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Citation: Carlisle, S., Bunce, A., Prina, M., McManus, S., Barbosa, E., Feder, G. & Lewis, N. V. (2025). Effectiveness of UK-based support interventions and services aimed at adults who have experienced or used domestic and sexual violence and abuse: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Public Health*, 25(1), 1003. doi: 10.1186/s12889-025-21891-5

This is the accepted version of the paper.

This version of the publication may differ from the final published version. To cite this item please consult the publisher's version.

Permanent repository link: <https://openaccess.city.ac.uk/id/eprint/34646/>

Link to published version: <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-025-21891-5>

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1 **Title**

2 Effectiveness of UK-based support interventions and services aimed at adults who have
3 experienced or used domestic and sexual violence and abuse: A systematic review and
4 meta-analysis.

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21

22 **Abstract** (293/350 words)

23 **Background:** Domestic and sexual violence and abuse (DSVA) is prevalent and harmful.

24 There are a range of support services and interventions available to those affected by it, but
25 evidence of their effectiveness is uncertain. We synthesised evidence on the effectiveness of

26 UK-based interventions and services for DSVA.

27 **Methods:** We conducted a systematic review and, where possible, meta-analysis. We
28 searched MEDLINE, EMBASE, PsycINFO, Social Policy and Practice, ASSIA, IBSS,
29 Sociological abstracts, SSCI and grey literature sources for publications published from
30 inception to July 2023. We included randomised controlled trials, non-randomised
31 comparative studies, pre-post studies, and service evaluations of support interventions or
32 services for adults who had experienced or perpetrated DSVAs. The intervention typology
33 and selection of outcomes was determined based on co-production with stakeholders. The
34 quality of the studies was assessed independently by two reviewers. Where meta-analysis
35 was not possible, we synthesized studies with vote counting based on the direction of effect.

36 **Results:** Twenty-nine UK-based studies were included: 11 on advocacy, five on outreach,
37 six on psychological interventions or services for victims-survivors, and six on perpetrator
38 programmes. Meta-analyses showed benefits, with 58.7% (95% CI 53.6, 63.8) of advocacy
39 and 46.2% (95% CI 39.1, 53.3) of outreach intervention and service participants reporting
40 cessation of abuse at case closure. Vote counting was performed for psychological support
41 interventions and perpetrator programmes, and showed positive effects on self-esteem and
42 attitudes towards sexual offending. Most studies had a high risk of bias.

43 **Conclusions:** There appear to be benefits of UK-based advocacy and outreach services,
44 psychological support interventions, and perpetrator programmes. However, risk of bias and
45 methodological heterogeneity means that there is uncertainty regarding the estimated
46 effects. There is need for more robust research, and a co-produced core-outcome set to
47 facilitate future research in this field.

48 **Review registration:** PROSPERO (CRD42022339739).

49

50 **Key words**

51 Domestic abuse, sexual violence, services, interventions, safety, wellbeing, systematic
52 review

53 **Background**

54 Domestic and sexual violence and abuse (DSVA) refers to physical, sexual, emotional, and
55 any other form of violence and abuse from a current or former partner or family member, and
56 sexual violence and abuse from non-partners. DSVA is prevalent globally, including in the
57 UK. In the year ending March 2022 over 1.5 million domestic abuse-related incidents and
58 crimes were recorded by the police [1], and a further 193,000 sexual offences were recorded
59 in the same period [2]. An estimated 10.4 million people aged 16 years and over have
60 experienced domestic abuse [1], while 7.9 million have experienced sexual assault in
61 England and Wales since the age of 16 [3]. These figures are likely to be underestimates,
62 with fewer than 24% of domestic abuse-related crimes being reported to police [4], and five
63 in six women who are raped not reporting [5]. Underreporting experiences of violence in
64 surveys such as the Crime Survey for England and Wales can result from social stigma [6],
65 or from fear where victim-survivors are still living with someone who uses violence, and be
66 influenced by the survey framing (e.g., whether focused on health or crime) [7].

67

68 The impacts of DSVA are wide ranging, for both individuals and society. DSVA damages
69 both physical [8-14] and mental health [7, 15-19], financial stability, relationships, and
70 housing security [20-22]. Societal costs include strain on the criminal justice system, health
71 and social services, and police. For instance, police in England and Wales receive an
72 estimated 100 calls per hour relating to domestic abuse [23], and the total police costs
73 associated with domestic abuse incidents are estimated at £999 million [24]. The overall cost
74 of domestic abuse over a one-year period (March 2016-2017), including costs to victims, the
75 economy, health services, police, government and charities, has been estimated at £66
76 billion [24]. Further, the economic and social cost of rape and other sexual offences for
77 2015-2016 has been estimated at £12.2 billion [25].

78

79 Due to the high cost of DSVA, developing effective responses is crucial. It is internationally
80 recognised that preventing the recurrence of DSVA and preventing or limiting its impacts
81 means changing social norms, attitudes and behaviours that underpin violence, which
82 requires intervention at individual, relationship, community/organisational and societal levels
83 [26]. Interventions to prevent revictimisation and perpetration focus on addressing these root
84 causes, as well as risk and protective factors known to be associated with violence, by
85 providing remedy and support to victim-survivors to empower them to regain control of their
86 lives, and holding perpetrators accountable whilst offering them meaningful opportunities to
87 change [27]. Whilst the theory(s) underpinning DSVA interventions differ according to their
88 specific aims and remits, most draw upon a combination of patriarchal/feminist,
89 psychopathological, intersectional and systems-level theories and principles [28, 29].

90

91 In the UK, there are a range of support services and interventions for people who have
92 experienced DSVA, including refuges, advocacy such as Independent Domestic Violence
93 Advisors (IDVAs), referral, outreach, and helplines. These are often provided by the
94 Voluntary and Community Sector (VCS), although may also be located in the public or
95 private sectors. The specific aims of each type of service and intervention vary, as do the
96 specific type(s) of support offered, be that practical (e.g., housing, financial support),
97 psychological (e.g., increased coping and resilience, space to process trauma), or
98 informational (e.g., about other services, options, and next steps). While the specific
99 mechanisms underlying the benefits of such support for those accessing them are unclear
100 and vary between individuals, one potential mechanism is that accessing these types of
101 support and resources may improve mental health, wellbeing, and feelings of empowerment.
102 In turn, this may facilitate those experiencing DSVA to be in a better position to achieve their
103 own goals and live a life free from abuse [30, 31]. Domestic Abuse Perpetrator Programmes
104 (DVPPs/ DAPPs; hereon referred to as perpetrator programmes) are another type of support
105 service that aims to keep survivors safe and hold perpetrators accountable [32].

106 Rehabilitative work with domestic violence perpetrators exists largely in the form of
107 behavioural change “treatment” interventions, based on the principle that men must take
108 responsibility for their abusive behaviour and that such behaviour can be unlearned [33].
109 Perpetrator programmes provide various services and information to clients, including skills
110 training, cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT), motivational interviewing, psychoeducational
111 interventions and work around social learning, power and control [34]. As well as working
112 with perpetrators on a one-to-one or group basis, some perpetrator programmes often work
113 with partners and/or families as well. UK evaluations have employed a wide range of
114 outcome measures, including reductions in or cessation of abusive behaviour, attitudes and
115 beliefs on gender, women and violence, levels of and resilience to repeat victimisation,
116 quality of life (of both the perpetrator and the victim/partner), feelings of safety and well-
117 being of women/partners (and their children), and levels of parenting stress [33, 35].

118

119 Existing systematic reviews of DSVAs services and interventions [36-39] and perpetrator
120 programmes [33, 40] are limited in that: (1) they focus on a single type of support
121 intervention or service and therefore cannot make comparisons across service types; (2)
122 many have not performed comprehensive grey literature searches or included stakeholder
123 advisory groups and therefore may not be accurate reflections of the full picture, a particular
124 drawback given that much of the evidence-base in the field of DSVAs is not published in peer-
125 reviewed formats; and (3) they are not directly applicable to the UK service and policy
126 context.

127

128 One problem facing syntheses of evidence in this field is the wide-ranging outcomes used to
129 assess effectiveness. Our recent scoping review identified 426 outcomes across 80 studies,
130 with only 46.9% used in more than one evaluation [41]. As a result of this scoping review, we
131 recommended the development of a core outcomes set, co-developed with funders, service

132 providers and people with lived experience, so that a more cohesive and relevant evidence
133 base can be built. For this review, we use findings from our scoping review which identified
134 the most commonly reported outcomes, including outcomes relating to safety and wellbeing,
135 together with stakeholder consultation, to inform and direct the focus of the review, and to
136 best synthesise the current evidence base.

137

138 Our aim was to review the peer reviewed and grey literature to identify studies that assessed
139 the effectiveness of support interventions and services for people who have experienced
140 DSVA. This review was conducted as part of a programme of research undertaken by the
141 VISION Consortium aiming to reduce violence and health inequalities through better
142 measurement and integration of data.

143

144 Review question

145 How effective are UK-based support interventions and services (targeted at adults of any
146 gender who have experienced or used DSVA) at improving safety and wellbeing?

147

148 **Methods**

149 **Protocol and registration**

150 The review follows the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analysis
151 (PRISMA)[42] checklist and Synthesis without meta-analysis (SWiM) reporting guidelines
152 [43] (Additional file 1). The protocol for the review has been registered on Prospero:
153 CRD42022339739.

154

155 **Deviations from the protocol**

156 The review largely adhered to the published protocol. However, one exception was the
157 categorisation of interventions and services. In the protocol, we proposed intervention and
158 service categories that included combined outreach and IDVAs under the umbrella term
159 'community outreach'. However, during the process of the review, this was amended in line
160 with a series of reports published by SafeLives, a UK-based domestic abuse charity that
161 provides frontline services and collects and publishes national data and evaluation reports.
162 These SafeLives Insights reports provide data from the largest dataset on domestic abuse in
163 the UK, gathered from services working with victim-survivors of domestic abuse. On the
164 basis of these reports, which provide data separately for outreach and IDVA services, we
165 also separated these into two forms of intervention and services.

166

167 Additionally, we originally aimed to describe the included studies according to the TIDieR
168 framework [44], however ultimately opted not to as many of the studies described services
169 rather than traditional interventions, which did not map well onto the TIDieR framework.

170

171 **Eligibility criteria**

172 **Population:** Adults who have experienced DSVAs or who have perpetrated DSVAs. Adults
173 were defined as those aged 16 years or older, consistent with the National Institute for
174 Health and Care Excellence quality standard for domestic violence and abuse. DSVAs were
175 defined according to the UK cross-governmental definition of domestic violence and abuse
176 (DVA) (2013) [45], the Domestic Abuse Act 2021 [46], the Istanbul Convention (Article 36)
177 [47], the World Health Organisation definition of sexual violence and abuse [48], and the
178 Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court's (ICC) Elements of Crimes (2013) [49].
179 The distinctions and overlaps between these definitions were discussed in the review
180 protocol [50]. While this review uses the term 'people who have experienced DSVAs', it

181 should be noted that there are different terminology preferences between organisations
182 within the VCS, therefore this may also be used interchangeably to mean victims of DSVA,
183 survivors of DSVA, and victim-survivors. Similarly, while this review refers to ‘perpetrators of
184 DSVA’, this term has been contested by some who prefer the term ‘people who use
185 violence’. No limit was placed on time since the experience of DSVA, so long as participants
186 accessed the intervention or service as an adult.

187

188 **Interventions/services and outcomes:** The specific forms of interventions and services
189 (hereafter referred to as ‘interventions’ only) included in this review were determined by a
190 two-stage process. Initially, any outcome relating to safety or wellbeing and any form of
191 support intervention meeting the following criteria was included:

- 192 • Studies of any secondary or tertiary prevention support interventions were eligible for
193 inclusion. Primary prevention was not included as these target people who have not
194 yet experienced violence.
- 195 • Entry to the intervention had to be determined by the experience of DSVA.
- 196 • There was no restriction placed on the format or duration of the intervention.
- 197 • Interventions that are not primarily aimed at DSVA were excluded.
- 198 • Perpetrator programmes were included as they are another form of intervention that
199 may be effective in reducing DSVA and improving outcomes for people who have
200 experienced DSVA.
- 201 • Outcome data had to be reported for two or more time-points and/or for two or more
202 groups, so that cause and effect could be inferred.

203

204 Following consultation with stakeholders (see the stakeholder consultation section for more
205 details) and according to the results of our scoping review [51], it was agreed that only the
206 most commonly reported outcome for each category of intervention would be included (or
207 outcomes, if the most commonly reported outcome was tied between more than one).

208 Additionally, outcomes (and therefore interventions) would only be included if the most
209 common outcome for that category of intervention was reported by at least three studies, to
210 allow for meta-analysis. As a result, four types of interventions and four distinct outcomes
211 were included in the review:

212 Victim-survivor interventions:

- 213 • Advocacy: Cessation of abuse according to the Severity of Abuse Grid
- 214 • Outreach: Cessation of abuse according to the Severity of Abuse Grid
- 215 • Psychological support: Self-esteem according to the Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale

216 Perpetrator programmes:

- 217 • Balanced Inventory of Desirable Reporting (BIDR); Questionnaire on Attitudes
218 Consistent with Sexual Offending (QACSO)

219

220 **Comparator:** Where applicable, comparators could be another intervention, usual care, no
221 support intervention or wait-list controls. For uncontrolled before and after studies, the
222 comparison was the change from pre- to post-intervention.

223

224 **Study designs:** Any type of interventional study reporting outcomes at two or more time-
225 points and/or making comparisons between two groups, including randomised controlled
226 trials (RCTs), non-randomised comparative trials, and uncontrolled before and after studies
227 were included. Cross-sectional studies, case control designs, qualitative studies and studies
228 that were descriptive only and did not provide data on effectiveness were excluded.

229

230 **Setting:** Any UK setting was included.

231

232 **Other criteria:** Given the focus of the review on the UK setting, only English language
233 reports were included. There was no restriction in terms of date.

234

235 **Information sources and search strategy**

236 Searches of the following electronic databases of peer-reviewed articles were conducted to
237 identify potentially eligible studies: MEDLINE, EMBASE, PsycINFO, Social Policy and
238 Practice, ASSIA, IBSS, Sociological abstracts, and SSCI. Key search terms included terms
239 relating to DSVAs (e.g., “domestic violence”, “partner”, “sexual violence”), specialist support
240 services and interventions (e.g., “specialist service”, “support”, “outreach”, “refuge”), and the
241 UK (e.g., “United Kingdom”, “England”, “Wales”, “Scotland”, “London”). Terms were
242 combined using Boolean operators.

243

244 A comprehensive grey literature search was also conducted comprising three strategies.
245 Four electronic grey literature databases were searched: National Grey Literature Collection,
246 EThOS, Social Care Online, and the Violence Against Women Network, using a simplified
247 version of the previous search strategy. Search terms included “domestic violence”, “sexual
248 violence”, “service”, “support”, and “intervention”. A call for evidence was also circulated via
249 email to 295 local and national DSVAs services and organisations and relevant research
250 networks to request any service evaluations or reports relevant to the review questions and
251 meeting the inclusion criteria to be shared. Contacts were emailed again if there was no
252 initial response after two weeks. Finally, websites of relevant UK-based DSVAs organisations
253 were searched for relevant reports, research and publications. Where there were numerous
254 pages of potentially relevant results, only the first five pages were assessed. For websites
255 with a search function, the following terms were searched: “Service”, “Evaluation”,
256 “Intervention”, and “Report”. Both the peer reviewed and grey literature searches were
257 conducted on 21st June 2022 and updated on 5th July 2023.

258

259 Backwards and forwards citation tracking was carried out for all included studies, and
260 reference lists of identified and relevant systematic reviews were also checked to identify

261 further potentially relevant studies. See Additional file 2 for an example of the search
262 strategy used for one peer-reviewed and one grey literature database.

263

264 **Selection of studies**

265 The process for the selection of studies varied according to the method of identification. All
266 records identified from peer reviewed and grey literature databases were exported into
267 Endnote. All reports obtained from the call for evidence were manually added to the same
268 Endnote Library. Finally, rather than manually adding all reports identified on individual
269 websites, titles and abstracts or descriptions of reports were assessed according to the
270 inclusion and exclusion criteria, and only those deemed potentially relevant were
271 downloaded and manually added to the Endnote library. Duplicates were then removed. The
272 de-duplicated records were uploaded into Rayyan [52], and all were then screened by title
273 and abstract against the inclusion and exclusion criteria for possible inclusion. Where there
274 were multiple reports from the same study, such as a protocol or appendices, the primary
275 report was identified, and additional reports were labelled as subsidiary and given the same
276 study identifier. Thus, the unit of analysis for the review was the study, not each individual
277 report. Reports that appeared to satisfy the eligibility criteria based on titles and abstracts, or
278 where it was unclear, then underwent a full text screening. This was primarily done by one
279 reviewer, with a second reviewer independently screening 20% of titles and abstracts and
280 then full texts. Disagreements between reviewers were resolved by discussion, or through
281 discussion with a third reviewer until consensus was reached.

282

283 **Data extraction**

284 A piloted data extraction spreadsheet was used to extract and record information from each
285 included study. This included basic study information, such as authors, date, study design,
286 and funding, information about the setting, participant details, intervention details including

287 comparator groups where appropriate, the reported outcomes and results. Where there were
288 multiple reports from the same study, relevant data from all reports were extracted into a
289 single entry. Data extraction was completed by one reviewer, and independently checked by
290 a second. Any disagreements were resolved through discussion, with a third reviewer
291 involved where discussions could not be resolved. Where data were missing, corresponding
292 authors were contacted and asked to supply said data.

293

294 **Risk of bias**

295 All studies underwent a risk of bias assessment. Randomised controlled trials were
296 assessed using the Cochrane Collaboration RoB2 tool [53]. Non-randomised comparative
297 studies were assessed using the Cochrane Collaboration ROBINS-I tool [54]. Non-controlled
298 before and after studies were assessed using an adapted version of the ROBINS-I tool.
299 Finally, grey literature was assessed using the AACDOS tool [55]. Two reviewers
300 independently assessed risk of bias. All disagreements were discussed until a consensus
301 was reached.

302

303 **Synthesis of results**

304 We conducted meta-analyses where the data permitted (i.e., there are three or more studies
305 reporting the same outcome measure and sufficient data is reported), and a narrative
306 synthesis for outcomes where meta-analysis was not possible, following the SWiM
307 guidelines [43]. Specifically, we adopted the method of vote counting based on the direction
308 of effect where meta-analysis was not appropriate. The selection of this method was based
309 on the available data in the studies. All studies meeting the inclusion criteria were included in
310 the synthesis, regardless of study design, risk of bias or indirectness. For both meta-analysis
311 and vote counting analysis, studies were grouped according to the type of intervention. This
312 was because the different types of interventions varied in terms of their aims, the type of

313 support provided, and outcomes reported. For vote counting analysis, results are presented
314 using tabular methods, reporting key study characteristics (including study design, sample
315 size and risk of bias), and discussed narratively.

316

317 Where appropriate, meta-analysis was conducted using a random effects model in Stata 18.
318 The specific method of meta-analysis varied according to outcome and data type, and study
319 design where applicable. For instance, all but one of the studies reporting the cessation of
320 abuse outcome were uncontrolled before and after studies. There were no statistically robust
321 approaches to meta-analyse dichotomous data for single-group data, and given that at
322 baseline none of the participants would report cessation of abuse, therefore the event rate
323 would be zero, a meta-analysis of proportions was conducted using the post-intervention
324 data only. In effect, this provided both the pooled prevalence of the cessation of abuse, and
325 the change, from pre- to post-intervention. For the three outcomes using continuous data,
326 meta-analyses of change scores were planned using mean change and standard errors,
327 however a combination of insufficient reported data, small study sizes, and inconsistency in
328 how outcomes were utilised ultimately meant that meta-analyses were not appropriate.
329 Results of the meta-analyses are presented using forest plots and discussed narratively.

330

331 Levels of heterogeneity were assessed using the I^2 statistic and Cochran's Q. Subgroup
332 analyses were planned where heterogeneity was substantial or considerable (defined as I^2
333 =50-90% and I^2 =75-100%) [56]. Subgroup analyses to investigate heterogeneity included:
334 study design; setting (VCS; private sector; public sector); relationship between the person
335 who has experienced violence and the perpetrator of violence (e.g., (ex)intimate partner;
336 stranger; domestic but not partner; friend/acquaintance; professional; mixed/any); the
337 population the service or intervention is aimed at (e.g., those who have experienced
338 violence; perpetrators of violence; both); type of service or intervention provider (e.g.,

339 specialist DSVA; specialist but not DSVA; non-specialist); and type of violence (e.g.,
340 primarily DVA focused; primarily sexual violence and abuse (SVA) focused; combined
341 DSVA).

342

343 We conducted sensitivity analyses, removing studies that had a high or very high risk of bias
344 and removal of one study at a time, to explore for potential biases. Certainty was assessed
345 using the GRADE framework, which takes into account risk of bias, inconsistency,
346 imprecision, indirectness and publication bias.

347

348 **Stakeholder consultation**

349 An advisory stakeholder group comprising professional representatives from six specialist
350 DSVA organisations involved in the delivery, planning, funding or support of specialist DSVA
351 support services in the UK was established as part of the VISION Consortium. The group
352 included representatives from two second-tier (i.e., organisations that support front-line
353 services but do not provide services themselves) domestic abuse organisations, one
354 second-tier organisation for violence against Black and Minority Ethnic women and girls, one
355 domestic abuse organisation that provides a range of front-line services, one service
356 focusing specifically on supporting male victims, working with perpetrators of domestic
357 violence, and working with young people using violence in close relationships, and one
358 service focusing specifically on sexual violence and abuse. The group was recruited by the
359 VISION programme of research to contribute to and co-produce research that improves the
360 understanding of the relationship between violence, health and inequalities and improves
361 data collection for public benefit.

362

363 We held two workshops with stakeholders; one in September 2022 and one in June 2023.
364 The two-hour workshops were structured and included a mixture of presentations focused on
365 the systematic review methodologies, and discussions based on open ended questions.

366 During the first workshop, the group inputted to the design of the study protocol and provided
367 insight and context regarding the challenges in measuring the effectiveness of support
368 services in the VCS. Their input resulted in several changes, including broadening the scope
369 of this review to try to identify evidence relating to victim-survivor wellbeing and perpetrator
370 attitudes and behaviour, rather than focusing only on outcomes directly related to violence
371 cessation, to reflect the priorities of the sector.

372

373 During the second workshop, stakeholders aided with the interpretation of preliminary data,
374 and helped to shape the analysis approach. For instance, the initial approach to the
375 systematic review was to use the scoping review to identify the five most commonly reported
376 outcomes, and then to work with stakeholders to prioritise these in terms of importance and
377 relevance. However, through discussion with the stakeholders it became clear that it was not
378 appropriate to apply one outcome to each and every type of intervention, as they do not all
379 have the same aims and therefore would not be expected to impact the same outcomes. As
380 a result, the method described in the eligibility criteria section was adopted, whereby the
381 most commonly reported outcomes for each individual intervention were identified.

382

383 **Results**

384 **Selection of sources of evidence**

385 The peer reviewed literature search retrieved 19289 records, and the grey literature search
386 retrieved an additional 1096 records. After duplicates were removed, there was a total of
387 13527 records, of which 12517 were excluded and 903 underwent full text screening.

388 Overall, 28 studies were included from 36 reports [57-92] (Figure 1).

389

390 **Study characteristics**

391 Details of the included studies can be found in Table 1. Of the 28 studies, 23 described
392 interventions for people who have experienced DSVAs, while six described programmes
393 aimed at perpetrators of DSVAs. The interventions for people who have experienced DSVAs
394 involved a total of 42,850 participants, the majority of whom were heterosexual, White
395 British, and predominantly women. A further 246 participants were included in the
396 perpetrator programmes, all of whom were men. Eighteen of the studies focused on DVA
397 only, five focused on adult victims of childhood sexual abuse (CSA), three focused on SVA,
398 and two included multiple forms of abuse. The majority (n=17) were based in the VCS. Of
399 the 23 studies describing interventions for victim-survivors, ten were produced by SafeLives
400 as part of their Insights outcome measurement reports.

401

402 Interventions

403 Advocacy/IDVAs

404 Eleven studies reported on IDVA services [57, 59-61, 63, 64, 67, 69, 71, 73, 75]. Eight of the
405 studies provided data from multiple IDVA services, representing a total of 158 IDVA services
406 between them. Five of the eight studies were SafeLives Insights reports. All but two of the
407 studies were found in the grey literature search, and the majority (n=9) were located in the
408 VCS. One was a mix of sectors, with one hospital-based IDVA (public sector) and one
409 community-based IDVA (VCS), and for one the sector was unclear. Most studies used an
410 uncontrolled pre-post design (n=10), while one used a non-randomised comparative study
411 design. The eight studies that reported on multiple IDVA services did not describe the
412 individual services in detail, however they did report the usage of various types of support
413 interventions. The most commonly accessed support intervention as part of the IDVA service
414 for all reports was safety planning. Other forms of support commonly accessed included
415 housing, mental health, child-related issues, and multi-agency risk assessment conferences
416 (MARACs). Of the three studies that evaluated a single IDVA service, one compared a

417 hospital based IDVA to a community based IDVA, one described an IDVA service that
418 supported the work of MARACs and four specialist domestic violence courts (SDVCs), and
419 one described an IDVA service that offered intensive one-to-one support in a medium-term
420 timeframe, that focused on safety planning and risk assessments.

421

422 Outreach

423 Five studies provided data for a total of 86 outreach interventions [65, 66, 68, 70, 72]. All five
424 studies were SafeLives Insights reports. All were found in the grey literature search, all used
425 uncontrolled pre-post designs, and all services were located in the VCS. Because of the
426 nature of the SafeLives Insights measurement service and the datasets it produces, details
427 of the included outreach services are not provided. However, for each publication, the types
428 of intervention and support accessed by people using the outreach service are reported. For
429 all but one publication, the most commonly accessed type of support was safety planning,
430 while for one publication health and wellbeing advice and support was the most commonly
431 accessed support type. The average duration of outreach support ranged from 1.9-4.5
432 months.

433

434 Psychological support

435 Six studies reported on psychological support interventions [76-81]. All of these were peer
436 reviewed, and five used uncontrolled pre-post designs. One study included a comparator
437 group, but data on self-esteem were not collected for this group, thus only data from the
438 intervention arm were included. Two of the six interventions were in the VCS, while the rest
439 were based in the public sector. Three of the studies used Cognitive Analytic Therapy, which
440 uses a mix of psychodynamic, cognitive and behavioural techniques to aid reprocessing,
441 assertiveness, and transference. One study described a Trauma, Recovery and
442 Empowerment Model, which is a group based cognitive-behavioural therapy. One study

443 reported a parenting programme called Domestic Abuse Recovering Together, which
444 focuses on rebuilding mother-child relationships and increasing confidence and self-esteem.
445 One paper reported a group therapy which involved journal work, recovery writing and art
446 therapy. The duration of the support interventions ranged from eight to 24 weeks.

447

448 All but one study focused exclusively on adults who had experienced child sexual abuse.
449 One included people with a history of interpersonal trauma, including child sexual abuse,
450 neglect, physical abuse, domestic violence or assault. Five of the six studies comprised of
451 women only, while one study only included men.

452

453 Perpetrator programmes

454 Six studies evaluated perpetrator programmes, three reporting the Questionnaire on
455 Attitudes Consistent with Sexual Offending (QASCO) [89, 90, 92], and three reporting the
456 Balanced Inventory of Desirable Reporting (BIDR) [82, 88, 91]. Of the three reporting the
457 BIDR, all were aimed at men who had previously perpetrated domestic abuse. Two of the
458 studies were peer reviewed, and one was found in the grey literature. One used a
459 randomised controlled trial design, whilst the other two used uncontrolled pre-post designs.
460 One was based in the VCS, one in the public sector, and one was mixed. The programme
461 described by Gilchrist (2021) was a behaviour change intervention developed using the
462 Behaviour Change Wheel and the COM-B model of behavioural interventions, while the
463 programme used by Bowen (2003) used a psychoeducational approach, and the programme
464 described by Ormston (2016) utilised a systems approach to change men's behaviour which
465 also works with women and children. The three studies reporting the QASCO all recruited
466 men with intellectual disability who had sexually assaulted women. All three studies were
467 peer-reviewed, used a pre-post design (one used a comparative study design but the
468 second arm was excluded as the population were men who had perpetrated against

469 children, which is outside of the scope of this review), and two were based in the public
470 sector, while for the third study the setting was unclear. All three programmes used group
471 work and focused on understanding their behaviour, addressing cognitive distortions, and
472 prevention relapse.

473

474 **Effects of the interventions and services**

475 Advocacy/IDVAs

476 Twelve arms from eleven studies were included in the meta-analysis (Figure 2). All showed
477 an increase in participants reporting cessation of abuse from pre- to post-intervention (i.e., at
478 case closure). The overall pooled prevalence of cessation in abuse was 58.7% (95% CI
479 53.6-63.8). The IDVA service reported by Taylor-Dunn and Erol (2019) showed the greatest
480 increase in participants reporting cessation of abuse (77.0%, 95% CI 72.3-81.2), while the
481 dataset collating data from 22 IDVA services produced by SafeLives in 2019 showed the
482 lowest increase (45.3%, 95% CI 43.2-47.4).

483

484 Heterogeneity levels were very high ($I^2 = 98.4\%$; Cochran's Q: $\chi^2(10) = 703.7$, $p < .01$),
485 however planned subgroup analyses could not be undertaken because for each analysis,
486 either one subgroup had less than three contributing studies (e.g., study design, sector, type
487 of violence), or studies did not report enough information (e.g., relationship to the
488 perpetrator, type of provider).

489

490 Outreach

491 Five studies were included in the meta-analysis (Figure 3). All showed an increase in
492 cessation of abuse from pre- to post-intervention. The overall pooled prevalence of abuse
493 cessation was 46.2% (95% CI 39.0-53.2). Individual prevalence ranged from 31.5% to
494 57.1%. As with advocacy interventions and services, there was very high heterogeneity ($I^2 =$

495 97.6%; Cochran's Q: $\chi^2(10) = 166.5, p < .01$). Planned subgroup analysis to explore the
496 potential causes of this could not be carried out because all studies fell into the same
497 category (i.e., study design, sector, source of literature, type of violence, type of provider,
498 relationship to perpetrator).

499

500 Psychological support

501 The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale was reported by six studies, however one only reported
502 results graphically, therefore mean scores could not be extracted. None of the remaining
503 studies reported enough data for robust meta-analysis, therefore synthesis was conducted
504 using vote counting based on the direction of effect. This showed that all studies showed a
505 positive impact of psychological support interventions on the outcome (see Table 2 for the
506 effect direction table).

507

508 Perpetrator programmes

509 Meta-analysis was not possible for either the BIDR or the QASCO outcomes, due to either
510 insufficient reporting (i.e., standard deviations not being reported), or discrepancies between
511 studies in terms of whether the total score or subscale scores were reported. Therefore, both
512 perpetrator programme outcomes were synthesised using the vote counting methods, and
513 results are presented in Table 3. All three perpetrator programmes reporting the QASCO
514 showed positive impacts on the outcome, although all had small sample sizes. For the BIDR,
515 Bowen (2003) showed a slight increase in impression management, and a significant
516 increase in terms of the self-deception subscale. Gilchrist et al., (2021) found no change
517 from baseline to end of treatment, whilst the Ormston et al., (2016) found a slight increase in
518 self-deception but no change in impression management.

519

520 **Sensitivity analyses**

521 We were unable to perform sensitivity analysis by removal of high risk of bias studies as all
522 studies were assessed as having high risk of bias. Sensitivity analysis removing one study at
523 a time was conducted for meta-analysed outcomes (Additional file 5). For both outcomes,
524 removing each study did not substantially change the estimates.

525

526 **Quality and certainty assessments**

527 One randomised controlled trial [88] was assessed using the RoB2 tool. This study was
528 assessed as having a high risk of bias, due to concerns regarding missing data and
529 measurement of the outcome (Figure 4; Table A1).

530

531 Two non-randomised comparative trials [59, 81] were assessed using the ROBINS-I tool.

532 Both studies were determined to have a serious risk of bias, primarily due to concerns
533 regarding confounding variables, missing data, measurement of the outcome due to lack of
534 blinding, and selection of the reported result as neither study had pre-registered protocols
535 available (Figure 5; Table A1).

536

537 Nine uncontrolled before and after studies [61, 76-80, 89, 92, 93] were assessed using an
538 adapted version of the ROBINS-I tool. All were judged as having a serious risk of bias. This
539 was again primarily related to issues with potential confounding, some issues with missing
540 data and some concerns regarding a lack of protocol meaning that there may be potential for
541 selected reporting (Figure 5; Table A1).

542

543 Seventeen studies [57, 60, 63-73, 75, 82, 91, 94] found in the grey literature were assessed
544 using the AACODS checklist. While this tool does not provide an overall risk of bias rating, it

545 does allow for the identification of key quality issues, which included concerns regarding a
546 lack of detailed reference lists or sources for some of the publications, lack of transparency
547 regarding limits of the research, and some concerns regarding significance (Table a2).

548

549 Evidence certainty was assessed using GRADE. For studies that were not meta-analysed,
550 GRADE assessments were conducted following published guidance [95]. Taking into
551 account the above risk of bias ratings, inconsistency, indirection, impression and publication
552 bias, the certainty of evidence rating was very low for both cessation of abuse and for
553 desirable responding, low for attitudes towards sexual offending, and moderate for self-
554 esteem. Full details of the assessments can be found in Additional file 4 (Table A3).

555

556 **Discussion**

557 This review is the first to assess the effectiveness of multiple types of support services and
558 interventions for people who have experienced DSVAs in the UK, using a comprehensive
559 search strategy encompassing both the peer-reviewed and grey literature, and drawing upon
560 a stakeholder advisory group to guide the development and progress of the review. This
561 review aimed to determine the effectiveness of support interventions and services at
562 improving the safety and wellbeing of those affected by DSVAs.

563

564 **Overview of findings**

565 The review found that both advocacy/IDVA services and outreach services had a positive
566 effect in terms of the proportion of service users reporting that the abuse had ceased by
567 case closure. These findings broadly concur with previous systematic reviews based on
568 evidence primarily from the USA, which have concluded that there is weak support for
569 advocacy in terms of cessation or reduction of some types of abuse, improved quality of life
570 and improved mental health, but that further research and evaluation is necessary [36, 96].

571

572 The results for psychological support services similarly suggested a positive effect on self-
573 esteem, with all studies showing a positive direction of effect. This is also broadly reflective
574 of the international evidence, with one meta-analysis of three studies showing non-significant
575 improvements in self-esteem following various forms of psychological support interventions,
576 including cognitive trauma therapy, an empowerment programme, and stress management
577 [97], and another review showing improvements in self-esteem and other wellbeing related
578 outcomes following counselling interventions [98].

579

580 In terms of perpetrator programmes, results were more mixed. For the three studies
581 reporting attitudes consistent with sexual offending, all studies showed effects consistent
582 with a positive impact, although this evidence is limited only to sexual offenders with
583 intellectual disabilities and cannot be generalised to other perpetrators of DSVAs. Attitudes
584 towards violence has been listed as one of the key factors underpinning prevention of
585 violence perpetration, therefore this does suggest that there may be benefits in reducing
586 violence perpetration. Results for the desirable reporting outcome showed either no effect or
587 negative effects (i.e., increased levels of desirable reporting after the programme). It should
588 be noted that while the BIDR was reported in the three perpetrator programmes as an
589 outcome, with pre- and post-intervention values reported, it's intended use is to assess
590 socially desirable reporting so that other self-reported scales of interest can be adjusted for,
591 rather than being an outcome in and of itself. Thus, it would not necessarily be expected that
592 a perpetrator programme would result in changes to social desirability, therefore these
593 findings are not surprising.

594

595 **Discordance between review findings and stakeholder views**

596 A major strength of this review was the involvement of the stakeholder advisory group,
597 whose insight in terms of providing context, developing the scope and advising on analysis
598 approaches was invaluable. The stakeholder consultation process also provided some
599 unexpected challenges and incidental findings, such as when there were discrepancies
600 between the evidence and stakeholder views. For instance, stakeholders were disappointed
601 that some of the outcomes that they considered most important and relevant to service users
602 and deliverers were not reflected in the findings of the review. As an example, some of the
603 outcomes that were valued by the stakeholders could not be included in the review due to
604 either lack of evidence, too much variation in how they were specifically operationalised, or
605 because the way in which they were operationalised did not meet the eligibility criteria of the
606 review (i.e., they were not measured at more than one time-point). For instance,
607 stakeholders considered women's self-reported perception of their safety a key outcome of
608 perpetrator programmes, however this could not be included in the review because it was
609 often assessed retrospectively at the end of the intervention only or, when assessed at two
610 time-points, there was too much divergence in how it was measured. On the other hand, the
611 stakeholders considered *cessation of abuse* as an outcome of support services unrealistic. It
612 was clear that for stakeholders the priority was to make those who have experienced DSVA
613 safer, but that striving for perfection (i.e., complete cessation of all abuse, rather than a
614 reduction in the frequency, severity and/or duration of DSVA), was unfeasible, and would
615 likely understate the impact of the service. While cessation of abuse may be the ultimate
616 long-term goal, other short and medium-term goals that focus on enhancing safety over time
617 are more achievable.

618

619 **Challenges**

620 A challenge in terms of both evidence synthesis in this field and for those commissioning
621 and delivering DSVA services is the large variation and inconsistency in outcomes being

622 measured to assess service and intervention effectiveness. This is largely driven by funding
623 bodies and the fragile and fragmented funding landscape of DSVAs services in the UK. Often
624 various bodies are involved in the funding of a service, each with their own agenda and
625 stipulations as to what service deliverers need to measure to assess effectiveness. This can
626 lead to a single service being required to capture multiple forms of data and outcomes to
627 fulfil different funders' requirements, and these data and outcomes differing between
628 services. Additionally, these required outcomes may be at odds with the service deliverers'
629 own concept of effectiveness, which may result in services choosing to collect further
630 outcomes, where resources allow. A third contributing factor to the variation in outcomes
631 measured is that some services, where funding allows, commission independent service
632 evaluations, which often require additional outcomes to be measured. Thus, the outcomes
633 measured may reflect differing agendas or understandings of what is an important measure
634 of effectiveness.

635

636 The above has two consequences relevant to this review. First, the outcomes reported in the
637 included studies may be reflective of what funders require services to report, rather than
638 what service deliverers view as most important or relevant to those they are supporting, or
639 what is most meaningful in the lives of victim-survivors and perpetrators. This may explain
640 the discrepancies noted above in terms of stakeholder outcome preferences compared to
641 those identified in the literature. The second issue is that by including these outcomes in the
642 review, we run the risk of reinforcing that this is how effectiveness should be measured in
643 this field. Therefore, it is important to acknowledge that while the outcomes utilised in this
644 review represent the most consistently used and therefore amenable to synthesis through
645 meta-analysis, they should not necessarily continue to be used if they are not the outcomes
646 that are valued most by service providers and people with lived experience. Instead, focus
647 should be on building up the evidence base for those outcomes that are most valued,
648 identifying them through co-production with survivors and service providers, in a consistent

649 way (i.e., using consistent outcome measurement tools), which will allow for more
650 meaningful syntheses in the future. This may mean increased consistency in funders'
651 requirements and more sustainable funding to facilitate this data collection.

652

653 A further challenge to synthesis through meta-analysis is the inconsistency in how robustly
654 outcome data are reported. This challenge is illustrated in this review. The methods used to
655 identify outcomes should have ensured that meta-analysis was possible for all outcomes.
656 However, whilst meeting the criteria for the review (i.e., three or more studies reporting the
657 same outcome and using the same outcome measurement tool), three could not be meta-
658 analysed due to insufficient or inconsistent reporting (i.e., not reporting standard deviations,
659 only reporting results graphically, use of subscale scores versus total scores). Thus,
660 inconsistency is an issue both in terms of the outcomes used and how they are reported.

661

662 To address this in the future, and allow for subsequent meta-analysis that can be more
663 inclusive, we recommend improving reporting practices by following best practice guidance.
664 Reporting guidelines exist for a range of study types, including randomised trials (CONSORT
665 2010 [99]), observational studies (The Strengthening the Reporting of Observational Studies
666 in Epidemiology (STROBE) Statement [100]), and quality improvement studies (SQUIRE 2.0
667 – Standards for QUality Improvement Reporting Excellence [101]). While there is no
668 reporting guidance specifically for service evaluations, some of the guidance for other
669 designs do apply. In particular, it is important that if the aim is to demonstrate improvement,
670 change, or impact, outcomes need to be assessed at more than one time point. To facilitate
671 meta-analysis, authors should report mean values with a measure of variation (i.e., the
672 standard deviation), and clearly report the number of individuals who completed the outcome
673 measure at each time point. It is also important to avoid only presenting data graphically.

674 Better reporting, together with more consistency in outcome measures used, will enable
675 larger, and therefore more powerful synthesis in the future.

676

677 **Strengths and limitations**

678 A major strength of this review is the inclusion of a comprehensive grey literature search
679 strategy. This allowed for identification of reports and evaluations carried out by specialist
680 support services that are not peer-reviewed or identifiable via traditional literature databases,
681 thus reducing publication bias and allowing identification of a wider range of reports. As
682 already noted, the continued involvement of stakeholders was another strength, as this
683 group provided essential guidance on the review as it developed and ensured that the
684 review process was sensitive to the context and the various political, financial and ethical
685 issues and considerations. A limitation of our approach to stakeholder engagement was that
686 we did not explicitly invite input from a lived experience perspective. Whilst many service
687 providers in the domestic abuse sector also have lived experience of DSVA, the input we
688 sought was from a service provider perspective. The insights we gained may have been
689 further strengthened had we also gathered input from a lived experience perspective.

690

691 There are several further limitations to the evidence produced by this review. First, all of the
692 peer-reviewed literature had a high risk of bias, primarily due to confounding factors and a
693 lack of information provided, such as a study protocol. The grey literature should be
694 interpreted with the understanding that it has not undergone a peer-review process.

695 Additionally, quality appraisal of grey literature studies highlighted concerns about authority,
696 accuracy and significance. Second, because of the inconsistency surrounding outcome
697 reporting, three of the included outcomes could not be meta-analysed. Vote counting was
698 used instead, based on the available data. This method is only able to determine whether
699 there is any evidence of an effect, rather than what the average effect is, limiting the

700 conclusions that can be drawn. Third, much of the evidence, particularly for advocacy/IDVA
701 services and outreach services, is based on publications from one service provider
702 (SafeLives), but there is insufficient information regarding the structure and provision of each
703 service represented by the data. It is possible that a service may self-define as advocacy,
704 but a similar service may define itself as an outreach service. Similarly, the specific forms of
705 support offered by advocacy/IDVA and outreach services appear similar (e.g., according to
706 the SafeLives Insights reports, both frequently report safety planning and housing as
707 common forms of support offered and accessed). Therefore, there may be overlap between
708 the categories of services, but because information on how they self-define and descriptions
709 of each contributing service are not reported, the extent of this cannot be determined. A final
710 limitation, as explained above, this review only speaks to evidence for the outcomes that
711 were most commonly measured, which is not necessarily synonymous with being the most
712 relevant or useful outcomes. The danger of this is perpetuating a flawed system where
713 services are evaluated on outcomes that are not necessarily consistent with their aims or
714 ethos. To avoid this, we are clear that this review provides evidence for the effectiveness of
715 support interventions based on the available data, but that work needs to be done to ensure
716 that the most relevant and useful outcomes are measured consistently, to aid services in
717 evidencing their effectiveness and to enable more meaningful syntheses of the evidence in
718 the future.

719

720 **Implications and future directions**

721 This review highlights the value of UK-based advocacy and outreach interventions for
722 reducing DSVAs revictimisation, of psychological support for improving self-esteem and of
723 perpetrator programmes for improving attitudes to sexual offending. However, the lack of
724 high-quality evidence means that there is some uncertainty regarding the effect estimates.
725 There is a need for high quality research that incorporates randomisation between
726 interventions, where appropriate and ethical. Research practices such as publishing of study

727 protocols, following reporting guidelines and, for research where randomisation is not
728 feasible, considering and accounting for potential confounding factors, would greatly improve
729 the quality and robustness of research in this field.

730

731 Another way to improve the robustness of the evidence base would be greater consistency
732 in outcomes being measured to assess effectiveness and greater consensus between
733 researchers, service providers, and funders. Core-outcome sets have been developed
734 through co-production with survivors, practitioners, commissioners, policymakers and
735 researchers, in related areas such as child and family-focused interventions for child and
736 domestic abuse [102]. Developing a core-outcome set specific to adult DSVAs that reflect the
737 short and medium-term goals that both service providers and survivors value, building on
738 existing efforts that have been made in this area [103], and underpinning a theory of change
739 towards ending violence, will facilitate cohesion and the development of a robust evidence-
740 base.

741

742 It is important to acknowledge that the theory underlying perpetrator programmes in
743 particular is evolving, with recent evidence from the US indicating a shift from traditional
744 approaches, such as psychoeducation and CBT, towards trauma-informed approaches that
745 focus more on the consequences of trauma that may lead to violence perpetration (e.g.,
746 [104]). Of the six UK-based perpetrator programmes identified in the current review,
747 traumatic experiences and the potential benefits of using a trauma-informed approach are
748 briefly mentioned in two. However, it is not clear if either programme did go on to incorporate
749 these practices into the development of the interventions. Recent literature suggests that in
750 the UK, trauma-informed perpetrator programmes are being developed and used [105, 106],
751 however this work is still in its infancy. Future work in this area should therefore consider the
752 evidence for more trauma-informed perpetrator programmes and look to assess the
753 effectiveness of such programmes in the UK.

754 Finally, whilst this review focused on quantitative data to address the review question, there
755 is a wealth of qualitative data that addresses the impact of support interventions on people
756 who have experienced DSVAs. Therefore, synthesis of this qualitative evidence would be
757 valuable to complement the current review and provide a more holistic and representative
758 overview of the evidence contributing to this field.

759

760 **List of abbreviations**

761 ASSIA: Applied Social Sciences Index & Abstracts

762 BIDR: Balanced Inventory of Desirable Reporting

763 CI: Confidence interval

764 DSVAs: Domestic and sexual violence and abuse

765 DVA: Domestic violence and abuse

766 EMBASE: Excerpta Medica Database

767 IBSS: International Bibliography of the Social Sciences

768 IDVA: Independent domestic violence advocate

769 MARAC: Multi-agency

770 NRC: non-randomised comparative study

771 PsycINFO: Psychological Information Database

772 QASCO: Questionnaire on Attitudes Consistent with Sexual Offending

773 RCT: randomised controlled trial

774 RoB2: Risk of Bias 2 tool

775 RSES: Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale

776 SSCI: Social Sciences Citation Index

777

778 **Declarations**

779 **Ethics approval and consent to participate:** Not applicable.

780 **Consent for publication:** Not applicable.

781 **Availability of data and materials:** The datasets used and/or analysed during the current
782 study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

783 **Competing interests:** The authors declare that they have no competing interests

784 **Funding:** This research was supported by the UK Prevention Research Partnership
785 (Violence, Health and Society; MR-VO49879/1), which is funded by the British Heart
786 Foundation, Chief Scientist Office of the Scottish Government Health and Social Care
787 Directorates, Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council, Economic and Social
788 Research Council, Health and Social Care Research and Development Division (Welsh
789 Government), Medical Research Council, National Institute for Health Research, Natural
790 Environment Research Council, Public Health Agency (Northern Ireland), The Health
791 Foundation, and Wellcome. The views expressed in this article are those of the authors and
792 not necessarily those of the UK Prevention Research Partnership or any other funder. The
793 funder had no role in the study design, data collection, data analysis, data interpretation, or
794 writing of this paper.

795 **Author contributions:** All authors (SC, AB, MP, SM, GF, NVL) contributed to the
796 conceptualisation and design of the review. SC carried out searches, screening, extraction,
797 data charting, and analysis. AB was the second reviewer and contributed to the screening,
798 data extraction, and risk of bias assessment stages. SC produced the first draft of the
799 manuscript and subsequent revised versions following valuable input and refinement from
800 the co-authors (AB, MP, SM, GF, NVL). All authors approved the final version.

801 **Acknowledgments:** We thank the representatives from SafeLives, Women's Aid Federation
802 England, Respect, Rape Crisis England and Wales, Refuge and Imkaan for their contribution
803 to this project.

804 **Additional files:**

805 Additional file 1. File format .pdf. Checklists (PRISMA and SWiM). Contains the Preferred
806 Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) and Synthesis
807 Without Meta-analysis (SWiM) reporting checklists.

808 Additional file 2. File format .pdf. Example search strategy. Contains an example search
809 strategy for one of the peer reviewed literature databases (Medline) and one of the grey
810 literature databases (Social Care Online).

811 Additional file 3. File format .pdf. Risk of bias assessments. Contains tables A1 and A2,
812 detailing the risk of bias assessments for randomised controlled trials, non-randomised
813 comparative trials and uncontrolled before and after studies (Table A1), and for the grey
814 literature (Table A2).

815 Additional file 4. File format .pdf. GRADE Certainty Assessment. Contains Table A3, which
816 details the assessments of certainty for each of the outcomes using the GRADE framework.

817 Additional file 5. File format .pdf. Sensitivity analyses (leave one out analysis). Contains
818 Figures A1 and A2 which show the leave one out analyses for the Cessation of Abuse
819 outcome for advocacy/IDVA interventions outcome, and the Cessation of Abuse outcome for
820 outreach interventions outcome.

821

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