

HHS Public Access

Author manuscript J Womens Health (Larchmt). Author manuscript; available in PMC 2019 May 01.

Published in final edited form as:

J Womens Health (Larchmt). 2018 May ; 27(5): 607-614. doi:10.1089/jwh.2017.6402.

Healthcare Access and Cancer Screening among Victims of Intimate Partner Violence

Greta M. Massetti, Ph.D.¹, Julie S. Townsend, M.S.¹, Cheryll C. Thomas, M.P.H.¹, Kathleen C. Basile, Ph.D.², and Lisa C. Richardson, M.D., M.P.H.¹

¹National Center for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention

²National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention

Abstract

Background—Intimate partner violence (IPV) victims often experience substantial and persistent mental and physical health problems, including increased risk for chronic disease and barriers to healthcare access. This study investigated the association between IPV and cancer screening.

Methods—Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS) data from the eight states and one U.S. territory that administered the optional IPV module in 2006 were analyzed to examine demographic characteristics, health behaviors, health status, healthcare coverage, use of health services, and cancer screening among men and women who reported IPV victimization compared to men and women who did not. IPV victimization included physical violence, threats, and sexual violence.

Results—In the 9 jurisdictions that administered the IPV module, 23.6% of women and 11.3% of men experienced IPV. Fewer women and men reporting IPV victimization had health insurance, a personal doctor or healthcare provider, or regular checkups within the past two years compared to non-victims. More male and female IPV victims were current tobacco users and engaged in binge drinking in the past month. IPV victims of both sexes also had poorer health status, lower life satisfaction, less social and emotional support, and more days with poor physical and mental health in the past month than non-victims. IPV victimization was associated with lower rates of mammography and colorectal cancer screening but not cervical cancer screening in women and was not associated with colorectal cancer screening in men. In multivariable logistic regression results presented as adjusted proportions controlling for demographics, health status, and healthcare access, only the association with mammography screening remained significant, and the magnitude of this association was modest.

Conclusions—There were consistent differences between IPV victims and non-victims in nearly every measure of healthcare access, health status, and preventive service use. Much of this association seems explained by population characteristics associated with both IPV and lower use

Disclosure: The authors report no conflicts of interest.

Contact information: 4770 Buford Hwy, NE MS F-76, Atlanta, GA 30341; (770) 488-3943; gmassetti@cdc.gov. **Reprint address** Greta Massetti, PhD, 4770 Buford Hwy NE MS F76, Atlanta, GA 30341

Keywords

cancer screening; intimate partner violence; preventive services; health disparities

Intimate partner violence (IPV), including physical violence, sexual violence, psychological aggression, and stalking by a current or former spouse or romantic/dating partner, affects millions of Americans.¹ More than one in five women and one in seven men have experienced severe IPV at some point in their lifetime.¹ IPV victims often experience substantial and persistent mental and physical health problems in addition to the increased risk for injury and mortality that are direct consequences of violence.¹ They are at increased risk for sexually transmitted infections and chronic diseases like asthma, cardiovascular disease, gastrointestinal disorders, chronic pain, and other conditions that appear to reflect the effects of chronic stress and other mechanisms on the body's systems.^{2–8} They are also more likely to engage in negative health behaviors such as high-risk sexual behavior, using tobacco and other harmful substances, and unhealthy diet.² These disparities in health status and health behaviors between victims and non-victims can lead to increased risk for chronic diseases like cancer, and constitute barriers in access to healthcare and preventive services.

The mechanisms that underlie the associations between intimate partner violence and poor health, particularly cancer and other chronic diseases are not fully understood. Emerging data suggest victims experience more chronic stress, poorer health behaviors, lower income, and less stable employment than non-victims,¹ creating barriers in access to health care. These barriers in turn can lead to unmet health needs, delays in receiving care, and not obtaining preventive services.

One previous study found female victims of sexual violence were less likely to be up-to-date with breast and colorectal cancer screening.³ This study, however, only focused on sexual violence, not necessarily in the context of an intimate relationship. The prevalence of IPV is significantly greater than for sexual violence, and the risk factors overlap but are not identical.^{1,4,5} Another study looking specifically at preventive services found that female victims of IPV were less likely to have mammography and colorectal cancer screening than non-victims.⁶ This study, however, only focused on women and did not include men. In addition, the study assessed receipt of cancer screening over a lifetime as opposed to being up-to-date on screening. Screening during recommended intervals is important for early detection and improved outcomes.⁷

We examined the association between self-reported IPV victimization and being up-to-date with cancer screening tests recommended by the United States Preventive Services Task Force: breast and cervical cancer for women and colorectal cancer for men and women. In addition, we compared IPV victims and non-victims on demographic characteristics, healthrelated behaviors, health status, and healthcare access, as these factors can act as barriers or facilitators to cancer screening and may help explain associations between IPV and cancer screening. In light of findings from previous studies examining cancer screening and

violence victimization,^{3,6} we hypothesized that victims of partner violence would have lower prevalence of cancer screening and worse access to care than non-victims. We further hypothesized that these associations would predominantly be accounted for by differences in sociodemographic characteristics, health-related behaviors, and health status between victims and non-victims.

Materials and Methods

Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS) data from the 8 states (Arkansas, Hawaii, Louisiana, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, Virginia, and West Virginia) and one U.S. territory (U.S. Virgin Islands) that administered the optional IPV module in the 2006 survey were analyzed. During the 2006 administration, BRFSS collected data from ongoing cross-sectional, state/territory-based random-digit dial telephone surveys concerning health conditions and associated behavioral risk factors among noninstitutionalized U.S. adults with landline telephones (www.cdc.govbrfss/index.htm). The response rate for the 2006 BRFSS administration in the nine jurisdictions that administered the IPV module was 88.2%. Our analysis included 38,317 participants who completed the module.

Intimate partner violence questions

We used the three questions on the BRFSS module that assess IPV victimization to create a combined variable that assesses whether the person had ever been victimized by an intimate partner. IPV victims were those who responded yes to any of the following questions: 1) has an intimate partner ever threatened you with physical violence? This includes threatening to hit, push, kick, or hurt you in any way; 2) Has an intimate partner ever hit, slapped, pushed, kicked, or hurt you in any way?; and 3) Have you ever experienced any unwanted sex by a current or former intimate partner? These questions include threats, physical violence, and sexual violence by an intimate partner.

Cancer screening

We examined the association between IPV status and being up-to-date with the following cancer screening tests: 1) mammography screening in the previous two years for women age 40; 2) Pap test for cervical cancer within the previous three years among women age 18; and 3) colorectal cancer screening using fecal occult blood test within the previous year or endoscopy within the previous five years for men and women age 50. Screening intervals and ages were consistent with recommendations of the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force and other major organizations at the time of the 2006 BRFSS module was administered.^{9–13}

Data analysis

All estimates were weighted to be representative of adult residents (age 18 years) in the jurisdictions that administered the module. We used SAS (SAS Institute, Cary, NC) version 9.3 and SAS-callable SUDAAN version 11 (Research Triangle Institute, Research Triangle Park, NC) to produce estimates that accounted for the complex sampling design of the survey. Differences by IPV victim status and sex were examined for the following demographic characteristics: race/ethnicity, age group, marital status, education level, employment status, and household income. We also examined the following health-related

Massetti et al.

behaviors and health status: body mass index (BMI), tobacco use, binge drinking, leisure time physical activity in the past month, social and emotional support, life satisfaction, health status, and number of days in the past month with poor physical health or mental health. To examine healthcare access, we used the following variables: having a personal doctor or healthcare provider, time since last routine checkup, healthcare coverage, and having a flu shot or mist within the past year.

We categorized all continuous variables and conducted chi square tests to assess significant differences by IPV status for each sex. We then constructed separate multivariable logistic regression models for each cancer screening test by sex. In these models, being up-to-date with the cancer screening test was the dependent variable, IPV victimization was the independent variable, controlling for demographics, health status, and healthcare access. We used the Hosmer-Lemeshow test to assess goodness-of-fit of the logistic regression models and the tests showed no evidence of lack-of-fit. With the exception of insurance status and race/ethnicity in the female colorectal cancer screening model and race/ethnicity in the male colorectal screening model, all the health and demographic variables had p values 0.05 in all models. For the cervical cancer screening model, we collapsed age as 18-44 and 45 and older, to assess whether receipt of Pap test was associated with ages when women typically receive reproductive health services. All estimates of the prevalence of being up-to-date on screening tests were adjusted for demographic characteristics and healthcare access to allow for comparison between IPV victims and those without a history of IPV as if they had the same demographic and health characteristics. This adjustment method uses logistic regression analysis to produce adjusted percentages (predicted marginals), which is a method of standardization that produces a weighted average for each level of the health variable of interest.¹⁴

Results

The prevalence of IPV victimization in the sample from the 9 jurisdictions that completed the BRFSS module was 23.6% for women and 11.3% for men; Table 1 includes descriptive characteristics of the sample by sex and IPV status. Among women who were IPV victims, 75.4% were non-Hispanic white, 22.6% were in the 45–54 years age group, 46.4% were married, 32.7% were high school graduates, 58.9% were employed, and 33.5% had household incomes of \$50,000 or greater. Male IPV victims were 75.5% non-Hispanic white, 24.6% age 35-44 years, 46.8% were married, 29.8% had some college education, 73.9% were employed, and 42.7% had household incomes of \$50,000 or more. Compared with female non-victims, more female IPV victims were American Indian/Alaska Native or Other race, under the age of 55 years, divorced/separated/widowed, single, and members of unmarried couples. Compared with male non-victims, more male victims were non-Hispanic Black, American Indian/Alaska Native, or Other race, younger than age 55 years, and divorced/separated/widowed or members of an unmarried couple. With respect to education, employment, and income, fewer female victims were college graduates, and more female victims were out of work or unable to work and had lower household income. More male victims were out of work or unable to work and had lower household income.

Health behaviors and health status

For both men and women, IPV victims had higher percentages of tobacco use, binge drinking, inconsistent social or emotional support, and low life satisfaction compared to non-victims (Table 2). More male and female IPV victims were in fair or poor health, had five or more days in the past month with poor physical health, and had five or more days in the past month with poor mental health compared to non-victims. Overweight or obesity status or having had leisure time physical activity in the past month did not significantly differ between IPV victims and non-victims.

Healthcare access and cancer screening

Table 2 includes descriptive statistics on healthcare access and use by sex and IPV victimization status. For both men and women, fewer IPV victims had a personal healthcare provider, had a routine checkup within the past year, had healthcare coverage, or had received a flu immunization compared to non-victims. Table 3 shows female IPV victims had lower percentages of mammography screening for breast cancer within the past 2 years (66.3% vs. 76.9%, p < 0.001) and colorectal cancer screening (49.0% vs. 55.0%, p = 0.005) compared to non-victims and non-victims did not differ on receipt of a Pap test in the past three years (p = .589). Colorectal cancer screening was not associated with IPV victimization for men (p = 0.387).

After adjusting for demographic characteristics, health status, and healthcare access, only mammography screening for breast cancer was significantly associated with IPV victimization (72.0% for victims compared to 76.0% for non-victims, p = 0.018; Table 4). IPV victimization was no longer significantly associated with colorectal cancer screening for women (p = 0.340). Similar to the unadjusted model, IPV victimization was not associated with colorectal cancer screening for men or women in the adjusted model (p = 0.246 and p = 0.340, respectively) or cervical cancer screening for women (p = 0.073).

Discussion

To our knowledge, this is the largest population-based study to examine the association between IPV victimization, health status, healthcare access, and cancer screening within the recommended period for women and men. These findings provide some information to explain why IPV is associated with chronic diseases and poor preventive care such as cancer screening. Compared to non-victims, more IPV victims engaged in health behaviors that increased their risk for chronic diseases; had poorer overall health; poorer access to healthcare; and less screening for breast and colorectal cancers among women. IPV victims utilize more health care resources than non-victims, leading to higher health care use and costs for victims.^{15–16} Increased access to preventive services such as cancer screening could help avoid these costs and prevent disease progression and health care costs for IPV victims.⁷ When controlling for differences in demographics, health status, and health access, IPV was only associated with lower rates of mammography, not colorectal cancer screening in women. These findings suggest that demographic and health access factors affect screening practices. Cervical cancer screening among female victims and colorectal cancer screening among male victims were not associated with IPV.

Massetti et al.

Several explanations relating IPV to increased risk of chronic disease have been proposed, including the toxic effects of chronic stress and allostatic load,^{17–19} increased risk from poor health behaviors,^{20–21} and barriers in access to health care,^{6,22–23} among others. Our findings are consistent with these theories as they relate to increased risk for cancer. More than one third of male and female victims were current smokers; fewer than half of both males and females were never smokers. Nearly a third of male victims (29%) had an episode of binge drinking in the past month. Both tobacco and alcohol use increase risk for certain cancers.²⁴ These findings indicate that IPV is associated with increased risk for tobacco and alcohol use that can cause cancer and other chronic diseases. Health status also appears to be associated with both IPV and cancer screening. Victims of both sexes reported poor life satisfaction, fair or poor health, and poor physical and mental health. These indicators of poor mental and physical health status may be amenable to intervention in healthcare and mental health settings. Healthcare access was also an important difference between victims and non-victims. Fewer than half of male victims had a routine checkup in the past year and more than one in five male and female victims had no health insurance. Nearly three in ten male and one in six female victims did not have a healthcare provider, one of the strongest predictors of receiving preventive services. These disparities in health behaviors, status, and access compounded with disparities in screening increase victims' risk for developing cancer and having it detected at later stages leading to worse outcomes.²⁻⁶

Research has shown partner violence can also cause stress response on the body and impair endocrine and immune system functioning, biological mechanisms that can increase cancer risk. This coupled with lower percentages of breast cancer screening can put female IPV victims at increased risk for getting and dying from breast cancer due to later diagnosis, a significant concern considering breast cancer is the leading cause of cancer incidence for women affecting more than 230,000 women annually.²⁵ In our multivariable analyses, only breast cancer screening rates were significantly lower among IPV victims and this difference was modest. The findings that IPV victims had lower rates of mammography are consistent with previous findings that breast cancer screening is lower among victims of sexual violence not necessarily in intimate partner contexts,³ Colorectal cancer screening was lower among IPV victims in bivariate analyses but not significant after controlling for demographic and other variables; this finding indicates these effects were accounted for by demographic, health status, and health access differences between victims and non-victims. In fact, there were consistent differences between victims and non-victims in every measure of lack of healthcare access and poor health status. IPV victims and other high-risk groups likely encounter barriers in access to services and following up on referrals from providers. These factors likely explain the relationship between IPV and colorectal cancer screening among women seen in the bivariate analyses. More targeted strategies to increase access to healthcare services and screening are needed to address both chronic disease and violence victimization and their impacts on health.

Receipt of colorectal cancer screening was relatively low overall, with rates for both men and women around 50%. Since the year these data were collected, federal initiatives and partnership efforts have increased efforts to raise awareness of the need for colorectal cancer screening.²⁶ These efforts have significantly increased population rates of colorectal cancer screening, and continued efforts have the potential to continue this trend.²⁷ Additional data

Massetti et al.

can help shed light on continued disparities in colorectal cancer screening, such as whether IPV victims currently experience lower rates.

There were no differences between IPV victims and non-victims in receipt of cervical cancer screening. This may be due to the fact that cervical cancer screening rates are generally high. IPV victim status does not appear to represent a disparity in receipt of cervical cancer screening, possibly because cervical cancer screening is often provided in a single visit at the same time as other reproductive health services. Therefore, barriers to health care access are less likely to impact receipt of screening than for mammography among women of reproductive age.

Increasing cervical cancer, breast cancer, and colorectal cancer screening are all Healthy People 2020 objectives (www.healthypeople.gov/2020/topics-objectives/topic/cancer/ objectives) and have been included in previous versions. Healthy People provides sciencebased national objectives for improving the health of all Americans. Although the present data predate Healthy People 2020, current national rates indicate targets have still not been met in any of these areas. Efforts to identify women and men who are hard to reach and are in need of screening could include strategies to reach victims of IPV. In particular, community and victim advocacy organizations that provide legal and housing assistance, mental health services, and victim support services could partner with clinics and health system organizations to provide cancer screenings as part of comprehensive health services for victims. CDC funds the National Breast and Cervical Cancer Early Detection Program and the Colorectal Cancer Control Program, which both aim to increase population-level cancer screening rates. CDC also funds the Consortium of National Networks to Impact Tobacco-Related and Cancer Health Disparities (http://www.cdc.gov/cancer/ncccp/ dp13-1314.htm). These organizations are funded to raise awareness about cancer disparities among underserved populations, and to provide technical assistance to organizations which serve victims of partner violence, particularly those with low socioeconomic status and mental health and substance abuse problems. Partnerships across health care and community-based organizations are critical in improving access to preventive services among vulnerable populations and could address barriers in screening among IPV victims.

In addition to recommendations for cancer screening, the USPSTF recommends clinicians screen women of childbearing age for IPV and refer victims to intervention services. Despite this recommendation, there are challenges in integrating IPV screening in primary care settings, as providers are often not trained in addressing issues of violence, not comfortable with the topic, and may be unaware of resources to refer victims.²⁸ It is important to note that just providing a referral to positive-screen IPV victims without additional follow-up or services may be insufficient in improving their health;^{29–30} some evidence suggests facilitating patients' access to resources³¹ or onsite counseling³² is effective in improving health outcomes. Models for integrating trauma-informed care for potential victims in primary care are needed.

There are a number of limitations that must be considered in this study. First, the analyses use older data. However, the data are the only large-scale, population-based assessment of the association of IPV victimization, healthcare access, and cancer screening, so this is

valuable information that begins to shed light on the barriers to health care access and services for victims. Second, only adults with residential landline telephones were included in the BRFSS surveys at the time of this study, and institutionalized adults are not included. Therefore, findings may not be generalizable beyond the sample included in the surveys. Third, the findings are only generalizable to those jurisdictions that participated in the IPV module; national data are not available. Fourth, the questions only include measures of physical and sexual partner violence, and do not assess other forms of partner violence such as psychological threats or emotional abuse. Fifth, the current analysis examines healthcare access and cancer screening among IPV victims, but no information about actual health outcomes such as cancer incidence or deaths is available. Finally, responses are self-reported and may be subject to social desirability or recall bias.

Conclusions

Women who had a history of IPV victimization had lower percentages of breast and colorectal cancer screening than non-victims, whereas no differences were found for cervical cancer screening among women and colorectal cancer screening among men. Victims were also in poorer health and had less healthcare access than non-victims. After controlling for differences in demographics, health status, and healthcare access, differences between victims and non-victims decreased substantially for colorectal cancer screening and remained significant but modest for breast cancer screening. IPV victims represent a population less likely to have ready access to clinics or a provider for preventive care. Reaching IPV victims may require victim advocacy groups and community organizations partnering with health systems to expand the spectrum of services they provide to include cancer screening, IPV screening, and other critical preventive services. These efforts can bring attention to the need for screening and preventive services among victims and establish partnerships to provide continuity of care for victims.

Acknowledgments

The findings and conclusions in this report are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

References

- Breiding MJ. Prevalence and characteristics of sexual violence, stalking, and intimate partner violence victimization—National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey, United States, 2011. Morbidity and mortality weekly report. Surveillance summaries (Washington, DC: 2002). 2014; 63(8):1.
- Silverman JG, Raj A, Clements K. Dating violence and associated sexual risk and pregnancy among adolescent girls in the United States. Pediatrics. 2004; 114(2):e220–e225. [PubMed: 15286260]
- Watson-Johnson LC, Townsend JS, Basile KC, Richardson LC. Cancer screening and history of sexual violence victimization among US adults. Journal of Women's Health. 2012; 21(1):17–25.
- Capaldi DM, Knoble NB, Shortt JW, Kim HK. A Systematic Review of Risk Factors for Intimate Partner Violence. Partner abuse. 2012; 3(2):231–280. [PubMed: 22754606]
- Tharp AT, DeGue S, Valle LA, Brookmeyer KA, Massetti GM, Matjasko JL. A systematic qualitative review of risk and protective factors for sexual violence perpetration. Trauma, violence & abuse. 2013; 14(2):133–167.

- Brown MJ, Weitzen S, Lapane KL. Association between intimate partner violence and preventive screening among women. Journal of Women's Health. 2013; 22(11):947–952.
- Anhang Price R, Zapka J, Edwards H, Taplin SH. Organizational factors and the cancer screening process. Journal of the National Cancer Institute. Monographs. 2010; 2010(40):38–57. [PubMed: 20386053]
- WIngood GM, DiClemente RJ, Raj A. Identifying the prevalence and correlates of STDs among women residing in rural domestic violence shelters. Women Health. 2000; 30(4):15–26. [PubMed: 10983607]
- Force UPST. Screening for breast cancer: recommendations and rationale. Annals of Internal Medicine. 2002; 137(5):344. [PubMed: 12204019]
- Force UPST. Screening for cervical cancer: recommendations and rationale. AJN The American Journal of Nursing. 2003; 103(11):101–109.
- Force UPST. Screening for colorectal cancer: recommendation and rationale. Annals of internal medicine. 2002; 137(2):129. [PubMed: 12118971]
- Smith RA, Cokkinides V, von Exchenbach AC, Levin B, Cohen C, Runowicz CD. American Cancer Society guidelines for the early detection of cancer. CA Cancer Journal for Clinicians. 2002; 52:8–22.
- 13. Gynecologists ACoOa. Guidelines for women's health care. Vol. 2002. Washington, DC: 2002.
- Graubard BI, Korn EL. Predictive margins with survey data. Biometrics. 1999; 55(2):652–659. [PubMed: 11318229]
- Bonomi AE, Anderson ML, Rivara FP, Thompson RS. Health care utilization and costs associated with physical and nonphysical-only intimate partner violence. Health Serv Res. 2009; 44(3):1052– 67. [PubMed: 19674432]
- Rivara FP, Anderson ML, Fishman P, Bonomi AE, Reid RJ, Carrell D, Thompson RS. Healthcare utilization and costs for women with a history of intimate partner violence. Am J Prev Med. 2007; 32(2):89–96. [PubMed: 17234483]
- 17. Brody GH, Lei M-K, Chen E, Miller GE. Neighborhood Poverty and Allostatic Load in African American Youth. Pediatrics. 2014
- Danese A, McEwen BS. Adverse childhood experiences, allostasis, allostatic load, and age-related disease. Physiology & behavior. 2012; 106(1):29–39. [PubMed: 21888923]
- McEwen BS. Stress, adaptation, and disease. Allostasis and allostatic load. Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences. 1998; 840:33–44. [PubMed: 9629234]
- 20. Crane CA, Hawes SW, Weinberger AH. Intimate partner violence victimization and cigarette smoking: a meta-analytic review. Trauma, violence & abuse. 2013; 14(4):305–315.
- Meader N, King K, Moe-Byrne T, et al. A systematic review on the clustering and co-occurrence of multiple risk behaviours. BMC Public Health. 2016; 16(1):657. [PubMed: 27473458]
- Bailey BA, Daugherty RA. Intimate partner violence during pregnancy: incidence and associated health behaviors in a rural population. Maternal and child health journal. 2007; 11(5):495. [PubMed: 17323125]
- Roberts TA, Auinger P, Klein JD. Intimate partner abuse and the reproductive health of sexually active female adolescents. Journal of adolescent health. 2005; 36(5):380–385. [PubMed: 15837341]
- 24. Schottenfeld, D., Fraumeni, JF., editors. Cancer Epidemiology and Prevention. 3. New York, NY: Oxford University Press; 2006.
- 25. Group UCSW. United States cancer statistics: 1999–2013 incidence and mortality web-based report. Atlanta (GA): Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, and National Cancer Institute. 2016
- 26. Thomas CC, Richards TB, Plescia M, et al. CDC Grand Rounds: the future of cancer screening. MMWR. Morbidity and mortality weekly report. 2015; 64(12):324–327. [PubMed: 25837243]
- Sabatino SA, White MC, Thompson TD, Klabunde CN. Cancer screening test use United States, 2013. MMWR. Morbidity and mortality weekly report. 2015; 64(17):464–468. [PubMed: 25950253]

- Sprague S, Madden K, Simunovic N, et al. Barriers to Screening for Intimate Partner Violence. Women & Health. 2012; 52(6):587–605. [PubMed: 22860705]
- 29. Klevens J, Kee R, Trick W, et al. Effect of screening for partner violence on women's quality of life: a randomized controlled trial. Jama. 2012; 308(7):681–689. [PubMed: 22893165]
- Klevens J, Sadowski LS, Kee R, Garcia D, Lokey C. Effect of screening for partner violence on use of health services at 3-year follow-up of a randomized clinical trial. JAMA. 2015; 314(5):515–516. [PubMed: 26241603]
- Miller E, Decker MR, McCauley HL, et al. A family planning clinic partner violence intervention to reduce risk associated with reproductive coercion. Contraception. 2011; 83(3):274–280. [PubMed: 21310291]
- Kiely M, El-Mohandes AA, El-Khorazaty MN, Blake SM, Gantz MG. An integrated intervention to reduce intimate partner violence in pregnancy: a randomized controlled trial. Obstetrics and gynecology. 2010; 115(2 Pt 1):273–283. [PubMed: 20093899]

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics among Intimate Partner Violence Victims (n = 7,216) and Non-victims (n = 31,101) by Sex, 2006 Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System, eight States and one U.S. Territory That Administered the Optional Intimate Partner Violence Module

	Female	е		M	Male	
	IPV $(n = 5,533)$ (n = 1,828,382) weighted)	No IPV (<i>n</i> = 17,676) (<i>n</i> = 5,912,385 weighted)		IPV (<i>n</i> = 1,683) (<i>n</i> = 825,161 weighted)	No IPV (<i>n</i> = 13,425) (<i>n</i> = 6,503,916 weighted)	
	Weighted % (SE)	Weighted % (SE)	Chi-square <i>p</i> value	Weighted % (SE)	Weighted % (SE)	Chi-square <i>p</i> value
Weighted prevalence of IPV history	23.6 (0.5)	76.4 (0.5)		11.3 (0.5)	88.7 (0.5)	
Demographic characteristics						
Race/ethnicity						
White, non-Hispanic	75.4 (1.3)	74.8 (0.7)	< 0.001	75.5 (1.9)	76.5 (0.7)	< 0.001
Black, non-Hispanic	12.2 (1.1)	11.9 (0.5)		11.8 (1.4)	9.0 (0.4)	
American Indian/Alaska Native	1.9(0.3)	0.9(0.1)		1.7 (0.5)	1.1 (0.1)	
Asian/Pacific Islander	2.5 (0.3)	5.2 (0.4)		2.7 (0.5)	4.7 (0.3)	
Hispanic	5.6 (0.7)	5.7 (0.4)		3.9 (0.8)	6.3 (0.5)	
Other/no preference (multi-racial)	2.4 (0.5)	1.5 (0.2)		4.3 (1.0)	2.4 (0.3)	
Age, years						
18–24	15.4 (1.4)	12.1 (0.6)	< 0.001	13.5 (1.7)	14.4~(0.8)	< 0.001
25–34	20.2 (1.0)	16.4 (0.6)		23.0 (1.9)	17.3 (0.7)	
35-44	22.2 (1.0)	18.3 (0.5)		24.6 (2.0)	19.0 (0.6)	
45-54	22.6 (1.1)	18.6 (0.5)		24.4 (2.2)	19.1 (0.5)	
55–64	12.6 (0.6)	15.2 (0.4)		9.8 (1.1)	15.2 (0.5)	
65 or older	7.1 (0.4)	19.4 (0.5)		4.6 (0.6)	14.9 (0.4)	
Marital status						
Married	46.4(1.3)	64.3 (0.7)	< 0.001	46.8 (2.3)	67.3 (0.8)	< 0.001
Divorced/separated/widowed	31.4 (1.2)	18.1 (0.4)		24.7 (1.9)	10.3 (0.4)	
Single, never married	18.1 (1.3)	14.7 (0.6)		22.5 (1.9)	19.5 (0.8)	
Member of unmarried couple	4.2 (0.4)	2.9 (0.3)		(0.0)	2.9 (0.3)	
Education						

	r ciliaic	,			Male	
	IPV $(n = 5,533)$ (n = 1,828,382) weighted)	No IPV (<i>n</i> = 17,676) (<i>n</i> = 5,912,385 weighted)		IPV (<i>n</i> = 1,683) (<i>n</i> = 825,161 weighted)	No IPV (<i>n</i> = 13,425) (<i>n</i> = 6,503,916 weighted)	
	Weighted % (SE)	Weighted % (SE)	Chi-square <i>p</i> value	Weighted % (SE)	Weighted % (SE)	Chi-square <i>p</i> value
Did not graduate high school	9.4 (0.7)	9.3 (0.4)	< 0.001	10.3 (1.2)	10.8 (0.5)	0.105
High school graduate	32.7 (1.4)	30.9 (0.6)		28.2 (1.9)	30.8 (0.7)	
Some college	32.2 (1.2)	25.4 (0.6)		29.8 (2.2)	24.1 (0.7)	
College graduate	25.7 (1.1)	34.4 (0.7)		31.7 (2.3)	34.4 (0.8)	
Employment						
Employed for wages	58.9 (1.3)	53.8 (0.7)	< 0.001	73.9 (1.8)	71.6 (0.7)	< 0.001
Out of work/unable to work	16.2 (1.1)	7.6 (0.3)		15.7 (1.4)	8.0 (0.4)	
Other (student/retired)	24.9 (1.1)	38.6 (0.7)		10.5 (1.2)	20.4 (0.6)	
Household income						
< \$15,000	13.8 (0.7)	7.6 (0.3)	< 0.001	9.6 (1.2)	5.2 (0.3)	0.011
\$15,000-\$34,999	25.7 (1.1)	23.2 (0.5)		22.7 (1.9)	22.0 (0.6)	
\$35,000-\$49,999	14.4(0.8)	13.3 (0.4)		14.2 (1.4)	15.3 (0.5)	
\$50,000	33.5 (1.3)	40.1 (0.7)		42.7 (2.4)	47.2 (0.8)	
Unknown/refused	12.5 (1.0)	15.8 (0.5)		10.7 (1.3)	10.3 (0.5)	

J Womens Health (Larchmt). Author manuscript; available in PMC 2019 May 01.

Massetti et al.

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author I
uthor Manuscript
Author
Author Manuscript

Table 2

Health Behaviors, Health Status, and Access to Healthcare among Intimate Partner Violence Victims and Non-victims by Sex, 2006 Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System, eight States and one U.S. Territory That Administered the Optional Intimate Partner Violence Module

	Female	e		M	Male	
	IPV $(n = 5,533)$ (n = 1,828,382) weighted)	No IPV (<i>n</i> = 17,676) (<i>n</i> = 5,912,385 weighted)		IPV (<i>n</i> = 1,683) (<i>n</i> = 825,161 weighted)	No IPV (<i>n</i> = 13,425) (<i>n</i> = 6,503,916 weighted)	
	Weighted % (SE)	Weighted % (SE)	Chi-square <i>p</i> value	Weighted % (SE)	Weighted % (SE)	Chi-square <i>p</i> value
Health Behaviors and Health Status						
Body Mass Index						
Underweight (<19)	5.0 (0.6)	4.6 (0.4)	0.253	а	а	0.622
Normal weight (19–24.9)	37.8 (1.3)	40.8 (0.7)		а	а	
Overweight (25–29.9)	31.2 (1.3)	29.4 (0.6)		а	а	
Obese (30)	26.0 (1.1)	25.2 (0.6)		27.0 (2.3)	26.8 (0.7)	
Tobacco use						
Current	37.4 (1.4)	15.0 (0.5)	< 0.001	34.9 (2.1)	20.9 (0.6)	< 0.001
Former	21.7 (0.9)	20.5 (0.5)		29.4 (2.3)	28.4 (0.7)	
Never	41.0 (1.3)	64.5 (0.7)		35.7 (2.2)	50.7 (0.8)	
Binge drinking in the past month	13.8 (0.9)	7.8 (0.4)	< 0.001	29.4 (2.0)	18.5 (0.6)	< 0.001
No leisure time physical activity in past month	26.9 (1.1)	26.0 (0.6)	0.493	19.6 (1.5)	22.2 (0.7)	0.126
Social and emotional support						
Always/usually/sometimes	89.1 (0.7)	93.8 (0.3)	< 0.001	86.5 (1.3)	91.5 (0.4)	< 0.001
Rarely/never	10.9 (0.7)	6.2 (0.3)		13.5 (1.3)	8.5 (0.4)	
Life satisfaction						
Very satisfied/Satisfied	87.4 (0.9)	96.9 (0.2)	< 0.001	86.1 (1.3)	96.6 (0.3)	< 0.001
Dissatisfied/Very dissatisfied	12.6 (0.9)	3.1 (0.2)		13.9 (1.3)	3.4 (0.3)	
Health status						
Excellent	46.1 (1.3)	56.6 (0.7)	< 0.001	49.5 (2.3)	55.4 (0.8)	0.023
Good	31.0 (1.3)	28.6 (0.6)		32.7 (2.4)	31.1 (0.8)	
Fair/poor	22.8 (1.1)	14.8 (0.4)		17.8 (1.9)	13.5 (0.4)	

	Female	e		M	Male	
	IPV $(n = 5,533)$ (n = 1,828,382) weighted)	No IPV (<i>n</i> = 17,676) (<i>n</i> = 5,912,385 weighted)		IPV (<i>n</i> = 1,683) (<i>n</i> = 825,161 weighted)	No IPV (<i>n</i> = 13,425) (<i>n</i> = 6,503,916 weighted)	
	Weighted % (SE)	Weighted % (SE)	Chi-square <i>p</i> value	Weighted % (SE)	Weighted % (SE)	Chi-square <i>p</i> value
Number of days in past 30 days physical health was not good						
0	49.6 (1.3)	63.8 (0.7)	< 0.001	61.0 (2.4)	69.3 (0.8)	0.001
1-4	18.6(1.0)	18.0~(0.6)		20.1 (2.4)	16.2 (0.6)	
5 or more	31.8 (1.2)	18.2 (0.5)		18.9 (1.5)	14.5 (0.5)	
Number of days in past 30 days mental health was not good						
0	40.5 (1.3)	65.8 (0.7)	< 0.001	51.8 (2.4)	75.7 (0.8)	< 0.001
1-4	17.8 (1.0)	15.9 (0.6)		17.4 (2.3)	11.0 (0.6)	
5 or more	41.7 (1.3)	18.3 (0.5)		30.7 (2.1)	13.3 (0.6)	
Access to Healthcare						
Has personal healthcare provider	83.1 (1.0)	86.2 (0.5)	0.007	70.3 (2.1)	76.5 (0.7)	0.005
Last routine checkup						
Within past year (1-12 months ago)	63.3 (1.3)	73.2 (0.6)	< 0.001	47.5 (2.3)	(0.9)	< 0.001
Within past 2 years (1–2 years ago)	15.0 (1.1)	13.0 (0.5)		20.9 (2.6)	14.8 (0.5)	
2 years ago / never	21.7 (1.1)	13.8 (0.5)		31.6 (2.0)	24.3 (0.7)	
Has healthcare coverage	79.2 (1.1)	87.0 (0.5)	< 0.001	76.2 (1.8)	85.3 (0.5)	< 0.001
Had flu shot or mist	30.0 (1.2)	37.0 (0.7)	< 0.001	25.5 (1.9)	33.1 (0.7)	< 0.001
IPV = Intimate Partner Violence FOBT = fecal occult blood test Respondents with missing data or who answered don't know or refused are excluded from the denominators. SE, standard error.	refused are excluded fr	om the denomir	lators.			

^aSuppressed because of small sample size.

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Table 3

Cancer Screening Test Use among Intimate Partner Violence Victims and Non-victims by Sex, 2006 Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System, eight States and one U.S. Territory That Administered the Optional Intimate Partner Violence Module

1P7 5,53 1,82	IPV $(n = 1$ 5,533) $(n = 1$ 1,828,382 weighted)	No IPV (<i>n</i> = 17,676) (<i>n</i> = 5,912,385 weighted)		IPV (<i>n</i> = 1,683) (<i>n</i> = 825,161 weighted)	No IPV (<i>n</i> = 13,425) (<i>n</i> = 6,503,916 weighted)	
Wei Cancer Screenings	Weighted V % (SE)	Weighted % Chi-square (SE) <i>p</i> value	Chi-square <i>p</i> value	Weighted % (SE)	Weighted % (SE)	Chi-square <i>p</i> value
Mammography within past 2 years (women aged 40 years, n=16,919) 66.3	66.3 (1.4)	76.9 (0.6)	< 0.001			
Pap test within past 3 years (women aged 18 years, n=16,246) 84.5	84.5 (1.2)	83.8 (0.7)	0.589			
Among women aged 18–44 (n=7,461) 86.4	86.4 (1.6)	85.7 (0.9)	0.709			
Among women aged $45 + (n = 8,785)$ 80.4	80.4 (1.7)	81.0 (0.9)	0.758			
Colorectal cancer screening [men (n=8,050) and women (n=12,277) aged 50 years]						
FOBT in past 12 months or endoscopy in past 5 years	49.0 (2.0)	55.0 (0.9)	0.005	51.8 (4.9)	55.9 (0.9)	0.387

Table 4

Up-To-Date for Recommended Colorectal Cancer Screening, by History of Intimate Partner Violence, 2006 Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System, Adjusted Estimates from Predicted Marginals of Percentage of Women Up-To-Date for Recommended Breast Cancer Screening and Men and Women eight States and one U.S. Territory That Administered the Optional Intimate Partner Violence Module

Massetti et al.

	History of intimate partner violence	No history of intimate partner violence	
Cancer screening test: Percentage up-to-date	Weighted % (SE)	Weighted % (SE) Weighted % (SE) p value	<i>p</i> value
Mammography within previous 2 years among women aged 40 years	72 (2.0)	76 (1.0)	0.018
Pap test within past 3 years	86 (0.01)	83 (0.01)	0.073
Colorectal cancer screening (FOBT in previous 12 months or endoscopy in previous 5 years)			
Among women aged 50 years	56 (2.0)	54 (1.0)	0.340
Amon men aged 50 years	61 (4.0)	56 (1.0)	0.246
IPV = Intimate Partner Violence FOBT = fecal occult blood test			
Models adjusted for demographic characteristics and healthcare access.			

SE, standard error.

Respondents with missing data or who answered don't know or refused are excluded from the denominators.