Aggression and Violent Behavior 88 (2026) 102157

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Aggression and Violent Behavior

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/aggviobeh

Typologies of men who perpetrate intimate partner violence: A 50-year systematic review

Crystal J. Giesbrecht [a,*], Leslie Anne Keown [a], Kaila C. Bruer [b]

[a] Department of Justice Studies, University of Regina, Saskatchewan, Canada
[b] Department of Psychology, Luther College at the University of Regina, Saskatchewan, Canada

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:
Intimate partner violence
Domestic violence
Typology
Perpetrators
Systematic review

ABSTRACT

Since the 1970s, researchers have sought to classify perpetrators of intimate partner violence (IPV) into typologies. This article presents the first systematic review of all studies of typologies of men who perpetrated IPV, including those that developed new typologies or classified perpetrators according to typologies derived from previous studies. The review aimed to synthesize the literature by examining how extensively different typologies have been studied, how frequently each perpetrator type appears across the literature, and what methods and measures have been used to identify and compare these types. The systematic review included empirical, rational/deductive, and theoretical typology studies. The review included 190 typologies from 186 unique studies reported in 215 articles published between 1974 and 2024. Typologies included in the systematic review were grouped according to nine types: 1) family-only and generally violent; 2) family-only, generally violent, and borderline/dysphoric; 3) family-only, generally violent, low-level antisocial, and borderline/dysphoric; 4) severity and frequency of violence; 5) reactive and instrumental, 6) situational couple violence and coercive control; 7) personality types; 8) other typologies; and 9) perpetrators of intimate partner femicide. This systematic review presents an overview of methods and measures that have been used to derive typologies and compare types; samples used in typology research; the number of studies published for each kind of typology; characteristics of types; and the proportion of each perpetrator type in the extant literature. Similarities and potential overlap between types identified in the systematic review are discussed. Future directions for IPV typology research are also discussed. Tables summarizing empirical, rational/deductive, and theoretical typologies for the nine types are available in Supplemental Material.

1. IPV typology research

Perpetrators of intimate partner violence (IPV) are not a homogenous group (Ali et al., 2016; Cameranesi, 2016; Capaldi & Kim, 2007; Cavanaugh & Gelles, 2005; Dixon & Browne, 2003; Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994; Johnson, 1995). Since the 1970s (Elbow, 1977; Faulk, 1974), researchers have sought to classify perpetrators of IPV into typologies. This systematic review provides an overview of all typology studies of men who have perpetrated IPV conducted between 1974 and 2024.

1.1. Empirical, deductive, and theoretically derived typologies

Several methodological strategies have been used by researchers to develop and validate typologies of men who have perpetrated IPV. Using the empirical/inductive approach, types are derived from the data, using methods such as cluster analysis (e.g., Carbajosa, Catalá-Miñana, Lila, & Gracia, 2017; Eckhardt, Holtzworth-Munroe, et al., 2008, Eckhardt, Samper, & Murphy, 2008; Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2000; Johnson, 2006; Johnson et al., 2006; Thijssen & de Ruiter, 2011). Another common method is the rational/deductive approach, where perpetrators are classified into pre-set types, such as coding generality of violence (e.g., family-only or generally violent) or instrumental or reactive violence from police records (e.g., Aguilar Ruiz & González-Calderón, 2022; Babcock et al., 2023; Boyle et al., 2008; Cantos et al., 2019; Chase et al., 2001; Ennis et al., 2017; Petersson & Strand, 2017). Theoretical/conceptual typologies (i.e., not drawing on data collected from perpetrators; e.g., Elbow, 1977; LaViolette, 2009; Steinmetz, 1979) have also been proposed. Some typologies have been developed based on reviews of extant literature (e.g., Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994;

* Corresponding author at: Department of Justice Studies, University of Regina, 3737 Wascana Parkway, Regina, SK, S4S 0A2, Canada.
E-mail address: crystal.giesbrecht@uregina.ca (C.J. Giesbrecht).

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2026.102157
Received 13 March 2025; Received in revised form 30 January 2026; Accepted 27 April 2026
Available online 30 April 2026
1359-1789/© 2026 The Author(s). Published by Elsevier Ltd. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/).

Kelly & Johnson, 2008; Monson & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 1998).

1.2. Influential typologies

Typologies of IPV perpetrators that are most often cited and that have been replicated in numerous subsequent studies are those by Holtzworth-Munroe et al. (2000, 2003) and Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart (1994) and by M. P. Johnson (1995, 2006). Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart (1994) illustrated that IPV perpetrators can be distinguished based on the frequency and severity of violence they perpetrate, whether they use violence against victims other than their partner, and the presence of psychopathology, such as personality disorders. Given the findings from earlier research, Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart (1994) proposed a three-group typology: family-only batterers, dysphoric/borderline batterers, and generally violent/antisocial batterers. In subsequent empirical studies, Holtzworth-Munroe and colleagues found the three types identified in their initial review of the literature, as well as a fourth type: low-level antisocial batterers (Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2000, 2003).

Another influential typology was identified by M. P. Johnson (1995, 2006), who categorized IPV into coercive controlling violence (initially referred to as both intimate terrorism and patriarchal terrorism), situational couple violence (originally termed common couple violence), and violent resistance. In this conceptualization, a perpetrator of coercive controlling abuse, also known as an intimate terrorist, is violent and controlling. Tactics of coercive control include surveillance, monitoring, regulation, and control of all the victim's daily activities by using isolation, degradation, and humiliation. In situational couple violence, by contrast, one or both partners are violent, but the violence is not rooted in dynamics of power and control. Instead, situational couple violence is a pattern of arguments and conflict that escalates to violence.

1.3. Earlier reviews of typologies of men who have perpetrated IPV

Researchers have provided literature reviews or systematically reviewed subsets of the extant IPV typology literature; however, no reviews have included all studies that developed new typologies of men who perpetrated IPV or classified perpetrators of IPV according to typologies derived in previous studies.

Alexander (2023; Alexander & Johnson, 2023) conducted a systematic review of 34 typology studies that employed "person-centred" approaches (i.e., those examining similarities and differences between individuals, including cluster analysis, latent class analysis, latent profile analysis, or finite mixture modelling); this review included studies involving perpetrators of mixed gender and included studies conducted with adults and youth. Conroy et al. (2024) systematically reviewed 44 empirical studies that tested M. P. Johnson's typology; this review also included youth and perpetrators of mixed gender. Dixon and Browne (2003) identified 12 studies that indicated support for Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart's (1994) tripartite typology. Petersson and Strand (2020) systematically reviewed 30 studies that included a family-only perpetrator type. Ali et al. (2016) conducted a literature review that identified 123 studies and summarized different classifications of perpetrators of IPV and typologies of both men and women who perpetrated IPV; however, they did not provide details of the included studies. Cameranesi (2016) conducted a literature review of the most frequently cited typology studies, as well as attachment insecurity and personality disorders.

The present review contributes to this research by reviewing all studies that presented new typologies or classified men who perpetrated IPV according to existing typologies derived from previous studies, beginning with the first published IPV typology study (Faulk, 1974).

2. The present study

2.1. Purpose

The present systematic review aimed to provide an overview of all studies of typologies of men who perpetrated IPV (including intimate partner femicide; IPF), comprising studies that developed new typologies or classified IPV perpetrators according to typologies derived in previous studies, published between 1974 and 2024. The goals of the review included: 1) investigating the number of studies (including empirical, rational/deductive, and theoretical/conceptual) published for each kind of typology (e.g., reactive/instrumental, family-only/generally violent, situational couple violence/coercive control), 2) exploring the proportion of each perpetrator type in the extant literature, and 3) investigating methods and measures that have been used to derive typologies, as well as to compare types.

2.2. Method

The study protocol was registered with PROSPERO (registration number CRD42023452469) (Giesbrecht & Bruer, 2023).

2.2.1. Search strategy

Several articles relating to typologies of IPV perpetrators were initially obtained by the first author. The reference lists of these articles were hand-searched to identify additional articles. The 436 studies identified by the first author in this initial literature review were denoted as those identified by hand-searching (Fig. 1). These studies were organized in Zotero (Corporation for Digital Scholarship, n.d.) and uploaded into Covidence systematic review software (Veritas Health Innovation, 2023).

Database searches to identify additional articles were conducted on August 13, 2023. Subsequent searches were conducted on March 31, 2024, and December 20, 2025. The systematic review includes articles published between 1974 and December 31, 2024. Search terms included intimate partner violence OR domestic violence AND perpetrat* OR batter* OR offend* AND typolog* OR subtype OR sub-type OR latent class OR cluster. Titles and abstracts were searched for these terms. Four databases, PsycInfo ($n = 284$), Social Services Abstracts ($n = 216$), Sociological Abstracts ($n = 181$), and Criminal Justice Abstracts ($n = 174$), were searched. Search results were uploaded into Covidence.

2.2.2. Inclusion and exclusion criteria

The population for this study comprised adult men who perpetrated IPV (including IPF) against women, including current or former partners. Typologies derived from archival data or primary studies with men who perpetrated IPV were eligible for inclusion, as were studies with couples that included perpetrators who were men. Typologies derived from women's reports regarding their partners were eligible if the data provided related to the perpetrator. Typologies of perpetrators of all genders were included if data pertaining to men could be analyzed separately or if the majority (over 80%) of the sample were men.

As the study population was adult men who perpetrated IPV, studies of dating violence involving youth under the age of 18 were excluded. Typologies that only included women who perpetrated IPV were excluded. Typologies of relationship dynamics (as opposed to perpetrator characteristics or behavior) were excluded, as were typologies of victims.

Quantitative and qualitative studies were eligible for inclusion. Literature reviews were included if they proposed a new typology, theoretically derived from existing literature (e.g., Elbow, 1977; Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994; Johnson, 1995). Literature reviews were excluded if they summarized extant literature but did not propose a new typology. Studies that assessed perpetrators of IPV using personality measures were included if these informed a new typology (e.g., Chambers & Wilson, 2007; Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al., 2000; Loinaz et al.,

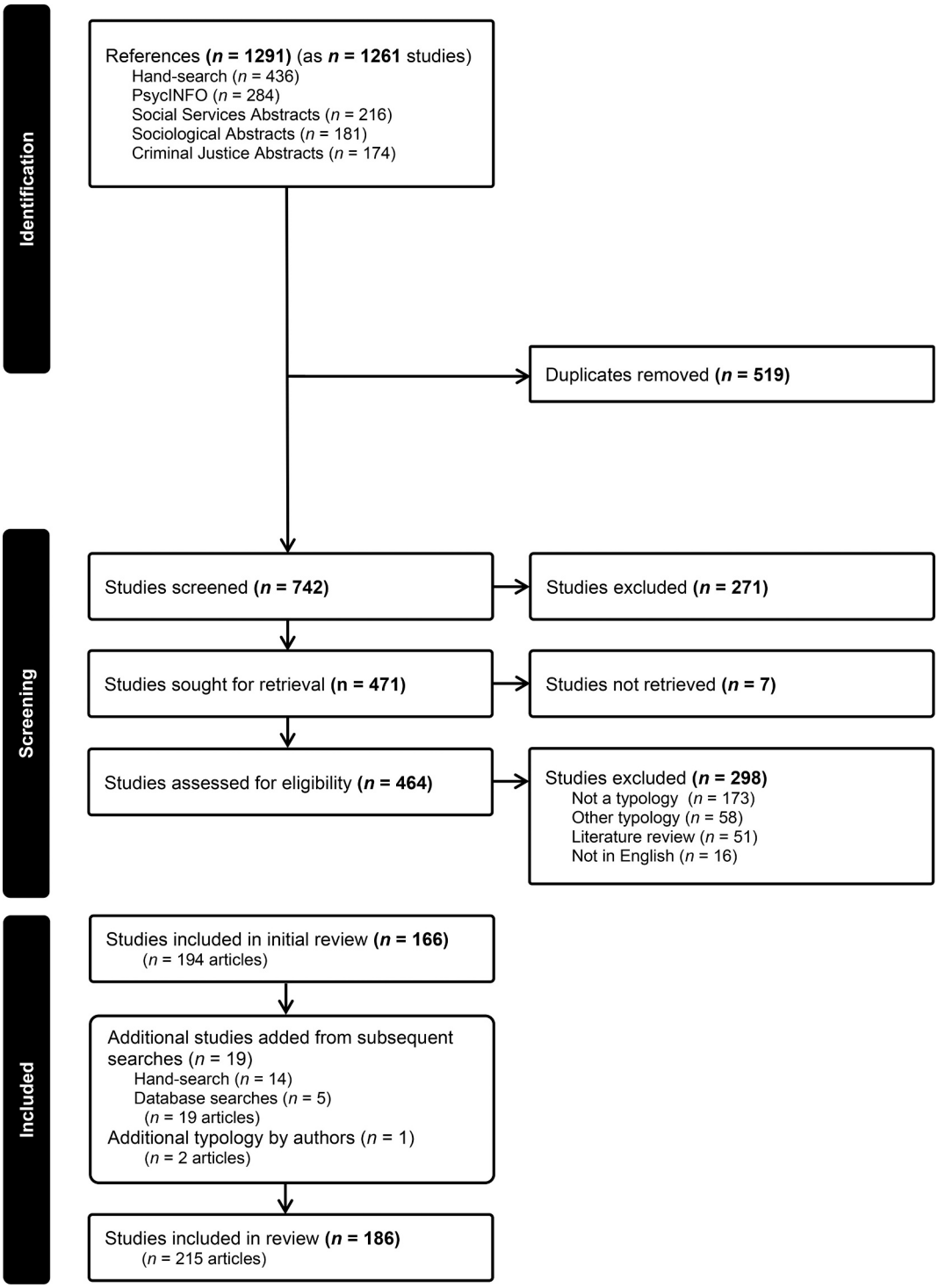


Fig. 1. Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) flow diagram.

2012). Studies using personality measures were excluded if they reported the prevalence of personality disorders among the sample but did not present a new typology.

Due to the researchers' language ability, it was only possible to review studies published in English (16 studies were excluded: 13 Spanish studies, one Chinese study, one Dutch study, and one French study). The goal of this study was to provide a comprehensive overview of all (English) studies presenting a typology of men who perpetrated IPV. Therefore, no exclusion criteria were set relating to study quality (e.g., sample size, method of analysis).

2.2.3. Data extraction and synthesis

A form containing information to collect from the studies was created, piloted, and revised before beginning data extraction. The form was set up as a survey using Qualtrics (2020) survey software. Data collected in the form included reference(s), publication year, year data were collected, study country, typology category (e.g., reactive/instrumental, family-only/generally violent, situational couple violence/coercive control, personality), method (i.e., empirical, rational/deductive, or theoretical), sample size, sample population, sample recruitment (e.g., in treatment- mandated or self-referred, incarcerated, recruited from

community), archival data or in-person participants, derived types, number of types, statistical method, measures used to derive typology, measures used to compare types, and demographic variables for types. Studies that included recidivism and treatment outcomes by type were also coded, as were studies that compared types on measures of psychopathy.

Data were synthesized by examining descriptive data (e.g., year, country, sample size, method, number of types, category of typology) for all included studies. Next, data were synthesized for categories of typologies separately (e.g., family-only, generally violent, and borderline/dysphoric; situational couple violence and coercive control). The third step involved synthesizing data for categories of typologies created using different methods (e.g., empirical, rational/deductive, and theoretical family-only, generally violent, and borderline/dysphoric typologies). Following data synthesis, the data were examined to identify similarities and potential connections among the types identified in the systematic review.

3. Results

3.1. Included studies

The search results are presented in Fig. 1. Results of the database searches and items obtained by hand-searching totaled 1291 unique items, representing 1261 studies. Using Covidence, 519 duplicate items were identified and removed, resulting in 742 items for further screening. Based on information included in the abstract, $n = 271$ studies were determined to be irrelevant to the systematic review topic and, therefore, were screened out. The remainder ($n = 471$) were selected for a review of the full article. Seven of these articles could not be obtained,[1] resulting in $n = 464$ studies for full-text review. During the full-text review, when multiple articles presenting results from the same study were identified, they were combined in Covidence represent a single study. Of the $n = 464$ articles assessed for eligibility, $n = 194$ (comprising $n = 166$ studies) were included in the initial systematic review.

An additional search for new articles was conducted on March 31, 2024. Another search for articles published up to December 31, 2024, was conducted on December 20, 2025. Together, subsequent database searches identified five more articles. An additional 14 articles were identified by hand-searching, bringing the total to 19. In addition, the authors of the present review published a new typology of men who perpetrated IPV (Giesbrecht, Keown, & Bruer, 2025). Therefore, 215 articles (comprising 186 studies) are included in the systematic review. Four of the studies classified participants by two different typological solutions (Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al., 2000; Stalans & Seng, 2007; Stoops, 2003; Theobald et al., 2016a); therefore, the 186 studies presented 190 typologies. This systematic review encompasses 50 years of studies of typologies of men who perpetrate IPV, from the first study published in 1974 to the end of 2024. Tables summarizing empirical, rational/deductive, and theoretical typologies for nine types of typologies; references for all included studies; and measures used in typology studies included in the systematic review are available in Supplemental Material.

[1] The seven items that could not be obtained included six conference papers presented between 1983 and 2000 and one reference to a journal article that appeared to be incorrect, as the article was not listed among the published articles on the journal's website. Other items (journal articles) by the authors of six of the unavailable items were obtained and screened. Where possible, authors of the conference papers were contacted to confirm that the findings presented in the conference papers corresponded to data published in a journal article.

3.2. Descriptive data for included studies

The 215 articles included in the systematic review comprised 162 journal articles, 29 doctoral dissertations, six master's theses, six book chapters, five books, four reports, two conference papers, and one conference poster. The 186 studies were published over a 50-year period between 1974 and 2024. Specifically, four studies were published in the 1970s, 12 were published in the 1980s, 20 were published in the 1990s, 63 were published in the 2000s, 49 were published in the 2010s, and 38 were published from 2020 to the end of 2024.[2]

The 186 studies were conducted in the United States ($n = 105$), Canada ($n = 19$), Spain ($n = 19$), England ($n = 8$), Sweden ($n = 5$), the Netherlands ($n = 4$), Mexico ($n = 2$), Israel ($n = 2$), South Africa ($n = 2$), Australia ($n = 1$), Finland ($n = 1$), France ($n = 1$), Malawi ($n = 1$), Nepal ($n = 1$), New Zealand ($n = 1$), Pakistan ($n = 1$), Peru ($n = 1$), Poland ($n = 1$), Portugal ($n = 1$), and Singapore ($n = 1$). In addition, data for one study ($n = 1$) were collected in multiple countries: Bangladesh, Cambodia, China, Indonesia, Sri Lanka, and Papua New Guinea. For the eight ($n = 8$) typologies that were theoretically-based or based on reviews of extant literature, seven authors were located in the United States, and one was located in the Republic of Korea.

Sample sizes in the included studies ranged from $n = 10$ to $n = 16{,}385$ ($M = 884.42$, $SD = 2548.95$). Sixty-two percent (61.8%, $n = 110$ of 178 studies with reported sample sizes) of the included studies had samples of less than $n = 200$; 88.2% (157 of 178) had samples of less than 1000. Only twenty-one studies ($n = 21$, 11.8%) had samples over 1000.

3.2.1. Categories of typologies

Typologies included in the review were classified as one of seven main types: 1) family-only and generally violent; 2) family-only, generally violent, and borderline/dysphoric; 3) family-only, generally violent, low-level antisocial, and borderline/dysphoric; 4) severity and frequency of violence; 5) reactive and instrumental; 6) situational couple violence and coercive control; and 7) personality types. The review also included 8) typologies that did not fit the above categories (e.g., treatment responsivity, physiological reactivity) and 9) typologies of perpetrators of IPF.

3.2.2. Number of types

The number of types proposed by the 190 typologies ranged from two to eight ($M = 3.03$, $SD = 1.03$), with three- ($n = 77$, 40.5%) and two-class solutions ($n = 65$, 34.2%) being the most common. The number of types was not definitive in all studies; some studies presented different potential typological solutions (e.g., Stoops, 2003; Theobald et al, 2016a) or noted the presence of potential additional types or participants who could not be classified (e.g., Babcock et al., 2000; Hamberger et al., 1996). Across the 118 empirical studies, the number of types also ranged from two to eight ($M = 3.33$, $SD = 0.98$), with three-class typologies ($n = 62$, 52.5%) as the most common, followed by four-class solutions ($n = 26$, 22.0%).

3.2.3. Classification methods

Sixty-two percent ($n = 118$; 62.1%) of the typologies in the systematic review were empirically derived/inductive/data-driven, over 30 % ($n = 61$; 32.1%) were rational/deductive (i.e., coded to pre-set types), and 5.8% ($n = 11$) were theoretical/conceptual (i.e., not from perpetrator data).

Of the 118 empirical typologies, the most common statistical method was cluster analysis ($n = 72$). Other methods used included latent class analysis ($n = 17$), qualitative methods ($n = 7$), latent profile analysis ($n = 6$), factor analysis ($n = 5$), principal components analysis ($n = 2$),

[2] When there was more than one publication resulting from a study, the first was counted here.

Table 1
Number of IPV perpetrator typologies in the systematic review.

Family-only and generally violent		31
Empirical	5	
Rational/deductive	26	
Family-only, generally violent, and borderline/dysphoric		30
Empirical	22	
Rational/deductive	6	
Theoretical/conceptual	2	
Family-only, generally violent, low-level antisocial, and borderline/dysphoric		8
Empirical	8	
Severity and frequency		28
Empirical	22	
Rational/deductive	6	
Reactive and instrumental		11
Empirical	3	
Rational/deductive	8	
Situational couple violence and coercive control		29
Empirical	15	
Rational/deductive	8	
Theoretical/conceptual	6	
Personality		30
Empirical	26	
Rational/deductive	4	
Other typologies		15
Empirical	10	
Rational/deductive	3	
Theoretical/conceptual	2	
Intimate partner femicide		8
Empirical	7	
Theoretical/conceptual	1	
	$n = 190$	

finite mixture modelling ($n = 2$), multivariate analyses ($n = 2$), multidimensional scaling ($n = 1$), multiple correspondence analysis ($n = 1$), classification analysis ($n = 1$), and classification tree analysis ($n = 1$).[3]

3.2.4. Study data by typology type

Tables summarizing empirical, rational/deductive, and theoretical typologies for the nine categories described below are included in Supplemental Material 1 [SM 1].

3.2.4.1. Family-only and generally violent. Brisson (1981) was the first to distinguish generally violent perpetrators who use violence toward non-familial victims and family-only (relationship-specific) perpetrators. Subsequent studies (see SM 1: Tables 1 and 2) have continued to use this bi-fold classification, employing official records of criminal history or self-reports of violence.

Thirty-one studies that classified perpetrators as family-only or generally violent were identified in the systematic review. Five of these studies used empirical methods (SM 1: Table 1), and 26 studies used rational/deductive methods (SM 1: Table 2). The five empirical studies included a total of 15,824 individuals, classified as 51.0% ($n = 8072$) family-only and 49.0% generally violent ($n = 7752$), whereas the 26 deductive studies included 10,810 individuals, classified as 51.4% ($n = 5554$) family-only and 48.6% generally violent ($n = 5256$). Taken together, these 31 studies included a total of 26,634 men who perpetrated IPV. Approximately half (51.2%) of these ($n = 13,626$) were classified as family-only, and half (48.8%; $n = 13,008$) were classified as generally violent.[4]

The findings in these studies indicate that generally violent perpetrators are assessed as higher-risk than family-only perpetrators (Loinaz, 2014; Petersson et al., 2019; Theobald et al., 2016b). Generally violent men have higher levels of antisocial traits and behavior (Boyle et al., 2008; Cadsky & Crawford, 1988; Herrero et al., 2016; Mach, 2018; Theobald et al., 2016a; Stoops, 2003), psychopathic traits (Mach, 2018; Theobald et al., 2016a), borderline traits (Herrero et al., 2016), and Cluster B (i.e. Antisocial, Borderline, Histrionic, or Narcissistic Personality Disorder) traits overall (Theobald et al., 2016a, 2016b). Individuals classified as generally violent were also found to display more hostility (Cadsky & Crawford, 1988), trait anger (Stoops, 2003), dyscontrol (Cadsky & Crawford, 1988), and behavioral disinhibition (Boyle et al., 2008).

Generally violent men perpetrate severe IPV (Cadsky & Crawford, 1988), perpetrate IPV at a higher rate (Stoops, 2003), are more psychologically abusive toward their intimate partners (Boyle et al., 2008; Petersson et al., 2019), and perpetrate more violence against previous intimate partners (Cadsky & Crawford, 1988; Mowat-Leger, 2001) than family-only perpetrators. These individuals tend to justify IPV (Cadsky & Crawford, 1988; Mowat-Leger, 2001; Shields et al., 1988) and hold negative attitudes toward women (Herrero et al., 2016; Mowat-Leger, 2001). Generally violent men have also had more intimate relationships (Shields et al., 1988) than family-only.

In terms of their non-IPV offending, generally violent men have extensive criminal histories (Cantos et al., 2019) with more arrests and convictions (Cadsky & Crawford, 1988; Stoops, 2003), and more previous violent offenses and offenses against people (Cadsky & Crawford, 1988). These perpetrators were first convicted at an earlier age (Cadsky & Crawford, 1988), hold pro-criminal attitudes (Mowat-Leger, 2001; Petersson et al., 2019), and have negative attitudes toward the criminal legal system (Mowat-Leger, 2001).

Generally violent individuals also have more lifestyle risk factors than family-only perpetrators, including substance misuse (Cadsky & Crawford, 1988; Cantos et al., 2019; Herrero et al., 2016; Peters et al., 2023; Shields et al., 1988; Theobald et al., 2016a), education risk factors (Cantos et al., 2019), employment risk factors (Cantos et al., 2019; Peters et al., 2023), and have lower self-esteem (Cadsky & Crawford, 1988). Generally violent perpetrators are more likely to come from more socially disordered communities (Herrero et al., 2016) and have lower levels of participation and integration in their communities (Herrero et al., 2016).

Generally violent individuals were more likely to experience childhood abuse (Teva et al., 2021), be exposed to violence in their family of origin (Boyle et al., 2008; Herrero et al., 2016; Teva et al., 2021), leave home at a younger age (Cadsky & Crawford, 1988), and display conduct disorder or delinquent behaviors (Boyle et al., 2008; Cadsky & Crawford, 1988).

Conversely, family-only perpetrators displayed more stability factors, including a higher stake in conformity (Mach, 2015; Mach et al., 2020) and more education (Strang, 1994). Family-only individuals were also more likely to be legally married (Cadsky & Crawford, 1988) and have longer relationships (Cadsky & Crawford, 1988). In terms of risk factors, studies noted that this group experienced more violence from their fathers in childhood (Shields et al., 1988), experienced more depression (Maiuro et al., 1988), and displayed preoccupied attachment (Strang, 1994).

3.2.4.2. Family-only, generally violent, and borderline/dysphoric. In 1992, Saunders used cluster analysis to derive a three-cluster typology (family-only, generally aggressive, and emotionally volatile). In 1994, Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart proposed a three-fold typology (family-only, generally violent/antisocial, and dysphoric/borderline) that classified perpetrators of IPV on the dimensions of psychopathology, severity and frequency of IPV, and generality of violence based on a review of 14 studies published 1974–1992. Many subsequent studies, beginning with Bartels (1996), have attempted to replicate this three-

[3] The method of analysis was not reported in one study (Gilchrist et al., 2003). The report included in this systematic review was a summary report; it was not possible to obtain the full report from that study.

[4] Peters et al. (2023) described three classes: IPV-specific, generally violent/antisocial, and IPV and generally violent/antisocial. In these analyses, two of these types, generally violent/antisocial and IPV and generally violent/antisocial, have been included in the totals for generally violent perpetrators.

cluster typology.

Thirty ($n = 30$) studies that classified the perpetrators as family-only, generally violent, or borderline/dysphoric were identified in the systematic review. Twenty-two of these studies used empirical methods (SM 1: Table 3), six studies used rational/deductive methods (SM 1: Table 4), and two studies proposed theoretical/conceptual typologies (SM 1: Table 5). The twenty-two empirical studies included a total of 3996 individuals, with 96.2% ($n = 3845$) classified as one of the three types: family-only (46.2%; $n = 1775$), generally violent (27.0%; $n = 1037$); and borderline/dysphoric (26.9%; $n = 1033$), whereas the six deductive studies classified 1864 individuals (from samples totaling $n = 1913$), classified as 15.3% ($n = 286$) as family-only, 51.6% ($n = 962$) as generally violent, and 33.0% ($n = 616$) as borderline/dysphoric. The majority of deductive studies had small sample sizes (range = 10–90); the exception was the study by Wexler (2000) which included 1617 perpetrators. Over half (55%; $n = 889$) of Wexler's sample were classified as generally violent. Taken together, the 28 empirical and rational/deductive studies classified a total of 5709 men who perpetrated IPV (96.6% of the total study samples; $n = 5909$). Thirty-six percent (36.1%; 2061) were classified as family-only, 35.0% ($n = 1999$) were classified as generally violent, and 28.9% ($n = 1649$) were classified as borderline/dysphoric.

As well as perpetrating both IPV and violence to non-familial victims, the studies included in the review described generally violent perpetrators as being arrested more frequently (Monson & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2002; Stoops, 2003), engaging in severe types of criminal behavior (Monson & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2002), and posing a higher risk (Theobald et al., 2016a). Generally violent perpetrators are distinguished by antisocial traits and behavior (Adcox Meade, 2006; Bartels, 1996; Carbajosa, Catalá-Miñana, Lila, & Gracia, 2017; de la Osa-Subtil et al., 2024; Delsol et al., 2003; Hamberger et al., 1996; Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994; Monson & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2002; Ronkowski, 2005; Sartin, 2004; Saunders, 1992; Stoops, 2003; Vilhauer, 2003; Walsh et al., 2010; Waltz et al., 2000). Generally violent perpetrators have also been found to have psychopathic (Cunha & Gonçalves, 2013; Walsh et al., 2010) and borderline traits (Carbajosa, Catalá-Miñana, Lila, & Gracia, 2017; Delsol et al., 2003; Vilhauer, 2003; Waltz et al., 2000) and high levels of psychopathology (de la Osa-Subtil et al., 2024; Vilhauer, 2003; Wexler, 2000). Generally violent perpetrators are noted to have high levels of anger (Monson & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2002; Romero-Martínez et al., 2021), impulsivity (Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994; Romero-Martínez et al., 2021), jealousy (Monson & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2002), depression (Monson & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2002; Stoops, 2003), and low frustration tolerance (Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al., 2000).

Generally violent men perpetrate more IPV overall (Sartin, 2004; Stoops, 2003; Vilhauer, 2003; Waltz et al., 2000), and more frequent (Saunders, 1992) and more severe violence (de la Osa-Subtil et al., 2024; Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994; White, 2000) including physical (Adcox Meade, 2006; Stoops, 2003; Vilhauer, 2003), emotional (Stoops, 2003), psychological/verbal (Delsol et al., 2003; Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994; Vilhauer, 2003), and sexual IPV (Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994).

Generally violent individuals were more likely to have witnessed family violence in childhood (Adcox Meade, 2006; Cunha & Gonçalves, 2013; Hamberger et al., 1996; Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994; Monson & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2002; Stoops, 2003; Vilhauer, 2003) and to have experienced violence in childhood (Cunha & Gonçalves, 2013; Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994; Monson & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2002; Saunders, 1992; Vilhauer, 2003).

Generally violent perpetrators have more lifestyle risk factors, including frequent unemployment (Romero-Martínez et al., 2021), deviant peers (Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994), and problematic alcohol and/or drug use (Cunha & Gonçalves, 2013; Delsol et al., 2003; Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994; Monson & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2002; Romero-Martínez et al., 2021; Sartin, 2004; Saunders, 1992; Walsh et al., 2010; Wexler, 2000). Generally violent men also indicated being less satisfied with their marriages (Delsol et al., 2003), holding attitudes condoning violence against women (Delsol et al., 2003; Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994), and displaying hostility toward women (Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994).

Borderline/dysphoric perpetrators are most distinguishable by their borderline traits (Adcox Meade, 2006; de la Osa-Subtil et al., 2024; Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994; Ronkowski, 2005; Sartin, 2004; Vilhauer, 2003; Walsh et al., 2010; Waltz et al., 2000). This group has also been reported to have higher levels of psychopathology (Bartels, 1996; Cunha & Gonçalves, 2013; Hamberger et al., 1996; Vilhauer, 2003), including depression (Adcox Meade, 2006; de la Osa-Subtil et al., 2024; Hamberger et al., 1996; Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994; Monson & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2002; Saunders, 1992; Stoops, 2003; Walsh et al., 2010), suicidal ideation (Adcox Meade, 2006; Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al., 2000; Saunders, 1992), dysthymia (Sartin, 2004), anxiety (Bartels, 1996), histrionic traits (Monson & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2002), and neuroticism (Walsh et al., 2010). Borderline/dysphoric men were also reported to display more anger (Adcox Meade, 2006; Bartels, 1996; Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994; Monson & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2002; Saunders, 1992), psychopathic traits (Babcock et al., 2008; Cunha & Gonçalves, 2013), antisocial traits (Walsh et al., 2010; Waltz et al., 2000), jealousy (Adcox Meade, 2006; Babcock et al., 2004; Chiffriller & Hennessy, 2006; Monson & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2002; Saunders, 1992), impulsivity (Adcox Meade, 2006), and guilt (Adcox Meade, 2006).

This group is also most commonly reported to have issues with attachment, including attachment styles that are dependent (Carbajosa, Catalá-Miñana, Lila, & Gracia, 2017; Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994; Vilhauer, 2003), preoccupied (Chiffriller & Hennessy, 2006; Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994; Monson & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2002), fearful (Chiffriller & Hennessy, 2006), anxious (de la Osa-Subtil et al., 2024), and avoidant (Huss, 2000).

Several studies indicated that borderline/dysphoric individuals were the more frequent perpetrators of specific forms of IPV, including psychological abuse (Chiffriller & Hennessy, 2006; Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994; Saunders, 1992), sexual violence (Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994; Monson & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2002) and sexual coercion (Chiffriller & Hennessy, 2006). The review by Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart (1994) also indicated that borderline/dysphoric men perpetrate severe IPV and display hostility toward women.

Borderline/dysphoric individuals may also have lifestyle risk factors, including unemployment (Adcox Meade, 2006), traumatic stress (Adcox Meade, 2006), and problematic substance use (Hamberger et al., 1996; Stoops, 2003). Some studies indicated that this group had most commonly experienced violence in childhood (Chiffriller & Hennessy, 2006; Hamberger et al., 1996; Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994; Vilhauer, 2003), including sexual violence (Monson & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2002), and witnessed family violence while growing up (Vilhauer, 2003), compared to family-only and generally violent men. This group was also the most likely, compared to the other two types, to have experienced a head injury prior to age 16 (Adcox Meade, 2006).

Perpetrators of IPV classified as family-only are distinguishable for having the lowest scores on measures of psychopathology and severity of violence and for not perpetrating violence against non-familial victims. Most studies place the three types along a continuum of risk, with family-only perpetrators having the lowest level of risk, generally violent posing the highest risk, and borderline/dysphoric falling in the middle. Some studies reported protective factors displayed by family-only perpetrators, such as being more likely to be employed, whereas generally violent perpetrators are more likely to be unemployed (Romero-Martínez et al., 2021). Generally violent perpetrators tend to be arrested more often (for IPV and non-IPV offenses); however, one study (Bartels, 1996) indicated that family-only perpetrators self-reported more IPV, despite fewer official reports.

3.2.4.3. Family-only, generally violent, low-level antisocial, and borderline/dysphoric. In 2000, Holtzworth-Munroe and colleagues tested the three-cluster typology proposed by Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart in 1994. The researchers confirmed the presence of the three types (family only, generally violent/antisocial, and borderline/dysphoric) and also found a low-level antisocial type that comprised one-third of the sample. A total of seven other empirical studies located in the systematic review derived a solution that included a low-level antisocial type, as well as the three types described above (family-only, generally violent/antisocial, and borderline/dysphoric).

These eight studies (SM 1: Table 6) classified a total of 3344 men who perpetrated IPV (100% of the total study samples). Seven of these studies had small samples, ranging from $n = 90$ to $n = 199$; the exception was R. R. Johnson and Goodlin-Fahncke (2015), whose study comprised 2412 men. Taken together, close to half (45.9%; $n = 1536$) were classified as family-only, 17.5% ($n = 585$) were classified as generally violent, 11.2% ($n = 375$) were classified as low-level antisocial, and 25.4% ($n = 848$) were classified as borderline/dysphoric. It should be noted that over half (51.3%; $n = 1238$) of R. R. Johnson and Goodlin-Fahncke's (2015) sample were classed as family-only; excluding this study, the participants in the remaining seven studies comprised 30.2% family-only and 28.5% low-level antisocial perpetrators, with the number of generally violent (17.4%) and borderline/dysphoric (22.1%) remaining relatively consistent.

As in the three-cluster typologies described above, in these four-cluster typologies, family-only perpetrators are distinguished by having the lowest scores on all clinical measures and risk factors. Studies that also included non-violent participants indicated that family-only perpetrators do not differ significantly from these individuals, except in their use of IPV (Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2000). Low-level antisocial perpetrators tended to have scores falling between those of family-only and borderline/dysphoric and generally violent perpetrators. Specifically, low-level antisocial perpetrators score higher on measures of antisocial and borderline traits than family-only perpetrators but lower than individuals in the other two types (Eckhardt, Holtzworth-Munroe, et al., 2008; Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2000). Other studies (Huss & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2006; Weber & Bouman, 2020) identified the presence of antisocial traits, though not at a clinical level, among this type. Low-level antisocial individuals also perpetrate more IPV as well as more violence outside the home than family-only perpetrators, but less than the other two clusters (Eckhardt, Holtzworth-Munroe, et al., 2008) and score higher on measures of dependence than family-only, but lower than the other two types (Eckhardt, Holtzworth-Munroe, et al., 2008). Substance misuse issues (Serie et al., 2017) and criminality (Thijssen & de Ruiter, 2011) were also identified in this cluster.

As well as perpetrating both IPV and violence to non-familial victims, the four-class (family only, generally violent/antisocial, low-level antisocial, and borderline/dysphoric) studies included in the review described generally violent perpetrators as engaging in more criminal behavior (Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2000; Serie et al., 2017; Thijssen & de Ruiter, 2011), and posing a higher risk (Thijssen & de Ruiter, 2011) than the other types. Generally violent men perpetrate more IPV overall (Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2000) and more severe violence (Eckhardt, Holtzworth-Munroe, et al., 2008), emotional abuse (Eckhardt, Holtzworth-Munroe, et al., 2008), sexual violence (Johnson & Goodlin-Fahncke, 2015), violence with a weapon (Johnson & Goodlin-Fahncke, 2015), and are more likely to injure their partner (Johnson & Goodlin-Fahncke, 2015). This group also displays hostility toward women (Eckhardt, Holtzworth-Munroe, et al., 2008; Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2000) and attitudes approving of violence against women (Eckhardt, Holtzworth-Munroe, et al., 2008; Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2000).

Again, in these studies, generally violent perpetrators are distinguished by antisocial traits and behavior (Eckhardt, Holtzworth-Munroe, et al., 2008; Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2000; Weber & Bouman, 2020). Generally violent perpetrators have also been noted to have psychopathic (Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2000) and borderline traits (Eckhardt, Holtzworth-Munroe, et al., 2008) and high levels of psychopathology (Serie et al., 2017; Thijssen & de Ruiter, 2011). Generally violent perpetrators are noted to have high levels of anger (Huss & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2006) and impulsivity (Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2000) and experience hostile automatic thoughts (Eckhardt, Holtzworth-Munroe, et al., 2008). Generally violent men have more lifestyle risk factors, including less education (Eckhardt, Holtzworth-Munroe, et al., 2008), deviant peers (Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2000), and problematic alcohol and/or drug use (Eckhardt, Holtzworth-Munroe, et al., 2008; Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2000; Huss & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2006; Serie et al., 2017).

As in the studies presenting three-cluster solutions, borderline/dysphoric perpetrators are distinguishable by their borderline traits (Eckhardt, Holtzworth-Munroe, et al., 2008; Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2000). This group has also been reported to have higher levels of psychopathology (Johnson & Goodlin-Fahncke, 2015; Serie et al., 2017; Thijssen & de Ruiter, 2011), including depression (Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2000; Huss & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2006) and anxiety (Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2000). Borderline/dysphoric individuals experience more traumatic symptoms (Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2000). Borderline/dysphoric men were also reported to display impulsivity (Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2000). Borderline/dysphoric individuals may also have lifestyle risk factors, including lower levels of education (Eckhardt, Holtzworth-Munroe, et al., 2008).

The borderline/dysphoric group is also most likely to have issues with attachment, including attachment styles that are dependent (Eckhardt, Holtzworth-Munroe, et al., 2008; Huss & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2006), fearful (Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2000), and preoccupied (Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2000). Studies reported that this group can perpetrate severe IPV (Eckhardt, Holtzworth-Munroe, et al., 2008) and psychological violence (Weber & Bouman, 2020). This group also displays hostility toward women (Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2000) and attitudes approving violence against women (Eckhardt, Holtzworth-Munroe, et al., 2008; Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2000).

3.2.4.4. Severity and frequency. Twenty-eight studies classified perpetrators by risk level, severity of violence, frequency, types of IPV enacted, and levels of aggression or pathology combined with the level of violence. Twenty-two of these studies used empirical methods (SM 1: Table 7), and six studies used rational/deductive methods (SM 1: Table 8).

Of the empirical studies, 14 (total $n = 15{,}003$) were based on samples of men who perpetrated IPV. Twelve were samples of men only, and two studies included men and their partners (corresponding victims). As per the inclusion criteria, typologies derived from women's reports regarding their partner were eligible if data provided related to the perpetrator (i.e., reporting the perpetrator's behavior, not the victim's behavior or experiences). Eight empirical studies (total $n = 20{,}516$) analyzed data collected from women who had experienced IPV from men. All six of the rational/deductive studies were based on data from men who perpetrated IPV; three of these studies also included data from corresponding victims.

The most common typologies in this category grouped men according to risk level (e.g., low, moderate, or high; $n = 17$). Other studies specified forms of violence (e.g., sexual violence or coercion, controlling behavior, systematic violence, stalking; $n = 8$). Three studies looked at patterns of violence, including frequency and generality ($n = 3$).

The most common measures used in these studies were the Revised Conflict Tactics Scales (CTS2), Conflict Tactics Scales (CTS), or other CTS variations ($n = 12$) and national surveys that contain questions about violence against women (e.g., WHO Multi-Country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence Against Women; $n = 6$).

3.2.4.5. Reactive and instrumental. In 1991, Hershorn and Rosenbaum classified individuals who had perpetrated IPV on a hostility measure,

resulting in a two-cluster model of uncontrolled and overcontrolled hostile types. These types largely correspond to the descriptions of the impulsive/instrumental typology developed by Tweed and Dutton in 1998 and the reactive/proactive classification put forward by Chase and colleagues in 2001.

Eleven studies that classified the perpetrators as reactive or instrumental were identified in the systematic review. Three of these studies used empirical methods (specifically cluster analysis; SM 1: Table 9), and eight studies used rational/deductive methods (SM 1: Table 10). The three empirical studies included a total of 732 individuals, classified as 37.8% ($n = 277$) reactive and 62.2% instrumental ($n = 455$). Deductive studies (SM 1: Table 10), where numbers for the different types were provided, classified 731 individuals as 68.4% ($n = 500$) reactive and 31.6% ($n = 231$) instrumental. Taken together, these eleven studies included a total of 1640 men who perpetrated IPV. Eleven percent (10.8%) of these men ($n = 177$) were not classified or were classified as mixed reactive/instrumental, resulting in $n = 1463$ being identified as one of the two types.[5] Fifty-two percent of these (53.1%, $n = 777$) were classified as reactive and 46.9% (686) were classified as instrumental.

In these studies, reactive/impulsive/undercontrolled perpetrators are differentiated from instrumental/proactive perpetrators in that they are more likely to have borderline traits (Dutton, 2006; Redondo et al., 2019; Tweed & Dutton, 1998), personality disturbances (Redondo et al., 2019), and a wider range of serious psychopathology (Stanford et al., 2008). These perpetrators are more likely to have experienced trauma in their early lives (Ennis et al., 2017), including childhood abuse (Dutton, 2006), and are more dependent (Chase et al., 2001), display fearful attachment (Dutton, 2006; Tweed & Dutton, 1998), and have passive-aggressive traits (Tweed & Dutton, 1998).

Reactive perpetrators are more impulsive (Ontiveros et al., 2023; Redondo et al., 2019) and have more interpersonal problems (Redondo et al., 2019). Reactive individuals are more generally hostile (Hershorn & Rosenbaum, 1991) and have higher levels of chronic anger (Ontiveros et al., 2023; Tweed & Dutton, 1998). In terms of IPV, reactive men perpetrate more frequent (Hershorn & Rosenbaum, 1991) and severe (Ontiveros et al., 2023) violence, including physical aggression, verbal aggression, sexual coercion, and psychological violence (Redondo et al., 2019). Reactive perpetrators demonstrate higher heart rate reactivity when engaging in aggression (Babcock et al., 2023). They are also more likely to enact violence against victims other than their intimate partners (Hershorn & Rosenbaum, 1991). Reactive perpetrators are also more likely to misuse alcohol (Redondo et al., 2019). Dutton (2006) described two subtypes of undercontrolled perpetrators: impulsive undercontrolled and instrumental undercontrolled. Impulsive undercontrolled individuals tend to direct most of their violence toward their partner. Impulsive undercontrolled perpetrators are jealous and experience more depression than the other types. Impulsive undercontrolled individuals are more likely to display fearful attachment and borderline personality traits. Instrumental undercontrolled are generally violent, have low empathy, have a history of antisocial behavior, and are more accepting of violence. Instrumental undercontrolled men are more likely than the other types to have been abused in childhood. Instrumental undercontrolled perpetrators are more likely to display a dismissing attachment style and antisocial, aggressive, and sadistic traits.

Instrumental/proactive/premeditated/overcontrolled perpetrators are distinguished by more antisocial (Chase et al., 2001; Tweed & Dutton, 1998), narcissistic (Tweed & Dutton, 1998), aggressive (Tweed & Dutton, 1998), and aggressive-sadistic traits (Chase et al., 2001). These perpetrators are described as more dominant (Chase et al., 2001) and as appearing less angry during a partner interaction (Chase et al., 2001). Instrumental perpetrators engage in more severe (Hershorn & Rosenbaum, 1991; Tweed & Dutton, 1998) but less frequent (Hershorn & Rosenbaum, 1991) physical violence. Instrumental perpetrators hold attitudes that are more supportive of IPV (Ennis et al., 2017) and have higher overall risk scores (Ennis et al., 2017). Overcontrolled perpetrators are more socially aware and are likely to appear cooperative in therapy. Overcontrolled perpetrators may also try to ingratiate themselves to therapists (Dutton, 2006). Overcontrolled individuals also tend to express that they have experienced personal injustices or slights (Dutton, 2006).

Two studies (Chase et al., 2001, using the MMPI-II; Stanford et al., 2008, using the PPI) described instrumental (proactive/premeditated) individuals as having more psychopathic traits; one study (Redondo et al., 2019, using Levenson's Self-Report Psychopathy Scale) described undercontrolled (reactive/impulsive) individuals as being more psychopathic. Tweed and Dutton (1998) reported that both types displayed a preoccupied attachment style.

The typology by Rode (2010; Rode & Marganski, 2014) described four types (reactively aggressive perpetrators, psychopathic-retributive perpetrators, perpetrators having a low level of remedial competencies, perpetrators having a substantial adaptive potential). This typology corresponds to a large degree to the reactive/instrumental classification; the reactive aggressive type coincides with the reactive type described above, and the psychopathic-retributive type is similar to instrumental perpetrators in their low reactivity and ability to stay "cool and controlled." Psychopathic-retributive individuals also have a high demand for stimulation as well as other psychopathic traits. Rode's "perpetrators having a low level of remedial competencies" are described as those having the lowest intelligence quotient scores but the highest levels of self-control. "Perpetrators having a substantial adaptive potential" have the highest intelligence quotient scores and are the most open to making changes to their behavior.

3.2.4.6. Situational couple violence and coercive control. Coercive control (also referred to as intimate terrorism or patriarchal terrorism) is a pattern of multiple control tactics (such as those identified in Pence and Paymar's (1993) Power and Control Wheel), which may or may not be used in conjunction with physical or sexual violence. Common coercive controlling tactics include degradation, isolation, disallowing independence, and micro-regulation of the victim's daily life. Situational couple violence (also known as common couple violence) is described as conflicts that turn into arguments that escalate. Situational couple violence can be frequent and severe; however, it is not rooted in a motivation to dominate a partner and control multiple aspects of their life.

The distinction between coercive control and situational couple violence was first posited in theoretical/conceptual articles. In 1979, Steinmetz described a two-fold typology with "Saturday Night Brawl," describing violent relationships where abuse escalates over time, in contrast to "Chronic Battering Syndrome," where perpetrators use isolation, psychological violence, physical and verbal threats, and other tactics to instill fear. In situations of Chronic Battering Syndrome, violence is often severe from the start of the relationship and victims of Chronic Batterers fear they will be killed. The same year, in proceedings from a conference of professionals, Mott-McDonald Associates, Inc. (1979) described two types: "Hitters," whose abuse could be described as situational couple violence, and "Batterers," who, similarly to perpetrators of coercive control, are manipulative; use threats to terrorize their victims; perpetrate more frequent and severe abuse; minimize, deny, and do not take responsibility for their violence; and are not motivated to change their behavior. Other authors described the dynamics of intimate terrorism (Schechter, 1982; Walker, 1979) and introduced the terminology of coercive control (Stark, 1995). In 1995, M. P. Johnson introduced the patriarchal terrorism/common couple violence typology based on a review of studies that included large-sample survey research and data gathered from women's shelters. This typology has subsequently been replicated in empirical studies and used to classify men and women who perpetrated IPV in rational/deductive

[5] Only the two types identified by Rode (2010; Rode & Marganski, 2014) fitting the reactive/impulsive classification are included in this total.

studies.

Twenty-nine studies that classified the perpetrators as using coercive control (also referred to as intimate terrorism or patriarchal terrorism) or situational couple violence (also referred to as common couple violence) were identified in the systematic review. Fifteen of these studies used empirical methods (SM 1: Table 11), eight studies used rational/deductive methods (SM 1: Table 12), and six studies were theoretical/conceptual (SM 1: Table 13). Taken together, the 23[6] empirical and rational/deductive studies classified a total of 16,111 men who perpetrated IPV. In the 15 studies that presented a dichotomous typology[7] of perpetrators, 41.9% ($n = 3063$) were classified as coercive control and 58.1% ($n = 4247$) as situational couple violence.

Five studies classified perpetrators and victims according to a four-class typology, which also included violent resistance (where the victim resists abuse from an intimate terrorist) and mutual violent control (where both partners are violent and controlling). In these studies, 29.5% ($n = 340$) were classified as coercive control, 14.7% ($n = 196$) were classified as mutual violent control, 8.2% ($n = 94$) were classified as violent resistance, and 47.7% ($n = 549$) were classified as situational couple violence. One study (Frías, 2022) classified perpetrators of IPV into three types: coercive control (15.6%; $n = 1114$), violent resistance (7.6%; $n = 574$), and situational couple violence (76.8%; $n = 5645$). Another study (Graham-Kevan & Archer, 2008) attempted to classify subjects using this three-class typology; however, no victims who used violent resistance were identified in the sample, resulting in 63.8% ($n = 88$) classified as coercive control and 36.2% ($n = 50$) classified as situational couple violence. Macmillan and Gartner (1999) identified a third group that perpetrated physical violence and threats but were unlikely, in comparison to systematic abusers, to perpetrate severe forms of physical and sexual violence.

3.2.4.7. Personality. A total of 30 studies (26 empirical and four rational/deductive) classified men who perpetrated IPV according to level and type of personality pathology (e.g., nonelevated, distressed, borderline, psychopathic, antisocial, narcissistic, histrionic, dependent, depressed), personality styles (e.g., tyrant, loner, altruist), attachment styles, or anger.

Data in two of the studies were reports of men's behavior provided by women survivors. Another study used professionals' assessments of their clients to develop a typology. The majority ($n = 27$) of the studies used data collected from men who had perpetrated IPV. Two studies recruited participants from the community, two recruited men from court, two used law enforcement samples, two used samples of men who were incarcerated after perpetrating IPV, and the majority ($n = 19$) involved men who were participating in an IPV treatment/intervention program, including men who were mandated or self-referred to treatment. Most ($n = 26$) of the personality typology studies employed in-person samples; few used archival datasets.

Taken together, the personality typologies (SM 1: Tables 14 and 15) included a total of 14,287 men who perpetrated IPV. All the studies, except for the study by González-Álvarez et al. (2022, 2024), which used 9731 cases extracted from law enforcement records, had samples of under 1000, with most ($n = 23$) having samples under 200 (range $n = 23$ to $n = 9731$ [$M = 476.2$, $SD = 1753,9$]).

3.2.4.8. Other typologies. Fifteen typologies (SM 1: Table 16) identified in the systematic review do not fit the above categories. These include theoretical/conceptual typologies based on IPV behavior and personality; rational/deductive typologies based on physiological reactivity, treatment responsivity, and IPV and other criminal encounters with police; and empirical classifications based on IPV behavior, coercive controlling violence, intimate partner sexual violence, work-related IPV, criminal history and antisociality, treatment responsivity, readiness to change, and dissociation and trauma.

3.2.4.9. Intimate partner femicide. In the systematic review, eight typologies of perpetrators of IPF were identified (SM 1: Table 17). Seven were empirical studies from perpetrator data; the eighth was a literature review. The seven empirical studies included $n = 2424$ men who perpetrated or attempted IPF in Australia, Canada, England, Israel, and Spain. Of the seven empirical studies, six were quantitative, and one was qualitative. Samples ranged from ten perpetrators who participated in qualitative interviews to 1780 cases of attempted or completed IPF extracted from a database of IPV cases reported to judicial authorities in Quebec, Canada, from 1966 to 2021. One study in the systematic review included perpetrators of attempted and completed IPF. These typologies are all different and are derived from characteristics, including specialist (i.e., family-only) or generalist trajectories, depression and violence, criminality and psychopathology, violence and psychopathology, homicide/violence behaviors, and personality styles (e.g., the tyrant).

4. Discussion

The systematic review included 215 articles published from 1974 to 2024. The articles comprised 186 unique studies, which presented 190 typologies of men who perpetrated IPV. Though many studies in this review replicate and validate previous typologies (e.g., family-only, generally violent, and borderline/dysphoric; situational couple violence and coercive control), the systematic review also identified several unique typologies that have not been replicated. Despite this substantial body of research relating to typologies of men who perpetrate IPV, many questions remain in terms of the replicability of typologies and applicability of typologies to different samples of perpetrators, as well as the utility of these typologies for managing and reducing the risk of future IPV.

Some of the typologies included in the review could have been classified into more than one of the nine categories of typologies. Shefferman (2006), for example, conducted a cluster analysis using Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory-2 (MMPI-2)[8] data to test the replicability of the typology hypothesized by Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart (1994); they stated that their non-pathological cluster (within the normal limits on the MMPI-2) was consistent with the family-only group theorized by Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart (1994). There is a difference, however, between typical conceptions of family-only perpetrators as those who confine their use of violence to their intimate partner (or intimate partner and children) and individuals without clinical levels of personality pathology. As such, Shefferman's (2006) typology is included in the review of empirical personality typologies (SM 1: Table 14). Likewise, Scott et al.'s (2009) typology (derived using the MMPI-2 and including a nonpathological type as well as antisocial and disturbed types) has also been classified as an empirical personality typology (SM 1: Table 14) as opposed to family-only, generally violent, and borderline/dysphoric (SM 1: Table 3).

[6] Smith (2023) conducted a qualitative study with 178 victims; *n* of partners classified as each type was not specified.

[7] Crossman et al. (2016) and Hardesty et al. (2015) further classified perpetrators of coercive control by violent coercive control and nonviolent coercive control; in the above totals, both types are counted as coercive control. Leone et al. (2004) identified a group that used coercion, verbal abuse, and threats (intimate terrorism) and a group that used coercion and verbal abuse, but no threats; in the above totals, both are counted as coercive control. Nawaz and Johnson (2024) included intimate terrorism and familial terrorism; in the above totals, both types are counted as coercive control. Cunningham and Anderson (2024) also identified a non-physical violence group; only situational couple violence and intimate terrorism are presented in the above totals.

[8] All measures used in studies in the systematic review are listed in *Supplemental Material 3: Measures Used in Typology Studies Included in Systematic Review*.

Regarding terminology, although some studies in the systematic review used measures of Borderline Personality Disorder (BPD), "borderline" in many of the studies included in the review refers to having borderline traits (e.g., "a pattern of unstable and intense interpersonal relationships characterized by alternating between extremes of idealization and devaluation" (American Psychiatric Association, 2013, p. 663), unstable self-image, impulsivity, suicidality, mood instability, difficulties with anger control), rather than diagnosed BPD. Likewise, "antisocial" generally means having traits that are commonly associated with an antisocial personality pattern (e.g., criminal conduct, failure to conform to social norms, impulsivity, deceitfulness, aggression, recklessness, irresponsibility, lack of remorse) rather than diagnosed Antisocial Personality Disorder (APD). When considering the definition of "antisocial"—that is, that is something that is "harmful to society" (Cambridge University Press, n.d.)—all IPV is antisocial, including "low-level" or "partner-only" violence.

Multiple studies in the review identified a type without personality pathology (e.g., "low pathology," "non-elevated," "non-pathological," "typical," "normal"). Though the individuals in these groups do not have a clinical level of personality pathology (e.g., antisocial, borderline, sociopathic, narcissistic, or histrionic characteristics or disorder), their use of violence against their intimate partner is pathological. Although these individuals' scores on personality measures indicate a "normal" personality, their violent behavior is abnormal.

Although some studies used specific terminology (e.g., IPV only (Moffitt et al., 2000), IPV-specific (Peters et al., 2023), partner only (Boyle et al., 2008; Mach, 2018), the majority of two-, three-, and four-class typologies that differentiate generally violent individuals from those who do not perpetrate violence to non-partner/non-familial victims use the term "family-only." Most of these studies do not report, however, whether the perpetrators in the sample only used violence against their intimate partners or if they were also violent to other family members, including children.

4.1. Samples and measures used for typology creation

4.1.1. Measures used for typology creation

Typologies have been developed using measures of several different dimensions, including severity and frequency of violence, generality of victims (i.e., evidence of violence toward only intimate partners or non-familial victims as well as intimate partners), motivation for using violence (e.g., reactive or instrumental, situational couple violence or coercive control), or personality characteristics.

Several empirical typologies have been developed by having subjects (most often participants in IPV treatment/intervention programs) respond to validated measures. As the goal of this study was to provide a comprehensive overview of studies that present typologies of men who perpetrated IPV, no exclusion criteria were applied with respect to study quality. As such, studies included in the review employed a wide variety of measures to derive typologies and compare the resulting types (listed in SM 3). Several of these measures were created for the typology studies cited and have not been validated in subsequent research. Various measures have also been used to measure similar constructs (e.g., acceptance of violence, adult attachment, general criminality, hostility, aggressive behavior, IPV, controlling behaviors) in typology studies; research has not been conducted to test the convergent validity of these measures or to confirm the "gold standard" measure for these constructs. Other measures used in typology studies (e.g., IPV risk assessments, measures of psychopathy) have a more robust research base.

A smaller number of empirical typologies have been created using data that were collected from official sources (i.e., police, court, and probation records) (e.g., Aguilar Ruiz et al., 2023; Cantos et al., 2019; González-Álvarez et al., 2024; Peters et al., 2023; Petersson et al., 2019). Most commonly, these researchers have coded archival data from law enforcement records using the Reactive-Proactive Categorization System for Partner-Violent Men or IPV risk assessments, including the Brief Spousal Assault Form for the Evaluation of Risk (B-SAFER), Spousal Assault Risk Assessment Guide Version 3 (SARA-V3), Police Risk Assessment Questionnaire (PRAQ), or Valoración Policial del Riesgo (VPR; police risk assessment tool).[8]

Typologies are a reflection of the measures used to derive them. For example, typologies created using the State-Trait Anger Expression Inventory (STAXI) result in anger types (Eckhardt et al., 2008b; Murphy et al., 2007; Redondo et al., 2019). In addition, a study using the Overcontrolled Hostility Scale resulted in overcontrolled and undercontrolled hostile types (Hershorn & Rosenbaum, 1991), a study using the Impulsive/Premeditated Aggression Scales differentiated premeditated or impulsive types of aggression (Stanford et al., 2008), and a study using the Transtheoretical Model differentiated types as treatment-resistant or treatment-responsive (Carbajosa, Catalá-Miñana, Lila, Gracia, & Boira, 2017). The authors of this systematic review used variables relating to criminal history, procriminal attitudes, procriminal associates, and antisocial personality pattern collected using the Service Planning Instrument (SPIn) to create a typology of IPV perpetrators; the resulting typology comprised three classes that were distinguished by differences in criminal history and antisocial attitudes (Giesbrecht, Keown, & Bruer, 2025).

Other studies in this systematic review used measures specifically designed for a bi-fold classification, such as the Reactive-Proactive Categorization System for Partner-Violent Men (Babcock et al., 2023; Chase et al., 2001; Ennis et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2018), to differentiate reactive or proactive perpetrators or the General Violent Tactics Scale (GVTS; Boyle et al., 2008), to differentiate partner-only or generally violent perpetrators. Other studies differentiated men as family-only or generally violent based on any violence against non-familial victims in criminal records or self-reports.

The majority of studies that added a third type, borderline/dysphoric, in a tripartite typology with family-only and generally violent included a personality measure (e.g., BPI, BPO, BSI, MCMI, MCMI-II, MCMI-III, MMPI-2, PAI, SCID-II).[8] Some tripartite studies did not include a measure for discerning BPD or borderline traits—Saunders (1992), for example, identified an emotionally volatile type in a study that included the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI). Other typologies, classified as personality typologies in this review, also include a borderline or borderline/dysphoric type (Chambers & Wilson, 2007; Freeman, 1999; Johnson, 2006; Shefferman, 2006; White & Gondolf, 2000). Additionally, Fowler and Westen (2011) specified a borderline/dependent type, and Gilchrist et al. (2003) labelled one group borderline/emotionally dependent. Included in their eight types, Hamberger and Hastings (1986) identified two groups with borderline traits—a schizoidal/borderline type and a type with dysphoric borderline characteristics.

Some studies that identified a fourth type, low-level antisocial, in typologies that also include borderline/dysphoric, family-only, and generally violent types used personality measures, such as the MCMI-III, whereas others used IPV risk assessments, such as the SARA or B-SAFER. These structured professional judgment risk assessment tools allow assessors to note relevant information regarding mental disorders or mental health problems and personality disorders.

Typologies relating to severity/frequency of IPV tend to be based on violence measures (e.g., CTS, CTS2, PMWI)[8] or on violence against women data from population-based studies. Studies differentiating men as perpetrating situational couple violence or coercive control use measures of controlling behavior. In several empirical studies that differentiate situationally violent from coercive controlling perpetrators, the authors created measures of controlling behavior. Two studies by Graham-Kevan and Archer (2003, 2008) used their own Controlling Behaviors Scale. M. P. Johnson's earlier empirical work (Johnson, 2006; Johnson & Leone, 2005; Leone et al., 2007) used measures of control tactics identified in Pence and Paymar's (1993) Power and Control Wheel. M. P. Johnson and colleagues created measures for subsequent studies (Coercive Control Scale, M. P. Johnson et al., 2014; Control

Tactics Scales, Leone et al., 2004; control items, Nawaz & Johnson, 2024). Rational/deductive studies of situational couple violence versus coercive control tend to classify perpetrators using decision rules based on previous empirical studies. For example, J. Brown and Chew (2018), Brownridge (2010), Crossman et al. (2016), and Nielsen et al. (2016) created decision rules for classifying participants according to M. P. Johnson's typology.

4.1.2. Samples used for typology creation

Explaining apparent disparities in gendered rates of IPV in studies using different samples, M. P. Johnson (1995, 2006) wrote that different sampling strategies (e.g., shelter samples, healthcare samples, or national household surveys) are likely to access victims who experienced different types of IPV. Analyzing data from 7333 women survivors of IPV from a national household survey of women in Mexico, Frías (2022) found that the majority (76.8%) had experienced situational couple violence; coercive control (15.6%) and violent resistance (7.6%) were identified by far fewer women. Other studies using national survey data (e.g., Bubriski-McKenzie & Jasinski, 2014; Cunningham & Anderson, 2024; Leone et al., 2007; Macmillan & Gartner, 1999) also found higher proportions of situational couple violence than coercive control. One study with a similar methodology (Johnson et al., 2014) found that a higher proportion of respondents had experienced intimate terrorism. One study included in the systematic review applied this typology in a study using data collected from incarcerated men and their partners; they found that of the men who had used physical violence, over half identified the IPV as jealous-only situational violence (McKay et al., 2022). To date, studies using law enforcement samples have not classified men who perpetrated IPV as using coercive control or situational violence. As with sampling strategies used with victims/survivors (Johnson, 1995, 2006), different sampling strategies for perpetrators of IPV (e.g., IPV treatment/intervention program participants, police records, correctional files) are likely to locate individuals who perpetrated different forms of IPV. Further, different measures (e.g., personality, generality of violence, violent behaviors) and analysis strategies (i.e., empirical or deductive) undoubtedly derive different typological solutions or classify individuals differently.

When examining 172 empirical or rational/deductive IPV typology studies,[9] $n = 27$ used data collected from women victims/survivors who provided information regarding their partners (men who perpetrated IPV). These derived typologies included situational couple violence/coercive control ($n = 16$), severity/frequency ($n = 8$), personality ($n = 2$), and family-only/generally violent ($n = 1$). Twenty-two studies ($n = 22$) collected data from couples (men who perpetrated IPV and corresponding women victims). These studies resulted in family-only/generally violent (two-, three-, or four-class; $n = 10$), severity/frequency ($n = 5$), as well as reactive/instrumental ($n = 2$), situational couple violence/coercive control ($n = 2$), and personality ($n = 2$). Gottman et al.'s (1995) study, which developed a typology based on perpetrators' heart rate reactivity, also involved couples. These studies illustrate that victims/survivors can provide information that is not available in archival datasets or often not available in primary studies with men who perpetrated IPV (e.g., violent behavior and suspected motivation). In addition, eight studies ($n = 8$) included both men and women who perpetrated IPV, resulting in situational couple violence/coercive control ($n = 4$) or family-only/generally violent (two- or four-class; $n = 4$) typologies.

The majority of IPV typology studies included in the review ($n = 114$) analyzed data exclusively from men who perpetrated IPV. The resulting typologies from the studies with samples of men who perpetrated IPV included personality ($n = 25$), family-only and generally violent ($n = 24$), family-only, generally violent, and borderline/dysphoric ($n = 23$), family-only, generally violent, low-level antisocial, and borderline/dysphoric ($n = 5$), severity/frequency ($n = 15$), reactive and instrumental ($n = 9$), and other typologies ($n = 12$; including IPV behavior, intimate partner sexual violence, IPV and other criminal encounters with police, criminal history and antisocial attitudes, treatment responsivity, and dissociation and trauma). Only one study ($n = 1$) that exclusively included men classified perpetrators of situational couple violence or coercive control.[10] Of the $n = 172$ empirical or rational/deductive IPV typology studies in the review, $n = 116$ (67.4%) collected data from participants in person, and $n = 56$ (32.6%) utilized archival datasets. Studies that included in-person participants ($n = 106$; including samples of men, mixed gender perpetrators, or couples) included men who were in treatment ($n = 69$); incarcerated ($n = 14$); recruited from the community ($n = 21$), courts, probation services, or community corrections ($n = 5$), or mental health facilities ($n = 2$).[11]

In the reviewed typologies, researchers selected measures and indicator variables based on theoretical assumptions or references to the extant literature. For example, several studies subsequent to Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart's (1994) theoretical typology included measures to assess the three dimensions identified in that study (severity and frequency, generality, and psychopathology or clinical issues). Measures used and factors on which to base the typology are also dependent on available data. Reviewed studies with the largest sample sizes analyzed archival datasets with information about perpetrators and corresponding victims from law enforcement databases (e.g., Aguilar Ruiz et al., 2023, $n = 16{,}385$; Chopin et al., 2025; $n = 12{,}458$); national or jurisdictional databases (e.g., Tanskanen & Aaltonen, 2022; $n = 14{,}721$); perpetrator data from community corrections (e.g., Giesbrecht, Keown, & Bruer, 2025; $n = 7781$); and population-based surveys with men (including men who have perpetrated IPV, e.g., Willie et al., 2022, $n = 10{,}173$) or women (including women who have experienced IPV, e.g., Cunningham & Anderson, 2024, $n = 11{,}380$).

Though studies using pre-existing datasets may not allow researchers to explore all variables of interest or to attempt to validate previous studies, given that data on the same variables have not been collected, typology studies conducted with archival data have several benefits, including large sample sizes and the inclusion of men who come into contact with services and systems (e.g., intervention programs, law enforcement, probation). These studies also demonstrate that perpetrators of IPV can be classified into typologies using information that is regularly collected in official records.

Population-based surveys conducted with the public have large samples and, therefore, have the potential to include substantial IPV subsamples. Population-based surveys conducted with the public are useful for gauging the prevalence of IPV among the general population, as well as different types of IPV perpetration within the general population and experienced/used by victims/perpetrators in these samples. Population-based surveys also provide insight into the prevalence of perpetrator types within the community—and how the prevalence of these types in general samples may differ from those found in other samples (e.g., incarcerated, treatment). Surveys in studies included in this review asked questions about specific forms of violence using modified versions of measures such as the CTS (e.g., Anderson, 2008; Bubriski-McKenzie & Jasinski, 2014) or included questions specific to IPV behavior (e.g., Willie et al., 2022). Some of these surveys included questions about IPV that allowed researchers to score measures of controlling behavior (e.g., Johnson et al., 2014; Leone et al., 2007). Typologies derived using these data sources tend to differentiate perpetrators based on their use of IPV toward the victim, resulting in typologies of severity and frequency or situational violence versus

[9] Excluding theoretical typologies and typologies of perpetrators of IPF.

[10] One empirical study also used professionals' assessments of men who perpetrated IPV.

[11] Totals $n = 111$, as five studies included participants from two sources (such as including perpetrators who were incarcerated and those who were mandated to treatment in the community).

coercive control; they do not provide data relating to perpetrator characteristics. These data sources do not include information on the generality of violence (needed to differentiate family-only perpetrators from generally violent perpetrators) or detailed information regarding situations in which individuals choose to perpetrate IPV (needed to differentiate reactive from instrumental perpetrators). In addition, these datasets do not include information related to perpetrators' personality, mental health, or psychopathology (needed to discern the presence of a borderline/dysphoric type or to create typologies based on personality factors).

Primary studies conducted with individual perpetrators, such as those enrolled in IPV treatment/intervention programs, allow researchers to utilize multiple measures. Eckhardt, Holtzworth-Munroe, et al. (2008), for example, used a dozen validated measures, including measures of IPV behavior, personality traits, and substance misuse, as well as reports of recidivism and program completion. Holtzworth-Munroe et al. (2000) administered 16 measures to both partners in relationships where IPV was present. Such studies tend to have smaller sample sizes and face different challenges in terms of data availability. It may be challenging to gather data regarding the use of specific forms of violence and abuse, including coercive controlling behaviors, and the motivation and decision-making resulting in a choice to use violence from self-reports. As stated above, only one study that exclusively collected data from men who used IPV classified perpetrators as using situational couple violence or coercive control. Further, it may be difficult to gather information regarding the reactive or instrumental use of violence directly from perpetrators. Bartels (1996) noted challenges with missing data when conducting research with a "typically non-compliant population" (p. 56). In their study, Bartels (1996) found data that were not missing at random, as some participants had elected not to respond to three measures. In a study involving couples, Babcock et al. (2024) asked both men (perpetrators) and women (victims) to report on men's past use of IPV. Men provided limited information on the proactive use of violence, with the majority of men describing their use of violence as reactive (i.e., impulsive, unplanned); women identified more incidents of their partners' violence that they deemed proactive (i.e., instrumental, premeditated). Studies that include victims/survivors provide important information regarding the form of IPV perpetrated and the frequency and severity of the violence. Survivors are also often able to provide information regarding perpetrators' substance use, lifestyle risk factors, and other variables of interest. Studies that only involve victims are unable to identify personality traits, psychopathology, scores on other measures (e.g., hostility, acceptance of violence, psychopathy), and background information that is known to the perpetrator.

Fourteen studies ($n = 14$) included in this review included couples recruited from the community; most of these studies included couples with and without IPV. These studies include descriptions of IPV, completion of measures by the perpetrator, and, in some studies, observation of the couple completing an interaction task in the laboratory. Studies with couples provide the opportunity to collect data on perpetrator characteristics as well as experiences of IPV from both the victim and perpetrator and to assess discrepancies between these assessments.

4.2. Connections between types identified in the systematic review

Not only do perpetrators of IPV use different forms of violence (e.g., physical violence, sexual violence, emotional abuse, controlling behaviors), but they also often employ more than one form. These forms of violence also occur on a continuum of severity and frequency (Holtzworth-Munroe & Meehan, 2004; Monson & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 1998).

Further, personality traits (e.g., impulsiveness, hostility, borderline characteristics) also exist along a continuum. The 186 studies included in this review put forth many different typologies derived from diverse samples and using a variety of measures. It is likely that continuums occur within derived types. For example, individuals classified as coercive control may range from those who frequently use "lower level" controlling behaviors to those who enact severe behaviors, including degradation, humiliation, and micro-regulation of the victim's daily activities, and would be labelled intimate terrorists. Individuals within the generally violent/antisocial type likely include a range of individuals, including those who have perpetrated violence against a non-familial victim, as well as those with lengthy criminal histories of violent crime, as well as other offenses.

As described below, overlap between types described in different typologies is apparent. Furthermore, the use of different measures will undoubtedly identify different variables and, therefore, categorize individuals differently. For example, a study using law enforcement records may classify men as partner-only or generally violent; if the same men were assessed using personality measures, it would be likely that the partner-only individuals would fall within different personality types, and the same would be true for the generally violent individuals. In fact, four studies in this review classified their sample according to different typologies (Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al., 2000; Stalans & Seng, 2007; Stoops, 2003; Theobald et al., 2016a). Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al. (2000) categorized the same sample of perpetrators using both an empirical approach and theoretical categories; they found that just under half of the sample was classified similarly by the two methods. A portion of the sample characterized as situationally violent or characterologically violent by Friend et al. (2017, also Friend et al., 2011) was also analyzed in other studies using heart rate reactivity (pitbulls and cobras; Gottman et al., 1995; Jacobson & Gottman, 1998) or classifying perpetrators as family-only, generally violent, or pathological (Waltz et al., 2000).

4.2.1. Similarities between partner-only and other perpetrator types

Studies in the systematic review report that perpetrators who are violent only to their partner perpetrate less severe violence and are at a lower risk for recidivism. In this way, partner/family-only individuals are similar to the lower-risk groups (detailed in SM 1: Tables 7 and 8). Partner-only perpetrators also tend to display more stability factors and fewer risk factors than generally violent individuals. Partner-only individuals had lower scores than generally violent and borderline perpetrators on measures of psychopathology, indicating similarity with the non-elevated, low-pathology, and low instability/low antisociality groups (SM 1: Tables 14 and 15).

It is likely that some partner-only perpetrators could also be classified as perpetrating situational couple violence, where conflicts escalate to violence but are not rooted in the desire to dominate and control their partner, as well as using violence that is not premeditated (i.e., reactive/impulsive violence); whereas others could be classified as perpetrators of coercive control, who use violence and threats in a proactive/instrumental manner. Coercive controlling perpetrators may avoid detection and arrest/re-arrest by using non-physical forms of IPV and engaging in impression management when interacting with people outside the family. Further, it is possible that within the category of reactive perpetrators, some are general aggressors who tend to react violently to provocation, whereas others could be perpetrators of family-only or situational couple violence who are violent to their partner when frustrated or when conflicts escalate but are not motivated by a need to control and dominate.

The potential overlap between partner-only and other types of perpetrators described in the systematic review is illustrated in Fig. 2. Larger circles indicate the partner/family-only type identified in many studies and other common types that are described as having similar characteristics (i.e., low/moderate risk, described in severity/frequency typologies and low pathology, described in personality typologies). Various typologies in the systematic review presented partner/family-only, low-risk/severity, and low-pathology types. In typologies with a partner/family-only type, these perpetrators are described as presenting

the lowest risk and being less pathological (i.e., fewer antisocial traits, personality disordered characteristics, and instability) than other types. It is likely that if individuals deemed family-only were classified using methods in the severity and frequency of violence typologies, they would be classified as low-risk, and vice versa. Therefore, Fig. 2 depicts a substantial degree of overlap between these types. Smaller circles indicate that although there is no direct overlap between the partner/family-only type and types in the dichotomous reactive and instrumental or situational couple violence and coercive control typologies, it is likely that a portion of individuals who are classified as family-only could be classified as one of these other types. Though relatively few ($n = 29$) studies in the systematic review employed measures of psychopathy, these studies included a family-only type ($n = 11$), or were personality ($n = 8$), severity/frequency ($n = 6$), or reactive/instrumental typologies ($n = 4$). As discussed above, it is possible that some individuals classified as partner-only could have psychopathic traits and/or engage in coercive controlling abuse, using violence and threats in an instrumental manner and avoiding coming to the attention of law enforcement.

4.2.2. Similarities between generally violent and reactive perpetrators

Characteristics of generally violent or generally violent/antisocial perpetrators described in the bipartite family-only and generally violent typology or the expanded typologies with family-only, generally violent, low-level antisocial, and borderline/dysphoric types have substantial overlap with reactive/impulsive/undercontrolled perpetrators of IPV. The key factor distinguishing generally violent from partner-only perpetrators is that they perpetrate violence against non-familial victims; reactive perpetrators are also more likely to enact violence against victims other than their intimate partners. Like generally violent individuals, perpetrators classified as reactive display higher levels of personality pathology and are more hostile. Both types are also more likely than other types to have experienced abuse and trauma and to misuse alcohol.

Generally violent perpetrators are assessed as higher risk than partner/family-only perpetrators. It is likely that individuals classified as generally violent or generally violent/antisocial in these studies would be classified in the higher-risk groups in the severity and frequency typologies (detailed in SM 1: Tables 7 and 8). Generally violent perpetrators have higher levels of antisocial traits and behavior, psychopathic traits, borderline traits, and Cluster B traits overall, as well as psychopathology. Generally violent men were also found to display more hostility, anger, impulsivity, dyscontrol, behavioral disinhibition, and low frustration tolerance. Generally violent perpetrators often have extensive criminal histories with more arrests and convictions and more previous violent offenses and offenses against people. These perpetrators were first convicted at an earlier age, hold pro-criminal attitudes, and have negative attitudes toward the criminal legal system. Generally violent perpetrators have more lifestyle risk factors, including frequent unemployment, deviant peers, and problematic alcohol and/or drug use. These individuals are also more likely than other types to have a history of witnessing and experiencing abuse.

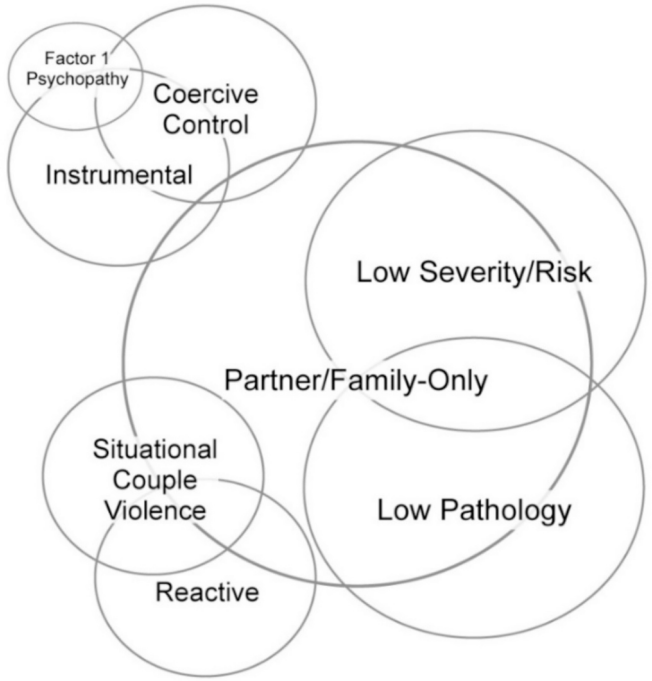


Fig. 2. Similarities between partner-only and other perpetrator types.
Note: The degree of overlap depicted does not represent a measured overlap but illustrates the theoretical/conceptual overlap between the types.

Other studies have also incorporated general violence as a clear way to differentiate types. For example, the study by Vignola-Lévesque and Léveillée (2022) identified four types, including a controlling and unstable type and a generally angry/aggressive type. González-Álvarez et al. (2022, 2024) examined instability and antisociality, identifying high antisocial types with high and low instability. A typology by the authors of the present review (Giesbrecht, Keown, & Bruer, 2025) found three classes of perpetrators that could be differentiated based on antisocial attitudes and criminal history.

Low-level antisocial perpetrators tended to have scores falling between those of family-only and borderline/dysphoric and generally violent perpetrators. Specifically, low-level antisocial perpetrators score higher on measures of antisocial and borderline traits than family-only perpetrators but lower than individuals in the other two types. Some studies identified the presence of antisocial traits, though not at a clinical level, among this type. Low-level antisocial individuals perpetrate more IPV as well as more violence outside the home than family-only perpetrators, but less than the other two types. Low-level antisocial perpetrators also score higher on measures of dependence than partner/family-only, but lower than the other two types. Substance misuse issues and criminality were also identified in this cluster. Researchers have demonstrated that generally violent/antisocial perpetrators and those with psychopathy share many traits, including lack of empathy, problematic substance use, responses to emotional stimuli, use of violence that is not restricted to only their intimate partners, and an apparent lack of interest in desisting from perpetrating IPV.

The potential overlap between generally violent and other types of perpetrators described in the systematic review is illustrated in Fig. 3. Larger circles indicate the generally violent or generally violent/antisocial perpetrators identified in many studies and other common perpetrator types that are described as having similar characteristics, including reactive perpetrators and those deemed higher risk. Given the apparent similarities between family-only and non-pathological perpetrators, it is likely that if the same samples were classified using personality measures and measures indicating generality of violence, some of those determined to have personality pathology or personality-disordered characteristics in the personality typologies would fit with the generally violent group; others would likely fit the borderline/dysphoric classification (see Fig. 5). Some studies have indicated the presence of a group that is generally violent/antisocial; however, not all studies that examine general violence include measures of antisociality. In Fig. 3, antisocial perpetrators are shown as a subgroup of generally violent perpetrators. Also overlapping with these groups are individuals classified in $n = 8$ studies as low-level antisocial. These individuals display the same traits as generally violent/antisocial individuals, however, to a lesser degree, and are shown to have a lower risk of reoffending than generally violent/antisocial perpetrators. In Fig. 3, individuals with factor 2 psychopathy traits overlap with the generally violent/antisocial and reactive types, as social deviance and impulsivity have been demonstrated to be present within these groups.

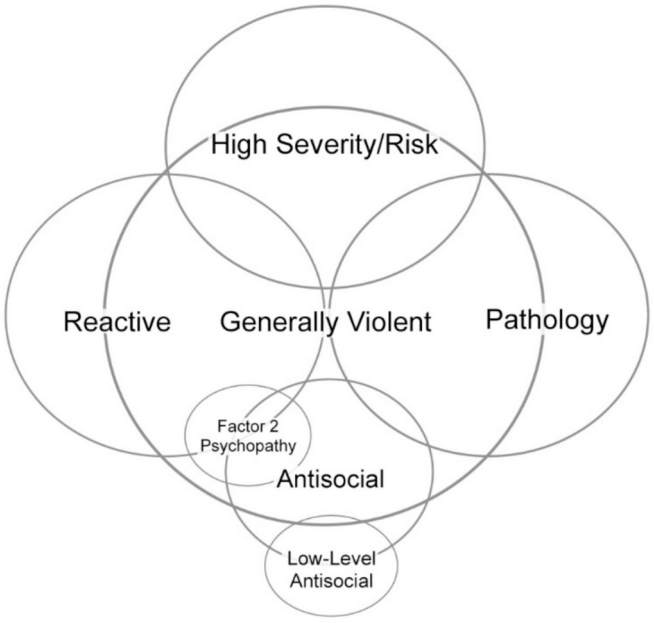


Fig. 3. Similarities between generally violent and other perpetrator types.
Note: The degree of overlap depicted does not represent measured overlap but illustrates the theoretical/conceptual overlap between the types.

4.2.3. Similarities between coercive control and other typologies

Studies presenting the dichotomous coercive control/situational couple violence typology (and other variations, including different subtypes of control) generally present situational couple violence as being less frequent and less severe, though life-threatening levels of violence can also be perpetrated by this group. The main difference between the types is that perpetrators of coercive control are manipulative; dominate their partners' lives; regulate their partners' actions; use threats to terrorize their victims; and minimize, deny, and avoid taking responsibility for their violence. There are clear similarities between coercive controlling (SM 1: Tables 11, 12, and 13) and instrumental perpetrators (SM 1: Tables 9 and 10). Both groups have been reported to use severe forms of violence, though they may use physical violence less frequently than their counterparts. Instrumental perpetrators, like coercive controlling perpetrators, use violence in a planned and goal-directed fashion. Instrumental perpetrators have been described as more antisocial, psychopathic, and narcissistic. Instrumental and coercive controlling perpetrators have the ability to remain "cool and controlled." Though no studies of coercive controlling perpetrators in the systematic review employed measures of psychopathy, there is a clear overlap in descriptions of behaviors of coercive controlling and instrumental perpetrators and individuals with high levels of factor 1 psychopathic traits (e.g., glib, superficial, egocentric, manipulative, lacking remorse, lacking empathy; Hare, 1999).

Five studies in the systematic review also identified types of perpetrators with narcissistic traits (e.g., grandiosity, overblown sense of self-importance, lack of empathy, sense of entitlement, exploitation of others); similarities between these individuals and coercive controlling and instrumental perpetrators are also apparent. Overlap with coercive controlling violence and instrumental violence is seen with other types identified in the review, such as the "tyrant" type described in Caesar's (1985, 1986) IPV typology and Elisha et al.'s (2010) IPF typology and the controlling violent perpetrator described in Vignola-Lévesque and Léveillée's (2022) typology of IPV and IPF.

Fig. 4 displays the similarities that appear in the reviewed studies between coercive controlling and instrumental perpetrators and perpetrators with psychopathic traits consistent with the interpersonal/affective factor (factor 1). These perpetrators use IPV in a planned, calculating, and goal-directed fashion. They are likely to dominate their partners' lives, regulate their partners' behavior, and use threats to terrorize their victims, isolate them, and make them subordinate. These individuals likely lack empathy and remorse and tend to minimize and/or blame others for their behavior. They are manipulative and avoid taking responsibility for their violence. Fewer studies ($n = 6$) identified a narcissistic type[12]; however, there is overlap among the traits of coercive controlling, instrumental, psychopathic (high in factor 1 traits) perpetrators and traits attributed to narcissistic individuals (i.e., has a sense of entitlement, takes advantage of others, lacks empathy; American Psychiatric Association, 2013).

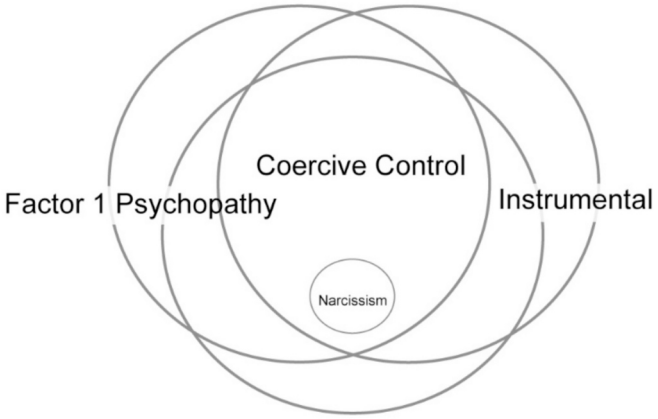


Fig. 4. Similarities between coercive control and other perpetrator types.
Note: The degree of overlap depicted does not represent measured overlap but illustrates the theoretical/conceptual overlap between the types.

4.2.4. Similarities between borderline and other typologies

Many studies presenting a three- and four-class typology that includes a borderline/dysphoric type indicate that these individuals display many of the same traits as generally violent men (e.g., anger, antisocial traits, psychopathic traits, impulsivity), though borderline/dysphoric individuals may display lower levels of these traits. Many studies position borderline/dysphoric individuals between family-only and generally violent perpetrators in terms of risk, frequency and severity of violence, and psychopathology.

The most distinguishing feature of these individuals is their borderline traits, which can manifest in unstable and intense intimate relationships where they cycle between devaluing and idealizing their partners. Other traits commonly ascribed to this group can also be seen in their actions, including impulsive and jealous behavior. Attachment issues are another prominent feature for borderline/dysphoric individuals, including dependent, fearful, preoccupied, and avoidant attachment styles. This group has also been reported to have higher levels of psychopathology (as compared to family-only and generally violent men), including depression, anxiety, dysthymia, histrionic traits, and neuroticism. This group is also more likely than the others to have been victimized in childhood and to experience suicidal ideation.

Some typologies classified as personality typologies in the review also included a borderline/dysphoric type. Although all the personality typologies that include a borderline/dysphoric type present a different configuration of other classes of perpetrators, borderline/dysphoric individuals are generally distinguishable from others in the sample as having higher levels of psychopathology. It is likely that there is overlap between those classified as borderline/dysphoric and those in other typologies that are categorized as unstable, insecurely attached,

[12] Theobald et al. (2016a) also identified a cluster with a high score on composite Cluster B (i.e. Antisocial, Borderline, Histrionic, or Narcissistic Personality Disorder) traits.

dependent, disturbed, dysfunctional, or pathological. It is also likely that borderline personality traits may be present among a portion of the samples in other studies that did not include a measure of personality-disordered features. Fig. 5 displays the overlap between borderline/dysphoric perpetrators, pathological perpetrators, and perpetrators of IPV with insecure attachment described in the studies included in the review.

4.2.5. Typologies and the spectrum of risk

Although the categories of IPV typologies comprise many diverse typologies, created with different samples, methods, and measures, it is possible that types contained within these typologies could be organized along a spectrum, such as severity of violence or degree of risk. Such a conceptualization would place low severity/risk, low pathology, partner/family-only, and situational couple violence perpetrators at the lowest end of the spectrum and generally violent, generally violent/antisocial, pathological, high severity/risk, and coercive controlling perpetrators at the highest end of the spectrum. Borderline/dysphoric perpetrators, those with other personality-disordered characteristics, and individuals with insecure attachment would likely be placed in the middle of the severity/risk spectrum. It would be expected that individuals within each of these types would vary along the spectrum of severity of behavior and degree of risk. Further, as the reactive/instrumental typology is related to reasons for using violence, some members of each group may perpetrate more severe violence and pose a greater risk. As coercive controlling behavior has been demonstrated to be a risk factor for increased danger, including IPF, these individuals would be expected to fit at the higher end of the spectrum. Not all situational couple violence perpetrators should be classified as lower risk, however; these individuals may perpetrate severe violence and pose a high risk, though their choice to use violence is not rooted in dynamics of control. There are other types (such as those in the "other typologies"; SM 1: Table 16) that would also fall differently along this spectrum.

IPF is the most severe form of IPV. Some types of femicide perpetrators described in the IPF typologies may have similarities with various IPV perpetrator types; however, no IPF typology studies classified perpetrators according to the IPV typologies included in the review. IPF typologies included in the review categorized perpetrators according to personality types (Elisha et al., 2010; Kerry, 2001; Santos-Hermoso et al., 2024), depression and violence (Dawson & Piscitelli, 2021), and criminality and psychopathology (Dixon et al., 2008), among other classifications. Although no typologies of IPF have categorized perpetrators according to the family-only and generally violent (two-, three-, or four-class) typology, Péloquin et al. (2024) classified IPF perpetrators according to criminality and IPV specialization. No typologies of IPF have categorized perpetrators according to the situational couple violence/coercive control and reactive/instrumental typologies.

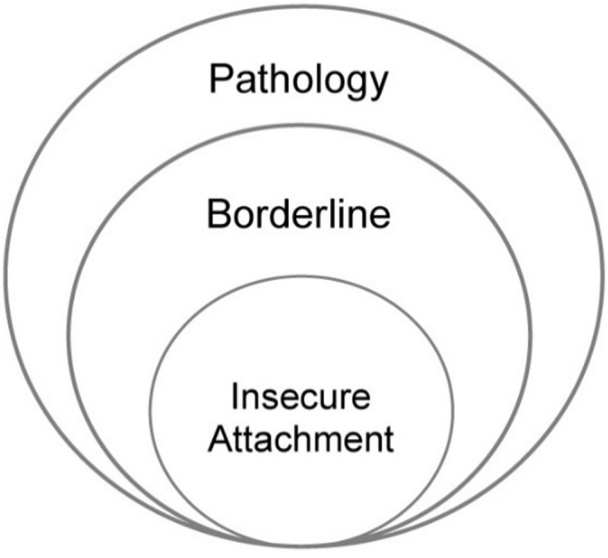


Fig. 5. Similarities between borderline and other perpetrator types.
Note: The degree of overlap depicted does not represent measured overlap but illustrates the theoretical/conceptual overlap between the types.

4.3. Considering the clinical utility of IPV typologies

There may be different purposes or uses for typologies. Some typologies may simply serve to describe the diversity of perpetrators of IPV. Others may have clinical utility in terms of assigning men to treatment conditions (including program modality and length) and risk management conditions (such as conditions of release and monitoring strategies). Although a typology with fewer types may result in grouping men together who share similar characteristics but also differ on other variables, more types limit clinical utility. For example, it would be difficult to offer different treatment conditions, programs, or protocols for eight different types of perpetrators.

In 1994, Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart cautioned that perpetrator typologies are not useful if used only for descriptive purposes. They stated that "their potential fruitfulness comes from the ability to use them to better understand the causes and functions of various types of [IPV]" (p. 493). Their observation highlighted a significant and ongoing limitation in typology research. Despite the number of existing IPV typologies, there has been no consensus among researchers on a single typology that is most accurate (i.e., consistently fits different samples of men who have perpetrated IPV) or most useful (i.e., efficacious for informing risk assessment, risk management, and risk reduction). Further, consensus has not been reached on a method for classifying men who have perpetrated IPV by typology, either by developing a new measure or by formulating a way to use information routinely collected by agencies that work with perpetrators of IPV.

4.4. Strengths and limitations

The present systematic review was the first of this scope. The review included 215 articles, comprising $n = 186$ studies that presented $n = 190$ typologies. This review included typologies of men who perpetrated IPV (including IPF), spanning a 50-year period from the first IPV typology study published in 1974 to the end of 2024. This review was the first systematic review to include empirical, rational/deductive, and theoretically derived typologies. This review was also the first to group typologies according to nine categories (1) family-only and generally violent; 2) family-only, generally violent, and borderline/dysphoric; 3) family-only, generally violent, low-level antisocial, and borderline/dysphoric; 4) severity and frequency of violence; 5) reactive and instrumental; 6) situational couple violence and coercive control; 7) personality types; 8) other typologies [e.g., treatment responsivity, physiological reactivity]; and 9) typologies of perpetrators of IPF) and summarize studies of all nine types. Findings from this systematic review provide the opportunity to compare typologies created with different datasets and samples (e.g., participants in IPV treatment/intervention programs, individuals recruited from the community, law enforcement data) and different measures (e.g., dichotomous measures of violent behavior, controlling behavior scales, personality measures, criminal history).

As the goal of this systematic review was to provide a comprehensive review of all studies presenting a typology of men who perpetrated IPV (including IPF), no exclusion criteria were set relating to study quality (e.g., sample size, method of analysis). As such, the included studies differ in methodological quality. Not all the typologies included in the review have been empirically tested, and some are theoretical rather than derived from perpetrator data. This systematic review offers a comprehensive overview of all studies presenting a typology of men who perpetrated IPV, identifying studies by type and method. This article

may provide future researchers with a starting point for studying the typologies summarized in this review in greater depth.

The most significant limitation is that only studies published in English were included. Therefore, it is likely that relevant studies published in Spanish, as well as other languages, that would enhance the comprehensiveness of the findings were not included. As in all systematic reviews, despite hand-searching and multiple database searches, it is possible that relevant studies were missed and therefore not included.

4.5. Future directions for IPV typology research

4.5.1. Connection of typology to treatment and recidivism outcomes

To move beyond typology research that is simply descriptive (Holtzworth-Munroe & Stuart, 1994), it is necessary to test the applicability of typologies for predicting recidivism and improving participation in and adherence to treatment/intervention programs. A small proportion of the studies included in this systematic review reported data for treatment (n = 24) and recidivism (n = 25) outcomes for different types of perpetrators; findings from these studies will be reported separately (Giesbrecht et al., in press).

4.5.2. Replication and validation of IPV typologies

Some of the studies included in the review (most notably the family-only and generally violent [two-, three-, or four-class] typology, followed by the situational couple violence and coercive control typology) have been replicated with empirical and rational/deductive methods and different samples; however, further research is needed to determine whether there is a typology that effectively differentiates classes of perpetrators across different samples (including treatment, correctional, and community samples). Although it would be ideal for communication among professionals (e.g., probation, treatment providers, domestic violence courts) if one typology had utility in a variety of settings, it may be possible that different typologies would be more applicable in different settings.

It is unknown if the various typologies included in this review would classify male perpetrators of IPV in the same way if information were gathered from victims/survivors or other samples of perpetrators of IPV. Given that women victims/survivors and male perpetrators may report different rates and forms of men's IPV against women (Arce et al., 2020; Babcock et al., 2024; Cheng et al., 2021; Johnson & Goodlin-Fahncke, 2015), there is a need for multi-faceted research that examines the same topics and questions across multiple populations (including perpetrators and victims/survivors).

4.5.3. Exploring categorical, dimensional, and longitudinal approaches

Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart (1994) illustrated that IPV perpetrators can be distinguished based on the frequency and severity of violence they perpetrate, whether they use violence against victims other than their partner, and the presence of psychopathology, such as personality disorders. Holtzworth-Munroe and Meehan (2004) explored the classifications from the Holtzworth-Munroe et al. (2000, 2003) studies using both dimensional and categorical typology approaches. Findings indicated that the two approaches had similar predictive abilities. At that time, Holtzworth-Munroe and Meehan (2004) suggested the need for further research to explore the utility of categorical and dimensional approaches to typology research, though few studies to date (e.g., Dixon et al., 2008; Eckhardt, Holtzworth-Munroe, et al., 2008; Fowler & Westen, 2011) have investigated the dimensional nature of characteristics related to IPV typologies.

Some studies in the systematic review (Allen et al., 1989; Babcock et al., 2000; Caesar, 1986; Hamberger et al., 1996; White & Gondolf, 2000; Ziegler, 2005) identified individuals who could not be classified as one of the derived types, or who fit more than one type. Dixon et al. (2008) deemed 11.1% of their sample as hybrid and 8.9% as unclassifiable. Dixon et al. (2008) put forward a strategy where cases were assigned to a class ("dominant theme") if the score indicating the likelihood of class membership was greater than the percentage sum of the other two themes combined. If the score was not greater, the case was classified as a hybrid between two themes. No research to date has examined the clinical utility of classification as hybrid types.

Researchers have noted that risk assessments for IPV recidivism, as well as IPF, can change over time; as such, it is necessary to reassess risk periodically. Likewise, typological group membership may not be stable over time (Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2003). The presence of new static risk factors (such as additional criminal history stemming from violations of no-contact orders) or changes in dynamic variables (such as attitudes) could lead individuals to be classified differently at different points in time (Capaldi & Kim, 2007). Few researchers have examined the stability of these constructs on a longitudinal basis (see Gottman et al., 1995; Holtzworth-Munroe et al., 2003). Future research to test the stability of typologies over time has the potential to inform guidelines for incorporating typology into intervention and risk management strategies.

4.5.4. Extending typologies to differentiate perpetrators who harm children and animals

IPV and child abuse frequently co-occur. Further, children are harmed when they are exposed to violence and/or when their mother is victimized (Nichols & Slep, 2022). Although the terminology of family-only is used in many typologies, most of these studies do not report whether the perpetrators in the sample only used violence against their intimate partners or if they were also violent to other family members, including children. It is likely that factors exist which differentiate men who make a choice to also target children from those who confine their violence to their partner.

Research has also demonstrated the linkages between IPV and coercive control and threats and maltreatment to animals (Barrett et al., 2020; Giesbrecht, 2022). Women survivors have reported that some perpetrators use violence toward animals as a tactic of coercive control aimed at terrorizing human victims, whereas others direct threats toward animal companions to control and terrorize their intimate partners but do not necessarily act on those threats. Other perpetrators appear not to use violence toward animals instrumentally but instead lash out with impulsive violence and are generally violent to both humans and animals (Giesbrecht, Fletcher, & Wuerch, 2025). No typology studies included in the systematic review provided data relating to animal abuse or compared different types of perpetrators in terms of perpetration of animal abuse or on different types of animal abuse. Future typology research should specifically examine the perpetration of child abuse and animal maltreatment to increase the utility of typologies for discerning the risks posed by perpetrators of IPV and informing risk management strategies.

4.5.5. Connecting IPV and IPF typologies

IPF is the most severe form of IPV. IPF typologies included in the review categorized perpetrators according to personality types, criminality and psychopathology, and criminality and IPV specialization, among other classifications; however, no typologies of IPF have categorized perpetrators according to IPV typologies most commonly replicated and validated in the literature (i.e., family-only and generally violent [two-, three-, or four-class], situational couple violence and coercive control, or reactive and instrumental). Research is needed to determine if, and how, IPV typologies may be applicable to perpetrators of IPF. Further, research has not been conducted to assess perpetrators of IPF according to IPV typology prior to the femicide, to determine if typology can help to identify types of IPV perpetrators who are most at risk for perpetrating IPF.

5. Conclusion

Since the 1970s, researchers have sought to classify perpetrators of IPV into typologies. The present study was the first systematic review to

provide an overview of all studies of typologies of men who perpetrated IPV, including studies that developed new typologies or classified IPV perpetrators according to typologies derived from previous studies, published between 1974 and 2024. The review included 215 articles, comprising $n = 186$ studies, that presented $n = 190$ typologies.

This systematic review offers a comprehensive overview of all studies presenting a typology of men who perpetrated IPV, including those that developed new typologies or classified IPV perpetrators according to typologies derived from previous studies. This review summarizes methods and measures that have been used to create typologies and compare types; samples used in typology research; the number of studies published for each kind of typology; characteristics of types; and the proportion of each perpetrator type in the extant literature. These findings point to similarities and potential overlap between types. This article may provide future researchers with a starting point from which to study the typologies summarized in this review in greater depth.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Crystal J. Giesbrecht: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. **Leslie Anne Keown:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision. **Kaila C. Bruer:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision.

Declaration of competing interest

The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

Acknowledgments

This article is based on Crystal J. Giesbrecht's doctoral dissertation titled, *Classifying Men Who Perpetrate Intimate Partner Violence: A 50-year Systematic Review and a New Typology Applicable to Case Management.*

Crystal J. Giesbrecht gratefully acknowledges the support of a Vanier Canada Graduate Scholarship (Social Sciences & Humanities Research Council; SSHRC).

Appendix A. Supplementary Material

Supplementary Material to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2026.102157.

Data availability

References for all articles included in the systematic review are provided in Supplemental Material.

References[13,14]

*Adcox Meade, K. (2006). The Personality Assessment Inventory's utility in predicting domestic violence treatment outcome [Ph.D., Capella University]. https://www.proquest.com/pqdtglobal/docview/304909923/abstract/7E1C7864D9C648C0PQ/1.

*Aguilar Ruiz, R., González Calderón, M. J., & González García, A. (2023). Severe versus less severe intimate partner violence: Aggressors and victims. *European Journal of Criminology, 20*(4), 1211–1230. https://doi.org/10.1177/1477370821995145

*Aguilar Ruiz, R., & González-Calderón, M. J. (2022). Predictors of severe intimate partner violence among antisocial and family-only perpetrators: Victims' and offenders' characteristics. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 37*(5–6), 2791–2822. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260520943714

Alexander, E. F. (2023). Evaluating and comparing typologies of intimate partner violence using finite mixture modeling [Doctoral dissertation, State University of New York at Binghamton]. https://www.proquest.com/docview/2872097335/abstract/BC12F8CD67BC459CPQ/1.

Alexander, E. F., & Johnson, M. D. (2023). On categorizing intimate partner violence: A systematic review of exploratory clustering and classification studies. *Journal of Family Psychology, 37*(5), 743–752. https://doi.org/10.1037/fam0001075

Ali, P. A., Dhingra, K., & McGarry, J. (2016). A literature review of intimate partner violence and its classifications. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 31*, 16–25. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2016.06.008

*Allen, K., Calsyn, D. A., Fehrenbach, P. A., & Benton, G. (1989). A study of the interpersonal behaviors of male batterers. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 4*(1), 79–89. https://doi.org/10.1177/088626089004001005

American Psychiatric Association. (2013). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders* (5th ed.). American Psychiatric Association.

*Anderson, K. L. (2008). Is partner violence worse in the context of control? *Journal of Marriage and Family, 70*(5), 1157–1168. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3737.2008.00557.x

Arce, R., Arias, E., Novo, M., & Fariña, F. (2020). Are interventions with batterers effective? A meta-analytical review. *Psychosocial Intervention, 29*(3), 153–164. https://doi.org/10.5093/pi2020a11

*Babcock, J. C., Costa, D. M., Green, C. E., & Eckhardt, C. I. (2004). What situations induce intimate partner violence? A reliability and validity study of the proximal antecedents to violent episodes (PAVE) scale. *Journal of Family Psychology, 18*(3), 433–442. https://doi.org/10.1037/0893-3200.18.3.433

*Babcock, J. C., Green, C. E., & Webb, S. A. (2008). Decoding deficits of different types of batterers during presentation of facial affect slides. *Journal of Family Violence, 23*(5), 295–302. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-008-9151-1

*Babcock, J. C., Jacobson, N. S., Gottman, J. M., & Yerington, T. P. (2000). Attachment, emotional regulation, and the function of marital violence: Differences between secure, preoccupied, and dismissing violent and nonviolent husbands. *Journal of Family Violence, 15*(4), 391–409. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1007558330501

*Babcock, J. C., Kini, S., Godfrey, D. A., & Rodriguez, L. (2024). Differential treatment response of proactive and reactive partner abusive men: Results from a laboratory proximal change experiment. *Psychosocial Intervention, 33*(1), 43–54. https://doi.org/10.5093/pi2024a2

*Babcock, J. C., Kini, S., & Pathak, N. (2023). The proactive–reactive classification of intimate partner violence offenders: A multi-method approach to classification. *Criminal Behaviour and Mental Health, 33*(4), 278–288. https://doi.org/10.1002/cbm.2299

Barrett, B. J., Fitzgerald, A., Stevenson, R., & Cheung, C. H. (2020). Animal maltreatment as a risk marker of more frequent and severe forms of intimate partner violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 35*(23–24), 5131–5156. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260517719542

*Bartels, C. L. (1996). Understanding men who batter: Examination of a batterer typology and implications for treatment [Doctoral dissertation, University of Maryland, College Park]. https://www.proquest.com/pqdtglobal/docview/304315617/abstract/74487FDC57744785PQ/1.

*Boyle, D. J., O'Leary, K. D., Rosenbaum, A., & Hassett-Walker, C. (2008). Differentiating between generally and partner-only violent subgroups: Lifetime antisocial behavior, family of origin violence, and impulsivity. *Journal of Family Violence, 23*(1), 47–55. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-007-9133-8

*Brisson, N. J. (1981). Battering husbands: A survey of abusive men. *Victimology: An International Journal, 61*(1–4), 338–344.

*Brown, J., & Chew, D. (2018). Prevalence of types of perpetration: Gender and patterns of intimate partner violence within a prison sample in Singapore. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma, 27*(8), 883–901. https://doi.org/10.1080/10926771.2017.1410744

*Brownridge, D. A. (2010). Does the situational couple violence- intimate terrorism typology explain cohabitors' high risk of intimate partner violence? *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 25*(7), 1264–1283. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260509340544

*Bubriski-McKenzie, A., & Jasinski, J. L. (2014). Mental health effects of intimate terrorism and situational couple violence among Black and Hispanic women. *Violence Against Women, 19*(12), 1429–1448. https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801213517515

*Cadsky, O., & Crawford, M. (1988). Establishing batterer typologies in a clinical sample of men who assault their female partners. *Canadian Journal of Community Mental Health, 7*(2), 119–127. https://psycnet.apa.org/record/1989-26221-001.

*Caesar, P. L. (1985). *The wife beater: Personality and psychosocial characteristics* [Doctoral dissertation, California School of Professional Psychology - Berkeley/Alameda] https://www.proquest.com/pqdtglobal/docview/303337240/587539CAE0BE41CAPQ/1.

*Caesar, P. L. (1986). *Men who batter: A heterogeneous group*. In L. Kevin Hamberger (Chair), The male batterer: Characteristics of a heterogeneous population. Symposium presented at the meeting of the American Psychological Association, August 23, Washington, D.C.

Cambridge University Press. Definition of antisocial. Cambridge academic content dictionary. Cambridge University Press.. https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/antisocial (n.d.).

Cameranesi, M. (2016). Battering typologies, attachment insecurity, and personality disorders: A comprehensive literature review. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 28*, 29–46. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2016.03.005

*Cantos, A. L., Kosson, D. S., Goldstein, D. A., & O'Leary, K. D. (2019). Treatment impact on recidivism of family only vs. generally violent partner violence perpetrators. *International Journal of Clinical and Health Psychology, 19*(3), 171–180. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijchp.2019.05.002

Capaldi, D. M., & Kim, H. K. (2007). Typological approaches to violence in couples: A critique and alternative conceptual approach. *Clinical Psychology Review, 27*(3), 253–265. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2006.09.001

[13] Note: The full reference list, including the 215 articles included in the systematic review is available in Supplemental Material 2.

[14] Note: *Articles included in the systematic review.

*Carbajosa, P., Catalá-Miñana, A., Lila, M., & Gracia, E. (2017). Differences in treatment adherence, program completion, and recidivism among batterer subtypes. *European Journal of Psychology Applied to Legal Context, 9*(2), 93–101. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejpal.2017.04.001

*Carbajosa, P., Catalá-Miñana, A., Lila, M., Gracia, E., & Boira, S. (2017). Responsive versus treatment-resistant perpetrators in batterer intervention programs: Personal characteristics and stages of change. *Psychiatry, Psychology and Law, 24*(6), 936–950. https://doi.org/10.1080/13218719.2017.1347933

Cavanaugh, M. M., & Gelles, R. J. (2005). The utility of male domestic violence offender typologies: New directions for research, policy, and practice. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 20*(2), 155–166. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260504268763

*Chambers, A. L., & Wilson, M. N. (2007). Assessing male batterers with the personality assessment inventory. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 88*(1), 57–65. https://doi.org/10.1080/00223890709336835

*Chase, K. A., O'Leary, K. D., & Heyman, R. E. (2001). Categorizing partner-violent men within the reactive–proactive typology model. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 69*(3), 567–572. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-006X.69.3.567

Cheng, S.-Y., Davis, M., Jonson-Reid, M., & Yaeger, L. (2021). Compared to what? A meta-analysis of batterer intervention studies using nontreated controls or comparisons. *Trauma, Violence & Abuse, 22*(3), 496–511. https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838019865927

*Chiffriller, S. H., & Hennessy, J. J. (2006). Male batterer profiles: Support for an empirically generated typology. *Journal of Offender Rehabilitation, 44*(2–3), 117–131. https://doi.org/10.1300/J076v44n02_05

*Chopin, J., Fortin, F., Paquette, S., Guay, J.-P., Péloquin, O., & Chartrand, E. (2025). Violent partners or a specific class of offenders? A criminal career approach to understanding men involved in intimate partner sexual violence. *Sexual Abuse, 37*(2), 153–180. https://doi.org/10.1177/10790632231224356

Conroy, N. E., Crowley, C. G., & DeSanto, D. L. (2024). Assessing the state of empirical research on Johnson's typology of violence: A systematic review. *Journal of Family Violence, 39*(1), 23–45. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-022-00416-3

Corporation for Digital Scholarship. Zotero. USA. https://www.zotero.org (n.d.).

*Crossman, K. A., Hardesty, J. L., & Raffaelli, M. (2016). "He could scare me without laying a hand on me": Mothers' experiences of nonviolent coercive control during marriage and after separation. *Violence Against Women, 22*(4), 454–473. https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801215604744

*Cunha, O., & Gonçalves, R. A. (2013). Intimate partner violence offenders: Generating a data-based typology of batterers and implications for treatment. *The European Journal of Psychology Applied to Legal Context, 5*(2), 131–139. https://doi.org/10.5093/ejpalc2013a2

*Cunningham, M., & Anderson, K. L. (2024). Union status, union dissolution, and intimate partner violence: Investigating Johnson's typology among heterosexual dating, cohabiting, and married couples. *Journal of Family Violence, 39*(1), 91–103. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-022-00448-9

*Dawson, M., & Piscitelli, A. (2021). Risk factors in domestic homicides: Identifying common clusters in the Canadian context. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 36*(1–2), 781–792. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260517729404

*de la Osa-Subtil, I., Arias Astray, A., Mateo Fernandez, P. V., & de Dios-Duarte, M. J. (2024). IPVAW male perpetrators convicted in Spain: A typology and characterization based on latent class analysis. *Frontiers in Psychology, 15*(1353809), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2024.1353809

*Delsol, C., Margolin, G., & John, R. S. (2003). A typology of maritally violent men and correlates of violence in a community sample. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 65*(3), 635–651. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3737.2003.00635.x

Dixon, L., & Browne, K. (2003). The heterogeneity of spouse abuse: A review. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 8*(1), 107–130. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1359-1789(02)00104-0

*Dixon, L., Hamilton-Giachritsis, C., & Browne, K. (2008). Classifying partner femicide. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 23*(1), 74–93. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260507307652

*Dutton, D. G. (2006). *The abusive personality: Violence and control in intimate relationships.* Guilford Publications.

*Eckhardt, C., Holtzworth-Munroe, A., Norlander, B., Sibley, A., & Cahill, M. (2008). Readiness to change, partner violence subtypes, and treatment outcomes among men in treatment for partner assault. *Violence and Victims, 23*(4), 446–475. https://doi.org/10.1891/0886-6708.23.4.446

*Eckhardt, C. I., Samper, R. E., & Murphy, C. M. (2008). Anger disturbances among perpetrators of intimate partner violence: Clinical characteristics and outcomes of court-mandated treatment. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 23*(11), 1600–1617. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260508314322

*Elbow, M. (1977). Theoretical considerations of violent marriages. *Social Casework, 58*(9), 515–526. https://doi.org/10.1177/104438947705800901

*Elisha, E., Idisis, Y., Timor, U., & Addad, M. (2010). Typology of intimate partner homicide: Personal, interpersonal, and environmental characteristics of men who murdered their female intimate partner. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology, 54*(4), 494–516. https://doi.org/10.1177/0306624X09338379

*Ennis, L., Toop, C., Jung, S., & Bois, S. (2017). Instrumental and reactive intimate partner violence: Offender characteristics, reoffense rates, and risk management. *Journal of Threat Assessment and Management, 4*(2), 61–76. https://doi.org/10.1037/tam0000080

*Faulk, M. (1974). Men who assault their wives. *Medicine, Science and the Law, 14*(3), 180–183. https://doi.org/10.1177/002580247401400307

*Fowler, K. A., & Westen, D. (2011). Subtyping male perpetrators of intimate partner violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 26*(4), 607–639. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260510365853

*Freeman, C. R. (1999). Personality subtypes and differential treatment progress in men charged with domestic violence [Doctoral dissertation, University of Miami]. https://www.proquest.com/docview/304517217/abstract/6E133E5E235D4502PQ/1.

*Frías, S. M. (2022). Intimate partner violence dynamics and help seeking among Mexican women: Results from a 2016 national household survey. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 37*(5–6), 2681–2704. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260520938502

*Friend, D. J., Cleary Bradley, R. P., & Gottman, J. M. (2017). Displayed affective behavior between intimate partner violence types during non-violent conflict discussions. *Journal of Family Violence, 32*(5), 493–504. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-016-9870-7

*Friend, D. J., Cleary Bradley, R. P., Thatcher, R., & Gottman, J. M. (2011). Typologies of intimate partner violence: Evaluation of a screening instrument for differentiation. *Journal of Family Violence, 26*(7), 551–563. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-011-9392-2

Giesbrecht, C. J. (2022). Intimate partner violence, animal maltreatment, and concern for animal safekeeping: A survey of survivors who owned pets and livestock. *Violence Against Women, 28*(10), 2334–2358. https://doi.org/10.1177/10778012211034215

Giesbrecht, C. J., & Bruer, K. C. (2023). A systematic review of typologies of perpetrators of intimate partner violence. Registration number CRD42023452469. PROSPERO. https://www.crd.york.ac.uk/prospero/display_record.php?ID=CRD42023452469.

Giesbrecht, C. J., Fletcher, A. J., & Wuerch, M. A. (2025). Intimate partner violence, animal maltreatment, and barriers to safety for survivors with companion animals and livestock: Findings from a qualitative study. *Violence Against Women, 31*(2), 421–448. https://doi.org/10.1177/10778012231208985

*Giesbrecht, C. J., Keown, L. A., & Bruer, K. C. (2025). A new typology of men who perpetrate intimate partner violence: Differentiating perpetrators based on criminal history and antisocial attitudes. *Criminal Justice and Behavior, 2*(12), 1873–1892. https://doi.org/10.1177/00938548251362812

Giesbrecht, C. J., Keown, L. A., & Bruer, K. C. (In press). Treatment and recidivism outcomes for perpetrators of intimate partner violence: A systematic review of typology research. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse.*

*Gilchrist, E., Johnson, R., Takriti, R., Weston, S., Beech, A., & Kebbell, M. (2003). *Domestic violence offenders: Characteristics and offending related needs*. Home Office, Government of the United Kingdom. https://reducingtherisk.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/2021/09/Offender_profile_Home_Office.pdf.

*González-Álvarez, J. L., Santos-Hermoso, J., Soldino, V., & Carbonell-Vayá, E. J. (2022). Male perpetrators of intimate partner violence against women: A Spanish typology. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 37*(13–14), 11761–11790. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260521997442

*González-Álvarez, J. L., Soldino, V., Santos-Hermoso, J., & Carbonell-Vayá, E. J. (2024). Risk posed by different intimate partner violence offender types: Findings from a representative police sample. *Crime & Delinquency, 70*(4), 1224–1248. https://doi.org/10.1177/00111287221120184

*Gottman, J. M., Jacobson, N. S., Rushe, R. H., & Shortt, J. W. (1995). The relationship between heart rate reactivity, emotionally aggressive behavior, and general violence in batterers. *Journal of Family Psychology, 9*(3), 227–248. https://doi.org/10.1037/0893-3200.9.3.227

*Graham-Kevan, N., & Archer, J. (2003). Intimate terrorism and common couple violence: A test of Johnson's predictions in four British samples. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 18*(11), 1247–1270. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260503256656

*Graham-Kevan, N., & Archer, J. (2008). Does controlling behavior predict physical aggression and violence to partners? *Journal of Family Violence, 23*(7), 539–548. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-008-9162-y

*Hamberger, L. K., & Hastings, J. E. (1986). Personality correlates of men who abuse their partners: A cross-validation study. *Journal of Family Violence, 1*(4), 323–341. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00978276

*Hamberger, L. K., Lohr, J. M., Bonge, D., & Tolin, D. F. (1996). A large sample empirical typology of male spouse abusers and its relationship to dimensions of abuse. *Violence and Victims, 11*(4), 277–292. https://doi.org/10.1891/0886-6708.11.4.277

*Hardesty, J. L., Crossman, K. A., Haselschwerdt, M. L., Raffaelli, M., Ogolsky, B. G., & Johnson, M. P. (2015). Toward a standard approach to operationalizing coercive control and classifying violence types: Operationalizing control and classifying violence. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 77*(4), 833–843. https://doi.org/10.1111/jomf.12201

Hare, R. D. (1999). *Without conscience: The disturbing world of the psychopaths among us.* Guilford Press.

*Herrero, J., Torres, A., Fernández-Suárez, A., & Rodríguez-Díaz, F. J. (2016). Generalists versus specialists: Toward a typology of batterers in prison. *The European Journal of Psychology Applied to Legal Context, 8*(1), 19–26. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejpal.2015.09.002

*Hershorn, M., & Rosenbaum, A. (1991). Over- vs. undercontrolled hostility: Application of the construct to the classification of maritally violent men. *Violence and Victims, 6*(2), 151–158. https://doi.org/10.1891/0886-6708.6.2.151

Holtzworth-Munroe, A., & Meehan, J. C. (2004). Typologies of men who are maritally violent: Scientific and clinical implications. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 19*(12), 1369–1389. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260504269693

*Holtzworth-Munroe, A., Meehan, J. C., Herron, K., Rehman, U., & Stuart, G. L. (2000). Testing the Holtzworth-Munroe and Stuart (1994) batterer typology. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 68*(6), 1000–1019. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-006X.68.6.1000

*Holtzworth-Munroe, A., Meehan, J. C., Herron, K., Rehman, U., & Stuart, G. L. (2003). Do subtypes of maritally violent men continue to differ over time? *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 71*(4), 728–740. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-006X.71.4.728

*Holtzworth-Munroe, A., & Stuart, G. L. (1994). Typologies of male batterers: Three subtypes and the differences among them. *Psychological Bulletin, 116*(3), 476–497. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.116.3.476
*Huss, M. T. (2000). The utility of batterer typologies and the construct of psychopathy in domestic violence perpetrators [Doctoral dissertation, The University of Nebraska - Lincoln]. https://www.proquest.com/dissertations-theses/utility-batterer-typologies-construct-psychopathy/docview/304615893/se-2.
*Huss, M. T., & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, J. (2006). Assessing the generalization of psychopathy in a clinical sample of domestic violence perpetrators. *Law and Human Behavior, 30*(5), 571–586. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10979-006-9052-x
*Jacobson, N. S., & Gottman, J. M. (1998). *When men batter women: New insights into ending abusive relationships*. Simon and Schuster.
*Johnson, M. P. (1995). Patriarchal terrorism and common couple violence: Two forms of violence against women. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 57*(2), 283–294. https://doi.org/10.2307/353683
*Johnson, M. P. (2006). Conflict and control: Gender symmetry and asymmetry in domestic violence. *Violence Against Women, 12*(11), 1003–1018. https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801206293328
*Johnson, M. P., Leone, J. M., & Xu, Y. (2014). Intimate terrorism and situational couple violence in general surveys: Ex-spouses required. *Violence Against Women, 20*(2), 186–207. https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801214521324
*Johnson, R., Gilchrist, E., Beech, A. R., Weston, S., Takriti, R., & Freeman, R. (2006). A psychometric typology of U.K. domestic violence offenders. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 21*(10), 1270–1285. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260506291655
*Johnson, R. R., & Goodlin-Fahncke, W. (2015). Exploring the effect of arrest across a domestic batterer typology: Arrest across batterer typology. *Juvenile and Family Court Journal, 66*(1), 15–30. https://doi.org/10.1111/jfcj.12024
*Johnson, M. P., & Leone, J. M. (2005). The differential effects of intimate terrorism and situational couple violence: Findings from the National Violence against Women Survey. *Journal of Family Issues, 26*(3), 322–349. https://doi.org/10.1177/0192513X04270345
*Kelly, J. B., & Johnson, M. P. (2008). Differentiation among types of intimate partner violence: Research update and implications for interventions. *Family Court Review, 46*(3), 476–499. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-1617.2008.00215.x
*Kerry, G. P. (2001). Understanding and predicting intimate femicide: An analysis of men who kill their intimate female partners [Doctoral dissertation, Carleton University]. https://www.proquest.com/pqdtglobal/docview/304688499/3F9C9A2C9ED544EDPQ.
*Langhinrichsen-Rohling, J., Huss, M. T., & Ramsey, S. (2000). The clinical utility of batterer typologies. *Journal of Family Violence, 15*(1), 37–53. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1007597319826
*LaViolette, A. (2009). Assessing intimate partner violence: A context sensitive aggression scale. *Journal of Child Custody, 6*(3–4), 219–231. https://doi.org/10.1080/15379410903084665
*Lee, H.-S., Cantos, A., Mach, J., & Wolff, J. (2018). Proactive versus reactive perpetrators: Aggression and intimate partner violence. *Partner Abuse, 9*(2), 103–117. https://doi.org/10.1891/1946-6560.9.2.103
*Leone, J. M., Johnson, M. P., & Cohan, C. L. (2007). Victim help seeking: Differences between intimate terrorism and situational couple violence. *Family Relations, 56*(5), 427–439. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3729.2007.00471.x
*Leone, J. M., Johnson, M. P., Cohan, C. L., & Lloyd, S. E. (2004). Consequences of male partner violence for low-income minority women. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 66*(2), 472–490. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3737.2004.00032.x
*Loinaz, I. (2014). Typologies, risk and recidivism in partner-violent men with the B-SAFER: A pilot study. *Psychology, Crime & Law, 20*(2), 183–198. https://doi.org/10.1080/1068316X.2013.770854
*Loinaz, I., Ortiz-Tallo, M., & Ferragut, M. (2012). MCMI-III Grossman personality facets among partner-violent men in prison. *International Journal of Clinical and Health Psychology, 12*(3), 389–404. https://www.redalyc.org/pdf/337/33723713002.pdf.
*Mach, J. L. (2015). The impact of internal and external factors on the completion of a partner abuse intervention program [Master's thesis, Rosalind Franklin University of Medicine and Science]. https://www.proquest.com/docview/1746682688/abstract/A2848A649A264A61PQ/1.
*Mach, J. L. (2018). Psychopathy, stake in conformity, and ethnicity: Differentiating perpetrators of intimate partner violence from other criminal offenders [Doctoral dissertation, Rosalind Franklin University of Medicine and Science]. https://www.proquest.com/pqdtglobal/docview/2054025711/abstract/47F7DD523EB24213PQ/1.
*Mach, J. L., Cantos, A. L., Weber, E. N., & Kosson, D. S. (2020). The impact of perpetrator characteristics on the completion of a partner abuse intervention program. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 35*(23–24), 5228–5254. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260517719904
*Macmillan, R., & Gartner, R. (1999). When she brings home the bacon: Labor-force participation and the risk of spousal violence against women. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 61*(4), 947–958. https://doi.org/10.2307/354015
*Maiuro, R. D., Cahn, T. S., Vitaliano, P. P., Wagner, B. C., & Zegree, J. B. (1988). Anger, hostility, and depression in domestically violent versus generally assaultive men and nonviolent control subjects. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 56*(1), 17–23. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-006X.56.1.17
*McKay, T., Tueller, S., Landwehr, J., & Johnson, M. P. (2022). Types of partner violence in couples affected by incarceration: Applying Johnson's typology to understand the couple-level context for violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 37*(9–10), 8056–8087. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260520971266
*Moffitt, T. E., Krueger, R. F., Caspi, A., & Fagan, J. (2000). Partner abuse and general crime: How are they the same? How are they different? *Criminology, 38*(1), 199–232. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-9125.2000.tb00888.x
*Monson, C. M., & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, J. (1998). Sexual and nonsexual marital aggression. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 3*(4), 369–389. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1359-1789(97)00005-0
*Monson, C. M., & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, J. (2002). Sexual and nonsexual dating violence perpetration: Testing an integrated perpetrator typology. *Violence and Victims, 17*(4), 403–428. https://doi.org/10.1891/vivi.17.4.403.33684
*Mott-McDonald Associates, Inc.. (1979). *The report from the conference on intervention programs for men who batter*. Special Programs Division, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration.
*Mowat-Leger, V. (2001). Risk factors for violence: A comparison of domestic batterers and other violent and non-violent offenders [Doctoral dissertation, Carleton University]. https://www.proquest.com/pqdtglobal/docview/304807510/E2FBD562A06E4865PQ/1.
*Murphy, C. M., Taft, C. T., & Eckhardt, C. I. (2007). Anger problem profiles among partner violent men: Differences in clinical presentation and treatment outcome. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 54*(2), 189–200. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.54.2.189
*Nawaz, B., & Johnson, M. P. (2024). Types of domestic violence in Pakistan: Elaborating on Johnson's typology. *Journal of Family Violence, 39*(1), 133–141. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-022-00420-7
Nichols, S. R., & Slep, A. M. S. (2022). Domestic violence: Intimate partner violence, child maltreatment, and co-occurrence. In C. Garofalo, & J. J. Sijtsema (Eds.), *Clinical forensic psychology: Introductory perspectives on offending* (pp. 461–476). Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-80882-2_24.
*Nielsen, S. K., Hardesty, J. L., & Raffaelli, M. (2016). Exploring variations within situational couple violence and comparisons with coercive controlling violence and no violence/no control. *Violence Against Women, 22*(2), 206–224. https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801215599842
*Ontiveros, G., Cantos, A., & O'Leary, K. D. (2023). Differences among perpetrators of intimate partner violence utilizing proactive versus reactive aggression. *Behavioral Psychology/Psicología Conductual, 30*(3), 501–523. https://doi.org/10.51668/bp.8323304n
*Péloquin, O., Chopin, J., Fortin, F., Guay, J.-P., Chartrand, E., & Paquette, S. (2024). One size doesn't fit all: An exploratory typological approach to understanding criminal career heterogeneity in intimate partner homicide. *Criminal Justice and Behavior, 51*(11), 1734–1754. https://doi.org/10.1177/00938548241257604
Pence, E., & Paymar, M. (1993). *Education groups for men who batter: The Duluth model*. Springer.
*Peters, J. R., Nunes, K. L., Ennis, L., Hilton, N. Z., Pham, A., & Jung, S. (2023). Latent class analysis of the heterogeneity of intimate partner violent men: Implications for research and practice. *Journal of Threat Assessment and Management, 10*(3), 202–219. https://doi.org/10.1037/tam0000192
*Petersson, J., & Strand, S. (2017). Recidivism in intimate partner violence among antisocial and family-only perpetrators. *Criminal Justice and Behavior, 44*(11), 1477–1495. https://doi.org/10.1177/0093854817719916
*Petersson, J., Strand, S., & Selenius, H. (2019). Risk factors for intimate partner violence: A comparison of antisocial and family-only perpetrators. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 34*(2), 219–239. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260516640547
Petersson, J., & Strand, S. J. M. (2020). Family-only perpetrators of intimate partner violence: A systematic review. *Trauma, Violence & Abuse, 21*(2), 367–381. https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838018770410
Qualtrics. (2020). USA https://www.qualtrics.com.
*Redondo, N., Cantos, A. L., Graña, J. L., Muñoz-Rivas, M. J., & O'Leary, K. D. (2019). Treatment-induced changes in undercontrolled and overcontrolled anger subtypes of perpetrators of intimate partner violence and 5-year recidivism. *Criminal Justice and Behavior, 46*(12), 1700–1718. https://doi.org/10.1177/0093854819879201
*Rode, D. (2010). Typology of perpetrators of domestic violence. *Polish Psychological Bulletin, 41*(1), 36–45. https://doi.org/10.2478/s10059-010-0005-3
*Rode, D., & Marganski, A. J. (2014). Psychopathology of family violence perpetrators: The personality categorization of perpetrators. *Current Issues in Personality Psychology, 2*(2), 103–117. https://doi.org/10.5114/cipp.2014.44306
*Romero-Martínez, Á., Lila, M., Gracia, E., Martín-Fernández, M., & Moya-Albiol, L. (2021). Generally antisocial batterers with high neuropsychological deficits present lower treatment compliance and higher recidivism. *Psychology of Violence, 11*(3), 318–328. https://doi.org/10.1037/vio0000296
*Ronkowski, F. A. (2005). Do batterers' perceptions of procedural justice predict readiness to change? [Doctoral dissertation, La Salle university]. https://www.proquest.com/pqdtglobal/docview/305345750/abstract/3672617E639D4FC0PQ/1.
*Santos-Hermoso, J., González-Álvarez, J. L., Alcázar-Córcoles, M.Á., & Carbonell-Vayá, E. J. (2024). Intimate partner homicide against women typology: Risk factor interaction in Spain. *European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research, 30*, 521–543. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10610-022-09517-7
*Sartin, R. M. (2004). Characteristics associated with domestic violence perpetration: An examination of factors related to treatment response and the utility of a batterer typology [Doctoral dissertation, The University of Nebraska - Lincoln]. https://www.proquest.com/docview/305162329/abstract/E4F73823D6C74A52PQ/1.
*Saunders, D. G. (1992). A typology of men who batter: Three types derived from cluster analysis. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 62*(2), 264–275. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0079333
Schechter, S. (1982). *Women and male violence: The visions and struggles of the battered women's movement*. South End Press.
*Scott, R. L., Flowers, J. V., Bulnes, A., Olmsted, E., & Carbajal-Madrid, P. (2009). English-speaking and Spanish-speaking domestic violence perpetrators: An MMPI-2 assessment. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 24*(11), 1859–1874. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260508325487

*Serie, C. M. B., van Tilburg, C. A., van Dam, A., & de Ruiter, C. (2017). Spousal assaulters in outpatient mental health care: The relevance of structured risk assessment. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 32*(11), 1658–1677. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260515589932

*Shefferman, L. (2006). The relationship of male socialization and personality pathology in male batterer subtypes [Doctoral dissertation, Texas A&M University]. https://www.proquest.com/pqdtglobal/docview/304932817/abstract/A63C286D74FA4AD6PQ/1.

*Shields, N. M., McCall, G. J., & Hanneke, C. R. (1988). Patterns of family and nonfamily violence: Violent husbands and violent men. *Violence and Victims, 3*(2), 83–97. https://doi.org/10.1891/0886-6708.3.2.83

*Smith, A. L. (2023). Intimate partner violence among military spouses: A qualitative study of power and control in context [Doctoral dissertation, University of Kansas]. https://www.proquest.com/pqdtglobal/docview/2863620558/abstract/91C8B1C8AB854A0CPQ/1.

*Stalans, L. J., & Seng, M. (2007). Identifying subgroups at high risk of dropping out of domestic batterer treatment: The buffering effects of a high school education. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology, 51*(2), 151–169. https://doi.org/10.1177/0306624X06290204

*Stanford, M. S., Houston, R. J., & Baldridge, R. M. (2008). Comparison of impulsive and premeditated perpetrators of intimate partner violence. *Behavioral Sciences & the Law, 26*(6), 709–722. https://doi.org/10.1002/bsl.808

Stark, E. (1995). Re-presenting woman battering: From battered woman syndrome to coercive control. *Albany Law Review, 58*(4), 973–1026. https://heinonline.org/HOL/LandingPage?handle=hein.journals/albany58&div=38&id=&page=.

*Steinmetz, S. K. (1979). Wife beating: A critique and reformulation of existing theory. *The Bulletin of the American Academy of Psychiatry and the Law*, 322–334.

*Stoops, C. I. (2003). Testing of a behavior-based typology of men who batter within an urban criminal justice sample [Doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois at Chicago]. https://www.proquest.com/docview/305243349/abstract/B47F8454504849DCPQ/1.

*Strang, T. R. (1994). *A study of internalized shame and adult models of attachment in two samples of male batterers*. Michigan State University. https://doi.org/10.25335/M5K35MM18 (Doctoral dissertation).

*Tanskanen, M., & Aaltonen, M. (2022). Social correlates of specialized versus versatile offending patterns in intimate partner violence: A register-based study in Finland. *Journal of Criminal Justice, 81*(101921), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcrimjus.2022.101921

*Teva, I., Hidalgo-Ruzzante, N., Pérez-García, M., & Bueso-Izquierdo, N. (2021). Characteristics of childhood family violence experiences in Spanish batterers. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 36*(23–24), 11212–11235. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260519898436

*Theobald, D., Farrington, D. P., Coid, J. W., & Piquero, A. R. (2016a). A longitudinal analysis of the criminal careers of intimate partner violence offender subtypes: Results from a prospective survey of males. *Violence and Victims, 31*(6), 999–1020. https://doi.org/10.1891/0886-6708.VV-D-14-00194

*Theobald, D., Farrington, D. P., Coid, J. W., & Piquero, A. R. (2016b). Are male perpetrators of intimate partner violence different from convicted violent offenders? Examination of psychopathic traits and life success in males from a community survey. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 31*(9), 1687–1718. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260515569061

*Thijssen, J., & de Ruiter, C. (2011). Identifying subtypes of spousal assaulters using the B-SAFER. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 26*(7), 1307–1321. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260510369129

*Tweed, R. G., & Dutton, D. G. (1998). A comparison of impulsive and instrumental subgroups of batterers. *Violence and Victims, 13*(3), 217–230. https://doi.org/10.1891/0886-6708.13.3.217

Veritas Health Innovation. (2023). Covidence systematic review software. Australia. https://www.covidence.org/.

*Vignola-Lévesque, C., & Léveillée, S. (2022). Intimate partner violence and intimate partner homicide: Development of a typology based on psychosocial characteristics. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 37*(17–18), 15874–15898. https://doi.org/10.1177/08862605211021989

*Vilhauer, J. S. (2003). A theoretical batterer typology within Adler's model of personality development [Doctoral dissertation, Fordham University]. https://www.proquest.com/pqdtglobal/docview/305326382/abstract/733A58C7BD414C64PQ/1.

Walker, L. E. (1979). *The battered woman*. Harper & Row Publishers, Inc.

*Walsh, Z., Swogger, M. T., O'Connor, B. P., Chatav Schonbrun, Y., Shea, M. T., & Stuart, G. L. (2010). Subtypes of partner violence perpetrators among male and female psychiatric patients. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 119*(3), 563–574. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0019858

*Waltz, J., Babcock, J. C., Jacobson, N. S., & Gottman, J. M. (2000). Testing a typology of batterers. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 68*(4), 658–669. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-006X.68.4.658

*Weber, T., & Bouman, Y. H. A. (2020). Intimate partner violence: Variations in perpetrators and treatment allocation. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 35*(3–4), 1012–1034. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260517692994

*Wexler, A. F. (2000). Can typologies of male batterers be generalized to populations of federal inmates? [Master's thesis, Carleton University]. https://repository.library.carleton.ca/downloads/p8418n51k.

*White, R. J. (2000). Self-reported woman battering, personality characteristics and substance abuse of low security federal prison inmates [Doctoral dissertation, Indiana University of Pennsylvania]. https://www.proquest.com/dissertations-theses/self-reported-woman-battering-personality/docview/304639021/se-2.

*White, R. J., & Gondolf, E. W. (2000). Implications of personality profiles for batterer treatment. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 15*(5), 467–488. https://doi.org/10.1177/088626000015005002

*Willie, T. C., Katague, M., Halim, N., & Gupta, J. (2022). Latent classes of men's intimate partner violence perpetration and attitudes towards gender norms: A UN multi-country, cross-sectional study in Asia and the Pacific. *PLoS One, 17*(9), Article e0264156. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0264156

*Ziegler, E. (2005). *Creation and validation of an instrument to differentiate batterer typology based on psychopathy, frequency/severity, and generality of violence* [Doctoral dissertation, Alliant International University - Fresno] https://www.proquest.com/pqdtglobal/docview/305340593/abstract/B4F095122B1A4393PQ/1.