

An Exploration of the Association Between Stalking
and Intimate Partner Violence

Louise Storrar, BSc (Hons)
(Student ID: 4191306)

Thesis submitted to the University of Nottingham
for the degree of Doctor of Forensic Psychology

Submitted for Examination: April 2017

Abstract

Stalking has been linked to intimate partner violence (IPV) in a number of ways, with some researchers suggesting stalking is part of the cycle of abuse. However, the extent of the association and potential reasons behind the connection are still unknown. The main aim of this thesis is to explore potential explanations for the association between stalking and IPV. Following an introduction in Chapter One, Chapter Two comprises of an empirical research study that examined whether IPV offenders perceive stalking differently to non-IPV offenders and non-offenders. It was hypothesised that IPV offenders may be more likely to engage in stalking due to limited understanding of the behaviours and how serious and harmful they can be. Although the results provided further evidence for the association between IPV and stalking due to the prevalence of stalking within the IPV sample, the primary hypothesis was not supported. This suggests alternative factors may contribute to the connection. Therefore, Chapters Three and Four explore the characteristics of former intimate and non-intimate stalkers. Specifically, Chapter Three comprises of a systematic review exploring the individual and relationship characteristics associated with unwanted pursuit and stalking following the termination of intimate relationships, while Chapter Four presents a case study of a non-intimate stalker. The characteristics identified throughout these studies are compared to the existing literature relating to risk factors for IPV throughout the general discussion of this thesis (Chapter Six), with a number of similarities emerging. Researchers have theorised that attachment may contribute to the connection between stalking and IPV.

Therefore, an appraisal of a popular attachment measure utilised within the case study in Chapter Four is presented in Chapter Five. Finally, Chapter Six draws all of the information in the thesis together, providing an overall discussion of the associations between IPV and stalking, outlining implications for practice and providing suggestions for future research.

Acknowledgements

Firstly, I would like to thank my academic supervisor Dr Simon Duff for all of his support and guidance throughout the past three years. Your patience, expertise, and ideas have been pivotal in the completion of this thesis and I am so grateful for all of your help.

The empirical research study would not have been possible without the permission of HM Prison Service and the cooperation and support of the staff members working within the prison in which data collection was conducted. Specifically, thank you to Carol Bond, Catharine Booth, Gail Derefaka, and Sarah Swift who all provided support and guidance throughout the process. Additionally, I am indebted to Jemma Grigg, who played a vital role in data collection. Furthermore, thanks to all those who participated in the study and 'John' who allowed me to write up our work as a case study.

To the special people in my life, course friends, school friends, but especially my family, I cannot express how grateful I am for all of your love and support and for putting up with me throughout this process (and in general). Special thanks to Louise Wade who helped me so much with my systematic review as well as easing my anxieties throughout the completion of this thesis. Finally, to my mum and dad, there are no words to express how thankful I am for your support and how much appreciation I have for all you have done for me. I genuinely could not have done it without you. Thank you, thank you, thank you!

Table of Contents

Abstract	i
Acknowledgements	iii
Table of Contents	iv
List of Tables and Figures	viii
List of Appendices	ix
Overview	x
Chapter One: Introduction to Thesis.....	1
Definition of Stalking	1
IPV and Intimate Partner Stalking.....	2
IPV and Non-Intimate Partner Stalking	5
Theoretical Links	6
Thesis Structure	8
Chapter Two: The Influence of Intimate Partner Violence on	
Perceptions of Stalking.....	11
Abstract	11
Introduction.....	12
Prevalence of Stalking.....	12
Impact of Stalking	12
Perceptions of Stalking.....	13
Stalking and Intimate Partner Violence.....	14
Method.....	15
Participants	15

Materials	16
Procedure.....	20
Ethical Considerations	21
Results.....	22
Exploration of the Assumptions of Parametric Testing	22
Demographic Analyses	23
Between-Group Differences	24
Discussion	31

Chapter Three: Individual and Relationship Characteristics

Associated with Stalking and Unwanted Pursuit Following the

Termination of Intimate Relationships: A Systematic Review.....

Abstract	40
Introduction.....	42
Background	42
Current Review	45
Method.....	45
Search Strategy	45
Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria.....	46
Study Selection	49
Quality Assessment	49
Results.....	50
Descriptive Details of Included Studies.....	53
Participants	53
Measures.....	54
Individual Characteristics	63

Relationship Characteristics	69
Discussion	82
Individual Characteristics	83
Relationship Characteristics	85
Breakup Characteristics.....	88
Conclusion.....	91

Chapter Four: A Case Study of a Psychological Assessment

Conducted with a Non-Intimate Stalker	92
Abstract	
Background	
Case Overview	
Ethical Considerations	
Psychological Assessment.....	
Presentation	
Psychometric Assessment.....	
Compliance and Responsivity	
Formulation	
Risk	
Recommendations	
Application to Wider Research and Practice	
Characteristics	
Motivations.....	
Conclusion	

Chapter Five: Appraising the Relationships Questionnaire; A

Measure of Adult Attachment	93
Abstract	93
Introduction.....	94
Development of the Relationships Questionnaire	95
The Relationships Questionnaire (RQ)	97
Normative Data.....	99
Reliability	100
Validity	104
Construct Validity	104
Content Validity	106
Predictive Validity.....	106
Discussion	107
Conclusion.....	109

Chapter Five: General Discussion	111
Summary of Findings	111
Implications for Practice	122
Future Research	125
Conclusion	129

References	130
Appendices	173

List of Tables and Figures

List of Tables

Table 1 – Additional Demographic Information	18
Table 2 – Offence Specific Demographics.....	19
Table 3 – Results of MANOVAs and ANOVAs Conducted on Entire Dataset	27
Table 4 – Results of MANOVAs and ANOVAs Excluding IPV Offenders/Ex-Partner Vignettes.....	30
Table 5 – Risk of Bias for Included Studies	52
Table 6 – Details of Studies Included in the Review	55
Table 7 – Interpretation of Reliability Statistics	101

List of Figures

Figure 1 – Mean Ratings for Item 1 (Stalking).....	26
Figure 2 – Mean Ratings for Item 2 (Police)	26
Figure 3 – Mean Ratings for Item 3 (Alarm)	26
Figure 4 – Mean Ratings for Item 4 (Fear)	26
Figure 5 – Mean Ratings for Item 5 (Blame).....	26
Figure 6 – Study Selection Process	51
Figure 7 – Diagrammatic Formulation of John’s Stalking Behaviour	
Figure 8 – Model of Adult Attachment Proposed by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991)	97
Figure 9 – Shared Characteristics Associated with Stalking and IPV	120
Figure 10 – Directions for Future Research	128

List of Appendices

APPENDIX A – Vignette Manipulations and Questionnaire Items.....	173
APPENDIX B – Results of Kruskal-Wallis Analyses	175
APPENDIX C – Search Terms.....	177
APPENDIX D – Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria.....	178
APPENDIX E – Quality Assessment Pro-Forma	179
APPENDIX F – Risk of Bias for Included Studies	182
APPENDIX G – Data Extraction Pro-Forma	193
APPENDIX H – Measures of Stalking/Unwanted Pursuit.....	195
APPENDIX I – Measures of Individual and Relationship Characteristics	200
APPENDIX J – Relevant Personal History.....	209
APPENDIX K – Stalking and Harassment Risk Identification Checklist	211

Overview

The aim of this thesis is to provide a broad exploration into the association between stalking and intimate partner violence (IPV) as well as contributing further to the current understanding of the phenomenon of stalking. This topic was chosen as researchers have consistently found a link between stalking and IPV, yet, the full extent of the association and potential reasons behind the connection are still unknown. Therefore, Chapter One provides an overview of what is currently known about the association between stalking and IPV based on the literature to date.

Chapter Two of the current thesis investigates a potential explanation for the association between IPV and stalking by exploring IPV offenders' perceptions of stalking. It is possible that IPV offenders engage in stalking as they do not understand the behaviours involved and how serious and harmful they can be. Therefore, Chapter Two comprises of an empirical research study which examines whether perpetrators of IPV perceive stalking differently than non-IPV offenders and non-offenders.

Chapter Three presents a systematic review of the literature relating to individual and relationship characteristics associated with stalking and unwanted pursuit following the termination of intimate relationships. Firstly, this systematically explores evidence of an association between IPV within a relationship and stalking following the relationship. Additionally, further individual and relationship characteristics are

identified and compared to risk factors for IPV throughout the general discussion of this thesis (Chapter Six).

Chapter Three presents a case study of a non-intimate stalker. This outlines potential characteristics of individuals who engage in these behaviours, which, again, are compared to IPV risk factors throughout the final discussion. Additionally, associations between IPV and non-intimate stalking are discussed as this is an under-researched area.

Currently, there are no validated measures that assess both IPV and stalking. However, one of the key characteristics that may contribute to the association between stalking and IPV is attachment style. Therefore, Chapter Five appraises an attachment measure that was utilised within the case study in Chapter Four. The utility of this tool when conducting research and clinical work with both client groups is reviewed throughout the final discussion of this thesis.

The final chapter draws all of the information in the thesis together, providing an overall discussion of the associations between IPV and stalking. Clinical implications and recommendations for future research are also discussed.

Chapter One

Introduction to Thesis

Research into the phenomenon of stalking began in the early 1990s following the introduction of the world's first anti-stalking laws. Thus, relative to other offending behaviours, research into stalking is in its infancy. Nevertheless, researchers have consistently found an association between stalking and intimate partner violence (IPV), with some referring to stalking as part of the cycle of abuse (Coleman, 1997). Yet, the full extent of the association and potential reasons behind the connection are still unknown.

Definition of stalking

Stalking has been described as a form of psychological violence (Amar, 2006). The earliest published definitions of stalking were legal definitions, developed when the world's first anti-stalking laws were introduced in the United States (US) in 1990 (Jordan, Wilcox, & Pritchard, 2007). For example, the Model Anti-Stalking Code published by the National Institute of Justice in 1993 defined stalking as a course of conduct directed at a particular person, which causes the victim to fear injury or death and would cause the 'reasonable' person the same or a similar type of fear (National Criminal Justice Association, 1993). Since this time, there has been much debate over the definition of stalking and which behaviours are involved in the offence (Sheridan, Davies & Boon, 2001). Indeed, various researchers have investigated the specific behaviours attributed to stalking (Dressing, Kuehner, & Gass, 2005; Amar, 2007) with a number of

commonalities being found across studies (for reviews, see Meloy, 1996, 1998). Overall, definitions appear to focus on repetition of specified conduct and intention to cause fear or harm (Scott, Rajakaruna, Sheridan, & Sleath, 2014).

In the United Kingdom (UK), 'stalking' has only separated from the offence of 'harassment' since November 2012. The Protection from Harassment Act (1997) was amended by the Protection of Freedoms Act (2012) through the introduction of two new crimes; 'stalking' and 'stalking involving fear of violence or serious alarm or distress'. There are no strict legal definitions for stalking, rather a list of examples of behaviours which may be involved that a 'reasonable person' would attribute to stalking. However, this list is not exhaustive. In relation to the latter offence, fear of violence has to have been experienced on two or more occasions or serious alarm or distress must have been caused by the course of conduct as a whole. Again, there is no strict definition of what should be regarded as serious alarm or distress, however a list of behaviours that may evidence this are provided and the 'reasonable person' test implemented. This highlights the way in which UK legislation differs from other countries as the intention to cause fear or harm is not necessary for a conviction of the offence of stalking. This definition is utilised throughout the current thesis.

IPV and intimate partner stalking

A large proportion of stalking victims are targeted by an intimate partner. For example, Tjaden and Thoennes (1998) analysed findings from the

National Violence Against Women Survey (NVAWS) and concluded that 60% of women who were stalked reported being victimised by a current or former partner. Furthermore, the 2004/05 British Crime Survey (BCS) indicated that 34% of the victims of stalking had been stalked by an ex-partner (Finney, 2006). The most recent statistics from the BCS suggest that 4.4% of women and 2.5% of men in the United Kingdom (UK) reported being stalked by a former intimate partner (Office for National Statistics, 2015). In terms of severity, researchers have found former intimate partners stalk for prolonged periods and are more likely to engage in violent behaviours (McEwan, Mullen, & Purcell, 2007).

Overall, the link between IPV and intimate partner stalking is well established. IPV has been defined as actual, attempted or threatened physical or sexual violence, or emotional/psychological abuse perpetrated by an intimate partner (e.g., spouse, former spouse, boyfriend/girlfriend, lover or dating partner) (Saltzman, Fanslow, McMahon, & Shelley, 1999; Thompson et al., 2006), and therefore does not solely relate to physical violence as the title may suggest. It could be argued that any stalking of a prior intimate could be conceptualised as partner abuse, regardless of whether abuse was perpetrated within the intact relationship (Douglas & Dutton, 2001). Similarly, stalking behaviours within intact relationships crossover with many IPV behaviours, making it difficult to define whether the behaviour would strictly classify as stalking or IPV. In specific relation to stalking following abusive relationships, researchers generally follow one of two avenues. Studies tend to either focus on IPV offenders/victims who stalk/have been stalked by their current or former partners, or

stalkers/victims who pursue/were pursued by a former intimate partner and were also abusive/subjected to abuse within the prior relationship.

With regards to stalking by abusive partners, many researchers have asserted that stalking is another tactic employed by intimately abusive partners as a means of continuing the abuse and preventing the connection between themselves and their partners from being severed (Walker & Meloy, 1998; Brewster, 2000; Logan, Leukefeld, & Walker, 2000). In terms of prevalence of stalking among IPV offenders, Burgess et al., (1997) conducted a study of men who were receiving treatment due to being convicted of violence against a partner. Of the sample of 120 men, 36 (30%) admitted to also stalking their partner. However, findings from studies focusing on victim reports suggest that as many as 50-60% of partner violence victims report ever being stalked by the violent partner (Logan, 2010). In relation to the most severe form of partner abuse, it is estimated that between 29% and 54% of all female murder victims are killed by their current or former partner. Researchers have found that between 23% and 90% of these victims were also stalked by their partner before their death (United States Department of Justice, 1998; Moracco, Runyan, & Butts, 1998; McFarlane et al., 1999).

In terms of IPV among stalkers, a number of researchers have found a history of IPV within samples of intimate partner stalkers. These studies primarily focus on victim reports. For example, when examining findings from the NVAWS, Tjaden and Thoennes (1998) noted that 81% of woman stalked by a current or former partner were also physically assaulted by

the same partner. Furthermore, Brewster (2003) found that 74% of those stalked by a former intimate partner reported abuse within the prior relationship. With regards to perpetrator studies, Kienlen, Birmingham, Solberg, O'Regan, and Meloy (1997) reported 47% of the stalkers who victimised former intimate partners within their sample had been violent within the prior relationship.

Additional research into the association between IPV and intimate partner stalking utilises self-report data from the general public. For example, Coleman (1997) investigated the role of stalking in IPV through female undergraduates' responses to self-report questionnaires. She found that women subjected to verbal and/or physical abuse during a relationship were more likely to have been stalked when the relationship ended. Therefore, despite researchers focusing on different samples and populations, an association between IPV and intimate partner stalking has consistently been noted.

IPV and non-intimate partner stalking

Although the link between IPV and intimate partner stalking is well established, very little information is available on the association between IPV and the stalking of strangers or acquaintances (Reno, Robinson, Brennan, & Schwartz, 1998). Kileen and Dunn (1998) found that in their sample of stalkers, 65% of the cases had a history of IPV. However, the proportion of the sample that stalked former intimate partners was also 65%. Therefore, it is unclear whether the history of IPV was associated with any of the non-intimate stalkers. Additionally, Spitzberg and Rhea

(1999) conducted a study with university students to investigate the link between obsessive relational intrusion (ORI) and sexual coercion. ORI has been defined as a *"pattern of unwanted pursuit and intrusion in search of intimacy with a person who does not want intimacy"* (Dutton & Spitzberg, 2007, p. 4), therefore meeting the UK's legal definition of stalking. Thirty-four per cent of participants reported they had been victimised by ex-partners, with the remainder of the sample citing friends or acquaintances as the perpetrators of the ORIs. Spitzberg and Rhea (1999) found that perpetration of ORIs was related to sexual coercion and forcefulness. Therefore, some studies provide potential support for an association between IPV and the stalking of non-intimates. However, given the limited information available, further exploration into the connection would provide a valuable contribution to the field.

Theoretical links

Researchers have proposed theoretical constructs that may provide partial explanation for the association between stalking and IPV. Though, similarly to the literature outlined above, a number of these appear to primarily relate to intimate partner stalking. Consideration of all of the theoretical links is beyond the scope of this thesis. However, attachment styles are consistently cited when discussing IPV and stalking of both intimates and non-intimates. Attachment theory argues that the bond a child has with their primary caregiver shapes their sense of security and serves as a template for future relationships (Bowlby, 1969; Ainsworth, 1979). Theorists have proposed four adult attachment styles; secure, preoccupied, fearful, and dismissing. In terms of relationships, secure

individuals view themselves as worthy of love and support and regard others as trustworthy and available. However, the remaining three styles are forms of insecure attachments in which individual's sense of self and/or others are distorted (Bartholomew & Horowitz. 1991). The IPV literature has established a connection between insecure attachment and abuse within relationships, with the preoccupied and fearful attachment styles being particularly prevalent among perpetrators of IPV (Douglas & Dutton, 2001). It has been proposed that abuse within a relationship is a strategy employed to maintain proximity to an attachment figure when attachment needs have not been met (Allison, Bartholomew, Mayseless, & Dutton, 2008). Attachment theories of stalking have evolved from the IPV literature (Davis, Kirkpatrick, Levy, & O'Hearn, 1994). Stalking has been described as "*an extreme disorder of attachment*" (Meloy, 1992, p. 37). Meloy (1998) hypothesised that preoccupied individuals would be most likely to engage in stalking behaviours as they constantly seek intimacy whilst simultaneously feeling unworthy of anyone. Similarly to within the IPV literature, preoccupied and fearful attachment styles have been associated with stalking (MacKenzie, Mullen, Ogloff, McEwan, & James, 2008). Therefore, attachment disruptions appear to be a contributory factor to both intimately abusive and stalking behaviours, meaning attachment theory may provide insight into the association between IPV and stalking.

Overall, research to date has established a link between stalking and IPV, with researchers drawing from theoretical constructs in attempts to

provide explanations for the association. However, few alternative explanations have been explored.

Thesis structure

The current thesis aims to contribute further understanding of the phenomenon of stalking in addition to providing a broad exploration into the association between stalking and IPV. Specifically, it aims to address gaps in the current literature whilst also fulfilling the breadth of research methods necessary to meet the requirements of a professional doctorate. Consequently, although each chapter contributes to providing further understanding of the association between stalking and IPV, the chapters are varied in focus and methodology, therefore also standing as independent studies.

Chapter Two of the current thesis investigates a potential explanation for the association between IPV and stalking by exploring IPV offenders' perceptions of stalking. It is possible that IPV offenders engage in stalking as they do not understand the behaviours involved and how serious and harmful they can be. Therefore, Chapter Two comprises of an empirical research study which examines whether perpetrators of IPV perceive stalking differently than non-IPV offenders and non-offenders.

Chapter Three explores an alternative explanation, utilising a systematic review methodology to explore the individual and relationship characteristics associated with stalking and unwanted pursuit following the termination of intimate relationships. This review has the potential to

provide insight into the association between stalking and IPV for two reasons. Firstly, the characteristics of IPV offenders have been extensively researched. Therefore, the characteristics highlighted throughout the review are compared to the IPV literature throughout the general discussion of this thesis, with similarities and differences being outlined. Secondly, although many researchers have stressed the association between IPV and intimate partner stalking, there are currently no systematic reviews focusing on any aspect of this association. Therefore, the current review's focus on relationship characteristics provides systematic evidence for the presence (or absence) of IPV within relationships that are superseded by stalking.

Whilst Chapter Three provides insight into the associations between IPV and the stalking of prior intimate partners, as previously highlighted, little is known about any connections between IPV and stalking of non-intimate partners. Therefore, the individual case study presented in Chapter Four provides an overview of a psychological assessment completed with an individual who stalked a stranger/acquaintance. Similarly to Chapter Three, any characteristics highlighted throughout the assessment are compared to both those emerging from the systematic review as well as characteristics of IPV perpetrators throughout the general discussion of this thesis.

Currently, there are no validated measures that assess both IPV and stalking. However, as outlined above, one of the key characteristics that may contribute to the association between stalking and IPV is attachment

style. There is an array of evidence within the IPV literature outlining the impact of disruptions in attachment on behaviours within relationships. Furthermore, the theme of attachment emerges throughout Chapters Three and Four, suggesting this is an important factor to consider when working with stalkers also. Therefore, Chapter Five appraises an attachment measure that was utilised within the case study in Chapter Four. The utility of this tool when conducting research and clinical work with both client groups is reviewed throughout the final discussion of this thesis.

Chapter Two

The Influence of Intimate Partner Violence on Perceptions of Stalking

Abstract

Researchers have consistently found an association between stalking and IPV. However, the reasons behind this connection are unknown. It is possible that IPV offenders engage in stalking as they do not understand the behaviours involved. Therefore, the current study examined whether perpetrators of IPV perceive stalking differently than non-IPV offenders and non-offenders. A total of 138 participants were recruited from a prison establishment and through a social networking site. Participants were presented with a vignette depicting a stalking scenario and asked to rate the extent to which they felt the behaviours constituted stalking, believed police intervention was necessary, felt the victim would experience alarm or distress or fear violence, and believed the victim was to blame. The relationship between the victim and the perpetrator within the vignette was manipulated to depict a stranger, an acquaintance, or an ex-partner stalker. Findings supported an association between IPV and stalking as 16.67% of the IPV offending sample reported a history of stalking. No participants within the other two samples reported such history. Furthermore, results indicated differences between how offenders and non-offenders perceive stalking. However, no statistically significant differences were found between the IPV offenders', non-IPV offenders', and non-offenders' perceptions of the stalking scenario. Limitations, practical implications, and directions for future research are discussed.

Introduction

Prevalence of stalking

Results from the National Violence Against Women Survey (NVAWS) conducted in the United States (US) indicated that 8% of women and 2% of men reported being stalked at some point in their lives (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998). Tjaden and Thoennes (1998) found that 78% of stalking victims were female and 87% of stalking perpetrators were male, with similar figures being found in later studies (Spitzberg, 2002; Dressing et al., 2005). Additionally, Tjaden and Thoennes (1998) found that 77% of victims were stalked by a person they knew, most commonly a current or former intimate partner. Furthermore, ex-intimate stalkers appear more likely to act violently than acquaintance or stranger stalkers (Meloy, 1998; Sheridan, Blaauw, & Davies, 2003). Specifically in relation to the United Kingdom (UK), surveys have found that stalking affects approximately 18% of women and 9% of men (Home Office, 2011). However, actual prevalence rates of stalking are difficult to determine potentially partially due to the varying definitions of the phenomenon leading to both under- and over-reporting of victimisation (Sheridan et al., 2003). Similarly, regardless of definitions, researchers have found that approximately only 50% of victims report stalking to law enforcement (Tjaden and Thoennes, 1998).

Impact of stalking

Stalking has been found to impact victims in a number of different ways. For example, victims have reported depressive symptoms, anxiety, sleeplessness, anger, and intense stress (Pathé & Mullen, 1997; Davis,

Coker, & Sanderson, 2002), as well as somatic complaints such as stomach trouble and headaches (Dressing et al., 2005). Additionally, some victims have reported symptoms consistent with a diagnosis for Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD; Logan, Walker, Jordan, & Leukefeld 2006). Stalking also has a practical impact on victims' lives and can lead to victims changing their routines, phone number, car, job or moving house (Amar, 2006). Although stalking may in some cases lead to physical violence which could involve additional detrimental effects, researchers have found that the fear of violence and/or death and the unpredictability of the pattern of stalking appear to be the factors most associated with the negative mental health effects (Davis et al., 2002).

Perceptions of stalking

Despite findings indicating that victims are most likely to be stalked by someone known to them (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998), results from a number of studies investigating perceptions of stalking indicate that participants are more likely to view behaviours as stalking if committed by a stranger rather than by an acquaintance or an ex-partner (Scott, Lloyd, & Gavin, 2010; Scott & Sheridan, 2011; Scott, Nixon, & Sheridan, 2013). However, perceptions of ex-partner stalkers have been found to differ when further contextual information is provided regarding the breakdown of the relationship (Duff & Scott, 2013). Furthermore, researchers have found that participants have indicated that they would be less frightened of an ex-intimate stalker than a stranger stalker (Hills & Taplin, 1998) and have judged victims as more responsible for the stalking when they were previously in a relationship with the stalker (Sheridan, Gillet, Blaauw,

Davies, & Patel, 2003; Scott & Sheridan, 2011; Scott et al., 2014). With regards to gender differences, Phillips and colleagues (2004) found that there were no differences between participants' perceptions of whether the behaviour constituted stalking when the perpetrator was described as male or female. However, participants were more concerned for the victim's safety when the stalking scenario involved a male perpetrator and female victim (Phillips, Quirk, Rosenfeld, & O'Connor, 2004).

Stalking and intimate partner violence

Researchers have consistently found an association between stalking and intimate partner violence (IPV), some referring to stalking as part of the cycle of abuse (Coleman, 1997). As previously highlighted, a large proportion of victims are stalked by a former partner. Indeed, the British Crime Survey 2004/05 found that 34% of the victims of stalking had been stalked by an ex-partner (Finney, 2006). Kileen and Dunn (1998) found that in their sample of stalkers, 65% of the cases had a history of IPV. Furthermore, results from the NVAWS suggest that 81% of woman stalked by a current or former partner were also physically assaulted by the same partner (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998). Burgess et al., (1997) conducted a study of men who were receiving treatment due to being convicted of violence against a partner. Of the sample of 120 men, 36 (30%) admitted to also stalking their partner. The men in this study who later stalked their partners were more likely than those who did not stalk to have inflicted more serious injuries on their partners. Similarly, Coleman (1997) found that women subjected to verbal and/or physical abuse during a relationship were more likely to have been stalked when

the relationship ended. With regards to the most extreme forms of IPV, researchers have found that a number of victims (ranging from 23-76%) who were murdered by their current or former partner had been stalked by their partner before they were killed (Moracco, Runyan, & Butts, 1998; McFarlane et al., 1999).

As the reasons behind the association between IPV and stalking are still unknown, the current study aimed to investigate IPV offenders' perceptions of stalking in order to provide insight into their understanding of the behaviours and how serious and harmful these can be. Specifically, the study examined whether perpetrators of IPV perceive stalking differently than non-IPV offenders and non-offenders. It was hypothesised that there would be a significant difference between offending groups regarding participant's perceptions of a stalking scenario. Furthermore, it was hypothesised that non-IPV offenders' and non-offenders' perceptions of stalking would differ dependent on the prior relationship between a stalker and their victim. However, it was hypothesised that this difference would not be present within the IPV offender group.

Method

Participants

A total of 138 males participated in the study. As the offending samples were derived from a male prison population, females were not invited to take part in the study. The mean age for the entire sample was 42.41 years ($SD = 13.64$) with ages ranging from 22 to 75 years. Additional

demographic information for all samples is provided in Table 1. Furthermore, information relating to offending participants' index offences and prison sentences is outlined in Table 2.

Non-offending sample

Participants from the non-offending sample were recruited via a social media website. The sample consisted of 65 participants with an average age of 41.08 years ($SD = 13.01$) with ages ranging from 24 to 70 years.

Offending samples

Participants from both offending samples were recruited from a prison in the North-West of England. The IPV offending sample comprised of 30 participants with a mean age of 42.00 years ($SD = 13.25$) with ages ranging from 22 to 66 years¹. The non-IPV offending sample consisted of 43 participants with an average age of 44.74 years ($SD = 14.82$) with ages ranging from 24 to 75 years¹.

A priori sample size calculations for a MANOVA were conducted using the statistical software G*Power. Power was set at 80% as a smaller value than this would incur too great a risk of a Type II error (Cohen, 1992). The results indicated that a total of 135 participants would be required to achieve the desired power ($f^2 = 0.06$, $\alpha = 0.05$). Medium effect sizes were determined appropriate for the current study as researchers have found that response rates for questionnaires distributed with prison populations range from 4-25% (Gojkovic, Meek, & Mills, 2011) meaning

¹ Three participants in the IPV offending sample and one participant in the non-IPV offending sample chose not to provide their age.

obtaining a larger sample size would have been challenging given the constraints of the study (e.g., access to establishments, time constraints). Additionally, medium effect sizes allow for differences between groups to be observable.

Materials

An adapted version of the questionnaire employed by Scott et al. (2013) was used to collect data regarding participants' perceptions of stalking. The questionnaire comprised of a vignette describing a stalking scenario and five scale items relating to perceptions of stalking. Participants rated each item on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 'definitely not/not at all' to 'definitely/extremely' to indicate the extent to which the described behaviours constituted stalking (Stalking), necessitated police intervention (Police), would be likely to cause the victim alarm or distress (Alarm), would be likely to cause the victim to fear violence (Fear), and the extent to which the victim was to blame for the behaviours (Blame). The original questionnaire was adapted in order for both the vignette and subsequent questions to be comprehensible for all participants, particularly the offending samples due to findings surrounding the literacy ability of incarcerated offenders (see Davis, Lewis, Bryatt, Purvis, & Cole, 2004). The 'Readability Statistics' application in Microsoft Word was utilised to ensure all information was intelligible for those with a reading age of approximately 11-12 years and over. Three versions of the vignette were utilised, portraying the stalker as a stranger, an acquaintance, or an ex-partner of the victim (see Appendix A for the multiple vignettes and questionnaire items).

Table 1

Additional demographic information

	Non-offending sample <i>N</i> (%)	IPV offending sample <i>N</i> (%)	Non-IPV offending sample <i>N</i> (%)
<u>Nationality</u>			
British	60 (92.3)	25 (83.3)	40 (93.0)
Irish	-	1 (3.3)	-
Australian	1 (1.5)	-	-
American	1 (1.5)	-	-
French	1 (1.5)	-	-
German	1 (1.5)	-	-
Mixed	-	-	1 (2.3)
Missing data	1 (1.5)	4 (13.5)	2 (4.7)
<u>Sexuality</u>			
Heterosexual	57 (87.7)	16 (53.3)	29 (67.4)
Homosexual	3 (4.6)	1 (3.3)	3 (7.0)
Bisexual	1 (1.5)	1 (3.3)	3 (7.0)
Missing data	4 (6.2)	12 (40.0)	8 (18.6)
<u>Offending</u>			
Convicted of offence other than minor motoring offences	-	30 (100.0)	43 (100.0)
Police involved in domestic dispute	-	30 (100.0)	-
Convicted/alleged to have committed offence of stalking or harassment	-	5 (16.7)	-
Completed treatment programme focusing on abuse within relationships	-	9 (30.0)	-*
<u>Mental health</u>			
Self-reported mental health condition	5 (7.7)	10 (33.3)	20 (46.5)*
<u>Knowledge of psychology</u>			
Studied psychology	7 (10.8)	5 (16.7)	7 (16.3)*
Studied forensic psychology	1 (1.5)	2 (6.7)	-*
<u>Relationship history</u>			
Currently in/previously been in a relationship	64 (98.5)	28 (93.3)**	38 (88.4)

Note: *data missing from one participant; ** data missing from two participants

Table 2

Offence specific demographics

	IPV offending sample <i>N</i> (%)	Non-IPV offending sample <i>N</i> (%)
<u>Index offence</u>		
Murder/manslaughter	8 (26.7)	1 (2.3)
Violence	8 (26.7)	2 (4.7)
Sexual offence	8 (26.7)	24 (55.8)
Arson	1 (3.3)	1 (2.3)
Drug offences	-	2 (4.7)
Other	1 (3.3)	8 (18.6)
Multiple	3 (10.0)	4 (9.3)
Missing data	1 (3.3)	1 (2.3)
<u>Sentence type</u>		
Life	9 (30.0)	1 (2.3)
Indeterminate	7 (23.3)	13 (30.2)
Determinate	10 (33.3)	25 (58.1)
Missing data	4 (13.3)	4 (9.3)
<u>Sentence/tariff length</u>		
0-23 months	1 (3.3)	1 (2.3)
24-47 months	6 (20.0)	7 (16.3)
48-71 months	4 (13.3)	4 (9.3)
72-95 months	5 (16.7)	9 (20.9)
96-119 months	5 (16.7)	10 (23.3)
119-143 months	1 (3.3)	2 (4.7)
144-167 months	-	3 (7.0)
168-191 months	6 (20.0)	1 (2.3)
192-215 months	-	-
216-240 months	1 (3.3)	-
Missing data	1 (3.3)	6 (14.0)

Procedure

Non-offending sample

A brief introduction to the study and links to an online version of the questionnaire were posted on a social networking site. As the offending samples were comprised solely of men, only males were invited to participate. After deciding to take part in the study, participants were directed to a site that required the selection of a circle, square, or triangle. This determined which vignette was the basis of the questionnaire they completed, therefore allocating participants to a condition (i.e. victim-perpetrator relationship in vignette: stranger; acquaintance; ex-partner). Participants were then directed to a page providing information about the study and were required to indicate that they consented to participate before continuing. Participants provided demographic information prior to completing the study questionnaire. Before moving from one page to the next, participants were required to indicate that they were happy to continue with the study and for their results to be included in the analyses. Following completion, participants were provided with the researchers' contact details, information relating to the complaints procedure, as well as information regarding sources of support. All of the participants who began to complete the questionnaire answered the questions in their entirety resulting in no missing data.

Offending samples

All of the residents of the chosen prison were invited to participate in the study. An envelope containing information about the study, a demographics questionnaire, a paper form of the study questionnaire, and

information regarding contact details, complaints, and sources of support as well as a sealable envelope addressed to the researcher was posted under each resident's cell door. This resulted in a total of 1,132 questionnaires being distributed. Participants were allocated to a condition by alternating the questionnaire type distributed. For example, the residents of Cells 1, 4, 7 etc. were given the questionnaire with a stranger stalker depicted in the vignette, Cells 2, 5, 8 etc. received the acquaintance stalker vignette, and Cells 3, 6, 9 etc. the ex-partner stalker vignette. However, due to residents' decisions in relation to their participation in the study, this did not necessarily mean equal numbers of participants were allocated to each condition. Participants returned their responses to the researcher via the internal post. Completion and return of the questionnaire was taken as consent and participants were informed that once they returned their questionnaires, withdrawal from the study would not be possible due to responses being unidentifiable. IPV offenders were identified through responses to two questions on the demographics questionnaire. A total of 74 individuals in the offending samples participated in the study resulting in a response rate of 6.54%.

Ethical considerations

The study was approved by the University of Nottingham School of Medicine Ethics Committee and the National Offender Management Service National Research Committee.

Results

Exploration of the assumptions of parametric testing

Prior to conducting analyses to test the hypotheses, the normality of the data was explored. Results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests showed the data for questionnaire items 1-4 (i.e. Stalking, Police, Alarm, and Fear) were significantly negatively skewed whilst item 5 (i.e. Blame) was significantly positively skewed. Further tests of normality were conducted, splitting the data by both offender type (i.e. IPV offender, non-IPV offender, and non-offender) and vignette relationship (i.e. stranger, acquaintance, and ex-partner). These Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests resulted in similar findings, with one exception. Data relating to item 4 (Fear) did not significantly differ from normality in the sub-group of IPV offenders who answered questions relating to the ex-partner vignette.

Following reversal of the scores for items 1-4 to result in a positive skew, log, square root, and reciprocal transformations were conducted. However, for the overall sample, the data remained skewed following each of the transformations. When the data were split by both offender type and vignette relationship, the majority of the data remained skewed, with the following exceptions. With regards to log transformations, the data relating to items 2 and 4 (Police and Fear) did not significantly differ from normality in the sub-group of IPV offenders who answered questions relating to the ex-partner vignette. This was true of item 4 (Fear) for the IPV offender/ex-partner sub-group when square root transformations were conducted, and for item 2 (Police) for the same sub-group when reciprocal transformations were computed. However, the transformations

had differing effects on the homogeneity of variances. The results of Levene's tests indicated the reciprocal transformation had the greatest effect, yielding non-significant results for items 1, 3, and 4 (i.e. Stalking, Alarm, and Fear). As the transformations did not significantly alter the normality of the results, analyses subsequently reported are based on the raw data unless otherwise specified.

Demographics analyses

Due to the issues with normality outlined above, Spearman's rank correlations were conducted to explore associations between the variables. The five questionnaire items were all significantly correlated ($p < .001$) with correlations ranging from .32 to .54. None of the continuous demographic variables significantly correlated with any of the questionnaire items. Mann-Whitney tests were conducted to explore any differences in relation to dichotomous demographic variables. There were no significant differences in ratings on any of the questionnaire items between participants who had studied psychology and those who had not, those who reported suffering from a mental health condition and those who did not, participants who were currently/had previously been in a relationship and those who were/had not, and those who had participated in a treatment programme focussing on abuse within relationships and those who had not. However, there was a significant difference between the ratings of participants who had committed an offence and those who had not in relation to how much they felt the scenario in the vignette necessitated police intervention ($U = 1,943.50$, $p < .05$). The value of the mean rankings indicated the offending group had higher scores on this

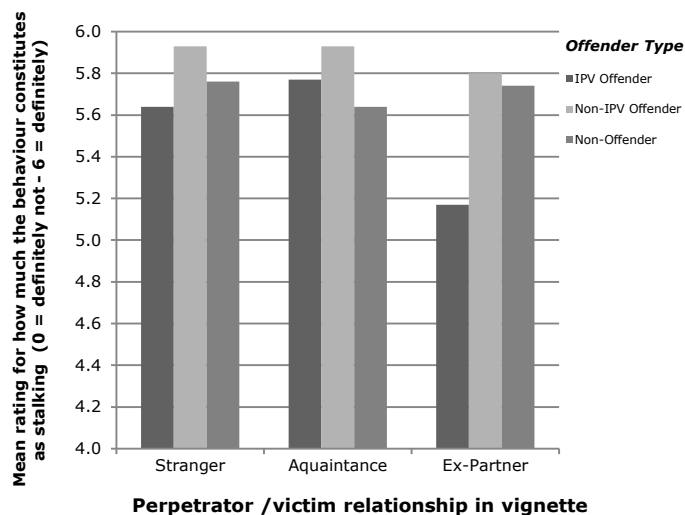
item than the non-offending group, suggesting the offending group felt police intervention was more necessary. Furthermore, there were significant differences between the ratings of participants who reported they had been convicted of/alleged to have committed an offence of stalking or harassment on items 1-4 (Stalking, Police, Alarm, and Fear). However, the small number of participants reporting involvement in stalking/harassment ($n = 5$) may have influenced these differences. Therefore, further analyses were conducted, focusing solely on the IPV offending group as all of the participants who reported being involved in stalking/harassment originated from this sample. Within the IPV sample, there were significant differences between the ratings of participants who were involved in stalking and those who were not on items 1, 3, and 4 (Stalking, Alarm, and Fear). Specifically, the value of the mean rankings indicated the stalking sub-group of the IPV offenders had significantly lower scores on these items than the non-stalking sub-group ($U = 100.00$, $p < .05$; $U = 98.00$, $p < .05$; $U = 100.50$, $p < .05$).

Between-group differences

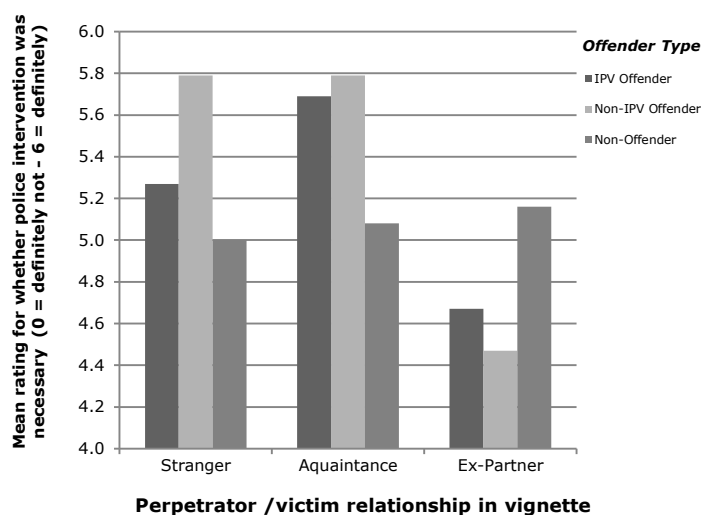
Figures 1 to 5 provide an overview of the differences between the mean ratings for each item across the different offender groups and vignette relationship types. Whilst the data were not normally distributed and heterogeneity of variances was observed, both multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVAs) and univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) are noted to be robust to violations of assumptions when the sample sizes are similar across conditions (Pallant, 2005). Although a 3 (vignette relationship: stranger, acquaintance, ex-partner) x 3 (offender type: IPV

offender, non-IPV offender, non-offender) MANOVA was conducted, the differences in sample sizes within the current study and the significant results of Box's *M* tests ($p < .001$) indicate this test was not robust (Field, 2009). Although the data remained skewed following the transformations, homogeneity of variances improved in relation to certain questionnaire items. Therefore, MANOVAs were conducted on the transformed data. The results of these analyses are outlined in Table 3. Due to the violations of assumptions, the results of Pillai's Trace are reported.

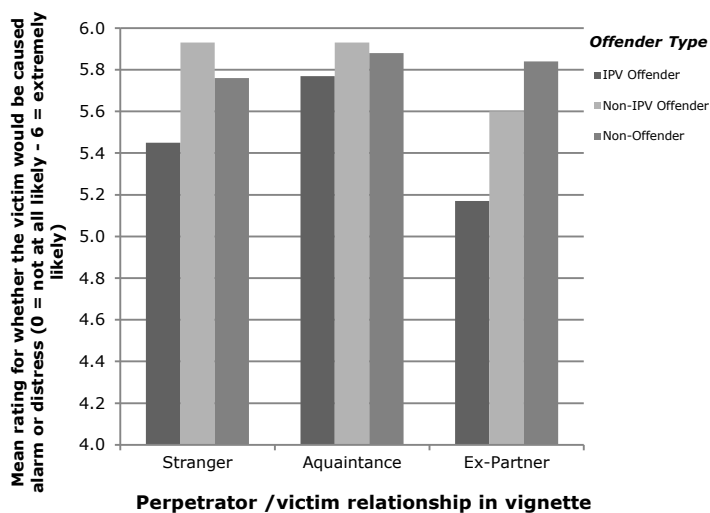
The most conservative of these analyses indicated a trend towards a main effect of offender type, $F(10, 252) = 1.65$, $p = .09$, $\eta_p^2 = .06$. However, there was no significant main effect for vignette relationship $F(10, 252) = 0.70$, $p > .05$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. Additionally, there was no interaction effect for vignette relationship and offender type, $F(20, 512) = 0.33$, $p > .05$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Subsequent ANOVAs on the individual questionnaire items revealed a significant main effect of offender type in relation to item 4 (Fear), $F(2, 129) = 4.23$, $p < .05$, $\eta_p^2 = .06$, with post hoc Scheffé analyses revealing a significant difference between the non-IPV offending group and the non-offending group ($p < .05$). However, there were no significant differences between the IPV offenders and the other two groups. Furthermore, a trend towards a main effect of vignette relationship in relation to item 2 (Police), $F(2, 129) = 2.53$, $p = .08$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$, was found, although post hoc analyses revealed no significant differences between the vignette relationships. Of note, the univariate analyses conducted with the questionnaire items did not reach significance when utilising Bonferroni corrected alpha values of .01 for multiple testing.



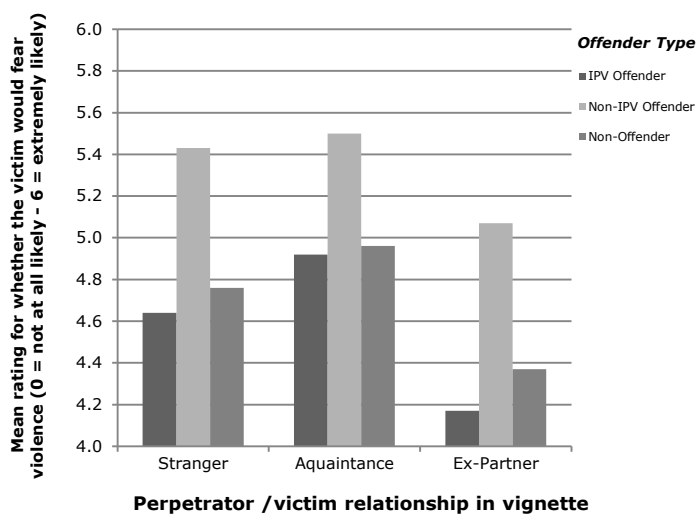
Perpetrator /victim relationship in vignette
Figure 1: Mean ratings for Item 1 (Stalking)



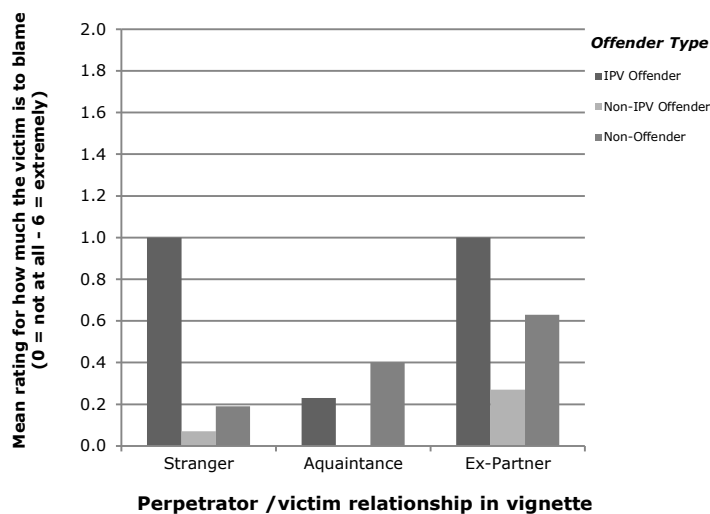
Perpetrator /victim relationship in vignette
Figure 2: Mean ratings for Item 2 (Police)



Perpetrator /victim relationship in vignette
Figure 3: Mean ratings for Item 3 (Alarm)



Perpetrator /victim relationship in vignette
Figure 4: Mean ratings for Item 4 (Fear)



Perpetrator /victim relationship in vignette
Figure 5: Mean ratings for Item 5 (Blame)

Table 3

Results of MANOVAs and ANOVAs conducted on entire dataset

	Raw data <i>F</i> (η_p^2)	Log transformation <i>F</i> (η_p^2)	Square root transformation <i>F</i> (η_p^2)	Reciprocal transformation <i>F</i> (η_p^2)
MANOVA				
Vignette relationship (V)	0.75 _a (.03)	0.71 (.03)	0.75 (.03)	0.71 (.03)
Offender type (O)	2.35 _a * (.09)	1.96* (.07)	1.80 ⁺ (.07)	1.65 ⁺ (.06)
Vignette relationship x offender type (V x O)	0.83 _a (.03)	0.49 (.02)	0.42 (.02)	0.33 (.01)
ANOVA				
<i>Stalking</i>				
V	0.58 _b (.01)	0.86 (.01)	0.96 (.02)	1.11 (.02)
O	1.23 _b (.01)	0.64 (.01)	0.47 (.01)	0.23 (.00)
V x O	0.41 _b (.01)	0.18 (.01)	0.15 (.01)	0.10 (.00)
<i>Police</i>				
V	2.76 _b ⁺ (.04)	2.67 _b ⁺ (.04)	2.78 _b ⁺ (.04)	2.53 _b ⁺ (.04)
O	0.45 _b (.01)	1.38 _b (.02)	1.49 _b (.02)	2.17 _b (.03)
V x O	1.56 _b (.05)	1.11 _b (.03)	1.02 _b (.03)	0.74 _b (.02)
<i>Alarm</i>				
V	1.56 _b (.02)	1.01 _b (.02)	0.95 _b (.02)	0.68 (.01)
O	2.20 _b (.03)	1.19 _b (.02)	1.01 _b (.02)	0.62 (.01)
V x O	0.57 _b (.02)	0.30 _b (.01)	0.25 _b (.01)	0.20 (.01)
<i>Fear</i>				
V	1.85 (.03)	1.17 (.02)	0.90 (.01)	0.56 (.01)
O	3.68* (.05)	4.39* (.06)	4.19* (.06)	4.23* (.06)
V x O	0.43 (.00)	0.09 (.00)	0.08 (.00)	0.10 (.00)
<i>Blame</i>				
V	1.46 _b (.02)	1.43 _b (.02)	1.58 _b (.02)	1.50 _b (.02)
O	2.84 _b ⁺ (.04)	1.83 _b (.03)	1.64 _b (.03)	1.27 _b (.02)
V x O	0.82 _b (.03)	0.33 _b (.01)	0.26 _b (.01)	0.19 _b (.01)

^aBox's M $p < .001$ ^bLevene's test $p < .05$ * $p < .05$ ⁺ $p < .10$

Due to the small cell sample size with regards to the sub-sample of IPV offenders who completed the ex-partner questionnaire ($n = 6$), further tests were conducted, removing IPV offenders from the analysis, therefore exploring differences between the non-IPV offending group and the non-offending group. Subsequently, a 3 (vignette relationship: stranger, acquaintance, ex-partner) $\times$ 2 (offender type: non-IPV offender, non-offender) MANOVA was performed on the five questionnaire items. Although the violations of assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variances remained, the sample sizes across conditions were similar, increasing the robustness of the MANOVA. Significant main effects were obtained for offender type, $F(5, 98) = 2.56, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .12$, although not for vignette relationship, $F(10, 198) = .71, p > .05, \eta_p^2 = .03$. Furthermore, there was no significant interaction effect for offender type and vignette relationship, $F(10, 198) = 1.14, p > .05, \eta_p^2 = .05$. The results of further ANOVAs conducted on the individual questionnaire items are displayed in Table 4. Similarly to the previous analyses, the ANOVAs revealed a significant main effect of offender type in relation to item 4 (Fear), $F(1, 102) = 6.19, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .06$. Additionally, there was a trend towards a main effect of offender type in relation to item 5 (Blame), $F(1, 102) = 3.38, p = .07, \eta_p^2 = .03$, and an interaction effect for vignette relationship and offender type in relation to item 2 (Police), $F(2, 102) = 3.06, p = .05, \eta_p^2 = .06$. However, again, none of the univariate analyses reached significance utilising corrected alpha values.

Additional analyses were conducted following exclusion of the ex-partner vignette, again due to the small cell sample size with regards to the sub-

sample of IPV offenders who completed the ex-partner questionnaire. A 2 (vignette relationship: stranger, acquaintance) $\times$ 3 (offender type: IPV offender, non-IPV offender, non-offender) MANOVA was performed on the five questionnaire items. Again, significant main effects were obtained for offender type, $F(10, 178) = 2.04, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .10$, but not vignette relationship, $F(5, 88) = .33, p > .05, \eta_p^2 = .02$. Furthermore, there was no significant interaction effect for offender type and vignette relationship, $F(10, 178) = .448, p > .05, \eta_p^2 = .03$. The results of further ANOVAs are displayed in Table 4. These analyses revealed a significant main effect of offender type in relation to item 2 (Police), $F(2, 92) = 3.15, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .06$. Furthermore, a trend towards a significant main effect of offender type in relation to item 3 (Alarm) was found, $F(2, 92) = 2.78, p = .07, \eta_p^2 = .03$. However, post hoc analyses did not reveal any significant differences between groups. As in the previous analyses outlined above, the results of the ANOVAs did not reach significance when utilising corrected alpha values.

As already noted, the above analyses violated the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variances indicating non-parametric analyses would be appropriate. However, there are no non-parametric equivalents to MANOVA or two-way ANOVA. Therefore, the data were split by vignette relationship and separate Kruskal-Wallis analyses were conducted for each questionnaire item to explore the differences between the offender groups in relation to each vignette relationship. These analyses did not produce any significant results (see Appendix B for results). Similar analyses were conducted when the data were split by

offender type to examine any differences between responses dependant on the relationship depicted in the vignette in each offender group. However, again, these analyses did not yield any significant results (see Appendix B for results).

Table 4

Results of MANOVAs and ANOVAs excluding IPV offenders/ex-partner vignettes

	Excluding IPV offenders		Excluding ex-partner vignette	
	<i>F</i>	(η_p^2)	<i>F</i>	(η_p^2)
<u>MANOVA</u>				
Vignette relationship (V)	0.71 _a	(.03)	0.33 _a	(.02)
Offender type (O)	2.56 _a *	(.12)	2.04 _a *	(.10)
Vignette relationship x offender type (V x O)	1.14 _a	(.05)	0.45 _a	(.03)
<u>ANOVA</u>				
<i>Stalking</i>				
V	0.08	(.00)	0.00	(.00)
O	1.10	(.01)	0.55	(.01)
V x O	0.16	(.00)	0.14	(.00)
<i>Police</i>				
V	2.15 _b	(.04)	0.39 _b	(.00)
O	0.96 _b	(.01)	3.15 _b *	(.06)
V x O	3.06 _b ⁺	(.06)	0.20 _b	(.00)
<i>Alarm</i>				
V	0.89 _b	(.02)	1.00 _b	(.01)
O	0.01 _b	(.00)	1.41 _b ⁺	(.03)
V x O	1.10 _b	(.02)	0.34 _b	(.01)
<i>Fear</i>				
V	1.44	(.03)	0.54	(.01)
O	6.19*	(.06)	2.78	(.06)
V x O	0.04	(.00)	0.05	(.00)
<i>Blame</i>				
V	1.43 _b	(.03)	1.04 _b	(.01)
O	3.38 _b ⁺	(.03)	2.25 _b	(.05)
V x O	0.30 _b	(.01)	1.96 _b	(.04)

_aBox's M $p < .001$

_bLevene's test $p < .05$

* $p < .05$

⁺ $p < .10$

Discussion

Due to previous research noting associations between stalking and IPV, the current study aimed to explore IPV perpetrators' perceptions of stalking and to examine whether they differed from non-IPV offenders and non-offenders. As previous researchers have found that the relationship between the victim and the stalker can influence perceptions of stalking situations, the prior relationship was manipulated in order to explore whether these differences were observed in offending samples also. With regards to the influence of prior relationship type, the current study did not replicate the findings of previous perception studies. Specifically, when the perpetrator-victim relationship was depicted as stranger, acquaintance, or ex-partner, no significant differences were found in relation to the extent to which participants perceived behaviours as stalking, felt police intervention was necessary, believed the victim would be caused harm or distress, believed the victim would fear violence, or believed the victim was to blame for encouraging the behaviours.

The lack of differences across prior relationship types may relate to participants responding to the questionnaires as an observer of the stalking situation. Although many researchers have found differences when the questionnaires are structured in this way (e.g., Sheridan et al., 2003; Scott et al., 2010; Scott & Sheridan, 2011; Scott et al., 2013), Dennison and Thomson (2000) also did not find prior relationship influenced perceptions. Furthermore, although Dennison and Thomson (2002) found differences between the perceptions of the stranger scenario compared to the ex-partner scenario, additional contextual information

was provided with regards to the relationship with the ex-partner, which may have influenced participants' responses. Moreover, Hills and Taplin (1998) found prior relationship influenced responses. However, participants in their study were asked to provide ratings based on the perception of the victim. Therefore, although the questionnaire utilised in the current study was adapted from previous research, the 'observer' factor may have contributed to the lack of significant results. Additionally, the questionnaire was adapted to make the language more accessible to all participants. It is possible that the adaption may have also had an effect on responses.

Pro-criminal attitudes have generally been found amongst offenders (Andrews & Bonta, 2010). Therefore, with regards to offender type, it was initially thought that these attitudes would limit offenders' understanding of stalking behaviours, leading to differences between offenders' and non-offenders' perceptions of stalking. Findings of the current study indicate potential differences between offenders' and non-offenders' perceptions, specifically with regards to the extent to which they feel police intervention is necessary. However, no other significant differences were found with regards to the additional questionnaire items. Due to offenders' encounters with police resulting in deprivation of their liberty, offenders were expected to have negative attitudes towards police, which would subsequently influence their ratings. However, interestingly, results suggest offenders were more likely to indicate the situation required police intervention than non-offenders. Researchers have found that direct encounters with the police do not influence negative attitudes,

whilst vicarious experiences (i.e. learning that someone else has had a negative experience with the police) predict negative attitudes (Rosenbaum, Schuck, Costello, Hawkins, & Ring, 2005). Therefore, whilst all offenders will have had direct contact with the police, non-offenders perceptions may be influenced by the experiences of others or the portrayal in the media, therefore influencing their opinions regarding whether police should be involved. Alternatively, as offenders have committed crimes, they are likely to have some insight into the thoughts and plans that influence criminal behaviours, which may make them more attuned to identifying the riskiness of the situation.

Specifically with regards to IPV offenders, their perceptions of stalking do not appear to differ from non-IPV offenders and non-offenders. However, an association between IPV and stalking was supported as 16.67% of the IPV sample reported having been involved in stalking, whilst no participants in the non-IPV offending or non-offending samples reported a history of stalking. Due to the self-report nature of the questionnaire, it is possible that social desirability affected responding meaning the prevalence rate may be a misrepresentation. Additionally, it could be that a history of certain experiences (e.g., stalking behaviours) may have influenced individuals' decisions to take part, sparking interest and making them more likely to participate in a study focusing on the phenomenon. However, both socially desirable responding and influences on participation are likely to have been the same across groups, and therefore are not likely to have influenced the higher prevalence of stalkers in the IPV offending group. Furthermore, the prevalence noted in

the current study could be an underestimation as those who have been involved in stalking in the past may have been more likely to choose not to participate.

The ratings of those who were involved in stalking were found to be lower than both the overall sample and the IPV offenders who had not been involved in stalking on a number of the questionnaire items. Therefore, this may have contributed to the lack of significant differences between the IPV offenders and the two other groups. However, the findings could also relate to the relatively small sample size in the current study and the use of multiple vignettes. Indeed, effect sizes for the results of the current study ranged from small to medium² suggesting that larger sample sizes would be beneficial in order to determine whether observed differences are true effects or due to random fluctuations in ratings. In particular relation to the current study, it is likely that the differences in sample sizes across conditions influenced the results, reducing the power of the study. Therefore, future researchers could alter the methodology to ensure similar sample sizes across conditions. Alternatively, as this is an area of research that has not been explored previously, the findings of the current study may be reflective of the fact that IPV offenders do not perceive stalking differently, therefore meaning other factors are responsible for the association between stalking and IPV.

² Cohen (1969) suggests η_p^2 values of 0.01, 0.06, and 0.14 represent small, medium, and large effect sizes, respectively.

It is important to note that the findings of the current study are based on offending samples derived from one UK prison. Allen and Dempsey (2016) found that the most common offence type in the prison population of England and Wales in 2015 was violence against the person (24.6%) followed by theft offences (16.4%), sexual offences (15.2%), drug offences (14.5%), and robbery offences (11.2%)³. Within the IPV offending sample of the current study, violence was also the most common offence type, with 53.3% of the sample reporting violent index offences. It is likely that this elevated percentage is due to the population being targeted (i.e. those who have been abusive towards a partner). However, only 7% of the non-IPV offending sample reported violent index offences, with the most common index offence within this sample being a sexual offence (55.8%). Therefore, it appears there was an underrepresentation of violent offenders and an overrepresentation of sexual offenders within the non-IPV offending sample in the current study. Similarly, when the statistics for both offending samples are combined, 43.8% of the overall offending sample reported sexual index offences suggesting an overrepresentation of sexual offenders in the sample as a whole. Furthermore, other offences such as theft, robbery, and drug offences are also underrepresented in the current study's samples.

Additional discrepancies arise when comparing further demographic characteristics of the offending samples in the current study to the overall

³ Additional statistics recorded were criminal damage and arson (1.8%), possession of weapons (2.5%), public order offences (1.8%), miscellaneous crimes against society (4.5%), fraud offences (1.6%), summary non-motoring offences (4.4%), and motoring offences (0.5%). Offences were not recorded for 0.9% of the population.

prison population. For example, the most common sentence type within the prison population has been found to be determinate sentences (Allen & Dempsey, 2016). Whilst this was the case for the non-IPV offending sample within the current study, 53.3% of the IPV offending sample had received either indeterminate or life sentences. Furthermore, the age of the offending samples appears to be higher than general prison population. Specifically, Allen and Dempsey (2016) found that just under one third (32%) of prisoners in England and Wales in 2015 were aged over 40, with only 14% being aged over 50. However, the mean ages for the IPV offending sample and the non-IPV offending sample were 42.00 and 44.74 years, respectively. Additionally, although prevalence of anxiety, depression, and psychotic symptoms has been found to be higher within the prison population (Brooker, Druggan, Fox, Mills, & Parsonage, 2008; Singleton, Farrel, & Meltzer, 2003), previous studies have suggested approximately 18% of male prisoners self-report mental health conditions (Light, Grant, & Hopkins, 2013). The figures for the current study were significantly higher than this as 33.3% of the IPV offending sample and 46.5% of the non-IPV offending reported suffering from a mental health condition.

With regards to the non-offending sample, recruitment via a social networking site may mean that those of lower socioeconomic status who may not have regular access to a computer or the Internet are not likely to have participated. Furthermore, all three samples (IPV offending, non-IPV offending, and non-offending) are subject to non-response bias with no information available relating to the demographics of non-respondents.

These considerations raise questions regarding the representativeness of the samples included in the current study, which in turn influences the generalisability of the results.

Within the current study, allocation to the IPV offending group was based on self-report information. An alternative recruitment method would be to identify perpetrators of IPV (e.g., from the treatment programme waiting lists), and invite them to participate. This would ensure manipulation of conditions and equal sample sizes in each condition. Matched controls could then be recruited non-IPV offending populations and non-offending populations to limit the number of confounding variables. Therefore, additional research based on a larger, more representative sample with an adapted recruitment method would be beneficial.

With regards to the stalking questionnaire, given the persistent, invasive, and pervasive nature of stalking, depiction of these behaviours in a short vignette is problematic (Sinclair, 2012). Furthermore, previous researchers have found various other factors influence perceptions of stalking such as the gender of the victim and perpetrator (Phillips et al., 2004), gender of the participants (Lambert, Smith, Geistman, Cluse-Tolar, & Jiang, 2013), seriousness of the behaviours (Scott, Rajakaruna, & Sheridan, 2012), and additional contextual information relating to the previous relationship (Duff & Scott, 2013). Additionally, in the current study, participants were asked rate their perceptions based on their observation of the situation. Therefore, adaption of the questionnaire

taking these factors into consideration may yield different results. Specifically in relation to the exploration of perceptions of stalking within IPV offender samples, the addition of a condition in which the perpetrator is currently in a relationship with the victim may provide more information regarding the association between IPV and stalking. Therefore, use of measures that encapsulate and explore differences between these considerations may provide a more comprehensive overview of the differences between offending groups. Due to the number of IPV offenders who responded to the ex-partner questionnaire in the current study being particularly small, the use of a singular vignette may be beneficial to ensure similar sample sizes across conditions. An alternative to this would be to use a repeated measures design, administering the same questionnaire with different vignette manipulations to all participants. However, this may influence participants' responses as they move through the study resulting in decreased reliability in the latter responses.

In conclusion, the current research investigated an unexplored area with regards to examining offenders' perceptions of stalking. The study provides some support for differences between offenders' and non-offenders' perceptions. Additionally, the current findings further support an association between IPV and stalking with regards to the prevalence of a history of stalking within an IPV offending sample. However, no significant differences were found between IPV offenders' and non-IPV offenders'/non-offenders' perceptions of stalking. This suggests other factors may be responsible for the association between stalking and IPV.

However, due to certain limitations of the study, further research utilising a modified recruitment strategy and adapted questionnaires may enable a more comprehensive exploration of IPV offenders' perceptions of stalking.

Chapter Three

Individual and relationship characteristics associated with stalking and unwanted pursuit following the termination of intimate relationships: A systematic review

Abstract

A large proportion of stalkers have been found to target former intimate partners. Victims of former intimate stalking are more at risk of violence. Furthermore, studies have shown former intimate partners are significantly less likely to be convicted for stalking behaviours and more likely to contact the victim following the intervention, to fail on conditional release, to reoffend, and to commit new stalking offences. The primary objective of this review was to explore the characteristics of the perpetrators and the preceding relationship associated with former intimate stalking. Nine electronic databases were systematically searched in order to identify relevant primary studies. Additional search methods included utilising search engines, contacting experts, and hand-searching relevant literature reviews and journals. Inclusion and exclusion criteria were applied before the final papers underwent quality assessment and data extraction. The search yielded a total of 12,107 hits. After excluding duplicate and irrelevant references, as well as those that did not meet the inclusion criteria, a total of 15 papers were reviewed. The included studies explored a number of characteristics and the findings of all studies are outlined. Anxious attachment emerged as one of the key individual characteristics. Furthermore, conflict and abuse within the relationship was associated with pursuit following the relationship. Additional

characteristics were explored and the findings presented; however overall results were mixed. Therefore, the review highlighted the need for further research within this area. Limitations of the review and implications for practice and future research are discussed.

Introduction

Background

There are a number of different definitions of stalking proposed by various researchers and incorporated into laws and legislation throughout countries worldwide. Overall, definitions appear to focus on repetition of specified conduct and intention to cause fear or harm (Scott, Rajakaruna, Sheridan, & Sleath, 2014). However, in the United Kingdom (UK) the intention to cause fear or harm is not necessary for a conviction of the offence of stalking. Specifically, the Protection of Freedoms Act (2012) introduced two new crimes to UK legislation; 'stalking' and 'stalking involving fear of violence or serious alarm or distress'. Therefore, the current study is based on Pathé and Mullen's definition, which describes stalking as "*a constellation of behaviours in which an individual inflicts upon another repeated unwanted intrusions and communications*" (Pathé & Mullen, 1997, p. 12).

The most recent statistics suggest that 18.1% of women and 9.4% of men in the UK have experienced stalking at some point in their lives (Home Office, 2011). Research indicates that these figures are slightly elevated in Australia (Purcell, Pathé, & Mullen, 2002) and marginally lower in other European countries and the United States (US; Dressing, Kuehner, & Gass, 2005; Basile, Swahn, Chen, Saltzman, 2006). This may be due to the varying legal definitions across the countries. Although, researchers have argued that true prevalence rates are likely to be higher. Tjaden and Thoennes (1998) found that only 55% of female victims and 48% of male victims reported stalking to law enforcement. Furthermore,

of the reported cases, 24% and 19% (respectively) were prosecuted. Slightly more than half of these resulted in a conviction. However, the conviction was not necessarily for stalking. Similarly, Jordan, Logan, Walker, and Nigoff (2003) found that only 19.9% of arrested stalkers were convicted of stalking with the majority of cases either being disposed of or amended to different charges.

Stalking can impact numerous aspects of the victim's life. In practical terms, victims may change their routines and contact details, introduce additional security measures to their home, change their job, or move house (Amar, 2006). Stalking can also affect victims' physical and mental health. Victims have reported agitation, anxiety, depression, intense stress, post-traumatic stress symptoms, intense anger, trouble sleeping, digestive troubles, and headaches (Pathé & Mullen, 1997; Davis, Coker, & Sanderson, 2002; Logan, Walker, Jordan, & Leukefeld 2006). Additionally, victims have reported having aggressive thoughts about the stalker and have noted increased suspicion of others. Moreover, the levels of mental health symptoms have been found to be comparable with psychiatric outpatients (Dressing et al., 2005). However, researchers have found pervasiveness, intensity, and persistence of stalking behaviours affects the development of mental health symptoms (Blaauw, Winkel, Arensman, Sheridan, & Freeve, 2002). Furthermore, in cases where the stalker acts violently, victims may also sustain physical injuries. The health effects can subsequently impact employment as victims' job performance may be affected by the physical/mental health symptoms they are experiencing.

Researchers have found that a high percentage of stalkers are former partners of their victims' (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998). According to the 2004/2005 British Crime Survey (BCS), 34% of stalking victims were targeted by an ex-partner (Finney, 2006). The most recent statistics from the BCS indicate that 4.4% of women and 2.5% of men in the UK reported being stalked by a former intimate partner (Office for National Statistics, 2015). Prior intimate stalkers have been found to stalk for prolonged periods and engage in more violent behaviours than other stalkers (McEwan, Mullen, & Purcell, 2007). This is particularly concerning given the evidence that persistence is associated with the development of mental health symptoms. Furthermore, researchers have found between 23-76% of women who are murdered by a current/former partner have been stalked by the same partner before they were killed (Moracco, Runyan, & Butts, 1998; McFarlane et al., 1999).

Studies have shown former intimate partners are significantly less likely than strangers to be convicted for stalking behaviours (Sheridan & Davies, 2001) despite this victim group being the most likely to seek legal intervention (Mullen, Pathé, & Purcell 2000). If legal intervention does take place, prior intimates have been found to be more likely than other stalkers to contact the victim following the intervention, to fail on conditional release, to reoffend (both violently and non-violently), and to commit new stalking offences (Eke, Hilton, Melow, Mohandie, & Williams, 2011). With regards to additional impact on victims, researchers have found that victims stalked by ex-partners reported feelings of shame, a sense of loss, self-blame, decreased trust in others, increased feelings of

alienation and isolation, and higher dependency on others (Kamphuis, Emmelkamp, & Bartak, 2003; Dressing et al., 2005).

Current review

Although a number of primary research studies have been conducted, currently there are no systematic reviews focusing on the stalking of former intimate partners. Therefore, the characteristics of the individuals who engage in these behaviours and the relationships that precede them are unclear. Given the reportedly high prevalence and severe impact of stalking of prior intimates, exploring these characteristics is essential in order to aid identification of risk factors and guide risk assessment and treatment. Thus, the primary objective of this review is to explore the characteristics of the perpetrators and the preceding relationship associated with former intimate stalking.

Method

Search strategy

The primary search strategy involved an electronic search of PsycINFO, PsycARTICLES, Medline, EMBASE, ASSIA, NCJRS, ProQuest: Dissertation and Theses (AI and UK), the Cochrane Library and the Campbell Collaboration. Following the primary search, the first 50 results from searches conducted on Google were reviewed in order to identify grey literature. As there are currently no existing systematic reviews or meta-analyses focusing on this topic, relevant narrative reviews were sourced and the reference lists hand searched. Furthermore, as there are limited numbers of reviews in the field of stalking in general, systematic reviews

and meta-analyses relating to any aspect of stalking were also sourced and hand searched. Additionally, *Violence and Victims* and the *Journal of Family Violence* were identified as relevant journals due to a number of included studies being published in these journals and were therefore hand searched for relevant references. Finally, experts in the field were also contacted to source unpublished literature and current studies. No restrictions were made regarding publication date, language or country of origin. The terms utilised throughout the search process are outlined in Appendix C.

Inclusion and exclusion criteria

Population

Participants included males and females who had been involved in the perpetration of unwanted pursuit/stalking behaviours directed towards a prior intimate partner following the termination of the relationship. For the purpose of this review, the term 'prior intimate' refers to a former spouse, legal cohabitant, or dating/sexual partner (Mohandie, Meloy, McGowan, & Williams, 2006). Although studies focusing on stalking victimisation could have also contributed to the review, victim reports of characteristics of the perpetrator and the relationship are likely to be subjective depending on the negativity of the experiences following the breakup. However, it is acknowledged that there are also biases related to perpetrator accounts (e.g., socially desirable responding).

The scoping exercise revealed that the reporting methods of studies resulted in problematic application of an age inclusion criterion. For

example, some studies only reported the mean age, with no age range being noted or age related inclusion criteria outlined. Others reported the mean age at time of breakup. Therefore, as stalking has been found to be particularly prevalent among university students (Fremouw, Westrup, & Pennypacker, 1997; McNamara & Marsil, 2012), with many researchers investigating the phenomenon focusing on this population, the review included participants of university age or older (i.e. ≥ 17 years of age).

Participants solely drawn from 'batterer' samples (i.e. those who had perpetrated intimate partner violence (IPV)) were excluded due to the potential bias from inclusion of these participants. For example, the inclusion of IPV perpetrators would have meant violence would have been present in all of the prior relationships, therefore skewing these results.

Exposure

Exposure related to the perpetration of repeated unwanted intrusions and communications directed towards a former intimate partner. Many researchers and legal definitions require fear to be present to label a behaviour stalking and therefore term behaviours that are repetitive and intrusive as obsessive relational intrusion (ORI) or unwanted pursuit behaviour (UPB; De Smet, Uzieblo, Loeys, Buysse, & Onraedt, 2015). However, with regards to the current study, repetitive ORIs and UPBs meet the definition of stalking. It is of note that unwanted pursuit involves a continuum of behaviours meaning higher frequencies and/or severity of behaviours would also meet legal definitions of stalking.

The behaviours must have occurred after the relationship had ended. The stalking of current partners is not included for two reasons. Firstly, researchers have indicated that this occurs (or is recorded/researched) to a much lesser extent (Douglas & Dutton, 2001). Additionally, researchers have suggested that stalking within relationships occurs within the context of IPV (Melton, 2007). Therefore, similarly to the above, inclusion of findings relating to the stalking of current intimate partners may have skewed the results to be more reflective of IPV offenders than stalkers as well as potentially inflating certain characteristics (e.g., violence within the relationship).

Outcome

The study must have investigated characteristics of the pursuer or the prior relationship. The characteristics of the stalking behaviours, victims, impact on victim, and legal consequences were not included in the current review.

Study design

All methods of data collection were initially considered. However, case studies were not included due to the potential inflation of certain characteristics based on the study of one person. Furthermore, studies that used qualitative data analysis were excluded. Historically, systematic study of stalking has been restricted to the examination of forensic cases. This has limited the generalisability of the results to all stalkers as only the minority of cases are brought to the attention of the criminal justice system (Westrup & Fremouw, 1998). As forensic populations are likely to

only contain a small sample of all stalkers, the prevalence of certain characteristics may be artificially inflated (Roberts, 2002). Therefore, both forensic and non-forensic samples were considered for inclusion in the current study. The full inclusion/exclusion pro-forma can be found in Appendix D.

Study selection

Following a systematic and comprehensive search, all the identified studies were reviewed. The first stage of the inclusion process involved screening the titles of the search results and excluding both duplicates and those that were clearly irrelevant. When the titles of studies were ambiguous, the abstract was reviewed in order to determine whether the study was likely to meet the inclusion criteria. Following this process, all of the remaining studies were screened using the inclusion criteria pro-forma.

Quality assessment

Following the inclusion process, the quality of articles that met the inclusion criteria was assessed (see Appendix E for the quality assessment tool). A fellow trainee enrolled on the Doctorate in Forensic Psychology reviewed 20% of the studies to ensure accurate assessment of quality. Any discrepancies between ratings were discussed and final ratings agreed upon by both raters.

Results

The primary search yielded a total of 12,102 hits. Three thousand and ninety nine duplicates were removed and an additional 8,936 irrelevant references were identified and excluded based on titles/abstracts. Efforts were made to obtain all potentially relevant studies. These included requests via the university library as well as contacting the authors or associated researchers if the author's contact details were unobtainable. However, four papers could not be located. Finally, a further five studies were obtained from additional sources throughout the secondary search. Therefore, inclusion criteria were applied to the full text of 68 papers with 53 being excluded from the review as they did not meet the necessary criteria. Figure 6 provides an illustration of the study selection process. This process resulted in a total of 15 studies being included in the review. Two of these studies utilised the same data with one focusing on only the females in the sample. Furthermore, one study included 66 of the same participants as another, whilst recruiting an additional 26 participants. The results of the quality assessment and risk of bias in all included studies are presented in Table 5 with additional information relating to the quality of the included studies being provided in Appendix F.

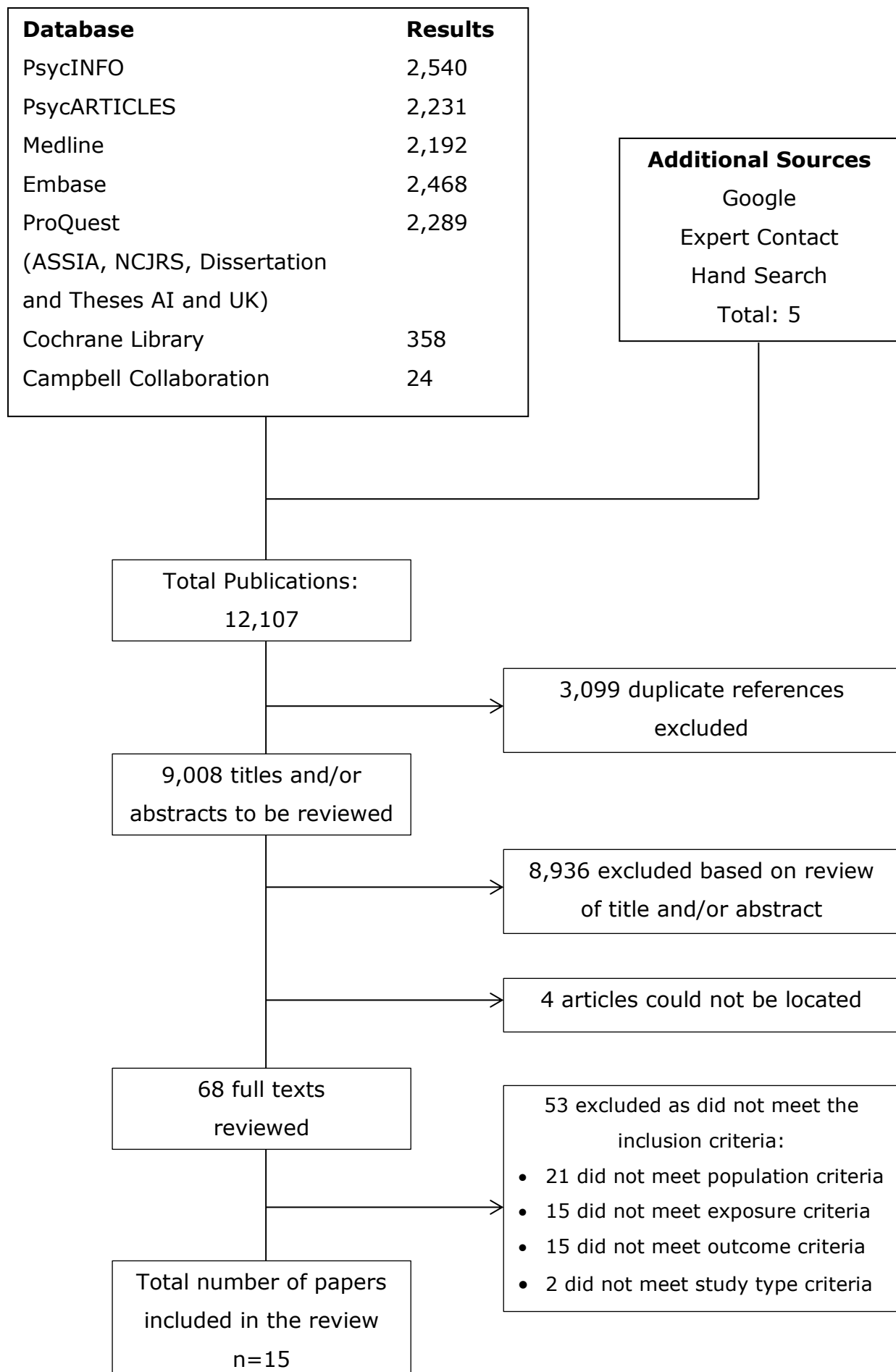


Figure 6: Study selection process

Table 5

Risk of bias for included studies

	Sampling/ Selection Bias	Measurement Bias (Exposure)	Measurement Bias (Outcome)	Attrition Bias	Reporting Bias
Langhinrichsen-Rohling, Palarea, Cohen, & Rohling (2000)	High	High	Moderate	Unclear	Moderate
Langhinrichsen-Rohling & Rohling (2000)	High	High	Moderate	Unclear	Low
Costigan (2006)	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Unclear	High
Dutton & Winstead (2006)	High	Moderate	Moderate	Unclear	Low
Wisternoff (2008)	High	High	High	Unclear	Low
Gallivan (2010)	High	High	Moderate	Unclear	Low
Cupach, Spitzberg, Bolingbroke, & Tellitocci (2011)	High	High	High	Unclear	High
De Smet, Buysse, & Brondeel (2011)	Moderate	High	Moderate	Unclear	Moderate
De Smet, Loeys, & Buysse (2012)	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	High	Moderate
De Smet, Loeys, & Buysse (2013)	High	Moderate	Moderate	High	Low
Cole (2014)	High	Moderate	High	Unclear	Low
Spitzberg, Cupach, Hannawa, & Crowley (2014)	High	High	Moderate	Unclear	High
Tassy & Winstead (2014)	High	Moderate	Moderate	Unclear	Moderate
Dardis (2015)	High	Moderate	Moderate	Unclear	Low
De Smet, Uzieblo, Loeys, Buysse, & Onraedt (2015)	High	Moderate	Moderate	Unclear	Moderate

Descriptive details of included studies

Data were extracted utilising the pro-forma outlined in Appendix G. Details of the included studies are provided in Table 6. All studies were cross-sectional in design. Ten were published in journals (Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al., 2000; Langhinrichsen-Rohling & Rohling, 2000; Dutton & Winstead, 2006; Cupach et al., 2011; De Smet et al., 2011; 2012; 2013; 2015; Spitzberg et al., 2014; Tassy & Winstead, 2014) and five were unpublished dissertations/theses (Costigan, 2006; Wisternoff, 2008; Gallican, 2010; Cole, 2014; Dardis, 2015). Although both forensic and community samples were considered, following the application of the inclusion/exclusion criteria, the final fifteen studies were all based on community samples.

Participants

Findings relating to a total of 4,825 participants are outlined in the current review. Studies varied in the way in which they reported the ages of participants meaning the overall age range of the sample cannot be determined. Similarly, it is not possible to calculate the proportion of males and females included in the final sample due to the different reporting styles. All studies required participants to have been in an intimate relationship that had terminated at some point in their lives. Relationship specific inclusion criteria included the following: heterosexual (Costigan, 2006; Wisternoff, 2008; De Smet et al., 2012; 2013; Tassy & Winstead, 2014); married only (De Smet et al., 2012; 2013); married or cohabiting only (De Smet et al., 2011); dating only (Cole, 2014); non-marital only (Wisternoff, 2008); relationship termination unwanted by

participant (Langhinrichsen-Rohling & Rohling, 2000; Gallivan, 2010); participant or partner had difficulty letting go of the relationship (Dutton & Winstead, 2006; Tassy & Winstead, 2014); duration of relationship (Langhinrichsen-Rohling & Rohling, 2000; Cupach et al., 2011; Spitzberg et al., 2014; Tassy & Winstead, 2014; Gallivan, 2010); time lapsed since breakup (Tassy & Winstead, 2014); and breakup within set time period prior to the study (Wisternoff, 2008; Cupach et al., 2011; Spitzberg et al., 2014; De Smet et al., 2015). Additional inclusion criteria were age (Costigan, 2006; Dardis, 2015; De Smet et al., 2015) and the participant and their partner's use of Facebook (Cole, 2014). Participants were excluded if they did not meet these criteria. Further reasons for exclusion were invalid responses to the questionnaires (Costigan, 2006; Dutton & Winstead, 2006; Wisternoff, 2008; De Smet et al., 2011; 2015; Dardis, 2015) and extreme scores (Dutton & Winstead, 2006).

Measures

The majority of the studies agreed that distress and/or fear were necessary for behaviours to be classified as stalking due to the majority of legal definitions stipulating fear as a requirement for conviction. Therefore, most studies purported to measure unwanted pursuit behaviours (UPBs) or obsessive relational intrusions (ORIs) rather than stalking, with the exceptions being Costigan (2006) and Wisternoff (2008). All studies used self-report methods to measure both UPBs/stalking and the individual and relationship characteristics. The details of these measures are outlined in Table 6, with a comprehensive overview of the tools being provided in Appendices H and I.

Table 6

Details of studies included in the review

	Location	Sample	Participants' age	Participants' gender	Aspects of stalking explored and measure(s) used*	Individual characteristics explored and measure(s) used*	Relationship characteristics explored and measure(s) used*
Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al. (2000)	United States (US)	University students enrolled in introduction to psychology courses in one university (N=282) Individuals who reported their former partner broke up with them (breakup sufferers) reported on stalking perpetration (N=120) Individuals who reported they initiated the breakup with their ex-partner (breakup dissolvers) reported on stalking victimisation (N=162)^a	Mean age at time of breakup: Entire sample – 18.6 years Breakup sufferers – 18.5 years Breakup dissolvers – 18.6 years^a	Entire sample – 123 males and 159 females Breakup sufferers – 59 males and 61 females Breakup dissolvers – 64 males and 98 females^a	Frequency and severity of UPBs measured by the Unwanted Pursuit Behaviour Inventory (UPBI)	General attachment – Experiences in Close Relationships scale (ECR) Relationship-specific attachment – Spouse-Specific Dependency Scale (SSDS) Jealousy – Interpersonal Jealousy Scale	Love style – Love Attitudes Scale Short Form History of violence within the relationship – Revised Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS2)
Langhinrichsen-Rohling & Rohling (2000)	US	University students enrolled in introduction to psychology classes in two universities (N=212)	Mean age at time of breakup – 18.6 years	109 males and 103 females	Frequency and severity of UPBs measured by the UPBI	Current parental divorce – assessed via one yes/no question History of parental separation – assessed via two yes/no/don't know questions	N/A

						History of witnessing IPV – assessed via two yes/no questions relating to mild and severe acts of physical violence	
						Interparental conflict – measured by the Children's Perceptions of Interparental Conflict Scale (CPICS)	
Costigan (2006)	Canada	Undergraduate students recruited from various disciplines within one university (N=457)	Mean age of 23.38 years	200 males and 280 females ^b	Utilised a series of four questions in which participants indicated whether they had engaged in behaviours that would meet the legal classification of harassment and stalking	Mental health symptoms – Symptoms Checklist-90-Revised	History of abuse within the relationship – CTS2 Prior relationship history – assessed via a series of eight questions
Dutton & Winstead (2006)	US	University students from psychology courses recruited from one university (N=377) Individuals who had difficulty letting go of the relationship reported on stalking perpetration (N=205) Individuals whose partner had difficulty letting go of the relationship reported on stalking victimisation (N=172) ^a	Entire sample – ages ranged between 18-42 years (M=20.58)	Entire sample – 159 males and 214 females (4 unreported) Individuals who had difficulty letting go – 93 males and 109 females (3 unreported) Individuals whose partner had difficulty letting go – 66 males and 105 females (1 unreported) ^a	Frequency of pursuit and aggressive behaviours measured by the Relationship Pursuit – Pursuer Short Form (RP-PSF)	Attachment – ECR	Relationship satisfaction – adapted version of Relationship Assessment Scale Relationship alternatives – five items form the Investment Model Scale (IMS) Distress following the breakup – modified version of an unnamed measure of distress developed by Sprecher, Felmlee, Metts, Fehr, and Vanni (1998)

Wisternoff (2008)	New Zealand	University students recruited from various departments within one university (N=199)	Ages ranged between 17-55 years (M=22.02)	99 males and 100 females	Frequency of stalking behaviours (reconciliation behaviours, mild stalking, and severe stalking) measured by an unnamed tool from Stenwick's (2002) study derived from Davis, Ace, and Andra's (2000) Relationship History Survey	Attachment – Adult Attachment Questionnaire Self-esteem – Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale Self-perceived mate value – measured by the self-perception scales from the short forms of the ideal partner and relationship scales Narcissism – Narcissistic Personality Inventory	Relationship investment – satisfaction and commitment were measured using subscales from the Perceived Relationship Quality Components Inventory whereas alternatives and investment were measured using subscales from the IMS
Gallivan (2010)	US	University students enrolled in introduction to psychology classes in two universities (N=103)	Mean age at time of breakup – 18.22 years	103 females	Frequency of UPBs measured by the UPBI	General attachment – ECR Relationship-specific attachment – SSDS Virginity status – assessed via one yes/no question asking whether the participant's first sexual intercourse was with the ex-partner in question	N/A
Cupach et al. (2011)	US	University students enrolled in two communication classes across two universities (N=433)	Ages ranged between 18-37 years (M=20.4)	169 males and 264 females	Frequency of UPBs measured by a questionnaire developed for the study derived from the UPBI and the RP-PSF. Two subscales	N/A	Goal-linking – measured by a questionnaire developed for the study Rumination – questionnaire developed the study

					related to 'mild' and 'severe' behaviours		Emotional flooding – measured by an adapted version of Dutton-Greene's (2004) questionnaire Self-efficacy – measure developed for the study Initiator status – assessed via one question asking who wanted out of the relationship
De Smet et al. (2011)	Belgium	Members of the general public divorced or separated from a previous romantic partner with whom they had been married or legally cohabitating (N=184)	Ages ranged between 22-64 years (M=42.48)	67 males and 117 females	Frequency of UPBs measured by the UPBI	General individual adjustment – Beck Depression Inventory-2 nd Edition and the state version of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory	Initiator status – determined by one question asking who wanted the breakup most Locus of cause – measured via a brief questionnaire developed for the study Perceived reasons – one open-ended question asking participants to report why the relationship had ended Separation-specific adjustment – the ex-partner attachment and lonely negativity subscales of the Psychological Adjustment to Separation Test

De Smet et al. (2012)	Belgium	Members of the general public awaiting court proceedings relating to their divorce (N=396)	Mean age – 43.10 years	160 males and 236 females	Frequency of UPBs measured by the RP-PSF	Attachment – ECR	Investment in the relationship – IMS Relational conflict – three items based on the CPICS referring to frequency and intensity of conflict and conflict resolution Initiator status – see De Smet et al. (2011) Locus of cause – see De Smet et al. (2011) Post-breakup negative affect – measure developed for the study
De Smet et al. (2013)	Belgium	Ex-couples recruited from the general public (N=46 couples; 92 participants)	Ages ranged between 28-70 years (M=47.07 for males and 44.80 for females)	46 males and 46 females	Frequency of UPBs measured by the RP-PSF	N/A	Investment in relationship – IMS Relational conflict – see De Smet et al. (2012)
Cole (2014)	US	University students enrolled in communication classes in one university (N=326)	Ages ranged between 18-37 years (M=20.79)	147 males and 179 females	Frequency of overt and explicit Facebook ORIs measured by a 40-item tool created for the purpose of the study ^c	N/A	Emotions experienced after the breakup – measured by a questionnaire developed for the study Initiator status – see De Smet et al. (2011) Goal-linking – revised version of Cupach et al.'s (2011) measure Rumination – revised version of Cupach et al.'s (2011) measure

							Self-efficacy – revised version of Cupach et al.’s (2011) measure
Spitzberg et al. (2014)	US	University students from two universities (N=322)	Mean age – 20.8 years	99 males and 223 females	Frequency of ORIs measured by a questionnaire developed for the study based on previous research. Eight categories of unwanted pursuit tactics were explored. These included: hyper-intimacy; interactional contacts (i.e. physical contacts); mediated contacts (i.e. contacts via technology); surveillance; intrusion; intimidation; harassment; threats; and violence	N/A	Initiator status – two questions asking who wanted out of the relationship and who initiated the breakup Length of time took to accomplish breakup – determined via one question Number of times reconciled after previous breakups – determined via one question Closeness of relationship – verbal form of the Inclusion of Other in the Self Scale Goal-linking – see Cupach et al. (2011) Self-efficacy – see Cupach et al. (2011) Rumination – see Cupach et al. (2011) Emotional flooding – measured by a questionnaire developed for the study Face sensitivity – measured by a questionnaire developed for the study adapted from previous measures

Tassy & Winstead (2014)	US	Undergraduate students (N=242) <i>(Findings included in the current review are based on the 158 participants who reported engaging in pursuit behaviours)</i>	Entire sample – majority (78%) aged between 18-21 years <i>(Demographics of those who engaged in pursuit behaviours were not reported)</i>	Entire sample – 62 males and 180 females <i>(Demographics of those who engaged in pursuit behaviours were not reported)</i>	Frequency of pursuit and aggressive behaviours measured by the RP-PSF	Attachment – ECR Neuroticism – Neuroticism Scale Jealousy – Multidimensional Jealousy Scale	Investment in the relationship – IMS
Dardis (2015)	US	University students from the psychology research participant pool (N=1,156)	Not reported	383 males and 771 females (2 participants identified as transgender)	Frequency of real-life UPBs (measured by the UPBI) and cyber UPBs (measured by the Controlling Partners Inventory-Self) differentiating between excessive contact/checking behaviours and threatening behaviours	Emotion regulation – Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale Dispositional self-control – Grasmick, Tittle, Bursik, and Arneklev' (1993) unnamed measure Attachment – ECR Possessiveness – Modified Possessiveness Scale Substance use – Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test and drug specific questions from the Drinking and Drug Habits Questionnaire	History of abuse within the relationship – CTS2 Investment in relationship – IMS Rumination – see Cupach et al. (2011) Goal-linking – see Cupach et al. (2011) Self-efficacy – see Cupach et al. (2011) Relationship contingent self-worth – unnamed measure developed by Sanchez and Kwang (2007)
De Smet et al. (2015)	Belgium	Members of the general public (N=631)	Ages ranged between 18-61 years (M=30.57)	225 males and 406 females	Frequency of UPBs measured by the RP-PSF	Attachment – ECR Empathy – The Empathy Quotient Psychopathic traits – Self-Report Psychopathy Scale-III	Initiator status – see De Smet et al. (2011) Rumination – Relationship Preoccupation Scale

Borderline traits –
McLean Screening
Instrument for Borderline
Personality Disorder

Narcissism –
Dutch Narcissism Scale

Delinquent behaviour –
Self-Report Delinquency
Survey

*A comprehensive overview of the measures utilised throughout the studies and associated references are provided in Appendices H and J.

^a Findings relating to the individuals who reported on unwanted pursuit victimisation are not included in the current review

^b Twenty three participants were excluded from the analysis as they did not meet the inclusion criteria. However, the proportion of males and females in the final sample is not reported

^c Findings relating to overt ORIs are not included in the current review as they do not meet the 'intrusive' aspect of the inclusion criteria. See Appendix H for full details

Individual characteristics

Demographics

Costigan (2006) found that distributions of individuals in a stalker group, harasser group, and non-perpetrator group did not vary by gender. Furthermore, overall no gender differences were found with regards to the total frequency of UPBs. De Smet et al. (2013) noted that although females reported perpetrating more UPBs, the gender difference was not significant. Additionally, De Smet et al. (2011) reported a trend towards an association between gender and frequency of UPBs, with females reporting more. A number of researchers found gender differences in relation to specific behaviours. For example, De Smet et al. (2015) noted that men left unwanted gifts at higher frequencies than females. Moreover, Wisternoff (2008) found that males reported continuously asking their former partner out on dates more often than females. Spitzberg et al. (2014) found that males reported engaging in hyper-intimacy behaviours more frequently than females. However, Dutton and Winstead (2006) noted that females reported monitoring targets and physically hurting victims more often than males. The latter finding was replicated in De Smet et al.'s (2015) study. There were also some gender differences found in relation to the effect of certain variables on UPBs. These are discussed in the relevant sections below.

In terms of additional demographic variables, De Smet et al. (2011) and De Smet et al. (2012) found a significant association between the frequency of UPBs and education level. Specifically, those with higher education levels reported lower frequencies of UPBs. De Smet et al.

(2012) also found a significant association between age and the frequency of UPBs, with the frequency of behaviours decreasing with age. Few studies incorporated participants who had been in homosexual relationships. However, whilst an association between sexuality and UPB frequency was not found, De Smet et al. (2015) did find differences between same gender and opposite gender partners in relation to certain behaviours. Specifically, same gender partners left unwanted messages of affection, intruded upon friends/family/co-workers, and left or sent ex-partners threatening objects more often than opposite gender partners but engaged in regulatory harassment less often.

Attachment

Eight studies examined the association between attachment styles and UPBs/stalking. With regards to measures examining attachment in terms of anxiety and avoidance, there were no significant findings in relation to the impact of avoidance on UPBs/stalking. Conversely, the majority of studies consistently found an association between anxious attachment and UPBs/stalking. Specifically, attachment anxiety was found to be significantly positively correlated with stalking frequency (Wisternoff, 2008), overall UPB frequency (Gallivan, 2010; De Smet et al., 2013; De Smet et al., 2015), and frequency of both pursuit and aggressive behaviours (Dutton & Winstead, 2006; Tassey & Winstead, 2014). However, when De Smet et al. (2015) examined attachment separately for heterosexual and homosexual partners, they found a higher degree of anxious attachment was associated with increased UPB perpetration in the heterosexual group, whilst the converse was true of the homosexual

group with higher anxiety being associated with less UPBs. Additionally, Dardis (2015) found that only cyber excessive contact/checking behaviours were associated with anxious attachment. Real-life excessive contact/checking and cyber and real-life threatening behaviours were not significantly associated with anxious attachment⁴. Furthermore, Gallivan (2010) categorised the female participants into 'low level anxious attachment' and 'high level anxious attachment' through median split methods. Analyses revealed that the association between anxious attachment and UPBs did not hold when this method was utilised as there were no significant differences between the groups with regards to mean UPB perpetration.

With regards to prediction, Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al. (2000) found that anxious attachment significantly predicted UPB severity, but not frequency. Dutton and Winstead (2006) found attachment anxiety significantly contributed to the prediction of both pursuit and aggression, whilst Tassey and Winstead (2014) found anxious attachment predicted pursuit behaviours only. Additionally, although Wisternoff (2008) found anxious attachment to be a significant predictor of stalking, levels of sadness and anger following the breakup and negative motivation for engagement in the behaviours were all found to mediate the relationship.

In relation to specific attachment styles, Dutton and Winstead (2006) found that preoccupied individuals reported engaging in pursuit behaviours significantly more than secure individuals. However, no other

⁴ Due to the large sample size, only correlations of $r=2$ and above were reported as significant within Dardis' (2015) paper.

comparisons between attachment groups were significant, and there were no significant differences between attachment groups in relation to aggressive behaviours. Two studies examined relationship specific attachment styles; although, both of these were based on the same sample, with one study focusing on the female participants only. Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al. (2000) found that higher scores on the nurturance and support seeking scale predicted higher frequencies of UPBs. This finding was replicated in the female only study (Gallivan, 2010). Furthermore, UPB severity was predicted by 'nurturance and support seeking' and 'anxious and insecure' attachment styles. However, Gallivan (2010) did not find any attachment measures to be predictive in the female only sample.

Personality and mental health

Three studies investigated the association between specific personality traits and UPBs/stalking. Tassey and Winstead (2014) found frequency of both pursuit and aggressive behaviours to be significantly correlated with neuroticism; however neuroticism was not found to be predictor of either type of behaviours. De Smet et al. (2015) found that borderline traits significantly predicted an increase in the frequency of UPBs. Further analyses revealed that borderline traits were positively associated with UPB perpetration following heterosexual relationships only. In terms of additional personality traits, De Smet et al. (2015) found no significant associations between empathy, psychopathic traits, or narcissistic traits and frequency of UPBs. Wisternoff (2008) also found no significant association between narcissism and stalking.

A further two studies examined the association between mental health and UPBs/stalking. Costigan (2006) noted that those who met the legal definition of stalkers and/or harassers reported higher levels of interpersonal anxiety, phobic anxiety, depression, psychoticism, hostility, obsessive-compulsivity, and paranoid ideation at the time of the study than those in the no-perpetration group. Additionally, although De Smet et al. (2011) found significant associations between self-reported depression and anxiety at the time of the study and frequency of UPBs, these were not found to be predictors when controlling for other associated variables.

Jealousy

Two studies examined the role of jealousy in relation to UPBs/stalking. Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al. (2000) found no relationship between jealousy and frequency of UPB perpetration or UPB severity. However, Tassey and Winstead (2014) found that although there was no association between cognitive jealousy or emotional jealousy and pursuit and aggression, an association was found between behavioural jealousy, with this type of jealousy being a significant predictor of both pursuit and aggressive behaviours.

Family experiences

One study investigated the effect of the perpetrators' family-of-origin experiences on UPB. Langhinrichsen-Rohling and Rohling (2000) found a significant association between parental conflict and frequency of UPBs, with those who had experienced frequent, intense, child-focused,

unresolved, and threatening parental arguments perpetrating more UPBs. Furthermore, more UPBs were reported by those who indicated they had difficulty coping with parental conflict, those who blamed themselves, and those who experienced triangulation when their parents fought. In relation to UPB severity, there was only a significant association between severity and parental conflict for females. Females who reported that parental conflict was intense and threatening reported more severe UPBs. Additionally, females who had difficulty coping, blamed themselves, and experienced triangulation reported more severe UPBs. In further relation gender differences, Langhinrichsen-Rohling and Rohling (2000) found that males whose parents were currently divorced or separated reported significantly higher levels of UPB than males from homes with parents who were still together and females in either family situation. Moreover, UPB severity was significantly higher for males with a history of parental breakup/separation than males without such history and females. However, no significant results were found in relation to witnessing parental violence and UPB.

Additional characteristics

Three studies investigated the association between further individual characteristics and UPBs/stalking. Dardis (2015) found no significant associations between substance use, relationship-contingent self-worth, and emotion regulation and any type of UPBs. However, she did find greater dispositional difficulty with self-control to be associated with higher frequencies of real-life threatening UPBs. This was not the case for real-life or cyber excessive contact/checking behaviours or cyber

threatening behaviours. Dardis (2015) also explored associations between the four types of UPBs and possessiveness. Although she found no significant relationship between possessiveness and real-life excessive contact/checking or real-life and cyber threatening behaviours, cyber excessive contact/checking behaviours were significantly associated with possessiveness (i.e. greater possessiveness was related to increased cyber contact/checking). Additionally, IPV within the relationship was found to moderate the association between possessiveness and real-life threatening behaviours and mediate the relationship between possessiveness and cyber excessive contact/checking behaviours. In relation to self-esteem, Wisternoff (2008) found that the frequency of stalking behaviours was significantly negatively correlated with self-esteem. Wisternoff (2008) also explored the relationship between self-perceived mate value and stalking. She found self-perceived status (e.g., thinking of oneself as successful) was significantly correlated with stalking, whilst self-perceived warmth (e.g., thinking of oneself as kind and supportive) and self-perceived attractiveness were not. Finally, De Smet et al. (2015) noted that significantly more UPBs were reported when the participant reported a history involving more delinquent behaviour.

Relationship characteristics

Studies examined characteristics of the relationship, the breakup, and adjustment following the breakup. Therefore, these are explored separately below.

Relationship

Conflict and IPV within relationship

Five studies examined the association between conflict and IPV within the previous relationship and UPBs/stalking following the relationship. De Smet et al. (2012) explored the association between conflict (i.e. frequency, intensity, and resolution of conflicts within the relationship) and the frequency of UPBs. They found a significant positive effect of level of relational conflict on the number of UPB perpetrations. However, De Smet et al. (2013) found no association between individuals' ratings of conflict and perpetration of UPB. In specific relation to abuse, Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al. (2000) focused on violence within the relationship, finding no association between violence perpetration and frequency or severity of UPBs. Upon examining a wider range of abusive behaviours, Dardis (2015) found associations between the perpetration of different types of abuse and UPBs following the relationship. Firstly, with regards to real-life excessive contact/checking behaviours, only severe psychological abuse perpetration was significantly associated with an increase in these behaviours. However, severe psychological abuse, physical abuse, and sexual coercion were all significantly associated with an increase in the frequency of real-life threatening behaviours. In relation to cyber UPBs, severe psychological abuse and physical abuse were associated with both cyber excessive contact/checking and cyber threatening behaviours. Sexual coercion was associated with cyber threatening, but not contact/checking. Furthermore, all three forms of abuse significantly predicted cyber threatening UPBs.

Costigan (2006) focused on both perpetration and victimisation of abuse within the prior relationship, examining differences between those who met the legal definition of 'stalkers' and 'harassers' and those who did not report perpetrating UPBs. The tool used to assess abuse within the relationship measured both the prevalence and frequency of behaviours relating to the following: physical injury, physical assault, sexual coercion, psychological aggression, and negotiation. The negotiation scale reflects socially acceptable forms of conflict resolution whilst the other scales reflect different types of abusive behaviours.

In terms of perpetration, Costigan (2006) found no differences between groups with regards to prevalence or frequency of physical injury. However, the prevalence of physical assault was significantly higher in the stalking group than the harassment and no-perpetration groups, with the prevalence in the harassment group also being higher than the no-perpetration group. There were no differences between groups with regards to frequencies on this scale. Additionally, the prevalence and frequency of sexual coercion were higher in the stalking group than the other two groups. However, no significant differences were found between the harassment and no-perpetration groups. In relation to psychological aggression, higher prevalence and frequencies were found in the stalking and harassment groups compared to the no-perpetration group, with no differences being found between the stalking and harassment group. Interestingly, higher prevalence of negotiation was found in the harassment group than the no-perpetration group, with no other differences being found between groups in relation to this scale.

With regards to victimisation, the prevalence of physical injury was higher in the stalking group than the other two groups. There were no significant differences between the harassment and no-perpetration groups in terms of prevalence and no differences were found between the three groups in terms of frequency of physical injury. In relation to physical assault, higher prevalence was found in the stalking group compared to the no-perpetration group with no other differences being found between groups on this scale. In terms of sexual coercion, higher prevalence was found in both the stalking and harassment groups when compared to the no-perpetration group, whilst no differences were found between the stalking and harassment groups. Furthermore, higher frequencies of sexual coercion were reported in the stalking group when compared to the other two groups, with no significant differences being found between the harassment and no-perpetration groups. With regards to psychological aggression, prevalence was higher in the harassment group than the no-perpetration group, with no other differences being found between groups on this scale. Finally, the findings relating to negotiation replicated the results of the perpetration analyses outlined above.

Investment in relationship

Six studies investigated the association between an individual's investment in the relationship and perpetration of UPB/stalking following the relationship. It has been proposed that investment can be assessed through four separate factors: commitment level; satisfaction level; quality of alternatives; and size of investment in the relationship (Rusbult,

Martz, & Agnew, 1998). Therefore, each factor will be discussed separately.

Three of the six studies incorporated commitment level into analyses. Tassy and Winstead (2014) found that commitment was positively correlated with pursuit behaviours, but not aggressive behaviours. However, commitment was not found to be a significant predictor of pursuit. Similarly, Dardis (2015) found a significant association between real-life and cyber excessive contact/checking behaviours and commitment, with no significant associations being found for threatening behaviours. However, no significant associations between level of commitment and frequency of stalking behaviours were found in the remaining study (Wisternoff, 2008).

All six studies explored the relationship between quality of alternatives and UPB/stalking. In terms of frequencies of UPBs/stalking behaviours overall, Wisternoff (2008) found stalking behaviours to be significantly negatively correlated with quality of alternatives. However, De Smet et al. (2012) found no evidence of an association between alternatives and frequency of UPBs. De Smet et al. (2013) found alternatives to be significantly positively correlated with frequency of UPBs in females only. When differentiating between pursuit and aggressive behaviours, Dutton and Winstead (2006) found a significant association between quality of alternatives and both types of behaviours, with the frequency of behaviours decreasing as the quality of alternatives increased. Although, quality of alternatives was not found to be a predictor of either pursuit or

aggression. Alternatively, Tassey and Winstead (2014) found that quality of alternatives was negatively correlated with pursuit behaviours only. Although quality of alternatives was not found to be a predictor, a trend towards prediction was noted. Furthermore, Dardis (2015) found no significant correlations between quality of alternatives and either real-life or cyber excessive contact/checking or threatening behaviours.

In relation to investment size, five studies examined this variable. With regards to frequencies of UPBs/stalking behaviours overall, Wisternoff (2008) found investment size to be significantly positively correlated with stalking behaviours. However, De Smet et al. (2013) only found a positive correlation between investment size and frequency of UPBs for females, and De Smet et al. (2012) found no effects of investment size. When UPBs were divided into pursuit and aggressive behaviours, Tassey and Winstead (2014) found investment size to be positively correlated with both types of behaviours. However, investment was only a predictor of aggression. Additionally, Dardis (2015) found investment size to be positively correlated with, and a predictor of, real-life and cyber excessive contact/checking behaviours, but not threatening behaviours. However, level of commitment mediated the predictive relationship.

Finally, five studies investigated satisfaction levels with all studies finding no association between levels of satisfaction in the relationship and UPB/stalking behaviours following the relationship.

Love within the relationship

Wisternoff (2008) explored the association between the extent to which individuals experienced love during the relationship and UPB/stalking following the relationship. She found higher levels of love to be associated with increased stalking behaviours. Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al. (2000) investigated individual's love styles and found high levels of possessive/dependant love, high levels of friendship love, and low levels of sexual passion to be significant predictors of total UPBs. Furthermore, UPB severity was predicted by the presence of possessive/dependent love and the absence of passionate love.

Goal-linking

Four studies examined the association between goal-linking and UPB/stalking. Goal-linking refers to the extent to which an individual includes and connects their partner to personal life goals and self-concept. Spitzberg et al. (2014) found that goal-linking was significantly positively correlated certain types of ORIs (i.e. hyper-intimacy, mediated contact, interactional contact, and surveillance but not intrusion, harassment, threat, or violence). However, correlations between goal-linking and total ORI frequencies were not reported. Additionally, goal-linking was not found to be predictive of the frequency of total ORIs. Dardis (2015) found significant associations between goal-linking and real-life and cyber excessive contact/checking behaviours but not threatening behaviours. However, again, goal-linking was not found to be predictive. Cupach et al. (2011) and Cole (2014) conducted separate analyses based on who initiated the breakup. Cupach et al. (2011) did not report correlations and

did not find goal-linking to be predictive of mild or severe pursuit across any of the groups. Cole (2014) found goal-linking predicted explicit ORIs when the participant had ended the relationship themselves. However, this association was not present when the ex-partner had ended the relationship or both parties had mutually agreed to separate.

Additional characteristics

Tassey and Winstead (2014) explored the association between the number of times the individual had broken up with their partner previously and UPB perpetration. They found that individuals who had broken up with their partners more throughout the relationship perpetrated more pursuit and aggressive behaviours. Spitzberg et al. (2011) also collected data relating to prior breakups; however this was not incorporated into analyses. Gallivan (2010) investigated the impact of losing one's virginity within the relationship on perpetration of UPBs following the breakup in a female only sample. She found that there were no significant differences between those who had lost their virginity and those who had not in terms of frequency of UPBs. There were also no differences with regards to the specific behaviours engaged in. However, there was a trend towards those who lost their virginity reporting leaving phone messages or hang-up calls and sending/leaving letters/emails/faxes/pages/gifts more than those who had not.

Breakup

Firstly, six studies explored the association between the initiator of the breakup and perpetration of UPB/stalking. De Smet et al. (2011) and De

Smet et al. (2015) found the frequency of UPBs increased when the ex-partner had desired the breakup more/initiated the breakup. De Smet et al. (2012) did not find ex-partner initiation significantly predicted UPBs when compared to participant initiation. However, they noted that the frequency of UPBs decreased significantly when both partners wanted the breakup compared to when the participant wanted it. There was also a trend towards a decrease in UPBs when both wanted the breakup compared to when the ex-partner wanted it. Conversely, Cole (2014) and Dardis (2015) found initiator status did not have a significant effect on explicit ORI perpetration nor real-life or cyber excessive contact/checking or threatening behaviours. Similarly, Spitzberg et al. (2014) found neither specific ORI behaviours nor total ORIs differed significantly between initiator groups. Cupach et al. (2011) also collected data relating to initiator status. Although the association between this variable and pursuit behaviours was not examined, all analyses in Cupach et al.'s (2011) study were conducted separately for those who initiated the breakup themselves, those whose partners ended the relationship, and those who mutually agreed on the breakup.

With regards to additional breakup-specific characteristics, De Smet et al. (2015) explored the effect of time since the breakup on UPBs and found the frequency of UPBs significantly increased in line with the time since the breakup. Cupach et al. (2011) conducted analyses relating to time since breakup separately dependent on initiator status and found the converse. They found that time since the breakup significantly predicted a decrease in mild pursuit behaviours for participants who wanted to end

the relationship and for those whose partners wanted the relationship to end. However, this was not the case when both parties wanted to terminate the relationship. Additionally, time since the breakup only predicted severe pursuit for those who ended the relationship themselves. Again, this association was negative.

Two studies examined the relationship between the cause of the breakup and frequency of UPBs. De Smet et al. (2011) found attribution of the cause of the breakup to the ex-partner or external factors were significantly associated with, and predictive of, UPB frequency, while attributing the cause to oneself or the relationship were not. Although locus of cause did not reach significance in De Smet et al.'s (2012) study, there was a trend towards the frequency of UPBs decreasing when participants more strongly attributed the breakup to themselves or the relationship, and increasing when they more strongly attributing the cause to external factors. However, no trends were observed in relation to ex-partner's being identified as the causal factor. Finally, De Smet et al. (2011) also asked participants to report the perceived reason for the breakup. Although a negative effect of own infidelity and a positive effect of not meeting family obligations were noted, these effects disappeared when controlling for initiator status.

Adjustment following breakup

Seven studies examined the association between negative post-breakup emotions and UPB/stalking. All of these studies found that experiencing negative emotions had some significant association with the frequency of

UPBs. Specifically, De Smet et al. (2011) found that lonely negativity (which refers to loneliness and negative affect following the breakup) predicted UPB frequency. De Smet et al. (2012) also found that an increase in negative affect elevated the frequency of UPBs. Wisternoff (2008) found that anger and sadness were positively correlated with stalking behaviours. Furthermore, Cole (2014) found that both general negative emotions, and anger specifically, predicted explicit ORIs. Although the hostility scale, which incorporated four emotions (i.e. rage, disgust, resentment, and hate), was significantly correlated with explicit ORIs, it was not found to be a predictor. Dutton and Winstead (2006) found that overall emotional distress at the time of the breakup, as well as specifically the anger/jealousy and unhappiness components of the emotional distress scale, were positively correlated with both pursuit and aggression. Additionally, both overall emotional distress and the anger/jealousy subscale contributed to the prediction of both pursuit and aggressive behaviours. However, the unhappiness component was only predictive of aggressive behaviours. Cupach et al. (2011) and Spitzberg et al. (2014) explored the association between 'emotional/affective flooding' and pursuit behaviours. Flooding refers to general negative emotional reactions to the breakup. Spitzberg et al. (2014) found that flooding was positively correlated with certain types of ORIs (i.e. hyper-intimacy, mediated contact, interactional contact, and surveillance, but not intrusion, harassment, threat, or violence). However, correlations between flooding and total ORI frequencies were not reported, and flooding was not found to be a predictor of total ORIs. Cupach et al. (2011) found flooding was significantly associated with mild pursuit;

however flooding was not found to be a predictor. No associations between flooding and severe pursuit behaviours were reported.

In relation to positive emotions, Wisternoff (2008) found relief following the breakup to be negatively correlated with stalking behaviours. Interestingly, Cole (2014) found experiencing positive emotions following the breakup also significantly predicted increased explicit ORIs. The positive emotion scale incorporated ratings relating to the following emotions: appreciation, calmness, cheerfulness, delight, excitement, gratitude, happiness, joy, peace, pleasure, relief, and satisfaction. With regards to specific positive emotions, Cole (2014) also found that higher levels of love following the relationship significantly predicted explicit ORIs.

Five studies explored the association between rumination about an ex-partner and perpetration of UPBs. De Smet et al. (2015) found that individuals who were more preoccupied with their ex-partner perpetrated more UPBs. Further analyses revealed the increase in UPBs was larger for females than males. Dardis (2015) found rumination about the relationship to be significantly correlated with, and predictive of, real-life and cyber excessive contact/checking behaviours, but not threatening behaviours. Spitzberg et al. (2014) measured ruminative persistence (i.e. inability to suppress or avoid thinking about the ex-partner) and ruminative affect (i.e. emotions associated with the process of rumination or the prospect of being reunited). They found that both persistence and affect were positively correlated with certain categories of ORI behaviours (i.e.

hyper-intimacy, mediated contact, interactional contact, and surveillance, but not intrusion, threats, or violence). Furthermore, ruminative persistence was associated with harassment; however, ruminative affect was not. Both ruminative persistence and affect were predictors of frequency of total ORIs. However, when the ORI variable was dichotomised into those who reported zero or one behaviours and those who reported two or more, only ruminative persistence was a significant predictor. Two studies analysed data separately depending on who initiated the breakup. Cupach et al. (2011) found rumination to be a predictor of mild pursuit for those who ended the relationship themselves and those who mutually decided to end the relationship. However, this was not the case for those whose partners wanted the relationship to end. Conversely, Cole (2014) did not find rumination to be a predictor across all of the three groups.

In further relation to breakup adjustment, four studies examined the associations between self-efficacy and pursuit behaviours. Self-efficacy in this context refers to the belief that one can achieve their desired outcome, which, in all four studies, related to reconciliation of the prior relationship. With regards to specific types of ORIs, Spitzberg et al. (2014) found that self-efficacy only correlated with hyper-intimacy behaviours. In terms of frequency of total ORIs, self-efficacy was not found to be a predictor. However, when the ORI variable was dichotomised into those who reported zero or no pursuit behaviours and those who reported two or more, self-efficacy was found to be a significant predictor of repeated pursuit. Dardis (2015) did not find any

associations between self-efficacy and any type of UPB. Two studies analysed data separately based on who initiated the breakup. Cupach et al. (2011) found that self-efficacy predicted mild pursuit behaviours when either the participant or their partner had ended the relationship. However, this was not the case when both mutually agreed to end the relationship. Furthermore, self-efficacy did not predict severe pursuit behaviours in any of the three groups. Cole (2014) also found that self-efficacy predicted explicit ORIs when the participant's partner had ended the relationship. However, this variable was not a predictor when the participants had ended the relationship themselves or both parties had mutually agreed.

Finally, Spitzberg et al. (2014) explored the association between face sensitivity and ORIs. Face threat sensitivity related to how easily one's feelings were hurt, whilst felt face threat referred to the extent to which the rejection was seen as a personal slight. With regards to specific categories of ORIs, both face threat sensitivity and felt face threat were significantly correlated with hyper-intimacy, mediated contact, interactional contact, and surveillance. Face threat sensitivity was also correlated with intrusion and harassment, whilst neither threats nor violence were correlated with either factor of face sensitivity. Additionally, face sensitivity predicted frequency of overall ORIs.

Discussion

The findings of this review suggest that gender is not associated with unwanted pursuit/stalking following the termination of intimate

relationships. Although gender differences were noted with regards to certain behaviours, these were not consistent across studies. Additional demographic variables such as age, education level, and sexuality were explored in some studies. However, these have not been explored consistently enough for conclusions to be drawn.

Individual characteristics

The findings of the review suggest an association between anxious attachment and UPB/stalking behaviours. However, no effects were found in relation to avoidance. Specifically, the findings are indicative of a relationship between increased levels of anxious attachment and increased frequency of unwanted pursuit/stalking behaviours. Dardis (2015) found this only to be the case in relation to certain behaviours (i.e. cyber excessive contact/checking behaviours). However, these findings could relate to the large sample on which the study was based and the researcher's decision to only regard correlations of $r=2$ and above as significant. Although information relating to associations is beneficial, determining the nature of the association is also important, as associations can be coincidental. The findings relating to prediction suggest attachment anxiety is a significant predictor of the frequency of UPBs/stalking behaviours. However, researchers noted the effect of anxious attachment as a predictor differed for same-sex and opposite partners, could be mediated by other factors, and may differ depending on the type of behaviours being measured (e.g., pursuit versus aggressive behaviours). Therefore, more research would be beneficial in order to determine the specific nature of the relationship between attachment

anxiety and UPBs/stalking. Furthermore, few studies examined the relationship between specific attachment styles and UPB/stalking. The two studies in the current review that found evidence for relationship-specific attachment styles as predictors of UPB/stalking were based on the same sample. Therefore, further exploration into the association between both different attachment styles and relationship-specific attachment styles would be beneficial.

In relation to personality, although some studies collected data relating to personality traits, the traits explored were not consistent across studies. Two studies found no significant associations between narcissism and UPB/stalking. However, any other effects of personality traits relate to the findings of one study indicating this factor would benefit from further research. With regards to mental health, although two studies found associations between certain mental health symptoms and UPBs/stalking following a breakup, it is important to note that the mental health symptoms were rated as present at the time of the study, not at the time the UPBs took place. Therefore, the nature of any association is unclear. For example, certain mental health symptoms during the relationship or after the breakup may predict UPBs. Conversely, the inability to reconcile the relationship could have resulted in the presence of mental health symptoms.

In terms of additional individual characteristics, findings of this review are based on between one to two studies, therefore highlighting the need for future research in these areas. Firstly, findings relating to jealousy were

inconsistent, with one study noting an association and another finding no significant relationship. Discrepancies may relate to the measures of jealousy differing (i.e. overall jealousy versus cognitive, emotional, and behavioural jealousy). Langhinrichsen-Rohling and Rohling's (2000) study raises the possibility of associations between certain family-of-origin experiences (e.g., parental conflict, parental divorce/separation, and witnessing parental violence) and perpetration of UPBs following a relationship. However, participants were asked whether their parents were divorced/separated at the time of the study rather than at the time the UPBs were perpetrated, again giving no indication of the nature of the relationship. Furthermore, participants were asked to recall whether their parents had broken up/separated in the past. It is possible that participants may not have known about prior separations subsequently biasing the results. Therefore, although this raises suggestions for life experiences associated with UPB perpetration, further research would be beneficial to consolidate any findings. This also applies to additional reported associations based on the findings of individual studies due to the risk of bias in these studies. These include difficulties with self-control, possessiveness, self-perceived mate value, self-esteem, and history of delinquent behaviour.

Relationship characteristics

The findings of this review provide some evidence of an association between conflict and IPV within the prior relationship and UPB/stalking following the relationship. Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al. (2000) found no association between IPV and perpetration of UPBs. However, the

researchers did not report the results of any correlations between these variables. Therefore, although the relationship was not found to be predictive, it is possible that the two were associated. Furthermore, although not relevant for inclusion in the current review, Langhinrichsen-Rohling and colleagues (2000) also explored the same variables in relation to UPB victimisation following the breakup with a separate sample of participants and found IPV to be a predictor of UPBs. Therefore, it is possible that social desirability responding may have influenced the results relating to UPB perpetrators. Finally, Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al. (2000) only measured violence rather than the wider range of types of abuse, which may have also impacted the results.

The findings of this review are mixed in terms of the effect of investment in the relationship and unwanted pursuit/stalking following the relationship. Associations between commitment to the relationship and UPB/stalking were noted in two studies. However, Wisternoff (2008) found no associations. Discrepancies in these results could relate to the fact Wisternoff (2008) examined UPBs overall whilst the additional two studies analysed pursuit or excessive contact/checking and aggressive or threatening behaviours separately, therefore indicating the potential benefits of conducting analyses separately to detect significant associations. With regards to quality of alternatives and investment size, some researchers found significant associations with frequency of UPBs (overall and when separated into pursuit and aggressive behaviours), whilst others found these associations differed by gender or types of behaviours (i.e. pursuit or aggressive), or noted no significant

associations. These differences in results could stem from differences in measures used, both in relation to investment size and alternatives and UPB/stalking, and/or the samples the studies were based on. For example, certain studies were based solely on university samples whilst others recruited participants from the general public. Alternatively, results may reflect different effects of investment and alternatives depending on the type of the prior relationship (e.g., dating, marriage) as these differed between studies. Finally, no associations were found between levels of satisfaction in the relationship and UPBs/stalking following the relationship across the studies. Therefore, further investigation is needed to determine which, if any, aspects of investment in the relationship potentially relate to UPB/stalking.

The review found associations between goal-linking (i.e. the extent to which an individual includes and connects their partner to personal life goals) and UPBs/stalking behaviours. However, these associations were not found to be predictive in the majority of studies. Cole et al. (2014) found goal-linking to be a predictor of explicit ORIs. However, this was only the case when the participant had ended the relationship themselves. Additional within-relationship characteristics found to be associated with unwanted pursuit/stalking include levels of love, love style, and number of previous breakups. However, individual studies investigated each of these, therefore suggesting future research may be beneficial in order to confirm or discount the generalisability of these findings.

Breakup characteristics

The findings of the review are mixed in relation to the effect of initiator status on the frequency of UPBs/stalking behaviours. De Smet and colleagues (2011; 2012; 2015) found significant associations. For example, De Smet et al. (2011; 2015) found UPBs increased when the ex-partner had initiated the breakup whilst De Smet et al. (2012) did not find ex-partner initiation to be predictive, instead finding UPBs decreased when both parties had wanted the breakup compared to when the ex-partner wanted it. Three additional studies found no associations. Again, mixed results were found in terms of time since the breakup with De Smet et al. (2015) finding the frequency of UPBs increased as the length of time increased and Cupach et al. (2011) reporting associations to the contrary. Cupach and colleagues (2011) analysed results separately dependent on who initiated the breakup and examined both mild and severe pursuit behaviours, which may account for some of the variance between the two studies. Furthermore, the quality of Cupach et al.'s (2011) may have influenced the results due to the high risk of bias. However, the differences in directionality of results warrant further investigation by future researchers.

In relation to adjustment following the relationship, the findings of the review suggest experiencing negative emotions following the relationship is associated with perpetration of UPBs/stalking behaviours. Findings also suggest a potential association between positive emotions following the breakup and UPB/stalking. However, further research is needed to determine which emotions relate to UPB/stalking and the directionality

and nature of the association. Moreover, the findings of the review suggest a relationship between rumination following the breakup and UPBs/stalking behaviours. However, Cole (2014) did not find this to be the case. Cole's (2014) study specifically focussed on the perpetration of Facebook ORIs, some of which crossed over into real-life contacts. However, all stemmed from monitoring on Facebook. There is a possibility that this impacted the results. Additionally, the review found no association between self-efficacy (the belief that one can achieve their desired outcome) and overall frequency of UPBs/stalking behaviours. Associations were only found when results were analysed separately based on who initiated the breakup. Finally, an individual study found associations between face sensitivity (i.e. how easily one's feelings were hurt and the extent to which the rejection was perceived as a personal slight) and unwanted pursuit/stalking. However, further studies are needed to determine whether these findings are generalisable to the wider population.

Overall, challenges met throughout the review process primarily related to the lack of clarity in this field. For example, definitions of stalking differ across studies and legal definitions vary worldwide. Furthermore, the exclusion of a number of forensic studies related to inconsistent definitions of prior intimate stalkers. Some researchers included family members in this category, whilst others incorporated casual dating partners into an acquaintance category. Moreover, a number of studies were ambiguous with regards to whether the stalking occurred prior to, during, or after the relationship. Others incorporated all of these into

analyses. Finally, although many forensic studies collected data relating to the prior relationship between the stalker and the victim, they simply reported the prevalence of ex-intimate stalkers and did not analyse results separately. Therefore, these may be factors for researchers to take into consideration in the future when conducting research within the field in order for a more comprehensive overview of prior intimate stalking in forensic samples to be conducted.

There are limitations to the findings of the current review. Firstly, overall, the findings are based on community samples only. Therefore, it is unclear whether these findings can be extrapolated to forensic populations. Specifically in relation to the individual characteristics, although the findings provide an indication of characteristics associated with unwanted pursuit/stalking following the breakup of an intimate relationship, it is unclear whether the results are unique to ex-partner pursuers/stalkers or characteristic of all pursuers/stalkers. Furthermore, many of the studies stipulated that participants' responses to the unwanted pursuit/stalking relate to engagement in behaviours following the breakup with the intention of reconciling the relationship. However, there are other potential motivations for UPBs/stalking behaviours (e.g., revenge) and therefore it is unclear whether all of the findings of this review are applicable to perpetrators with different motivations. Additionally, the majority of the data in the included studies originated from self-report measures with no corroboration from other sources and no measurement of social desirability responding. This may have resulted in an underrepresentation of non-socially desirable characteristics as well as

impacting the responses to the unwanted pursuit/stalking measures. Additional limitations in terms of the self-report measures relate to the ability to be able to tell whether the behaviours were unwanted based on the perpetrators report only. Therefore, incorporation of victim studies may make the findings more robust. Finally, many studies reported correlations without conducting further analyses to investigate predictors. As a correlation only infers an association and not a causal relationship, associations should be interpreted with caution.

Conclusion

This current review highlighted a number of individual and relationship characteristics associated with unwanted pursuit and stalking following the termination of an intimate relationship. The review can be helpful for future researchers, providing information about what the literature to date has found and highlighting suggestions for future directions. In terms of practice, the current review provides indicators of areas that may be beneficial to assess when working with these individuals and highlights potential treatment needs. The review could also contribute to the development of an evidence based treatment programme for prior intimate stalkers as currently the treatment options for stalkers tend to be individualised, with no comprehensive programme having been developed as yet. However, more comparable studies based on forensic samples and inclusion of victim studies would further enhance the generalisability of the findings.

Chapter Four

A case study of a psychological assessment conducted with a non-intimate stalker

Chapter Five

Appraising the Relationships Questionnaire; A Measure of Adult Attachment

Abstract

The Relationships Questionnaire (RQ) is one of the most widely used measures of adult attachment. The current report provides a brief overview of the adult attachment literature and issues with measurement. The study reports on the development of the RQ as well as exploring normative data, reliability, validity, benefits, and limitations of the tool. Overall, results indicate that although there are a number of benefits related to the use of the RQ, it is best utilised when administered in conjunction with additional measures. Additionally, the clinical utility of the RQ would benefit from further exploration.

Introduction

Attachment theory proposes that the bond a child has with their primary caregiver shapes their sense security and affects their ability to form relationships with others (Bowlby, 1969; Ainsworth, 1979). Through observations of relationships between infants and their attachment figures, Ainsworth and colleagues identified three patterns of attachment; secure, anxious/ambivalent, and avoidant (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978). Over time, children internalise their experiences with caregivers meaning early attachment relations lead to the development of internal working models impacting the child's sense of self and others (Bowlby, 1973).

Although the focus throughout the development of the theory was infant-caregiver relationships, Bowlby believed that attachment spanned the lifetime. Therefore, researchers developed an Adult Attachment Interview to facilitate exploration of adults' representations of childhood attachment relations (AAI; George, Kaplan, & Main, 1985; Main & Goldwyn, 1988). The interview involved respondents reflecting on their childhood attachment experiences and exploring the potential impact of these on their personality and behaviour (De Haas, Bakermans-Kranenburg, & Van Ijzendoorn, 1994). Similarly to the work of Ainsworth and colleagues, the AAI classified adults into three attachment categories; autonomous, preoccupied, and dismissing which corresponded to Ainsworth and colleagues' secure, anxious/ambivalent, and avoidant respectively.

Hazan and Shaver (1987) explored attachment in adult romantic relationships and concluded that the attachment style formed during infancy is likely to be similar to attachment styles displayed with adults in later life. This led to the development of the first self-report measure of adult attachment patterns, which classified respondents into three categories that correspond to Ainsworth's three attachment styles (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; 1990). Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) built on this research leading to the development of the Relationships Questionnaire (RQ) which is now one of the most widely used self-report measures of adult attachment. As this measure was utilised within the case study outlined in the previous chapter, this review examines the RQ, describing the development and utility, exploring the validity and reliability, and appraising the measure in relation to the field of adult attachment.

Development of the Relationships Questionnaire

Through review of the two measures outlined above (the AAI and Hazan and Shaver's self-report measure), Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) noted differences between the two with regards to the avoidant attachment style. The interview indicated avoidant adults denied experiencing distress and minimised the importance of attachment needs. However, the self-report measure suggested avoidant individuals reported feeling distress and discomfort when they became close to others. It was therefore suggested that a single avoidant category might overlook separate patterns of avoidance. Furthermore, prior to Bartholomew and Horowitz's work, a number of studies had explored internal working models relating to an individual's sense of self and others. However,

researchers had not yet considered all four categories resulting from the combination of the two possible perceptions of self-image (positive/negative) and the two potential perceptions of others (positive/negative). Therefore, Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) proposed a two dimensional, four-category model of adult attachment. The attachment patterns proposed by Bartholomew and Horowitz are outlined in Figure 8. Specifically in relation to adult relationships, a positive sense of self would mean the individual sees themselves as worthy of love and support whilst a negative sense of self would reflect the converse. Similarly, a positive sense of others would mean other people are viewed as trustworthy and available whilst a negative sense of others would result in other people being viewed as unreliable and rejecting. The model also outlines the level of anxiety and avoidance related to each attachment style. With regards to adult relationships, anxiety relates to the extent to which an individual's self-regard is maintained through acceptance of others. Avoidance reflects the extent to which individuals avoid intimacy due to expectations of negative consequences.

In order to test their hypothesis, Bartholomew and Horowitz adapted Hazan and Shaver's self-report measure to reflect their model of attachment and conducted a study exploring undergraduate students' attachment styles, thus leading to the development of the RQ.

		Model of Self (Anxiety)	
		Positive (Low)	Negative (High)
Model of Others (Avoidance)	Positive (Low)	Secure The individual has a sense of worthiness and an expectation that others will be accepting and responsive. Therefore, the individual feels comfortable with relationships and autonomy.	Preoccupied The individual has a sense of unworthiness combined with a positive evaluation of others. Therefore, the individual is preoccupied with relationships and strives for a sense of self-acceptance through gaining the acceptance of others.
	Negative (High)	Dismissive-Avoidant The individual has a sense of worthiness, however views others negatively. Therefore, the individual is dismissing of intimacy and counter-dependent in order to protect themselves against disappointment.	Fearful-Avoidant The individual has a sense of unworthiness combined with the expectation others will be untrustworthy and rejecting. Therefore, the individual is fearful of intimacy and socially avoidant as by avoiding close involvement with others, they can protect themselves against anticipated rejection.

Figure 8: Model of adult attachment proposed by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991)

The Relationships Questionnaire (RQ)

The RQ is a short self-report questionnaire designed to provide an attachment profile. The first item consists of four short paragraphs, each describing a prototypical attachment pattern in the context of adult relationships. For example, the secure prototype reads as follows:

"It is easy for me to become emotionally close to others. I am comfortable depending on others and having others depend on me. I don't worry about being alone or having others not accept me" (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991, p. 244).

Individuals are asked to indicate which paragraph best applies to them. The additional four items require individuals to rate the degree to which each paragraph applies to them on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 ('strongly disagree') to 7 ('strongly agree'). The RQ was designed to provide continuous ratings relating to each attachment style as opposed to categorising individuals into their best fitting attachment patterns. However, the measure can be used for categorisation if necessary. Furthermore, equations incorporating the Likert-type scale scores for each item can provide an indication of an individual's sense of self and others.

The RQ can be used to assess attachment patterns in close adult peer relationships, romantic relationships, or within a specific relationship. The original measure was developed using the general term 'others'. However, it can be altered to focus on specific relationships. The RQ can also be reworded in the third person to rate the attachment patterns of others. It has been translated into various different languages (Schmitt et al., 2004) and has also been adapted to make the language more accessible to adolescent populations (Scharfe & Eldredge, 2001). The RQ is freely accessible online and permission is not needed to use, reproduce, or adapt the tool. There is no manual for the RQ. Instead, information

can be found on the lead author's page on the Simon Fraser University website. The RQ was developed for research purposes and has been validated for these purposes only. However, it has been noted that the tool can be helpful in clinical settings as a basis of informal exploration and discussion.

Normative data

The original researchers did not report normative data as the samples were smaller than necessary when establishing norms. However, Schmitt et al. (2004) conducted research across 62 cultural regions to investigate the applicability of Bartholomew and Horowitz's model and the RQ across cultures, as well as exploring the different attachment patterns within the different cultures. The cultural regions sampled represented 6 continents, 13 islands, 30 languages, and 56 nations. A total of 17,804 participants (7,432 males and 10,372 females) completed the RQ. The mean ages for each cultural region ranged from 19.3-37.8 for males and 18.5-38.1 for females. The data are primarily based on student samples with community data being collected in 11 of the cultural regions. The mean ratings for each attachment style and the scores relating to sense of self and others are provided for each region separately. Previous research suggested the secure attachment style was most prevalent in child, adolescent, and adult samples (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Sharfe & Eldredge, 2001). Schmitt et al. (2004) found insecure attachment scores were higher than secure in six cultural regions, highlighting the benefits of cultural norms. However, norms for specific populations (e.g., psychiatric samples) have not been developed.

Furthermore, the exact age ranges included are not reported meaning it is unclear whether the norms are applicable to all age ranges. The majority of research in this area has been conducted with young adults. Therefore, studies including older age groups may provide a more representative sample on which to base norms.

Reliability

Reliability refers to the degree to which a measure produces stable and consistent results. There are two types of reliability that are relevant to the RQ. Firstly, inter-rater reliability refers to the level of agreement between independent raters completing the measure for the same person. In Bartholomew and Horowitz's original study, participants completed the RQ twice; once to describe themselves and once to describe their friend. Similarly, in Scharde and Bartholomew's (1991) study, ratings were obtained from both the participants and their partner. However, across the two studies, results of any inter-rater analyses were not reported. Therefore, inter-rater reliability would benefit from further research.

Intra-rater reliability relates to the level of agreement when the measure is repeated by the same rater. Cohen's kappa statistic (Cohen, 1960) measures the level of agreement between categorical variables, taking into account the amount of agreement that could be expected by chance. Landis and Koch (1977) guidelines for interpretation are outlined in Table 7. In terms of the RQ, Scharfe and Bartholomew (1994) explored attachment patterns at two time points, eight months apart, through the use of interview, self-report, partner-report measures. With regards to

the categorical aspects of the self-report, researchers found that 63% of females ($k=.42$) and 56% of males ($k=.26$) reported the same attachment pattern at follow-up. Furthermore, in relation to partner-report, 66% of females ($k=.53$) and 73% of males ($k=.85$) were assessed as having the same predominant attachment pattern at both time points. Therefore, the reliability of the categorical component ranged from fair to good. It should be noted that for males, self-report ratings were the least stable of the three attachment measures.

Table 7

Interpretation of reliability statistics

Interpretation of kappa		Interpretation of ICC	
$\leq .20$	Poor	$\leq .40$	Poor
.21-.40	Fair	.41-.59	Fair
.41-.60	Moderate	.60-.74	Good
.61-.80	Good	$\geq .75$	Excellent
.81-1.00	Very good		

With regards to the continuous ratings, the interpretation guidelines for intraclass correlations coefficients (ICCs) proposed by Cicchetti and Sparrow (1981) are outlined in Table 7. Scharfe and Bartholomew (1994) found no significant differences between the means of the self- or partner-reports across the time periods. Self-report ratings had an average stability of .53 and .49 for males and females respectively, whilst partner-report ratings' average stabilities were .43 and .58 respectively.

Therefore, results suggested fair reliability in relation to the continuous scale. However, due to the reporting style, it is unclear whether these results refer to both the RQ and the additional self-report attachment measure used (the Relationship Scales Questionnaire (RSQ); Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994), or whether they relate to either measure independently.

Cozzarelli, Karafa, Collins, and Tagler (2003) conducted a study with women in which they administered the RQ at two time points, two years apart. In terms of categorisation, the authors found that 54% of the women endorsed the same attachment style at follow-up ($k=.33$). ICCs indicated a modest level of stability with regards to the continuous data (.36, .45, .36, and .36 for secure, fearful, preoccupied, and dismissing respectively). Subsequently, Pilelage, Barelds, and Gerlsma (2006) conducted a study solely investigating the intra-rater reliability of the RQ. The RQ was administered five times during the course of one month. In terms of the categorical aspects of the measure, 68% of participants reported having the same predominant attachment style at Time 1 and Time 5. When each time point was examined separately, this number reduced to 60% of participants reporting the same attachment patterns across all five time points. However, kappa statistics were not reported. In relation to the continuous aspect of the tool, ICCs for each attachment style across the 5 different time points ranged from .48 to .75, with the correlations between Time 1 and Time 5 being .56, .48, .69, and .66 for secure, dismissing, preoccupied, and fearful respectively.

When reviewing the attachment literature, it is apparent that opinions vary with regards to whether attachment is a global construct or relationship dependant. In order to examine whether the RQ is a more reliable measure of global or specific models of attachment, Pilelage and colleagues conducted a second study comparing two versions of the RQ over an eight-month period. The original version incorporating the term 'others' was used to assess global attachment style whilst a modified version was also used assessing attachment specifically in relation to a romantic partner. In relation to the categorical aspect, it was concluded that approximately 64% and 83% of participants reported the same predominant attachment style at follow-up using the global and specific versions respectively. Again, no further intra-rater reliability statistics were reported. The ICCs for the continuous data ranged from .28 to .66 for the global attachment orientation and .44 to .64 for the relationship specific attachment patterns (Pilelage et al., 2006). The results suggest that using more specific versions of the tool may increase reliability.

Overall, there is some evidence for intra-rater reliability; however results are mixed. However, an important issue that arises when researching adult attachment is the stability of adult attachment patterns. It has been argued that by adulthood, internal working models are expected to be stable with change only being likely to occur in the case of a significant life or relationship event (Collins & Read, 1990). However, there is also substantial evidence to suggest that attachment patterns can be relatively unstable (Pielage et al., 2006). This can have an impact on self-report measures such as the RQ as it is unclear whether intra-rater reliability

should be expected. Furthermore, it has implications for the wording of tools as it may be appropriate for participants' ratings to be based on the current point in time rather than across the lifespan.

Validity

Construct validity

Construct validity relates to the degree to which a tool measures what it purports to. This is explored in terms of convergent validity (i.e. the extent to which different measures of a given construct are related) and discriminant validity (i.e. the degree to which measures of different constructs are independent). In Bartholomew and Horowitz's original study it was noted that although factor analysis indicated ratings of attachment tended to converge across the interview, self-report, and friend-report measures, the correlations between specific attachment ratings were not high. The average corresponding ratings were .34 and .25 for interviews/self-reports and interview/friend-reports respectively. Correlations between self-reports and friend-reports were not provided. With regards to discriminant validity, in relation to the self- and friend-reports measured by the RQ, secure and fearful ratings were significantly negatively correlated (-.65 and -.69 respectively) as were preoccupied and dismissing ratings (-.37 and -.41 respectively). For the remaining combinations of attachment patterns, there were negative or positive correlations that were not significant with one exception: the fearful and dismissing styles were significantly positively correlated (.27) in the friend sample.

Griffin and Bartholomew (1994) explored the construct validity of the two dimensional, four-category model proposed by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991). Five assessment methods were utilised throughout the studies; self-reports, friend-reports, romantic partner reports (all measured through the use of the RQ), trained assessors' ratings of peer attachment, and assessors' ratings of family attachment. Across three studies, convergent validity was demonstrated by moderately high correlations between the assessment methods. Furthermore, discriminant validity was indicated by small correlations between attachment dimensions within measures.

The RQ is based on two dimensions: model of self and model of others. Therefore, Schmitt et al. (2004) examined whether the Model of Self scale derived from the RQ correlated with a self-esteem scale across cultures. In 92% of the cultural regions, model of self scores positively correlated with self-esteem scores. The association between the model of self and a measure unrelated to positive views of the self (the agreeableness scale from the Big Five Inventory) was also explored. In 70% of the cultures, the two measures were statistically unrelated. These analyses were replicated to explore the associations between the Model of Other scale and the above measures. Significant positive correlations were found between the model of other scale and the agreeableness scale in 75% of cultural regions. Furthermore, in 65% of cultures the model of other scale was statistically unrelated to the self-esteem scale. Therefore, this study provided further evidence of convergent validity and some evidence of discriminant validity across cultures.

Content validity

Content validity relates to the extent to which the individual items represent the full range of construct being measured. Adult attachment can be deconstructed in various different ways making content validity difficult to assess. Firstly, according to Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991), adult attachment can be separated into two dimensions; model of self and model of others. Furthermore, these can be further divided into four categories; positive model of self and others, positive self/negative others, negative self/positive others, and negative model of self and others. As the RQ measures all of these, it could be said that it has content validity. However, Bartholomew and Horiwitz (1991) proposed 15 dimensions that are relevant to adult attachment, two of which are only applicable to interview measures. The RQ does not appear to assess the majority of these dimensions. Furthermore, Brennan, Clark, and Shaver (1998), conducted a review of self-report adult attachment measures and found 60 attachment-related constructs across the measures. However, as there is no consensus on how many factors should be included when assessing attachment and what these should be (Backstrom & Holmes, 2001), it is unclear what additional items would be beneficial to include. Furthermore, the addition of further items may add a limitation to the tool as the brevity of the measure is one of the key benefits.

Predictive validity

Predictive validity refers to the degree to which a measure can predict other measures at some time point in the future. The RQ was not designed to predict a single criterion. Instead, the measure was designed

to empirically reproduce variables proposed by theory (Crowell, Fraley, & Shaver, 2008). However, interview measures such as the AAI have been found to be predictive of marital functioning such as divorce rates early in marriage (Treboux, Crowell, & Waters, 2004). Furthermore, significant associations between RQ ratings and depression, anxiety, negative affectivity, and relationships with healthcare providers have been found when attachment and these variables were assessed at the same time (Ciechanowski & Katon, 2006; Ciechanowski et al., 2006; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). However, researchers have not investigated whether the RQ may be predictive of any of these. Therefore, predictive validity of the RQ may warrant further exploration.

Discussion

Overall, the RQ has a number of benefits. Research into attachment has been on going for decades, yet the stability and global application of the construct are still ambiguous. Research outlined throughout this report highlights the adaptability of the RQ, allowing modifications that may potentially increase reliability as research progresses and stability and global application are further assessed. An additional issue that arises when researching adult attachment is the utility of categorical vs. dimensional measures of attachment, which has been debated across academic and clinical use. Mikulincer and Shaver (2007) argued that categorical measures overlook differences among people within a category. Furthermore, Fraley and Shaver (1997) highlight the statistical limitations of categorical measures as opposed to dimensional tools. However, the categorical approach is often preferred in clinical use.

Furthermore, there is no general consensus as to whether attachment is inherently categorical or dimensional (Ravitz et al., 2010). The RQ accounts for the benefits and limitations of each approach by incorporating both categorical and continuous aspects of the tool.

However, it should be noted that it is widely accepted that interview measures are the preferred measure of attachment as they are uniquely revealing. Self-report measures cannot detect when defences distort responses and do not measure aspects of attachment that need to be activated before they are manifested (Ravitz, Maunder, Hunter, Sthankiya, & Lancee, 2010). Although, whilst interviews may be of use to clinicians, they are impractical for most researchers (Brennan et al., 1998). With regards to the RQ, in response to the criticisms of self-report measures outlined above, when compared to other self-report attachment measures, the RQ has been found to be the only measure free from self-deceptive bias (Leak & Parsons, 2000). However, it has been criticised for its single-item scales (Zhang & Vabouvie-Vief, 2004). In response to this criticism, Griffin and Bartholomew (1994) developed the Relationship Scales Questionnaire (RSQ) based on the same conceptual framework as the RQ, which incorporates multiple items that correspond to the four attachment patterns. Furthermore, authors have adapted the RQ to make it more reliable for their research (see Zhang & Vabouvie-Vief, 2004; Pilelage et al., 2006). Researchers have also built on then existing self-report measures to create the Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R; Fraley, Waller, and Brennan, 2000). Items were developed through the use of an item response theory analysis of the

majority of existing self-report measures of adult attachment. The lead author of the RQ now recommends researchers consider the use of the ECR-R. She acknowledges that it may better match researchers' needs and has established norms and reliability ratings. However, it has been suggested that when attachment is a secondary area of investigation, the RQ has adequate reliability and good discriminant validity (Ravitz et al., 2010).

Conclusion

In summary, the RQ provides both categorical and continuous ratings for each attachment style and can be used to derive models of the self and others. There is evidence to support both reliability and validity; although more research would be helpful in order to establish consistent findings. The RQ can be beneficial when a short measure is needed; however more complex measures with increased reliability and validity are available. Despite this, the RQ is still one of the most widely used self-report measures of adult attachment. Therefore, the RQ is best utilised when administered in conjunction with additional measures. The clinical utility of the RQ is an under-researched area. As there is no manual, information of the use in clinical settings is hard to find, with a brief reference to clinical use being provided on the lead author's webpage. Given the brevity of the tool, there is a possibility it may have utility as a screening tool in clinical settings. Therefore, research into the clinical utility, reliability, and validity would be beneficial. Research conducted to complete this review has highlighted the necessity of carefully considering the specific aspects of attachment one wishes to explore before selecting

a tool as there are an overabundance to choose from, each with their own benefits and limitations.

Chapter Six

General Discussion

Previous researchers have found a high correlation between stalking and intimate partner violence (IPV). Specifically, history of stalking behaviours has been found to be prevalent when conducting studies with IPV offenders/victims whereas a history of IPV has also been noted in studies conducted with stalkers/stalking victims. The current thesis explored potential explanations for this comorbidity. As stalking research is in its infancy when compared to research into other offending behaviours, this thesis also contributes to the current literature by providing further understanding of the phenomenon of stalking.

Summary of findings

Chapter Two explored a potential explanation for the comorbidity between IPV and stalking. The empirical study examined IPV offenders' perceptions of stalking when compared to the perceptions of non-IPV offenders and non-offenders. It was hypothesised that the high prevalence of stalking within IPV samples may be reflective of a limited understanding of the behaviours, potentially highlighting a treatment need (i.e. suggesting psycho-education around stalking and the impact on victims) for IPV offenders. Firstly, the study provided further support for an association between IPV and stalking, as 16.67% of the IPV sample reported having been involved in stalking, whilst no participants in the non-IPV offending or non-offending samples reported a history of stalking behaviours. Furthermore, significant differences between offenders' and

non-offenders' perceptions were found. However, in specific relation to IPV offenders, results suggested this group did not perceive stalking differently to non-IPV offenders or non-offenders. Therefore, overall, although the association between stalking and IPV was supported, the findings from Chapter Two suggest other factors may be responsible for the connection.

A large proportion of stalking victims are targeted by an intimate partner; therefore Chapter Three focused specifically on intimate partner stalking. Firstly, although the results of many previous studies suggest comorbidity between intimate partner stalking and IPV, to date, this has not been explored systematically. Furthermore, as Chapter Two found that limited understanding of stalking behaviours does not appear to contribute to the number of IPV offenders who also engage in stalking, it was alternatively hypothesised that certain characteristics may increase the risk of an individual engaging in both IPV and stalking behaviours. Therefore, indirectly, Chapter Three explored other potential factors contributing to the association between stalking and IPV by investigating individual and relationship characteristics associated with the stalking of former intimate partners.

With regards to individual characteristics, the most prominent trait investigated was attachment style, with the findings of the review suggesting an association between anxious attachment and unwanted pursuit/stalking. Evidence was also found for a relationship between unwanted pursuit behaviours (UPBs)/stalking and the following:

neuroticism; borderline personality traits; possessiveness; difficulty with self-control; low self-esteem; self-perceived mate value; history of parental conflict; and history of delinquent behaviour. However, these findings were based on the results of individual studies. Although there was some support for a link between mental health symptoms and UPBs/stalking, the measures assessed mental health at the time of the assessment rather than the throughout the duration of the unwanted pursuit/stalking. Therefore, the nature of any association is unclear (i.e. mental health symptoms may predict UPB/stalking or the inability to reconcile the relationship may result in mental health symptoms). The results relating to jealousy were mixed, with some studies finding an association and others finding no significant relationship. Finally, findings suggested no association between the following and UPBs/stalking: empathy; psychopathic traits; narcissistic traits; substance use; relationship-contingent self-worth; emotion regulation; loss of virginity to the partner in question; and a history of witnessing parental violence. However, again the majority of these findings were based on the results of individual studies.

In terms of relationship characteristics, Chapter Three provided some support for an association between unwanted pursuit/stalking and both the perpetration and victimisation of IPV within the prior relationship. Specifically, the included studies found a relationship between conflict, psychological abuse, physical abuse, and sexual coercion and UPBs/stalking. Additional relationship characteristics found to be related to stalking include: levels of love and love styles; goal-linking; time since

the breakup; cause of the breakup; experience of negative emotions following the breakup; rumination; number of previous breakups; and threat sensitivity. Of note, the latter two findings are based on the results of individual studies. The findings relating to the initiator of the breakup, self-efficacy, commitment, quality of alternatives, and investment in the relationship were mixed, with some studies finding an association and others finding no relationship. However, the studies consistently found no association between satisfaction with the relationship and UPBs/stalking following the relationship.

When comparing the findings of the review to what is known about the characteristics of perpetrators of IPV, a number of similarities emerge. Firstly, as highlighted throughout the introduction of this thesis, anxious attachment styles have been found to be prevalent within both groups, with Chapter Three supporting these findings specifically in relation to those who stalk former intimate partners. However, the review suggested that this was not the case for those who engaged in unwanted pursuit directed towards a partner of the same-sex, whilst the IPV literature suggests attachment anxiety is associated with IPV in homosexual relationships also (Jeffries & Ball, 2008).

In terms of personality traits, researchers have proposed typologies of IPV offenders, each with different personality profiles. The psychopathic/generally antisocial offender outlined by Dutton (1995; 1997; 1998) does not appear to share personality characteristics with individuals who stalk former partners, as Chapter Three found no evidence

of an association between psychopathic or narcissistic traits and unwanted pursuit following the termination of intimate relationships. Douglas and Dutton (2001) have suggested that this group of IPV offenders' unlikeliness to stalk relates to a dismissing attachment style. Therefore, once the relationship has ended, they are more likely to dismiss the partner than engage in stalking behaviours to sustain the relationship. However, the review highlighted parallels between the borderline/cyclical offender proposed by Dutton (1995; 1997; 1998) and former intimate stalkers. Specifically, borderline personality traits and anxious attachment styles have been found in both groups.

With regards to additional similarities, researchers have distinguished between two patterns of IPV. The first involves moderate relationship abuse, where frustration and anger occasionally manifest into physical aggression. The second is characterised by multiple forms of abuse, terrorisation, threats, and possessiveness and controlling behaviour (Johnson & Ferraro, 2000). Chapter Three found evidence for an association between possessiveness and UPBs/stalking following an intimate relationship suggesting that the stalking of former intimates may be more likely to be associated with the latter pattern of abuse. Additionally, the review found evidence of an association between UPBs/stalking and a history of antisocial behaviour, which has also been identified as a risk factor for IPV (Capaldi, Knoble, Shortt, & Kim, 2012). Furthermore, the findings outlined in Chapter Three suggest a potential association between low self-esteem and the stalking of former intimates. A review focusing on risk factors for IPV found partial evidence of a

relationship between self-esteem and IPV; however this primarily related to female perpetrated IPV (Capaldi et al., 2012). Finally, in terms of relationship characteristics, one of the factors highlighted by the review was rumination, which has also been associated with IPV (Sotelo, & Babcock, 2013).

Although Chapter Three highlighted a number of similarities between IPV offenders and individuals who stalk former intimate partners, differences between the two groups also emerged. Overall, jealousy has been found to be a strong predictor of abuse within relationships (Dutton et al., 1996). However, the findings relating to jealousy and stalking following a relationship were mixed. Additionally, the association between substance use and IPV is well established (Capaldi et al., 2012). Yet, Chapter Three found no association between substance use and stalking. Furthermore, although history of parental conflict was associated with the stalking of former intimates, witnessing parental violence was not. Conversely, exposure to parental violence has long been thought of as a pivotal risk factor for IPV. However, more recently researchers have suggested that other factors (e.g., antisocial behaviour and adult adjustment) may mediate this association (Capaldi et al., 2012). With regards to personality, researchers have found evidence for traits such as narcissism and lack of empathy within IPV offenders (Tweed & Dutton, 1998; Romero-Martínez, Lila, & Mayo-Albiol, 2016). However, the findings of the review suggest these traits are not associated with stalking following the breakdown of intimate relationships. Finally, in terms of relationship characteristics, low relationship satisfaction has been found to be a

proximal predictor of IPV (Capaldi et al., 2012), whilst the review suggests there is no association between satisfaction and stalking following a relationship. Overall, although Chapter Three revealed a number of differences between IPV offenders and individuals who stalk former intimate partners, it is of note that a number of the review findings are based on the results of individual studies whilst the IPV findings are the result of decades of research. Based on the current findings, overall, it appears as though those who stalk former intimate partners share a number of characteristics with IPV offenders. However, further research is necessary to determine whether this association is also present when comparing non-intimate stalkers to perpetrators of IPV.

The case study presented in Chapter Four addresses this, outlining an assessment of an individual who engaged in stalking behaviours directed towards a stranger/acquaintance. Overall, the characteristics highlighted throughout the assessment include: attachment disruptions; exposure to antisocial behaviour from a young age; history of antisocial behaviours; substance use; difficulties with emotional expression; personality traits such as impulsivity, manipulation, lack of empathy, and excessive lying; and consequential thinking deficits. A number of these correspond with the results of the review and will therefore not be discussed again here.

As highlighted above, Dutton (1995; 1997; 1998) proposed various typologies of IPV offenders, one being the psychopathic/generally antisocial offender. Findings from the review suggest intimate partner stalkers do not share characteristics with this type of offender. However,

findings from the case study, particularly in relation to personality traits and prior antisocial behaviour, suggest there may be an association between non-intimate stalkers and psychopathic/generally antisocial IPV offenders. Logically, this would make sense as stalking might simply be another of the generally antisocial behaviours these individuals engage in. Furthermore, researchers have found evidence of both substance use and difficulties with emotional regulation within IPV offenders (Capaldi et al., 2012; Shorey, McNulty, Moore, & Stuart, 2015). Although Chapter Three found no association between emotion regulation and substance use and the stalking of former intimates, the case study highlights that these characteristics may be associated with the stalking of non-intimates. Conversely to the review, Chapter Four found evidence of a history of witnessing IPV. Witnessing parental abuse has been associated with a number of characteristics previous researchers have found to be prevalent in samples of stalkers such as attachment disruptions, deficits in problem-solving, lower levels of empathy, and difficulties with emotion recognition. Therefore, this highlights a further association between stalking and IPV.

Figure 9 outlines the overall findings of Chapters Three and Four, highlighting areas where further exploration by future researchers would be beneficial. It is important to note, systematic reviews are considered one of the highest qualities of evidence due the methodological rigour involved in this type of research (Sackett, Straus, Richardson, Rosenberg, & Haynes, 2000). Alternatively, case studies are open to bias (particularly researcher bias) and there is little basis for generalisation. However, there are advantages to single case studies. Specifically, case studies

allow for in-depth analysis of the phenomenon in question and provide a wealth of qualitative data. Single case designs can also help to explain the complexities of real-life situations, which are not always encapsulated in experimental research. Furthermore, case studies can provide researchers with helpful indicators of factors to consider when conducting future experimental studies (Zainal, 2007). Nevertheless, the findings of the case study in Chapter Four should be interpreted with caution. Therefore, the density of the arrows in Figure 9 is used to illustrate the respective weights of the evidence. It would be helpful for researchers to explore the characteristics highlighted throughout the case study further through future research.

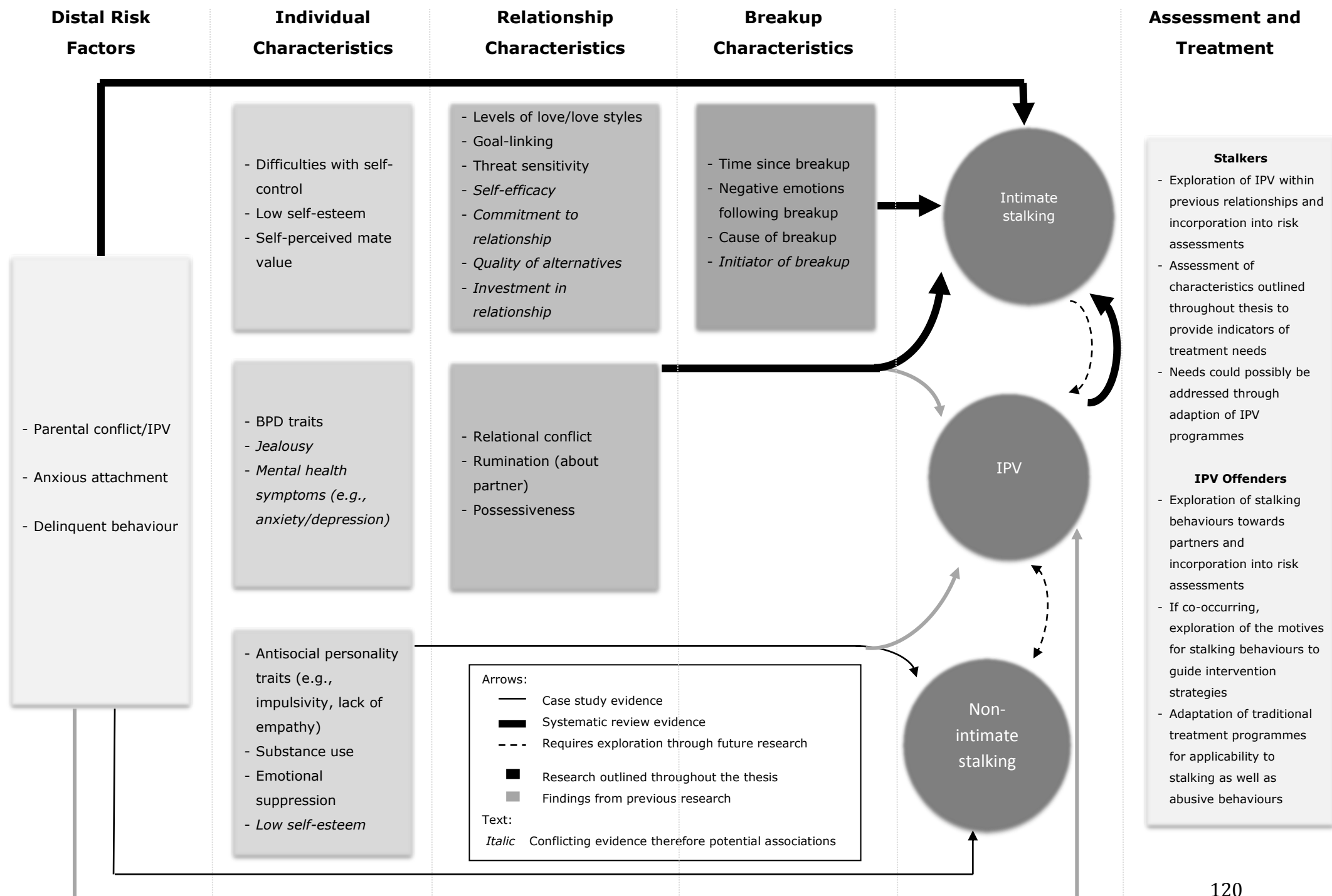


Figure 9: Shared characteristics associated with stalking and IPV

Although researchers have consistently cited an association between stalking and IPV, there are currently no validated measures that assess both behaviours. As outlined above as well as throughout Chapters One, Three, and Four, attachment style emerges as a significant characteristic when both researching and working with IPV offenders and stalkers. Therefore, Chapter Five presents an appraisal of the Relationships Questionnaire (RQ), an attachment measure utilised within the case study in Chapter Four. Despite the development of more comprehensive, up-to-date measures, the RQ is still one of the most widely used self-report measures of adult attachment. As there is an overabundance of attachment measures to choose from, the RQ has a number of benefits that justify its use. Firstly, adequate reliability and validity have been noted, although more complex measures with increased reliability and validity are available. However, conciseness is one of the key benefits of the RQ. Additionally, there is on-going debate with regards to whether measurement of attachment should be achieved through categorical or dimensional approaches. However, the RQ accounts for the strengths and limitations of both approaches, incorporating both categorical and dimensional items. Furthermore, although interview measures are the preferred method of attachment assessment as self-report measures cannot detect when defences distort responses (Ravitz, Maunder, Hunter, Sthankiya, & Lancee, 2010), the RQ has been found to be the only self-report measure of attachment free from self-deceptive bias (Leak & Parsons, 2000). Despite the benefits, there are also limitations to the tool that should be taken into consideration when deciding upon use. These include lack of comprehensive norms and single item scales.

Furthermore, there is no manual for the tool, meaning both researchers and practitioners have to search for information relating to, for example, norms, scoring, interpretation, and relevance to the client group in question. Finally, the tool has not been validated within clinical settings.

Implications for practice

With regards to the empirical study outlined in Chapter Two, although the hypotheses of the study were not supported, the findings relating to the prevalence of stalking within the IPV sample have important implications for practice. Currently, the standardised IPV offender treatment programmes offered within custodial and community settings throughout the United Kingdom (UK) do not address stalking behaviours. The results of this piece of research conducted with incarcerated IPV offenders suggest that, for a number of these offenders, failure to address stalking throughout treatment may result in an outstanding treatment need and risk factor following completion of the programme. Consideration of stalking as potential risk factor for recidivism in IPV cases is problematic as historically researchers have classified stalking as part of the abuse, discarding it as a potential risk factor (e.g., Kingsnorth, 2006). However, stalking has been noted as a potential risk factor for lethality in IPV cases (Hilton & Harris, 2005). Therefore, incorporating stalking related items into IPV risk assessment measures may provide a more comprehensive overview of risk and need.

The results of this thesis outline three shared risk factors for stalking and IPV (see Figure 9). These may be important factors for practitioners to

consider when conducting assessments of risk and need with both offender groups. Additionally, Chapters Three and Four identified further characteristics that may be indicative of treatment needs and should be considered when conducting assessments with either intimate or non-intimate stalkers. In terms of intervention strategies, there are currently no evidence-based treatment programmes available for individuals who are convicted of stalking and/or related offences (Rosenfeld et al., 2007), whilst there are an abundance of interventions directed at targeting IPV (Tollefson, Webb, Shumway, Block, & Nakamura, 2009). The similarities between IPV offenders and stalkers outlined throughout Chapters Three and Four suggest perhaps aspects of IPV offender treatment programmes could be adapted to target the treatment of stalkers. For example, the Healthy Relationships Programme (HRP) delivered within custodial settings throughout the UK aims to increase the following: awareness of the consequences of abusive behaviour; ability to respond non-abusively; ability to change abusive beliefs; ability to empathise with victims; and ability to identify high-risk situations and effectively manage these in the future. The programme modules focus on: awareness and education, managing thoughts and emotions (thinking skills, emotions management); challenging attitudes; social skills (communication, negotiation skills); and relapse prevention (Bullock, Sarre, Tarling, & Wilkinson, 2010). A number of these could be adapted to focus on stalking rather than abuse. However, further investigation into the treatment needs of a variety of convicted stalkers would aid development of an evidence based treatment programme.

The current risk assessment tools for stalking give some consideration to IPV. For example, an item relating to intimate relationship problems is included in the Stalking Assessment and Management guide (SAM; Kropp et al., 2008). Additionally, the Stalking Risk Profile (SRP; MacKenzie et al., 2009) gives consideration to the nature of the relationship between the stalker and their victim. Furthermore, one of the most widely used risk assessments for IPV, namely the Spousal Assault Risk Assessment (SARA; Kropp, Hart, Webster, & Eaves, 1994; 1995; 1999) provides the opportunity to take stalking into account in the form of an 'other considerations' item. However, Richards (2009) has developed a tool that assesses aspects of both intimate partner violence and stalking (i.e. the Domestic Abuse, Honour Based Violence, and Stalking Risk Identification Checklist; DASH). Yet, there have been no studies focusing on the reliability or validity of this tool. Thus, when working with both perpetrators of IPV and stalking, it may be helpful to assess some of the characteristics outlined throughout this thesis in order to inform the formulation, identify treatment needs, and guide the treatment pathway. Specifically, assessment of attachment can provide important information about how an individual views both themselves and others, offering insight into interpersonal relationship effectiveness. Therefore, the RQ could be beneficial for use with both IPV offenders and stalkers within clinical settings. IPV offenders' resistance to intervention strategies has been well documented (Hamberger & Hastings, 1986; Daniels & Murphy, 1997). Furthermore, the assessment outlined in Chapter Four highlights how resistant stalkers can be. Specifically, John was reluctant to discuss any aspect of his intimate relationships. Hence, it is unlikely he would

have answered the multiple questions incorporated in more complex questionnaires, much less an attachment interview. Therefore, the RQ provided some support for disruptions in attachment beyond hypotheses and clinical judgement alone. Consequently, it is possible the RQ may have utility as a screening tool in clinical settings, providing some evidence beyond clinical judgement and highlighting the need for further assessment. Therefore, further research into the clinical utility, reliability, and validity would be beneficial.

Future research

Recommendations for future research are provided within each individual chapter. However, specifically with regards to further investigation into the association between IPV and stalking, it is recommended the following avenues are explored (a summary of questions for future research is provided in Figure 10). Chapter Two presents the first study conducted investigating offenders' perceptions of stalking. As overall results indicated potential differences between offenders' and non-offenders' perceptions of stalking, further exploration is recommended. In the current study, IPV offenders' perceptions were compared to the perceptions of all other offender types combined. However, associations between stalking and other offence types have also been noted (e.g., sexual offending; Baum, Catalano, & Rand, 2009). Thus, differentiation between offence types may provide further insight into differences between offenders' perceptions of stalking. This could provide information relating to whether IPV offenders perceive stalking differently to certain other offender groups. Furthermore, adaptations to the current study's

methodology would be beneficial in order to confirm or discount the current findings. Moreover, Chapter Two found that stalking was prevalent within the IPV sample. All of the participants who reported stalking indicated these behaviours were directed towards an ex-partner (although one participant reported multiple victims). However, it is unclear whether the victims of the stalking behaviours were the same individuals the participants reported being abusive towards. It is also unclear when the stalking occurred (i.e. before, during, or after the relationship). Therefore, further exploration of these aspects of stalking within IPV samples would provide further insight into the association. Additionally, it is unclear what differentiates IPV offenders who stalk and those who do not. Comprehensive investigation into these differences could provide important information for risk assessments and intervention programmes.

In terms of the systematic review, one of the primary conclusions is that more research into the characteristics of individuals who engage in the stalking of former intimates is necessary in order to consolidate the current findings. Furthermore, the review was solely based on community samples utilising self-report measures of both characteristics and stalking behaviours. Currently, the majority of the forensic research within this area does not differentiate between those who stalk current partners and individuals who victimise former partners, instead focusing on partner stalkers in general. Therefore, further research into the characteristics of individuals who stalk prior intimate partners within forensic samples would be beneficial. Additionally, a review of victim studies would allow

comparison of the characteristics outlined throughout the systematic study of both stalking perpetration and victimisation. The studies incorporated into the review outlined in Chapter Three only included participants who engaged in stalking behaviours in an attempt to reconcile a relationship. However, there are a number of alternative motivations for stalking behaviours (see Chapter Four for an overview). Therefore, research into the characteristics associated with the stalking of former intimates motivated by other factors could provide insight into whether there are any similarities between these typologies of stalkers and IPV offenders, providing a more holistic overview of the shared characteristics of both offender groups. Moreover, the review found that the majority of studies focussed on associations rather than predictors. Additional research into predictors could determine whether there are any shared risk factors and causal links between IPV and intimate partner stalking.

Although the case study provided insight into potential characteristics of non-intimate stalkers, findings are based on an assessment of an adolescent male. Therefore, further exploration into the characteristics identified and the association between witnessing IPV and stalking with adults, females, and larger samples would be beneficial. Additionally, investigation into whether IPV is present within non-intimate stalkers' intimate relationships could determine whether there is an association between IPV and all stalking behaviours or whether the connection is limited to intimate partner stalking.

Finally, in terms of assessment measures, research into the reliability and

validity of the DASH (Richards, 2009) would be recommended. Furthermore, should the nature of the association between IPV and stalking become more apparent through further research, investigation into the utility of the addition of stalking and IPV related items to the SARA and SAM/SRP (respectively) would be beneficial.

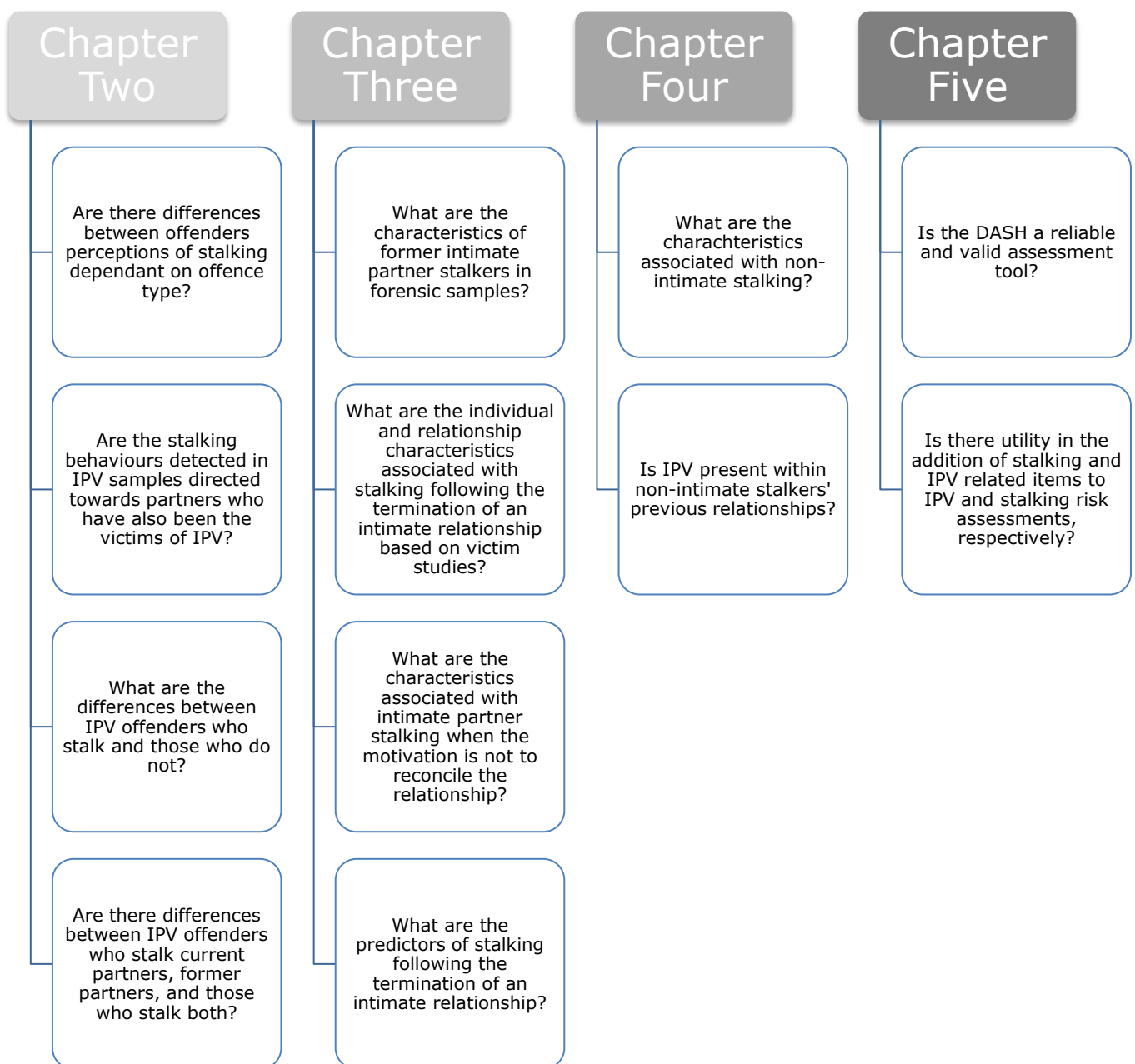


Figure 10: Directions for future research

Conclusion

Both IPV and stalking are considerable problems in today's society. Researchers have consistently found associations between stalking and IPV. The current thesis provides further support for this association as well as utilising various research methods to explore potential explanations for the connection. Overall, it appears the association is not linked to a lack of understanding of stalking behaviours. However, the comorbidity may relate to shared characteristics (and potentially treatment needs) between the two offender groups. Based on the results of the current thesis, it is not possible to conclude whether there is a causal relationship between stalking and IPV or any of the associated characteristics identified; however suggestions for future research that could provide insight into this are provided. A fuller understanding of the association between the two offence types is important when working with both IPV offenders and stalkers in order to ensure certain risk factors and treatment needs are not overlooked. Therefore, this thesis contributes to the development of this understanding.

References

- Ainsworth, M. D. S. (1973). The development of infant-mother attachment. In B. Cardwell & H. Ricciuti (Eds.), *Review of Child Development Research* (Vol. 3, pp. 1-94). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Ainsworth, M. D. S. (1979). Attachment as related to mother-infant interaction. In J. S. Rosenblatt, R. A. Hinde, C. Beer, & M. Busnel (Eds.), *Advances in the study of behavior* (Vol. 9, pp. 2-51). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Ainsworth, M. D. S., Blehar, M. C., Waters, E., & Wall, S. (1978). *Patterns of attachment: A psychological study of the strange situation*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Allen, G., & Dempsey, N. (2016). *Prison population statistics*. Retrieved from:
<http://researchbriefings.parliament.uk/ResearchBriefing/Summary/SN04334#fullreport>
- Allison, C. J., Bartholomew, K., Mayseless, O., & Dutton, D. G. (2008). Love as a battlefield: Attachment and relationship dynamics in couples identified for male partner violence. *Journal of Family Issues*, 29(1), 125-150. doi: 10.1177/0192513X07306980

Amar, A. F. (2006). College women's experience of stalking: Mental health symptoms and changes in routines. *Archives of Psychiatric Nursing, 20*(3), 108-116. doi: 10.1016/j.apnu.2005.10.003

Amar, A. F. (2007). Behaviors that college women label as stalking or harassment. *Journal of the American Psychiatric Nurses Association, 13*(4), 210-220. doi: 10.1177/1078390307306289

Andrews, D. A., & Bonta, J. (2010). Rehabilitating criminal justice policy and practice. *Psychology, Public Policy and Law, 16*(1), 39-55.
doi:10.1037/a0018362

Backstrom, M., & Holmes, B. M. (2001). Measuring adult attachment: A construct validation of two self-report instruments. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology, 42*(1), 79-86. doi: 10.1111/1467-9450.00216

Bandura, A. (1977). *Social Learning Theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Bartholomew, K., & Horowitz, L. M. (1991). Attachment styles among young adults: A test of a four-category model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 61*(2), 226-244. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.61.2.226

Baron-Cohen, S., & Wheelwright, S. (2004). The Empathy Quotient: an investigation of adults with Asperger syndrome or high functioning autism, and normal sex differences. *Journal of Autism and Developmental Disorders*, 34(2), 163–175.
doi:10.1023/B:JADD.0000022607.19833.00.

Basile, K. C., Swahn, M. H., Chen, J., & Saltzman, L. E. (2006). Stalking in the United States: Recent national prevalence estimates. *American Journal of Preventative Medicine*, 31(2), 172-175. doi:
10.1016/j.amepre.2006.03.028

Battle, J. (2002). *Culture-Free Self-Esteem Inventories Examiner's Manual* (3rd Ed.). Austin, TX: Pro-Ed.

Baum, K., Catalano, S., & Rand, M. (2009). *Stalking victimization in the United States. National crime victimization survey*. United States Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics. Retrieved from <http://www.ovw.usdoj.gov/docs/stalking-victimization.pdf>

Beck, A. T., Steer, R. A., Brown, G. K. (1996). *Manual for the Beck Depression Inventory-II*. San Antonio, TX: Psychological Corporation.

Blaauw, E., Winkel, F. W., Arensman, E., Sheridan, L., & Freeve, A. (2002). The toll of stalking: The relationship between features of stalking and psychopathology of victims. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 17(1), 50-63. doi: 10.1177/0886260502017001004

Bowlby, J. (1969). Attachment. *Attachment and loss: Vol. 1. Loss*. New York, NY: Basic Books.

Bowlby, J. (1973). *Attachment and loss: Vol. 2. Separation*. New York, NY: Basic Books.

Brennan, K. A., Clark, C. L., & Shaver, P. R. (1998). Self-report measurement of adult attachment: An integrative overview. In J. A. Simpson & W. S. Rholes (Eds.), *Attachment theory and close relationships* (pp. 46-76). New York, NY: Guilford.

Brewster, M. P. (2003). Children and stalking. In M. P. Brewster (Ed.), *Stalking: Psychology, risk factors, intervention and law* (pp. 9.1-9.26). Kingston, NJ: Civil Research Institute.

British Psychological Society (2013). *Ethics Guidelines for Internet-Mediated Research*. Leicester, UK: British Psychological Society.

Brooker, C., Druggan, S., Fox, C., Mills, A., & Parsonage, M. (2008). *Short-changed: spending on prison mental health care*. London: Sainsbury Centre for Mental Health.

Brunsman, B. A. (2003). Review of the Culture-Free Self-Esteem Inventories, 3rd Ed. *Mental Measurements Yearbook, 15*, 274-276.

Bullock, K., Sarre, S., Tarling, R., & Wilkinson, M. (2010). The delivery of domestic abuse programmes: An implementation study of the delivery of domestic abuse programmes in probation areas and Her Majesty's Prison Service. *Ministry of Justice Research Series 15/10*. Retrieved from: <https://www.justice.gov.uk/downloads/publications/research-and-analysis/moj-research/delivery-domestic-abuse-programmes.pdf>

Burgess, A. W., Baker, T., Greening, D., Hartman, C. R., Burgess, A. G., Douglas, J. E., & Halloran, R. (1997). Stalking behaviors within domestic violence. *Journal of Family Violence, 12*(4), 389–403. doi: 10.1023/A:1021931509143

Burke, S. C., Wallen, M., Vail-Smith, K., & Knox, D. (2011). Using technology to control intimate partners: An exploratory study of college undergraduates. *Computers in Human Behavior, 27*(3), 1162-1167. doi: 10.1016/j.bbr.2011.03.031

Capaldi, D. M., Knoble, N. B., Shortt, J. W., & Kim, H. K. (2012). A systematic review of risk factors for intimate partner violence. *Partner Abuse, 3*(2), 231-280. doi: 10.1891/1946-6560.3.2.231

Carlson, B. E. (2000). Children exposed to intimate partner violence. *Trauma, Violence, and Abuse, 1*(4), 321–342. doi: 10.1177/1524838000001004002

Cicchetti, D. V., & Sparrow, S. A. (1981). Developing criteria for establishing interrater reliability of specific items: Applications to assessment of adaptive behaviour. *American Journal of Mental Deficiency, 86*(2), 127-137. Retrieved from <http://psycnet.apa.org/psycinfo/1982-00095-001>

Ciechanowski, P., & Katon, W. J. (2006). The interpersonal experience of healthcare through the eyes of patients with diabetes. *Social Science & Medicine, 63*(12), 3067-3079. doi: 10.1016/j.socscimed.2006.08.002

Ciechanowski, P., Russo, J. E., Katon, W. J., Von Korff, M., Simon, G. E., Lin, E. H. B., & Young, B. A. (2006). The association of patient relationship style and outcomes in collaborative care treatment for depression in patients with diabetes. *Medical Care, 44*(3), 283-291. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3768164>

Cohen, J. (1960). A coefficient of agreement for nominal scales. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 20*(1), 37-46. doi: 10.1177/001316446002000104

Cohen, J. (1969). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences*. New York: Academic Press.

Cohen, J. (1992). A power primer. *Psychological Bulletin, 112*(1), 155-159. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.112.1.155

Cole, M. (2014). *Post-breakup emotion and obsessive relational intrusion in the mediated world* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ.

Coleman, F. L. (1997). Stalking behavior and the cycle of domestic violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 12(3), 420-432. doi: 10.1177/088626097012003007

Collins, N. L., & Read, S. J. (1990). Adult attachment, working models, and relationship quality in dating couples. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 58(4), 644-663. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.58.4.644

Cooper, M. L., Frone, M. R., Russell, M., & Mudar, P. (1995). Drinking to regulate positive and negative emotions: A motivational model of alcohol use. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 69(5), 990-1005. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.69.5.990

Costigan, S. M. (2006). *Post-relationship stalking and harassment: The "reasonable person" standard of fear* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon, SK.

Cozzarelli, C., Karafa, J. A., Collins, N. L., & Tagler, M. J. (2003). Stability and change in adult attachment styles. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 22(3), 315-346. doi: 10.1521/jscp.22.3.315.22888

Crowell, J., Fraley, R. C., & Shaver, P. R. (2008). Measurement of individual differences in adolescent and adult attachment. In J. Cassidy & P. R. Shaver (Eds.), *Handbook of attachment* (pp. 599-634). New York, NY: Guilford.

Cupach, W. R., & Spitzberg, B. H. (2004). *The dark side of relationship pursuit: From attraction to obsession and stalking*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Cupach, W. R., Spitzberg, B. H., Bolingbroke, C. M., & Tellitocci, B. S. (2011). Persistence of attempts to reconcile a terminated romantic relationship: A partial test of relational goal pursuit theory. *Communication Reports*, 24(2), 99-115. doi: 10.1080/08934215.2011.613737

Curie, C. (2006). Animal cruelty by children exposed to domestic violence. *Child Abuse and Neglect*, 30(4), 425-435. doi: 10.1016/j.chiabu.2005.10.014

Daniels, J. W., & Murphy, C. M. (1997). Stages and processes of change in batterers' treatment. *Cognitive and Behavioural Practice*, 4(1), 123-145. doi: 10.1016/S1077-7229(97)80015-6

Dardis, C. M. (2015). *An integrative theory analysis of real-life and cyber unwanted pursuit perpetration following relationship break-up* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Ohio University, Athens, OH.

Davis, K. E., Ace, A., & Andra, M. (2000). Stalking perpetrators and psychological maltreatment of partners: Anger-jealousy, attachment insecurity, need for control, and break-up context. *Violence and Victims*, 15(4), 407-425.

Davis, K. E., Coker, A. L., & Sanderson, M. (2002). Physical and mental health effects of being stalked for men and women. *Violence and Victims*, 17(4), 429-443. doi: 10.1891/vivi.17.4.429.33682

Davis, K. E., Kirkpatrick, L. A., Levy, M. B., & O'Hearn, R. (1994). Stalking the elusive love style: Attachment styles, love styles, and relationship development. In R. Erber & R. Gilmour (Eds.), *Theoretical frameworks for personal relationships* (pp. 179-210). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Davis, K. E., Lewis, J., Bryatt, J., Purvis, E., & Cole, B. (2004). *An evaluation of the literacy demands of general offending behaviour programmes and their compatibility with the literacy skills of offenders: Home Office Research Findings 233*. London, UK: Home Office, Research, Development and Statistics Directorate.

Davis, D., Shaver, P. R., & Vernon, M. L. (2003). Physical, emotional, and behavioral reactions to breaking up: the roles of gender, age, emotional involvement, and attachment style. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 29(7), 871-884. doi:10.1177/0146167203252884.

De Haas, M. A., Bakermans-Kranenburg, M. J., & Van IJzendoorn, M. H. (1994). The Adult Attachment Interview and questionnaires for attachment style, temperament, and memories of parental behavior. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology, 155*(4), 471-486. doi: 10.1080/00221325.1994.9914795

De Smet, O., Buysse, A., & Brondeel, R. (2011). Effect of the breakup context on unwanted pursuit behavior perpetration between former partners. *Journal of Forensic Sciences, 56*(4), 934-941. doi: 10.1111/j.1556-4029.2011.01745.x

De Smet, O., Loeys, T., & Buysse, A. (2012). Post-breakup unwanted pursuit: A refined analysis of the role of romantic relationship characteristics. *Journal of Family Violence, 27*(5), 437-452. doi: 10.1007/s10896-012-9437-1

De Smet, O., Loeys, T., & Buysse, A. (2013). Ex-couples' unwanted pursuit behavior: An actor-partner interdependence model approach. *Journal of Family Psychology, 27*(2), 221-231. doi: 10.1037/a0031878

De Smet, O., Uzieblo, K., Loeys, T., Buysse, A., & Onraedt, T. (2015). Unwanted pursuit behavior after a breakup: Occurrence, risk factors, and gender differences. *Journal of Family Violence, 30*(6), 753-767. doi: 10.1007/s10896-015-9687-9

Delsol, C., & Margolin, G. (2004). The role of family-of-origin violence in men's marital violence perpetration. *Clinical Psychology Review, 24*(1), 99-122. doi: 10.1016/j.cpr.2003.12.001

Dennison, S. M., & Thomson, D. M. (2000). Community perceptions of stalking: What are the fundamental concerns? *Psychiatry, Psychology and Law, 7*(2), 159-169. doi: 10.1080/13218710009524982

Dennison, S. M., & Thomson, D. M. (2002). Identifying stalking: The relevance of intent in commonsense reasoning. *Law and Human Behavior, 26*(5), 543-561. doi: 10.1023/A:1020256022568

Derogatis, L. R. (1994). *Symptom Checklist 90-R: Administration, scoring, and procedures manual* (3rd ed.). Minneapolis, MN: National Computer Systems.

Douglas, K. S., & Dutton, D. G. (2001). Assessing the link between stalking and domestic violence. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 6*(6), 519-546. doi: 10.1016/S1359-1789(00)00018-5

Dressing, H., Kuehner, C., & Gass, P. (2005). Lifetime prevalence and impact of stalking in a European population: Epidemiological data from a middle-sized German city. *British Journal of Psychiatry, 187*(2), 168-172. doi: 10.1192/bjp.187.2.168

Duff, S. C., & Scott, A. J. (2013). Understanding perceptions of stalking: The impact of additional contextual information regarding the breakdown of relationships. *Journal of Criminal Psychology*, 3(2), 136-144. doi: 10.1108/JCP-09-2012-0005

Dutton, D. G. (1995). *The domestic assault of women: Psychological and criminal justice perspectives*. Vancouver, BC: University of British Columbia Press.

Dutton, D. G. (1997). A social psychological perspective on impulsivity/intimate violence. In C.D. Webster & M. A. Jackson (Eds.), *Impulsivity: Theory, assessment, and treatment* (pp. 32-41). New York, NY: Guilford.

Dutton, D. G. (1998). *The abusive personality: Violence and control in intimate relationships*. New York, NY: Guilford.

Dutton-Greene, L. B. (2004). *Testing a model of unwanted pursuit and stalking* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Rhode Island, South Kingston, RI.

Dutton, L. B., & Winstead, B. A. (2006). Predicting unwanted pursuit: Attachment, relationship satisfaction, relationship alternatives, and break-up distress. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 23(4), 565-586. doi: 10.1177/0265407506065984

Dutton, L. B., & Spitzberg, B. H. (2007). Stalking: Its nature and dynamics. In K. A. Kendall-Tackett & S. M. Giacomoni (Eds.), *Intimate partner violence* (pp. 4-1-4-15). Kingston, NJ: Civic Research Institute.

Dutton, D. G., van Ginkel, C., & Landolt, M. A. (1996). Jealousy, intimate abusiveness, and intrusiveness. *Journal of Family Violence, 11*(4), 411-423. doi: 10.1007/BF02333425

Edleson, J. L. (1999). Children's witnessing of adult domestic violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 14*(8), 839-870. doi: 10.1177/088626099014008004

Ehrensaft, M. K., Cohen, P., Brown, J., Smailes, E., Chen, H., & Johnson, J. G. (2003). Intergenerational transmission of partner violence: A 20-year prospective study. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 71*(4), 741-753. doi: 10.1037/0022-006X.71.4.741

Ehrensaft, M. K., Moffitt, T. E., & Caspi, A. (2004). Clinically abusive relationships in an unselected birth cohort: Men's and women's participation and developmental antecedents. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 113*(2), 258-271. doi: 10.1037/0021-843X.113.2.258

Eke, A. W., Hilton, N. Z., Meloy, J. R., Mohandie, K., & Williams, J. (2011). Predictors of recidivism by stalkers: A nine-year follow-up of police contacts. *Behavioral Sciences and the Law, 29*(2), 271-283. doi: 10.1002/bsl.975

Evans, T. M., & Meloy, J. R. (2010). Identifying and classifying juvenile stalking behavior. *Journal of Forensic Sciences*, 56(S1), S266-S270. doi: 10.1111/j.1556-4029.2010.01593.x

Fantuzzo, J. W., & Lindquist, C. U. (1989). The effects of observing conjugal violence on children: A review and analysis of research methodology. *Journal of Family Violence*, 4(1), 77-94. doi: 10.1007/BF00985658

Field, A. (2009). *Discovering statistics using SPSS* (3rd ed.). London: Sage Publications.

Finney, A. (2006). *Domestic violence, sexual assault and stalking: Findings from the 2004/05 British Crime Survey: Home Office online report 12/06*. London, UK: Home Office, Research, Development and Statistics Directorate.

Fletcher, G. J. O., Simpson, J. A., & Thomas, G. (2000). The measurement of perceived relationship quality components: A confirmatory factor analytic approach. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 26(3), 340-354. doi: 10.1177/0146167200265007

Fletcher, G. J. O., Simpson, J. A., Thomas, G., & Giles, L. (1999). Ideals, in intimate relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 76(1), 72-89. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.76.1.72

Fonagy, P. (1999). Male perpetrators of violence against women: An attachment theory perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychoanalytic Sciences*, 1(1), 7-27. doi: 10.1023/A:1023074023087

Fraley, R. C., & Shaver, P. R. (2000). Adult romantic attachment: Theoretical developments, emerging controversies, and unanswered questions. *Review of General Psychology*, 4(2), 132-154. doi: 10.1037//1089-2680.4.2.132

Fremouw, W. J., Westrup, D., & Pennypacker, J. (1997). Stalking on campus: The prevalence and strategies for coping with stalking. *Journal of Forensic Sciences*, 42(4), 666-669. doi: 10.1520/JFS14178J

Gallivan, E. M. (2010). *The impact of loss of virginity and attachment style on college women's perpetration of unwanted pursuit behaviors post breakup* (Unpublished masters dissertation). University of South Alabama, Mobile, AL.

George, C., Kaplan, N., & Main, M. (1985). *Adult Attachment Interview*. (Unpublished manuscript), University of California, Berkeley, CA.

Gojkovic, D., Meek, R., & Mills, A. (2011). *Offender engagement with third sector organisations: a national prison-based survey*. Retrieved from:
<http://www.birmingham.ac.uk/generic/tsrc/documents/tsrc/working-papers/working-paper-61.pdf>

Goldberg, L. R., Johnson, J. A., Eber, H. W., Hogan, R., Ashton, M. C., Cloninger, C. R., & Gough, H. C. (2006). The international personality item pool and the future of public-domain personality measures. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 40(1), 84–96. doi:10.1016/j.jrp.2005.08.007.

Grasmick, H. G., Tittle, C. R., Bursik, R. J., & Arneklev, B. J. (1993). Testing the core empirical implications of Gottfredson and Hirschi's general theory of crime. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 30(1), 5-29. doi: 10.1177/0022427893030001002

Gratz, K. L., & Roemer, L. (2004). Multidimensional assessment of emotion regulation and dysregulation: Development, factor structure, and initial validation of the difficulties in emotion regulation scale. *Journal of Psychopathology & Behavioral Assessment*, 26(1), 41-54. doi:10.1023/B:JOBA.0000007455.08539.94

Griffin, D. W., & Bartholomew, K. (1994). Models of the self and other: Fundamental dimensions underlying measures of adult attachment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 67(3), 430–445. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.67.3.430

Griffin, D. W., & Bartholomew, K. (1994). The metaphysics of measurement: the case of adult attachment. In K. Bartholomew & D. Perlman (Eds.), *Advances in Personal Relationships, Vol. 5: Attachment Process in Adulthood* (pp. 17-52). London: Kingsley.

Grych, J. H., Seid, M., & Fincham, F. D. (1992). Assessing marital conflict from the child's perspective: The Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict Scale. *Child Development*, 63(3), 558-572. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8624.1992.tb01646.x

Hamberger, L. K. & Hastings, J. (1989). Counseling male spouse abusers: Characteristics of treatment completers and dropouts. *Violence and Victims*, 4(1), 275-286. Retrieved from:
<http://www.ingentaconnect.com/content/springer/vav/1989/00000004/0000004/art00003#expand/collapse>

Hazan, C., & Shaver, P. R. (1987). Romantic love conceptualized as an attachment process. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(3), 511-524. doi: 10.1037//0022-3514.52.3.511

Hazan, C., & Shaver, P. R. (1990). Love and work: An attachment-theoretical perspective. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 59(2), 270-280. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.59.2.270

Hendin, H. M., & Cheek, J. M. (1997). Assessing hypersensitive narcissism: A reexamination of Murray's narcissism scale. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 31(4), 588-599. doi:10.1006/jrpe.1997.2204.

Hendrick, C., Hendrick, S. S., & Dicke, A. (1998). The Love Attitudes Scale: Short Form. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 15(2), 147-159. doi: 10.1177/0265407598152001

Herrenkohl, T. I., Sousa, C., Tajima, E. A., Herrenkohl, R. C., & Moylan, C. A. (2008). Intersection of child abuse and children's exposure to domestic violence. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse*, 9(2), 84-89. doi: 10.1177/1524838008314797

Hills, A. M., & Taplin, J. L. (1998). Anticipated responses to stalking: Effect of threat and target-stalker relationship. *Psychiatry, Psychology and Law*, 5(1), 139-146. doi: 10.1080/13218719809524927

Hilton, N. Z., & Harris, G. T. (2005). Predicting wife assault: A critical review and implications for policy and practice. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse*, 6(1), 2-23. doi: 10.1177/1524838004272463

Home Office (2011). *Consultation on stalking*. Retrieved from https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/157898/consultation.pdf

Indermaur, D. (2001). Young Australians and domestic violence. *Trends and Issues in Crime and Criminal Justice*, 195, 1-6. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/248491824>

Jaffe, P., Wolfe, D., & Wilson, S. K. (1990). *Children of battered women*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Jeffries, S., & Ball, M. (2008). Male same-sex intimate partner violence: A descriptive review and call for further research. *eLaw Journal*, 15(1), 134-79. Retrieved from http://elaw.murdoch.edu.au/archives/issues/2008/elaw_15_1_Jeffries_Ball.pdf

Johnson, M. P., & Ferraro, K. J. (2000). Research on domestic violence in the 1990s: Making distinctions. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 62(4), 948-963. doi: 10.1111/j.1741-3737.2000.00948.x

Jordan, C. E., Logan, T. K., Walker, R., & Nigoff, A. (2003). Stalking: An examination of the criminal justice response. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 18(2), 148-165. doi: 10.1177/0886260502238732

Jordan, C. E., Wilcox, P., & Pritchard, A. J. (2007). Stalking acknowledgement and reporting among college women experiencing intrusive behaviours: Implications for the emergence of a "classic stalking case". *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 35(5), 556-569. doi: 10.1016/j.jcrimjus.2007.07.008

Junger-Tas, J., Terlouw, G. J., & Klein, M. W. (1994). *Delinquent behavior among young people in the western world: First results of the International Self-Report Delinquency Study*. Amsterdam: Kugler Publications.

Kamphuis, J. H., & Emmelkamp, P. M. (2000). Stalking: A contemporary challenge for forensic and clinical psychiatry. *The British Journal of Psychiatry*, 176(3), 206-209. doi: 10.1192/bjp.176.3.206

Kamphuis, J. H., Emmelkamp, P. M. G., & Bartak, A. (2003). Individual differences in post-traumatic stress following post-intimate stalking: Stalking severity and psychosocial variables. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 42(2), 145-156. doi: 10.1348/014466503321903562

Kienlen, K. K., Birmingham, D. L., Solberg, K. B., O'Regan, J. T., & Meloy, J. R. (1997). A comparative study of psychotic and nonpsychotic stalking. *The Journal of American Academy of Psychiatry and the Law*, 25(3), 317-334. Retrieved from http://drreidmeloy.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/12/1997_AComparativeStu.pdf

Kileen, K., & Dunn, J. (1998). *Victim and law enforcement strategies for managing forceful interaction and coercive pursuit*. Los Angeles, CA: Paper presented at the annual Threat Management Conference.

Kingsnorth, R. (2006). Intimate partner violence: Predictors of recidivism in a sample of arrestees. *Violence Against Women*, 12(1), 917-935. doi: 10.1177/1077801206293081

Kolbo, J. R., Blakely, E. H., & Engleman, D. (1996). Children who witness domestic violence: A review of empirical literature. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 11*(2), 281–93. doi: 10.1177/088626096011002010

Kropp, P. R., Hart, S. D., & Lyon, D. R. (2007). *Stalking Assessment and Management*. Vancouver, BC: Proactive Resolutions, Inc.

Kropp, P. R., Hart, S. D., Webster, C. D., & Eaves, D. (1995). *Manual for the Spousal Assault Risk Assessment Guide* (2nd ed.). Vancouver, BC: British Columbia Institute Against Family Violence.

Kyu, N., & Kanai, A. (2005). Prevalence, antecedent causes and consequences of domestic violence in Myanmar. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology, 8*(3), 244-271. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-839X.2005.00170.x

Lambert, E. G., Smith, B., Geistman, J., Cluse-Tolar, T., & Jiang, S. (2013). Do men and women differ in their perceptions of stalking: An exploratory study among college students. *Violence and Victims, 28*(2), 195-198. doi: 10.1891/0886-6708.09-201

Landis, J. R., & Koch, G. G. (1977). The measurement of observer agreement for categorical data. *Biometrics, 33*(1), 159-74. doi: 10.2307/2529310

Langhinrichsen-Rohling, J., & Rohling, M. (2000). Negative family-of-origin experiences: Are they associated with perpetrating unwanted pursuit behaviors? *Violence and Victims*, 15(4), 459-471. Retrieved from <http://www.ingentaconnect.com/content/springer/vav/2000/00000015/00000004/art00008?crawler=true>

Langhinrichsen-Rohling, J., Palarea, R. E., Cohen, J., & Rohling, M. L. (2000). Breaking up is hard to do: Unwanted pursuit behaviors following the dissolution of a romantic relationship. *Violence and Victims*, 15(1), 73-90. Retrieved from http://www.academia.edu/14921113/Breaking_up_is_hard_to_do_unwanted_pursuit_behaviors_following_the_dissolution_of_a_romantic_relationship

Lau, J. S. N., & Davis, K. E. (2004). Perpetration of stalking and psychological abuse: Gender, anger-jealousy, and personality factors. Retrieved from <http://people.cas.sc.edu/daviske/ori.pdf>

Lau, K. S. L., & Paulhus, D. L. (2010). From the eye of the stalker: Personality profiling of self-reported stalkers. Retrieved from <http://www.ubc.ca/search/refine/?q=Katherine+S-L.+Lau+and+Delroy+L.+Paulhus&label=Department+of+Psychology&site=psych.ubc.ca>

Leak, G. K., & Parsons, C. J. (2000). The susceptibility of three attachment style measures to socially desirable responding. *Social Behaviour and Personality: An International Journal*, 29(1), 21-29. doi: 10.2224/sbp.2001.29.1.21

Leitz, M. A., & Theriot, M. T. (2008). Adolescent stalking: A review. *Journal of Evidence-Based Social Work*, 2(3-4), 97-112. doi: 10.1300/J394v02n03_07

Lewis, S. F., Fremouw, W. J., Del Ben, K., & Farr, C. (2001). An investigation of the psychological characteristics of stalkers: Empathy, problem-solving, attachment and borderline personality features. *Journal of Forensic Sciences*, 46(1), 80-84. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/12120285>

Light, M., Grant, E., & Hopkins, K. (2013). *Gender differences in substance misuse and mental health amongst prisoners. Results from the Surveying Prisoner Crime Reduction (SPCR) longitudinal cohort study of prisoners*. London: Ministry of Justice.

Logan, T. K. (2010). *Research on partner stalking: Putting the pieces together*. Lexington, KY: University of Kentucky, Department of Behavioral Science and Center on Drug and Alcohol Research.

Logan, T. K., Leukefeld, C., & Walker, B. (2000). Stalking as a variant of intimate violence: Implications from a young adult sample. *Violence and Victims, 15*(1), 91-111. Retrieved from <http://www.ingentaconnect.com/content/springer/vav/2000/00000015/0000001/art00007?crawler=true>

Logan, T. K., Walker, R., Jordan, C. E., & Leukefeld, C. (2006). *Women and victimization: Contributing factors, interventions, and implications*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Lyon, D. R. (1997). *The characteristics of stalkers in British Columbia: A statistical comparison of persons charged with criminal harassment and persons charged with other criminal code offences* (Unpublished masters dissertation). Simon Fraser University, Burnaby, BC.

MacKenzie, R. D., McEwan, T., Pathe, M. T., James, D. V., Ogloff, J. R. P., & Mullen, P. E. (2011). *Stalking Risk Profile: Guidelines for the assessment and management of stalkers*. Melbourne: StalkInc. & the Centre for Forensic Behavioural Science, Monash University.

MacKenzie, R. D., Mullen, P. E., Ogloff, J. R. P., McEwan, T. E., & James, D. V. (2008). Parental bonding and adult attachment styles in different types of stalker. *Journal of Forensic Sciences, 53*(6), 1444-1449. doi: 10.1111/j.1556-4029.2008.00869.x

Main, M., & Goldwyn, R. (1988). *An adult attachment classification system* (Unpublished manuscript). University of California, Department of Psychology, Berkeley, CA.

Margolin, G. (1998). Effects of domestic violence on children. In P. K. Trickett & C. J. Schellenbach (Eds.), *Violence against children in the family and the community* (pp. 57–101). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Margolin, G., & Gordis, E. B. (2000). The effects of family and community violence on children. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *51*, 445–479. doi: 10.1146/annurev.psych.51.1.445

Mathes, E. W., & Severa, N. (1981). Jealousy, romantic love, and liking: Theoretical considerations and preliminary scale development. *Psychological Reports*, *49*(1), 23-31. doi: 10.2466/pr0.1981.49.1.23

McCann, J. T. (1998). Subtypes of stalking (obsessional following) in adolescents. *Journal of Adolescence*, *21*(6), 667-675. doi: 10.1006/jado.1998.0187

McCann, J. T. (2000). A descriptive study of child and adolescent obsessional followers. *Journal of Forensic Sciences*, *45*(1), 195–199. doi: 10.1520/JFS14660J

McEwan, T., Mullen, P. E., & Purcell, R. (2007). Identifying risk factors in stalking: A review of current research. *International Journal of Law and Psychiatry*, 30(1), 1-9. doi: 10.1016/j.ijlp.2006.03.005

McFarlane, J., Campbell, J. C., Wilt, S., Sachs, C. J., Ulrich, Y., & Xu, X. (1999). Stalking and intimate partner femicide. *Homicide Studies*, 3(4), 300-316. doi: 10.1177/1088767999003004003

McNamara, C. L., & Marsil, D. F. (2011). The prevalence of stalking among college students: The disparity between researcher- and self-identified victimization. *Journal of American College Health*, 60(2), 168-174. doi: 10.1080/07448481.2011.584335

Mechanic, M. B., Weaver, T. L., & Resick, P. A. (2000). Intimate partner violence and stalking behaviors: Exploration of patterns and correlates in a sample of acutely battered women. *Violence and Victims*, 15(1), 55-72. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/12348653>

Meloy, J. R. (1992). *Violent Attachments*. Northvale, NJ: Aronson.

Meloy, J. R. (1996). A clinical investigation of the obsessional follower: "She loves me, she loves me not...". In L. Schlesinger (Ed.), *Explorations in criminal psychopathology: Clinical syndromes with forensic implications* (pp. 9-32). Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas.

Meloy, J. R. (1998). The psychology of stalking. In J. R. Meloy (Ed.), *The psychology of stalking: Clinical and forensic perspectives* (pp. 1–23).

Toronto, ON: Academic Press.

Meloy, J. R. (1999). Stalking: An old behavior, a new crime. *Psychiatric Clinics of North America*, 22(1), 85-99. doi: 10.1016/S0193-953X(05)70061-7

Melton, H. C. (2007). Predicting the occurrence of stalking in relationships characterized by domestic violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 22(1), 3-25. doi: 10.1177/0886260506294994

Mihalic, S. W., & Elliott, D. (1997). A social learning theory model of marital violence. *Journal of Family Violence*, 12(1), 21-47. doi: 10.1023/A:1021941816102

Mikulincer, M., & Shaver, P. R. (2007). Attachment bases of psychopathology. *World Psychiatry*, 11(1), 11-15. Retrieved from <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3266769/>

Mohandie, K., Meloy, J. R., McGowan, M. G., & Williams, J. (2006). The RECON typology of stalking: Reliability and validity based upon a large sample of North American Stalkers. *Journal of Forensic Sciences*, 51(1), 147-155. doi: 10.1111/j.1556-4029.2005.00030.x

Moracco, K., Runyan, W. W., & Butts, J. D. (1998). Femicide in North Carolina, 1991-1993: A statewide study of patterns and precursors. *Homicide Studies*, 2(4), 422-446. doi: 10.1177/1088767998002004005

Mullen, P. E., Pathé, M., Purcell, R. (2000). *Stalkers and their victims*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mullen, P. E., Pathé, M., & Purcell, R. (2001). The management of stalkers. *Advances in Psychiatric Treatment*, 7(5), 335-342. doi: 10.1192/apt.7.5.335

Mullen, P. E., Pathé, M., & Purcell, R. (2009). *Stalkers and their victims* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Mullen, P. E., Pathé, M., Purcell, R., & Stuart, G. W. (1999). A study of stalkers. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 156(8), 1244-1249. doi: 10.1176/ajp.156.8.1244

National Criminal Justice Association (1993). *Project to develop a model anti-stalking code for state*. Washington, DC: United States Department of Justice.

Office for National Statistics (2015). *Violent crime and sexual offences – intimate personal violence and serious sexual assault*. Retrieved from www.ons.gov.uk.

Osborne, S. (2011). Violent and sexual crime. In R. Chaplin, J. Flatley, & K. Smith (Eds.), *Crimes in England and Wales 2010/11: Findings from the British Crime Survey and police recorded crime* (2nd ed., pp. 56-72).

London, UK: Home Office.

Palarea, R. E., & Langinrichsen-Rohling, J. (1998). *Unwanted Pursuit Behavior Inventory*. Unpublished measure.

Pallant, J. (2005). *SPSS Survival Manual: A Step by Step Guide to Data Analysis Using SPSS Version 12 (2nd ed.)*. Maidenhead, UK: Open University Press.

Pathé, M., & Mullen, P. E. (1997). The impact of stalkers on their victims. *British Journal of Psychiatry*, 170(1), 12–17. doi: 10.1192/bjp.170.1.12

Paulhus, D. L., Neumann, C. S., & Hare, R. D. (2015). *Manual for the self-report psychopathy scale*. Toronto, ON: Multi-Health Systems.

Phillips, L., Quirk, R., Rosenfeld, B., & O'Connor, M. (2004). Is it stalking? Perceptions of stalking among college undergraduates. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 31(1), 73-96. doi: 10.1177/0093854803259251

Pielage, S. B., Barelds, D. P. H., & Gerlsma, J. (2006). The (in)stability of the Relationship Questionnaire. Manuscript submitted for publication

Purcell, R., Flower, T., & Mullen, P. E. (2008). *Adolescent stalking: Offence characteristics and effectiveness of criminal justice interventions*. Retrieved from <http://crg.aic.gov.au/reports/06-0506.pdf>

Purcell, R., Moller, B., Flower, T., & Mullen, P. E. (2009). Stalking among juveniles. *The British Journal of Psychiatry*, 194(5), 451–455. doi: 10.1192/bjp.bp.108.054833

Purcell, R., Pathé, M. & Mullen, P. E. (2002). The prevalence and nature of stalking in the Australian community. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry*, 36(1), 114–120. doi: 10.1046/j.1440-1614.2002.00985.x

Purcell, R., Pathé, M., & Mullen, P. (2010). Gender differences in stalking behaviour among juveniles. *The Journal of Forensic Psychiatry & Psychology*, 21(4), 555-568. doi: 10.1080/14789940903572035

Raskin, R., & Hall, C. S. (1979). A narcissistic personality inventory. *Psychological Reports*, 45(2), 590. doi: 10.2466/pr0.1979.45.2.590

Rathus, J. H., & O'Leary, K. D. (1997). Spouse-Specific Dependency Scale: Scale development. *Journal of Family Violence*, 12(2), 159-168. doi: 10.1023/A:1022884627567

Ravensberg, V., & Miller, C. (2003). Stalking among young adults: A review of the preliminary research. *Aggression and Violent Behaviour*, 8(4), 455-469. doi: 10.1016/S1359-1789(02)00075-7

Raver, C. C., Blair, C., Garrett-Peters, P., & Family Life Project Key Investigators (2015). Poverty, household chaos, and interparental aggression predict children's ability to recognize and modulate negative emotions. *Development and Psychopathology*, 27(3), 695-708. doi: 10.1017/S0954579414000935

Ravitz, P., Maunder, R., Hunter, J., Sthankiya, B., & Lancee, W. (2010). Adult attachment measures: A 25-year review. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, 69(1), 419-432. doi: 10.1016/j.jpsychores.2009.08.006

Reno, J., Robinson, L., Brennan, N., & Schwartz, K. (1998). Stalking and domestic violence: The third annual report to congress under the Violence Against Women Act. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs.

Richards, L. (2009). *Domestic Abuse, Stalking and Honour Based Violence (DASH) Risk Identification, Assessment and Management Model*. Retrieved from: <http://www.dashriskchecklist.co.uk>

Roberts, A. L., Gilman, S. E., Fitzmaurice, G., Decker, M. R., & Koenen, K. C. (2010). Witness of intimate partner violence in childhood and perpetration of intimate partner violence in adulthood. *Epidemiology*, 21(6), 809–818. doi:10.1097/EDE.0b013e3181f39f03

Roberts, K. A. (2002). Stalking following the break-up of romantic relationships: Characteristics of stalking former partners. *Journal of Forensic Sciences*, 47(5), 1070 –1078. doi: 10.1520/JFS15514J

Romero-Martínez, A., Lila, M., & Moya-Albiol, L. (2016). Empathy impairments in intimate partner violence perpetrators with antisocial and borderline traits: A key factor in the risk of recidivism. *Violence and Victims*, 31(2), 347-360. doi: 10.1891/0886-6708.VV-D-14-00149

Rosenbaum, D. P., Schuck, A. M., Costello, S. K., Hawking, D. F., & Ring, M. K. (2005). Attitudes toward the police: The effects of direct and vicarious experience. *Police Quarterly*, 8(3), 343-365. doi: 10.1177/1098611104271085

Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the adolescent self-image*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Rosenfeld, B. (2003). Recidivism in stalking and obsessional harassment. *Law and Human Behavior*, 27(3), 251-265. doi: 10.1023/A:1023479706822

Rosenfeld, B., Galietta, M., Ivanoff, A., Garcia-Mansilla, A., Martinez, R., Fava, J., ... Green, D. (2007). Dialectical Behavior Therapy for the treatment of stalking offenders. *International Journal of Forensic Mental Health, 6*(2), 95-103. doi: 10.1080/14999013.2007.10471254

Rusbult, C. E., Martz, J. M., & Agnew, C. R. (1998). The Investment Model Scale: Measuring commitment level, satisfaction level, quality of alternatives, and investment size. *Personal Relationships, 5*(4), 357-387. doi: 10.1111/j.1475-6811.1998.tb00177.x

Sackett, D. L., Straus, S. E., Richardson, W. S., Rosenberg, W., & Haynes, R. B. (2000). *Evidence-based medicine: How to practice and teach EBM*. Edinburgh: Churchill Livingstone.

Saltzman, L. E., Fanslow, J., McMahon, P., & Shelley, G. (1999). *Intimate partner violence surveillance: Uniform definitions and recommended data elements, Version 1.0*. Atlanta, GA: National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

Sanchez, D. T., & Kwang, T. (2007). When the relationship becomes her: Revisiting women's body concerns from a relationship contingency perspective. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 31*, 404-414. doi: 10.1111/j.1471-6402.2007.00389.x

Scharfe, E., & Bartholomew, K. (1994). Reliability and stability of adult attachment patterns. *Personal Relationships*, 1(1), 23-43. doi: 10.1111/j.1475-6811.1994.tb00053.x

Scharfe, E., & Eldredge, D. (2001). Associations between attachment representations and health behaviours in late adolescence. *Journal of Health Psychology*, 6(3), 295-307. doi: 10.1177/135910530100600303

Schmitt, D. P., Alcalay, L., Allensworth, M., Allik, J., Ault, L., Austers, I.,...Zupaneie, A. (2004). Patterns and universals of adult romantic attachment across 62 cultural regions: Are models of self and other pancultural constructs? *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 35(4), 367-402. doi: 10.1177/0022022104266105

Shwartz-Watts, D., & Morgan, D. W. (1998). Violent versus nonviolent stalkers. *The Journal of the American Academy of Psychiatry and the Law*, 26(2), 241-245. Retrieved from <http://www.jaapl.org/content/26/2/241.full.pdf>

Scott, A. J., & Sheridan, L. (2011). 'Reasonable' perceptions of stalking: the influence of conduct severity and the perpetrator-target relationship. *Psychology, Crime and Law*, 17(4), 331-345. doi: 10.1080/10683160903203961

Scott, A. J., Lloyd, R., & Gavin, J. (2010). The influence of prior relationship on perceptions of stalking in the United Kingdom and Australia. *Criminal Justice and Behaviour*, 37(11), 1185-1194. doi: 10.1177/0093854810378812

Scott, A. J., Nixon, K., & Sheridan, L. (2013). The influence of prior relationship on perceptions of stalking: A comparison of laypersons, non-specialist police officers, and specialist police officers. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 40(12), 1434-1448. doi: 10.1177/0093854813494183

Scott, A. J., Rajakaruna, N., & Sheridan, L. (2012). Framing and perceptions of stalking: The influence of conduct severity and the perpetrator-target relationship. *Psychology, Crime, & Law*, 20(3), 242-260. doi: 10.1080/1068316X.2013.770856

Scott, A. J., Rajakaruna, N., Sheridan, L., & Sleath, E. (2014). International perceptions of stalking and responsibility: The influence of prior relationship and severity of behavior. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 41(2), 220-236. doi: 10.1177/0093854813500956

Sheridan, L. P., Blaauw, E., & Davies, G. M. (2003). Stalking: Knowns and unknowns. *Trauma, Violence and Abuse*, 4(2), 148-162. doi: 10.1177/1524838002250766

Sheridan, L. P., & Davies, G. M. (2001). Stalking: The elusive crime.

Legal and Criminological Psychology, 6(2), 113-147. doi:

10.1348/135532501168244

Sheridan, L. P., & Davies, G. M. (2006). Violence and the prior victim-

stalker relationship. *Criminal Behaviour and Mental Health*, 11(2), 102-

116. doi: 10.1002/cbm.375

Sheridan, L. P., & James, D. V. (2015). Complaints of group-stalking

('gang-stalking'): An exploratory study of their nature and impact on

complainants. *The Journal of Forensic Psychiatry & Psychology*, 26(5),

601-623. doi: 10.1080/14789949.2015.1054857

Sheridan, L. P., Davies, G. M., & Boon, J. C. W. (2001). Stalking:

Perceptions and prevalence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 16(2),

151-167. doi: 10.1177/088626001016002004

Sheridan, L. P., Gillett, R., Blaauw, E., Davies, G. M., & Patel, D. (2003).

"There's no smoke without fire": Are male ex-partners perceived as more

"entitled" to stalk than stranger or acquaintance stalkers? *British Journal*

of Psychology, 94(1), 87-98. doi: 10.1348/000712603762842129

Sheridan, L. P., Roberts, K., & Richards, L. (2009). *S-DASH risk*

identification checklist for use in stalking and harassment cases.

Retrieved from [http://www.dashriskchecklist.co.uk/uploads/pdfs/S-](http://www.dashriskchecklist.co.uk/uploads/pdfs/S-DASH%20for%20Stalking%20and%20Harassment%20Cases%202009.pdf)

[DASH%20for%20Stalking%20and%20Harassment%20Cases%202009.pdf](http://www.dashriskchecklist.co.uk/uploads/pdfs/S-DASH%20for%20Stalking%20and%20Harassment%20Cases%202009.pdf)

Shorey, R. C., McNulty, J. K., Moore, T. M., & Stuart, G. L. (2015). Emotion regulation moderates the association between proximal negative affect and intimate partner violence perpetration. *Prevention Science: The Official Journal for the Society of Prevention Research*, 16(6), 873-880. doi: 10.1007/s11121-015-0568-5

Simpson, J. A., Rholes, W. S., & Nelligan, J. S. (1992). Support seeking and support giving within couples in an anxiety-provoking situation: the role of attachment styles. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 62(3), 434-446. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.62.3.434

Singleton, N., Farrell, M., & Meltzer, H. (2003). Substance misuse among prisoners in England and Wales. *International Review of Psychiatry*, 15(1-2), 150-152. doi: 10.1080/0954026021000046092

Sotelo, J. M., & Babcock, J. C. (2013). BIS/BAS variables as moderators of the rumination-intimate partner violence link. *Journal of Family Violence*, 28(3), 233-242. doi: 10.1007/s10896-013-9500-6

Spielberger, C. D., Gorsuch, R. L., Lushene, R., Vagg, P. R., & Jacobs, G. A. (1983). *Manual for the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Spitzberg, B. H. (2002). The tactical topography of stalking victimization and management. *Trauma, Violence & Abuse*, 3(4), 261-288. doi: 10.1177/1524838002237330

Spitzberg, B. H., & Cupach, W. R. (1997). *Relational Pursuit: Pursuer Short-Form*. Unpublished measure.

Spitzberg, B. H., Cupach, W. R., Hannawa, A. F., & Crowley, J. P. (2014). A preliminary test of a relational goal pursuit theory of obsessive relational intrusion and stalking. *Studies in Communication Sciences*, 14(1), 29-36. doi: 10.1016/j.scoms.2014.03.007

Spitzberg, B., & Rhea, J. (1999). Obsessive relational intrusion and sexual coercion victimization. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 14(1), 3-20. doi: 10.1177/088626099014001001

Sprecher, S., Felmlee, D., Metts, S., Fehr, B., & Vanni, D. (1998). Factors associated with distress following the breakup of a close relationship. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 15(6), 791-809. doi: 10.1177/0265407598156005

Stein, H., Koontz, A. D., Fonagy, P., Allen, J. G., Fultz, J., & Brethour, J. R. (2002). Adult attachment: what are the underlying dimensions? *Psychology and Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice*, 75(1), 77-91. doi: 10.1348/147608302169562

Stenwick, M. (2002). *The frequency, correlates and consequences of post-relationship stalking* (Unpublished masters dissertation). University of Canterbury, Christchurch, NZ.

- Sternberg, K. J., Lamb, M. E., Guterman, E., & Abbott, C. B. (2006). Effects of early and later family violence on children's behavior problems and depression: A longitudinal, multi-informant perspective. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, 30(3), 283–306. doi: 10.1016/j.chiabu.2005.10.008
- Straus, M. A., Hamby, S. L., Boney-McCoy, S., & Sugarman, D. B. (1996). The Revised Conflict Tactics Scales (CTS2): Development and preliminary psychometric data. *Journal of Family Issues*, 17(3), 282-316. doi: 10.1177/019251396017003001
- Sweeper, S., & Halford, K. (2006). Assessing adult adjustment to relationship separation: The Psychological Adjustment to Separation Test (PAST). *Journal of Family Psychology*, 20(4), 632-640. doi: 10.1037/0893-3200.20.4.632
- Tassy, F., & Winstead, B. (2014). Relationship and individual characteristics as predictors of unwanted pursuit. *Journal of Family Violence*, 29(2), 187-195. doi: 10.1007/s10896-013-9573-2
- The Protection from Harassment Act, c. 40 (1997).
- The Protection of Freedoms Act, c. 9 (2012).

Thompson, R. S., Bonomi, A. E., Anderson, M., Reid, R. J., Dimer, J. A., Carrell, D., & Rivara, F. P. (2006). Intimate partner violence: Prevalence, types, and chronicity in adult women. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, 30(6), 447-457. doi: 10.1016/j.amepre.2006.01.016

Tjaden, P., & Thoennes, N. (1998). *Stalking in America: Findings from the National Violence Against Women Survey*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics, United States Department of Justice.

Tollefson, D. R., Webb, K., Shumway, D., Block, S. H., & Nakamura, Y. (2009). A mind-body approach to domestic violence perpetrator treatment: Program overview and preliminary outcomes. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma*, 18(1), 17-45. doi: 10.1080/10926770802610657

Tonin, E. (2004). The attachment styles of stalkers. *The Journal of Forensic Psychiatry & Psychology*, 15(4), 584-590. doi: 10.1080/14789940410001729644

Treboux, D., Crowell, J., & Waters, E. (2004). When "new" meets "old": Configurations of adult attachment representations and their implications for marital functioning. *Developmental Psychology*, 40(2), 295-314. doi: 10.1037/0012-1649.40.2.295

Trzesniewski, K. H., Donnellan, M. B., Moffitt, T. E., Robins, R. W., Poulton, R., & Caspi, A. (2006). Low self-esteem during adolescence predicts poor health, criminal behavior, and limited economic prospects during adulthood. *Developmental Psychology, 42*(2), 381-390. doi:10.1037/0012-1649.42.2.381

Tweed, R., & Dutton, D. G. (1998). A comparison of impulsive and instrumental subgroups of batterers. *Violence and Victims, 13*(3), 217-230. Retrieved from <http://www.ingentaconnect.com/contentone/springer/vav/1998/00000013/00000003/art00002?crawler=true>

United States Department of Justice (1998). *Stalking in America: Findings from the National Violence Against Women Survey*. Washington, DC: Author.

Urbach, J. R., Khalily, C., & Mitchell, P. P. (1992). Erotomania in an adolescent: Clinical and theoretical considerations. *Journal of Adolescence, 15*(3), 231-240. doi: 10.1016/0140-1971(92)90027-3

Walker, L. E., & Meloy, J. R. (1998). Stalking and domestic violence. In J. R. Meloy (Ed.), *The psychology of stalking: Clinical and forensic perspectives* (pp. 139 -161). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Westrup, D., & Fremouw, W. J. (1998). Stalking behavior: A literature review and suggested functional analytic assessment technology.

Aggression and Violent Behavior, 3(3), 255–274. doi: 10.1016/S1359-1789(97)00023-2

Wisternoff, M. (2008). *Unwanted pursuit and stalking following intimate relationship dissolution* (Unpublished masters dissertation). University of Canterbury, Christchurch, NZ.

Wolak, J., & Finkelhor, D. (1998). Children exposed to partner violence. In J. L. Jasinski & L. M. Williams (Eds.), *Partner violence: A comprehensive review of 20 years of research* (pp. 73–111). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Zainal, Z. (2007). Case study as a research method. *Jurnal Kemanusiaan*, 9, 1-6. Retrieved from:
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/41822817_Case_study_as_a_research_method

Zanarini, M. C., Vujanovic, A. A., Parachini, E. A., Boulanger, J. L., Frankenburg, F. R., & Hennen, J. (2003). A screening measure for BPD: the McLean Screening Instrument for Borderline Personality Disorder (MSI-BPD). *Journal of Personality Disorders*, 17(6), 568– 573.
doi:10.1521/pedi.17.6.568.25355.

Zhang, F., & Labouvie-Vief, G. (2004). Stability and fluctuation in adult attachment style over a 6-year period. *Attachment & Human Development*, 6(4), 419–437. doi: 10.1080/1461673042000303127

Zona, M. A., Sharma, K. K., & Lane, J. C. (1993). A comparative study of erotomanic and obsessional subjects in a forensic sample. *Journal of Forensic Sciences*, 38(4), 894–903. doi: 10.1520/JFS13486J

APPENDIX A

Vignette Manipulations and Questionnaire Items

Stranger

Linda first met John when she visited the shop where he works. As Linda was leaving, John asked if she would like to join him for lunch. Linda thanked him for the offer, but said no. During the next 3 months, John sent Linda between 5 and 10 text messages a day, many of these asking why she was not interested in him. John also approached Linda on her way to work and telephoned her at home. Linda asked John to stop calling her, but he continued to call her regularly. In the end Linda disconnected the phone and John left lots of messages blaming her for what was happening. Most recently, John arrived at Linda's home soon after she got home from work. Linda pretended that she was out.

Acquaintance

Linda and John had been working together for 3 months. As Linda was leaving work one evening, John asked if she would like to join him for dinner. Linda thanked him for the offer, but said no. During the next 3 months, John sent Linda between 5 and 10 text messages a day, many of these asking why she was not interested in him. John also approached Linda on her way to work and telephoned her at home. Linda asked John to stop calling her, but he continued to call her regularly. In the end Linda disconnected the phone and John left lots of messages blaming her for what was happening. Most recently, John arrived at Linda's home soon after she returned from work. Linda pretended that she was out.

Ex-partner

Linda and John had been in a relationship for 3 months when she ended it. Linda realised they wanted different things from the relationship.

During the next 3 months, John sent Linda between 5 and 10 text messages a day, many of these asking why she was not interested in him.

John also approached Linda on her way to work and telephoned her at home. Linda asked John to stop calling her, but he continued to call her regularly. In the end Linda disconnected the phone and John left lots of messages blaming her for what was happening. Most recently, John arrived at Linda's home soon after she returned from work. Linda pretended that she was out.

1. How much do you think John's behaviour is stalking?

(0 = definitely not stalking; 6 = definitely stalking)

0 1 2 3 4 5 6

2. Do you think the police should be involved to resolve this situation?

(0 = definitely not; 6 = definitely)

0 1 2 3 4 5 6

3. Do you think John's behaviour will cause Linda alarm or distress?

(0 = not at all likely; 6 = extremely likely)

0 1 2 3 4 5 6

4. Do you think John's behaviour will make Linda fear physical violence?

(0 = not at all likely; 6 = extremely likely)

0 1 2 3 4 5 6

5. How much do you think Linda is to blame for encouraging John's behaviour?

(0 = not at all to blame; 6 = extremely to blame)

0 1 2 3 4 5 6

APPENDIX B

Results of Kruskal-Wallis Analyses

Data split by vignette type

Stranger

Item 1 (Stalking) – $H(2) = .20, p > .05$

Item 2 (Police) – $H(2) = .3.97, p > .05$

Item 3 (Alarm) – $H(2) = .80, p > .05$

Item 4 (Fear) – $H(2) = 2.98, p > .05$

Item 5 (Blame) – $H(2) = 1.09, p > .05$

Acquaintance

Item 1 (Stalking) – $H(2) = .34, p > .05$

Item 2 (Police) – $H(2) = 4.44, p > .05$

Item 3 (Alarm) – $H(2) = .70, p > .05$

Item 4 (Fear) – $H(2) = 2.76, p > .05$

Item 5 (Blame) – $H(2) = .2.03, p > .05$

Ex-partner

Item 1 (Stalking) – $H(2) = .01, p > .05$

Item 2 (Police) – $H(2) = .10, p > .05$

Item 3 (Alarm) – $H(2) = .15, p > .05$

Item 4 (Fear) – $H(2) = 3.06, p > .05$

Item 5 (Blame) – $H(2) = .36, p > .05$

Data split by offender type

IPV offender

Item 1 (Stalking) – $H(2) = .51, p > .05$

Item 2 (Police) – $H(2) = 2.55, p > .05$

Item 3 (Alarm) – $H(2) = .07, p > .05$

Item 4 (Fear) – $H(2) = 1.22, p > .05$

Item 5 (Blame) – $H(2) = .13, p > .05$

Non-IPV offender

Item 1 (Stalking) – $H(2) = 1.54, p > .05$

Item 2 (Police) – $H(2) = .4.86, p = .09$

Item 3 (Alarm) – $H(2) = 1.65, p > .05$

Item 4 (Fear) – $H(2) = .13, p > .05$

Item 5 (Blame) – $H(2) = .5.29, p = .07$

Non-offender

Item 1 (Stalking) – $H(2) = 2.07, p > .05$

Item 2 (Police) – $H(2) = .04, p > .05$

Item 3 (Alarm) – $H(2) = .63, p > .05$

Item 4 (Fear) – $H(2) = 1.10, p > .05$

Item 5 (Blame) – $H(2) = 2.25, p > .05$

APPENDIX C

Search Terms

The following search terms developed through scoping exercises were utilised:

1. 'partner' OR 'intimate' OR 'spouse' OR 'relationship' OR 'boyfriend' OR 'girlfriend' OR 'dating' OR 'romantic' OR 'couple' OR 'husband*' OR 'wife' OR 'wives' OR 'relation*'

AND

2. 'stalk*' OR 'harass*' OR 'obsess* relation* intrus*' OR 'unwanted pursuit' OR 'social* intrus*' OR 'obsess* follow*' OR 'covert pursuit' OR 'obsess* pursuit' OR 'relation* pursuit' OR 'intrus* contact' OR 'repeat* intrus*' OR 'obstinate persistence' OR 'love obsessional' OR 'simple obsessional' OR 'erotomani*' OR 'Clerambault'

Search terms varied depending on the database used, with truncation and adjacency modified accordingly. In order to ensure the search was comprehensive, both index terms and free text search were used when appropriate.

APPENDIX D

Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria

	Inclusion	Exclusion
Population	Males, females, or both genders AND Of university age or older (i.e. ≥ 17) AND Perpetrated unwanted pursuit/stalking behaviours directed towards a prior intimate partner (i.e. a former spouse, cohabitant, or dating/sexual partner) following the relationship	Aged < 17 Engaged in unwanted pursuit/stalking towards a prospective partner/current partner/acquaintance/stranger Participants selected from sample of IPV perpetrators only
Exposure	Engaged in repeated unwanted intrusions and communications directed towards a prior intimate partner after the relationship had ended	Behaviours not repeated Behaviours not intrusive Engaged in these behaviours towards someone prior to or during a relationship Only engaged in these behaviours towards someone who was not an ex-partner Only engaged in other abusive behaviours (e.g., IPV, sexual assault, sexual harassment)
Outcome	Characteristics of the stalker Characteristics of the previous relationship	Characteristics of the stalking Characteristics of the victim Impact on victim Legal consequences
Study Type	Cohort Case control Cross-sectional	Qualitative methods Case study

APPENDIX E

Quality Assessment Pro-forma

Quality Assessment Criteria/Risk of Bias	Y (1)	P (0.5)	N (0)	UC/ N/A	Comments
Screening questions					
Does the study focus on a clearly defined research question(s)?					
Was the design appropriate to meet the aims of the research?					
Sampling and selection bias					
Was the recruitment strategy appropriate to the aims of the research?					
Are the demographics of the sample reported?					
Are inclusion/exclusion criteria outlined and justification provided?					
Was the sample representative of the defined population?					
Was sample size appropriate to the design of the study?					
<i>(If applicable)</i> Does the study document information relating to drop-out rates or non-completers?					

<i>(If applicable)</i> Is there discussion of how attrition may affect the outcome?					
<i>(If applicable)</i> Were the comparison group derived from the same sample?					
<i>(If applicable)</i> Are confounding variables between groups considered?					
Outcome measurement bias					
Was stalking clearly defined?					
Was prior relationship reported and categories clearly defined?					
Was an appropriate measure used to determine stalking? (Consider self-report vs. conviction)					
Were appropriate measures used to assess any further characteristics being assessed?					
If self-report measures used, are they validated?					
If self-report measures used, are they reliable?					
Was the data collected in a way that addressed the research issue?					

Analysis and results					
Were appropriate statistical analyses conducted?					
Were results clearly stated with reference to significance (i.e. p values)?					
Were all outcomes stated to be measured reported (i.e. including non-significant results)?					
Do the results answer the research question?					
Summary					
Risk of sampling bias	L	M	H	U/NA	
Risk of attrition bias	L	M	H	U/NA	
Risk of measurement bias	L	M	H	U/NA	
Risk of reporting bias	L	M	H	U/NA	
Overall study quality (% of applicable items):					

APPENDIX F

Risk of Bias for Included Studies

	Sampling/ Selection Bias	Measurement Bias (Exposure)	Measurement Bias (Outcome)	Attrition Bias	Reporting Bias
Langhinrichsen -Rohling, Palarea, Cohen, & Rohling (2000)	High Convenience sample from one department (psychology) of one university. No attempts made to check whether sample were representative.	High Reliability assessed but UPBI not validated. Self-report potentially influenced by social desirability and no corroboration of the self-report information.	Moderate Reliability of all measures assessed and all measures validated. However, Self-report potentially influenced by social desirability and no corroboration of the self-report information.	Unclear No drop-out rates reported. Participants were recruited for class credits. Therefore, unclear whether all who started the study completed the questionnaires or whether attrition rates were simply not reported.	Moderate Reported results relating to all variables purported to be measured. However, no results of correlations reported.

	High	High	Moderate	Unclear	Low
Langhinrichsen -Rohling & Rohling (2000)	Convenience sample from one department of two universities. No attempts made to check whether sample were representative.	Reliability assessed but UPBI not validated. Self-report potentially influenced by social desirability and no corroboration of the self-report information.	Reliability of all measures assessed and measures validated. However, questions about parental relationships assessed separation at the time of the study, not when the pursuit behaviours were perpetrated. Also, information about prior parental breakups were self-report with no corroboration of the information.	No drop-out rates reported. Participants were recruited for class credits. Therefore, unclear whether all who started the study completed the questionnaires or whether attrition rates were simply not reported.	Reported results relating to all variables purported to be measured.

	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Unclear	High
Costigan (2006)	Recruited from various classes in one university. Also, attempts made to determine whether the sample was representative of the population based on available information.	Combination of UPBI, self-report that met legal classification, and self-classification. Also, social desirability measure included. However, no corroboration of the self-report information from other sources.	All measures validated and reliability assessed. Also, social desirability controlled for. However, no corroboration of self-report information.	Participants excluded because they did not provide sufficient information. However, unclear whether this related to not completing the questionnaires or missing certain sections.	Associations between UPBI and legal definitions and self-classifications reported. However, subsequent analyses relating to associations between independent variables and stalking only reported in relation to legal definition.
	High	Moderate	Moderate	Unclear	Low
Dutton & Winstead (2006)	Convenience sample from one department of two universities. No attempts made to check whether sample were	Validated and reliability assessed. However, self-report method with no social desirability measure or	All measures validated and reliability assessed. However, self-report method with no social desirability	No drop-out rates reported. Participants were recruited for class credits. Therefore, unclear whether all who started the	Reported results relating to all variables purported to be measured.

	representative.	corroboration of information.	measure or corroboration of information.	study completed the questionnaires or whether attrition rates were simply not reported.	
	High	High	High	Unclear	Low
Wisternoff (2008)	Sample recruited from certain departments of one university via emails sent to students and notice boards. Participants received monetary reward for participation.	Utilised measure adapted by other researchers. Although reliability assessed, no information regarding validation. Also, self-report measure potentially influenced by social desirability and no corroboration of self-report information from other sources.	Some measures validated and reliability assessed. However, this was not the case for others. Also, self-report measures potentially influenced by social desirability and no corroboration of self-report information.	Participants excluded because they did not provide sufficient information. However, unclear whether this related to not completing the questionnaires or missing certain sections.	Reported results relating to all variables purported to be measured.

	High	High	Moderate	Unclear	Low
Gallivan (2010)	Same sample as Langinrichsen et al. (2000).	Same measure as Langinrichsen et al. (2000).	Same measures as Langinrichsen et al. (2000). Additionally, virginity status assessed via one yes/no question.	Same as outlined above for Langinrichsen et al. (2000).	Reported results relating to all variables purported to be measured.
Cupach, Spitzberg, Bolingbroke, & Tellitocci (2011)	Convenience sample from one department of two universities. No attempts made to check whether sample were representative.	Reliability assessed but measure not validated. Self-report potentially influenced by social desirability and no corroboration of the self-report information.	All measures self-developed. Reliability assessed but no validity information. All self-report measures with no social desirability measure or corroboration of information.	No information provided	Correlation table not included and mainly only significant results reported.

	Moderate	High	Moderate	Unclear	Moderate
De Smet, Buyssee, & Brondeel (2011)	Recruited through 6 companies, 28 divorce professionals, newspaper and internet advertisements, and snowballing. However, individuals' participation was self-selected.	Reliability assessed but UPBI not validated. Social desirability measure included but no corroboration of the self-report information. Also, participants only provided information relating to the last two weeks.	All measures validated and reliability assessed. Also, social desirability measure included. However, used individual questions to assess initiator status, cause, and reason and no corroboration of any of the self-report information.	Not possible to assess attrition as some participants received links to an online version of the questionnaires whilst others received paper copies. Of those who received paper copies, unable to ascertain how many started yet did not complete.	Not all correlations reported. Table of predictors included which did provide some information regarding non-significant results. However, some variables not included in this analysis as prior analyses were not significant. The specific results of these prior analyses were not reported.
	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	High	Moderate
De Smet, Loeys, & Buysse (2012)	Participants waiting for divorce proceedings selected from waiting room or four courts.	Evidence for face and factorial validity for RP-PSF and reliability assessed. Social desirability	Most measures validated and reliability assessed. Also, social desirability measure included.	Large number of dropouts throughout the process and no information provided as to	Correlations between predictors reported but not between all variables and UPB perpetration. Also,

	Individuals' participation was self-selected. However, researchers made comparisons with the full population on the basis of information available from national statistics.	measure included but no corroboration of the self-report information. Also, participants only provided information relating to the last two weeks.	However, used individual questions to assess initiator status and cause, measured emotions on Likert scale, and no corroboration of any of the self-report information.	whether dropouts differed from final sample.	full results relating to anxious attachment not reported.
De Smet, Loeys, & Buysse (2013)	High Participants waiting for divorce proceedings selected from waiting room or four courts. Individuals' participation was self-selected. No information relating to whether the sample was representative of the population.	Moderate Evidence for face and factorial validity for RP-PSF and reliability assessed. Although information was taken from couples, each partner completed the questionnaires based on their own information. Therefore, no corroboration of the self-report	Moderate All measures validated and reliability assessed. However, self-report method with no social desirability measure or corroboration of information.	High Large number of dropouts throughout the process and no information provided as to whether dropouts differed from final sample.	Low Reported results relating to all variables purported to be measured.

		information. Also, no social desirability measure included.			
	High	Moderate	High	Unclear	Low
Cole (2014)	Convenience sample from one department of one university. No attempts made to check whether sample were representative.	Self-developed from previous measures. Factor analysed therefore indicating level of validity. However, self-report measure potentially influenced by social desirability and no corroboration of self-report information from other sources.	Emotion items rated on Likert scale. Other variables assessed using measures used in other researchers' studies. Reliability assessed but no evidence relating to validity. Also, self-report measure potentially influenced by social desirability and no corroboration of self-report information from other sources.	No information relating to attrition provided.	Reported results relating to all variables purported to be measured.

Spitzberg, Cupach, Hannawa, & Crowley (2014)	High	High	Moderate	Unclear	High
	Recruitment specifics not noted, simply stated number of college students at two Universities responded to online survey. No information as to whether participants self-selected or were required to participate or which discipline students were recruited from. Also, no information relating to whether the sample was representative.	Self-report measure developed by researchers, therefore not validated. Internal consistency measured. However, self-report potentially influenced by social desirability and no corroboration of the self-report information.	Characteristics assessed via self-developed measures or adaptations of measures used by previous researchers. Factor analyses conducted indicating level of validity. Also, internal consistency measured. However, self-report potentially influenced by social desirability and no corroboration of the self-report information.	No information relating to attrition is provided.	Correlations between variables and ORI sub-categories reported but not overall ORI. Regressions then conducted on overall ORI but not sub-categories. With regards to regressions, primarily significant results reported.
Tassy & Winstead (2014)	High	Moderate	Moderate	Unclear	Moderate
	Recruited undergraduates	Evidence for face and factorial	All measures validated and	No information relating to attrition	Results relating to two of the IMS

	who had difficulty letting go of a relationship. Recruitment specifics not noted. No information as to whether participants self-selected or were required to participate or which discipline students were recruited from. Also, no information relating to whether the sample was representative.	validity for RP-PSF and reliability assessed. No social desirability measure included or corroboration of the self-report information.	reliability assessed. However, self-report method with no social desirability measure or corroboration of information.	is provided.	subscales not reported. However, all other results, both significant and not significant, included.
	High	Moderate	Moderate	Unclear	Low
Dardis (2015)	Participants recruited from the psychology research participant pool at one university.	Reliability assessed and factor analyses conducted. However, self-report potentially influenced by social desirability and no corroboration of the	Mixture of validated and non-validated measures. Reliability of all assessed. However, all self-report potentially influenced by social	Participants excluded because they did not provide sufficient information. However, unclear whether this related to not	Reported results relating to all variables purported to be measured.

		self-report information.	desirability and no corroboration of the self-report information.	completing the questionnaires or missing certain sections.	
	High	Moderate	Moderate	Unclear	Moderate
De Smet, Uzieblo, Loeys, Buyse, & Onraedt (2015)	Participants recruited via various media outlets. However, no information relating to representativeness of the sample.	Evidence for face and factorial validity for RP-PSF and reliability assessed. No social desirability measure included or corroboration of the self-report information.	All measures validated and reliability assessed. However, self- report method with no social desirability measure or corroboration of information.	No information relating to attrition is provided.	Correlations between predictor variables reported. However, correlations between independent variables and UPB not reported. All other results, both significant and not significant, included.

APPENDIX G

Data Extraction Pro-forma

Date	
Author(s)	
Title	
Type of publication	
Country of origin	
Type of study	
Aims/Objectives	
Focused on the stalking of prior intimates?	
Definition of stalking (including any specified duration)	
Data collection method	
Participants	
Gender (if both, % of each gender)	
Forensic/community sample	
Number of participants	
Age range/mean age	
Inclusion/exclusion criteria	
Recruitment	

Stalking and relationship	
Method used to measure stalking	
Duration of stalking	
Types of prior relationships (i.e. definition of ex-intimate)	
Heterosexual/homosexual/both	
Duration of relationship	
Time lapsed since break-up	
Comparison	
Details of any comparison group(s)	
Characteristics	
Measures used to collect characteristics of stalker	
Measures used to collect characteristics of relationship	
Descriptives of stalker	
Descriptives of relationship	
Results	
Statistical measures used	
Significant findings (with p values)	
Non-significant findings	
Any other information	

APPENDIX H

Measures of Stalking/Unwanted Pursuit

The following tools were used throughout the studies included in the systematic review to measure self-reported unwanted pursuit behaviours.

Unwanted Pursuit Behaviour Inventory (UPBI; Palarea & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 1998; Langhinrichsen-Rohling, Palarea, Cohen, & Rohling, 2000)

This measure was utilised throughout six studies (Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al., 2000; Langhinrichsen-Rohling & Rohling, 2000; Costigan, 2006; Gallivan, 2010; De Smet, Buysse, & Brondeel, 2011; Dardis, 2015). This 26-item scale measures the presence, impact, and motivation underlying a range of unwanted pursuit behaviours. Participants were instructed to report behaviours they engaged in that occurred following the breakup of the intimate relationship. Ratings can be summed to provide a total unwanted pursuit score, which was utilised in five of the six studies (excluding Dardis, 2015). Dardis (2015) categorised the UPBI behaviours into excessive contact/monitoring behaviours and threatening behaviours. Furthermore, two studies assessed severity of UPBs by incorporating the scores from the items rated to have a negative impact and weighting these to create an unwanted pursuit behaviour severity index (Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al., 2000; Langhinrichsen-Rohling & Rohling, 2000). It is proposed that this aspect of the scale is more in line with legal definitions of stalking. Due to the number of absolute zero total scores, De Smet et al. (2011) categorised participants into non-perpetration and perpetration categories. Findings from analyses

conducted incorporating this dichotomous classification is not included in the current review as it is unclear whether participants' behaviours met the 'repetitive' aspect of the exposure inclusion criteria. For example, a participant who indicated they had perpetrated one of the behaviours, once, could be included in the perpetration category. Furthermore, Costigan (2006) directed participants to rate how often they had engaged in behaviours towards any former partner. Findings from analysis incorporating this variable were also excluded from the current review due to the ambiguity of 'repetitive' aspect. For example, someone who rated an item as '3' may have engaged in a behaviour once towards three different partners or repeatedly directed the behaviour towards the same partner three times.

Relational Pursuit – Pursuer Short-Form (Spitzberg & Cupach, 1997; Cupach & Spitzberg, 2004)

Five studies utilised this tool to measure UPB (Dutton & Winstead, 2006; De Smet, Loeys, & Buysse, 2012; 2013; Tassy & Winstead, 2014; De Smet, Uzieblo, Loeys, Buysse, & Onraedt, 2015). Participants rated how often they had perpetrated 28 behaviours following the breakup on a 5-point Likert scale. An overall index of perpetration can be created by summing all items. However, factor analyses have also supported the properties of two separate subscales; Pursuit and Aggression. Therefore, three studies focused on frequency of total UPBs (De Smet et al., 2012; 2013; 2015), whilst two studies analysed results for the Pursuit and Aggression scales separately (Dutton & Winstead, 2006; Tassy & Winstead, 2014). Although the measure primarily examines the extent to

which behaviours occur, De Smet et al. (2012), Tassey and Winstead (2014), and De Smet et al. (2015) dichotomously categorised participants into pursuers and non-pursuers. Findings from analyses conducted with this variable are not included in the current review, again due to ambiguity of whether participants' behaviours in the pursuer category would meet the 'repetitive' aspect of the exposure inclusion criteria.

Additional measures of UPB/stalking perpetration

Cupach, Spitzberg, Bolingbroke, and Tellitocci (2011) adapted previous measures of unwanted pursuit to develop a 31-item tool. Participants rated on a scale of 0 (never) to 2 (two or more times) the extent to which they engaged in each of the behaviours since the breakup. Spitzberg, Cupach, Hannawa, and Crowley (2014) also used a self-developed 42-item measure based on prior research. The items corresponded to eight categories of unwanted pursuit and harassment tactics; hyper-intimacy, interactional contacts (i.e. physical contacts), mediated contacts (i.e. contacts via technology), surveillance, intrusion, intimidation, harassment, threats, and violence. Participants rated how often they had engaged in the behaviours on a 7-point scale ('never' to 'more than 25 times'). Scores for the eight categories were created by summing the responses to items in that category, whilst summing the ratings of all items created a total score.

In addition to the UPBI, Costigan (2006) also asked participants four yes/no questions relating to stalking and harassment following relationships. The first asked whether participants had given former

partners repeated, unwanted attention following the breakup. The subsequent questions then asked whether this was in a malicious manner, whether the attention became more threatening or violent over time, and whether the participants made threats that caused their former partner fear. Participants were categorised as having stalked their former partner if they answered 'yes' to the first question and any of the subsequent questions. Participants were classified as having harassed their former partner if the only 'yes' response related to the first question. Finally, if participants answered 'no' to all questions they were placed in a no-perpetration category. Furthermore, Costigan (2006) asked participants to self-report whether they had ever stalked a former partner or someone other than a former partner, and whether they had ever harassed a former partner or someone other than a former partner through the use of four, yes/no questions. Findings relating to both 'stalkers' and 'harassers' were included in the current review as those in the harassment group would meet the current study's definition of stalking.

Wisternoff (2008) measured stalking behaviour using the self- and partner-stalking sub-scale from the measure developed in Stenwick's (2002) study, which amended Davis, Ace, and Andra's (2000) Relationship History Survey to measure prevalence of stalking behaviour. Participants rated the frequency of their own, and their ex-partner's, perpetration of 30 behaviours after the relationship ended. The measure is divided into three subscales; reconciliation behaviours, mild stalking, and severe stalking. Scores for the scales were summed and averaged to calculate

an overall stalking score. Only findings relating to self-reports are included in the current review.

With regards to online stalking methods, Cole (2014) developed a measure of Facebook ORI that required participants to rate the frequency with which they engaged in 40 behaviours following the breakup of their relationship. The measure was factor analysed and separated into two subscales; one measuring covert behaviours and the other measuring explicit scales. Only findings relating to the explicit scale are included in the current review as the covert scale comprised of items that would not meet the 'intrusive' aspect of the exposure inclusion criteria (e.g., visiting a partner's Facebook page). In further relation to cyber behaviours, Dardis (2015) utilised the Controlling Partners Inventory-Self (Burke, Wallen, Vail-Smith, & Knox, 2011) to measure cyber unwanted pursuit. Participants rated the frequency of their engagement in 18 behaviours following the breakup of their relationship on a 5-point Likert scale. Factor analysis led to the development of the following four subscales: use of photos/camera/Spyware to monitor or post embarrassing photos of partner; excessive communication (calls/texts); threatening calls, texts and emails; checking on partner by using his/her password, checking cell call or email histories. Results were analysed by separating the items into two categories; excessive contact/checking behaviours and threatening behaviours.

APPENDIX I

Measures of Individual and Relationship Characteristics

Individual characteristics

The following tools were utilised throughout the studies included in the systematic review to measure characteristics of the perpetrators of unwanted pursuit/stalking. The measures are presented in the order in which they appear in Table 6.

- The Experiences in Close Relationship Scale (ECR; Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998) is a 36-item measure that assesses general attachment style. The measure is composed of two subscales relating to attachment avoidance and attachment anxiety.
- The Spouse-Specific Dependency Scale (SSDS; Rathus & O'Leary, 1997) is a 24-item measure that assesses attachment in relation to a specific partner and relationship. The measure consists of three subscales representing anxious attachment, exclusive dependency, and emotional dependency. The anxious attachment scale measures the extent to which the respondent feels easily neglected by their partner and preoccupied with the partner's feelings and whereabouts. Exclusive dependency (i.e. 'narrow focus on partner') reflects the extent to which the respondent relies on their partner as a social companion, subsequently excluding other important relationships. Finally, emotional dependency (i.e. 'nurturance and support seeking') assesses the extent to which the respondent relies on the relationship for self-esteem, identity, and general functioning.

- The Interpersonal Jealousy Scale (IJS; Mathes & Severa, 1981) is a 26-item questionnaire that utilises hypothetical questions to measure jealousy in relation to a specific relationship.
- The Children's Perceptions of Interparental Conflict Scale (CPICS; Grych, Seid, & Fincham, 1992) comprises of eight subscales relating to different aspects of parental conflict (i.e. frequency, intensity, resolution, content, perceived threat, coping efficacy, self-blame, and triangulation).
- The Symptoms Checklist-90-Revised (SCL-90-R; Derogatis, 1994) is a 90-item measure that assesses how much a range of symptoms have bothered the respondent over the past week. The symptom dimensions measured are somatization, obsessive-compulsive, interpersonal sensitivity, depression, anxiety, hostility, phobic anxiety, paranoid ideation, and psychoticism.
- The Adult Attachment Questionnaire (AAQ; Simpson, Rholes, & Nelligan, 1992) is a 17-item tool that measures levels of avoidant and anxious attachment.
- Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965) is a 10-item questionnaire that assesses both trait and global self-worth by measuring positive and negative feelings about the self.
- The self-perception scale from the ideal partner and relationship scales (Fletcher, Simpson, Thomas, & Giles, 1999) is a 17-item questionnaire that measures respondents opinions of their own trustworthiness/warmth, status/resources, and vitality/attractiveness.

- The Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI; Raskin & Hall, 1979) is a 40-item measure based on the clinical criteria for narcissistic personality disorder designed to measure narcissism in the general population.
- The Beck Depression Inventory-2nd Edition (BDI-II; Beck, Steer, & Brown, 1996) is a 21-item questionnaire designed to measure the severity of depression. Items relate to symptoms of depression such as hopelessness and irritability, cognitions such as guilt and feelings of being punished, and physical symptoms such as fatigue and lack of appetite.
- The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI; Spielberger, Gorsuch, Lushene, Vagg, & Jacobs, 1983) is a 40-item measure that assesses feelings of unease, worry, tension, and stress. State anxiety refers to arousal induced temporarily by specific situations whereas trait anxiety reflects an enduring disposition to experiencing anxious feelings.
- The Neuroticism Scale (Goldberg et al., 2006) is a 10-item measure developed to assess neuroticism as an aspect of the Big Five personality traits.
- The Multidimensional Jealousy Scale (Pfeiffer & Wong, 1989) is a 24-item inventory that measures three separate types of jealousy: cognitive (i.e. jealous thoughts); emotional (i.e. feelings of jealousy); and behavioural (i.e. behaving in jealous ways).
- The Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale (Gratz & Roemer, 2004) is a 36-item questionnaire designed to assess various aspects of emotion dysregulation including: non-acceptance of emotional

responses; difficulties engaging in goal directed behaviour; impulse control difficulties; lack of emotional awareness; limited access to emotion regulation strategies; and lack of emotional clarity.

- The measure of dispositional self-control utilised within Dardis' (2015) study was a 24-item questionnaire developed by Grasmick, Tittle, Bursik, and Arnek (1993). Sample items include "*I often act 30 on the spur of the moment without stopping to think,*" and "*When things get complicated, I tend to quit or withdraw.*"
- The Modified Possessiveness Scale (Dutton-Greene, 2004) is an adapted version of Pinto and Hollandsworth's (1984) 21-item Possessiveness Scale that assesses possessiveness by romantic partners in intimate relationships.
- The Empathy Quotient (Baron-Cohen & Wheelwright, 2004) is a 40-item questionnaire that assesses various empathy components including cognitive empathy, emotional reactivity, and general social skills.
- The Self-Report Psychopathy Scale-III (SRP-III; Paulhus, Neumann, & Hare, 2015) is a 64-item measure that assesses the four core features of psychopathy: interpersonal manipulative behaviour; callous affect; erratic lifestyle; and criminal tendencies.
- The McLean Screening Instrument for Borderline Personality Disorder (MSI-BPD; Zanarini et al., 2003) is a 10-item measure that assesses the presence of various traits associated with borderline personality disorder.
- The Dutch Narcissism Scale (NNS; Ettema & Zondag, 2002) is a 35-item measure based on the NPI and the Hypersensitive Narcissism

Scale (Hendin & Cheek, 1997) that assesses the degree of non-pathological narcissism.

- The International Self-Report Delinquency Survey (ISRD; Junger-Tas, Terlouw, & Klein, 1994) incorporates items relating to five categories of offences in order to measure the extent to which the respondent has been involved in delinquent behaviour. The five subscales relate to problem behaviour, vandalism, theft, violence and aggression, and alcohol and drug use.

Relationship characteristics

The following tools were utilised throughout the studies included in the systematic review to measure characteristics of the relationship preceding unwanted pursuit/stalking. The measures are presented in the order in which they appear in Table 6.

- The Love Attitudes Scale – Short Form (LAS; Hendrick, Hendrick, & Dicke, 1998) is a 42-item measure which assesses the degree to which different types of love style are present within a relationship. The love styles focused on in Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al.'s (2000) study include: passionate love; game-playing love; friendship love; and possessive/dependant love.
- The Revised Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS2; Straus, Hamby, Boney-McCoy, & Sugarman, 1996) measures the frequency and severity of both perpetration and victimisation of a number conflict related behaviours within a relationship. The five subscales measure negotiation, psychological aggression, physical assault, sexual coercion, and physical injury.

- The Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS; Hendrick, Dicke, & Hendrick, 1998) is a 7-item questionnaire that measures the degree of the respondents' satisfaction with the relationship.
- The Investment Model Scale (IMS; Rusbult, Martz, and Agnew, 1998) is a 29-item measure that assesses four aspects of investment in a relationship. Commitment level relates to the extent to which the respondent intends to persist in the relationship. Relationship satisfaction refers to the extent to which the relationship fulfilled the respondent's needs for intimacy, sex, companionship, security, and emotional involvement. Quality of alternatives relates to the degree that the respondent believes satisfaction needs could be met in another relationship. Finally, investment size measures the respondents perceptions of the time invested, memories, and shared experiences.
- Dutton and Winstead's (2006) modified version of the measure developed by Sprecher, Felmlee, Metts, Fehr, and Vanni (1998) explores distress experienced following the breakup of a relationship. Respondents indicated the degree to which they experienced nine negative emotions and four positive emotions. The emotions were divided into a 4-item measure of anger/jealousy and a 9-item subscale referred to as the unhappiness component.
- The Perceived Relationship Quality Components Inventory (Fletcher, Simpson, & Thomas, 2000) is an 18-item questionnaire that assesses quality of relationship across six dimensions: relationship satisfaction; commitment; intimacy; trust; passion; and love.

- Cupach, Spitzberg, Bolingbroke, and Tellitocci's (2011) 8-item measure of goal-linking assessed the extent to which individuals included and connected their partner to personal life goals.
- Cupach et al.'s (2011) 24-item rumination scale measured how much the respondent thought about their ex-partner and the relationship after the breakup.
- Cupach et al. (2011) adapted Dutton-Greene's (2004) 6-item measure of emotional flooding, adding a further 6 items. The items focused on assessing general negative emotional reactions to the breakup.
- Cupach et al.'s (2011) 8-item measure of self-efficacy assessed the extent to which respondents believed that they could achieve their desired outcome, which in this case related to reconciliation of the prior relationship.
- De Smet, Buysse, and Brondeel's (2011) 4-item measures assessing the locus of cause asked respondents to rate to what extent they viewed themselves, their ex-partner, external factors, or circumstances as having caused the breakup.
- The Psychological Adjustment to Separation Test (PAST; Sweeper & Halford, 2006) is a 26-item questionnaire designed to measure dimensions of adult separation adjustment problems. The three subscales relate to ex-partner attachment (i.e. thoughts and feelings about the ex-partner), lonely negativity (i.e. loneliness and negative affect because of breakup), and co-parenting conflict.
- De Smet, Loeys, and Buysse's (2012) 10-item measure of post-breakup negative affect required respondents to rate on a 9-point

Likert scale how strongly they currently felt a series of ten negative emotions when thinking back on the breakup. The scores were summed to create a total negative affect score.

- Cole's (2014) measure of emotions experienced after the breakup simply asked participants to rate on a Likert scale the extent to which they experienced a series of 42 emotions after the relationship had ended.
- Emotional flooding was assessed by Spitzberg, Cupach, Hannawa, and Crowley (2014) through an 11-item measure developed specifically for the study. It was designed to assess negative emotional reactions to the breakup and rejection. The measure consists of two subscales that assess residual distress from the breakup and emotional distress connected to the breakup itself (breakup distress).
- Spitzberg et al.'s (2014) measure of face sensitivity comprised of 16 items and two subscales; face threat sensitivity (i.e. how easily the respondents feelings were hurt) and felt face threat (i.e. the extent to which the respondent perceived the breakup as a personal slight).
- Sanchez and Kwang's (2007) 4-item measure of relationship-contingent self-worth assesses how much a respondent's self-esteem is linked to being in a relationship. Sample items include "*I feel worthwhile when I have a significant other*" and "*My self-esteem depends on whether or not I have a significant other*".
- The Relationship Preoccupation Scale (Davis, Shaver, & Vernon, 2003) is a 9-item questionnaire that measures the extent to which

the respondent is preoccupied with an ex-partner. Sample items include *"I think about my ex-partner constantly"* and *"Everything seems to remind me of my ex-partner"*.

APPENDIX J

Relevant Personal History

Childhood and Family

REDACTED

Education and Employment

REDACTED

Relationships

REDACTED

Substance Use

REDACTED

Mental Health

REDACTED

Forensic History

REDACTED

Index offence

REDACTED

Additional Antisocial Behaviour

REDACTED

Victimisation

REDACTED

APPENDIX K

Stalking and Harassment Risk Identification Checklist (S-DASH 2009)

REDACTED