever attempted suicide	0.22	0.42	.396***	.331	.52
education level	5.84	1.64	.051*	-0.167	-.42
suspect partners infidelity	0.38	0.49	.139*	0.136	.35
partners education level	5.40	1.68	.022	-0.074	-.31
R <sup>2</sup>	Unique Variance	Shared Variance	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	R	
.56	.21	.35	.51	.75	

Note. \* =  $p < .05$ ; \*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* =  $p < .001$

On the MAT a high score corresponds to a well adjusted relationship; for all other variables a high score represents a greater presence of that construct.

The results from the regression analysis involving intimate murderers and general offenders are summarized in Table 40. The R for the regression associated with this analysis also differed significantly from zero,  $F(13,184) = 6.50, p < .000$ . This analysis yielded five independent variables which contributed significantly to the regression (ever legally married, BIDR Impression Management factor, Marital Adjustment Test, CTS physical abuse factor, ever attempted suicide). These five variables in combination accounted for 15.0% of the unique variance. When the .17 in shared variability is considered, 31.5% of the variability in group membership (intimate murderers versus general offenders) was predicted by knowing scores on the thirteen independent variables.

Table 40

Standard Multiple Regression of a Set of Predictor Variables on Group  
Membership (Intimate Murderers versus General Offenders)

Variable	Mean	SD	B	$\beta$	zero-order
ever legally married	0.62	0.49	.140*	.14	.24
age at first criminal conviction	26.32	15.05	.005	.16	.22
age at current conviction	36.32	13.41	-.002	-.05	.17
BIDR (IM)	77.19	20.64	.004**	.19	.18
Dependency	24.53	7.46	.005	.08	.19
Marital adjustment test (total)	101.48	26.05	-.003**	-.18	-.21
CTS (physical abuse)	11.36	3.96	.020*	.14	.19
arrested/charged with assault of a partner	0.08	0.27	-.023	-.01	.11
partner returned from women's shelter	0.03	0.16	.200	.07	.16
Vengeance scale	51.34	18.01	-.200	-.07	-.18
ever attempted suicide	0.27	0.44	.290***	.27	.33
you and wife/girlfriend separated	0.29	0.45	.090	.09	.17
suspect partners infidelity	0.44	0.5	.080	.08	.15
$R^2$	Unique Variance	Shared Variance	Adjusted $R^2$	R	
.32	.15	.17	.27	.56	

**Note.** \* =  $p < .05$ ; \*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* =  $p < .001$

On the MAT a high score corresponds to a well adjusted relationship; for all other variables a high score represents a greater presence of that construct.

The results from the regression analysis involving intimate murderers and the other two groups combined (other men) are summarized in Table 41. The R for the regression associated with this analysis was significantly different from zero,  $F(12, 252) = 11.81, p < .000$ . This analysis yielded seven independent variables which contributed significantly to the regression (Marital Adjustment Test total, Vengeance Scale total, Routine Activities Scale, having been legally married, ever having attempted suicide, BIDR (IM), and suspect partners infidelity). These seven variables in combination accounted for 24.0% of the unique variance. When the 12.0% in shared variability is considered, altogether 36.0% of the variability in group membership (intimate murderers versus other men) was predicted by knowing scores on the twelve independent variables.



Table 41

Standard Multiple Regression of a Set of Predictor Variables on GroupMembership (Intimate Murderers versus Other Men)

Variable	Mean	SD	B	$\beta$	zero-order
Marital Adjustment Test	103.76	27.32	.003**	.17	.21
Vengeance Scale	52.01	17.38	.003*	.11	.17
suspect partners infidelity	0.37	0.48	-.120**	-.14	-.24
partner returned from woman's shelter	0.02	0.14	-.238	-.08	-.18
arrested/charged with assault of a partner	0.06	0.23	-.165	-.09	-.21
ever attempted suicide	1.82	0.39	.417***	.38	.44
Routine Activities Scale	18.37	7.23	-.010**	-.16	-.12
Jealousy Scale (Dependency factor)	25.28	7.61	-.005	-.08	-.09
BIDR (IM)	77.11	20.13	-.004**	-.19	-.13
ever legally married	0.88	0.76	-.007*	-.12	-.17
your education level	5.35	1.65	.003	.01	.01
your partners education level	5.17	1.63	.007	.03	.11
$R^2$	Unique Variance	Shared Variance	Adjusted $R^2$	R	
.36	.24	.12	.33	.60	

Note. \* =  $p < .05$ ; \*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* =  $p < .001$

On the MAT a high score corresponds to a well adjusted relationship; for all other variables a high score represents a greater presence of that construct.

Development and psychometric evaluation of an intimate femicide screening scale

The predictor variables identified in the preceding section were used to create an intimate femicide screening scale. The objective was to design a reliable scale consisting of a minimum number of easily scored items. Variables from the multiple regression analyses, that significantly differentiate intimate murderers from both general offenders and community controls (Table 41) were considered for inclusion in the scale. Consideration was also given to variables that achieved significance from the separate multiple regression analysis between intimate murderers and general offenders, and intimate murderers and community controls. Where the variables either represented the total from a full scale (e.g., Consequences Scale) or part of a scale (e.g., CTS physical abuse factor) an attempt was made to retain only the minimum number of items necessary to reliably sample the domain. To facilitate ease of scoring all variables were dichotomized. Of the variables considered, vengeance was excluded because intimate murderers scored unexpectedly lower than controls. The BIDR impression management factor was also excluded because of its length (20 items) and its poor face validity given the purpose of the scale being constructed. The CTS (physical) was omitted because the objective was to identify antecedents to, or predictors of, intimate femicide and it was not possible to discern whether abusive acts admitted to on the CTS were a component of an offender's present murder conviction. Education level was included because of

its ability to differentiate groups, particularly intimate murderers from community controls. Seven variables were selected as predictors of intimate femicide. These variables are presented in Table 42 along with their correlation with each of the three research groups. A description of each variable follows the table. Table 42 shows that all of the items significantly differentiated intimate murderers from community controls with the strongest effect for history of suicide. The items were less effective in differentiating intimate murderers and general offenders; again the strongest effect was for history of suicide along with regretting commitment to one's partner. The high and significant correlations in Table 42 supported the inclusion of these items in a scale to differentiate intimate murderers from other men.

Table 42

Correlation Between Variables Selected for Inclusion in the New Scale and Intimate Murderers and Community Controls and Intimate Murderers and General Offenders.

Variable	Intimate Murderers & Community Controls	Intimate Murderers & General Offenders
Education	.40**	-.10
Suicide	.44**	.20**
Police intervention for abuse	.40**	.10
Arrest for abuse	.40**	.13
Male associates	.30**	-.13
Infidelity	.30**	.14**
Regrets commitment to partner	.30**	.20**

Note: \*\*p < .01 (2-tailed)

The education variable relates to the man's highest level of education. To obtain this variable, question 6a (from the research questionnaire) was dichotomized so that "no schooling, some elementary, completed elementary, and some secondary" were coded 1 and "some community or technical college, completed community or technical college, some university or teachers college, and completed university or teachers college" were coded 0.

The suicide variable assessed a history of having attempted suicide unrelated to the subjects most recent offence. The condition attached to this variable made it possible to exclude suicide attempts associated with the murder

of an intimate female partner. Men who had attempted suicide (for inmates an attempt unrelated to their most recent offence) were rated 1. Those who had never attempted suicide or for inmates those whose only suicide attempt was related to their most recent offence were rated 0.

Police intervention was derived by combining three questions from the Consequences Scale (have the police ever been called because someone was concerned about you assaulting your partner? ; have the police ever talked to you because they were concerned about you assaulting your partner? and; have the police ever ordered you to leave because they were concerned about you assaulting your partner?). Hence, this variable corresponded to police intervention as a result of a man's abusive behaviour. It was scored 1 for a history of this type of intervention or 0 if there was no indication of such intervention.

Arrest was also derived from a question on the Consequences Scale (have you ever been arrested for assaulting or harassing your partner?). This item was dichotomized so that 1 corresponded to a history of having been arrested for assaulting or harassing a partner and 0 represented the absence of this level of intervention.

Male associates referred to the amount of time a man spends engaged in all-male activities in a typical month (for offenders a typical month when not incarcerated). Respondents received one point if they worked in an all-male setting at least once a month (Routine Activities Scale item 77g, "working a full-

time, part-time or seasonal job”). They could also receive a point if they engaged in all-male social or recreational activities (e.g., movies, sports) 16 or more times per month. Respondents received a score of 0 if they did not work in an all-male environment and they engaged in 15 or less all-male social activities per month. Hence on this variable 1 represents a greater involvement in all male activities during a typical month.

The infidelity variable was based on item number 88b from the research questionnaire (“Did you suspect/know that your wife/girlfriend was/had been unfaithful?”). This variable is scored 1 for an affirmative response and 0 for a negative response.

The item concerning regretting having made a commitment to one’s partner, was extracted from the Marital Adjustment Test (MAT item n; “If you had to live your life over would you, choose the same partner; choose a different partner; not commit to anyone?”). Men who would choose the same partner were coded 0 and men who would choose a different partner or not commit to anyone were coded 1.

The seven predictor variables were then put to two separate regression analyses on group membership. Results from the analysis involving intimate murderers and community controls as well as from the analysis between intimate murderers and general offenders are presented in Table 43. The table includes standardized regression coefficients ( $\beta$ ), zero-order correlations and  $R$ ,  $R^2$  and adjusted  $R^2$ .

Table 43

Standard Multiple Regression of Predictor Variables on Group Membership

Variable	Intimate Murderers vs Community Controls		Intimate Murderers vs General Offenders	
	$\beta$	zero-order	$\beta$	zero-order
Education	.22***	.41	-.12	-.11
Suicide	.25***	.43	.20**	.22
Police intervention for abuse	.15	.42	.01	.08
Arrest for abuse	.17*	.40	.04	.11
Male associates	.14*	.35	-.07	-.04
Infidelity	.14*	.32	.15*	.20
Commitment to partner	.05	.31	.16*	.20
R <sup>2</sup>		.44		.13
Unique Variance		.15		.10
Shared Variance		.29		.03
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>		.41		.10
R		.66		.35

Note. \* =  $p < .05$ ; \*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* =  $p < .001$

The R for the regression associated with the analysis involving intimate murderers and community controls was significant,  $F(7, 153) = 16.8, p < .000$ . For this regression Table 43 identifies five of the seven regression coefficients as differing significantly from zero. These five variables in combination accounted for 15% of the unique variance. This in addition to the 29% in shared variability

resulted in 44% of the variance in group membership (intimate murderers versus community controls) being predicted by scores on the seven independent variables. The R for the regression associated with the analysis involving intimate murderers and general offenders was also significant  $F(7, 195) = 4.0, p < .000$ . Table 43 reveals that three of the regression coefficients differed significantly from zero. These three variables accounted for 10% of unique variance. When this was added to the 3% in shared variance 13% of the variability in group membership (intimate murderers versus general offenders) was predicted by knowing scores on all seven independent variables.

The seven variables were organized into a usable scale referred to from here on as the Intimate Femicide Screening Scale (IFSS). The IFSS, presented in Figure 7, aims to identify men at risk of murdering an intimate female partner. In developing this scale it was recognized that lethality assessments must often be completed within a short time frame - often with incomplete or limited historical data. For this reason the IFSS was designed to be efficient and simple to use primarily by police officers and front line workers.



Figure 7

**Intimate Femicide Screening Scale (IFSS)**

Circle the number corresponding to the appropriate answer to each question.

	Yes	No
1.) Is his highest level of education secondary school or less?	1	0
2.) Has he ever attempted suicide?	1	0
3.) Has there been any prior police intervention/contact related to his abusive behaviours?	1	0
4.) Has he ever been arrested for assaulting or harassing an intimate partner?	1	0
5a) How many times in a typical week does he engage in social or sporting activities with other men, such as playing cards, watching sporting events, going to lunch or dinner, or going to movies, nightclubs, bars? Only include those events which were all male. 1__ 4 or more times a week                      0__ 0 - 3 times a week		
5b) Does he work (part-time, full-time, summer job) with just male co-workers?    1__yes            0__no		
Is either item (5a) and/or (5b) = 1?	1	0
6.) Does he suspect or know that his wife/girlfriend is unfaithful?	1	0
7.) Is he satisfied with his current relationship? For example, if he could live his life over would he choose to be with the same partner?	0	1

**Total score** \_\_\_\_\_

On the IFSS, risk factors judged present were scored 1 point; therefore, the total risk score is the number of risk factors present. Table 44 provides the percentage of subjects, by group, who received a score of 1 on each of the risk factors. The table shows that significantly more intimate murderers than community controls satisfy the conditions of each of the variables selected.

Table 44

Percentage of Subjects who were Assigned a 1 for each IFSS Item

Item	% of IM n = 89	% of GO n = 151	% of CC n = 102	F
Education: some secondary education or less	53	62.4	15.5	IM vs CC*** CC vs GO***
Suicide: history of suicide attempt(s)	33	15.4	1	IM vs CC*** IM vs GO***
Police Intervention: due to his abusiveness	31.3	23.8	2.1	IM vs CC*** CC vs GO***
Arrest: for assaulting/harassing a partner	26	15.6	0	IM vs CC*** CC vs GO***
Associates: time spent in all male activities	71.4	82.2	42	IM vs CC*** CC vs GO***
Infidelity: suspect/know partner is unfaithful	51.2	37.2	23.7	IM vs CC***
Commitment: regret entering present relationship	56.3	37	26.8	IM vs CC*** IM vs GO**

Note: IM = intimate murderer; GO = general offender; CC = community controls;  
\*p < .05; \*\*p < .01; \*\*\*p < .001

Turning to the overall score, Table 45 compares the total score of subjects from each of the three groups.

Table 45

Comparison of Intimate Murderers, General Offenders and Community Controls on the Intimate Femicide Screening Scale (IFSS)

IFSS Risk Score	Intimate Murderer ( <i>n</i> = 80)		General Offender ( <i>n</i> = 143)		Community Control ( <i>n</i> = 97)	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
7	3	3.8	2	1.4	0	0
6	3	3.8	2	1.4	0	0
5	12	15	13	9.1	0	0
4	16	20	14	9.8	1	1
3	18	22.5	43	30.1	10	10.3
2	17	21.3	42	29.4	21	21.6
1	7	8.8	22	15.4	31	32
0	4	5	5	3.5	34	35.1
Mean	3.32 (SD = 1.65)		2.67 (SD = 1.39)		1.10 (SD = 1.04)	

In the total sample (*N* = 320), scores on the IFSS ranged from 0 to 7 with a mean of 2.33 (SD = 1.6). Apparent from Table 45 intimate murderers obtained a significantly higher mean score (3.32, SD = 1.65) than both general offenders (2.67, SD = 1.39)  $p < .01$  and community controls (1.10, SD = 1.04)  $p < .000$ . These data attest to the concurrent validity of the IFSS. To further evaluate the

predictive accuracy of the IFSS the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve was computed. The ROC curve was first used in a criminological prediction study by Fergusson, Fifield and Slater (1977). More recently, this technique has been used in assessing the predictive validity of violent behaviour (Mossman, 1994a, 1994b; Rice & Harris, 1995). An ROC curve is a plot of correctly identified index cases (true-positive rate or sensitivity which in this study would be the proportion of intimate murderers correctly identified) as a function of the false-positive rate (or 1 - specificity, which is the proportion of men not at risk of committing intimate femicide who are correctly identified) (Rice & Harris, 1995). An advantage of the ROC is that it is unaffected by base rates and cut off scores. The ability of the IFSS to distinguish between intimate murderers and community controls was high (ROC area of .86; 95% CI .80, .91; Std. Err = .03). To a lesser degree this set of variables also distinguished between intimate murderers and general offenders (ROC area of .60; 95% CI .52, .67; Std. Err. = .04). When the two control groups were combined, the ability of the IFSS to differentiate intimate murderers from other men was high (ROC area of .71; 95% CI .64, .77; Std. Err. = .03). Convergent construct validity of the IFSS was supported by significant correlations with instruments measuring abuse (CTS, Consequences Scale) and marital satisfaction / adjustment (MAT). Table 46 shows these correlations.

Table 46

Pearson Correlation between the Intimate Femicide Screening Scale (IFSS) and Measures of Abuse

Scale	IFSS
Conflict Tactics Scale (total)	.39**
Conflict Tactics Scale (physical abuse)	.38**
Conflict Tactics Scale (psychological abuse)	.35**
Consequences Scale	.56**
Marital Adjustment Test (MAT)	-.42**

Note. \*\*  $p < .01$  (2 - tailed significance);  $N = 320$ .

The seven variables comprising the IFSS were minimally intercorrelated ( $\alpha = .58$ ). With respect to alpha levels in this range it has been argued that internal consistency may not be an appropriate statistic to consider when evaluating instruments such as the IFSS where each item is considered to be an independent risk factor (Campbell, 1995). Indeed, assuming all the items in a risk scale are predictive of future behaviour, the ideal situation would be to have a mean interitem correlation of about zero. Therefore, maximum predictive validity with minimum redundancy.

To identify a cut-off score for the IFSS percentile scores were calculated for subjects in each of the three research groups. These scores appear in Table 47.

Table 47

Percentile Scores for the Intimate Femicide Screening Scale (IFSS)

Raw Score	Intimate Murderers	General Offenders	Community Controls
7	96	99	100
6	92	97	100
5	77	88	100
4	57	78	99
3	35	48	89
2	14	19	68
1	5	3	35
0	0	0	0

Based on the distribution of IFSS scores for the three research groups a cut-off score of 3 was selected. Therefore, men achieving a score of 3 or more on the IFSS were considered a high risk. The predictive accuracy of the IFSS with nonincarcerated men (intimate murderers and community controls) based on this cut-off score is summarized in Table 48. The table shows that with the adopted cut-off score the selection ratio or proportion of cases in the high risk category was 36% (63/177).

Table 48

Predictive Accuracy of the IFSS with Nonincarcerated (Community Control) Men  
Using a Cut-Off Score of  $\geq 3$

Risk of Intimate Femicide	Actual Group Membership		N
	Intimate Murderer	Not an Intimate Murderer	
High Risk	(a) True Positive n = 52	(b) False Positive n = 11	63
Low Risk	(c) False Negative n = 28	(d) True Negative n = 86	114
N	80	97	177

Note. True positive rate =  $a / (a + b) = 52 / (52 + 11) = .83$ . True negative rate =  $d / (c + d) = 86 / (28 + 86) = .75$ . Overall rate of correct predictions =  $(a + d) / (a + b + c + d) = 138 / 177 = .78$

Using a cut-off score of  $\geq 3$  on the IFSS the true positive rate was 83% (52/63) and thus, the false positive rate was 17% (11/63). This low false positive rate was a reflection of the low selection ratio. The true negative rate was 75% thus 86 of the 114 cases predicted to be a low risk to kill their intimate partners were in fact not intimate murderers. Thus the false negative rate was 25% (28/114). Therefore, applying a cut-off score of  $\geq 3$  to a sample of nonincarcerated men resulted in a 78% overall rate of correct predictions. This cut-off score correctly classified 65% (52/80) of the intimate murderers in this study (sensitivity) while also correctly classifying 89% (86/97) of the nonintimate murderers (specificity). The number of cases that actually do commit intimate

femicide or base rate was in this case 45% (80/177). This is a gross inflation over the expected base rate in the general population due to the disproportionate number of intimate murderers included in the sample. The implications of these results are addressed in the Discussion section.

The same cut-off score ( $\geq 3$ ) was then used with a sample of incarcerated men. Table 49 depicts the predictive accuracy of the IFSS under these conditions. Using this sample the selection ratio was 57% (126/223).

Table 49

Predictive Accuracy of the IFSS with Incarcerated (General Offenders) Men

Using a Cut-Off Score of  $\geq 3$

Risk of Intimate Femicide	Actual Group Membership		N
	Intimate Murderer	Not an Intimate Murderer	
High Risk	(a) True Positive n = 52	(b) False Positive n = 74	126
Low Risk	(c) False Negative n = 28	(d) True Negative n = 69	97
N	80	143	223

Note. True positive rate =  $a / (a + b) = 52 / (52 + 74) = .41$ . True negative rate =  $d / (c + d) = 69 / (28 + 69) = .71$ . Overall rate of correct predictions =  $(a + d) / (a + b + c + d) = (121 / 223) = .54$

Applying a cut-off score of  $\geq 3$  on the IFSS the true positive rate was 41% (52/126) thus the false positive rate was 59% (74/126). The true negative rate was 71% in that 69 of the 97 cases predicted to be a low risk to kill their intimate



partner were in fact not intimate murderers. Thus the false negative rate was 29% (28/97). In summary, applying a cut-off score of  $\geq 3$  to a sample of incarcerated men yielded a 54% overall rate of correct predictions with a 65% (52/80) sensitivity and a 48% (69/143) specificity. The base rate for this sample was 36% (80/223) once again reflecting the high proportion of intimate murderers in the sample. The implications of these results are addressed in the Discussion section.

Overall, the predictive accuracy of the IFSS with an incarcerated and a nonincarcerated sample indicated that this scale is best suited for assessing the risk nonincarcerated men pose of killing their wife/girlfriend.

## CHAPTER 5

### Discussion

Over the six years that this study was conducted, intimate femicides continued to be perpetrated at an alarming rate. Despite the widespread concern, a comprehensive study into intimate femicide has until now been absent. This study contributes to the literature in several ways. First, it provides a model of intimate femicide (the Binary Model) to assist in understanding this type of homicide. By integrating the available information on intimate femicide, the model also offers some order to the literature while reflecting the major theoretical perspectives of male violence against women. Second, to the best of my knowledge this paper presents the largest and most detailed compilation of data obtained directly from perpetrators of intimate femicide. Third, the data evolves out of a unique empirically based theory of intimate femicide, originates primarily from psychometrically validated measures, and is analysed as part of a multiple comparison group design. Fourth, multiple regression analysis is applied to develop the first empirically derived intimate femicide risk scale (the Intimate Femicide Screening Scale). Through these contributions this study aims to stimulate interest into intimate femicide and aid in addressing some of the social and legal concerns related to the murder of women by their male partners.

#### The Binary Model

In the absence of a comprehensive theory of intimate femicide to guide this investigation, the Binary Model was introduced. The Binary Model is a

multidimensional approach to intimate femicide, integrating the critical elements of this type of homicide into a rationally organized and testable manner. It incorporates psychological variables related to the behaviour of the perpetrator with sociological variables such as the patriarchal social context, unequal power distribution, and culturally supported patterns of gender relations. The model, therefore, views intimate femicide as having multiple determinants. The Binary Model hypothesized that there are two distinct profiles of men who kill their intimate female partners: Alpha Murderers and Beta Murderers. The Alpha Murderer is an undercontrolled, sexually promiscuous man who maintains frequent contact with other men who share his endorsement of traditional gender roles and the overt use of power and control over women. Alpha Murderers and their male associates were expected to have a history of abusing their female partners. The murders committed by Alpha Murderers were expected to be impulsive events triggered by feelings of intense anger and followed by an absence of, or superficial feelings of, remorse. These men were expected to encounter little difficulty adapting to prison. In contrast, the Beta Murderer is depicted as an insecure, overcontrolled, dependent man with poor self-esteem. It was hypothesised that these men would have fewer social contacts and that their male associates would espouse a more egalitarian nonabusive attitude toward women. Beta Murderers were not expected to have a history of abusing their intimate partners. These men were anticipated to have a history of attempting suicide. The murders perpetrated by Beta Murderers were presumed

to be planned acts motivated by feelings of depression, hopelessness, and abandonment. Immediately following the murder of his partner, and possibly their children, it was predicted that the Beta Murderer makes a very serious suicide attempt. Beta Murderers who survive their suicide attempt were expected to express genuine feelings of remorse and guilt over the murder of their partner and to encounter difficulty adapting to incarceration.

Factor analysis confirmed two primary profiles of intimate murderers closely resembling the Alpha/Beta typology of the Binary Model. As hypothesised, the factor associated with the Alpha Murderer depicted an undercontrolled, impulsive man, who has had several sexual partners and who associates with a peer group that condones and/or participates in the abuse of women. As predicted, men associated with this factor have a history of physically abusing their intimate female partners, often to the extent that it attracted the attention of the authorities. Therefore, as proposed by the Binary Model, the act of intimate femicide committed by the Alpha Murderer appears to represent the final act in a chain of abusive behaviour. This is a crucial finding because it begins to address questions concerning the relationship between abuse and intimate femicide. Furthermore, it supports the concept of a pattern of abuse culminating in murder, which has been debated in the literature (Crawford & Gartner, 1992; Radford & Russell, 1992). Consistent with the Binary Model, the factor approximating the Beta Murderer depicted a man who did not associate with men who condoned and participated in the abuse of women. Men

identified by this factor had fewer sexual partners. As hypothesised by the Binary Model, these men who had a wife / girlfriend leave them within the past year, experienced intense feelings of dysphoria and rejection during the 24 hours preceding the offence, which involved murdering their partner and then attempting suicide. Not surprisingly, attempting suicide after killing an intimate partner was correlated with a history of suicidal behaviour. Furthermore, a history of suicidal behaviour was associated with psychological but not physical abuse of a partner. Not only are these findings congruent with the Binary Model but they are consistent with the observation that it was the Alpha Murderer for whom murder is a culmination of physical abuse. The finding that the majority of intimate murderers who attempted suicide following the murder of their partner had planned to do so is consistent with the Binary Model and with Daily and Wilson's (1988) conclusion that unplanned suicides out of remorse for having killed are rare. Based on the need for hospitalization it appeared that the suicidal behaviours of intimate murderers were more severe than those of other men. In summary, the identification of a Beta Murderer profile offers insight into findings of a high incidence of suicide or suicide attempts following the murder of an intimate female partner (Palmer & Humphrey, 1980; Kratcoski, 1990; Crawford & Gartner, 1992; Statistics Canada, 1990; Wolfgang, 1956; Daly & Wilson, 1988; Rosenbaum, 1990). It also provides an explanation as to why some intimate murders are perpetrated by seemingly prosocial, mild-mannered men who had no known history of physically abusing their partner.

The results of the factor analysis are congruent with the findings of Dutton and Kerry (1999) who identified an antisocial intimate murderer and an overcontrolled intimate murderer. The factor approximating the Alpha Murderer resembles the antisocial murderer and the factor associated with Beta Murderer resembles the overcontrolled murderer; however, the profiles are reversed with respect to premeditation of the murder. Therefore, while the murder committed by the antisocial murderer is described as planned and that of the overcontrolled murderer as reactive, the Binary Model contends that the Alpha Murderer commits an *impulsive murder* and the Beta Murderer a *planned murder*.

When the information from the factor analysis was used to classify intimate murderers, 46% were identified as Alpha Murderers and 27% were considered Beta Murderers. As a matter of interest, 13% of the intimate murderers met the criteria of both typologies and 14% met neither criterion. Through its ability to classify personality and behavioural characteristics of 73% of the intimate murderers in this study, the Binary Model offers a good conceptual understanding of intimate femicide and intimate murderers. The model does, however, require modification to reflect the findings of the data. One such modification relates to anger and aggression. Although both anger and aggression were identified in the Binary Model, neither were associated with either factor from the factor analysis. Independent analysis of measures of anger and aggression also failed to reveal any significant group differences. Despite this, Alpha Murderers did report intense feelings of anger associated with the

murder of their partner. Because of this finding the role of anger in the Binary Model was revised to reflect state and trait anger. Applying this modification to the findings of this study, the scales measuring predominantly trait anger revealed no significant differences. However, self reports from intimate murderers, which relate to state or situational anger at the time of the offence, did attest to the role of anger. Therefore, although Alpha Murderers acted out of anger they do not appear to have an enduring anger management problem. This is consistent with the feminist position that abuse and intimate femicide are not primarily attributed to a pervasive anger management problem. Vengeance and jealousy, both of which were highlighted in the Binary Model, failed to load heavily on either of the two obtained factors. Furthermore, independent analysis of these scales revealed confusing findings (e.g., community controls appearing to be the most vengeful men). Given that both of these scales were developed on samples of university students who were predominantly female it is possible that they were not well suited for inclusion in this study. Consequently, it may be premature to modify the role of vengeance and jealousy, in the Binary Model, at this time. Modifications to the importance of self-image were, however, made. A poor self-image (self-esteem) associated with the Beta Murderer of the Binary Model was not supported by the data. In fact, intimate murderers did not differ from other men with respect to self-image. The Binary Model's attention to prison adjustment also required modification. It was hypothesized that Beta Murderers would encounter difficulty adjusting to prison life; however, there was

no evidence of this. Lastly, the lack of support for the Binary Model's contention that Beta Murderers would express stronger feelings of guilt and remorse compared to Alpha Murderers highlighted another modification.

To summarize, amendments to the Binary Model included differentiating between state and trait anger. Modifications specific to the profile of the Beta Murderers included rejecting the notion of a poor self-image, the position that these men would encounter difficulties adjusting to incarceration, and the assumption that they would express more intense feelings of guilt and remorse.

#### The Intimate Femicide Screening Scale (IFSS)

The data revealed that the abusive behaviours of 15 of the intimate murderers in this study had attracted the attention of the authorities. Possibly through better identification and intervention the lives of at least 15 women may have been saved. Unfortunately, risk prediction for intimate femicide is in its infancy. I am not aware of any empirically developed, validated scale to assist in the assessment of risk of intimate femicide. Presently, those faced with the difficult task of assessing the risk of intimate femicide rely on lists of danger signs (Campbell, 1995) or on established measures of abuse. With respect to the latter, there is speculation that risk factors for intimate femicide may not necessarily be the same as those associated with frequent assaults (Dutton & Kerry, 1999; Saunders, 1995).

Recognizing the need for improved risk assessment, attention shifted to the identification of predictor variables. The goal was to demonstrate that an



empirically based, reliable, easy-to-use scale to evaluate the risk of intimate femicide is attainable. The IFSS was introduced as an example of this type of risk assessment scale. The IFSS consists of seven empirically derived items that the evaluator scores as true (yes) or not true (no) of the man being assessed. The IFSS items are also consistent with established predictors of both general criminal behaviour and of spousal abuse. Although not an exhaustive list, Table 50 identifies some references relating items from the IFSS to each of the two mentioned areas of literature.

Table 50

Selected References Related to Variables Included in the IFSS

IFSS Variables	General Criminal Behaviour	Family Violence / Intimate Femicide
Lower level of achieved education	Andrews & Bonta (1994); Gendreau, Andrews, Coggin & Chanteloupe (1992); Hirschi (1969)	
Suicide attempt / ideation / threat		Crawford & Gartner (1992); Kratcoski (1990); Daly & Wilson (1988); Hart (1988); Sokin, Martin & Walker (1985); Humphrey, Hudson & Cosgrove (1981); Palmer & Humphrey (1980); Wolfgang (1956);
Police intervention & Arrest (history of violent / abusive behaviour)	Monahan (1984; 1981)	Moracco, Runyan & Butts (1998); Felder & Victor (1997); Campbell (1992; 1981); Straus (1991); Wallace (1986); Sonkin, Martin & Walker (1985)

(table continues)

IFSS Variables	General Criminal Behaviour	Family Violence / Intimate Femicide
Male associates	Andrews & Bonta (1994); Gendreau, Andrews, Coggin & Chanteloupe (1992); Rogers (1981)	Smith (1991); Bowker (1983)
Jealousy		Barnett, Martinez & Bluestein (1995); Wilson & Daly (1993); Daly & Wilson (1988); Callaghan-Chaffee & Chaffee (1982); Daly, Wilson & Weghorst (1982); White (1981)
Regret committing to partner		

A score of three or greater on the IFSS identifies the subject as a high risk to murder his intimate female partner. Despite having low internal consistency ( $\alpha = .58$ ) the IFSS significantly differentiated known intimate murderers from other men. Specifically, the area under the ROC curve revealed an 86% rate of correct predictions when the IFSS was used to identify intimate murderers from community controls, a 60% rate of correct predictions when identifying intimate murderers from general offenders, and a 71% rate of correct predictions when identifying intimate murderers from men in the two control groups combined. These data suggest that the IFSS is best suited for use with nonincarcerated men.

### Advantages of the IFSS

A major advantage of the IFSS over any assessment scheme designed to assess risk of intimate femicide (e.g., Hart, 1990; Campbell, 1995) is its psychometric properties. First, the IFSS was empirically derived through the use of multiple regression analysis. Second, it is the only intimate femicide risk scale to provide an empirically derived cut-off score. Third, the IFSS is the only scale of its type for which there is data available concerning validity. Postdictive validity was demonstrated by using scores on the IFSS to differentiate known intimate murderers from other men who have not killed an intimate partner. Using a cut off score of  $\geq 3$  the IFSS achieved a 78% rate of correct predictions in distinguishing intimate murderers from nonincarcerated men, with a sensitivity of 65% and a specificity of 89%. The overall rate of correct predictions was 54% when distinguishing intimate murderers from other offenders, with sensitivity of 65% and specificity of 48%. Evidence of construct validity was based on correlations of the IFSS with measures of abuse. Overall, data analysis showed that intimate femicide can be predicted by the IFSS.

Another advantage of the IFSS is its potential value to the professionals, from many different disciplines, who are required to make critical decisions concerning risk of intimate femicide. Predicting risk of violence and/or homicide is a difficult task and experts continue to debate the degree to which such predictions are possible. Opponents of predictions of extreme violence would

argue that the base rate of intimate femicide is so close to zero that risk assessments are not required because the best strategy would be to predict that no man will kill his intimate female partner. This position is of little consolation to police officers responding to a domestic dispute or other service providers who are required to render a decision concerning the risk a man poses to his wife and children. To complicate the situation, these decisions must often be made under difficult conditions, within a short time frame, with limited information, and few or no tools to serve as guide (Det. Sergeant J. Wilcox & Sergeant T. Warr, personal communication May 7, 1999). Similarly, the courts are required to render decisions that have a direct impact on the management of an assessed risk level. Regardless of where these decisions are made or by whom, when they turn out to be wrong a woman pays with her life and accusations of negligence abound. Given the reality that predictions of extreme violence are routinely made despite base rate issues and that the costs of false negatives are extremely high, decisions concerning risk of intimate femicide must be responsibly generated. Structured risk scales, such as the IFSS are most likely to be useful when making decisions about men whose potential for abuse is already a concern, thereby increasing the base rate of serious violence. The extent to which the IFSS differentiates intimate murderers from other abusive men has yet to be examined.

### Limitations of the IFSS

There is great demand for an instrument like the IFSS (Crawford, Haskell & Bacon, 1999; Goodman, Dutton & Bennett, 2000; Luciw, 2000). This has created a situation where there are likely to be those quick to consider the IFSS a panacea to be administered on mass to groups of men in an effort to avert potential murders. Such an over zealous reaction would be irresponsible and could have a detrimental impact on individual rights and freedoms (Andrews & Bonta, 1994). Were the IFSS to be used in a community setting with an unrestricted sample of men the base rate for intimate femicide would be very low. This would result in a high false positive rate and no doubt in the placement of restrictive conditions on men who in actuality present a low risk to kill their partner. A very important limitation of the IFSS concerns false negative decisions. Like any risk assessment scale the IFSS is susceptible to false negatives, in other words, identifying high risk men as low risk. When these inevitable situations occur in a lethality assessment the costs are high. The IFSS is further limited by the lack of validation with a different sample. Lastly, the IFSS does not include some commonly used risk indicators such as stalking (McFarlane, Campbell, Wilt, Sachs, Ulrich & Xu, 1999), threat of homicide and access to weapons (Hart, 1988), and victim fear (Goldsmith, 1990).

### Use of the IFSS

The IFSS is an experimental scale not intended for use as a applied risk assessment scale at this time. The limitations of the IFSS would preclude it from

being a “stand alone” instrument. To overcome these limitations the IFSS should represent only one component of a comprehensive risk assessment such as those proposed by Saunders (1992) or Sonkin (1987). The IFSS might also be administered in conjunction with the Danger Assessment Scale (Campbell, 1995), the Risk Appraisal Guide (Webster, Harris, Rice, Cormier & Quinsey, 1994) and/ or the HCR-20 (Webster, Douglas, Eaves & Hart, 1997). To compensate for the IFSS’s lack of attention to victim concerns users are encouraged to consult Goldsmith (1990) who provides an item for assessing degree of victim fear. This item requires the assessor to rate the victim’s level of fear according to three categories. Considerable fear, includes a fear for one’s life and/or the life of others. Moderate fear does not involve a fear of death but clearly a fear of abuse. Lastly, minimum fear exists when the woman is fairly confident that her partner’s behaviour was out of character and she believes that the likelihood of further abuse is remote. Given that the IFSS does not consider stalking it may be augmented with the Stalking Inventory (McFarlane et al. 1999). Incorporating the IFSS as part of an assessment battery would ensure that critical risk indicators not addressed by this scale are evaluated. Furthermore, combining the IFSS with other instruments may assist in limiting false negatives.

The IFSS was developed with trained police officers and other front line workers as its potential users. Hopefully a scale such as this may assist police officers responding to domestic disputes in carrying out quick and reliable risk assessments. In programs for abusive males structured scales may be valuable

in identifying men who are potentially femicidal, thereby ensuring prompt and appropriate intervention. The inclusion of dynamic risk predictors in the IFSS (education level, male associates, jealousy, and commitment to ones partner) suggest that it may be a useful instrument to assess changes in risk level (perhaps associated to treatment); however, such usage is premature. Another important use for the type of risk scale being described here may be in assisting courts in identifying the most appropriate intervention for managing risk (e.g., incarceration, probation, bail, restraining orders).

In light of the high social, legal, and moral costs associated with intimate femicide assessments, it would be imperative that users of instruments like the IFSS be trained in both the assessment of abusive men and in the broader area of family violence.

Assessments of intimate femicide will always be susceptible to issues of false negatives and low base rate. Consequently, scales such as the IFSS should be reserved for use with men whose abusive behaviour has generated concern. This restriction would increase the base rate, creating a situation where the scale can be used effectively. The study did not apply such a restriction, hence the reader is again reminded that until validation studies are conducted, the IFSS should be used only for research purposes.

#### Theoretical implications of this study

Cunningham et al (1998) noted that “most articles end with the observation that family violence is a complex phenomenon that can be explained



only by a synthesis of approaches” (p.27). This study began with that observation and applied it in the development of the Binary Model. The strategy of viewing components of various theories as complementary and additive rather than competing (Dutton, 1985; Jaffe et al, 1998; Tolman & Bennett, 1990) was a productive approach to the literature and one that is encouraged.

By way of the Binary Model this study attempted to understand why men kill their wives and girlfriends. Hopefully, the results presented in this paper have moved us closer to understanding the motives behind this disturbing behaviour. From a theoretical perspective the findings of this study suggest that the majority of intimate femicides are not the direct result of factors within a patriarchal society. This offers some explanation for why all men do not abuse and kill their female partners. Rather, there appears to be a subgroup of men for whom jealousy and mistrust, stemming from their partners actual or perceived infidelity, becomes pathological. This contributes to a decline in marital satisfaction and the man becoming physically and/or psychologically abusive. For some men this abuse may have a rapid onset but for others, who may be described as overcontrolled, the onset of abuse may be more gradual and subtle. As the man’s jealousy and concern over his partner’s infidelity becomes more pathological his focus shifts to fears of rejection and abandonment. As the possibility of the relationship ending looms closer the man experiences a sense of hopelessness and desperation that may best be described as dysphoria. It is this situation that may result in intimate femicide.

This study offers some insight into other theories that may hold promise. With respect to theories oriented around traditional male attitudes and beliefs none of the attitudinal measures (e.g., Acceptance of Interpersonal Violence, Sex Role Stereotyping, Relationship Control, Patriarchal Beliefs, Patriarchal Attitudes, Male Attitudes) yielded any significant group differences. This finding is consistent with that of Sugarman and Frankel (1996) who found that violent husbands held similar attitudes toward women as did nonviolent husbands. These results suggest that theories emphasizing traditional male attitudes may be limited in accounting for intimate femicide.

Findings related to the role of male associates, particularly those who endorse or participate in abusive behaviour, suggested that this may be an area deserving of further investigation. Like general offenders, intimate murderers spent more time associating with a more abusive peer group (when not incarcerated) compared to nonincarcerated men. This finding is consistent with Bowker's (1983) observation that the severity and frequency of spousal abuse increased in proportion to the amount of time spent with male friends. It is also consistent with Andrews and Bonta's (1994) findings on the relationship between antisocial associates and criminal behaviour.

With respect to personality based theories of intimate femicide, results from this study suggest that the construct of overcontrolled hostility may warrant further consideration. Although the act of intimate femicide is anger based, this point was not apparent from data obtained from standard measures of anger,

aggression and/or vengeance. Different measures of these constructs may be required for use with inmate populations. Additionally, theories of intimate femicide highlighting the role of the perpetrators self-image appear to contribute little to the understanding of this act.

### Practical Implications

The findings of this study generated recommendations for both the community and correctional systems. These recommendations are presented in the following section.

#### Community Recommendations

To avert intimate femicides an obvious recommendation would be to enhance the reliability and validity of lethality assessments completed by services providers to both abusive men and their victims. Unfortunately, for many intimate murderers there were few overt indicators of their risk. Hence, the solution does not reside entirely in micro issues such as improving risk assessments. Community organizations must consider macro initiatives designed to enhance public awareness and education concerning intimate femicide. This rests on the belief that recognition of intimate femicide as a social problem and understanding its dynamics will contribute to its reduction (Crawford, Haskell, & Bacon, 1999). Given that the critical high risk period for intimate femicide is following separation (Crawford & Gartner, 1992; Campbell, 1992; Wilson & Daly, 1993) efforts should be made to manage risk during this stage. In considering this issue it is important to note that in many cases the man may not have actually violated any

laws at the time of separation rendering it difficult to respond with legal sanctions. One option may be to offer programs in the healthy termination of relationships for both men and women. For women leaving a high risk relationship a component of this program may be the development of a safety plan. Another option may involve employers and co-workers encouraging their employees/colleagues, both male and female, to meet with a counsellor (e.g., Employee Assistance Program agent) when they are terminating a relationship. This might also involve the development of a circle of support for both men and women in high risk relationships. Crawford et al. (1999) provide a detailed outline of community strategies for reducing intimate femicides.

#### Management of Incarcerated Intimate Murderers

The data identified an intimate murderer characterized by his suicidal behaviour (Beta Murderer) along with a critical period during the month following the offence when this man poses an elevated risk to suicide. Consequently, for intimate murderers who have a history of suicidal behaviour prior to and/or during the offence and/or who match the characteristics of the Beta Murderer, close observation is recommended during the critical period when initially arrested. Once sentenced and transferred to the prison system, however, intimate murderers do not appear to encounter any greater difficulty adjusting to prison than other offenders and they receive fewer institutional charges. The latter in conjunction with the lower level of criminal involvement exhibited by intimate

murderers suggest that most can likely be managed in medium to low level security institution.

Penitentiary services might consider offering a program specifically for intimate murderers. Such a program might be structured around the stages of the Binary Model and target risk reduction and insight. Although insight has not been identified as a criminogenic factor (Andrews & Bonta, 1994), parole boards often expect offenders to show insight into their offence. Contact with more than 100 intimate murderers during the course of this study revealed that many lack such insight and are seeking answers to account for why they murdered their partners. Lastly, to assist in the identification of intimate murderers for program and research purposes correctional services are encouraged to consider coding murderers according to their relationship to the victim.

#### Limitations of this Study and Recommendations for Future Research

This study was limited by its retrospective approach requiring offenders to recall events that occurred years earlier. Consequently, it is difficult to establish the accuracy of their self-reports. A second limitation may have been the use of volunteer participants. This strategy may have contributed to a process of self selection that could have influenced the representativeness of the groups being compared, hence, weakening the validity of the results. A third limitation may be that the investigation into the presence of a Beta Murderer typology was hindered by the diminished number of men matching this profile due to the high rate of successful perpetrator suicides in cases of intimate femicide.

Future studies might consider the inclusion of a control group of abusive men who have not killed an intimate female partner. This group would assist in understanding the relationship between abuse and murder of intimate female partners. Based on Crawford and Gartner's (1992) finding that approximately one quarter of intimate femicide cases resulted in charges of not guilty by reason of insanity future studies might consider including a sample of men from this group. Subsequent research might also consider splitting intimate murderers according to the status of their relationship with the victim at the time of the offence, for example, estranged versus together (Dawson & Gartner, 1998). It may also be valuable to consider including variables related to witnessing abuse as a child (parental violence), having been a victim of abuse as a child, and stalking into future studies. Finally, subsequent research should explore the correlation between the IFSS and existing measures such as the Spousal Assault Risk Assessment (SARA) guide (Kropp, Hart, Webster & Eaves, 1995) or the Danger Assessment Scale (Campbell, 1995). Attention should also be devoted to field testing the IFSS possibly by police officers responding to domestic disputes.

In conclusion, the results of this study cast light on several concepts germane to intimate femicide, many of which have until now received limited empirical attention. The study offered a model for understanding intimate femicide and a scale for identifying men at risk of killing their present or estranged wife/girlfriend; however, investigation into this topic remains in its infancy.

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**Appendix A:  
Research Questionnaire**

**Research Questionnaire**

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Test Location: \_\_\_\_\_

Instructions

In this section of the study, we are interested in learning about men who have been sentenced for killing a woman with whom they were in a relationship with.

You will be asked a variety of questions, some of which involve your relationship with the woman, and some which involve the actual offence which resulted in the woman's death. Questions concerning your wife/girlfriend refer to the victim of your offence.

Please keep in mind that you are responding anonymously and there is no way of anyone, including the researcher, knowing how you as an individual responded. With this in mind, you are encouraged to answer all questions as accurately and honestly as possible.

This questionnaire should take you approximately two hours to complete; however, don't rush, you may take all the time you need. Be sure to read all instructions carefully.



1. How old are you? (enter years and months) \_\_\_\_\_years \_\_\_\_\_months

2. Have you ever been legally married?

never 00\_\_ once 01\_\_ twice 02\_\_ 3 or more times 03\_\_

3. Have you ever been in a common-law relationship (living with someone for more than 6 months).

never 00\_\_ once 01\_\_ twice 02\_\_ 3 or more times 03\_\_

4. What is your current marital status?

married 01\_\_ divorced 03\_\_ single 05\_\_  
common-law 02\_\_ separated 04\_\_ widower 06\_\_

5. Is/was your wife/girlfriend older or younger than you? (Recall if you are presently not in a relationship comment on your most recent relationship) - check and enter number of years older or younger

she was/is older..... 01\_\_ by \_\_\_\_ years  
same age (less than 1 yr. difference)..... 02\_\_  
she was/is younger..... 03\_\_ by \_\_\_\_ years

6. What is the highest level of education you and your wife/girlfriend have completed? (check **your** response in Column A, to the left and the response for your **wife/girlfriend** in Column B, to the right).

<b>A</b>		<b>B</b>
<b>Me</b>		<b>Wife/Girlfriend</b>
01__	No schooling .....	01__
02__	some elementary .....	02__
03__	completed elementary .....	03__
04__	some secondary (high school) .....	04__
05__	some community or technical college .....	05__
	(e.g. computer training, welding course, auto repair)	
06__	completed community or technical college .....	06__
07__	some university or teachers college .....	07__
08__	completed university or teachers college .....	08__

7. Did/do you have any children or step-children?

01\_\_ Yes, biological children 02\_\_ Yes, step-children 03\_\_ No

8. How many children are/were living in your home?  
 (enter number) \_\_\_\_\_ children

9. What is/was the major source of income for your household?

- |                             |                              |
|-----------------------------|------------------------------|
| 01___ my job                | 05___ workman's compensation |
| 02___ wife/girlfriend's job | 06___ unemployment insurance |
| 03___ welfare               | 07___ other (specify)        |
| 04___ mother's allowance    | _____                        |

10. Which category below represents the TOTAL FAMILY INCOME, before taxes,

IM & GO: for the 12 months before your arrest and conviction for the offence(s) for which you are presently serving time.

CC: for the past 12 months.

Please include income from all sources such as wages, salaries, commissions, pensions, family allowances, rental income and so forth. (check one)

- |                           |                             |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 01___ Less than \$10,000  | 05___ \$30,000 - \$39,999   |
| 02___ \$10,000 - \$14,999 | 06___ \$40,000 - \$49,999   |
| 03___ \$15,000 - \$19,999 | 07___ \$50,000 - \$59,999   |
| 04___ \$20,000 - \$29,999 | 08___ Greater than \$60,000 |

11. IM & GO: In the 6 months prior to being arrested / charged for the offence(s) for which you are presently serving time,  
CC: During the last 6 months,

what was the employment status of you and your wife/girlfriend? (check **your** response in column A to the left and the response for your **wife/girlfriend** in column B to the right).

- | A  | B               |
|--|-----------------|
| Me   | Wife/Girlfriend |
| 01___ unemployed, the whole time           | 01___           |
| 02___ unemployed, most of the time         | 02___           |
| 03___ unemployed, some of the time         | 03___           |
| 04___ employed full time                   | 04___           |
| 05___ employed part time                   | 05___           |
| 06___ on welfare or workman's compensation | 06___           |
| 07___ homemaking as a full-time job        | 07___           |
| 08___ could not work (injured or ill)      | 08___           |
| 09___ retired                              | 09___           |

12. IM & GO: In the YEAR prior to being arrested / charged for the offence(s) for which you are presently serving time,  
CC: During the last/past YEAR of your relationship,

did you experience any of the following? (check as many as apply)

- 01\_\_\_ In hospital for physical problems
- 02\_\_\_ In hospital for mental problems
- 03\_\_\_ Seeing a lawyer about separation
- 04\_\_\_ Seeing a mediator about separation
- 05\_\_\_ Seeing a marital counsellor
- 06\_\_\_ Being arrested/charged by the police for assaulting/threatening your wife/girlfriend
- 07\_\_\_ Participating in a substance abuse program
- 08\_\_\_ Participating in a male batterers' program
- 09\_\_\_ Wife/girlfriend went to and returned from a women's shelter
- 10\_\_\_ You left wife/girlfriend (separated)
- 11\_\_\_ Wife/girlfriend left you (separated)

13. IM & GO: How old were you when you were first convicted of a criminal offence? \_\_\_\_\_

CC: Have you ever been convicted of a criminal offence?  
01\_\_\_yes 02\_\_\_no

- 13 a) CC: If yes, how old were you when you were first convicted? \_\_\_\_\_

14. To which of the following institutions have you been admitted?  
(check as many as apply)

- 01\_\_\_ Foster home
- 02\_\_\_ Group home
- 03\_\_\_ Young Offender facility
- 04\_\_\_ Detention centre
- 05\_\_\_ Prison(Provincial)
- 06\_\_\_ Penitentiary(Federal)
- 07\_\_\_ None of the above

15. CC: Answer this question only if you were in one of the institutions identified in question 14.

For which of the following offence(s) were you ever sentenced to a correctional institution? Enter the number of sentences on the line beside each one. So, if you were sentenced once for robbery and twice for drug-related offences, enter 1 on the robbery line and 2 on the drug-related offences line.

- |   |                                       |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| 01__ Property (B & E, theft, fraud, etc.) | 08__ Indecent Assault                 |
| 02__ Threatening & Possession of Weapon   | 09__ Rape                             |
| 03__ Robbery                              | 10__ Other sexual charges             |
| 04__ Arson                                | 11__ Attempted Murder                 |
| 05__ Common Assault                       | 12__ Manslaughter                     |
| 06__ Assault Causing bodily Harm          | 13__ Murder-2nd degree or non-capital |
| 07__ Drug-Related Offences                | 14__ Murder-1st degree or capital     |
|   | 15__ Other (what?)_____               |
- 

Note: Questions 16 - 21 are not included on the CC version of the Questionnaire.

16. What was your marital status at the time you were arrested/charged with the offence(s) for which you are presently serving time?

- |                 |                |              |
|-----------------|----------------|--------------|
| 01__ married    | 03__ divorced  | 05__ single  |
| 02__ common-law | 04__ separated | 06__ widower |

17. For which of the following offences are you presently serving penitentiary time? (check as many as apply)

- |   |                                       |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| 01__ Property (B & E, theft, fraud, etc.) | 08__ Indecent Assault                 |
| 02__ Threatening & Possession of Weapon   | 09__ Rape                             |
| 03__ Robbery                              | 10__ Other sexual charges             |
| 04__ Arson                                | 11__ Attempted Murder                 |
| 05__ Common Assault                       | 12__ Manslaughter                     |
| 06__ Assault Causing bodily Harm          | 13__ Murder-2nd degree or non-capital |
| 07__ Drug-Related Offences                | 14__ Murder-1st degree or capital     |
|   | 15__ Other (what?)_____               |
-

18. How old were you when you were convicted for the offences for which you are presently serving time? (enter age in years)  
 \_\_\_\_\_ years old
19. Since you were arrested for these offences, how long have you spent in custody (count jail and penitentiary time) (enter years & months on line)  
 \_\_\_\_\_ years \_\_\_\_\_ months
20. How much of your present sentence have you served so far?  
 \_\_\_\_\_ years \_\_\_\_\_ months
21. Which of the following things happened to you and/or your wife/girlfriend during the LAST YEAR of your relationship before you were arrested/charged for the offence(s) for which you are now serving time? (check as many as apply for **you**, in column A, and your **wife/girlfriend**, in column B).

<b>A</b>		<b>B</b>
<b>Me</b>		<b>Wife/Girlfriend</b>
01_____	Stopped full-time schooling	_____01
02_____	Lost job or was unemployed	_____02
03_____	Got married	_____03
04_____	Someone moved into our home	_____04
05_____	Had financial problems	_____05
06_____	My wife/girlfriend and I separated	_____06
07_____	Arrival of baby at home	_____07
08_____	Someone moved out of our home	_____08
09_____	Serious illness	_____09
10_____	Serious illness of someone dear	_____10
11_____	Quit or retired from full-time work	_____11
12_____	Started working or changed jobs	_____12
13_____	Death of someone dear	_____13
14_____	None of the above	_____14

Using the scale below as a guide, write a number beside each statement to indicate how much you agree/disagree with it.

<b>Agree Strongly</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Agree Slightly</b>	<b>Neither Agree nor Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree Slightly</b>	<b>Disagree Strongly</b>
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- 22. People today should not use "an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth" as a rule for living. \_\_\_\_\_
- 23. Being roughed up is sexually stimulating to many women. \_\_\_\_\_
- 24. Many times a woman will pretend she doesn't want to have intercourse because she doesn't want to seem loose, but she's really hoping the man will force her. \_\_\_\_\_
- 25. A wife should move out of the house if her husband hits her. \_\_\_\_\_
- 26. Sometimes the only way a man can get a cold woman turned on is to use force. \_\_\_\_\_
- 27. A man is never justified in hitting his wife. \_\_\_\_\_
- 28. A man should fight when the woman he's with is insulted by another man. \_\_\_\_\_
- 29. It is acceptable for the woman to pay for the date. \_\_\_\_\_
- 30. A woman should be a virgin when she marries. \_\_\_\_\_
- 31. There is something wrong with a woman who doesn't want to marry and raise a family. \_\_\_\_\_
- 32. A wife should never contradict her husband in public. \_\_\_\_\_
- 33. It is better for a woman to use her feminine charm to get what she wants rather than ask for it outright. \_\_\_\_\_
- 34. It is acceptable for a woman to have a career, but marriage and family should come first. \_\_\_\_\_
- 35. It looks worse for a woman to be drunk than for a man to be drunk. \_\_\_\_\_
- 36. There is nothing wrong with a woman going to a bar alone. \_\_\_\_\_
- 37. In the family in which you grew up were the men and boys treated differently from the women and girls?

Yes \_\_\_\_\_

No \_\_\_\_\_

Explain briefly.

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Using the scale below as a guide, write a number beside each statement to indicate how much you agree/disagree with it.

<b>Strongly Agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Neither Agree nor Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>
<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>

- 38. I tended to keep close control over my wife/girlfriend. \_\_\_
- 39. My wife/girlfriend made most of the important decisions in our relationship. \_\_\_
- 40. If my wife/girlfriend wants something from me she is/was likely to get it. \_\_\_
- 41. I could/can usually find a way to get my wife/girlfriend to do what I wanted her to do. \_\_\_
- 42. In my relationship with my wife/girlfriend I usually got/get my way concerning important issues. \_\_\_

The next questions are about your beliefs. Using the scale below as a guide, write a number beside each statement to indicate how much you agree/disagree with it.

<b>Strongly Agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Neither Agree nor Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>
<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>

- 43. A man and his wife/girlfriend should have equal say in deciding how to spend the family income \_\_\_
- 44. A man and his wife/girlfriend should share the household chores if they are both working outside the home \_\_\_
- 45. A man has the right to decide whether or not his wife/girlfriend should go out in the evening with her friends \_\_\_
- 46. A man has the right to decide whether or not his wife/girlfriend should work outside the home \_\_\_
- 47. Sometimes it is important for a man to show his wife/girlfriend that he is the head of the house \_\_\_
- 48. Any woman who is raped is at least partly to blame \_\_\_
- 49. A man has the right to have sex with his wife/girlfriend when he wants, even though she may not want to \_\_\_
- 50. If a man hits his wife/girlfriend, it is because he's lost his temper and gone out of control \_\_\_





The following group of questions concern men who you know.

Please circle the best answer.

64. Of the men that you personally know (friends, family, acquaintances, neighbours, co-workers) how many do you think or suspect have ever assaulted or abused their partners.  
 none      1      2      3-5      6-10      more than 10
65. How many men who you consider to have ever been your friend (including your current friends) do you know or suspect may have assaulted or abused their partners.  
 none      1      2      3-5      more than 5
66. How many of your current friends do you know or suspect may have ever assaulted or abused their partners?  
 none      1      2      3-5      more than 5
67. How many of your relatives do you know or suspect may have ever assaulted or abused their partners?  
 none      1      2      3-5      more than 5
68. If I found out that someone I know was abusing his partner, I would stop visiting or associating with him.  
 definitely yes      probably yes not sure      probably no      no
69. If I found out that someone I know had ever abused his partner, I would stop visiting or associating with him.  
 definitely yes      probably yes not sure      probably no      no
70. Have any of your current friends ever suggested that you hit or scare your partner in order to keep her in line?  
 none      1      2      3-5      more than 5
71. Have any of your current friends ever suggest that you insult or put-down your partner?  
 none      1      2      3-5      more than 5

How many of your current friends...

72. talk or joke about women being stupid or incompetent?  
 none            1                    2                    3-5                    more than 5
73. talk or joke about women as only being good for sex?  
 none            1                    2                    3-5                    more than 5
74. complain about women having too much power these days?  
 none            1                    2                    3-5                    more than 5
75. treat women as though they are not as good as men?  
 none            1                    2                    3-5                    more than 5
76. How many male friends do you currently have? \_\_\_\_\_

77. The next questions are about your participation in activities with other men. How many times **IN A TYPICAL MONTH** (IM & GO: when not incarcerated) would you engage in each activity with other men? Only include those events which were all-male.

<b>Never</b> 1	<b>Once</b> 2	<b>Twice</b> 3	<b>3-5 Times</b> 4	<b>6-10 Times</b> 5	<b>More than 10 Times</b> 6
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- a. Play cards, watch T.V., drink etc. at home. \_\_\_\_\_
- b. Exercise or play sports. \_\_\_\_\_
- c. Attend sports events as a spectator. \_\_\_\_\_
- d. Go to bars or nightclubs. \_\_\_\_\_
- e. Go to movies. \_\_\_\_\_
- f. Go out for dinner or lunch. \_\_\_\_\_
- g. Work for wages (e.g., a part-time or full-time job, summer job). \_\_\_\_\_



79. We are interested in how you describe yourself. For each of the pairs of words below place an X in the space you feel most nearly describes you.

For example for the word pair

Brave 1 2 3 4 5 Coward

if you see yourself as a very brave person you would put an X in the space to the far left, if you consider yourself a coward you would put an X on the space to the far right, if you see yourself as being somewhere in between mark one of the three middle space which best describes you.

- |     |               |          |          |          |          |          |             |
|-----|---------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|-------------|
| a.) | Likeable      | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | Unlikeable  |
| b.) | Bungling      | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | Skilful     |
| c.) | Unsuccessful  | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | Successful  |
| d.) | Smart         | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | Stupid      |
| e.) | Boring        | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | Interesting |
| f.) | Handsome      | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | Ugly        |
| g.) | Unhappy       | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | Happy       |
| h.) | Daring        | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | Sissy       |
| i.) | Weak          | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | Strong      |
| j.) | Athletic      | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | Unathletic  |
| k.) | Shy           | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | Confident   |
| l.) | Leader        | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | Follower    |
| m.) | Irresponsible | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | Responsible |
| n.) | A Planner     | <u>1</u> | <u>2</u> | <u>3</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>5</u> | Impulsive   |

The next group of questions ask about your dating history and sexual relationships.

80. How old were you when you first started dating? (enter year on line. If you have never dated, enter 0) \_\_\_\_\_years old
81. Did you become sexually involved with this person? (check one)  
 Yes 01\_\_\_\_ No 02\_\_\_\_
82. If Yes, was this your first sexual experience with a girl/woman? (check one)  
 Yes 01\_\_\_\_ No 02\_\_\_\_
83. If No, how old were you when you had your first sexual experience with a girl/woman? (enter age on line) \_\_\_\_\_years old
84. Since your first sexual experience with a girl/woman, approximately how many different women have you had sexual relations with? (enter number, if none enter 0). about \_\_\_\_\_ woman
85. Since you first started dating, how many different kinds of relationships have you had with girls/women? (check as many as apply)  
 01\_\_None      03\_\_Dating      05\_\_Common Law  
 02\_\_Friends      04\_\_Marriage      06\_\_One-night stands  
 07\_\_Prostitutes
86. How many of these relationships with different women have you had? (enter number you recall on the lines)  
 01\_\_Friends      03\_\_Marriage      05\_\_One-night stands  
 02\_\_Dating      04\_\_Common Law      06\_\_Prostitutes
87. Looking back on all the intimate relationships you have had with women, what was most difficult for you to deal with?  
 01\_\_Starting the relationship  
 02\_\_Keeping the relationship going well  
 03\_\_Ending the relationship myself  
 04\_\_Having my partner end the relationship  
 05\_\_Other (specify)\_\_\_\_\_
- 88.a) When you were involved in a relationship, did you also have sex with other women? (check) Yes 01\_\_\_\_ No 02\_\_\_\_

b) Did your wife/girlfriend also have sex with other men?

- 01 \_\_\_ Yes, I suspected                      03 \_\_\_ No, but not sure  
02 \_\_\_ Yes, for sure                         04 \_\_\_ No, for sure

89. Who was mainly responsible for ending most of the relationships you have been involved in?

- 01 \_\_\_ Me                                      03 \_\_\_ Both of us  
02 \_\_\_ Partner                                04 \_\_\_ Someone else

90. Have you ever been involved in a homosexual relationship?

- 01 \_\_\_ No                                      02 \_\_\_ Once                                      03 \_\_\_ More than once

91. A number of women say their partner's abuse (physical, verbal, emotional), jealousy, alcohol/drug use/abuse and/or other problems were among the major reasons for them leaving the relationship.

a. In how many of your intimate relationships did your wife/girlfriend leave you because of your physical abuse of them? (circle number)

None 1 2 3 5 6 7 8 9 10 More Give Number \_\_\_

b. In how many of your intimate relationships did your wife/girlfriend leave you because of your jealousy? (circle number)

None 1 2 3 5 6 7 8 9 10 More Give Number \_\_\_

c. In how many of your intimate relationships did your wife/girlfriend leave you because of your heavy use of drugs and/or alcohol? (circle number)

None 1 2 3 5 6 7 8 9 10 More Give Number \_\_\_

d. In how many of your intimate relationships did your wife/girlfriend leave you for a reason other than those mentioned in items a, b and c above? (circle number)

None 1 2 3 5 6 7 8 9 10 More Give Number \_\_\_

e. If you answered one or more to question (d) above, list some of these other reasons.

---

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92. We would like to know how you would rate various aspects of your life,

IM: during the month prior to the offence which resulted in the death of your wife/girlfriend.  
GO: during the month prior to your most serious present offence.  
CC: during the past month.

In the month prior to my offence (CC: past month) I

- |  |                 |          |          |          |  |                 |
|--|-----------------|----------|----------|----------|--|-----------------|
|  | <b>Strongly</b> |          |          |          |  | <b>Strongly</b> |
|  | <b>Disagree</b> |          |          |          |  | <b>Agree</b>    |
|  | <b>1</b>        | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> |  | <b>5</b>        |
- a. felt satisfied with my sex life \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. was satisfied with the type of work I was \_\_\_\_\_  
doing or had done in the past \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. felt I was generally successful \_\_\_\_\_
  - d. was pleased with the amount of money I had \_\_\_\_\_
  - e. felt I was a valued member of society \_\_\_\_\_
  - f. felt I had the respect of my friends \_\_\_\_\_
  - g. felt the future was looking good for me \_\_\_\_\_
  - h. was pleased with my physical appearance \_\_\_\_\_
  - i. was in good physical health \_\_\_\_\_

93. No matter how well a couple gets along, there are times when they disagree or get annoyed with each other. Below is a list of some things people do under these circumstances.

How often have you done the following to your wife/girlfriend. These questions do not relate to a specific wife/girlfriend but to any wife/girlfriend past or present.

Please record the number which best represents your answer for each of the following situations.

<b>Never</b> 1	<b>Once</b> 2	<b>Twice</b> 3	<b>3-5 Times</b> 4	<b>6-10 Times</b> 5	<b>More than 10 Times</b> 6
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- a. Insulted or swore at her \_\_\_\_\_
- b. Put her down in front of friends or family \_\_\_\_\_
- c. Accused her of having affairs or flirting with other men \_\_\_\_\_
- d. Did or said something to spite her \_\_\_\_\_

Never 1	Once 2	Twice 3	3-5 Times 4	6-10 Times 5	More than 10 Times 6
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- e. Threatened to hit or throw something at her \_\_\_\_\_
- f. Followed her and observed her behaviour \_\_\_\_\_
- g. Threaten to harm yourself \_\_\_\_\_
- h. Threaten to harm someone else \_\_\_\_\_
- i. Threw, smashed or kicked something \_\_\_\_\_
- j. Threw something at her \_\_\_\_\_
- k. Pushed, grabbed or shoved her \_\_\_\_\_
- l. Slapped her \_\_\_\_\_
- m. Kicked, bit, or hit her with your fist \_\_\_\_\_
- n. Hit or tried to hit her with something \_\_\_\_\_
- o. Beat her up \_\_\_\_\_
- p. Choked her \_\_\_\_\_
- q. Threatened her with a knife or a gun \_\_\_\_\_
- r. Used a knife or gun on her \_\_\_\_\_

s. People define abuse in different ways. Go back over items (a) to (r) above and circle the letter for those you would consider to be a form of abuse.

t. If you have done any of the behaviours listed in (a) to (i), briefly explain what contributed to you acting that way.

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u. If you have done any of the behaviours listed in (j), (k) and (l), briefly explain what contributed to you acting that way.

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v. If you have done any of the behaviours listed in (m) to (r), briefly explain what contributed to you acting that way.

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w. Describe the worst thing you have ever done to a wife/girlfriend and explain your reasons for acting the way you did.

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Most of the following questions concern situations which involve you and your partner (wife/girlfriend). If you are presently not involved with someone, answer these questions as you believe you would if you were in a relationship.

Use the following scale in responding.

<b>Disagree Strongly</b> 1	<b>Disagree</b> 2	<b>Disagree Slightly</b> 3	<b>Neither Agree nor Disagree</b> 4	<b>Agree Slightly</b> 5	<b>Agree</b> 6	<b>Agree Strongly</b> 7
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94. When my partner dances with someone else I feel very uneasy. \_\_\_\_\_
95. My partner was the motivating force in my life. \_\_\_\_\_
96. I get a sick feeling in my stomach when my mate spends more time with her hobby than with me. \_\_\_\_\_
97. I haven't had the right kind of luck to get as successful a romantic relationship as some of my friends enjoy. \_\_\_\_\_
98. I often find myself idealizing persons or objects. \_\_\_\_\_
99. I often feel/felt I couldn't exist without my partner. \_\_\_\_\_
100. I always like to know where my partner is and know what she is doing. \_\_\_\_\_
101. When my partner works late, I feel like checking up on her. \_\_\_\_\_
102. I have confidence that my partner is not cheating behind my back. \_\_\_\_\_
103. I feel justified in going through my partner's clothes and possessions when I suspect infidelity. \_\_\_\_\_

<b>Disagree Strongly</b> 1	<b>Disagree</b> 2	<b>Disagree Slightly</b> 3	<b>Neither Agree nor Disagree</b> 4	<b>Agree Slightly</b> 5	<b>Agree</b> 6	<b>Agree Strongly</b> 7
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104. I do not like it when my partner spends too much time with her friends. \_\_\_\_\_
105. It's acceptable to do harm to the lover of my unfaithful partner. \_\_\_\_\_
106. It is somewhat annoying to see others have all the luck in getting the best dating partners. \_\_\_\_\_
107. A woman should promise to "love, honour, and obey" her husband in the wedding ceremony. \_\_\_\_\_
108. I feel empty inside when I see a successful relationship. \_\_\_\_\_
109. I don't receive much attention from other people \_\_\_\_\_
110. When my partner is at a party having fun and I'm not there, I feel depressed. \_\_\_\_\_
111. I wish I were as popular as my partner. \_\_\_\_\_
112. I always try to "even the score." \_\_\_\_\_
113. It is entertaining to hear the sexual fantasies my partner has about another person. \_\_\_\_\_
114. I feel depressed when my partner speaks favourably about someone of the opposite sex. \_\_\_\_\_
115. When somebody hugs my partner, I get sick inside. \_\_\_\_\_
116. When I see my partner kissing someone else my stomach knots up. \_\_\_\_\_
117. When I am away from my partner for any length of time, I do not become suspicious of her whereabouts. \_\_\_\_\_
118. Most of my friends have a more exciting love life than I do. \_\_\_\_\_
119. When my partner goes out with another woman, I become physically upset. \_\_\_\_\_
120. My partner should not give up friendships with members of the opposite sex whom she knew before we met. \_\_\_\_\_
121. I believe that my partner was a more capable person than me. \_\_\_\_\_
122. I feel bad inside when I see my partner kiss someone else at a New Year's party. \_\_\_\_\_
123. There have been times when I was convinced that my partner sees a lover when I'm not there, even though she denies it. \_\_\_\_\_
124. When my partner pays attention to other people, I feel lonely and left out. \_\_\_\_\_
125. When I see an attractive person I feel inadequate. \_\_\_\_\_

<b>Disagree Strongly</b> 1	<b>Disagree</b> 2	<b>Disagree Slightly</b> 3	<b>Neither Agree nor Disagree</b> 4	<b>Agree Slightly</b> 5	<b>Agree</b> 6	<b>Agree Strongly</b> 7
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126. I wish I were as good in handling life as my partner seems to be/was. \_\_\_\_\_
127. When my partner flirts with someone else, I can feel my heart beat faster. \_\_\_\_\_
128. Life doesn't have much meaning without my partner. \_\_\_\_\_
129. I don't know why, but I usually seem to be the underdog. \_\_\_\_\_
130. Losing my partner prevents me from being the person I want to be. \_\_\_\_\_
131. Jealousy is a sign of true love. \_\_\_\_\_
132. I see my mate as a faithful person. \_\_\_\_\_
133. I often feel as if the world were passing me by. \_\_\_\_\_
134. I often desire to change places with the person who is the life-of-the-party. \_\_\_\_\_
135. When my partner and I walk down the street, I watch her reaction to an attractive member of the opposite sex. \_\_\_\_\_

In this section, 11 different situations are presented. For each situation you are required to do three things. In part A you are asked to choose the one word from the list of 16 words which best describes how you would feel in that situation (for your convenience the list of 16 words are repeated at the top of each page in this section). Part B of each situation asks you to rate how strong the emotion you chose from part A is likely to be. Lastly, part C of each situation asks you to rate how much this situation would bother you.

<b>1. happy</b>	<b>5. relieved</b>	<b>9. embarrassed</b>	<b>13. saddened</b>
<b>2. angry</b>	<b>6. suspicious</b>	<b>10. betrayed</b>	<b>14. puzzled</b>
<b>3. depressed</b>	<b>7. lied to</b>	<b>11. at ease (o.k.)</b>	<b>15. enraged</b>
<b>4. lost</b>	<b>8. like a failure</b>	<b>12. worried</b>	<b>16. jealous</b>

136 a. If while at a party I saw my wife/girlfriend dancing with one of my friends, I would feel (choose a reaction from the list above) \_\_\_\_\_

b. How strongly would you feel that way?

Very Little

1

2

3

4

Very Much

5

c. How much would this situation bother you?

Not at All

1

2

3

4

Very Much

5

137 a. If while at a party I saw my wife/girlfriend dancing with someone I do not know, I would feel (choose a reaction from the list above) \_\_\_\_\_

b. How strongly would you feel that way?

Very Little

1

2

3

4

Very Much

5

c. How much would this situation bother you?

Not at All

1

2

3

4

Very Much

5







147. Which of the two situations described below would bother you the most (circle one)

a. You find out that your wife/girlfriend, had a one-time sexual encounter with another man.

b. You find out that there is a man in your wife/girlfriend's life who she has been spending a lot of time with. Although they have not had sex together, your wife/girlfriend enjoys this man's company and they buy gifts for each other.

148. State your reasons for your answer to Questions 147.

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When responding to the questions in this section count all incidents even if they involved different partners. For example in answering "b" below, if one of your girlfriends left you twice and another girlfriend left you once, you would count this as three times and therefore circle 2-4.

149 a. Has a partner ever left you temporarily because you were abusive (e.g., went to friends or to a shelter)?  
 never            once            2-4            5-10            more than 10 times

b. Has a partner ever left you permanently because you were abusive?  
 never            once            2-4            5-10            more than 10 times

c. Have the police ever been called because someone was concerned about you assaulting your partner?  
 never            once            2-4            5-10            more than 10 times

d. Have the police ever talked to you because they were concerned about you assaulting your partner?  
 never            once            2-4            5-10            more than 10 times

e. Have the police ever ordered you to leave because they were concerned about you assaulting your partner?  
 never            once            2-4            5-10            more than 10 times





State the approximate extent of agreement or disagreement between you and your ex-wife/girlfriend on the following items.

Always Agree 1	Almost Always Agree 2	Occasionally Disagree 3	Frequently Disagree 4	Almost Always Disagree 5	Always Disagree 6
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- b. Handling family finances \_\_\_\_\_
- c. Matters of \_\_\_\_\_
- d. Demonstrations of affection \_\_\_\_\_
- e. Friends \_\_\_\_\_
- f. Sex relations \_\_\_\_\_
- g. Conventionally (right, good or proper conduct) \_\_\_\_\_
- h. Philosophy of life \_\_\_\_\_
- i. Ways of dealing with in-laws \_\_\_\_\_
  
- j. When disagreements arose between my partner and I, they usually resulted in
  - 01 \_\_\_\_\_ me giving in
  - 02 \_\_\_\_\_ wife/girlfriend giving in
  - 03 \_\_\_\_\_ agreement by mutual give and take
  
- k. Did you and your partner engage in outside interest together?
  - 01 \_\_\_\_\_ all of them      02 \_\_\_\_\_ some of them
  - 03 \_\_\_\_\_ very few of them      04 \_\_\_\_\_ none of them
  
- l. In leisure time did you generally prefer:
  - 01 \_\_\_\_\_ to be "on the go"      02 \_\_\_\_\_ to stay at home

Did your partner generally prefer:

  - 01 \_\_\_\_\_ to be "on the go"      02 \_\_\_\_\_ stay at home
  
- m. Do you ever wish you had not married? If your relationship was common-law or dating, do you wish you had not committed yourself to the relationship?
  - 01 \_\_\_\_\_ frequently      02 \_\_\_\_\_ occasionally
  - 03 \_\_\_\_\_ rarely      04 \_\_\_\_\_ never

n. If you had your life to live over, what would you do? (check one)

- 01 \_\_\_ choose the same partner
- 02 \_\_\_ choose a different partner
- 03 \_\_\_ not commit to any one person

o. Did you confide in your partner:

- 01 \_\_\_ almost never
- 02 \_\_\_ rarely
- 03 \_\_\_ in most things
- 04 \_\_\_ in everything

l51. How often did you and your wife/girlfriend quarrel? (check one)

- 01 \_\_\_ Once or more a day
- 02 \_\_\_ 2 - 6 times a week
- 03 \_\_\_ About once a week
- 04 \_\_\_ 2 - 4 times a month
- 05 \_\_\_ About once a month
- 06 \_\_\_ Less than once a month
- 07 \_\_\_ Never

Read each of the following statements carefully and record the number which best applies to you.

<b>Strongly Agree</b> 1	2	3	4	<b>Strongly Disagree</b> 5
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- 152. Once in a while I can't control the urge to strike another person. \_\_\_\_\_
- 153. Given enough provocation, I may hit another person. \_\_\_\_\_
- 154. If somebody hits me, I hit back. \_\_\_\_\_
- 155. I get into fights a little more than the average person. \_\_\_\_\_
- 156. If I have to resort to violence to protect my rights, I will. \_\_\_\_\_
- 157. There are people who pushed me so far that we came to blows. \_\_\_\_\_
- 158. I can think of no good reason for ever hitting a person. \_\_\_\_\_
- 159. I have threatened people I know. \_\_\_\_\_
- 160. I have become so mad that I have broken things. \_\_\_\_\_
- 161. I tell my friends openly when I disagree with them. \_\_\_\_\_
- 162. I often find myself disagreeing with people. \_\_\_\_\_
- 163. When people annoy me, I may tell them what I think of them. \_\_\_\_\_
- 164. I can't help getting into arguments when people disagree with me. \_\_\_\_\_
- 165. My friends say that I'm somewhat argumentative. \_\_\_\_\_
- 166. I flare up quickly but get over it quickly. \_\_\_\_\_
- 167. When frustrated, I let my irritation show. \_\_\_\_\_
- 168. I sometimes feel like a powder keg ready to explode. \_\_\_\_\_
- 169. I am an even-tempered person. \_\_\_\_\_
- 170. Some of my friends think I'm a hothead. \_\_\_\_\_
- 171. Sometimes I fly off the handle for no good reason. \_\_\_\_\_
- 172. I have trouble controlling my temper. \_\_\_\_\_
- 173. I am sometimes eaten up with jealousy. \_\_\_\_\_
- 174. At times I feel I have gotten a raw deal out of life. \_\_\_\_\_
- 175. Other people always seem to get the breaks. \_\_\_\_\_
- 176. I wonder why sometimes I feel so bitter about things. \_\_\_\_\_
- 177. I know that "friends" talk about me behind my back. \_\_\_\_\_
- 178. I am suspicious of overly friendly strangers. \_\_\_\_\_
- 179. I sometimes feel that people are laughing at me behind my back. \_\_\_\_\_
- 180. When people are especially nice, I wonder what they want. \_\_\_\_\_

181. Listed below are a number of statements that describe attitudes that different people have. There are no right or wrong answers, only opinions. Read each item and decide whether you agree or disagree and to what extent.

Use the scale below to respond to Items a to t.

<b>Disagree Strongly</b> 1	<b>Disagree</b> 2	<b>Disagree Slightly</b> 3	<b>Neither Agree nor Disagree</b> 4	<b>Agree Slightly</b> 5	<b>Agree</b> 6	<b>Agree Strongly</b> 7
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- a. It's not worth my time or effort to pay back someone who has wronged me. \_\_\_\_\_
- b. It is important for me to get back at people who have hurt me. \_\_\_\_\_
- c. I try to even the score with anyone who hurts me. \_\_\_\_\_
- d. It is always better not to seek vengeance. \_\_\_\_\_
- e. I live by the motto "Let bygones be bygones". \_\_\_\_\_
- f. There is nothing wrong in getting back at someone who has hurt you. \_\_\_\_\_
- g. I don't just get mad, I get even. \_\_\_\_\_
- h. I find it easy to forgive those who have hurt me. \_\_\_\_\_
- i. I am not a vengeful person. \_\_\_\_\_
- j. I believe in the motto "An eye for an eye an a tooth for a tooth". \_\_\_\_\_
- k. Revenge is morally wrong. \_\_\_\_\_
- l. If someone causes me trouble, I'll find a way to make them regret it. \_\_\_\_\_
- m. People who insist on getting revenge are disgusting. \_\_\_\_\_
- n. If I am wronged, I can't live with myself unless I get revenge. \_\_\_\_\_
- o. Honour requires that you get back at someone who has hurt you. \_\_\_\_\_
- p. It is usually better to show mercy than to take revenge. \_\_\_\_\_
- q. Anyone who provokes me deserves the punishment that I give them. \_\_\_\_\_
- r. It is always better to "turn the other cheek". \_\_\_\_\_
- s. To have a desire for vengeance would make me feel ashamed. \_\_\_\_\_
- t. Revenge is sweet. \_\_\_\_\_

Read each of the following statements and decide whether it is true as applied to you or false as applied to you. Circle your response in the column to the right.

	<u>True</u>	<u>False</u>
182. I like mechanics magazines . . . . .	T.....	F
183. At times I feel like . . . . .	T.....	F
184. I like poetry . . . . .	T.....	F
185. I think I would like the kind of work a forest ranger does . . . . .	T.....	F
186. Once in a while I put off until tomorrow what I ought to do today . . . . .	T.....	F
187. I do not mind being made fun of . . . . .	T.....	F
188. My hardest battles are with myself . . . . .	T.....	F
189. Some people are so bossy that I feel like doing the opposite of what they request, even though I know they are right . . . . .	T.....	F
190. Often I can't understand why I have been so cross and grouchy . . . . .	T.....	F
191. I have never vomited blood or coughed up blood . . . . .	T.....	F
192. My conduct is largely controlled by the customs of those about me . . . . .	T.....	F
193. I like to know some important people because it makes me feel important . . . . .	T.....	F
194. When I get bored I like to stir up some excitement . . . . .	T.....	F
195. I am against giving money to beggars . . . . .	T.....	F
196. I should like to belong to several clubs or lodges . . . . .	T.....	F
197. I work under a great deal of tension . . . . .	T.....	F
198. Most people inwardly dislike putting themselves out to help other people . . . . .	T.....	F
199. I almost never dream . . . . .	T.....	F
200. I have certainly had more than my share of things to worry about . . . . .	T.....	F
201. I feel sure that there is only one true religion . . . . .	T.....	F
202. I wish I could get over worrying about things I have said that may have injured other people's feelings . . . . .	T.....	F
203. I frequently ask people for advice . . . . .	T.....	F
204. Often, even though everything is going fine for me, I feel that I don't care about anything . . . . .	T.....	F
205. I dream frequently . . . . .	T.....	F
206. It makes me nervous to have to wait . . . . .	T.....	F
207. I enjoy gambling for small stakes . . . . .	T.....	F
208. When I am cornered I tell that portion of the truth which is not likely to hurt me . . . . .	T.....	F
209. I pray several times every week . . . . .	T.....	F



- h. **IM:** If yes to Question g, how close in time to the death of your wife/girlfriend did you attempt suicide:  
**GO:** If yes to Question g, how close in time to your most serious present offence did you attempt suicide.

- |                          |                    |
|--------------------------|--------------------|
| 01 ___ month before      | 05 ___ hours after |
| 02 ___ week before       | 06 ___ day after   |
| 03 ___ day before        | 07 ___ week after  |
| 04 ___ immediately after | 08 ___ month after |

Using the scale below as a guide, write a number beside each statement to indicate how much you agree with it.

<b>Not True</b> 1	2	3	<b>Somewhat</b> 4	5	6	<b>Very True</b> 7
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- 215. My first impressions of people usually turn out to be right. \_\_\_\_\_
- 216. It would be hard for me to break any of my bad habits. \_\_\_\_\_
- 217. I don't care to know what other people really think of me. \_\_\_\_\_
- 218. I have not always been honest with myself. \_\_\_\_\_
- 219. I always know why I like things. \_\_\_\_\_
- 220. When my emotions are aroused, it biases my thinking. \_\_\_\_\_
- 221. Once I've made up my mind, other people can seldom change my opinion. \_\_\_\_\_
- 222. I am not a safe driver when I exceed the speed limit. \_\_\_\_\_
- 223. I am fully in control of my own fate. \_\_\_\_\_
- 224. It's hard for me to shut off a disturbing thought. \_\_\_\_\_
- 225. I never regret my decisions. \_\_\_\_\_
- 226. I sometimes lose out on things because I can't make up my mind soon enough. \_\_\_\_\_
- 227. The reason I vote is because my vote can make a difference. \_\_\_\_\_
- 228. My parents were not always fair when they punished me. \_\_\_\_\_
- 229. I am a completely rational person. \_\_\_\_\_
- 230. I rarely appreciate criticism. \_\_\_\_\_
- 231. I am very confident of my judgments. \_\_\_\_\_
- 232. I have sometimes doubted my ability as a lover. \_\_\_\_\_
- 233. It's all right with me if some people happen to dislike me. \_\_\_\_\_
- 234. I don't always know the reasons why I do the things I do. \_\_\_\_\_
- 235. I sometimes tell lies if I have to. \_\_\_\_\_
- 236. I never cover up my mistakes. \_\_\_\_\_
- 237. There have been occasions when I have taken advantage of someone. \_\_\_\_\_



<b>Strongly Agree</b> 1	2	3	4	<b>Strongly Disagree</b> 5
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- 238. I never swear. \_\_\_\_\_
- 239. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget. \_\_\_\_\_
- 240. I always obey laws, even if I'm unlikely to get caught. \_\_\_\_\_
- 241. I have said something bad about a friend behind his/her back. \_\_\_\_\_
- 242. When I hear people talking privately, I avoid listening. \_\_\_\_\_
- 243. I have received too much change from a salesperson without telling him or her. \_\_\_\_\_
- 244. I always declare everything at customs. \_\_\_\_\_
- 245. When I was young I sometimes stole things. \_\_\_\_\_
- 246. I have never dropped litter on the street. \_\_\_\_\_
- 247. I sometimes drive faster than the speed limit. \_\_\_\_\_
- 248. I never read sexy books or magazines. \_\_\_\_\_
- 249. I have done things that I don't tell other people about. \_\_\_\_\_
- 250. I never take things that don't belong to me. \_\_\_\_\_
- 251. I have taken sick-leave from work or school even though I wasn't really sick. \_\_\_\_\_
- 252. I have never damaged a library book or store merchandise without reporting it. \_\_\_\_\_
- 253. I have some pretty awful habits. \_\_\_\_\_
- 254. I don't gossip about other people's business. \_\_\_\_\_

Note: The CC version of the Questionnaire ends here.

- 255. In this section we are interested in finding out how you were feeling at various times before, during and after,  
IM: the offence which resulted in the death of your wife/girlfriend.  
GO: your most recent offence.

Read each question then respond to each of the feelings that follow by circling the appropriate number.

- A. How did you feel in the 24 hour period **before** committing (GO: your most serious recent ) the offence?
- |    |                           | Not at All | Somewhat | Very Much |
|----|---------------------------|------------|----------|-----------|
| 1. | Happy .....               | 1.....     | 2.....   | 3         |
| 2. | Numb (feel nothing) ..... | 1.....     | 2.....   | 3         |
| 3. | Scared .....              | 1.....     | 2.....   | 3         |

		Not at All	Somewhat	Very Much
4.	In control .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
5.	Out of control .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
6.	Sad .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
7.	Relieved .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
8.	Hurt Pride .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
9.	Like someone else .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
10.	Depressed .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
11.	Rage .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
12.	Excited .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
13.	Angry .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
14.	At peace .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
15.	Tired .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
16.	Helpless .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
17.	Ashamed .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
18.	Embarrassed .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
19.	Nervous .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
20.	Rejected .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
21.	Cheated .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
22.	Desperate .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
23.	Humiliated .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
24.	Like a failure .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
25.	Afraid .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
26.	Hopeless .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
27.	Frustrated .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
28.	Lonely .....	1.....	2.....	3.....

B. How did you feel at the **moment**,  
IM: you saw the victim (your wife/girlfriend), just prior to the offence?  
GO: you saw the victim of your most serious present offence, just prior to  
the offence? If your offence did not involve a victim, how did you feel a  
minute before committing your offence?

		Not at All	Somewhat	Very Much
1.	Happy .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
2.	Numb (feel nothing) .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
3.	Scared .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
4.	In control .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
5.	Out of control .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
6.	Sad .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
7.	Relieved .....	1.....	2.....	3.....

		Not at All	Somewhat	Very Much
8.	Hurt Pride .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
9.	Like someone else .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
10.	Depressed .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
11.	Rage .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
12.	Excited .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
13.	Angry .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
14.	At peace .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
15.	Tired .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
16.	Helpless .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
17.	Ashamed .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
18.	Embarrassed .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
19.	Nervous .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
20.	Rejected .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
21.	Cheated .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
22.	Desperate .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
23.	Humiliated .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
24.	Like a failure .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
25.	Afraid .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
26.	Hopeless .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
27.	Frustrated .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
28.	Lonely .....	1.....	2.....	3.....

C. How did you feel **during** the offence?

		Not at All	Somewhat	Very Much
1.	Happy .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
2.	Numb (feel nothing) .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
3.	Scared .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
4.	In control .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
5.	Out of control .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
6.	Sad .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
7.	Relieved .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
8.	Hurt Pride .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
9.	Like someone else .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
10.	Depressed .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
11.	Rage .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
12.	Excited .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
13.	Angry .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
14.	At peace .....	1.....	2.....	3.....
15.	Tired .....	1.....	2.....	3.....

		Not at All	Somewhat	Very Much
16.	Helpless	1.....	2.....	3.....
17.	Ashamed	1.....	2.....	3.....
18.	Embarrassed	1.....	2.....	3.....
19.	Nervous	1.....	2.....	3.....
20.	Rejected	1.....	2.....	3.....
21.	Cheated	1.....	2.....	3.....
22.	Desperate	1.....	2.....	3.....
23.	Humiliated	1.....	2.....	3.....
24.	Like a failure	1.....	2.....	3.....
25.	Afraid	1.....	2.....	3.....
26.	Hopeless	1.....	2.....	3.....
27.	Frustrated	1.....	2.....	3.....
28.	Lonely	1.....	2.....	3.....

D. How did you feel in the 24 hour period **after** the offence?

		Not at All	Somewhat	Very Much
1.	Happy	1.....	2.....	3.....
2.	Numb (feel nothing)	1.....	2.....	3.....
3.	Scared	1.....	2.....	3.....
4.	In control	1.....	2.....	3.....
5.	Out of control	1.....	2.....	3.....
6.	Sad	1.....	2.....	3.....
7.	Relieved	1.....	2.....	3.....
8.	Hurt Pride	1.....	2.....	3.....
9.	Like someone else	1.....	2.....	3.....
10.	Depressed	1.....	2.....	3.....
11.	Rage	1.....	2.....	3.....
12.	Excited	1.....	2.....	3.....
13.	Angry	1.....	2.....	3.....
14.	At peace	1.....	2.....	3.....
15.	Tired	1.....	2.....	3.....
16.	Helpless	1.....	2.....	3.....
17.	Ashamed	1.....	2.....	3.....
18.	Embarrassed	1.....	2.....	3.....
19.	Nervous	1.....	2.....	3.....
20.	Rejected	1.....	2.....	3.....
21.	Cheated	1.....	2.....	3.....
22.	Desperate	1.....	2.....	3.....
23.	Humiliated	1.....	2.....	3.....

		Not at All	Somewhat	Very Much
24.	Like a failure . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....
25.	Afraid . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....
26.	Hopeless . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....
27.	Frustrated . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....
28.	Lonely . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....

E. How often do you experience the following feelings **now** (more recently) if you were to think of the offence?

		Never	Sometimes	Often	Most of time	Always
1.	Happy . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
2.	Numb (feel nothing) . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
3.	Scared . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
4.	In control . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
5.	Out of control . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
6.	Sad . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
7.	Relieved . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
8.	Hurt Pride . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
9.	Like someone else . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
10.	Depressed . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
11.	Rage . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
12.	Excited . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
13.	Angry . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
14.	At peace . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
15.	Tired . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
16.	Helpless . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
17.	Ashamed . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
18.	Embarrassed . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
19.	Nervous . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
20.	Rejected . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
21.	Cheated . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
22.	Desperate . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
23.	Humiliated . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
24.	Like a failure . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
25.	Afraid . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
26.	Hopeless . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
27.	Frustrated . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....
28.	Lonely . . . . .	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5.....

Note: Questions 256 - 261 appear in the IM version only.



c) where/how did you obtain this weapon? \_\_\_\_\_

d) If you did not use a weapon, by what means did you kill your wife/girlfriend? \_\_\_\_\_

260. Please state whether you Agree or Disagree with the following.

	Agree	Disagree
a) Prior to seeing the victim of my offence I had planned to kill her .....	__01	__02
b) In my interaction with the victim just prior to the offence she said or did something which provoked me to act the way I did .....	__01	__02
c) Except for what others have told me, I don't recall the details of my offence .....	__01	__02
d) During the offence my intention was to kill the victim ..	__01	__02

261. Briefly list the reason or reasons for the offence which resulted in the death of your wife/girlfriend.

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

262. IM: The following questions relate to the offence which resulted in the death of your wife/girlfriend.

GO: The following questions relate to your offence.

Read each question carefully and write the number of the response which best applies to you.

<b>Strongly Disagree</b> 1	<b>Disagree</b> 2	<b>Not Sure</b> 3	<b>Agree</b> 4	<b>Strongly Agree</b> 5
-----------------------------------	----------------------	----------------------	-------------------	--------------------------------

- a.) When I think of my offence I can't believe I did such a thing. \_\_\_\_
- b.) When I think of my offence I think of all I've lost. \_\_\_\_
- c.) When I think of my offence I try to think of something else. \_\_\_\_
- d.) When I think of my offence I just want to get on with my life. \_\_\_\_

<b>Strongly Disagree 1</b>	<b>Disagree 2</b>	<b>Not Sure 3</b>	<b>Agree 4</b>	<b>Strongly Agree 5</b>
------------------------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	--------------------	---------------------------------

- e.) When I think of my offence I wonder why I did not do it sooner. \_\_\_\_
- f.) I don't think all the facts came out in court. \_\_\_\_
- g.) Overall I think the sentence I received was a fair one. \_\_\_\_
- h.) The judge in my case acted unfairly. \_\_\_\_
- i.) The evidence given in court was accurate. \_\_\_\_
- j.) There is nothing I can do to make up for what I did. \_\_\_\_
- k.) I was out of control during the offence. \_\_\_\_
- l.) The offence occurred because I was too drunk/stoned to stop myself. \_\_\_\_
- m.) At the time of the offence, most men would have responded the way I did. \_\_\_\_

- n.) I \_\_\_\_\_ my conviction.  
 1. appealed    2. wanted to appeal    3. did not appeal  
 4. wish I had appealed    5. plan to appeal

- o.) I \_\_\_\_\_ my sentence.  
 1. appealed    2. wanted to appeal    3. did not appeal  
 4. wish I had appealed    5. plan to appeal

- p.) Immediately following the offence I (check all that apply)  
 01\_\_\_\_ "took-off" and tried to hide                      04\_\_\_\_ remained on the scene  
 02\_\_\_\_ called the police    05\_\_\_\_ tried to kill myself  
 03\_\_\_\_ called the ambulance                                      06\_\_\_\_ other (state) \_\_\_\_\_

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- q.) Why did you react in the manner you did following the offence?  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_

Answer questions r - y only if your offence involved a victim. Otherwise go to question 263.



r.) I think of the victim(s) of my offence

1	2	3	4	5
Daily	About once a week	About once a month	Rarely	Not at all

Explain briefly

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s.) Circle the number which best describes your present feelings towards the victim(s) of your offence.

1	2	3	4	5
Hate	Dislike	No particular feelings	Like	Love

Explain briefly

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t.) I think the victim(s) of my offence deserved what they got.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Strongly agree

Explain briefly

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u.) I think the victim(s) of my offence could have prevented the offence from occurring.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Strongly agree

Explain briefly

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v.) I think the victim(s) of my offence is as much to blame as I am.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Strongly agree

Explain briefly

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w.) People try to make the offence appear more violent than it was.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Strongly agree

Explain briefly

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x.) There are others NOT including the victim(s) who are just as responsible for what happened as I am.

- |                   |          |          |       |                |
|-------------------|----------|----------|-------|----------------|
| 1                 | 2        | 3        | 4     | 5              |
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Not sure | Agree | Strongly agree |

Explain briefly

---

---

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y.) There were others NOT including the victim(s) who could have prevented the offence.

- |                   |          |          |       |                |
|-------------------|----------|----------|-------|----------------|
| 1                 | 2        | 3        | 4     | 5              |
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Not sure | Agree | Strongly agree |

Explain briefly

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263. The questions in this section relate to your life in prison. Read each question carefully and respond in space provided.

a) What institutional programs have you been involved in?

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b) What leisure/recreational activities do you participate in?

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c) Approximately how many visits do you get a month? \_\_\_\_\_

- d) As far as prison friendships go, how many friends would you say you have in this institution? \_\_\_\_\_
- e) During your time incarcerated, approximately how many institutional charges have you received?
- 01\_\_\_none      03\_\_\_2 charges      05\_\_\_4-6 charges  
 02\_\_\_1 charge    04\_\_\_3 charges      06\_\_\_7 or more charges

For the remainder of questions in this section, please circle the answer that is best for you.

- |   | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Agree  | Strongly Agree |
|---|-------------------|----------|--------|----------------|
|   | 1.....            | 2.....   | 3..... | 4.....         |
| f) My sentence is going by quickly . . . . .          | 1.....            | 2.....   | 3..... | 4.....         |
| g) Most of the time I don't feel safe in prison . . . | 1.....            | 2.....   | 3..... | 4.....         |
| h) Doing time is not difficult for me . . . . .       | 1.....            | 2.....   | 3..... | 4.....         |
| i) I consider myself to be a "solid" inmate . . . . . | 1.....            | 2.....   | 3..... | 4.....         |
| j) People in prison know not to mess with me . .      | 1.....            | 2.....   | 3..... | 4.....         |

**Thank you for your cooperation in completing this questionnaire. If you have any comments, we would appreciate if you would write them on this back of this page. When finished please hand in the questionnaire to the person supervising this session.**

**Appendix B:  
Cover Page for  
General Offender Version  
of the Research Questionnaire**

**Research Questionnaire**

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Test Location: \_\_\_\_\_

Instructions

In this study, we are interested in learning about men and their relationship with women.

You will be asked a variety of questions, some of which may be quite personal. Please keep in mind that you are responding anonymously and there is no way of anyone, including the researcher, knowing how you as an individual responded. With this in mind, you are encouraged to answer all questions as accurately and honestly as possible. Some of the questions which you will be asked concern your relationship with your wife/girlfriend, if you are not presently in a relationship answer these questions based on your last relationship.

This questionnaire should take you approximately two hours to complete; however, don't rush, you may take all the time you need. Be sure to read all instructions carefully.

**Appendix C:  
Cover Page for  
Community Controls Version  
of the Research Questionnaire**

## Research Questionnaire

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Test Location: \_\_\_\_\_

### Instructions

In this study, we are interested in learning about men and their relationship with women.

You will be asked a variety of questions, some of which may be quite personal. Please keep in mind that you are responding anonymously and there is no way of anyone, including the researcher, knowing how you as an individual responded. With this in mind, you are encouraged to answer all questions as accurately and honestly as possible. Some of the questions which you will be asked concern your relationship with your wife/girlfriend, if you are not presently in a relationship answer these questions based on your last relationship.

This questionnaire should take you approximately one hour to complete; however, don't rush, you may take all the time you need. Be sure to read all instructions carefully.



**Appendix D:  
Recruitment Announcement**

### **Recruitment Announcement**

Adult males are being sought to participate in a vital study of male attitudes and behaviour towards women. Participants will be asked to respond anonymously to a mostly multiple choice questionnaire. Most of the items included in the questionnaire focus on your views about specific issues and situations; however, some are specific to you and ask about such things as your relationships, sexual history and criminal record. Although you may find some of these questions personal, you are reminded that your responses are anonymous, furthermore, you may withdraw from the study at anytime. Your participation in this study should take approximately 2 hours.

**Appendix E:  
Informed Consent**

## Informed Consent

### Study of Intimate Relationships

This informed consent form serves to ensure that you understand the purpose of this study and the nature of your involvement.

You are being asked to take part in a vital study of men's attitudes and behaviour towards women. We are especially interested in the attitudes and behaviour of men towards women with whom they have had an intimate relationship (e.g., wives, girlfriends). We are asking a wide range of men across Ontario for their participation, some of these men are serving time in penitentiaries, while others are residing in the community. In addition to information about their relationships with women, incarcerated men will also be asked questions concerning their offence and criminal history.

Your participation in this study will require you to anonymously complete a wide range of primarily multiple choice questions. We anticipate that it should take about two hours for you to complete the questionnaire and refreshments will be provided during this time.

Your participation will be anonymous. You are not to include your name, initials or number anywhere on the questionnaire. Our concern in this study is with men as a group and not with individuals. It is again emphasized that only you will know how you responded to the questionnaire.

Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary and you may withdraw at any time without any consequence to you. Although your responses to all questions would be appreciated, you are free to skip any question that you may find difficult to respond to.

Should you have any questions concerning the information in this form, please feel free to ask or to contact one of the individuals listed at the bottom of this form.

If you agree to participate, please sign this consent form so that it may be collected separate from and prior to you responding to the questionnaire. If you would like a copy of the results of this study sent to you upon the study's completion, please designate so by including a mailing address.

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**Participant's Name (print)**

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**Participant's Signature**

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**Date**

**Address Optional:**

**Principal Researcher:**

Gregory Kerry, M.A.  
Doctoral Candidate  
Psychology Department, Carleton University  
Ottawa, Ontario K1S 5B6  
(613) 788-2644

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**Principal Researcher's Signature**

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**Research Assistant's Signature**

**Supervising Researcher:**

Karl Hanson, Ph.D.  
(613) 991-2840

**Chair, Department of Psychology Ethics Committee:**

Lise Paquet, Ph.D.  
(613) 788-2644

**Chair, Department of Psychology:**

William Jones, Ph.D.  
(613) 788-2600, ext. 2648

**Appendix F:  
Letter to respondents**

Dear \_\_\_\_\_

Thank you once again for your participation and interest in my research. As promised here is a brief summary of the study and its major findings.

The primary objective of the study was to understand intimate femicide; the killing of a woman by a man with whom she was intimately involved. To guide the study I proposed a Binary Model of intimate femicide. This model conceptualizes intimate femicide as perpetrated by two different types of men. Alpha Murderers are undercontrolled men with a history of abusing their intimate female partners. They maintain frequent contact with other abusive men. The murders committed by these men tend to be impulsive and triggered by intense anger. Beta Murderers are overcontrolled men with no known history of abusive behaviour. They are less likely to associate with men who they know or suspect to be abusive. The murders committed by Beta Murderers were preceded by suicidal ideation or attempts, which are later manifested as a planned murder suicide.

To validate the Binary Model questionnaires were completed by 86 men sentenced for the murder of an intimate partner, 151 men incarcerated in a federal penitentiary for an offence other than the murder of an intimate partner, and 100 nonincarcerated men.

Support was obtained for the Binary Model of intimate femicide. Statistical analysis was used to identify variables that significantly differentiated intimate

murderers from men in the two control groups. These variables were then used to develop the Intimate Femicide Screening Scale (IFSS). This scale identifies men at risk of killing their current or estranged intimate female partners.

Thank you for your interest.

Sincerely

Gregory Kerry



**Appendix G:  
Introduction**

Introduction

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study. The questionnaire you will be completing is made up of several different question formats. Here are a few practice questions using some of the different question formats you will see in the questionnaire. The practice questions are based on the Informed Consent Form you just signed and you may use that form in answering these questions.

For questions 1 - 3 circle the appropriate response.

1. The purpose of the informed consent form is to make sure that I understand the purpose of this study and the nature of my involvement.

1	2	3	4	5
Agree	Agree Slightly	Unsure	Disagree Slightly	Disagree

2. This study is interested in finding out men's \_\_\_\_\_

- a) attitudes towards the justice system in Canada
- b) behaviour towards other men
- c) attitudes and behaviour towards women
- d) none of the above

3. It is important that I remember to \_\_\_\_\_

- a) print my name on the cover of the questionnaire
- b) not put my name or any identifying information anywhere on the questionnaire
- c) use a code such as my initials to identify myself on the questionnaire
- d) take the questionnaire with me when I leave

4. Check all that apply to the consent form.

- I must put my address on it 01 \_\_\_\_\_
- It says that I can withdraw from the study at any time 02 \_\_\_\_\_
- It includes the names and telephone numbers of four  
people who I may contact 03 \_\_\_\_\_
- It must be signed by my parent or guardian 04 \_\_\_\_\_

5. Who is being asked to participate in this study?

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**Appendix H:**

**Debriefing**

### Debriefing

The purpose of this study is to explore how male attitudes and beliefs influences their behaviour towards intimate partners.

Research has demonstrated that traditional male values, friends who hold male dominant views, jealousy and anger all increase the likelihood of men using violence against their intimate partners. In the questionnaire you completed, you were asked questions concerning these and other topics. You were also asked about your relationship with your partner. In our analysis of subject's responses, we will be exploring the relationship between the different types of questions you were asked and how they relate to different levels of violence against a partner, ranging from no violence to the killing of a partner.

Through research such as this, we hope develop an understanding of intimate violence, which may lead to the development of interventions that could save lives and the destruction of families.

In the event that you identified any ethical concerns which you would like to express, you may contact one of the following individuals.

Chair, Carleton University, Department of Psychology Ethics Committee:  
Lise Paquet, Ph.D.  
(613) 788-2644

Chair, Carleton University, Department of Psychology:  
William Jones, Ph.D.  
(613) 788-2644, ext. 2648

### Community Resources

For information on services which address some of the issues identified in this study call a Distress Centre listed in your telephone book or one of the numbers below.

Belleville: New Choices (613) 968-8907  
Kingston: Alternatives (613) 548-7499  
Ottawa: New Directions (613) 233-8478  
Toronto: Group for Men Who Abuse Their Partners (416) 225-1166