Investigating Perceptions of Child Sexual Abuse

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Abstract

Purpose

The aim of this research was to investigate perceptions of child sexual abuse (CSA), particularly the perceptions held by CSA perpetrators and the public. Given the influence perceptions can have on a CSA victim's wellbeing and disclosure behaviour, and a CSA perpetrator's sexual recidivism risk, gaining insight into these perceptions was considered important.

Method

To facilitate this investigation, a multifaceted approach was adopted. This commenced with chapter one, a systematic literature review, which aimed to identify which factors influence English and Welsh perceptions of CSA victims. The second chapter comprised an empirical research project which aimed to investigate the influence of a victim's abuse history, victim-perpetrator relationship and a perpetrator's gender on British perceptions of CSA. These three factors were selected due to their hypothesised influence on perceptions and lack of investigation. Following this, chapter three was completed which involved a critique of the Gudjonsson Blame Attribution Inventory-Revised (GBAI-R). This was to assess the inventory's suitability for chapter four and to inform practitioners of its utility. Finally, chapter four entailed a case study which aimed to investigate whether a CSA perpetrator's offence-specific minimisation could be reduced. This was facilitated by completing a six-session intervention on an individual basis.

Results

This thesis revealed various findings. Specifically, chapter one revealed respondent gender influences public perceptions of CSA victims as males perceived CSA victims more negatively than females. Regarding chapter two, a victim's abuse history, victim-perpetrator relationship and a perpetrator's gender were not found to influence British perceptions of CSA. However, similar to chapter one, females were significantly more pro-victim compared to males. In chapter three, the critique identified some evidence of the GBAI-R being psychometrically sound and utilising an efficient administration methodology. Despite this, some concerns were raised regarding the representativeness of its normative data and the inventory's susceptibility to extreme scores. Finally, chapter four revealed some evidence of the intervention reducing the perpetrator's offence-specific minimisation although it was not possible to firmly conclude this.

Conclusion

The findings highlight the need for further research into perceptions of CSA. This should include investigations into why males are less pro-victim compared to females and the impact this might have on CSA. Research should also continue to investigate the influence of a victim's abuse history, victim-perpetrator relationship and a perpetrator's gender on perceptions of CSA. As part of this research a more representative sample should be recruited to enable the generalisation of findings. A more comprehensive critique of the GBAI-R should also be facilitated as well as further investigations into minimisation.

Preface

The research thesis presented aimed to investigate perceptions of child sexual abuse (CSA). In particular, the perceptions held by the public and CSA perpetrators. To achieve this aim, a multifaceted approach was adopted which involved the completion of a systematic literature review, empirical research project, psychometric critique and research case study. Figure 1 provides a diagrammatic summary of the research thesis structure. Within each chapter, individual aims were developed and explored. This included aims to investigate which factors influence public perceptions of CSA and aims to enhance insight into the malleability of CSA perpetrators' perceptions.

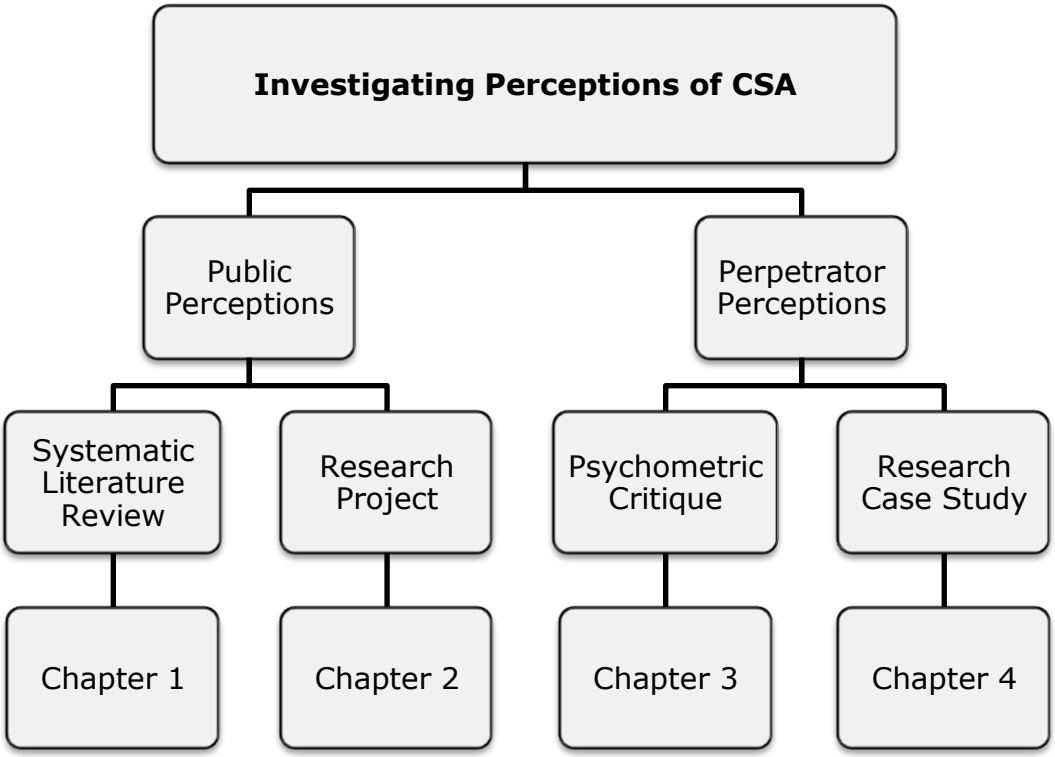


Figure 1: A figure summarising the research thesis.

The research thesis commences with an introduction which aims to introduce the topics explored and the rationales for their investigation. Chapter one is then introduced which comprises the systematic literature review. This aimed to investigate which factors influence English and Welsh perceptions of CSA victims and which factors, if any, require further exploration. Following chapter one, the second chapter is presented which comprises the empirical research project. This aspect of the thesis aimed to investigate the influence of a victim's abuse history, victim-perpetrator relationship and a perpetrator's gender on British perceptions of CSA. These were several of the factors which chapter one identified as requiring further investigation.

Chapter three is then presented. This comprises the psychometric critique which aimed to evaluate the Gudjonsson Blame Attribution Inventory-Revised (GBAI-R) which measures perpetrators' perceptions of their index offence. The fourth chapter of this thesis is the final element of research presented. This comprises the research case study which aimed to explore whether a perpetrator's engagement in minimising the severity of his sexual offending could be reduced. To conclude the thesis, a discussion is presented which entails an exploration of findings, a review of the practice and research implications, and an overview of the thesis' limitations. A combined reference list then follows. All associated appendices can be found in the document titled; Research Thesis Appendices. To enhance ease of comprehension, the appendices are separated by chapter.

Authorship Declaration

I certify that this research thesis has been composed by the author, Victoria Hatton, with supervision from Dr Simon Duff. Any work that is not the author's has been acknowledged through appropriate citations and referencing. Please note, chapter one of this thesis, the systematic literature review, has been published in the Journal of Sexual Aggression. The authors for this publication are Victoria Hatton and Simon Duff. This chapter was also presented in poster format at the British Psychological Society's Annual Conference in April 2016.

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Introduction to the Research Thesis

Investigating Perceptions of Child Sexual Abuse

Introduction

"Child sexual abuse (CSA) is forcing or enticing a child or young person to take part in sexual activities, whether or not the child is aware of what is happening" (Sanderson, 2006, pg. 24). This can entail contact activity, such as vaginal penetration, or non-contact activity, such as showing pornography to a child. Within the UK, statistics suggest CSA is primarily perpetrated by adults although it is estimated a third of reported cases are perpetrated by young people aged 10-17 years (Erooga & Masson, 2006). In 2014/15, the police recorded the highest number of CSA cases in the UK since the last decade (Bentley, O'Hagan, Raff & Bhatti, 2016). The National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children (NSPCC) hypothesise this increase stems from an increased willingness to disclose victimisation, improved police recording practice and a rising prevalence of CSA (Bentley et al., 2016). However, firm conclusions regarding this increase remain unknown.

Perceptions Held by the Public (Chapter One and Two)

CSA is an emotive topic which can evoke strong emotional reactions and perceptions from the public (McElvaney, 2016). These perceptions can include blaming the victim and/or perpetrator or even questioning the credibility of a victim's disclosure. According to literature, perceiving a victim negatively can dissuade an individual from disclosing their victimisation experiences (Alaggia, 2010; Goodman-Brown, Edelstein, Goodman, Jones & Gordon, 2003). Given the vital role disclosure plays in identifying perpetrators and victims of CSA,

this can be problematic (Hershkowitz, Lanes & Lamb, 2007). Specifically, non-disclosure can enable the recurrence of abuse and prevent the implementation of therapeutic interventions which might be required for the victim and perpetrator (Paine & Hansen, 2002).

The perceptions the public hold of CSA can also influence the long-term consequences for both the victim and perpetrator (Bornstein, Kaplan & Perry, 2007). For example, the way a perpetrator is perceived can influence how they are accepted back into the community (Willis, Levenson & Ward, 2010) and the way a victim is perceived can affect their long-term mental wellbeing (Bornstein et al., 2007). Regarding the latter, this can include a victim engaging in "absorbed processing" as they might experience difficulties detracting focus away from their victimisation if perceived negatively by the public (Simon, Feiring & Cleland, 2016).

Therefore, the way CSA is perceived by the public can influence various factors, including victim disclosure, community reintegration and a victim's wellbeing. The first chapter of this thesis thus aimed to identify which factors influence public perceptions of CSA victims by completing a systematic literature review. This was with the aim of helping professionals identify which victims might be perceived more negatively by the public and thus identifying who might require additional support as a result, such as therapeutic interventions.

The second chapter, which comprises an empirical research project, then aimed to investigate the influence of a victim's abuse history, victim-perpetrator relationship and a perpetrator's gender on

perceptions of CSA. These particular factors were selected for exploration due to their evident lack of investigation, as identified in chapter one. This chapter thus aimed to identify which victims and/or perpetrators might be perceived negatively by the public.

Perceptions Held by CSA Perpetrators (Chapter Three and Four)

Perpetrators of CSA often hold perceptions of their offence which are different to their victim's perceptions (Davidson, 2006). For example, a perpetrator might attribute blame to their victim whilst the victim might perceive themselves as blameless. However, CSA perpetrators often manage to maintain a victim's silence by encouraging the victim to perceive themselves as inciting their victimisation (Becker & Thomlison, 2007). This in turn can encourage feelings of self-blame and as such, can delay disclosure (Becker & Thomlison, 2007; Davidson, 2006).

The perceptions held by CSA perpetrators can also be influential upon their own long-term outcomes (Beech, Friendship, Erikson & Hanson, 2002; Langton et al., 2008; Prentky & Righthand, 2003). In particular, there are suggestions that minimising the severity of offending or justifying its commission can increase a perpetrator's risk of sexual recidivism (Beech et al., 2002; Langton et al., 2008; Prentky & Righthand, 2003). However, if professionals are able to gain insight into these perceptions then appropriate treatment targets could be identified (Fox & Leicht, 2005).

Therefore, a perpetrator's perceptions of their sexual offence can potentially impact upon victim disclosure and risk of sexual recidivism

(e.g. Beech et al., 2002; Paine et al., 2002). The third chapter of this thesis thus aimed to critique the Gudjonsson Blame Attribution Inventory-Revised (GBAI-R) which measures perpetrators' perceptions of their index offence (Gudjonsson & Singh, 1989). This was with the aim of evaluating the inventory's ability to accurately gain insight into perceptions. Given the potential impact the inventory's findings can have on a perpetrator's care pathway, such as informing treatment targets, the critique was completed to evaluate whether such recommendations were based on a sound inventory.

The fourth chapter, which comprises the research case study, then aimed to investigate whether a perpetrator's minimisation of his sexual offending could be reduced. For this chapter a young perpetrator of non-contact harmful sexual behaviour was recruited to acknowledge the limited research in this particular area (Hutton & Whyte, 2006). The case study thus aimed to explore the malleability of perceptions due to their ability to enhance a perpetrator's risk of sexual recidivism (e.g. Beech et al., 2002). Whilst the GBAI-R was initially identified as an appropriate inventory to inform the assessment of the client, this decision was decided against following the completion of chapter three which raised concerns regarding the inventory. As a result, alternative psychometric assessments were utilised to enable the monitoring of change before and after the intervention.

Overview

Overall, this research thesis comprises four chapters which aim to investigate perceptions of CSA. This includes a systematic literature

review, empirical research project, psychometric critique and research case study. Each chapter was completed between 2014 and 2016 and were all supervised by Dr. Simon Duff. The structure of the thesis has been summarised in Figure 1 on the following page. This is in terms of the overarching topic, the perceptions measured, the research methodology adopted and the aim of each chapter. All references can be found at the end of the thesis whilst all appendices can be found in a separately bound document.

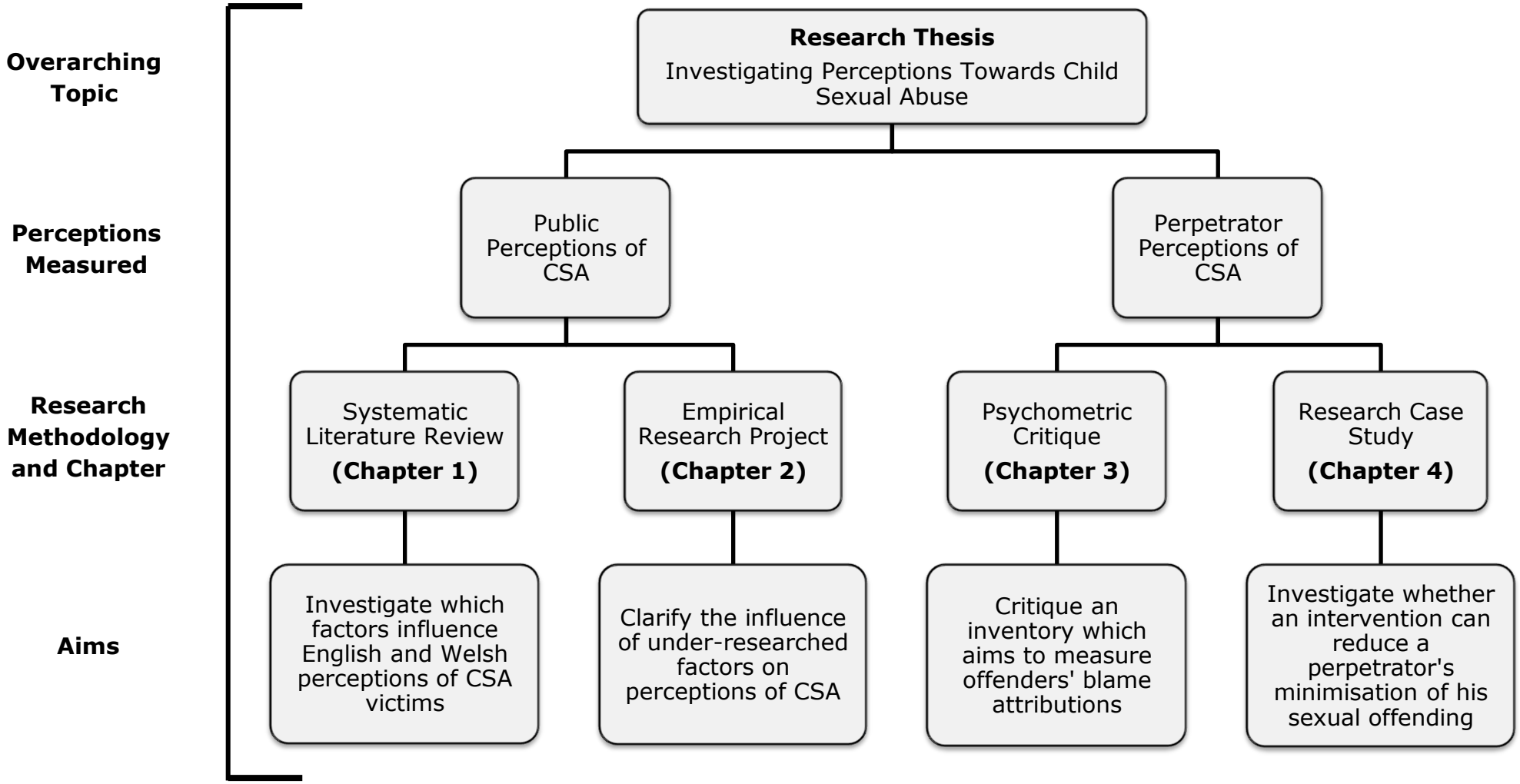


Figure 1: A figure summarising the research thesis.

Chapter One

A systematic literature review: Which factors influence English perceptions towards child sexual abuse victims?

C85F13

Published in the Journal of Sexual Aggression (Hatton & Duff, 2016)

Presented at the BPS Conference in April 2016

See Appendix J for an A4 version of the poster

Abstract

Introduction

Negative perceptions of child sexual abuse (CSA) victims are prevalent within society. This has potential implications for CSA victims in terms of its effects on victim wellbeing and its potential impact upon legal proceedings. Although many studies have investigated which factors influence public perceptions, a systematic literature review has not been conducted to synthesise findings.

Methodology

Nine electronic bibliographic databases, six grey literature databases and one gateway resource were searched. Hand-searches of relevant journals and references were also conducted and two field experts contacted. Following the application of the inclusion criteria, the studies were quality assessed and relevant data extracted.

Results

The search yielded 4182 studies of which 1501 duplicates and 2644 irrelevant studies were excluded. After a further 26 studies were excluded for not meeting the inclusion criteria, 11 studies were included in the review. This revealed a sample of 3088 participants with 18 factors investigated. To acknowledge the heterogeneity of the data, a narrative data synthesis approach was used.

Discussion

The review identified firm conclusions regarding respondent gender. Specifically, male respondents, compared to female respondents, perceived CSA victims as more to blame, more culpable, less reliable and less credible. Other tentative conclusions are discussed. Potential implications of these findings are also discussed in terms of response victims receive during disclosure.

Key words

Child Sexual Abuse, Perceptions, Society, English, Victims

Introduction

Child Sexual Abuse

According to the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty of Children (NSPCC), it is estimated that 21% of British girls and 11% of British boys, under the age of 16, have experienced child sexual abuse (CSA) victimisation (NSPCC, 2007). CSA affects children of all backgrounds (Modelli, Galvão & Pratesi, 2012) and can vary substantially with regard to the offence, perpetrator and victim characteristics (Leach, Powell & Anglim, 2015). Being a victim of CSA can lead to maladjustment later in life (DiLillo, 2001), manifesting itself in poor mental well-being (Cutajar et al., 2011), occupational difficulties (Dolan & Whitworth, 2013), relationship problems, disturbed sexual functioning (DiLillo, 2001), a heightened risk of teenage pregnancy (Noll, Shenk & Putman, 2009) and offending behaviours, such as arson (Dolan & Whitworth, 2013).

On the 1st May 2004, the Sexual Offences Act was implemented in England and Wales following a reform of the 1956 act. This was to reflect recent developments in understanding sexual offences against children (CPS, 2015). Whilst this entailed revisions and clarifications to some sections of the act, new offences were also defined (CPS, 2015; Davidson, 2008). This included new offences relating to abusing positions of trust which now provide protection for children below the age of 18 whom are cared for within institutions (CPS, 2015). However, the support this act can provide CSA victims is primarily dependent upon victim identification.

Self-disclosure of CSA victimisation is an important step in victim identification. Once a victim is identified, processes can begin to prevent abuse recurrence, commence legal proceedings and begin appropriate therapeutic interventions with the CSA victim (Paine & Hansen, 2002). However, many victims do not disclose their victimisation and if they do disclose, they might revoke their account and proceed to deny the victimisation (Finkelhor, Hotaling, Lewis & Smith, 1990; Pipe, Lamb, Orbach & Cederborg, 2007). This disclosure reluctance arises from a multitude of factors including fear regarding the perpetrator's reaction, fear of upsetting family members (Paine & Hansen, 2002) and fear of being blamed or not believed by the public (Carlson, Maciol & Schneider, 2008; Paine & Hansen, 2002; Schönbucher, Maier, Mohler-Kuo, Schnyder & Landolt, 2012).

Public Perceptions towards Victims of CSA

Public perceptions towards victims of crime have been investigated for numerous years. These investigations revealed certain victims of rape, domestic violence, stalking and theft to sometimes be negatively perceived by the public (Bryant & Spencer, 2003; Davies & Rogers, 2006; Duff & Scott, 2013; Rayburn, Mendoza & Davidson, 2003). The perceptions held by the public towards CSA victims have also been explored. This similarly revealed certain CSA victims to be negatively perceived by society (e.g. Davies, Rogers & Whitelegg, 2009). As negative perceptions often encompass attributions of blame, which can cause secondary victimisation (Correia, Vala & Aguiar, 2001; Grubb & Turner, 2012), researchers have conducted investigations into which

factors influence these perceptions (e.g. Davies & Rogers, 2009). However, the ability to identify conclusions within this field has become complicated by the sheer number of studies conducted.

Aims and Objectives

Given the role society plays in CSA victim disclosure and secondary victimisation (Grubb & Turner, 2012; Schaeffer, Leventhal & Asnes, 2011), a systematic literature review was considered important to synthesise findings from the previous literature in an attempt to identify which factors influence perceptions of CSA victims. To provide a review reflective of current perceptions and current legislation, the review aimed to synthesise papers which recruited participants from England and/or Wales, and papers which recruited participants following the implementation of the England and Wales Sexual Offences Act (2003). Whilst these decisions considerably limited study inclusion, their rationale is explored below.

Rationale for Study Inclusion Restrictions

Restricting study inclusion to England and Wales. Within the United Kingdom (UK), there are three sexual offence acts which cover all four countries comprising the UK. These are; for England and Wales, the Sexual Offences Act (2003), for Scotland, the Sexual Offences (Scotland) Act 2009, and for Northern Ireland, the Criminal Law (Sexual Offences) Act 2008. Although these acts are similar, differences exist in terms of their wording and offence classification. Given a large proportion of research into perceptions of CSA appeared

to stem from England, the decision was made to restrict study inclusion to participants recruited in England and Wales and thus under one legislation. This was to eliminate possible discrepancies in perceptions based on the varying legislations which might be reflected in the CSA scenarios depicted.

Restricting study inclusion to after the implementation of the Sexual Offences Act (2003). Once the above decision was made to investigate English and Welsh perceptions of CSA victims, the decision was also made to restrict study inclusion to participants recruited after the Sexual Offences Act (2003) was implemented. This was to acknowledge the revisions made to the Sexual Offences Act (1956) which included the addition of new offences and the amendment to others. Therefore, to ensure perceptions were based on CSA scenarios reflective of the current legislation in England and Wales, the study inclusion criteria was restricted further.

Scoping Search

To clarify, this review aimed to investigate which factors influence English and Welsh perceptions of CSA victims. Prior to completing this systematic literature review, a scoping search was conducted in the Cochrane Library, PROSPERO and PsycINFO in June 2015 to evaluate whether a review had already been completed. As none were found, a need was identified.

Methodology

Sources of Literature

A comprehensive systematic search was employed to gather all relevant information. This involved searching bibliographic databases, grey literature, relevant journals, reference lists as well as communicating with field experts. Using this range of sources aimed to gather both published and unpublished literature. All searches were limited to 2005 onwards to reflect perceptions following the implementation of the Sexual Offences Act 2003. The sources searched are detailed below.

Electronic bibliographic databases. Nine electronic bibliographic databases were searched on the 26th July 2015. These databases were the Applied Social Science Index and Abstracts (ASSIA), EMBASE, MEDLINE, PsycARTICLES, PsycINFO, ProQuest, Scopus, Sociological Abstracts and Web of Science. All electronic databases were chosen following a review of the available databases in terms of which could provide relevant psychological literature.

Grey literature and gateway search. On the 26th and 28th July 2015, six grey literature sources and one gateway source were searched. These were Bielefeld Academic Research Engine (BASE), Cochrane, Community Research and Development Information Service (CORDIS), Google Scholar, ProQuest Dissertations and Theses, ProQuest, and the British Library. These sources were identified to reduce publication bias.

Hand-searching. Three journals were hand-searched for this review; Child Abuse and Neglect, Journal of Child Sexual Abuse and Journal of Interpersonal Violence. These journals were chosen on the basis of their direct relevance to CSA and previous relevant articles being published within them. A hand-search of reference lists was also conducted on articles that had been identified as relevant for this review.

Contact with field experts. Two field experts were contacted on the 15th and 16th July 2015. These experts were Michelle Lowe (University of Bolton) and Paul Rogers (University of Winchester) who were identified on the basis of their significant contribution to research into perceptions of CSA. This communication involved emailing these experts asking whether they had any research (published or unpublished) which had investigated the influence of at least one factor (e.g. victim age) on perceptions of CSA. They were also asked whether they knew of other researchers who might have information.

Search Strategy

Keywords relating to perceptions, CSA and victims were identified following a review of the keywords depicted in related articles. To meet individual source requirements, search terms were modified as necessary. Specific search syntax for each source can be found in Appendix A whilst the general syntax can be viewed below.

(Child sexual abus or child sex* assault or child molest*) or (adolescen* sexual abus* or adolescen* molest or adolescen* sex* assault) or (rape and minor)*

AND

(Blame or opinion or responsibilit or attribution* or credibility or judgement or perception* or view*)*

AND

(Victim or perpetrator* or offender*)*

Study Selection

To consistently evaluate the inclusion of studies, inclusion/exclusion criteria were developed for the purpose of the review (Appendix B). This criteria depicted studies to only be included if they recruited participants from England or Wales and if they investigated the influence of at least one factor upon perceptions towards CSA victims (e.g. perpetrator gender and victim resistance). Studies were excluded if the CSA victim was depicted as aged 18 years or above, as this refers to an adult (CPS, 2015), and were excluded if they only investigated perceptions towards the CSA perpetrator, as opposed to the victim. Studies were also excluded based on their publication and participation date. Specifically, studies that were published prior to 2005 were excluded on the basis of recruiting participants before the implementation of the Sexual Offences Act 2003, in May 2004. However, studies published after 2005 were also excluded if recruitment occurred before May 2004.

Quality Assessment

To assess the quality of included studies, a numerical assessment form was adapted from various sources; Appendix C (e.g. Crombie, 1996,

STROBE, 2009; Young & Solomon, 2009). This was to reflect the likely cross-sectional design of the studies, as identified by reviewing studies within the field, and thus the lack of standardised quality assessment forms for this design. The developed form comprised 26 items which aimed to evaluate the presence of bias (e.g. "was the sample obtained appropriately?") and required either a yes, partially, no or N/A response. To enable numerical evaluation, responses were converted to scores (i.e. yes=0, partially=1, no=2 and N/A=0), with five items requiring score reversal. Higher scores reflected poorer study quality with the maximum possible score being 52.

During the creation of the quality assessment form, all items were also classified in terms of their possible impact upon study quality (e.g. low, moderate or high). For example, incorrect utilisation of statistical procedure was deemed as highly relevant in terms of compromising a study's quality. This process of subjective evaluation was implemented to account for the weighting of particular biases, a methodology recommended by Sanderson, Tatt and Higgins (2007). However, subjective evaluation was only completed for items which were identified as comprising some bias (i.e. rated as partial or no). The numerical and subjective evaluation then informed an overall rating of a study's quality (e.g. excellent, good, average, poor).

Data Extraction

A data extraction form was also designed for the purpose of this review (Appendix D). This aimed to gather relevant information about the studies' participants, independent variables, consistent variables,

perceptions measured as well as the main and interaction effects reported. The data extraction form was only used on studies included in the review, after the quality assessment process, and was completed in its entirety by the author.

Results

Description of Studies

The search yielded 4182 studies of which 1501 duplicates and 2644 irrelevant studies were excluded (Appendix E). A further 26 studies were excluded for not meeting the inclusion criteria of which, 17 were excluded due to recruiting participants from outside England and Wales, five were excluded due to the victim being an adult and three were excluded due to participant recruitment occurring prior to May 2004 (Appendix F). Therefore, a total of 11 studies were included in the review (Appendix G). Figure 1 summarises the search process.

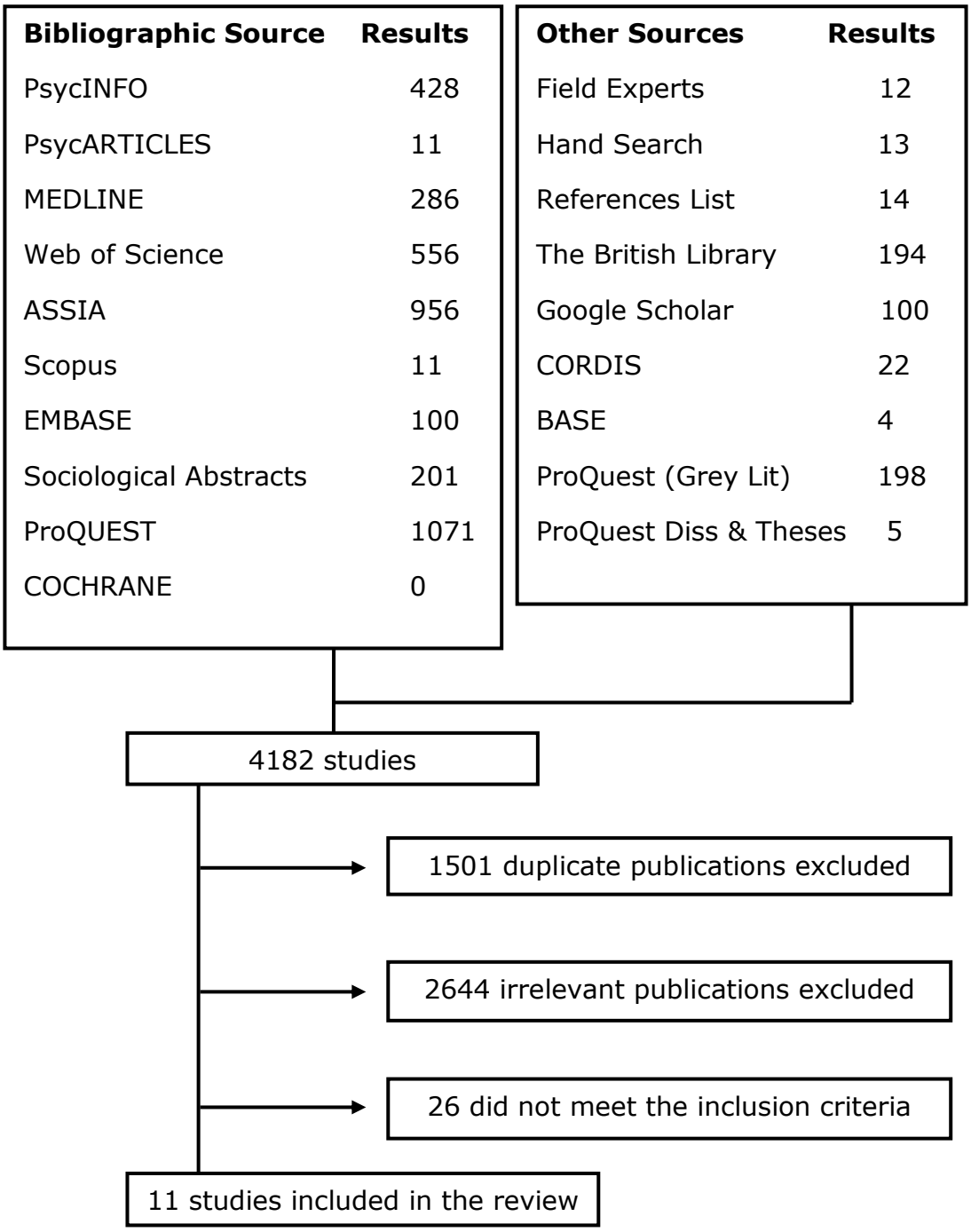


Figure 1: Flow diagram summarising the search process

Characteristics of Included Studies

The 11 studies provided a sample of 3132 members of the public with an age range of 16-92 years (1463 males, 1651 females and 18 missing gender data). However, the total sample was reduced to 3088 participants as five studies excluded a total of 44 participants during preliminary analyses. Of note, all included studies only recruited participants from England and as such, any findings reported from this point onwards are only reflective of English perceptions. All studies used a cross-sectional design and required participants to read a hypothetical CSA case. Within the hypothetical cases, the studies depicted the victim as a child whilst manipulating factors relating to the victim, perpetrator and offence. A total of 18 factors were investigated with regards to their influence on English and Welsh perceptions. Table 1 outlines the factors investigated and the number of studies investigating each one.

Once participants read the CSA scenario, all studies requested participants to respond to a questionnaire which aimed to measure perceptions towards the perpetrator, victim and offence. To maintain the review's focus on the CSA victim, only perceptions towards the victim were analysed by the review. This included perceptions of victim credibility, victim culpability and victim blame. Table 2 outlines the perceptions measured and the number of studies measuring each one.

Factors Investigated	Number of Studies Investigating the Factor
Respondent Gender	11
Victim Resistance	4
Victim Age	4
Victim Sexual Orientation	2
Victim-Perpetrator Relationship	2
Victim Attractiveness	1
Victim's Abuse History	1
Abuse Type	1
Family Response	1
Perpetrator Gender	1
Internet Education	1
Parental Style	1

Victim's Physical Maturity	1
Victim-Perpetrator Emotional Closeness	1
Victim Symptomology	1
Perpetrator Coercion	1
Victim Gender	1
Victim Disability	1

Table 1: This table outlines the factors that have been investigated by the studies.

Perception Measured	Number of Studies
Victim Culpability	9
Victim Credibility	5
Victim Blame	2
Victim Honesty	2
Victim Naivety	1
Victim Resistance	1
Victim Reliability	1

Table 2: A table summarising the perceptions measured by the studies

Quality of Included Studies

Included studies were quality assessed by the first author and an independent reviewer quality assessed two (20%) of the studies at random; an approach deemed suitable by Booth, Papaioannou and Sutton (2012). The independent reviewer was a Forensic Psychologist in Training, completing a doctorate in Forensic Psychology, who was selected due to her interest and experience in the topics of CSA and sexual offending. The quality assessment phase involved both numerical and subjective evaluation, although the independent reviewer only completed the numerical phase due to the pre-defined subjective criteria. In terms of the numerical quality assessment, the inter-rater reliability was measured using Scott's Pi, Cohen's Kappa and Krippendorph's Alpha. This revealed 'almost perfect' inter-rater reliability on the basis of all analyses reporting coefficients between 0.93 and 0.94 (Appendix H).

The quality assessment process identified all studies to have used an appropriate design for their objectives, experienced no sampling bias and had clearly defined their independent variables. The included studies also used standardised procedures, conducted statistical analyses appropriately and clearly discussed their limitations. However, whilst all studies reported effect sizes, none reported their confidence intervals or power. A number of the studies were also limited in generalisability due to recruiting participants from single towns or university campuses. It is thus not possible to state whether the findings from some studies reflect English and Welsh perceptions.

Overall, the numerical quality assessment process revealed all studies to score relatively low on the presence of bias, as indicated by the maximum score being 8 out of 52. Table 3 summarises the results of the numerical quality assessment. A list of the included studies and their allocated number, given for ease of interpretation, can be seen in Appendix G. The pre-defined subjective quality assessment also classified all present biases as low relevance which did not instigate weighting of biases. After amalgamating the results, all studies were classified as good to excellent quality and thus no studies were excluded on the basis of poor quality; see Table 4 for a summary.

Numerical and Subjective Quality Assessment																									
Study	Sample Obtained OK - L	Sample Specified- L	Response Specified- L	Sample Representative- L	Excluded ppts Explained -L	Incl. Criteria Specified- L	Sampling Bias*- M	Objectives defined- L	Design Appropriate- M	IV's defined- M	DV'S Reliable & Valid- H	Consistent Procedure - M	Missing data addressed- L	Untoward Events* - H	Experimenter bias*- M	Method explained- L	Measurement bias*- M	Procedural bias*- M	Stats Procedure Outlined-L	Statistics described- L	Analyses Correct- H	Power reported - L	All findings reported- L	Generalisability- L	Limitations discussed- L	Summary of findings- L	Total Score out of 52
1	Y	Y	Y	P	-	P	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	-	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	N	P	P	Y	Y	**8**
2	Y	Y	Y	Y	-	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	-	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	N	P	Y	Y	Y	**5**
3	Y	Y	Y	P	-	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	-	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	N	P	P	Y	Y	**7**
4	Y	Y	Y	P	-	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	-	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	P	Y	Y	**4**
5	Y	Y	Y	P	-	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	-	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	P	Y	Y	**6**
6	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	N	P	Y	Y	Y	**5**
7	Y	Y	Y	P	-	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	-	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	N	P	P	Y	Y	**5**
8	Y	Y	Y	Y	-	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	-	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	N	P	P	Y	Y	**6**
9	Y	Y	Y	P	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	P	Y	Y	**6**
10	Y	Y	Y	P	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	-	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	P	Y	Y	**6**
11	Y	Y	Y	P	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	-	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	P	Y	Y	**6**

Table 3: Numerical quality assessment (* = reverse scored; Y=Yes; P=Partial; N=No; L/M/H = Low/Mod/High Relevance)

Study	Overall Quality
1. Davies, Rogers & Whitelegg (2009)	Good
2. Rogers, Josey & Davies (2007)	Good
3. Davies, Patel & Rogers (2013)	Good
4. Graham, Rogers & Davies (2007)	Excellent/Good
5. Davies, Austen & Rogers (2011)	Good
6. Davies & Rogers (2009)	Good
7. Rogers, Wczasek & Davies (2011)	Good
8. Rogers, Davies, Anderson & Potton (2011)	Good
9. Rogers, Titterington & Davies (2009)	Good
10. Rogers, Lowe & Boardman (2014)	Good
11. Rogers, Davies & Cottam (2010)	Good

Table 4: Results from the quality assessment

Narrative Data Synthesis

A narrative data synthesis approach was adopted for this review to acknowledge the heterogeneity of the data which was caused by the studies measuring different perceptions towards the victim. The assumptions of a meta-analysis were thus not satisfied (Boland, Cherry & Dickson, 2013). The review reports main effects and interactions to ensure all factors which influence perceptions are identified. Figure 2 summarises the main effects whilst Figure 3 summarises the interactions. As none of the included studies reported confidence intervals or power, only effect sizes are discussed. Table 5 summarises the data from all included studies, of which more detail can be found in Appendix I. Each factor investigated is explored in turn below.

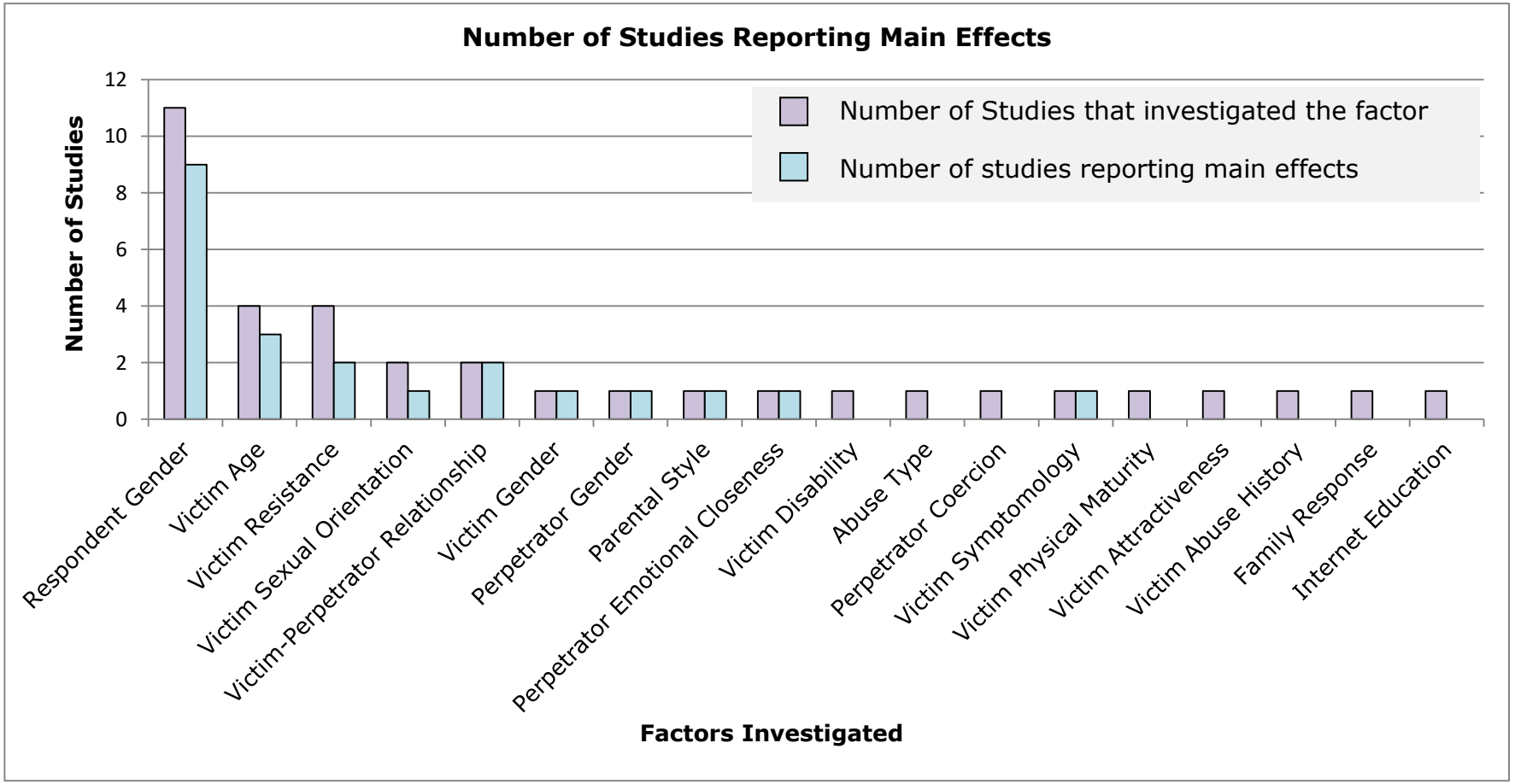


Figure 2: Number of studies reporting significant main effects.

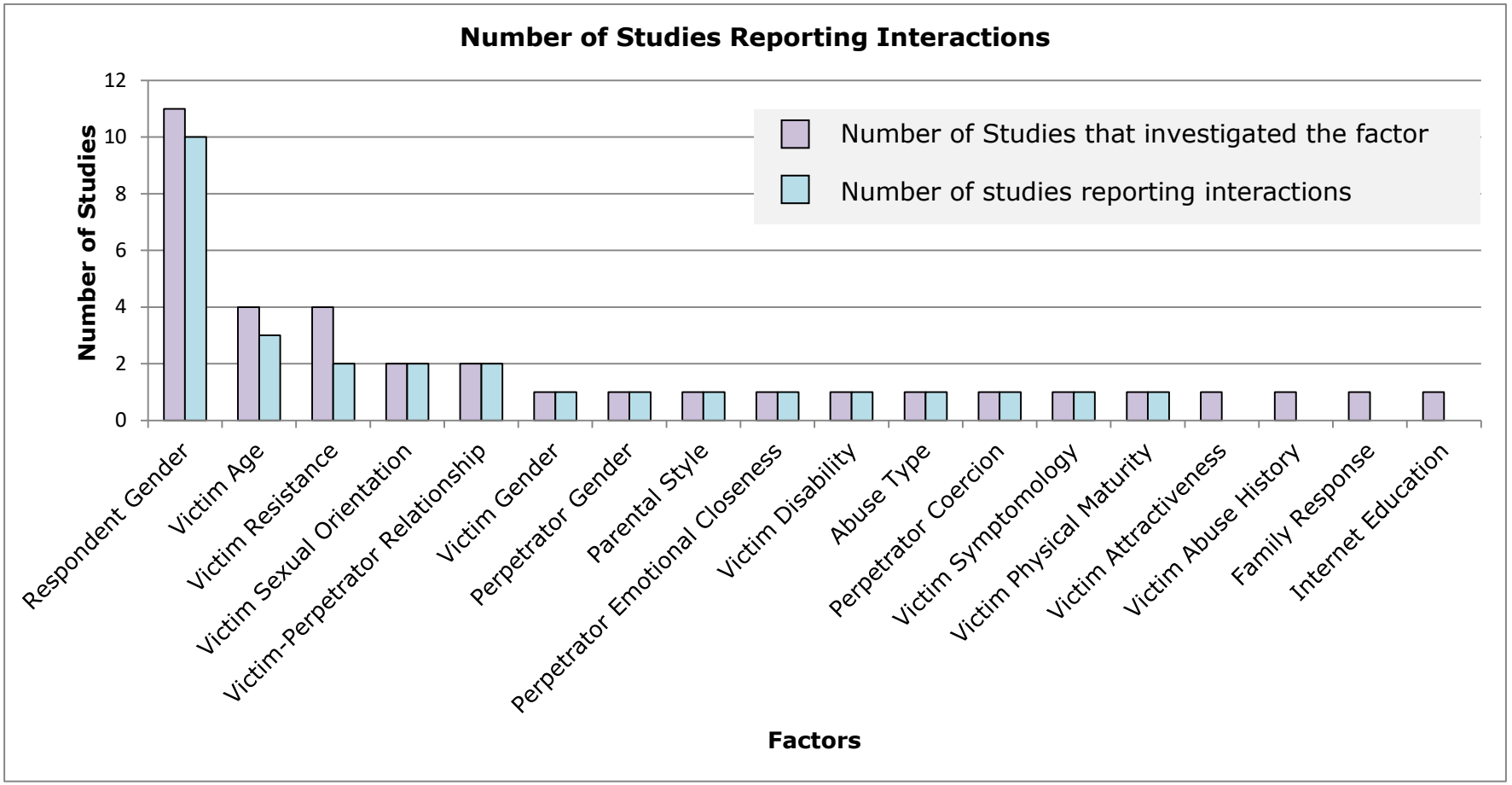


Figure 3: Number of studies reporting significant interactions.

Overview of Study Findings			
Study	**Participants**	**Perceptions towards the Victim Measured**	**Independent Variables Significant Influence on perceptions towards the victim? Y (Yes) or N (No)**
(1) Davies, Rogers and Whitelegg (2009)	164 participants from Preston.	Blame	- Victim Gender (Y) - Victim Sexual Orientation (Y) - Victim Response (Y) - Respondent Gender (Y)
(2) Rogers, Josey and Davies (2007)	397 participants from Preston, London & Buckinghamshire.	Victim Culpability Victim Credibility	- Victim Age (Y) - Victim Attractiveness (N) - Victim's Abuse History (N) - Respondent Gender (Y)
(3) Davies, Patel and Rogers (2013)	155 participants from University of Central Lancashire (UoCL)	Victim Credibility Victim Culpability	- Respondent Gender (Y) - Victim-Perpetrator Relationship (Y) - Victim-Perpetrator Closeness (Y)
(4) Graham, Rogers and Davies (2007)	387 participants from Preston.	Victim Culpability	- Abuse Type (N) - Family Response (N) - Respondent Gender (Y)
(5) Davies, Austen and Rogers (2011)	188 participants from UoCL	Victim Culpability	- Victim Sexual Orientation (Y) - Perpetrator Gender (Y) - Respondent Gender (Y)

Study	Participants	Perceptions towards the Victim Measured	Independent Variables Significant Influence on perceptions towards the victim? Y (Yes) or N (No)
(6) Davies and Rogers (2009)	379 participants from South East London	Victim Honesty Victim Credibility Victim Culpability	- Respondent Gender (Y) - Victim Age (Y) - Victim-Perpetrator Relationship (Y)
(7) Rogers, Wczasek and Davies (2011)	190 participants from Nottingham, Preston and Stoke on Trent	Victim Credibility Victim Naivety Victim Culpability	- Respondent Gender (Y) - Victim Age (Y) - Internet Education (Y) - Parental Style (N)
(8) Rogers, Davies, Anderson and Potton (2011)	192 participants from London and Preston	Victim Blame Victim Resistance Victim Encouraging	- Victim Age (Y) - Physical Maturity (Y) - Respondent Gender (Y)
(9) Rogers, Titterington and Davies (2009)	335 participants from Preston and Leeds	Victim Credibility Victim Culpability	- Victim Disability (N) - Victim Resistance (N) - Respondent Gender (Y)
(10) Rogers, Lowe and Boardman (2014)	346 participants from UoCL	Victim Reliability Victim Culpability Victim Truthful	- Victim Symptomology (Y) - Victim Resistance (Y) - Respondent Gender (Y)
(11) Rogers, Davies and Cottam (2010)	355 participants from Preston	Victim Culpability	- Perpetrator Coercion (Y) - Victim Resistance (N) - Respondent Gender (Y)

Table 5: Summary of included studies - Significant influence deemed "yes" if an interaction and/or main effect is reported.

Respondent gender. Respondent gender was investigated by all studies with nine reporting it to have a significant main effect upon perceptions. Specifically, compared to females, males perceived CSA victims as less credible (Davies et al., 2011, 2013; Davies & Rogers, 2009; Rogers, Wczasek & Davies, 2011), more culpable (Davies et al., 2011, 2013; Graham, Rogers & Davies, 2007; Rogers et al., 2007, 2009, 2014), more to blame (Davies, Rogers & Whitelegg, 2009), less reliable (Rogers et al., 2014) and less honest (Davies & Rogers, 2009). The effect size of these findings ranged from small to medium.

Although Rogers, Davies, et al., (2011) and Rogers et al., (2010) reported respondent gender to not have a significant main effect upon perceptions, the former study reported respondent gender to influence perceptions when in a three-way interaction with victim age and physical maturity, although the effect size was small. This interaction revealed two findings. Firstly, females believed a 12-year old pre-pubescent victim should have resisted more than a 15-year old post-pubescent victim. Secondly, females believed a 15-year old post-pubescent victim should have resisted more than a 15 year old pre-pubescent victim (Rogers, Davies, et al., 2011). In comparison, no significant main effects or interaction effects were found in Rogers et al's., (2010) study. Consequently, ten studies reported respondent gender to influence perceptions.

Victim age. Victim age was investigated by four studies, three of which reported significant main effects. Of these studies,

two revealed a younger victim to be perceived more positively, than an older victim, due to being perceived as more credible, less culpable (Rogers et al., 2007) and more honest (Davies & Rogers, 2009), with medium to large effect sizes. In contrast, Rogers et al., (2011) reported a younger victim to be perceived less positively as respondents believed a younger victim should have resisted more than an older victim, although this was small in effect size.

Two of these studies also reported significant interactions. Specifically, Rogers et al., (2007) reported victim age to influence perceptions when combined with respondent gender, as females perceived a 10-year old victim as more credible compared to males. Female respondents also deemed a 10-year old victim to be more credible than a 15-year old victim. Rogers et al., (2011) on the other hand, found victim age to influence perceptions when combined with respondent gender and physical maturity; an interaction explored in the respondent gender section.

Whilst Rogers, Wczasek and Davies (2011) reported no significant main effects of victim age, they reported this to have a significant interaction with respondent gender and parental style, although the effect size was small. This interaction revealed males to perceive a 15-year old victim, who was cared for (i.e. parents who showed interest in the victim's online activities), to be the least naïve, and females to perceive a 10-year old neglected victim as the most naïve. Therefore, all four studies reported victim age to influence perceptions.

Victim resistance. Attempted victim resistance was also investigated by four studies, two of which reported no significant main or interaction effects (Rogers et al., 2009, 2010). Two studies however, reported victim resistance to have a significant main effect on perceptions whereby a victim was perceived as less blameworthy (Davies, Rogers & Whitelegg, 2009) and more credible (Rogers et al., 2014) when depicted as attempting to resist as opposed to being submissive. The effect sizes of these findings were medium and small respectively.

These two studies also reported significant interactions. Specifically, Davies, Rogers and Whitelegg (2009) reported respondent gender and victim resistance combined to reveal a medium effect size whereby males attributed more blame to a submissive victim compared to females. In terms of Rogers et al's., (2014) interaction effects, they reported victim resistance to influence perceptions when combined with respondent gender and victim symptomology. This interaction, small in effect size, revealed males to perceive a non-resistant asymptomatic victim as less reliable than a non-resistant victim with negative symptomology and a resistant, asymptomatic victim. Males, compared to females, also deemed a non-resistant asymptomatic victim to be less reliable. Overall, two of the four studies reported victim resistance to influence perceptions.

Victim sexual orientation. Victim sexual orientation was investigated by two studies, one of which reported a significant

main effect, large in size. Specifically, Davies, Rogers and Whitelegg (2009) reported a homosexual victim to be attributed more blame than a heterosexual victim. This study also reported significant interactions involving victim gender, large in effect size, whereby more blame was attributed to a homosexual male than a heterosexual male and lesbian female. An interaction, small in effect size, was also reported with respondent gender whereby males blamed a homosexual male more than a heterosexual male and lesbian female. The same authors also reported a three-way interaction, small in effect size, with victim gender and respondent gender. This revealed males to attribute more blame to a homosexual male than a heterosexual male and to attribute more blame to a homosexual male than a lesbian female.

Although Davies et al., (2011) reported no significant main effects, they reported a significant interaction, large in effect size, with perpetrator gender. This revealed a homosexual victim to be perceived as more culpable than a heterosexual victim when the perpetrator was depicted as male. Consequently, both studies reported victim sexual orientation to influence perceptions.

Victim-perpetrator relationship. The impact of the victim-perpetrator relationship on perceptions was investigated by two studies (Davies et al., 2013; Davies & Rogers, 2009). Both studies reported this factor to have a significant main effect on perceptions, although the findings are opposing. Specifically, Davies et al., (2013) reported a victim to be perceived as less credible when the

perpetrator was a step-father, compared to a biological father, whereas Davies and Rogers (2009) found a victim to be perceived as less honest when the perpetrator was a biological father as opposed to a stranger. These studies reported medium and small effect sizes respectively.

Although Davies and Rogers (2009) reported no significant interactions, Davies et al., (2013) did. This entailed an interaction with emotional closeness, medium in effect size, whereby the victim was perceived as less credible when a perpetrator was an emotionally distant father figure (i.e. biological father or step-father), compared to an emotionally close equivalent (Davies et al., 2013). The victim was also judged less credible when the perpetrator was an emotionally close step-father, compared to an emotionally close biological father. These authors also revealed an interaction, medium in effect size, with respondent gender. Specifically, males perceived a victim as more culpable when the perpetrator was depicted as a step-father, compared to a biological father. Overall, both studies reported the victim-perpetrator relationship to impact upon perceptions.

Victim gender. Victim gender was investigated by one study; Davies, Rogers and Whitelegg (2009). This revealed a significant main effect, medium in effect size, whereby a male victim was attributed more blame than a female victim. Two significant interactions were also found within this study. This included an interaction with respondent gender whereby males,

compared to females, attributed more blame to a male victim than a female victim, although the effect size was small. A three-way interaction with respondent gender and victim sexual orientation was also reported within this study; an interaction described in the victim sexual orientation section.

Perpetrator gender. Perpetrator gender was also investigated by one study; Davies et al., (2011). This revealed a significant main effect, small in size, whereby a victim was perceived as less culpable when the perpetrator was male. A significant interaction, large in effect size, was also revealed with victim sexual orientation; an interaction explored in the victim sexual orientation section.

Abuse type. The impact of abuse type was investigated by Graham et al., (2007). This revealed no significant main effects but did reveal abuse type to influence perceptions when combined with respondent gender, although small in effect size. In particular, females perceived a victim as less culpable when the abuse was non-contact as opposed to penetration or genital fondling. In comparison, males perceived a victim as less culpable when the abuse entailed penetration as opposed to non-contact.

Parental style. The impact of parental style was investigated by Rogers, Wczasek and Davies (2011). This revealed a significant main effect, medium in size, whereby a victim was perceived as less naïve if the parents neglected the victim's online activities, as opposed to caring about them. A significant interaction, small in

effect size, with victim age and respondent gender was also reported by Rogers, Wczasek and Davies (2011); as discussed in the victim age section.

Perpetrator coercion. The impact of perpetrator coercion was investigated by one study; Rogers et al., (2010). Whilst they found no significant main effects, they reported one significant interaction, small in effect size, involving respondent gender. This interaction revealed males, compared to females, to perceive a victim as more culpable for their victimisation when coerced using verbal threats compared to physical force or misrepresented play.

Victim-perpetrator emotional closeness. The impact of the victim-perpetrator emotional closeness was investigated by Davies et al., (2013). This revealed a significant main effect, medium in size, whereby a victim was perceived as less credible when a perpetrator was depicted as an emotionally distant father figure (i.e. biological or step-father), rather than emotionally close equivalent. The authors investigating this factor also revealed one significant interaction, medium in effect size, involving the victim-perpetrator relationship. This interaction was outlined in the victim-perpetrator relationship section.

Victim symptomology. The impact of victim symptomology was investigated by Rogers et al., (2014). This revealed a significant main effect, small in size, whereby a victim depicted as displaying no symptomology was perceived as less truthful than a victim displaying negative symptoms post CSA. A significant

interaction, small in effect size, involving victim resistance and respondent gender was also reported; an interaction outlined in the victim resistance section.

Physical maturity. The influence of physical maturity was also investigated by one study; Rogers, Davies, et al., (2011). Whilst this revealed no significant main effects, a significant interaction, small in effect size, was revealed when combined with victim age and respondent gender. This interaction was discussed within the respondent gender section.

Factors that did not influence perceptions. From the 18 factors investigated, five factors were found to not influence perceptions towards CSA victims. These factors were victim attractiveness, abuse history (both Rogers et al., 2007), family response (Graham et al., 2007), victim disability (Rogers et al., 2009) and internet education (Rogers, Wczasek & Davies, 2011). This is based on the lack of significant main and interaction effects relating to these factors.

Discussion

Main Findings

The 11 included studies investigated a total of 18 factors regarding their impact upon English and Welsh perceptions towards CSA victims. Whilst 13 factors were identified to influence perceptions, firm conclusions can only be made regarding the factor of respondent gender, with tentative conclusions suggested for the remaining factors due to limited research and differing findings.

Firm conclusions. From this review, it is evident respondent gender influences perceptions with males perceiving CSA victims as more to blame, more culpable, less reliable, less honest and less credible. This finding mirrors the adult rape literature where male respondents more readily attribute blame to rape victims compared to female respondents (Grubb & Harrower, 2008). Explanations for this finding have frequently been explored within the literature. This includes references to the Defensive Attribution Hypothesis (DAH; Shaver, 1970) and Gender Role Stereotypes (e.g. Anderson, Davies & Rogers, 2009). However, the findings could also be explained in terms of rape myth acceptance (RMA; Burt, 1980) and respondents' CSA victimisation experiences. These various explanations have been explored below, beginning with the DAH.

DAH. Shaver's (1970) DAH suggests that as victim-respondent dissimilarities increase (i.e. different characteristics, such as gender), so too does the negative attributions ascribed to the victim by the respondent (e.g. victim culpability). These defensive attributions enable the observer to believe he or she will not become a victim of crime ("harm avoidance") and enables them to avoid blame attributions if they were to befall victimisation ("blame avoidance"). Consequently, as the review's included studies primarily depicted a male as the perpetrator and a female as the victim, it is likely male respondents identified more with the perpetrator and thus attributed more blame to the victim.

Gender role stereotypes. In terms of the hypothesis relating to gender role stereotypes, research indicates that females are more likely to experience empathy towards victims of offending and as such, be more protective towards them (Fetchenhauer & Buunk, 2005 as cited in Rogers, Lowe & Boardman, 2014). With this in mind, it is possible that female respondents, compared to male respondents, are more positive towards CSA victims due to their empathetic nature.

RMA. Whilst not currently noted in the field of CSA, it is also possible that RMA has a role to play in this finding. RMA refers to false beliefs about rape (e.g. only attractive females are raped) which aim to transfer blame from the perpetrator to the victim. Within the adult rape literature, research suggests males endorse RMA to a greater extent which can lead to males perceiving rape victims more negatively (Suarez & Gadalla, 2010). Given the public reportedly perceive some adolescent CSA victims as "pseudo-adults" who are not sexually naïve (Davies & Rogers, 2009), and the recognition that many studies included in the review depicted the victim as an adolescent, it is possible male respondents endorsed rape myths when considering the CSA scenarios. As a result, the possible endorsement of rape myths by male respondents could account for the less pro-victim perceptions the males held compared to females.

Own victimisation. As a final hypothesis, it is also possible this finding results from respondents' personal experiences of CSA

victimisation. Specifically, as the prevalence of CSA victimisation is greater in females (Bentley et al., 2016), it is possible female respondents relate to the CSA victims to a greater extent due to experiencing victimisation themselves, or knowing others that have. It is thus possible that female respondents are more able to recognise the emotional pain that CSA victims might be experiencing and thus the importance of offering victims support.

Tentative conclusions. Regarding the tentative conclusions, it is possible the factors of victim age, victim resistance, victim sexual orientation and the victim-perpetrator relationship influence perceptions of CSA. Specifically, it appears that older victims are perceived more negatively than younger victims, submissive victims are perceived more negatively than resistant victims and homosexual victims are perceived more negatively than heterosexual victims, although one study reported the latter to only occur when the perpetrator was depicted as male.

In terms of the victim-perpetrator relationship, its influence on perceptions of CSA victims was identified. However, this review was unable to conclude whether victims are perceived more negatively the closer the victim-perpetrator relationship; a finding the adult rape literature has consistently identified (Van der Bruggen & Grubb, 2014). This was due to the opposing findings (i.e. one study revealed more pro-victim views the closer the victim-perpetrator relationship whereas the other study reported the opposite). Upon consideration, it is possible additional factors are involved in the

influence of this factor. For instance, it is possible respondents perceived the victim of step-father perpetrated CSA more negatively due to concerns of malicious intent resulting from fraught child and step-parent relationships. Further research might thus be necessary to clarify the influence of this factor and the influence of various other dynamics that might be at play.

Eight other factors were also identified as influential upon perceptions; victim gender, perpetrator gender, parental style, victim-perpetrator emotional closeness, abuse type, perpetrator coercion, victim symptomology and victim physical maturity. However, caution must prevail when reviewing these findings as each factor was only investigated by one study. Although five factors were identified as not influencing perceptions; victim attractiveness, victim disability, victim abuse history, internet education and family response, caution should be applied for the same reason.

Appropriateness of Search Strategy

This review aimed to identify which factors influence English and Welsh perceptions of CSA victims. Following the search, it was recognised that all included studies were authored or co-authored by Michelle Lowe (formerly Davies) and Paul Rogers. Consideration was thus given to whether the limited variety of authorship resulted from a problematic search strategy whereby the criteria might have been too stringent. Specifically, given that there is no research which states perceptions differ across countries in the UK and/or

that perceptions have changed in the last decade, it is possible it was not necessary to restrict the inclusion criteria so significantly.

Despite this, based on the decision to restrict studies to those conducted in England and/or Wales, and to those which recruited participants after the Sexual Offences Act (2003) was implemented, the remaining search criteria appeared appropriate. This was in terms of ensuring all types of CSA were included as well as ensuring that all included studies investigated the influence of at least one factor. Based on the inclusion criteria and associated search methods, no other concerns were noted.

Evaluation of the Review Process

This review utilised a comprehensive search strategy, was free from publication bias and adopted a comprehensive quality assessment process. However, it is not free from limitations as whilst an independent reviewer quality assessed two of the studies, it is possible bias might have been present when quality assessing the other nine. Bias might have also been present during the data extraction phase as only the author completed this step. To minimise these potential areas of bias, the independent reviewer could have quality assessed all studies and independently completed the data extraction phase.

The generalisability of this review might also be limited. Specifically, whilst a comprehensive search was completed, no identified studies recruited participants from Wales. Consequently, it is not known

whether the review's findings are representative of Welsh perceptions. This review also only included studies which recruited from England and Wales to acknowledge the different legislations between these two countries and the rest of the UK. However, questions remain regarding the necessity of this exclusion criterion due to the public's understanding of the legislations and whether this would influence perceptions. Future reviews and/or research studies might thus consider recruiting a sample representative of the British public.

Strengths and Limitations of included studies

All studies included within this review were of at least "good" quality. This evaluation was based on the studies using appropriate designs, defining their independent variables, conducting appropriate statistical analyses and being free from procedural and experimenter bias. However, none of the studies reported their confidence intervals or levels of power which reduced the ability to comprehensively interpret findings. The majority of the studies also suffered from limited generalisability due to recruiting participants from one location, such as a university campus or a town. As well as these limitations, it is noted that all studies utilised a hypothetical vignette to depict the manipulation of their independent variables. Whilst vignettes enable the depiction of threatening topics in a manner which causes less psychological distress (MacIntyre et al. 2011), they are susceptible to limitations. This includes their inability to capture participants' perceptions of real-life situations

due to their hypothetical nature (Hughes & Huby, 2002) and their susceptibility to interpretation error (Suresh, 2014).

Implications

This review aimed to investigate which factors influence English and Welsh perceptions of CSA victims. However, as the included studies only recruited participants from England, and not from Wales, this review has only investigated which factors influence English perceptions of CSA victims. Consequently, it is not possible to state whether the findings are reflective of Welsh perceptions. Despite this, various findings have been identified, all of which have various implications. These are explored below.

The finding that males reportedly perceive CSA victims more negatively than females has various significant implications. In particular, it raises the question of how males may respond to CSA victims if they disclose abuse victimisation or ask for support. For example, it is not known whether male respondents will support the victim less due to concerns regarding their credibility and thoughts that they might be responsible for their victimisation. Its potential impact on CSA legal proceedings is also implicated as some juries can be entirely comprised of males. Therefore, if males perceive CSA victims as less credible and more blameworthy, then an all-male jury might be less likely to provide a guilty verdict; a factor which could enable the continuation of victimisation and potentially place other children at risk of CSA victimisation (Paine & Hansen, 2002).

The finding that some victim and perpetrator characteristics influence perceptions has implications too. Specifically, it highlights the potential for certain CSA victims to receive negative reactions from society which could lead to secondary victimisation (Correia, Vala & Aguiar, 2001; Grubb & Turner, 2012). Receiving negative reactions from public members might also enhance a victim's reluctance to disclose to the police which could enhance the risk of recurrent victimisation (Paine & Hansen, 2002). There is also the potential for these factors to influence CSA legal proceedings with regards to affecting jury members' perceptions of CSA cases.

Further Research

Based on the review's findings and possible implications, further research is recommended. This includes conducting research to enhance understanding of why male respondents perceive CSA victims more negatively than female respondents. Whilst numerous researchers have explored this finding with regards to various theories, such as the DAH (e.g. Graham, Rogers & Davies, 2007), it is possible qualitative research could gather additional insight. Specifically, the use of qualitative interviews has been used in adult rape literature and revealed insightful findings regarding perceptions of victims and the support services provided (e.g. Ullman & Townsend, 2007). This is in terms of offering participants the opportunity to explore their views in detail which can enable the identification of themes and as such, areas where further support or training can be implemented. Therefore, the completion of

qualitative interviewing could gain additional insight into perceptions of CSA victims which might not be apparent from adopting quantitative methods.

It is also recommended that further research is conducted to explore whether perceptions of CSA victims differ between laypersons and professionals who have contact with CSA victims (e.g. police officers and social workers). Whilst research has begun to investigate this area and identified professionals to also be affected by abuse circumstances (e.g. Hetherton & Beardsall, 1998), more up to date research is required. This is with the aim of identifying how victims might be perceived by professionals and evaluating whether there is a need for training on CSA.

It is also recommended that the factors identified within this review should continue to be investigated. This is with the aim of developing firmer conclusions to inform potential training needs. However, it is recommended that future studies recruit samples from a wider geographic area to enhance the generalisability of findings within England and Wales, or even the UK.

Concluding Statement

To conclude, this review has identified various factors to influence English perceptions towards CSA victims. Whilst further research is required, this review can begin to inform future research within this area and begin the process of reducing prejudice towards CSA victims.

Chapter Two

Investigating Perceptions of a Hypothetical Child Sexual Abuse Case

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Introduction to Chapter Two

Chapter one comprised the systematic literature review which aimed to investigate which factors influence English and Welsh perceptions of CSA victims. Whilst preparing for this review, familiarity with the literature was acquired. This offered insight into which factors were under-researched in terms of their influence on perceptions of CSA. The second chapter thus comprises an empirical research project which aimed to investigate the influence of three under-researched factors on perceptions. These factors were; a victim's abuse history, victim-perpetrator relationship and a perpetrator's gender.

Whilst the systematic literature review aimed to review studies conducted in England and Wales (although only English studies were identified), the necessity of distinguishing between British, and English and Welsh perceptions was considered further. In particular, it was considered whether the public would be aware of the legislation differences across the countries and if they were, whether their perceptions would be influenced by them. Consequently, the second chapter adopted an online methodology to recruit participants from across the UK. Perceptions towards the perpetrator and the offence itself were also measured in the second chapter to enhance the comprehensiveness of the findings and maintain consistency with previous research in this area.

Abstract

Introduction

The present study aimed to investigate the influence of a victim's abuse history, victim-perpetrator relationship and a perpetrator's gender on perceptions of a case of child sexual abuse (CSA).

Methodology

Using an online approach, 336 members of the public read a vignette depicting an incident of CSA involving a 15 year old female victim. With the vignette in mind, participants then completed a 15-item questionnaire measuring perceptions towards the case of CSA.

Results

The analyses revealed the three investigated factors to be uninfluential upon perceptions of CSA with respondents adopting a pro-victim, anti-perpetrator stance. However, additional analyses identified respondent gender to influence perceptions, such that male perceived the victim more negatively than females.

Discussion

Methodological issues and implications for research and practice are discussed, including the need for more research on these factors.

Keywords

Child Sexual Abuse; Perceptions; British Public; Perpetrator Gender; Victim-Perpetrator Relationship; Victim's Abuse History.

Introduction

Child Sexual Abuse

Child sexual abuse (CSA) is recognised as an international problem which affects children of all backgrounds (Modelli, Galvão & Pratesi, 2012). As well as the abuse, CSA victims often experience a multitude of long term consequences, including mental health problems (Ullman, 2003), disturbed sexual functioning (DiLillo, 2001) and an increased risk of teenage pregnancy (Noll, Shenk & Putman, 2009). Despite the severity of CSA, it is often difficult to detect due its covert nature, lack of witnesses and limited physical signs of abuse (Hershkowitz, Lanes & Lamb, 2007). This creates difficulties when attempting to gather accurate prevalence rates of CSA (Bolen, Russell & Scannapieco, 2000). However, in terms of police data, over 47,000 cases of CSA were recorded in the UK in 2015 (Bentley, O'Hagan, Raff & Bhatti, 2016).

Self-Disclosure of Victimisation

Self-disclosure of CSA victimisation is vital in preventing abuse recurrence and identifying therapeutic interventions for the victim and perpetrator (Paine & Hansen, 2002). The process of disclosure can also provide some victims with a sense of relief (Schönbucher, Maier, Mohler-Kuo, Schnyder & Landolt, 2012). However, a large proportion of CSA victims do not disclose their victimisation (London, Bruck, Ceci & Shuman, 2005). This appears to stem from numerous factors including fears of how the perpetrator will react, fears of parental sanction as well as fears of being blamed or not

believed by the public (Carlson, Maciol & Schneider, 2008; Paine & Hansen, 2002; Schönbucher, Maier, Mohler-Kuo, Schnyder & Landolt, 2012).

Public Perceptions

CSA can evoke strong emotional reactions from the public (McElvaney, 2016). These perceptions are likely informed by the sensationalist media within the UK which often utilises derogatory comments and descriptions when discussing sexual offences (Gakhal & Brown, 2010; Gavin, 2005). According to published literature, the perceptions held by the public can include attributing blame and/or responsibility to the victim, perpetrator and victim's family, or questioning the credibility and trustworthiness of a CSA disclosure (e.g. Rogers, Josey & Davies, 2007).

The perceptions held by the public towards CSA can reportedly influence how a victim is responded to, whether a victim discloses their experience and how a perpetrator integrates back into the community (Alaggia, 2010; Bornstein, Kaplan & Andrea, 2007; Willis, Levenson & Ward, 2010). In particular, the literature identified a perpetrator to experience greater community reintegration difficulties if he/she is negatively perceived by society, and identified a victim to be less likely to disclose their victimisation if they fear they will be negatively perceived (e.g. Bornstein et al., 2007; Willis et al., 2010).

Given the influence of public perceptions on victims and perpetrators of CSA, research has been conducted to investigate

which factors influence these perceptions (e.g. Davies & Rogers, 2009; Rogers, Josey & Davies, 2007). This has been achieved through the completion of questionnaires in response to written vignettes involving CSA. Principal Components Analysis, or Principal Axis Factoring in some cases, has then been conducted on the responses received. This informed the extraction of multiple factors (e.g. assault severity and family blame) in most of the studies.

From this research, numerous factors have been revealed to influence perceptions (e.g. Davies & Rogers, 2009; Hatton & Duff, 2016). This includes respondent gender, with males perceiving CSA victims more negatively than females. A similar trend to the latter has also been identified in the literature of stalking (Lambert, Smith, Geistman, Cluse-Taylor & Jiang, 2013) and domestic violence (Bryant & Spencer, 2003). However, there remains uncertainty regarding the influence of some factors on British perceptions of CSA due to inconsistent findings and limited research. This particularly relates to the influence of a victim's abuse history, the victim-perpetrator relationship and a perpetrator's gender.

Victim's abuse history. If a child is sexually abused their risk of experiencing further sexual abuse, either by the same or different perpetrator, increases (Classen, Palesh & Aggarwal, 2005; Rogers, Josey & Davies, 2007). This results from the child becoming perceived as an easy, vulnerable target who can be successfully groomed into keeping secrets due to the evoked fear (Farrell, Phillips & Pease, 1995; Rogers, Josey & Davies, 2007). According to

the literature, re-victimised CSA victims are more likely to develop mental health problems, internalise blame and experience shame (Arata, 2000). As such, investigating whether re-victimised CSA victims are perceived negatively by society could offer further insight into the possible consequences of CSA re-victimisation.

A review of the literature identified only one study to have investigated the influence of a victim's abuse history on British perceptions of CSA. Whilst this factor was identified as not influencing perceptions directly, an influence was identified when combined with other factors (Rogers, Josey & Davies, 2007). Specifically, female participants judged a perpetrator as less culpable when a victim had an abuse history compared to no abuse history. Perpetrators were also deemed less culpable for the abuse of a 15-year old and a 10-year old, who were both unattractive and had an abuse history, compared to victims of the same age and attractiveness without an abuse history.

Upon widening the search parameters to research conducted outside of the UK and involving other offences, only one further study was identified as investigating the impact of abuse history on public perceptions. This identified Americans to perceive adult rape victims more negatively if the victim had a history of rape victimisation, compared to no history (Schult & Schneider, 1991). Further research might thus be warranted to gain more insight into the possible impact of a victim's abuse history on perceptions of CSA.

Victim-perpetrator relationship. CSA is most frequently perpetrated by someone who is known to the victim and as such, often entails the betrayal of trust and the abuse of a caring position (Berliner & Conte, 1995; Paine & Hansen, 2002; Radford et al. 2011). When sexually abused by someone familiar, victims are reportedly more likely to delay disclosure (Kogan, 2004). This can arise from fears of disrupting the family or due to difficulties identifying the sexual behaviour as abuse (Kogan, 2004). The intense attachment which can develop between a victim and known perpetrator might also discourage disclosure due to fears of losing the loved one as well as the perceived support and affection (Paine & Hansen, 2002).

The influence of the victim-perpetrator relationship on British perceptions has been investigated by two studies, both of which identified a direct influence on perceptions. Specifically, Davies, Patel and Rogers (2013) revealed participants perceived the victim as less credible, the non-offending mother as more culpable and the assault less severe when the perpetrator was the victim's step-father, rather than biological father. In comparison, Davies and Rogers (2009) reported participants perceived the victim as more honest and the perpetrator more culpable when the perpetrator was a stranger rather than the victim's biological father. Whilst these findings suggest the victim-perpetrator relationship influences perceptions, they highlight differing findings in terms of the specific direction. In particular, Davies and Rogers (2009) suggest the victim was perceived more negatively the closer the victim-

perpetrator relationship whilst Davies, Patel and Rogers (2013) identified the opposite.

The influence of the victim-perpetrator relationship on public perceptions has been identified in other offence literature. This includes the offence of stalking whereby public members perceived the offence as less severe (Scott, Lloyd & Gavin, 2011) and the perpetrator as less responsible (Scott & Sheridan, 2011) when the perpetrator was an ex-partner rather than a stranger. A similar finding was also identified in the literature on adult rape as the public perceived rape victims as more to blame the closer the prior victim-perpetrator relationship (Bieneck & Krahé, 2011). Further research could thus continue to investigate the influence of victim-perpetrator relationship on perceptions of CSA; a process which could entail the exploration of other relationship types.

Perpetrator gender. Males and females perpetrate CSA, albeit females to a lesser extent (Elliot, Eldridge, Ashfield & Beech, 2010; Ford, 2006). Specifically, the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children (NSPCC; 2013) revealed 17% of their calls regarding CSA in one year were concerning female perpetrators. However, due to enhanced feelings of shame, victims of female perpetrated CSA reportedly find it more difficult to disclose their victimisation compared to victims of male perpetrated CSA (Rosencrans, 2007). This raises concerns regarding the long-term effects that victims of female perpetrated CSA might

experience, and concerns regarding how they might be perceived by society.

Two studies have investigated the influence of perpetrator gender on British perceptions of CSA and similarly revealed it influences perceptions. In particular, Rogers and Davies (2007) revealed participants perceived female perpetrators as less culpable, their offending less severe and their victims less credible, compared to male perpetrators. In Davies, Austen and Rogers' (2011) study, which investigated perceptions towards male victims, they also revealed participants perceived CSA as less severe when perpetrated by a female compared to a male. Whilst the impact of perpetrator gender on perceptions towards other offences appears under-researched, one study identified male murder victims as the most negatively perceived if the perpetrator was a male (Rye, Greatrix & Enright, 2006); a slight difference in findings compared to the CSA literature.

Present Study

Aims and rationale. The current study aimed to investigate the influence of a victim's abuse history, the victim-perpetrator relationship and a perpetrator's gender on British perceptions of CSA. This was to examine whether these factors influence perceptions in an attempt to identify which CSA victims and perpetrators might be perceived negatively. To overcome previous generalisability problems, stemming from studies recruiting from single counties (e.g. Lancashire) and university campuses, the

present study adopted an online approach to recruit from a wider geographic area across the UK. This involved participants reading a vignette which depicted a case of CSA involving a 15-year old female victim. Following this, participants completed a 15-item questionnaire which assessed their perceptions of the CSA victim, perpetrator and the offence itself.

Hypotheses. Based on the previous literature, three hypotheses were identified. First, it was hypothesised that participants' perceptions would be influenced by a victim's abuse history, such that participants would be more pro-victim when the victim had no abuse history. Second, it was hypothesised that participants' perceptions would also be influenced by the victim-perpetrator relationship, with the perpetrator being perceived more positively, and the victim more negatively, the closer the prior victim-perpetrator relationship. Third, it was hypothesised that participants' perceptions would also be influenced by a perpetrator's gender. Specifically, participants would be more pro-victim when the perpetrator was depicted as male, compared to when depicted as female.

Method

Participants

To estimate the sample size required for sufficient power (0.8), a power analysis was conducted based on a small/medium effect size (.25), a significance level of .05 and the analysis of interactions. Based on this, 336 members of the public (78 males; 258 females),

aged between 18 and 90 years (*M* age = 36.42, SD = 14), participated in the current study using opportunistic sampling. Of these participants, 28% reported experience of working with sexual offenders and/or sexual offence victims. Individuals were requested not to participate if they were under the age of 18 years or if they were living outside of the UK.

All participants were recruited online via the author's social networking sites which included Facebook™ and LinkedIn™, as well as via emails to work and course colleagues. As part of this, participants were able to share the study on their social media and advise others of their participation. This opportunistic sampling method enabled the recruitment of participants from a wider geographic area, including Cornwall, Durham, Lanarkshire, Yorkshire and Glamorgan. Despite this approach, only 4% lived in Scotland, 3% lived in Wales, 0% lived in Northern Ireland. The remaining 93% lived in England.

Design

For this study a 2 (Victim's Abuse History: Abuse History vs. No Abuse History) x 2 (Victim-Perpetrator Relationship: Biological Parent vs. School Teacher) x 2 (Perpetrator Gender: Male vs. Female) between-participant design was utilised. This created eight conditions whereby 42 participants were allocated to each condition. All participants were only assigned to one condition.

Materials

Demographic questionnaire. Participants were required to complete a demographic questionnaire which included questions relating to age, gender, work experience and county they live in. To minimise the amount of missing data, all questions required an answer in order for participants to submit their responses.

Vignettes. Eight vignettes were developed to depict the manipulations of the three independent variables, each of which was between 178-181 words in length. The vignettes portrayed a 15 year old female victim (Lucy) who experienced CSA in the form of genital fondling during parents' evening at school. This particular scenario was developed to enable the depiction of abuse in a situation where both a parent and teacher would realistically be; a decision adopted to ensure the vignettes were identical except for the variables being manipulated (i.e. the victim's abuse history, victim-perpetrator relationship and the perpetrator's gender). A female victim was also selected to reflect statistics reporting a higher prevalence of CSA for female victims (e.g. Office for National Statistics, 2016). All vignettes also depicted the victim as offering verbal resistance. To enable the measurement of victim credibility and honesty, the vignettes were written to reflect the victim's account (e.g. "Lucy continued to say…").

The vignettes were also reviewed by five independent individuals who were work colleagues at the time. This process was implemented to ensure the vignettes were comprehensible and to

ensure there were no grammatical or spelling errors. To facilitate the review, the individuals were provided with the vignettes and requested to annotate them with corrections or feedback. This informed minor amendments to the grammar. An example of a written vignette is presented below. This depicts the victim as having an abuse history and the perpetrator as a being the victim's father. An additional vignette example can be found in Appendix A which depicts which parts of the vignette were manipulated.

> *"Lucy is a 15 year old female who has been sexually abused in the past. Two days ago, Lucy attended parents' evening with her biological father to discuss her predicted GCSE grades. During parents' evening, Lucy and her father met with each teacher in their classrooms. At 7pm, the last teacher they saw was to discuss overall progress. This teacher was 35 years old. During their discussion, the teacher was excused from the classroom to get refreshments. This left Lucy alone with her father.*
>
> *Yesterday, a friend noticed that Lucy was very quiet so she asked her what was wrong. Lucy advised her that when the teacher left the classroom yesterday, her father congratulated her on the progress she had made. Lucy continued to say that her trousers were then unzipped and vagina fondled with by her father, despite telling him to stop. Lucy reported that her father continued to touch her vagina, despite telling him to stop again, until her teacher re-entered the classroom.*

Lucy advised her friend that her teacher did not realise what had happened".

Questionnaire. All participants were requested to complete a 15-item questionnaire whilst considering the vignette. The questionnaire was adapted from various studies (e.g. Davies, Patel & Rogers, 2013; Rogers & Davies, 2007; Rogers, Josey & Davies, 2007) and aimed to measure perceptions towards the CSA victim and perpetrator which are depicted in the vignette. Perceptions of the offence are also measured. This included items, such as "the perpetrator was to blame for the situation", "Lucy was responsible for what happened to her" and "the police should take this incident seriously". These items were selected to gain an overview of participants' perceptions towards the victim, perpetrator and the offence itself. Standardised written instructions were provided at the beginning of the questionnaire and all items were responded to using a 5-point agreement Likert-type scale. See Appendix B for the questionnaire.

Procedure

A standardised invitation for the study was emailed to course and work colleagues and posted onto the author's social networking sites (Facebook™ and LinkedIn™). The invitation briefly described the study and provided a URL to the author's website which was specifically developed for this research project. If interested, prospective participants clicked onto the website link to find out more about the study and if willing, provide informed consent. Once

consent was received, participants were automatically transferred to another page in the website. On this page participants were requested to select a number between one and eight to assign participants to one of the eight conditions (i.e. different versions of the vignettes). To ensure an equal number of participants were allocated to each condition, the number of participants completing each condition was observed and each condition closed once the required number was achieved (42 participants). This process was assisted by the online nature of the study and as such, the ability to monitor survey completion. Consequently, as the study continued participants had fewer numbers to choose from on the website.

After participants selected a number at random, participants were transferred to their chosen survey number which was hosted by Bristol Online Survey™. Throughout this process, participants remained unaware of what condition they were allocated to. Following this, participants completed the demographic questionnaire and read a short vignette depicting a case of CSA. With this vignettes in mind, participants completed the 15-item questionnaire using a 5-point Likert-type scale (Appendix A). After submitting their responses, participants read the written debrief.

Ethics

The University of Nottingham's School of Medicine research ethics committee provided approval for this research on the 14th July 2015. This approval reflected the exclusion of participants under the age of 18 years due to the sexual nature of the vignettes. To

enforce this exclusion criterion, information regarding the age restriction was included in the study's invitation, the author's website and at the beginning of the survey. Within the written debrief, participants who felt affected by the study were directed to Victim Support, Samaritans or their General Practitioner. If participants were unsatisfied with the study and their associated participation, they were directed to the Ethics Committee Secretary. The ethics approval form can be found in Appendix C.

Results

First Data Screening

No data were missing from the dataset. However, twelve participants had their ages removed from analysis due to concerns regarding their accuracy. In particular, these participants had reported they were above the age of 120 years. To enable analysis, five items were reversed scored, such that higher scores reflected a pro-victim and anti-perpetrator stance. Due to 313 participants (93%) living in England, no analyses were conducted to explore differences in perceptions across countries in the UK.

Principal Axis Factoring

Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) was performed on the 15 items using Oblique Rotation (Direct Oblim) to acknowledge the likely correlations between items (Suhr, 2009). The process of PAF was adopted to identify which factors load onto latent variables which might not be easily measured without this process (O'Rourke,

Hatcher & Stepanski, 2005). The PAF informed the removal of two items ("Lucy's account is trustworthy" and "Lucy might be lying about the incident") due to poor correlations with the other items (Field, 2009). No evidence of multicollinearity was found.

To calculate factor extraction, Parallel Analysis (Horn, 1965) was performed due to its superiority over other methods with regards to accuracy and its ability to avoid over-factoring (Ledesma & Valero-Mora, 2007). This analysis recommended the extraction of factors with eigenvalues above 1.34. As a result, a single factor was extracted which comprised all 13 items, accounted for 40.3% of the variance and had a Cronbach Alpha of .90. This factor extraction method was supported by the Scree Plot method, see Figure 1. The factor, named 'Perceptions of Child Sexual Abuse' (PoCSA), and its loadings are summarised below in Table 1.

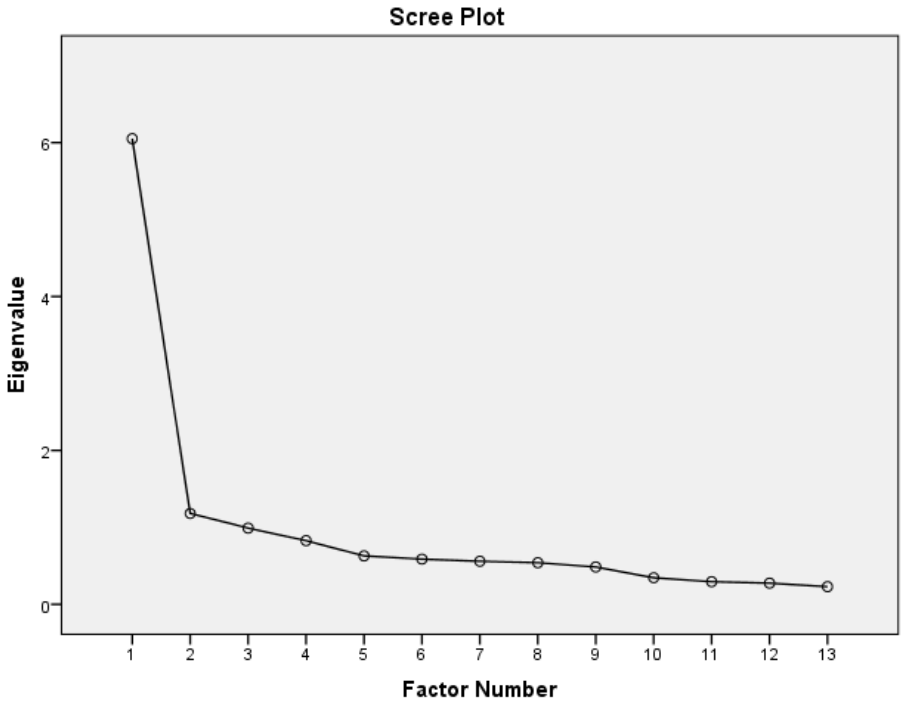


Figure 1. Scree plot depicting the factors.

Factor and Loading	Factor Loadings
Factor - PoCSA - Eigenvalue: 6.05; Variance: 46.55%	
Perpetrator Responsibility	.77
Perpetrator Guilty	.68
Perpetrator Abused Trust	.75
Perpetrator Blame	.66
Victim was Responsible*	.66
Victim Traumatised	.61
Victim Negatively Affected	.61
Perpetrator should be imprisoned	.59
Victim was to Blame*	.71
Victim was Guilty*	.60
Victim was Sexually Encouraging*	.55
Victim deserves sympathy	.57
Police should take incident seriously	.66
*Reversed items	

Table 1: A table summarising the single factor and its loadings

Second Data Screening

Prior to completing further analyses, the distribution of the extracted factor PoCSA was explored. This entailed reviewing Q-Q plots and analyses involving Shapiro-Wilk, the latter of which was utilised to acknowledge its recommendation within statistical literature (e.g. Ghasemi & Zahedias, 2012). The analyses performed revealed evidence of skewness and kurtosis, W (336) = .84, p=.00 and multiple outliers. Further explorations revealed the distribution

was negatively skewed and leptokurtic. This suggests participants primarily endorsed a pro-victim stance. No test of homogeneity of variance was performed due to the equal group sizes (42 participants in each) and large sample size (Field, 2009).

Prior to conducting analyses, attempts were made to remove the outliers and transform the data. Despite these attempts, the data remained non-normal and further outliers were revealed as others were removed. As a result, the appropriateness of non-parametric analyses was explored. This entailed exploring the utility of multiple regressions and quantile regressions, both of which experienced issues with model fit. Consequently, these methods were deemed unsuitable. Therefore, to maintain consistency with previous literature in the CSA field, whereby non-normal data and outliers were not amended (e.g. Rogers, Titterington & Davies, 2009; Rogers, Wczasek & Davies, 2011), the data was kept in its current form and parametric analyses performed, specifically Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). This decision was supported by the robustness of ANOVA to non-normality and outliers (Field, 2009).

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Main effects. A two (no abuse history vs. abuse history) x two (parent vs. teacher) x two (male vs. female) between-participants ANOVA was performed. This revealed no significant main effects which suggest the three factors did not influence participants' perceptions of CSA. Specifically, it was found that a victim's abuse history, $F(1, 328) = .275$, $p = .601$, $\eta_p^2 = .28$, CI [-2.5-

4.1], victim-perpetrator relationship, $F(1, 328)=.699$, p=.404, η_p^2 = .13, CI [-2.1-4.5], and a perpetrator's gender, $F(1, 328) = .219$, p=.640, η_p^2 = .08, CI [-0.7-5.9] did not influence how CSA was perceived by the participants.

Interaction effects. The analyses also revealed no significant interaction effects, although one interaction was near significance; victim-perpetrator relationship and perpetrator gender, $F(1,328)=3.767$,p=.053, η_p^2 = .50, CI [-8.7-0.7].

Additional analyses. To acknowledge previous literature in the field, the influence of respondent gender on perceptions was investigated. This revealed a significant finding, $F(1, 334) = 7.722$ p=.006, η_p^2 = .23, CI [57-59], with males perceiving victims more negatively than females. The influence of previously working with sexual offenders or sexual offence victims on perceptions was also investigated. This revealed a non-significant finding, $F(1, 334) = 2.043$, p=.154. No further analyses were conducted.

Discussion

The results of the present study did not provide support for the hypotheses. Specifically, participants' perceptions of the case of CSA were not influenced by the victim's abuse history, victim-perpetrator relationship or the perpetrator's gender. Instead, participants' generally endorsed a pro-victim, anti-perpetrator stance. However, in accordance with the previous literature (e.g. Rogers, Josey & Davies, 2007), respondent gender did influence perceptions, such

that male respondents were less pro-victim compared to female respondents; a finding also evident in the adult rape literature (e.g. Schneider, Mori & Lambert, 2009).

The finding that female respondents were more pro-victim might not be surprising given the depicted female victim. Specifically, the Defensive Attribution Hypothesis (DAH; Shaver, 1970) suggests individuals might attribute less blame to a victim if they perceive themselves as having similar characteristics, such as gender. Consequently, it is possible that female respondents identified more with the victim (female), as opposed to the perpetrator (male) and thus might have avoided blaming the victim in an attempt to avoid blame themselves if they were to befall victimisation.

In contrast, the finding that a victim's abuse history, victim-perpetrator relationship and a perpetrator's gender did not influence perceptions was unexpected. Upon consideration, these findings could be explained by several differences between the present study and the previous literature. These differences are thus explored below. However, the findings could also be explained by the methodological limitations of the present study. As a result, these limitations will also be explored after the aforementioned section.

Previous and Current Literature Differences

The main difference between the previous literature in this area and the present study is the difference in the measures utilised. Specifically, in the present study the PAF method extracted a single latent factor which measured perceptions as an entirety. In

comparison, similar analyses in the previous studies informed the extraction of several latent factors which measured components of perceptions (e.g. victim credibility, perpetrator blame). The present study might thus suggest that the public's overall perceptions of CSA are not influenced by victim and perpetrator characteristics in the same manner that specific perceptions are. However, the findings of the present study could also be explained by several other differences that were evident between the present study and the previous literature in terms of the three investigated factors. These differences are explored below.

Victim's abuse history. The influence of a victim's abuse history on perceptions of CSA has only been investigated by one previous study. This identified the factor as influential when combined with respondent gender, and when combined with victim age and attractiveness (Rogers, Josey & Davies, 2007). Considering the present study did not investigate the influence of these other factors (only respondent gender during additional analyses), it is possible this study highlights a victim's abuse history as only influential when combined with certain factors. Encouragingly, it is thus possible a victim's abuse history minimally influences public perceptions of CSA.

Victim-perpetrator relationship. The present study explored the influence of two victim-perpetrator relationship types; victim-biological parent and victim-teacher. This was different from the two previous studies conducted within the UK which investigated

the influence of victim-stranger, victim-biological parent and victim-step-parent relationships and revealed significant findings (Davies, Patel and Rogers, 2013; Davies & Rogers, 2009). Consequently, it is possible that the victim-perpetrator relationship only influences perceptions when particular relationships are depicted**.**

However, it is possible perceptions might have differed in the present study if the victim was depicted as male; a hypothesis based on research conducted in America. Specifically, American students perceived abuse perpetrated by a female teacher, against a male adolescent, as cool and appropriate, and also perceived the male victim as having bragging rights following the victimisation (Dollar, Perry, Fromuth & Holt, 2004). Given previous investigations into the influence of this factor on British perceptions has only involved female victims, further research could explore whether similar perceptions would be identified within the UK when the victim was male.

Perpetrator gender. The present study identified perpetrator gender as uninfluential upon perceptions of CSA. This is in contrast to the two previous UK studies which explored the influence of this factor and revealed participants perceived male perpetrators more negatively than female perpetrators. Consequently, the differences in findings could be partly attributed to variations in the CSA scenarios depicted in the present study and previous studies. Specifically, Rogers and Davies (2007) depicted the perpetrator as a neighbour, and the abuse entailing genital

fondling, whilst Davies, Austen and Rogers (2009) depicted the victim as a male and the abuse entailing oral penetration. As a result, it is possible that perpetrator gender only influences perceptions in certain combined CSA circumstances. Further research might thus investigate the impact of perpetrator gender when combined with various abuse types and other levels of victim-perpetrator relationships (e.g. neighbour, family friend).

Methodological Issues and Implications for Research

The present study is not without its limitations. This includes methodological limitations relating to its participants, vignettes, online methodology, measurement scale and statistical analyses. An exploration of these limitations could thus inform ideas for future research and help improve the quality of literature within the CSA field. This exploration begins with a discussion regarding the participants.

Participants. Unlike previous research in this area, the present study adopted an online approach. This was to improve the study's geographical reach in an attempt to recruit a sample representative of British perceptions. Despite this approach, only 7% of participants reported living outside of England and as such, conclusions might only reflect English perceptions as opposed to British perceptions. However, it is possible the conclusions are also not representative of English perceptions due to the opportunistic recruitment method adopted. Specifically, this study recruited participants from the author's social media websites. It is thus likely

that a large proportion of participants are family, friends, acquaintances and work colleagues. Research which actively recruits from Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland is thus recommended using recruitment methods which will reduce the possibility of known people participating.

The present study's sample was also predominantly female, most likely due to recruiting participants from the author's social media websites. Considering females appear to adopt a more pro-victim, anti-perpetrator stance, this might explain the lack of findings in terms of a victim's abuse history, victim-perpetrator relationship and a perpetrator's gender. Future research might thus aim to recruit a more gender balanced sample to further evaluate the influence the three aforementioned factors on perceptions of CSA.

Vignettes. The results of the present study might also be affected by the CSA scenario depicted. In particular, the scenario developed could be perceived as a brazen and unrealistic act considering it was depicted as occurring at a parents' evening; an event likely to be busy. Whilst this scenario was developed to reflect a situation where a parent, teacher and child would be at the same time, it is possible participants did not consider the characteristics of the victim or perpetrator due to focusing on the brazenness of the act. Consequently, this scenario might have contributed to the lack of significant findings in terms of the three victim and perpetrator variables manipulated. Future research might thus consider an alternative scenario, such as an afterschool discussion between the

parent, teacher and child (victim) whereby either the parent or teacher temporarily leave the room.

Measurement scale. Further caution should also prevail when interpreting the findings due to the measurement scale used. Specifically, all items achieved a mean score of four or above despite the maximum possible score being five. Whilst this might imply the endorsement of pro-victim attitudes, possibly due to the predominantly female sample, it might also suggest the scale was not sensitive enough to detect participants' perceptions. As a result, it is possible this methodological limitation contributed to the lack of significant findings. The utility of using a ten-point scale in future studies could thus be explored.

Online methodology. The present study could also be perceived as affected by careless responding (CR) due to the online approach adopted (Greszki, Meyer & Schoen, 2015; Meade, 2012). In particular, if participants responded in a careless manner (i.e. rushed or not reading the items properly), then it is possible no findings would be identified. Whilst a limitation, this approach was adopted to acknowledge the sensitive topic under exploration as it provided anonymity when disclosing such personal views (Ahern, 2005 as cited in Cantrell & Lupinacci, 2007). Future research in this area might thus advise participants they will receive feedback on the quality of their responses as a method to reduce the presence of CR (Ward & Pond, 2015).

Statistical analyses. Caution must also be utilised when interpreting and/or using the findings of the present study due to the statistical analysis process. This results from the study's use of an ANOVA despite the presence of outliers and non-normal data. Whilst this approach was consistent with previous literature in this field (e.g. Rogers, Titterington & Davies, 2009; Rogers, Wczasek & Davies, 2011), and acknowledged the robustness of ANOVA (Field, 2009), the results might still have been affected by the non-normality and outliers. Further research on this particular topic and factors might thus be required to clarify the findings gathered.

Future Research

It is recommended that further research continues to explore the influence of the three investigated factors on British perceptions of CSA. This could be in terms of male victims, different forms of CSA and varying the victim's age. Other factors which have received little academic attention, such as perpetrator coercion and parental style, could also be explored in terms of their influence on perceptions. Utilising the recent systematic literature review completed by Hatton and Duff (2016) could prove an informative paper in terms of identifying factors which require further investigation. It is also recommended that future work explores the influence of the investigated factors on welfare professionals' perceptions (e.g. police and social workers). This could highlight areas whereby practice could be affected, such as perceiving a

victim as requiring less therapeutic intervention (Bornstein, Kaplan & Andrea, 2007), based on perceptions.

Implications for Practice and Theory

The findings of the present study suggest the public primarily endorses a pro-victim, anti-perpetrator stance towards CSA victims. However, it has also highlighted that whilst the public generally endorse a pro-victim view, males tend to perceive victims more negatively than females. This might have implications in terms of how male members of the public approach and/or support victims of CSA. Specifically, it is possible the support victims receive might be affected by the gender of the individual they talk to. The present study also offers support to the previous literature in terms of participants not distinguishing between blame and responsibility. This is despite Shaver (1985) suggesting these are theoretically distinct concepts.

Concluding Comments

The present study revealed a victim's abuse history, victim-perpetrator relationship and a perpetrator's gender are uninfluential upon perceptions of CSA. Although further research is needed, these findings highlight some positivity in terms of the public generally endorsing a pro-victim stance regardless of certain circumstances. With this pro-victim view, it is possible some victims might feel supported to disclose their victimisation which could reduce the long-term consequences of CSA (Paine & Hansen, 2002).

Chapter Three

A Preliminary Critique of the Gudjonsson Blame Attribution Inventory Revised

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Introduction to Chapter Three

Chapter two comprised the empirical research project which identified a victim's abuse history, victim-perpetrator relationship and a perpetrator's gender to have no influence upon public perceptions of CSA. Following the completion of this chapter, the research thesis aimed to explore the perceptions that CSA perpetrators hold towards their victim/offence, and whether these perceptions can be modified (in chapter four). This was to acknowledge the impact perpetrators' perceptions can have on their risk of sexual recidivism as well as their CSA victims' wellbeing and disclosure behaviour (e.g. Bornstein et al., 2007; Paine & Hansen, 2002; Simon et al., 2016).

To facilitate this exploration, a suitable client was identified for the case study (chapter four). This was a contact sexual offender who was reportedly attributing blame externally for his sexual offence. In anticipation to measuring the client's blame attributions, the Gudjonsson Blame Attribution-Revised (GBAI-R; Gudjonsson & Singh, 1989) was identified. Specifically, it was felt this inventory could identify treatment targets and measure change if an intervention were to occur to reduce the client's blame externalisation. However, despite the GBAI-R's frequent utilisation (Tolfrey, Fox & Jeffcote, 2010), the inventory had not undergone a critique. Chapter three therefore aimed to critique the GBAI-R to assess its suitability for use in chapter four and to inform practitioners of its utility.

Abstract

Introduction

The Gudjonsson Blame Attribution Inventory–Revised (GBAI-R) measures perpetrators' blame attributions towards their index offence. Despite its frequent utilisation, the inventory has not undergone a critique. This paper thus aimed to begin the critiquing process.

Methodology

An evaluation of the inventory's measurement scale, psychometric properties and normative data was completed.

Results

The critique revealed some concerns regarding the inventory's susceptibility to extreme scores and concerns regarding the representativeness of its normative data.

Discussion

The critique recommends refinements to the GBAI-R. Once complete, further research should be completed to evaluate the inventory's psychometric soundness more comprehensively.

Keywords

Critique; Gudjonsson Blame Attribution Inventory - Revised; Blame Attributions; Offenders; Perpetrators; Forensic Population

Blame Attributions

Blame attributions refer to developing a causal explanation for an event which can be utilised to justify or excuse behaviour (Blumenthal, Gudjonsson & Burns, 1999; Henning, Jones & Holdford, 2005). According to Miller and Porter (2010), any individual in society can attribute blame for an event, including perpetrators and victims of offences. In terms of offenders, various factors reportedly influence how they attribute blame. This includes their gender, social support and their victim's gender (Anderson & Lyons, 2006). Since the 1980's, two psychometric assessments have been developed to measure blame attributions in forensic populations; the Attribution of Blame Scale (ABS; Loza & Clements, 1991) and the Gudjonsson Blame Attribution Inventory-Revised (GBAI-R; Gudjonsson & Singh, 1989).

The ABS aims to measure perpetrators' general blame attributions towards offending. It has a four factor structure (victim, offender, alcohol and societal blame) comprising 24 items. This includes items such as "victims of crime nearly always deserve what they get" with all items rated on a six-point agreement Likert scale. However, evaluations of the ABS identified the scale's four factors as indistinct (Fazio, Kroner & Forth, 1997). Instead, Fazio et al., (1997) suggest the scale's utility would improve if it comprised two factors (internal blame, external blame); a structure identified as having internal consistency (Peerson, Gudjonsson & Sigurdsson, 2000). Despite

this, no further developments of the scale have been published and no further citations have been identified. In comparison, the GBAI-R, which measures perpetrators' blame attributions towards their index offence, has been widely cited within the literature (e.g. Tolfrey, Fox & Jeffcote, 2011). However, as no evaluation of the GBAI-R has been completed, the present paper aimed to critique the inventory to evaluate its ability to accurately measure blame attributions.

Gudjonsson Blame Attribution Inventory - Revised

According to Gudjonsson et al., (1989), offenders' attributions of blame manifest themselves in two ways; a) internal versus external attributions of blame, and b) mental element attributions. Regarding the former, internal attributions refers to the offender blaming their own personal characteristics for the offending whilst external attributions refer to blaming society or other environmental factors (Gudjonsson et al., 1989). In comparison, mental element attributions refer to a perpetrator's "perceived freedom to act" and thus considers whether the perpetrator feels he/she lost control of their behaviour due to mental health problems (Gudjonsson & Singh, 1989, p. 67).

Gathering information about perpetrators' blame attributions can enhance insight into offenders' perceptions of their index offence (Fox & Leicht, 2005; Gudjonsson, 1999). For example, offenders who attribute blame externally are reportedly more likely to deny responsibility, lack empathy and lack insight regarding their offence

(Gudjonsson, 1984). The inventory can also offer insight into perpetrators' personality traits. Specifically, those experiencing guilt regarding their offence are more likely to be higher on the scale of neuroticism and higher on the scale of introversion (Gudjonsson et al., 1989).

In 1984, Gudjonsson and Singh developed the GBAI to measure perpetrators' blame attributions. A few years later, the inventory was revised by its authors due to two weaknesses. The first weakness referred to the inventory measuring both specific and general attitudes towards offending. This limited its ability to measure offenders' attitudes towards their index offence (Gudjonsson et al., 1989). The second weakness referred to all of the items in two of the inventory's factors being scored in the positive (Gudjonsson et al., 1989). This scoring method reportedly increased the likelihood of acquiescence bias which involves providing affirmative answers, regardless of the question. After rectifying these weaknesses the inventory was republished and titled, Gudjonsson Blame Attribution Inventory – Revised (GBAI-R; Appendix A).

The GBAI-R is a self-report inventory which measures adult perpetrators' attributions of blame and feelings of guilt regarding their index offence (Gudjonsson et al., 1989). It can be administered individually or in a group format and comprises 42 items requiring a true or false response. This includes items such as; "I feel very ashamed for the crime I committed" and "I should

not be punished for what I did". Although the GBAI-R's authors do not state an approximate completion time, it is considered the inventory takes approximately 45 minutes. Prior to completion, respondents are required to record their index offence on the response sheet. This is due to reported differences in blame attributions between perpetrators of violent, sexual, property and other offences, and thus different normative data (Gudjonsson et al., 1989).

Comprising the GBAI-R are three factors. These are; 1) the guilt feeling factor, which measures feelings of remorse regarding the offence, 2) the external factor, which measures the extent of blaming society or the victim for the offence and 3) the mental element factor, which measures the extent the individual blames poor mental health or loss of control for the offence. As a result, the completion of the inventory reveals three separate scores. Higher scores on each factor suggests higher levels of external blame, higher levels of blaming mental health issues and higher levels of guilt. In terms of interpretation, the GBAI-R manual states that if an perpetrator's mean score is one standard deviation above or below the normative mean then the offender's blame attributions and feelings of guilt differ moderately from the norm (Gudjonsson et al., 1989).

Whilst the GBAI-R manual does not elaborate on the inventory's utility, aside from its ability to measure blame and guilt attributions, research reports it is currently used in multiple ways. This includes

its use in enhancing insight into an perpetrator's reoffending risk (Tolfrey, Fox & Jeffcote, 2011), its ability to identify potentially treatment resistant offenders (Dolan, 1995), its ability to inform intervention targets (Fox & Leicht, 2005; McGuire, 1995) and its ability to identify the effectiveness of interventions relating to blame attributions (Brown, Miller, Northey & O'Neil, 2014). Research has also utilised the GBAI-R to evaluate which factors influence attributions of blame, such as mood, offence type and psychopathy (e.g. Batson, Gudjonsson & Gray, 2010; Dolan, 1995; Gudjonsson & Bownes, 2002; Henelius, Viemerö & Eronen, 2002). Of note, HMP Grendon also utilises the GBAI-R as part of their assessment process to evaluate change following the completion of therapy at this therapeutic community prison.

Critique of the GBAI-R

Given the inventory's wide ranging utility and citation within the literature, a critique of the inventory was identified as necessary to assess its ability of measuring perpetrators' blame attributions. Whilst there is limited research on the psychometric composition of the GBAI-R, this paper aimed to commence the critiquing process of the inventory. Specifically, it aimed to evaluate the inventory's measurement scale, psychometric properties, normative data and administration methodology using available literature. This process commences with an evaluation of the measurement scale.

Measurement Scale

The GBAI-R utilises a nominal, dichotomous measurement scale which requires respondents to circle true or false in response to all items. This type of scale raises some concerns due to its inability to produce comprehensive information about perpetrators' blame attributions and its susceptibility to acquiescence bias (Pagano, 2013). With this in mind, it is possible the inventory misses important information about a perpetrator and may not reflect the perpetrator's current perceptions. Evaluating the presence of acquiescence bias when completing the GBAI-R could thus be explored in more detail in future analyses.

Dichotomous nominal scales are utilised within other well-known measures, for example the Eynsenck Personality Questionnaire-Revised (EPQ-R; Eynsenck & Eynsenck, 1992). Although not specifically explored within critiques of the EPQ-R, dichotomous scales can increase the likelihood of extreme total scores (Greenwald & O'Connell, 1970). When considering the GBAI-R's items (e.g. "society is to blame for the crime I committed"), it is possible respondents perceive some items as only partially true or false but are obliged to respond to the extreme. As a result, perpetrators' blame attributions and feelings of guilt might be over and/or underestimated by the GBAI-R which may influence what treatment a perpetrator receives and how they are perceived by forensic professionals.

Psychometric Validation

A limited amount of research has been conducted to evaluate the GBAI-R's psychometric properties, in particular, its factor structure, reliability and validity. However, of the limited research that has been conducted, it has mostly been facilitated on translated versions of the inventory. Caution should thus apply when reviewing the evaluations presented below.

Factor structure. In terms of evaluating the inventory's factor structure, only one study has facilitated this. Specifically, Cima et al., (2007) reviewed a German translated version of the GBAI-R and revealed the same three-factor structure identified by Gudjonsson and Singh (1989). Whilst this provides some support for the psychometric validity of this inventory, caution must apply given the translated version reviewed and due to the study recruiting an inadequate sample size for the facilitation of factor analysis; as cautioned by the authors (Cima et al., 2007).

Reliability. The GBAI-R's reliability has been measured in two ways; internal consistency and test re-test reliability. Regarding the former, this has been evaluated by three studies, although again, two of these were translated versions of the inventory. Despite the varying versions, all three studies reported the inventory to possess adequate to good reliability with alpha levels between 0.71 and 0.83 (Cima et al., 2007; Fox, De Koning & Leicht, 2003; Peerson, Gudjonsson & Sigurdsson, 2000). In terms of the inventory's test re-test reliability, this has only been measured by

one study which involved the German translated version (Cima et al., 2007). This evaluation revealed acceptable test re-test reliability with correlations between 0.62 and 0.84. These results are thus suggestive of a reliable measure.

Validity. Finally, limited research has investigated the inventory's validity. Specifically, only the GBAI-R's concurrent validity has been assessed and this was utilising an Icelandic translated version of the GBAI-R. To assess the aforementioned validity, the inventory was correlated with the ABS due to predictions the results would correlate. These analyses revealed poor correlations which suggested limited concurrent validity between the two inventories (Peerson, Gudjonsson & Sigurdsson, 2009). However, the authors of this analysis then queried the likelihood of these inventories correlating due to them measuring different concepts. Specifically, the GBAI-R measures offence specific blame attributions whilst the ABS measures blame attributions in general. Consequently, the validity of the GBAI-R remains unknown.

Appropriate Norms

The normative data for the GBAI-R is based on 176 participants all of whom had an offending history. Of the participants, 37 were from Maudsley and Bethlem Royal Hospital (a psychiatric hospital) and 139 were from HMP Grendon (a therapeutic community prison). The mean age of participants was 29 years with the sample being predominantly male (Gudjonsson et al., 1989). The specific

composition of males and females in the normative data is not stated in the manual or associated publications.

All participants who comprised the normative dataset were categorised into four groups depending on their index offence. These were; violent offences (49 participants), sexual offences (47 participants), property offences (50 participants) and other offences (25 participants). Based on the findings, the four offence groups have different means and standard deviation scores for their blame attributions and guilt feelings (Gudjonsson et al., 1989). However, an evaluation of the normative data revealed some concerns regarding its representativeness. This results from the broad offence categorisations, the recent legislative changes as well as the country, setting and gender of participant recruitment. These factors are thus explored below.

Offence categories. As mentioned above, the GBAI-R has separate normative data for four offence types; violent offences, sexual offences, property offences and other offences. These broad categories thus combine offences which differ significantly in terms of their severity and sentencing. For instance, the offences of murder and grievous bodily harm would both be combined under the category of violent offences despite their significant differences. Whilst this broad categorisation simplifies interpretation, it is possible that important information is lost given that differences in perceptions exist within offence categories. For example, some research suggests sexual offenders' perceptions towards their

victims can vary depending on the type of sexual offence (e.g. online versus contact). The utility of additional offence categories could thus be explored.

Legislative changes. Since the development of the GBAI-R and its normative data, legislative changes have occurred. This has involved various acts being amended which has seen the addition of new offences, such as those relating to online offending (e.g. online grooming). Considering the number of new offences, and given perceptions differ between online and contact sexual offenders (Howitt & Sheldon, 2007), it is possible the current normative data is not representative of perpetrators who have committed recently legislated offences.

Country of participant recruitment. The GBAI-R manual does not stipulate restrictions regarding which countries the inventory can be administered in. This is despite the normative data only comprising individuals whom were incarcerated in England. Whilst Gudjonsson and Pétursson (1991) reported no differences in attributions between perpetrators incarcerated in England and Iceland, Gudjonsson and Bownes (1991) reported differences in external blame attributions between perpetrators incarcerated in England and Ireland. This provisionally suggests perpetrators' attributions might differ depending on the country they are incarcerated in. Although further research is required, the appropriateness of using the GBAI-R to interpret blame attributions

of offenders incarcerated outside of England is thus questioned. This is with the tentative exception of Iceland.

Setting. The representativeness of the inventory's normative data is also questioned due to the recruited participants being incarcerated within a therapeutic community prison or psychiatric hospital. This concern stems from a study conducted using a German version of the GBAI-R which reported general prisoners to attribute significantly less blame to mental health issues and report less guilt compared to psychiatric patients (Cima et al. 2007). Significant differences in attributions of guilt were also reported between imprisoned sexual offenders and psychiatric patient sexual offenders. It thus seems differences in blame attributions are evident between general prisoners and psychiatric patients; a factor which might be influenced by the psychiatric input received (Cima et al. 2007). Due to the potential influence of therapy, the GBAI-R's normative data might thus not be representative of perpetrators within general prisons.

Participant gender. The GBAI-R manual reports the inventory is suitable for male and female perpetrators, although it provides a caveat regarding male predominance within its normative data. In the last two decades, some research has investigated whether differences in blame attributions are evident across genders. This includes Peerson, Gudjonsson and Sigurdsson's (2000) study which utilised the GBAI-R and ABS on an Icelandic sample. Whilst the GBAI-R revealed no differences between

genders, the ABS identified females to score significantly higher on the internal attribution scale compared to males (Peerson et al., 2000). However, caution should prevail when interpreting these findings as participants were not recruited from a forensic population. Instead, the participants were students who were asked to respond based on a serious act they had engaged in (e.g. an angry outburst).

A study which did recruit from a forensic population, specifically domestic violence perpetrators, found males attributed less blame to their victims compared to females (Henning, Jones & Holdford, 2005). Whilst Henning et al., (2005) utilised a novel scale, the findings again highlight the possibility of gender differences in blame attributions; a factor which might also be dependent upon the particular offence. As a result, concerns are thus raised regarding the representativeness of the inventory's normative data for female perpetrators.

Administration Methodology

The GBAI-R is a self-report questionnaire which can be completed in more than ten minutes. This efficient and practical method helps assessors quickly gain insight into perpetrator's perceptions and where their needs might be (Robins, Fraley & Kreuger, 2007). Whilst the approach may not glean as much information as a qualitative interview might, it offers perpetrators the opportunity to explore their offending without necessarily exploring it in detail and during a potentially intense interview.

Discussion

Overall, the critique of the GBAI-R revealed some concerns. This resulted from the inventory's possible susceptibility to extreme scoring and the possible limited representativeness of its normative data. Despite these evident limitations, the GBAI-R offers a simple to administer methodology and research which suggests some evidence of psychometric soundness. Based on these findings, it is concluded that the GBAI-R is an effective tool to measure perpetrators' blame attributions. However, caution is recommended when identifying whether a perpetrator's attributions differ from the norm due to concerns regarding the representativeness of the normative data. This is especially the case if the offender committed an online offence, if they are female and if they are incarcerated in a general prison outside of England.

Future Research

It is recommended that further research is conducted to inform possible refinements to the inventory. This should entail an exploration into the suitability of alternative measurement scales to minimise the scale's susceptibility to extreme scoring. Further research should also explore perpetrators' attributions across various demographics (e.g. gender, settings and location of incarceration). This process could then inform revisions to the normative data or the denotation of administration restrictions, such as not suitable for female offenders. An exploration into the development of additional offence categories should also be

conducted as well as research into the representativeness of the normative data for perpetrators who have perpetrated recently legislated offences, such as online grooming. Following these explorations and refinements, it is recommended the inventory undergoes a more comprehensive critique in terms of evaluating its factor structure, validity and reliability further. To ensure conclusions can be made, these evaluations should be based on the English version of the GBAI-R.

Practice Implications

Regarding practice implications, it is recommended that the inventory continues to measure perpetrators' attributions of blame. However, until the representativeness of the normative data is reviewed, it is advised that caution is applied when evaluating whether a perpetrator's attributions of blame differ from the norm. Despite this, it remains suitable for the inventory to measure the presence of change following an intervention and to offer insight into treatment targets.

Conclusion

To conclude, this preliminary critique identified some evidence of psychometric soundness in terms of the inventory's factor structure, reliability and validity. The inventory was also noted as easily administered and an efficient measure of blame attributions. Despite this, it is recommended the inventory undergoes some refinements and further research, which once complete, should inform a more comprehensive critique of the GBAI-R. Until then,

caution should be applied when evaluating whether a perpetrator's blame attributions differ from the norm.

End of Chapter Three

Chapter Four

A Young Person Minimising the Severity of his Harmful Sexual Behaviour: Could a Short-Term Intervention Reduce the Presence of Minimisation?

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Introduction to Chapter Four

Chapter three comprised the critique of the GBAI-R which aimed to evaluate the inventory's suitability for use in chapter four and to inform practitioners of its utility. The completion of the critique identified some evidence of psychometric soundness and highlighted the inventory's ease of administration. However, some concerns were raised regarding the inventory's possible susceptibility to extreme scores and the representativeness of its normative data. As a result, caution was advised when evaluating whether a perpetrator's blame attributions differ from the norm.

Following the completion of the critique, the client identified for chapter four's case study disengaged from therapeutic input and thus became unsuitable. As a result, another client was identified. This was a 17 year old male who had possessed and distributed over 9000 indecent photographs of children, and was minimising the severity of his offending. Given the suggested link between minimisation and sexual recidivism (Beech et al., 2003; Prentky et al., 2003), chapter four aimed to explore whether an intervention adapted from two manuals could reduce the presence of minimisation.

Whilst blame attributions and offence-specific minimisation overlap, the GBAI-R was considered inappropriate for this client. Specifically, whilst the client appeared to externalise some blame, the main concern stemmed from the client perceiving his offending as causing no harm to the victims and simply being exploratory behaviour.

With this information, alternative inventories were explored. This search revealed the Internet Behaviours and Attitudes Questionnaire (IBAQ; O'Brien & Webster, 2007) which measures attitudes and behaviours relating to indecent photographs of children. The IBAQ also includes items which explore offence-specific minimisation. As a result, the possible utility of this inventory for the case study, and thus chapter four, was identified.

However, prior to utilising the IBAQ in chapter four, a preliminary critique was conducted. This was in terms of the inventory's factor structure, reliability, validity as well as its susceptibility to socially desirable responding (SDR). Although brief in nature, the critique identified evidence of the IBAQ being psychometrically sound and as being unaffected by SDR. More information on the critique can be found within chapter four. Based on the critique's findings, the IBAQ was thus utilised within chapter four instead of the GBAI-R.

Abstract

Background

Harmful Sexual Behaviour (HSB) refers to contact and non-contact harmful sexual activity. Young perpetrators of HSB often minimise the severity of their offending which can increase the risk of sexual recidivism. The present study thus aimed to reduce the presence of minimisation in a 17 year old perpetrator of non-contact HSB.

Method

The client had been arrested twice for possessing and distributing over 9000 indecent photographs of children. Due to concerns the client was minimising the severity of his offending, he was offered a six session intervention adapted from two HSB manuals. This involved exploring topics such as minimisation, perspective taking and the consequences of HSB, on an individual basis.

Results

To assist the formulation process and evaluate the effectiveness of the intervention, the Internet Behaviour and Attitudes Questionnaire (IBAQ; O'Brien & Webster, 2007) was administered before and after the intervention, and discussions held with the client. Whilst the IBAQ revealed no evidence of the client engaging in less minimisation, discussions with the client appeared to suggest the client had gained insight into the severity of his HSB.

Discussion

Due to the disparities between the IBAQ and discussions with the client, the present study was unable to firmly conclude whether the short-term intervention was effective in reducing the young perpetrator's engagement in minimisation. Implications for future research and practice development are discussed.

Keywords

Harmful Sexual Behaviour, Minimisation, Intervention, Young Person, Offending

Harmful Sexual Behaviour in Young People

Harmful Sexual Behaviour

Society predominantly considers adults as the perpetrators of sexual abuse against children (Hackett, Masson, Balfe & Phillips, 2013). However, it is estimated that 25% of convicted harmful sexual behaviour (HSB) cases are perpetrated by young people aged 10-17 years (Hackett, 2014; Lovell, 2002; Vizard, 2006). HSB, along with a plethora of other phrases, refers to contact and non-contact harmful sexual activity. Specifically, contact HSB refers to forcing or enticing another young person to engage in penetrative or non-penetrative sexual activity, whereas non-contact HSB refers to behaviour such as distributing indecent photographs of children or encouraging a young person to view pornography (Sanderson, 2006).

Young Perpetrators of HSB and Recidivism

Young perpetrators of HSB form a homogenous group whereby no single pathway leads to offending (Almond, Canter & Salfati, 2006; Hackett, Phillips, Mason & Balfe, 2013). Despite this, shared characteristics are evident as HSB perpetrators are primarily males whom have experienced multiple difficulties within their families, such as poor sexual boundaries and inconsistent parenting (Bladon, Vizard, French & Trannah, 2005; Vizard, Hickey, French & McCrory, 2007). However, studies within this field often fail to include non-contact HSB cases. This raises concerns regarding the generalisability of findings as Moultrie (2006) investigated the

characteristics of non-contact HSB perpetrators and revealed few of them have experienced family difficulties.

In terms of recidivism rates, it is estimated that 2-14% of young HSB perpetrators reoffend (Sparta & Koocher, 2006). Although the risk of reoffending is evidently low, risk assessments have been developed to facilitate the evaluation of a young client's reoffending risk. This includes the Juvenile Sex Offender Assessment Protocol – II (J-SOAP; Prentky & Righthand, 2003) and the Internet-Assessment, Intervention and Moving on (iAIM; Swann, 2009). Whilst these assessments are under continual development, they depict denial and minimisation as risk items.

Denial and Minimisation of HSB

The literature on offending frequently adopts the term "cognitive distortions" to describe perpetrators' denial, minimisation, justifications and attitudes towards their offending (Mann, Webster, Wakeling & Marshall, 2007; Maruna & Mann, 2006). However, there remains uncertainty regarding the role these cognitive distortions play in offending (Maruna & Mann, 2006). Specifically, some researchers suggest they are consciously adopted after the commission of an offence, to alleviate feelings of guilt and remorse, whilst others suggest they are unconsciously adopted prior to the offence, to eliminate internal inhibitions (Abel et al., 1989; Finkelhor, 1984).

According to Erooga and Masson (2006), young perpetrators of HSB often place themselves on a continuum of denial and minimisation

following the commission of their offending. This ranges from complete denial, to denial of responsibility, to minimising the harm and/or severity of their offending (Erooga et al., 2006). Whilst denying and minimising HSB can indicate an individual recognises their behaviour as wrongful, it can act as an internal barrier for desisting reoffending and seeking appropriate support (Hanson & Morton-Bourgon, 2004; Van Horn et al., 2015). Engagement in offence-specific minimisation can also predict sexual recidivism in high risk sexual offenders (e.g. Langton, Barbaree, Harkins, Arenovich & McNamee, 2008). However, some young people deny or minimise their HSB simply due to a lack of understanding regarding its severity (Gillespie, 2008). This can include cases whereby a young person believes a victim is enjoying themselves if they are depicted as smiling in an indecent photograph.

Non-Contact HSB

With the advancement of internet accessibility, non-contact HSB has increased in frequency (Moultrie, 2006). This includes offences such as producing, possessing and distributing indecent photographs of children (Protection of Children Act, 1978). In April 2014, the Sentencing Council in England and Wales classified indecent photographs of children into three categories; A, B and C. The most severe category, category A, refers to photographs involving penetrative sexual activity and/or sexual activity with an animal or sadism (Sentencing Council, 2016). Although prevalence rates of non-contact HSB in young people remains unknown due to statistics

failing to differentiate between young people and adults (Gillespie, 2008), numerous outpatient services have opened to support young perpetrators of contact and non-contact HSB (Moultrie, 2006).

Interventions for Non-Contact HSB

Currently, no intervention manual has been developed specifically for young perpetrators of non-contact HSB. Instead, professionals are referred to intervention guides that explore HSB as a whole, such as the Assessment Intervention and Moving on (AIM) (Swann, 2009) manual and the Change for Good (McCrory, 2010) manual. This also includes a referral from the iAIM which is an assessment tool developed specifically for young perpetrators of non-contact HSB. Within the AIM and Change for Good manuals, they recommend the exploration of similar topics and provide session by session guides. This includes recommendations to explore minimisation, responsibility taking and the consequences of HSB (McCrory, 2010; Swann, 2009). However, uncertainty remains regarding the effectiveness of these manuals for young non-contact HSB perpetrators who are minimising the severity of their offending.

Referral

Client

The client was a 17 year old male, arrested aged 15, for possessing and distributing over 9000 indecent photographs of children (category A-C). Due to concerns the client was groomed, he was referred to an outpatient HSB team instead of receiving a

conviction. During the client's engagement with the team, his victimisation, which involved sending a naked photograph of himself in exchange for indecent photographs of children, was explored. This involved exploring the client's feelings towards his victimisation as well as his processing of the experience. The client also engaged in work around his motivation for offending, his sexual attraction towards children and his understanding of sexual boundaries. However, after engaging with this team for a year the client disclosed that he had continued to access indecent photographs of children. This led to a second arrest but no conviction was given as it was not considered to be in the public's interest. However, the client then stole a mobile phone from his workplace and received a nine month referral order as a result.

Reason for Referral

The HSB team raised concerns the client was minimising the severity of his HSB. This stemmed from the client dismissing the possible implications of his offending behaviour by advising the HSB team his offending caused no harm. The client also felt at ease disclosing his HSB to peers and acquaintances as he believed everyone would understand. Consequently, the client was referred to the author, a new addition to the HSB team, to explore his perceptions towards his HSB and evaluate whether an intervention was necessary. Prior to commencing work, the client read an information sheet and signed the consent form (Appendix A and B).

Assessment Phase

Although a comprehensive assessment had been completed by the HSB team, a further assessment albeit shorter, was considered important to explore the client's perceptions towards his HSB. This involved multiple assessment methods and a funnel approach to enhance the comprehensiveness of the formulation and enable the narrowing of focus (Dobson & Dobson, 2009; Persons 2012). Based on this funnel approach, a meeting with the team was held first.

HSB Team Meeting

The author met with the HSB team to enhance insight into the client and his family. During this meeting, the team's Psychologist highlighted concerns the client had developed a dismissive-avoidant attachment style with his parents due to their focus on careers and emotional detachment. The team also discussed the client being bought a mobile phone by his father to celebrate gaining bail for his HSB. This was despite multiagency agreements for the client not to possess internet accessible devices. Discussions were also held regarding the parents' perceptions that the client's HSB was exploratory behaviour, and regarding the client's intellectualisation of topics within therapeutic sessions.

File Review

A file review was completed which entailed reviewing the client's previous assessments, police interview transcripts and progress notes. This revealed concerns of low self-esteem, previous suicidal

ideation and a poor understanding of the potential impact his HSB could have on his future prospects. The reports also stated the client disclosed his HSB to a prospective girlfriend in an attempt to "prove his worth". This was in terms of proving he was an honest person who could always be trusted. In the most recent notes, the client also reported feeling distanced from his brother.

Client Interview

The client was interviewed by the author for two hours to gain insight into his perceptions towards his HSB. During the interview the client discussed his communication with online paedophiles when he was 12 years old. This involved seeking advice about his sexual attraction towards younger boys which resulted in receiving reassurance and indecent photographs of children. The client's experience of sexual victimisation and the associated work completed with the HSB team was then explored. This revealed the client to possess insight into his victimisation.

The client then discussed his distant relationship with his parents and how he felt unable to express his feelings to them when he was a young child, and now. This was due to concerns regarding his father's emotional volatility, following an acquired brain injury when the client was eight years old, and due to his mother's worrying about blurring professional boundaries as a result of her counselling profession, which she commenced when the client was nine. As a result, the client discussed dismissing his thoughts and feelings during difficult times.

When discussing the client's HSB, he advised his offending would not have caused anyone distress and believed it was not serious as the police only convicted him when he stole a mobile phone. During this discussion, the client appeared emotionally detached and made attempts to intellectualise the conversation. The client also described his HSB as exploratory behaviour.

Psychometric Assessments

Three psychometric assessments were administered to the client; the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE; Rosenberg, 1963), the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI - Davis, 1980) and the Internet Behaviours and Attitudes Questionnaire (IBAQ; O'Brien & Webster, 2007). A summary of the psychometric properties and items comprising these questionnaires, in addition to the client's score, have been summarised in Table 1.

RSE and IRI. In terms of the reasons for administration, the RSE was administered to assess the client's current level of self-esteem. This was due to the role low self-esteem can play in enhancing minimisation in perpetrators (Marshall, Marshall, Serran & O'Brien, 2009). The IRI, on the other hand, was administered to evaluate the client's ability to empathise with others and his ability to perspective take. Given the possible nature of the intervention work (i.e. considering the victims' perspective), being aware of problems with perspective taking was considered important.

IBAQ. Whilst the RSE and IRI were utilised to identify factors which might influence the client's offence-specific minimisation, the

IBAQ was utilised to inform treatment targets and to measure the presence of change if an intervention was facilitated. Specifically, the IBAQ measures attitudes relating to indecent photographs of children, which includes items measuring offence-specific minimisation. As the anticipated intervention was to explore the client's minimisation towards online sexual offending, this inventory was considered an appropriate measure. However, given the importance of the IBAQ in the assessment and evaluation of this client, the inventory was critiqued prior to its utilisation.

Critique of the IBAQ. The IBAQ is comprised of two scales; the behavioural scale (42 items which are answered yes/no) and the attitudinal scale (34 items answered using a 5-point likert scale). To develop the scale, O'Brien and Webster (2007) recruited adult online sexual offenders involved with indecent photographs of children. All participants were recruited from prisons and probation services within the UK. Whilst it appears no literature has reviewed the IBAQ, its authors facilitated a comprehensive evaluation of its reliability, validity, utility as well as its susceptibility to socially desirable responding.

In terms of the inventory's reliability, its internal consistency was measured by its authors. This revealed excellent internal consistency for the IBAQ as a whole, and excellent internal consistency for the two factors which comprise the attitude scale (distorted thinking and self-management). Specifically, the latter revealed alpha coefficients of .92 for distorted thinking and .89 for

self-management (O'Brien & Webster, 2007). Regarding the inventory's validity, similar positive findings were identified. In particular, evidence of concurrent validity was identified, as assessed by exploring whether the responses correlated with the Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (BIDR; Paulhus, 1988). The measure was also noted as having criterion validity (as assessed by correlating the IBAQ with previous conviction data), and as having discriminant validity (as assessed by identifying two distinct low/high sexual offending behaviour groups); (O'Brien & Webster, 2007).

Further analyses also revealed the inventory was not susceptible to socially desirable responding and had appropriately facilitated the factor analysis process by utilising numerous processes to identify the number of factors to extract (O'Brien & Webster, 2007). Consequently, the IBAQ was identified as being psychometrically sound with normative data from across the UK. Whilst the IBAQ was yet to be validated on young people, the HSB team felt its administration on this client was appropriate given his nearness to adulthood and above average intellectual ability. However, it is noted that the present study only aimed to utilise the attitude scale of the IBAQ (thus excluding the behavioural scale) to reflect the assessment's focus upon the client's perceptions.

Name and Purpose	Example Question	Items and Scale	Psychometric Properties, Cut-offs and norms	Outcome
RSE Global measure of self-esteem (Appendix C)	"On the whole, I am satisfied with myself".	10 items - four point Likert Scale (strongly agree to strong disagree). Higher the score, the higher the self-esteem.	Highly reliable and internally consistent (Gray-Little, Williams & Hancock, 1997). No widely accepted cut-off scores (Isomaa et al., 2012) but normative data for British 16-17 year olds suggests a mean score of 30.54 (Bagley & Mallick, 2001).	Scored 26/40. Indicates lower self-esteem than others his age.
IBAQ Measures attitudes towards indecent photographs of children*	"My life is too boring without viewing pornography"	34 items – five point Likert scale (strongly disagree - strongly agree). Higher scores reflect attitudes supportive of online sexual	Highly reliable and internally consistent (O'Brien et al., 2007). Normative data suggests the average score for perpetrators is 64/170 when completing both scales (O'Brien et al., 2007). No normative data available for the scales	Scored 64/170. Client's score is high (has lots of attitudes supportive of online HSB) as he only completed one scale and

(Appendix D)		offending.	individually.	achieved the average.
Name and Purpose	**Example Question**	**Items and Scale**	**Psychometric Properties, Cut-offs and norms**	**Outcome**
IRI Assesses empathy (Appendix E)	"I often have tender feelings for people less fortunate than me".	28 items - five-point Likert scale (does not describe me well - does describe me well). Four subscales: Fantasy (F), Perspective Taking (PT), Empathetic Concern (EC) and Personal Distress (PD).	High reliability and validity (Davis, 1980; Litvack-Miller, McDougall, Romney, 1997). Normative data for males, primarily students (F=16, PT=17, EC=19 and PD=9). Has been validated on young people too (e.g. Litvack et al., 1997).	Client scored: F=18/28 PT=27/28 EC=27/28 PD=17/28. He thus scored much higher than average on

				all except the F scale.

Table 1: A table summarising the three psychometric assessments administered to the client. * - The IBAQ also measures behaviours relating to online HSB but this part of the assessment was not administered to the client. As a result, there is no normative data to evaluate the client's responses on the IBAQ.

Results of the Psychometric Assessments

The responses on the psychometric assessments revealed the client to have lower than average self-esteem levels for his age. In contrast, the IRI identified the client to have a higher than average ability to empathise with others. This finding was supported by the client discussing his attempts to consider others' thoughts and feelings. In terms of the IBAQ, the client appeared to endorse some attitudes supportive of viewing indecent photographs of children, and appeared to also engage in some offence-specific minimisation (e.g. agreeing with item four – "the child was often smiling in the child pornography I have looked at, and so I believe that the child is not being harmed").

Due to only administering one of the IBAQ's scales (out of two), it was not possible to evaluate whether the client endorsed more/less attitudes supportive of non-contact HSB than average as no normative data was available for this single scale. Specifically, normative data was only available for the two scales (attitudes and behaviour) combined. Despite this, the client achieved a score of 64 for the attitude scale which was the equivalent average score for perpetrators who completed both scales of the IBAQ. Consequently, it seems likely the client endorsed more attitudes supportive of non-contact HSB than similar perpetrators. Following the completion of these psychometric assessments, the formulation process began.

Formulation

A formulation was developed using the '5P framework' to clarify the HSB team's understanding of the client's presenting problem and identify treatment targets (Corrie & Lane, 2010). This involved exploring the client's Presenting problem, Predisposing factors, Perpetuating factors, Precipitating factors and Protective factors (i.e. the 'five P framework' refers to exploring the five factors beginning with 'P'). Drawing from several theoretical approaches, including Attachment Theory (Ainsworth & Bell, 1970) and Finkelhor's Precondition Model (1984), the formulation was developed collaboratively with the client. A diagrammatic version of the formulation is presented in Figure 1.

Presenting Problem

The client was referred to the author due to concerns he was minimising the severity of his HSB. These concerns were supported by the assessment phase as the client foresaw few consequences of his HSB, perceived his offending as exploratory behaviour and reported no qualms disclosing his HSB to others. The client's minimisation of his offending was thus depicted as the presenting problem, rather than the client's perpetration of HSB in general. This decision also aimed to acknowledge the work the client had completed with the HSB team and the specific nature of the referral.

Predisposing Factors

At 12 years old the client communicated with online paedophiles to seek advice about his sexual attraction towards younger boys. This led to reassurances that this attraction was normal and the receipt of multiple indecent photographs of children. The client was thus introduced to normalising and minimising non-contact HSB early on. Concerns were also highlighted regarding the client's possible dismissive-avoidant attachment style. This was evidenced by the client seeking reassurance from others, such as online paedophiles, which might have arisen due to difficulties expressing his emotions to his parents. In particular, the client noted concerns regarding his father's emotional volatility and mother's professional boundaries which meant he had fewer opportunities to explore emotions with them. As a result, the client might have learned to suppress the experience and expression of emotions (Maddux & Tangney, 2010) which potentially enabled him to minimise the severity of his HSB.

Perpetuating Factors

The client's engagement in minimisation was likely maintained by multiple factors, including his parents' behaviours and perceptions. In particular, the client was gifted a mobile phone by his father to celebrate achieving bail for his HSB. This was despite multiagency agreements for the client not to possess internet accessible devices. The client's parents also described the HSB as exploratory behaviour and felt the HSB team's involvement was unnecessary. Given these perceptions were disclosed to the client, it was possible they reinforced the client's engagement in minimisation.

The client's minimisation might have also been maintained by his below average self-esteem. Specifically, individuals with dismissive-avoidant attachment styles frequently defend their self-esteem from perceived threats by dismissing or projecting onto external sources (Bennett & Nelson, 2010). Therefore, minimising the HSB might have been the client's attempt to protect his self-esteem from compromise which could have arisen from acknowledging the severity of his HSB (McCrory, 2010). The assessment phase also revealed concerns regarding the client's completion of Advanced Subsidiary (AS) Levels in Psychology and Criminology. This was due to the client's tendency to intellectualise conversations and thus the likely exacerbation of this presentation following this learning. With this intellectualisation, the client was able to emotionally detach from his HSB and continue to minimise its severity.

It was also possible the client's minimisation was maintained by his attitudes supportive of non-contact HSB. This included attitudes that non-contact HSB is harmless if the victim is depicted as smiling in indecent photographs. As a result, endorsing these attitudes likely helped the client maintain his view that his HSB was minor in terms of severity. Alternatively, the client's minimisation might have resulted from a motivation to reoffend. In particular, Finkelhor's Precondition Model (1984) suggests one step to HSB includes overcoming internal inhibitors which can be achieved through minimisation. Therefore, if the client maintains the view that his HSB causes no harm then he might feel more at ease to reoffend.

Based on this theory, the client's engagement in minimisation might thus suggest a risk of reoffending.

Precipitating Factors

The client was arrested for HSB on two occasions but only received a referral to the HSB team for assessment and treatment. However, when the client stole a mobile phone from his workplace he received a nine-month referral order to address his offending and engage in reparation. As such, it was possible the most recent response from the police triggered the client's current perspective that his HSB was not serious and caused little harm. This seemed particularly likely given the client's reports that his HSB "wasn't serious as otherwise the police would have convicted me".

Protective Factors

The client's protective factors included his compliance with professionals, his above average intellectual ability and his stable accommodation with his father. The client also had multiple close friendships who offered the client emotional support. Given the client's reported inability to discuss his emotions with his parents, these relationships appeared particularly protective due to their ability to offer the client opportunities to emotionally connect with his behaviour and discuss his emotional experiences.

Diagrammatic Formulation

Perpetuating Factors

- Parental behaviour - buying the client a phone with internet access to celebrate bail.
- Minimising might be a defence mechanism to protect self-esteem.
- Intellectualising his offending enables him to emotionally disconnect from it.
- Might have a motivation to reoffend and minimisation can help this process.
- Attitudes supportive of online offending.

Predisposing Factors

- Spoke to online paedophiles about his attraction to boys. Client was reassured and sent multiple indecent photographs of children. Attraction normalised.
- Dismissive-avoidant attachment style. Might have led the client to suppress his emotions, thus being able to minimise the severity due to not emotionally experiencing it.

Presenting Problem

Client minimising the severity of his HSB, as indicated by:

- Disclosing HSB without concerns.
- Not perceiving there to be long term consequences of his HSB for self or victims.

Protective Factors

- Engagement in therapeutic interventions.
- High intellectual ability.
- Multiple close friendships who offer support.

Precipitating Factors

- Client did not receive a conviction for his HSB but received a referral order for stealing a mobile phone from his work.

Figure 1: A diagram summarising the client's formulation

Proposed Intervention

Intervention Goal and Duration

The assessment and formulation process revealed concerns the client was minimising the severity of his HSB. The author thus recommended the client engaged in an intervention to reduce this minimisation. This was due to the suggested link between offence-specific minimisation and sexual recidivism in sexual offenders (e.g. Langton, Barbaree, Harkins, Arenovich & McNamee, 2008). Given the client's imminent discharge from CAMHS in seven weeks time, due to his nearness to adulthood, six one-hour sessions were recommended for completion on an individual basis. No group work was advised due to this approach potentially instigating feelings of shame which can enhance minimisation (Proeve & Howell, 2002; Worling, Josefowitz & Maltar, 2011).

Intervention Development

To reduce the client's offence-specific minimisation, an intervention which explored the client's attitudes towards online sexual offending was considered necessary. This was due to literature proposing attitudes to produce surface cognitions, such as offence-specific minimisation (Mann, Webster, Wakeling & Marshall, 2007). For example, if an individual endorses the attitude that online sexual offending causes no harm to victims, this will likely produce surface cognitions (i.e. offence-specific minimisation) that their own online sexual offending was harmless as they did not touch the child.

Therefore, exploring attitudes and offence-specific minimisation was considered necessary.

To achieve this, the intervention was adapted from two manuals; Change for Good (McCrory, 2010) and AIM (Swann, 2009). These professional manuals were developed for use with HSB perpetrators aged 12-18 years. Both manuals offer descriptive session guidelines to explore HSB with an overarching aim to reduce reoffending risk. The manuals similarly involve topics such as, relationships, taking the victim's perspective, consequences of HSB, minimisation, responsibility taking, sexual boundaries and victimisation. Underpinning these manuals are various theoretical models, including behavioural therapy, mentalisation and psychodynamic psychotherapy (McCrory, 2010).

To reflect the client's needs, and to reduce the presence of minimisation, the manuals' sessions were thoroughly reviewed to identify which could be utilised to achieve the intervention's aim. This process involved identifying sessions which aimed to explore attitudes towards online sexual offending as well as minimisation and its associated factors (e.g. responsibility taking and consequences of HSB). Once sessions were identified from the manuals, their utility was explored and session content combined to reflect the client's intellectual ability and limited available time. Adaptations were also made to the session content to acknowledge the client's online sexual offending and number of victims. This was due to manuals primarily targeting contact HSB involving one

victim. Aspects from a resilience based approach were also incorporated. This was to avoid an entirely risk-based intervention, and to acknowledge the possible compromise on the client's self-esteem this intervention could cause (McCrory, 2010). The session plan has been summarised in Figure 2.

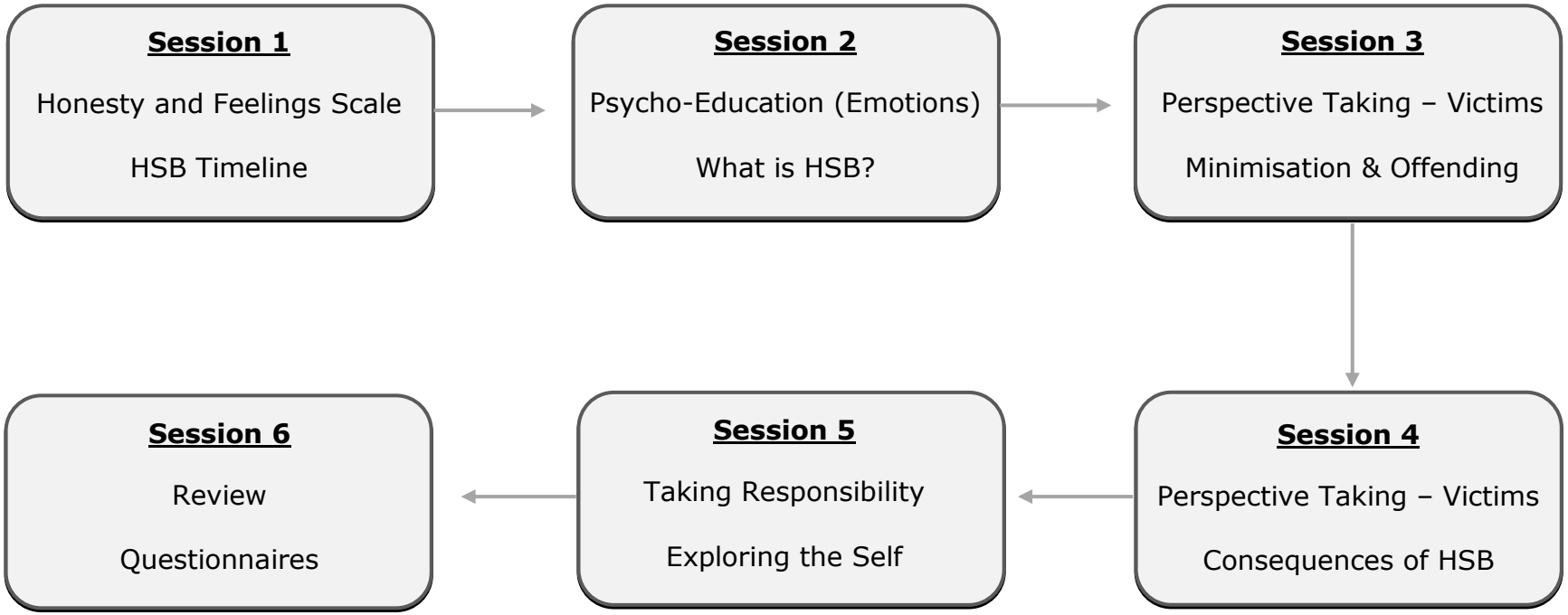


Figure 2: The client's intervention plan

Potential Treatment Obstacles

Based on the formulation, two potential obstacles to treatment were identified. The first related to the client's engagement in sessions. Specifically, concerns were raised regarding the client's history of deceiving professionals, his tendency to intellectualise topics and his emotional detachment. As a result, a simple one-item scale was created for the client based on Swann's (2009) recommendations. This scale ranged from zero to ten, with zero referring to, "intellectualising and being dishonest" and ten referring to "being honest and considering my own feelings". During sessions, the scale served as a visual prompt for the client to reflect upon his honesty and openness within sessions; see Figure 3. This would involve exploring with the client where he felt he currently was on the scale whilst discussing a particular topic. Due to the compromise deceit can have on therapeutic interventions (Kottler, 2010), the scale was utilised within all sessions. This involved printing on an A4 sheet of paper and in central view during each session.

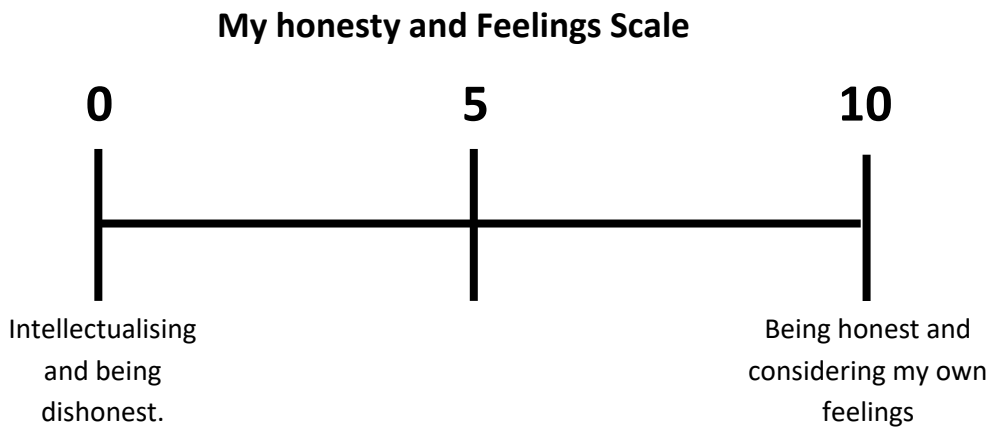


Figure 3. The honesty and feelings scale.

The second obstacle related to the possibility of the client's level of self-esteem reducing if he began to recognise the severity of his HSB (McCrory, 2010). If this occurred, it was possible the client would disengage from the sessions. To reduce the likelihood of this obstacle, each session was concluded with discussions about the client's future aspirations and plans. This aimed to enhance the client's positive view of self. Significant emphasis was also placed upon helping the client recognise that accepting responsibility and/or acknowledging the severity of his HSB does not mean the client is a bad person; methods advised by McCrory (2010). The client was also encouraged to communicate any feelings of distress to ensure he was supported at all times.

Intervention

Session One

The first session aimed to encourage the client to consider his thoughts and feelings towards his HSB. To facilitate this, the honesty and feelings scale was introduced and developed with the client. This collaborative approach was adopted within the session to enhance therapeutic rapport and engage the client in his own therapy (Leach, 2005). A timeline of the client's HSB was then developed with focus placed upon helping the client consider his thoughts and feelings towards his offending. To conclude the first session, the client's aspirations for university were discussed and appropriate humour adopted to reduce tension and enhance therapeutic rapport (Franzini, 2000).

Session Two

The second session aimed to explore and enhance the client's understanding of HSB. This involved discussing the various forms of HSB and its criminality. Psycho-educational work on emotions was then facilitated as whilst the client possessed technical knowledge on emotions, he knew little about their physical symptoms and how he experiences them. The client's emotional experiences were then discussed at length to prepare the client for the forthcoming sessions. To conclude the session, the client's close friendships were discussed with regards to the emotional support they provide the client and how he experiences this.

Session Three

The third session aimed to facilitate the client's engagement in perspective taking and enhance his insight into minimisation. This commenced by exploring the client's perspective taking during his HSB of which the client disclosed ignoring his victims' thoughts and feelings during offending. The client was then encouraged to consider how he currently perceived his victims, as recommended by McCrory (2010). For this process, the client's responses on the IRI were explored to highlight his self-reported engagement in perspective taking. When comparing the client's engagement in perspective taking during offending and in the present, the client felt unable to remain in the room. Upon return, the client discussed concerns that ignoring his victims' thoughts and feelings helped him dismiss the impact of his offending which made it easier for him to

continue perpetrating HSB. The session concluded by discussing the client's plans for the week and acknowledging the client's session engagement.

Session Four

The fourth session aimed to enhance the client's understanding of the possible consequences of HSB and its severity. Prior to its facilitation, the session's plan was discussed with the HSB team to explore its suitability given the client's victimisation and his difficulties in the previous session. Whilst this discussion identified a need to review last week's work, the team felt his experience of victimisation had been thoroughly explored and was likely to assist the client's engagement in the planned work. The session thus commenced with a review of last week's session to assist the identification of therapeutic alliance problems or issues with session content (Hughes, Herron & Younge, 2014). The client disclosed no particular concerns but felt the last session was hard due to giving up smoking that day.

Following this exploration, the client was encouraged to consider the possible consequences of HSB for his victims. This was achieved by encouraging the client to think how a victim's life would be in five and ten years time if they had, and had not been, a victim of HSB. A similar process was then completed to help the client recognise the possible consequences for himself if he did and did not reoffend. To facilitate the client's emotional connection to the topic, the thoughts and feelings scale was particularly utilised. The session

concluded by discussing the client's recent employment and his engagement in the job searching process.

Session Five

The fifth session aimed to explore the client's responsibility taking. Whilst the client reported feeling responsible for his HSB, he attributed a significant proportion of responsibility to the distributors and creators of the indecent photographs of children. However, after in-depth exploration the client began to accept full responsibility for his HSB. The possible impact of accepting responsibility was then discussed which involved exploring the idea that taking responsibility does not mean an individual is "all bad"; a process recommended by McCrory (2010). To conclude the session we discussed the client's engagement in sessions, his enhanced emotional connection to his HSB and his ability to develop insight.

Session Six

The aim of the final session was to review the work completed, complete a risk management plan and assess the client's engagement in minimising the severity of his offending. To facilitate this, each session was reviewed to establish what the client learned and whether any difficulties were experienced. A risk management plan for the client's mobile phone use was then developed. Whilst this was not in the intervention plan, the HSB team were advised a few days prior to this session that the client had again been given unrestricted access to his mobile phone; a decision made by the client's father without consulting the multiagency team. This raised

concerns as the client disclosed having no identified strategies to keep safe when feeling at risk of viewing indecent photographs of children. A keep safe plan was thus developed. The client then recompleted two of the psychometric assessments; the RSE and the IBAQ.

Future Client Work

The intervention aimed to reduce the client's engagement in minimising the severity of his HSB. However, during this process multiple areas for future work were identified and communicated to the HSB team. This included recommendations for the client to continue learning about his emotional experiences and becoming more adept with exploring his emotions with trusted others. It was also recommended that future work regarding the client's discharge from CAMHS should be completed within a systemic approach, as recommended by Bentovim (2004). In particular, it was advised that family work was completed to enhance insight into how parental behaviours and perceptions can impact upon a young person. This was deemed particularly important given the role parental attitudes can play in adolescent sexual recidivism (Worling & Curwen, 2001). Familial work around maintaining boundaries and working alongside professional agencies was thus recommended.

Results

Psychometric Assessments

As discussed in the previous section, the client recompleted two of the psychometric assessments; the RSE and the IBAQ. The RSE was re-administered to evaluate whether changes in the client's self-esteem levels occurred following the intervention which might have arisen due to the client potentially gaining insight into the severity of his HSB (McCrory, 2010). This process of reassessment was thus adopted to identify any further therapeutic needs. The IBAQ, on the other hand, was re-administered to assess whether the client's endorsement of attitudes supportive of online sexual offending (and offence-specific minimisation) had altered following the intervention. The latter reassessment thus aimed to gain insight into the effectiveness of the intervention.

The results of the psychometric assessments, summarised in Figure 3, revealed an increase of two points in the client's self-esteem levels following the intervention. Although an evident increase, the client's level of self-esteem remained in the below average range when compared with similar aged peers. In terms of the IBAQ, the client's score increased by six points which indicates that following the intervention, the client endorsed more and/or stronger attitudes that were supportive of online sexual offending. The client's overall score on the IBAQ thus remained relatively high.

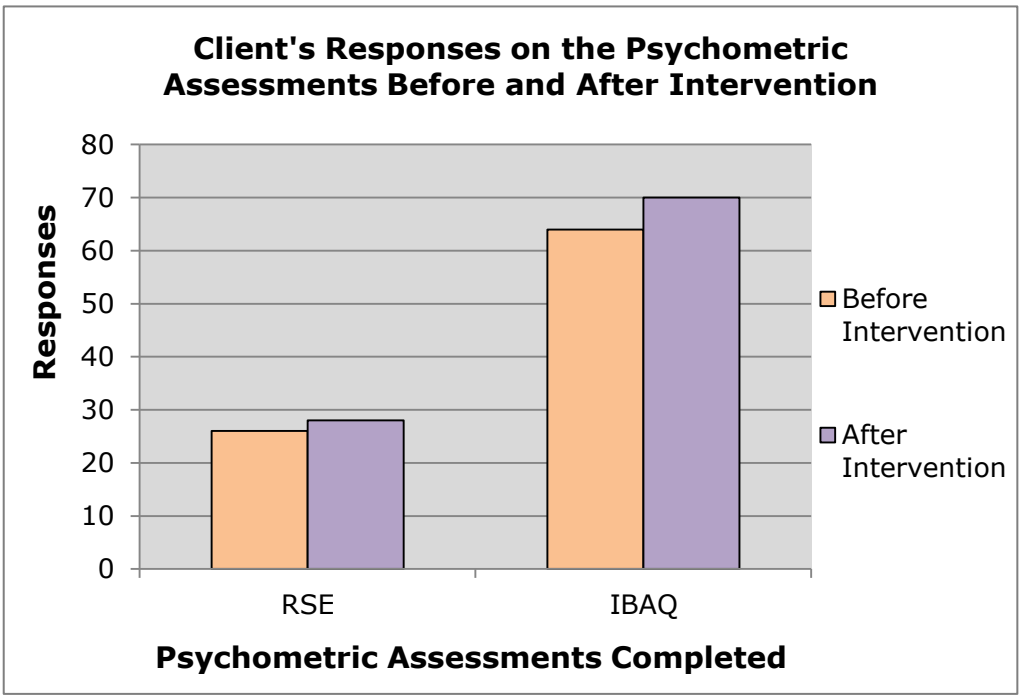


Figure 4: The client's responses on the RSE and IBAQ

Discussion with the Client

During the recompletion of the psychometric assessments, the client advised that he found them pointless and said that most people respond to questionnaires with any answer, including him. As a result, a discussion was held with the client to gain some insight into his current perceptions towards his HSB. This was with the aim of gaining a more reliable measure of whether the client was engaging in less minimisation following the intervention. The discussion appeared to reveal some evidence of reduced minimisation. In particular, the client discussed how his HSB might limit his career opportunities and cause some difficulties when attempting to develop intimate relationships in the future. The client also discussed a desire to have his own children but felt this was

currently inappropriate due to the risk he felt he could pose to them.

In terms of his victims, the client reported recognising that he used to ignore his victims' thoughts and feelings during the perpetration of HSB. Specifically, he felt this enabled him to continue offending due to experiencing a lack of guilt or concern. In comparison, the client reported that he now has the victims' thoughts and feelings in the forefront of his mind which helps prevent him from reoffending. Towards the end of the discussion, the client also discussed feeling more in control of his life and believed he knew what to do if he felt at risk of viewing indecent photographs of children.

Discussion

Interventions for Minimising HSB

HSB refers to contact and non-contact harmful sexual activity. Despite the differences between these categories of HSB, there remains no intervention manual specifically developed for young perpetrators of non-contact HSB. Instead, professionals are referred to two manuals which purport to explore HSB as a whole; the AIM and Change for Good (McCrory, 2010; Swann, 2009). These manuals similarly advise professionals to explore minimisation and to adapt sessions to the client's offending behaviour. However, their effectiveness for reducing minimisation in a young perpetrator of non-contact HSB remains unknown.

The aim of the present study was to reduce the presence of offence-specific minimisation in a 17 year old perpetrator of non-contact HSB. To achieve this, a six-session intervention was completed which involved exploring topics such as, responsibility, minimisation and perspective taking. To evaluate the intervention's effectiveness, the IBAQ was administered before and after the intervention. This revealed no evidence of the client engaging in less minimisation. However, given the client's negative attitude towards psychometric assessments, a discussion was held with the client. This revealed some evidence the client was minimising his offending to a lesser extent. In particular, the client revealed an enhanced understanding into the possible consequences of his HSB and a greater understanding into the impact minimising his victims' thoughts and feelings might have had on his offending behaviour. As a result, the effectiveness of the intervention remains.

Practice, Ethical and Theoretical Issues

Multiple practice and ethical issues were experienced during the completion of work with this client. This included concerns regarding the accuracy of responses on the psychometric assessments. Specifically, after re-completing the RSE and IBAQ the client discussed his dislike for psychometric assessments and described them as "pointless tick box exercises". This was compared to in-session discussions which the client felt were "more real and honest". As a result, it was possible the responses on the psychometric assessments were affected by disinterest and

inattention. Future practice with clients might thus involve an exploration of the client's attitudes towards psychometric assessments to evaluate the appropriateness of their utility.

The client's engagement in the assessment and intervention process might have also been affected by his imminent discharge from CAMHS. Specifically, the client was aware that he would be discharged from the services in a matter of months as a result of his age. This was regardless of his engagement in the presented work. With this in mind, it was possible the client did not fully engage in the process as he might have failed to recognise the reason to do so. This concern was supported by discussions with the client as he advised he was simply counting down the sessions until he could "return to normal". Future sessions with clients might thus establish their motivation to engage prior to commencing work.

Ethical issues also arose when working with this client. This included concerns relating to the consent process as the client reported a keen interest in working with professionals specialising in Forensic Psychology. As a result, the client was advised that the author would work with him regardless of whether he consented for his work to be used in the research thesis. Ethical practice was thus maintained by ensuring the client's consent was informed. Particular attention was also paid to maintain an anti-discriminatory stance within sessions. This seemed particularly important given the client's dismissive and minimising nature regarding his HSB.

In terms of theoretical issues, the sessions completed within this case study were adapted from the Change for Good and AIM manuals. However, these manuals primarily targeted perpetrators of contact HSB involving one victim. As a result, the sessions required significant adaptations to accommodate the client's online offending and many victims. Whilst this adaptation encouraged a client-centred approach to therapy, it raised some concerns as to how much the sessions differed compared to the manuals' recommendations.

Future Research

Following the work with this client, it is recommended that further research is conducted to explore the effectiveness of the AIM and Change for Good manuals for reducing minimisation in non-contact HSB perpetrators. This could be achieved through further case study work with attention paid to evaluating the utility of psychometric assessments. It is also advised that further work is conducted to improve the utility of the intervention manuals for 16-18 year old non-contact HSB perpetrators. In particular, the manuals appear to target the lower age range, due to their simplistic session content, and appear to primarily discuss contact HSB cases. Whilst revisions could be made to the current manuals, the value of developing a separate manual could be explored.

Summary

Overall, the present study was unable to firmly conclude whether the intervention, which aimed to reduce minimisation in a young

non-contact HSB perpetrator, was effective. Despite these uncertain findings, the present study highlighted the importance of adapting sessions to a client's needs and establishing their perceptions towards assessment methods prior to completing work. The importance of conducting further research into young perpetrators of non-contact HSB was also implicated.

End of Chapter Four

Research Thesis Discussion

Investigating Perceptions of Child Sexual Abuse

Investigating Perceptions of CSA

Aims and Overview of Findings

The presented research thesis aimed to investigate perceptions of CSA, particularly the perceptions held by the public and CSA perpetrators. This was due to the apparent impact perceptions can have on victim wellbeing and sexual recidivism (e.g. Beech et al., 2002; Bornstein et al., 2007). To achieve this aim, a multifaceted approach was adopted which involved the completion of a systematic literature review, empirical research project, psychometric critique and a research case study. These elements of research were presented in the above four chapters and were completed between 2014 and 2016.

The completion of this research thesis revealed multiple findings. Firstly, chapter one, which was the systematic literature review, identified respondent gender as a factor which influences English perceptions of CSA. Specifically, males were identified as perceiving CSA victims more negatively than females. Additional tentative conclusions were also made whereby the victim's age, victim resistance, victim sexual orientation and victim-perpetrator relationship were suggestive of influencing perceptions. In terms of chapter two, the empirical research project identified a victim's abuse history, victim-perpetrator relationship and a perpetrator's gender as being uninfluential on British perceptions of CSA. In contrast, respondent gender was once again identified as an

influential factor with males being less pro-victim compared to females.

For chapter three, a critique of the GBAI-R was completed. This revealed evidence of the inventory being psychometrically sound and highlighted the inventory's ease of administration. However, some concerns were noted regarding the representativeness of the inventory's normative data and its possible susceptibility to extreme scores. As a result, it was concluded that the GBAI-R is an effective tool to measure perpetrators' blame attributions but that caution should be applied when evaluating whether these attributions differ from the norm. Finally, the fourth chapter comprised a case study which depicted a 17 year male perpetrator of non-contact HSB. Due to conflicting findings, this study was unable to conclude whether a short-term intervention effectively reduced the client's engagement in offence-specific minimisation.

Implications for Theory

The presented thesis has various implications for theory, research and practice. In terms of its theoretical implications, the presented study has further explored the role of blame and responsibility in the public's perceptions. Specifically, Shaver (1985) is widely cited within the literature as depicting blame and responsibility as distinct concepts. This has involved suggesting that responsibility assumes the presence of causality and controllability whilst blame assumes responsibility and a victim's/perpetrator's inability to justify what happened. Despite this frequent citation, this thesis has found no

evidence that the public distinguishes between blame and responsibility. Instead, these two concepts are often combined following factors analyses under the term culpability.

Consequently, this thesis might suggest the public do not differentiate between these two concepts which raise the question of whether they should be measured as separate items. Future research might thus explore conducting analyses without one of the items (i.e. no item measuring responsibility) in questionnaires. Alternatively, future research could facilitate qualitative interviews with the public to gain their views on blame and responsibility. If this again reveals a lack of distinction, then a stronger conclusion can be made regarding how the public perceives these concepts.

Further theoretical implications resulting from this thesis are also evident. In particular, current literature reports uncertainty regarding the role that offence-specific minimisation plays in sexual offending (Maruna & Mann, 2006). For example, whether it occurs after the offence to alleviate feelings of guilt and remorse, or whether it is occurs prior to the offence to eliminate internal inhibitions. When exploring minimisation with the client presented in chapter four, it appeared his engagement in minimisation occurred both before and after his offending. This is based on the client's disclosure of how ignoring his victims' thoughts and feelings enabled him to continue reoffending as he did not experience feelings of guilt and/or remorse. Whilst a case-study (and thus reduced ability to develop firm conclusions), this thesis may thus implicate the role

of offence-specific minimisation as a method to reduce the presence of internal inhibitions before perpetration and to reduce the presence of negative emotions following the offence.

Implications for Research

This thesis also has various implications for research, many of which have been discussed within each chapter. However, some particularly important implications were noted. This includes the importance of exploring the appropriateness of all-male juries when a case of CSA is under deliberation within the UK. Specifically, chapter one and two's finding that male public members are less pro-victim compared to females might have implications for the outcomes of CSA trials. This could include the credibility of CSA victims being questioned when the jury is all-male.

Whilst previous research has identified female jurors as more pro-victim compared to male jurors (e.g. Quas, Bottoms, Haegerich & Nysse-Carris, 2002), more research is recommended to gain further insight into juror perceptions. This could entail jury simulation methods whereby jury eligible citizens are recruited (Wiener, Krauss & Lieberman, 2011). Once enough research is facilitated, a systematic literature review could then be completed to identify best practice (i.e. whether juries should always comprise males and females).

The conclusions identified within this thesis also highlight the importance of gaining more insight into the perceptions held by

male and female members of the public. In particular, research is recommended to thoroughly explore how members of the public perceive victims and perpetrators of CSA. This could involve participants reading a vignette of CSA and rating their agreement to statements, such as "I agree the victim was blameless", followed by explaining the reasoning for their judgement (e.g. "The victim was too young to be aware of what was happening"). Comparisons could then be made between males and females. To acknowledge the sensitive nature of this topic and maintain anonymity, it is advised an online approach is adopted again rather than a face to face approach. The completion of this research could then inform the need for awareness campaigns.

As a final point regarding research implications, it is advised that further research is conducted to explore whether respondent gender also influences professionals' perceptions of CSA (e.g. Police Officers and Psychologists). Whilst some research has been conducted and identified Police Officers to endorse the least pro-victim attitudes of CSA, compared to the public and other professionals (Higgins & Ireland, 2009), further research is needed. This is considered particularly important given that 73% of the English and Welsh police workforce are male (GOV, 2013). Therefore, it is queried whether services which have professional contact with victims (e.g. NSPCC, police) have varied outcomes depending on the gender of the professional.

Practical Implications

The conducted research also has some implications for practice. This primarily relates to concerns regarding the suitability of the Change for Good and AIM manuals for 16-18 year old perpetrators of non-contact HSB. Specifically, whilst both manuals were developed for 12-18 year old perpetrators of HSB, their content appears too simplistic for the older adolescents. This was in terms of the session content, images used and the tasks recommended; all of which could be perceived as puerile. The proposed sessions also primarily targeted contact HSB with little acknowledgement given to non-contact offending. Whilst the authors recommended adapting the sessions to meet the needs of the client's cognitive abilities and offending, the likely adaptations for certain clients will be significant.

Given the importance of facilitating best practice with appropriate materials, it is recommended the utility of a separate intervention manual for 16-18 year old non-contact HSB perpetrators is explored. This could involve liaising with professionals who have experience of using these manuals, and the authors themselves, to gain insight into their experiences and perspectives. Feedback from clients who have engaged in work from the manuals could also be gathered. A decision can then be made regarding the appropriateness of developing an additional manual for older adolescents of non-contact HSB. In the meantime, it is advised that session content continues to be significantly adapted for older adolescents who have perpetrated non-contact HSB.

Limitations

The present research thesis is not free from limitations. Whilst some of these limitations have been explored in their respective chapters, this section aims to explore the primary concerns further and identify methods to overcome these in future research. To facilitate this section, the primary limitation of each chapter is discussed, beginning with chapter one.

Chapter one. In chapter one, the inclusion criteria for the review were discussed in terms of their restrictiveness. Specifically, aiming to only investigate English and Welsh perceptions following the implementation of the Sexual Offences Act (2003) significantly restricted study inclusion, so much so, that the included studies were all from one research team within England. This may mean the review is limited in generalisability as this research team primarily recruited participants from particular towns in the UK, such as Bolton.

Whilst the rationale behind the narrow search parameters was to facilitate a review reflective of current perceptions based on current legislation, questions remain regarding whether this restriction was necessary. On reflection, a less restrictive approach could have been utilised. Specifically, it may have been beneficial to remove the criteria relating to the Sexual Offences Act 2003 (i.e. that studies are only included if participants were recruited following the implementation of this act) and add an alternative restriction. This could be that studies were only included if their CSA scenarios

depicted a case reflective of current legislation based on the Sexual Offences Act (2003). Implementing this change could thus enable the inclusion of more studies whilst ensuring that perceptions were still measured based on current legislation.

Chapter two. In terms of chapter two, the most significant limitation related to the opportunistic sampling method adopted. Specifically, the study was advertised on the author's social media websites, and emailed to course and work colleagues. Given this method, it is likely that a significant proportion of participants were friends, family, colleagues and acquaintances. The limitations of this are potentially two-fold. Firstly, as participants were likely known to the author, it is possible they answered in a favourable manner and thus depicted their views as pro-victim. And secondly, due to the majority of the author's friends and colleagues being female, this potentially created the largely female sample. When reflecting on these two factors combined, and the acknowledgement that female respondents are more pro-victim, it is likely they contributed towards the largely pro-victim stance and thus the lack of significant findings.

As a result, whilst this study aimed to provide a sample representative of British perceptions, it seems likely that this aim was not met. Specifically, the conclusions developed within this study may only reflect the perceptions of those within the author's social circle. Future research in this field should thus explore the utility of employing Research Assistants who could recruit

participants from across the UK (i.e. England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland). Utilising this approach could also enable the recruitment of a more balanced sample in terms of gender.

Chapter three. For chapter three, which was the critique of the GBAI-R, the most significant limitation relates to its limited comprehensiveness. This resulted from the evident lack of research on the GBAI-R, and the recognition that of the research which had been conducted, it had primarily involved translated versions of the inventory. Therefore, only provisional conclusions could be made regarding the GABI-R's utility. Future research is thus warranted to facilitate a more comprehensive critique on the English version of the GBAI-R. This should involve a more thorough evaluation of the inventory's factor structure, reliability, validity and an investigation into the inventory's normative data.

Chapter four. Finally, chapter four comprised the case study which was primarily limited by external time restrictions. In particular, once the intervention stage was reached, the client's discharge date was set for seven weeks time. This restriction appeared to impact upon the intervention in two ways; session content, client engagement and the client's perceptions. Regarding the former, the limited time available reduced the ability for planned topics to be explored thoroughly. Instead, some sessions were likely overloaded with content which may have removed attention from exploration and natural discussion. In terms of the client's engagement, the imminent discharge may have reduced the client's

motivation to engage due to recognising that regardless of how he engages within sessions, he will still be discharged. This hypothesis is supported by the client's reports that he was counting down the sessions until he could "return to normal".

It is also possible that the limited timeframe may have perpetuated the client's offence-specific minimisation. Specifically, the client may have interpreted this implemented restriction as a message that the minimisation work is not particularly important as clinical need was overridden by service protocol. Given this, the client may feel this supports his view that his offending was not of a significant severity, thus perpetuating his offence-specific minimisation. Future research in this area could utilise a case whereby imminent discharge is not under discussion and/or planned.

Summary

Overall, this research thesis aimed to investigate perceptions of CSA, particularly the perceptions held by the public and CSA perpetrators. This involved the completion of a systematic literature review, empirical research project, psychometric critique and research case study. Whilst the chapters are not free from limitations, they highlight multiple implications for research, theory and practice. Once further research is conducted within this field, it is hoped that further insight and knowledge is developed into perceptions of CSA. This is with the ultimate aim of ensuring all victims and perpetrators of CSA receive the appropriate care and support.

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Investigating Perceptions of Child Sexual Abuse

Research Thesis Appendices

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Chapter One

A systematic literature review: Which factors influence English perceptions towards child sexual abuse victims?

Appendices

Appendix A – Search Syntax for Each Source

Database	Syntax & Search Fields
ASSIA	Search syntax described above used in three searches (title, abstract and identifier). The fourth search involved subject heading search for child and adolescent sexual abuse which was combined with the other two rows of syntax: su.Exact("sexually abused children" OR "sexually abused adolescent boys" OR "sexually abused adolescents" OR "child sexual abuse" OR "childhood sexual abuse" OR "sexually abused adolescent girls") AND if((Blame OR opinion OR responsibility* OR attribution* OR credibility OR judgement OR perception* OR view*)) AND if((Victim* OR perpetrator* OR offender*)). All searches were limited to the dates 2005+.
Web of Science	Search syntax described above used in two searches (title and topic). Both searches were restricted to publications 2005+.
Scopus	Search syntax described above used in three searches (title, topic and abstract). All searches were restricted to publications 2005+.
MEDLINE	Search syntax described above used in three searches (title, identifier and abstract). The fourth search involved subject heading search for child and adolescent sexual abuse – there were no subject headings for adolescent sexual abuse: Exact("child abuse, sexual" OR "child sexual abuse" OR "childhood sexual abuse"). This was combined (using AND) with the additional two rows of syntax which were searched using the identifier field.

PsycINFO (OVID)	Search syntax described above used in three searches (title, abstract and keyword). The fourth search involved mapping child and adolescent sexual abuse onto subject heading which was combined with the other two rows of syntax (searched within keyword). All searches were restricted to publications 2005+.
PsycARTICLES (OVID)	Search syntax described above used in three searches (title, abstract and keyword). The fourth search involved mapping child and adolescent sexual abuse onto subject heading which was combined with the other two rows of syntax (searched within keyword). All searches were restricted to publications 2005+.
EMBASE (OVID)	Search syntax described above used in two searches (title and keyword). In the third search child sexual abuse was mapped onto subject heading (no subject heading to adolescent sexual abuse). The syntax was: child sexual abuse.mp. or child sexual abuse/. This was combined (using AND) to the additional two rows of syntax described above.
Sociological Abstract	Search syntax described above used in three searches (title, identifier and abstract). A fourth search then entailed mapping child sexual abuse onto subject headings (no subjects available for adolescent sexual abuse) - su.Exact("child sexual abuse" OR "childhood sexual abuse"). This was then combined with the other two rows of syntax (searched within identifier).
ProQuest	Search syntax described above used in three searches (title, identifier and abstract). A fourth search entailed mapping child sexual abuse onto subject headings (no subject available for adolescent sexual abuse) - Exact("child abuse, sexual" OR "child sexual abuse"). This was then combined with the other two rows of syntax (searched within identifier).
COCHRANE	Search syntax described above used in three searches (title, keywords and abstract). All searches were

Library	restricted to 2005+.
BASE	The search syntax was modified for the BASE database - ("Child sexual abus*" "child sex* assault" child molest*" "adolescen* sexual abus*" "adolescen* molest" "adolescen* sex* assault" "rape and minor") AND (Blame opinion responsibilit* "attribution* credibility judgement perception* view*) AND (Victim* perpetrator* offender*). Another search was conducted whereby child sexual abuse was mapped on a subject heading and the combined with the additional syntax under the title field.
CORDIS	Search was modified by removing truncation - (Child sexual abuse or child sexual assault or child molestation or adolescent sexual abuse or adolescent molest or adolescent sexual assault or rape and minor) and (Blame or opinion or responsibility or attribution or credibility or judgement or perception or view) and (Victim or perpetrator or offender).
Google Scholar	Search was significantly modified to reflect the Google Scholar search process. The entire search syntax was not possible to be searched and a consequence the syntax was simplified: (Child sexual abus*or adolescen* sexual abus*) AND (Blame or responsibilit* or attribution* or perception*).
ProQuest Grey Lit	Search syntax described above used in three searches (title, identifier and abstract). A fourth search entailed mapping child sexual abuse onto subject headings (no subject available for adolescent sexual abuse) - Exact("child abuse, sexual" OR "child sexual abuse"). This was then combined with the other two rows of syntax (searched within identifier).
British Library	Search syntax was used as above. Three searches conducted in the title, subject and abstract fields. All searches were restricted to 2005+.

ProQuest Diss & Theses	Search syntax described above used in three searches (title, identifier and abstract). A fourth search entailed mapping child sexual abuse onto subject headings (no subject available for adolescent sexual abuse) - Exact("child abuse, sexual" OR "child sexual abuse"). This was then combined with the other two rows of syntax (searched within identifier).

Appendix B – Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

	Inclusion Criteria	Exclusion Criteria
Population	✓ Public (including students, professionals). ✓ Individuals recruited from England and Wales. ✓ Male, females and other genders. ✓ Participants of any age.	✓ A sample which has been recruited from outside England and Wales. ✓ A sample which has been recruited from Scotland (different legislation from England and Wales).
Exposure	✓ Victims of all gender and aged 17 and below. ✓ Sex offenders of all ages and genders. ✓ All types of sexual offences. ✓ Investigating the impact of a variable(s).	✓ Studies which have not investigated a particular variable (e.g. victim age). ✓ Studies which have investigated perceptions towards adult sexual offence victims e.g. victims aged above 18 years.
Outcome	✓ Measuring participants' perceptions towards the victim.	✓ Studies that do not investigate perceptions towards the victim e.g. studies which investigate perceptions of assault severity.
Language	✓ All languages.	✓ No restrictions.
Date of Publication	✓ 2005+ to acknowledge the introduction of the Sexual Offences Act (2003). ✓ If published 2005+, must have recruited participants after May 2004.	✓ Studies published before 2005 ✓ Studies which state that their data was collected before May 2004.
Study Type	✓ Quantitative and Qualitative studies.	✓ No restrictions.

Appendix C – Quality Assessment Tool

Question	Y	P	N	N/A	...
Study Title:					
Sample					
Was the sample obtained appropriately? M					
Was the sample specified? L					
Was response rate specified? L					
Was the sample representative of population aimed at? M					
Were explanations given for any excluded participants? L					
Were inclusion criteria pre-specified? L					
Any evidence of sampling bias?* M					
Design					
Were the aims and objectives clearly defined? L					
Was the design appropriate to the aims and objectives? M					
Were the independent variables clearly defined? M					
Were the outcome variables defined and reliable? H					
Were the participants assessed in a consistent manner? M					
Was missing data, if any, addressed? L					
Study Conduct					
Did any untoward events occur during the study?* H					
Was there any evidence of experimenter bias?* M					
Was the method the study carried out clearly explained? L					
Was there any evidence of measurement bias?* M					
Was there any evidence of procedural bias?* M					
Statistical Analyses					
Was the statistical procedure(s) outlined clearly? L					
Were the statistical methods described? L					
Were the statistical analyses performed correctly? H					
Was power stated and if so was it high enough? L					
Findings					
Are all findings reported? L					
Can the results be generalised? L					
Were the limitations of the study discussed? L					
Summary of overall findings given? L					

Key

* = Reverse scores; L, M, H = low, medium or high relevance.

Appendix D – Data Extraction Form

Author(s) & Date	Sampling Method & Geographic Location	Sample Characteristics	Independent Variables (IV's)	Consistent Variable(s)	Dependent Variable(s) & Factors following Principle Component Analysis	Results	Key Findings

Appendix E – Search Overview

Source Type	Source Name	Date of Search	Time of Search	Total Articles	After Duplicate Deletion	After Title Screening	After Title & Abstract Screening	After Full Text
Electronic Bibliographic Database	ASSIA	26/07/15	12:30	956	842	9	3	1
	WoS*	26/07/15	13:30	556	507	18	7	2
	Scopus	26/07/15	14:00	11	8	0	0	0
	MEDINE	26/07/15	14:30	286	167	10	4	0
	PsycINFO	26 & 27/07/15	15/16:00	428	305	16	5	1
	PsycARTICLES	26/07/15	16:00	11	4	0	0	0
	EMBASE	26/07/15	17:30	100	29	1	1	0
	Sociological Abstracts	26/07/15	16:30	201	9	0	0	0
	ProQuest	26/07/15	19:00	1071	639	5	4	0
Gateways	COCHRANE	26/07/15	20:00	0	0	0	0	0
Grey Literature	BASE	27/07/15	15:00	4	3	0	0	0
	CORDIS	27/07/15	16:00	22	22	0	0	0
	Google Scholar	26/07/15	20:30	100	91	1	1	0
	ProQuest Grey Lit	27/07/15	17:00	198	3	0	0	0
	British Library	27/07/15	17:45	194	31	6	1	0
	ProQuest Diss & Theses	27/07/15	18:30	5	0	0	0	0
Hand Searching	Child Abuse and Neglect	28/07/15	17:30	0	0	0	0	0
	JoCSA*	28/07/15	18:00	8	8	0	0	0
	JoIV**	28/07/15	18:30	5	2	1	1	0
	References Lists	26 & 27/07/15	19/20:00	14	3	3	2	0
Contact with Experts	Dr Rogers	15/07/15	14:18	0	0	0	0	0
	Dr Lowe (Davies)	15/07/15	14:21	12	8	8	8	7
Note: *JoCSA refers to Journal of Child Sexual Abuse & **JoIV refers to Journal of Interpersonal Violence.				**4182**	**2681**	**78**	**37**	**11**
				1501 duplicates removed		**2644 irrelevant publications excluded**		**26 excluded**

Appendix F – Excluded Studies

Study	Reason for Exclusion	Excluded From
Bornstein, Kaplan and Andrea (2007)	Participants were American Citizens.	ASSIA
Bottoms et al. (2014)	Participants were American Citizens.	MEDLINE
Castelli, Goodman and Ghetti (2005)	Participants were American Citizens.	Web of Science
Collings (2006)	Participants were American Citizens.	ProQuest
Cooper (2012)	Participants were American Citizens.	PsycINFO
Cromer (2006)	Participants were American Citizens.	Google Scholar
Damon, Angelone, Kohlberg and Hirschman (2009).	Victim was an adult.	JoIV
Davies, Pollard and Archer (2006).	Victim was an adult.	References Lists
Davies, Rogers and Hood (2009).	Data collection occurred in 2004.	Davies
Esnard and Dumas (2013).	Participants were French Citizens.	PsycINFO
Fromuth, Kelly, Wilson, Finch and Scruggs (2013).	Participants were American Citizens.	Web of Science
Giglio, Wolfteich, Gabrenya, and Sohn (2011).	Participants were American Citizens.	MEDLINE
Harding, Zinzow, Burns, Jackson (2010).	Participants were American Citizens.	MEDLINE
Harridge, McVilly and Hamilton (2011).	Participants were Australian Citizens.	British Library
Harrison, Howerton, Secarea, and Nguyen (2008).	Victim was an adult.	ProQuest
Koon-Magnin and Ruback (2012).	Participants were American Citizens.	Web of Science
Landstrom, Ask and Sommar (2015).	Victim was an adult.	Web of Science
Porter (2014).	Participants were American Citizens.	PsycINFO
Rogers and Davies (2007).	Data collection occurred in 2003.	EMBASE
Rye, Greatrix and Enright (2006).	Victim was an adult.	Reference
Sherrill, Renk, Sims and Culp (2011).	Participants were American Citizens.	Web of Science
Smette, Stefansen and Mossige (2009).	Data collection occurred in 2004.	ProQuest
Tabak and Klettke (2014).	Participants were Australian Citizens.	ASSIA
Thapar-Bjorfkert and Morgan (2010).	Victim was an adult.	PsycINFO
Wiley and Bottoms (2009).	Participants were American Citizens.	MEDLINE
Zinzow, Seth, Jackson, Niehaus and Fitzgerald (2010).	Participants were America Citizens.	ProQuest

Appendix G - Included Studies

Number	Study
1	Davies, Rogers & Whitelegg (2009)
2	Rogers, Josey & Davies (2007)
3	Davies, Patel & Rogers (2009)
4	Graham, Rogers & Davies (2007)
5	Davies, Austen & Rogers (2011)
6	Davies & Rogers (2009)
7	Rogers, Wczasek & Davies (2011)
8	Rogers, Davies, Anderson & Potton (2011)
9	Rogers, Titterington & Davies (2009)
10	Rogers, Boardman & Lowe (2014)
11	Rogers, Davies & Cottam (2010)

Appendix H - Assessing Inter-Rater Reliability for Quality Assessment

Variable	Percentage Agreement	Scott's Pi	Cohen's Kappa	Krippendorff's Alpha	Number of Agreements	Number of Agreements
Variable 1 (columns 1 & 2)	96.2%	0.934	0.934	0.936	25	1
Variable 2 (columns 3 & 4)	96.2%	0.939	0.94	0.941	25	1

Appendix I – Data Extracted

<table>
<tr><th colspan="5">Davies, Rogers and Whitelegg (2009)</th></tr>
<tr><th colspan="2">Sample</th><th>Independent Variables</th><th>Consistent Variable(s)</th><th>Perceptions Measured</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Sampling Method
Opportunistic sampling – Homes in Preston.
Participants
164 participants (81 m, 83 f) between 19-69 years.</td><td>Four IV's:
1. Victim Gender (male vs. female)
2. Victim sexual orientation (heterosexual vs. homosexual)
3. Victim resistance (Submissive vs. resistant)
4. Respondent gender (male vs. female)</td><td>Two CV's:
1. Victim age (15)
2. Perpetrator (uncle)</td><td>Victim Perception Measure:
1. Blame</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">Results - Main Effects & Interactions</td></tr>
<tr><td>Main Effects</td><td colspan="4">Victim Gender - Male victim attributed more blame than female victim (F1, 148 = 14.98; p< .001; n² = .09).
Victim Sexual Orientation - Homosexual victim blamed more than heterosexual (F1, 148 = 24.62; p< .001; n² = .14).
Victim Response - Resistant victim blamed less than submissive victim (F1, 148 = 16.31; p< .001; n² = .10).
Respondent Gender - Male respondents blame more than female respondents (F1, 148 = 19.25; p< .001; n² = .12).</td></tr>
<tr><td>Interactions</td><td colspan="4">Victim Gender x Victim Sexual Orientation - Homosexual male victim was blamed more than a heterosexual male victim and a homosexual female victim (F1, 148 = 28.18; p< .001; n² = .16).
Victim Gender x Respondent Gender - Males attributed more blame to male victim than female victim (F1, 148) = 6.12, p=0.15, n² = 0.4).
Respondent Gender x Victim Sexual Orientation - Males blamed homosexual victim more than the heterosexual victim and blamed the homosexual victim more than females (F1, 148 = 5.98; p = .016; n² = .04).
Victim Resistance x Respondent Gender – When the victim was depicted as submissive, as opposed to resistant, male respondents blamed the victim more. Compared to females, males were more blaming of the submissive victim (F1, 148 = 12.22; p = .001; n² = .08).
Victim Gender x Respondent Gender x Victim Sexual Orientation - Males blamed the homosexual male more than heterosexual male and blamed the homosexual male more than the homosexual female. Males attributed more victim blame than females (F1, 148 = 5.27; p = .023; n² = .03).</td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><th colspan="5">Rogers, Josey and Davies (2007)</th></tr>
<tr><th colspan="2">Sample</th><th>Independent Variables</th><th>Consistent Variable(s)</th><th>Perceptions Measured</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Sampling Method
Opportunistic sampling from homes in Preston, London & Buckinghamshire.

Participants
397 participants (169 males, 228 females). Ages ranged from 16-83.</td><td>Four IV’s:

1. Victim Age (10 years vs. 15 years).
2. Victim attractiveness (attractive vs. unattractive).
3. Victim’s abuse history (first time vs. multiple with same perpetrator vs. multiple with various perpetrators).
4. Respondent gender (male vs. female).</td><td>Two consistent variables:

1. Victim Gender (female).
2. Perpetrator Age (35 years old).</td><td>Victim Perception Measures:

1. Victim Culpability
2. Victim Credibility</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="5">Results - Main Effects & Interactions</th></tr>
<tr><td>Main Effects</td><td colspan="4">Victim Age – The 10 year old victim deemed less culpable and less credible than 15 year old (F1, 373=63.79, p<0.001, n^2= 0.15); (F1, 373=25.64, p<0.001, n^2= 0.06).
Respondent Gender – Male respondents rated the victim as more culpable than females (F1, 373=6.56, p=0.005, n^2 = 0.02).
Victim Attractiveness - No significant results
Victim Abuse History - No significant results.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Interactions</td><td colspan="4">Victim Age x Respondent Gender - Female respondents, compared to male respondents, perceived the 10-year-old victim as more credible (F 1,373=4.18, p=0.042, n^2 =0.01) and female respondents perceived the 15 year old victim as less credible than the 10 year old victim.
Abuse History x Respondent Gender -No influence on factors relating to the victim.
Victim Attractiveness x Respondent Gender - No influence on factors relating to the victim.
Victim Age x Victim Attractiveness x Abuse History - No influence on factors relating to the victim.</td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><th colspan="4">Davies, Patel and Rogers (2013)</th></tr>
<tr><th>Sample</th><th>Independent Variables</th><th>Consistent Variable(s)</th><th>Perceptions Measured</th></tr>
<tr><td>Sampling Method
Opportunistic sample from undergraduate students UoCL Psychology lecture.

Participants
160 (80 males, 80 females). 5 removed = 155. Ages ranged from 18 – 45 years.</td><td>Three IV's:

1. Respondent gender (Male vs. Female).
2. Victim-Perpetrator Relationship (Biological father vs. stepfather)
3. Victim-perpetrator emotional closeness (emotionally close vs. emotionally distant)</td><td>Three consistent variables:

1. Victim Gender (female)
2. Type of abuse (genital fondling)
3. Perpetrator gender (male)</td><td>Victim Perception Measures:

1. Victim Credibility
2. Victim Culpability</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="4">Results - Main Effects & Interactions</th></tr>
<tr><td>Main Effects</td><td colspan="3">Respondent Gender – Male respondents, compared to female respondents, perceived the victim as less credible and more culpable (F (1,143) = 45.06; p < .001; η2 = 0.24; F (1,143) = 11.89; p = .001; η2 =0.08).
Victim-Perpetrator Relationship – When the perpetrator was the victim's father, rather than step-father, the victim was perceived as more credible (F (1,143) = 18.74; p < .001; η2 = 0.12).
Victim-Perpetrator Emotional Closeness – When the perpetrator was father figure who was emotionally close, as opposed to emotionally distant, the victim was perceived as more credible (F (1,143) = 21.42; p < .001;η2 = 0.13).</td></tr>
<tr><td>Interactions</td><td colspan="3">Victim Perpetrator Relationship X Emotional Closeness – When the perpetrator was depicted as an emotionally close biological father, as opposed to distant biological father, the victim was deemed more credible. The victim was also perceived as more credible when the perpetrator was depicted an emotionally close biological father, rather than and emotionally close step-father (F (1,143) = 14.67; p < .001; η2 = 0.09).
Victim-Perpetrator Relationship X Respondent Gender – When the perpetrator was depicted as a biological father, as opposed to step-father, male respondents believed the victim was less culpable (F(1,143) = 8.63; p = .004; η2 = 0.06). –
Victim-Perpetrator Relationship X Respondent Gender X Emotional Closeness - No influence.</td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><th colspan="5">Graham, Rogers and Davies (2007)</th></tr>
<tr><th>Sample</th><th>Independent Variables</th><th>Consistent Variable(s)</th><th>Perceptions Measured</th></tr>
<tr><td>Sampling Method

Opportunistic sampling from homes in Preston.

Participants

393 (180 males, 213 females) with age ranging from 16-86 years. 387 following exclusions.</td><td>Three IV's:

1. Abuse Type (penetration vs. fondling vs. non-contact)
2. Family response (blame vs. deny vs. support)
3. Respondent gender (male vs. female).</td><td>Four consistent variables:

1. Victim Gender (female)
2. Victim age (14 years old)
3. Perpetrator Gender (Male)
4. Perpetrator Age (25 years old)</td><td>Victim Perception Measures:

1. Victim Culpability</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="4">Results - Main Effects & Interactions</th></tr>
<tr><td>Main Effects</td><td colspan="3">Respondent Gender – Compared to female respondents, male respondents deemed the victim as more culpable (F1, 369=12.87; p=0.001; n^2 =0.03).
Abuse Type - No significant influence on victim culpability.
Family Response - No significant influence on victim culpability.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Interactions</td><td colspan="3">Abuse Type x Respondent Gender – Female respondents perceived the victim to be less culpable of their victimisation when it involved non-contact CSA, as opposed to penetration or fondling CSA. However, male respondents felt the victim was less culpable when the CSA involved penetration, rather than non-contact CSA (F2, 369=4.63; p=0.01; n^2 =0.02).</td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><th colspan="5">Davies, Austen and Rogers (2011)</th></tr>
<tr><th colspan="2">Sample</th><th>Independent Variables</th><th>Consistent Variable(s)</th><th>Perceptions Measured</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Sampling Method
Opportunistic sample from undergraduate students in UoCL.

Participants
188 (97 males, 91 females) with ages from 18 to 49 years (M= 20.5).</td><td>Three IV's:

1. Victim Sexual Orientation (homosexual vs. heterosexual)
2. Perpetrator gender (male vs. female).
3. Respondent gender (male vs. female)</td><td>Five consistent variables:
1. Victim gender (male)
2. Victim Age (15 years).
3. Victim-perpetrator relationship (close family friend)
4. Abuse type (fondling and forced fellatio)
5. Victim Resistance (made attempt to escape)</td><td>Victim Perception Measures:

1. Victim Culpability</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="5">Results - Main Effects & Interactions</th></tr>
<tr><th>Main Effects</th><td colspan="4">Victim Sexual Orientation – No significant influence.
Perpetrator Gender – When the perpetrator was male, the victim was perceived as less culpable (F (1,180) = 8.77, p=.003, partial η2=.05).
Respondent Gender – Compared to female respondents, male respondents deemed the victim as more culpable of their CSA victimisation (F (1,180) = 8.77, p=.003, η2=.05).</td></tr>
<tr><th>Interactions</th><td colspan="4">Victim Sexual Orientation X Respondent Gender – No significant influence on perceptions towards the victim.
Victim Sexual Orientation X Perpetrator Gender – The homosexual male victim was deemed as more culpable for his victimisation when the perpetrator was depicted as male (F(1, 180) = 229.09, p<0.001, partial η2 = .56).
Perpetrator Gender X Respondent Gender – No significant influence.
Perpetrator Gender X Respondent Gender X Victim Sexual Orientation - No significant influence.</td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><th colspan="5">Davies and Rogers (2009)</th></tr>
<tr><th colspan="2">Sample</th><th>Independent Variables</th><th>Consistent Variable(s)</th><th>Perceptions Measured</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Sampling Method

Opportunistic sampling from beaches and parks in the South East of England and London

Participants
391 (139 males, 239 females) – 13 missing gender with ages ranging from 16-83 years. 379 following exclusions.</td><td>Three IV’s:

1. Respondent gender (male vs. female)

2. Victim age
(5 vs. 10 vs. 15 years)

3. Victim-perpetrator relationship
(stranger vs. father)</td><td>Two consistent variables:

1. Victim gender (female)

2. Abuse type
(genital fondling)</td><td>Victim Perception Measures:

1. Victim Honesty
2. Victim Credibility
3. Victim Culpability</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="5">Results - Main Effects & Interactions</th></tr>
<tr><td>Main Effects</td><td colspan="4">Respondent Gender – Compared to female respondents, male respondents deemed the victim as less credible (F [1, 347] = 8.17, p = .005; η2 = .02).
Victim Age – Respondents perceived the 5-year old victim as more honest than a 10 and 15 year old victim and also perceived the 10 year old victim as more honest than the 15 year old victim (F (2, 347) = 51.95, p < .001; η2 = .23).
Victim-Perpetrator Relationship - When the perpetrator was the victim’s father, the victim was perceived as less honest compared to victims of stranger perpetrated CSA (F [2, 347] = 6.53, p = .002; η2 = .04).</td></tr>
<tr><td>Interactions</td><td colspan="4">No significant multivariate effects found.</td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><th colspan="4">Rogers, Wczasek and Davies (2011)</th></tr>
<tr><th>Sample</th><th>Independent Variables</th><th>Consistent Variable(s)</th><th>Perceptions Measured</th></tr>
<tr><td>Sampling Method
Opportunistic sampling from homes in Preston, Nottingham and Stoke on Trent.
Participants

190 (89 males, 96 females) – 5 missing gender data with ages ranging from 18-84 years.</td><td>Four IV’s:

1. Respondent gender (male vs. female)
2. Victim age
(10 vs. 15 years)
3. Internet education (educated vs. uneducated)
4. Parental style (neglectful vs. caring)</td><td>Four consistent variables:
1. Victim Gender (Female)
2. Perpetrator gender (Male)
3. Perpetrator age (25 years old)
4. Abuse type (internet solicitation)</td><td>Victim Perception Measures:

1. Victim Credibility
2. Victim Naivety
3. Victim Culpability</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="4">Results - Main Effects & Interactions</th></tr>
<tr><th>Main Effects</th><td colspan="3">Respondent Gender – Compared to female respondents, male respondents judged the victim as less credible (F (1,165) = 4.52; p<0.035; η2= 0.03).
Victim Age - No influence.
Internet Education - No influence.
Parental Style – When the parental style was depicted as being neglectful of online activities, rather than caring, the victim was deemed as less naïve (F (1,165) = 20.98; p<0.001; η2= 0.11).</td></tr>
<tr><th>Interactions</th><td colspan="3">Victim Age X Parental Style X Respondent Gender – Males perceived the 15 year old, cared for victim to be the least naïve. Females deemed the 10 year old, neglected victim to be the most naïve (F (1,165)4.84; p=0.029; η2 =0.03).</td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><th colspan="5">Rogers, Davies, Anderson and Potton (2011)</th></tr>
<tr><th>Sample</th><th>Independent Variables</th><th>Consistent Variable(s)</th><th>Perceptions Measured</th></tr>
<tr><td>Sampling Method

Opportunistic sampling from homes in London and Preston.

Participants

192 (62.3% were female) with ages ranging from 18 – 90 years.</td><td>Three IV's:

1. Victim Age (12 vs. 15 years).
2. Physical Maturity (prepubescent vs. post pubescent)
3. Respondent Gender (male vs. female)</td><td>Four consistent variables:

1. Victim Gender (Female)
2. Perpetrator Gender (Male)
3. Perpetrator Role (school caretaker)
4. Abuse Type (genital fondling)</td><td>Victim Perception Measures:

1. Victim Blame
2. Victim Resistance
3. Victim Encouraging</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="4">Results - Main Effects & Interactions</th></tr>
<tr><td>Main Effects</td><td colspan="3">Victim Age – Respondents thought the 12 year old victim should have resisted the perpetrator more than the 15 year old victim (F (3, 182) = 8.14, p = .005, partial η2 = .04).
Physical Maturity - No direct influence.
Respondent Gender - No direct influence.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Interactions</td><td colspan="3">Victim Age x Victim Physical Maturity - No significant influence on factors relating to the victim
Victim Age x Victim Physical Maturity x Respondent Gender – Female respondents felt the 12 year old pre-pubescent victim should have resisted the perpetrator more than the 15 year old post-pubescent victim (F(3, 182) = 4.58, p = .034, partial η2 = .03); (t62 = 3.02, p = .004). Female respondents also felt the 15 year old post-pubescent victim should have resisted the perpetrator more than the 15 year old pre-pubescent victim (t50 = –2.69, p = .01).</td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><th colspan="5">Rogers, Titterington and Davies (2009)</th></tr>
<tr><th>Sample</th><th>Independent Variables</th><th>Consistent Variable(s)</th><th>Perceptions Measured</th></tr>
<tr><td>Sampling Method

Opportunistic sampling from Preston and Leeds.

Participants

335 (58.3% were female) with ages ranging from 16 to 79 years.</td><td>Three IV's:

1. Victim Disability (physical vs. intellectual vs. no disability)
2. victim resistance (physical vs. verbal vs. no resistance)
3. Respondent gender (male vs. female)</td><td>Four consistent variables:

1. Victim age (12 years old)
2. Victim gender (Female)
3. Abuse type (Genital Fondling)
4. Perpetrator relationship (known to the family)</td><td>Victim Perception Measures:

1. Victim Credibility
2. Victim Culpability</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="4">Results - Main Effects & Interactions</th></tr>
<tr><th>Main Effects</th><td colspan="3">Victim Disability - No influence on variables relating to the victim.
Victim Resistance - No influence on variables relating to the victim.
Respondent Gender – Male respondents perceived the victim as more culpable for their victimisation compared to female respondents (F (1, 313) = 7.42; p < 0.01; partial η2 = 0.02).</td></tr>
<tr><th>Interaction</th><td colspan="3">Victim Disability x Resistance Type x Respondent Gender - No influence on variables relating to the victim.</td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><th colspan="4">Rogers, Boardman and Lowe (2014)</th></tr>
<tr><th>Sample</th><th>Independent Variables</th><th>Consistent Variable(s)</th><th>Perceptions Measured</th></tr>
<tr><td>Sampling Method
Opportunistic sampling from UoCL campus.
Participants
356 (staff & students) - 67.4% were female with ages ranging from 14 to 60 years (M=24.8, SD = 11.4 years). 346 after analysis due to missing gender data and outliers.</td><td>Three IV's:

1. Victim symptomology (negative vs. none vs. positive)
2. Victim resistance (resistant vs. non-resistant)
3. Respondent gender (male vs. female)</td><td>Five consistent variables:
1. Victim Age (14 years old)
2. Victim Gender (Female)
3. Abuse Type (non-consensual genital touching)
4. Perpetrator Gender (Male)
5. Perpetrator Age (35)</td><td>Victim Perception Measures:

1. Victim truthfulness
2. Victim reliability
3. Victim culpability</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="4">Study Results (main effects & interactions)</th></tr>
<tr><td>Main Effects</td><td colspan="3">Victim Symptomology – Those victims depicted as experiencing negative symptoms were perceived as more truthful compared to a victim who was showing no symptoms (F (2, 317) - 3.72; p-0.025; partial η2 - 0.02).
Victim Resistance – When the victim was depicted as actively resisting the CSA, the victim was deemed as more truthful, compared to when the victim was depicted as being submissive (F (1, 317) - 4.56; p- 0.033; partial η2 - 0.01).
Respondent Gender – Male respondents, compared to female respondents, perceived the victim as less reliable and more culpable (F (1,334) 6.38; p 0.012; partial η2 0.02).</td></tr>
<tr><td>Interactions</td><td colspan="3">Victim Symptomology x Respondent Gender – No significant influence.
Victim Symptomology x Victim Resistance x Respondent Gender – Male respondents perceived a non-resistant asymptomatic victim as less reliable compared to a resistant, asymptomatic victim and the non-resistant victim with negative symptomology. Compared to females, males believed the non-resistant asymptomatic victim to be less reliable (F (2, 310) 3.45; p 0.033; partial η^2=0.02).</td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><th colspan="5">Rogers, Davies and Cottam (2010)</th></tr>
<tr><th>Sample</th><th>Independent Variables</th><th>Consistent Variable(s)</th><th>Perceptions Measured</th></tr>
<tr><td>Sampling Method

Opportunistic sampling from homes in Preston.

Participants

366 (48.2% male, 51.8% female) with ages ranging from 16 to 92years (M = 40.7, SD = 16.3). 355 total due to 11 outliers being removed.</td><td>Three IV's:

1. Perpetrator coercion (verbal threat vs. physical force vs. misrepresented play)

2. Victim resistance (physical vs. verbal vs. none)

3. Respondent gender (male vs. female)</td><td>Three consistent variables:

1. Victim age
(12 years old)

2. Victim Gender (Female)

3. Abuse Type
(Genital Fondling)</td><td>Victim Perception Measures:

1. Victim Culpability</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="5">Study Results (main effects & interactions)</th></tr>
<tr><td>Main Effects</td><td colspan="4">Perpetrator Coercion - No influence on variables relating to the victim.
Victim Resistance - No influence on variables relating to the victim.
Respondent Gender - No influence on variables relating to the victim.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Interactions</td><td colspan="4">Perpetrator Coercion x Respondent Gender – When the victim was coerced into the abuse using verbal threat, as opposed to physical force of misrepresented play, males perceived the victim as more culpable (F (2,336) = 2.93, p = .055, η2= .02).
Respondent Gender x Victim Resistance - No influence on variables relating to the victim.
Respondent Gender x Victim Resistance x Perpetrator Coercion - No influence on variables relating to the victim.</td></tr>
</table>

Appendix J – Poster of Systematic Literature Review



A SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW

Which Factors Influence English and Welsh Perceptions towards Victims of Child Sexual Abuse?



Victoria Hatton and Dr Simon Duff

Centre for Family and Forensic Psychology, University of Nottingham

BACKGROUND

Self disclosure of child sexual abuse (CSA) is an important step in victim identification. However many victims do not disclose their victimisation due to fears of being negatively perceived by society (Furniss, 1991).

Whilst certain factors reportedly influence societal perceptions towards CSA victims (e.g. Davies & Rogers, 2009), it is unclear which factors influence English and Welsh perceptions.

1 in 5 girls experience child sexual abuse



1 in 6 boys experience child sexual abuse



AIMS AND RATIONALE

This systematic literature review aimed to investigate which factors influence English and Welsh perceptions towards CSA victims. The objectives were to:

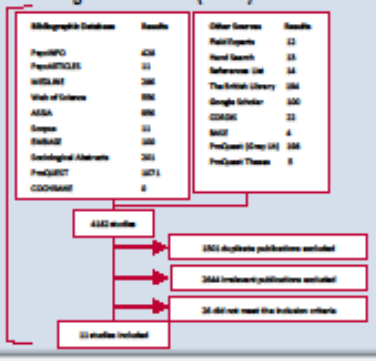
- ✓ Enhance our understanding of societal perceptions.
- ✓ Determine which factors influence perceptions.
- ✓ Identify future research and educational needs.

Conducting this review was deemed important considering the role society plays in CSA victim disclosure (Schaffer, Leventhal & Asnes, 2011).

METHODOLOGY

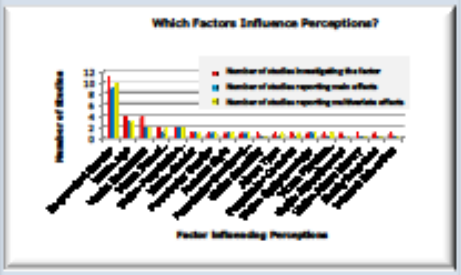
Studies were only included if they investigated the influence of at least one factor's influence upon perceptions towards CSA victims, and if participants were recruited from England and Wales (2005+).

The search process



RESULTS

11 studies were included in the review which revealed a total of 3088 participants. Within the studies, 18 different factors were investigated (e.g. victim age, family response). The graph below shows which factors were investigated and which influenced societal perceptions towards CSA victims.



Within the studies, 7 different perceptions towards CSA victims were investigated (e.g. victim credibility, victim reliability and victim blame).

CONCLUSIONS

Firm conclusions could only be made about respondent gender which was investigated by all 11 studies. This revealed male respondents, compared to female respondents, to perceive CSA victims as less reliable, less credible and more culpable.

The other factors were under researched and/or revealed mixed findings but tentative findings could be suggested for victim age, victim resistance, victim sexual orientation and the victim-perpetrator relationship.

IMPLICATIONS & RESEARCH

Implications: Potential implications were identified in terms of legal proceedings, professional services and the response victims receive during disclosure. For example, whether services with professional contact with CSA victims have varied outcomes depending on the gender of the professional.

Further research: Investigate why males perceive CSA victims more negatively than females. Continue to clarify which factors influence societal perceptions towards CSA victims.

REFERENCES

- Davies, M., & Rogers, P. (2009). Perceptions of blame and credibility toward victims of childhood sexual abuse: Differences across victim age, victim-perpetrator relationship, and respondent gender in a depicted case. *Journal of Child Sexual Abuse, 18*(1), 78-92. doi: 10.1080/10538710802584668.
- Furniss, T. (1991). *The multi-professional handbook of child sexual abuse: Integrated management, therapy and legal intervention.* London: Routledge.
- Schaeffer, P., Leventhal, J. M., & Asnes, A. G. (2011). Children's disclosures of sexual abuse: Learning from direct inquiry. *Child Abuse and Neglect, 35*(5), 343-352. doi: 10.1016/j.chiabu.2011.01.014.

Chapter Two

Investigating British Perceptions of a Hypothetical Child Sexual Abuse Case

Appendices

Appendix A – Alternative Vignette

"Lucy is a 15 year old female who has not[1] been sexually abused in the past. Two days ago, Lucy attended parents' evening with her parents to discuss her predicted GCSE grades. During parents' evening, Lucy and her parents met with each teacher in their classrooms. At 7pm, the last teacher they saw was to discuss overall progress. This teacher was a 35 year old male. During their discussion, Lucy's parents[2] were excused from the classroom to get refreshments. This left Lucy alone with her male teacher[3].

Yesterday, a friend noticed that Lucy was very quiet so she asked her what was wrong. Lucy advised her that when her parents[4] left the classroom yesterday, her teacher[5] congratulated her on the progress she had made. Lucy continued to say that her trousers were then unzipped and vagina fondled with by her teacher[6], despite telling him[7] to stop. Lucy reported that her teacher[8] continued to touch her vagina, despite telling him[9] to stop again, until her parents'[10] re-entered the classroom. Lucy advised her friend that her parents'[11] did not realise what had happened".

[1] has
[2] The teacher
[3] Female teacher or mother/father
[4] teacher
[5] Mother/father
[6] Mother/father
[7] Her
[8] Mother/father
[9] Her
[10] Teacher
[11] Teacher

Appendix B – Questionnaire

Item	Question
1	The perpetrator was to blame for the situation
2	Lucy was responsible for what happened to her
3	The perpetrator was responsible for what happened to Lucy
4	The perpetrator was guilty for this incident
5	Lucy might be lying about the incident
6	The perpetrator abused their position of trust
7	The police should take this incident seriously
8	Lucy was sexually encouraging towards the perpetrator
9	The perpetrator should be imprisoned for this incident
10	Lucy's life will be negatively affected by this incident
11	Lucy will be traumatised by this incident
12	Lucy should be blamed for the incident
13	People should be sympathetic towards Lucy
14	Lucy was guilty in this situation
15	Lucy's account was trustworthy

Appendix C –Ethics Application

The University of Nottingham

Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences

Research Ethics Committee
School of Medicine Education Centre
B Floor, Medical School
Queen's Medical Centre Campus
Nottingham University Hospitals
Nottingham
NG7 2UH

Direct line/e-mail
+44 (0) 115 8232561
Louise.Sabir@nottingham.ac.uk

24th July 2015

Victoria Hatton
Forensic Psychologist in Training
c/o Dr Simon Duff
Director, Top-Up Doctorate in Forensic Psychology
Centre for Forensic and Family Psychology
Psychiatry and Applied Psychology
Room B15 YANG Fujia
Jubilee Campus
Wollaton Road
Nottingham
NG8 1BB

Dear Victoria

Ethics Reference No: Q14072015 SoM PAPsych DFP – please always quote
Study Title: Perceptions of a Hypothetical Child Sexual Abuse Case
Chief Researcher/Academic Supervisor: Dr Simon Duff, Director, Top-Up Doctorate in Forensic Psychology Centre for Forensic and Family Psychology, Psychiatry and Applied Psychology, School of Medicine.
Other key researchers/student: Victoria Hatton Trainee/doctorate in Forensic Psychology, Psychiatry and Applied Psychology, School of Medicine.
Duration of Study: 08-10 2015 2mths
No of Subjects 320(18+ yrs)

Thank you for submitting the above application which has been reviewed on the 14th July 2015 and the following documents were received:

Perceptions of a Hypothetical Child Sexual Abuse Case:
- FMHS Research Ethics Application Form dated 25/06/2015
- Appendix A: Details of Project dated 25/06/2015
- Appendix B- Wording used to advertise the study on social media and via emails
- Appendix C – Information Sheet
- Appendix D – Consent Form
- Appendix E – Versions of vignettes
- Appendix F – Measures
- Appendix G – Debrief
- Appendix I – Power analysis

These have been reviewed and are satisfactory and the study is approved.

Approval is given on the understanding that the Conditions of Approval set out below are followed.

1. You must follow the protocol agreed and inform the Committee of any changes using a notification of amendment form (please request a form).

2. You must notify the Chair of any serious or unexpected event.

Chapter Three

A Critique of the Gudjonsson Blame Attribution Inventory Revised

Appendices

Appendix A - GBAI-R

Name: _____

Nature of Offence: _____

Below are a number of statements related to the crime(s) you committed. Please read each item carefully and decide whether the statement is TRUE or FALSE as it applies to you personally. If the statement is true as applies to you then circle True; and if it is false as applied to you then circle False.

1	I feel very ashamed of the crime(s) I committed.	True	False
2	I am entirely to blame for my crime(s).	True	False
3	I did not deserve to get caught for the crime(s) I committed.	True	False
4	I am constantly troubled by my conscience for the crime(s) I committed.	True	False
5	I will never forgive myself for the crime(s) I committed.	True	False
6	I feel no remorse or guilt for the crime(s) I committed.	True	False
7	I am responsible for my criminal act(s).	True	False
8	It is definitely not in my nature to commit crimes.	True	False
9	I should not blame myself for the crime(s) I committed.	True	False
10	At the time of the crime(s) I was fully aware of what I was doing.	True	False
11	I would not have committed the crime(s) I did if I had not lost control of myself.	True	False
12	I should not blame other people for my crime(s).	True	False
13	The crime(s) I committed was very much out of character.	True	False
14	I hate myself for the crime(s) I committed.	True	False
15	Society is to blame for the crime(s) I committed.	True	False

16	I should not be punished for what I did.	True	False
17	I was feeling no different to usual at the time of the crime(s).	True	False
18	In my case the victim(s) was largely to blame for my crime(s).	True	False
19	I would not have committed any crime(s) if I had not been seriously provoked by the victim(s)/society.	True	False
20	What I did was beyond my control.	True	False
21	I deserved to be caught for what I did.	True	False
22	I would have been better off if I had not been caught.	True	False
23	I constantly have the urge to punish myself for the crime(s) I committed.	True	False
24	I fear that people will never accept me because of the crime(s) I committed.	True	False
25	I was very depressed when I committed the crime(s).	True	False
26	I was in no way provoked into committing a crime.	True	False
27	I have no need to feel ashamed of what I did.	True	False
28	I feel annoyed that I was caught.	True	False
29	I must have been crazy to commit the crime(s) I did.	True	False
30	There is no such thing as an innocent victim in my case.	True	False
31	Other people are to blame for my crime(s).	True	False
32	I could have avoided getting into trouble.	True	False
33	I had very good reasons for committing the crime(s) I did.	True	False
34	I should not punish myself for what I did.	True	False
35	I deserve to be severely punished for the crime(s) I committed.	True	False
36	I would certainly not have committed the crime(s) I did if I had been mentally well.	True	False
37	I have no serious regrets about what I did.	True	False
38	I was under a great deal of stress/pressure when I committed the crime(s).	True	False

39	I would very much like to make amends for what I did.	True	False
40	I sometimes have nightmares about the crime(s) I committed.	True	False
41	I was in full control of my actions.	True	False
42	I have no excuse for the crime(s) I committed.	True	False

Chapter Four

A Young Person Minimising the Severity of his Harmful Sexual Behaviour: Could a Short-Term Intervention Reduce the Presence of Minimisation?

Appendices

Appendix A – Information Sheet

Case Study: Investigating the effectiveness of a short-term intervention in altering perceptions.

Researcher: Vicky Hatton

I am a Trainee Forensic Psychologist who is studying for a doctorate in Forensic Psychology at the University of Nottingham. As part of this studying, I am required to learn on placement and to complete a case study. A case study is a piece of work which involves one individual engaging in some work where a need has been identified. For example, someone with anxiety might be referred to me for some work to reduce their anxiety levels. Looking at whether my intervention reduced this individual's anxiety levels would be an example of case study. This process helps people to learn.

As we have discussed, I am looking at using the work we complete together for my case study. This will involve me summarising what we have done together, why we engaged in this work and whether the work helped you. All information will be kept anonymous and confidential at all times. This means that if someone reads my case study, they will never know that you were the individual engaging in the work. In the near future, it is possible this work will be looked at by my examiners and might even be published by me! If this does happen, your information will still remain anonymous and confidential. Please note; if you would rather this work was not used

in my research thesis but you would still like to work with me, then that is fine too!

If you have any questions, no matter how big or small, please feel free to ask me.

If you think you are happy to take part, please read the consent form on the next page.

Vicky Hatton

Trainee Forensic Psychologist

Appendix B – Consent Form

Case Study: Investigating the effectiveness of a short-term intervention in altering perceptions.

Researcher: Vicky Hatton

Participant: _____

1. I, _____confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet that Vicky provided me and have had the opportunity to ask her questions.

2. I, _____ confirm that I understand my name will <u>not</u> appear anywhere in her work and that all information will be <u>kept anonymous at all times</u>. This means no-one will know who I am.

3. I, _____ confirm that my participation is entirely voluntary and if I do not want to be in Vicky's work then I understand we can still work together.

4. I, _____ confirm that I understand my work will be used in Vicky's university work for her examiners to mark and that it might be published.

5. I, _____ confirm that Vicky will always keep my personal details anonymous and confidential at all times.

6. I, _____ agree for my engagement in work with Vicky to be used in her university work.

_____	_____	_____
Participant	Date	Signature

_____	_____	_____
Researcher	Date	Signature

Appendix C – RSE

Below is a list of statements dealing with your general feelings about yourself. If you strongly agree, circle **SA**. If you agree with the statement, circle **A**. If you disagree, circle **D**. If you strongly disagree, circle **SD**.

1.	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	SA	A	D	SD
2.	At times, I think I am no good at all.	SA	A	D	SD
3.	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	SA	A	D	SD
4.	I am able to do things as well as most other people.	SA	A	D	SD
5.	I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	SA	A	D	SD
6.	I certainly feel useless at times.	SA	A	D	SD
7.	I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	SA	A	D	SD
8.	I wish I could have more respect for myself.	SA	A	D	SD
9.	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	SA	A	D	SD
10.	I take a positive attitude toward myself.	SA	A	D	SD

Raw Data from RSE

Item	Before Intervention	After Intervention
On the whole I am satisfied with myself	Disagree	Agree
At times I think I am no good at all*	Agree	Agree
I feel I have a number of good qualities	Strongly Agree	Strongly Agree
I am able to do things as well as other people	Agree	Strongly Agree
I feel I do not have much to be proud of*	Disagree	Disagree
I certainly feel useless at times*	Agree	Strongly Disagree
I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others	Agree	Disagree
I wish I could have more respect for myself*	Strongly Agree	Strongly Agree
All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure*	Disagree	Disagree

I take a positive attitude towards myself	Agree	Disagree

*Items require reversing

Appendix D – IBAQ

Please read the following 34 statements below and indicate your agreement using the scale shown below. Please answer as honestly as you can.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

Please answer the following 34 items based on what you think now

1. I feel more confident on the Internet than I do talking to people in real life.

1	2	3	4	5

2. I am not addicted to Internet child pornography.

1	2	3	4	5

3. Using the Internet makes me feel important.

1	2	3	4	5

4. The child was often smiling in the child pornography I have looked at, and so I believe that the child is not being harmed.

1	2	3	4	5

5. I feel I have committed a victimless crime given that I have not created any contact victims in these Internet offences.

1	2	3	4	5

6. I have found myself aroused at the illegality of the child pornography.

1	2	3	4	5

7. I believe that looking at sexual pictures of children on the Internet should be classified as a criminal sexual offence.

1	2	3	4	5

8. If I can't use the Internet to view pornography when I want to, I feel bad.

1	2	3	4	5

9. The sexual pictures of children on the Internet were there anyway, so I was not harming anyone by looking at them.

1	2	3	4	5

10. Sex is always on my mind.

1	2	3	4	5

11. I feel panicky and anxious if I have not been able to view sexual pictures.

1	2	3	4	5

12. I do not use the Internet to escape from my problems.

1	2	3	4	5

13. All children who feature in pictures involving sexual acts on the Internet have been sexually abused.

1	2	3	4	5

14. I prefer the idea of casual sex to sex in a relationship.

1	2	3	4	5

15. I have few friends outside of the Internet.

1	2	3	4	5

16. I think my life is better when I'm able to view child pornography from the Internet.

1	2	3	4	5

17. Looking at sexual pictures of children on the Internet does not mean I have committed a sexual offence.

1	2	3	4	5

18. My sexual relationships with people my age have been very dissatisfying.

1	2	3	4	5

19. Child pornography is similar to art.

1	2	3	4	5

20. I like to look at child pornography pictures when I masturbate.

1	2	3	4	5

21. Children pictured in sexual positions on the Internet experience bad effects afterwards.

1	2	3	4	5

22. Looking at child pornography on the Internet makes me feel good.

1	2	3	4	5

23. I feel that my use of Internet child pornography encourages me to act in ways that I would not normally act.

1	2	3	4	5

24. There were no negative consequences associated with downloading child pornography

1	2	3	4	5

25. Other people look at Internet child pornography and therefore it is OK for me to do it.

1	2	3	4	5

26. I feel more powerful after I use the Internet to look at child pornography.

1	2	3	4	5

27. I believe that the children in the pictures I view enjoyed the experience.

1	2	3	4	5

28. I have wanted to commit a contact sexual offence after looking at child pornography on the Internet.

1	2	3	4	5

29. Child pornography is no different from adult porn.

1	2	3	4	5

30. The Internet is a safe outlet for my fantasies.

1	2	3	4	5

31. I prefer 'virtual' communication to 'face to face' communication.

1	2	3	4	5

32. I believe that a child doesn't mind an adult doing sexual things to them.

1	2	3	4	5

33.My life is too boring without viewing pornography

1	2	3	4	5

34.Looking at child pornography is just a game

1	2	3	4	5

Raw Data from IBAQ

Item	Before Intervention	After Intervention
	After reverse scoring	
1. I feel more confident on the Internet than I do talking to people in real life*	2	3
2. I am not addicted to Internet child pornography.	3	3
3. Using the Internet makes me feel important.	2	3
4. The child was often smiling in the child pornography I have looked at, and so I believe that the child is not being harmed.	4	1
5. I feel I have committed a victimless crime given that I have not created any contact victims in these Internet offences.	1	1
6. I have found myself aroused at the illegality of the child pornography.	4	4
7. I believe that looking at sexual pictures of children on the Internet should be classified as a criminal sexual offence*	2	1
8. If I can't use the Internet to view pornography when I want to, I feel bad.	4	4

9. The sexual pictures of children on the Internet were there anyway, so I was not harming anyone by looking at them.	1	1
10. Sex is always on my mind	3	3
11. I feel panicky and anxious if I have not been able to view sexual pictures.	2	3
12. I do not use the Internet to escape from my problems.	3	3
13. All children who feature in pictures involving sexual acts on the Internet have been sexually abused.	1	1
14. I prefer the idea of casual sex to sex in a relationship.	3	3
15. I have few friends outside of the Internet.	1	4
16. I think my life is better when I'm able to view child pornography from the Internet.	1	1
17. Looking at sexual pictures of children on the Internet does not mean I have committed a sexual offence.	2	1
18. My sexual relationships with people my age have been very dissatisfying.	1	1
19. Child pornography is similar to art.	1	1

20. I like to look at child pornography pictures when I masturbate.	2	2
21. Children pictured in sexual positions on the Internet experience bad effects afterwards.	1	1
22. Looking at child pornography on the Internet makes me feel good.	1	1
23. I feel that my use of Internet child pornography encourages me to act in ways that I would not normally act.	2	5
24. There were no negative consequences associated with downloading child pornography	1	1
25. Other people look at Internet child pornography and therefore it is OK for me to do it.	1	1
26. I feel more powerful after I use the Internet to look at child pornography.	3	3
27. I believe that the children in the pictures I view enjoyed the experience.	2	1
28. I have wanted to commit a contact sexual offence after looking at child pornography on the Internet.	3	4
29. Child pornography is no different from adult porn.	2	1
30. The Internet is a safe outlet for my fantasies.	1	1

31. I prefer 'virtual' communication to 'face to face' communication.	2	2
32. I believe that a child doesn't mind an adult doing sexual things to them.	1	1
33. My life is too boring without viewing pornography	2	3
34. Looking at child pornography is just a game	1	1
Total Score	**66**	**70**

Appendix E – IRI

The following statements inquire about your thoughts and feelings in a variety of situations. For each item, indicate how well it describes you by choosing the appropriate letter on the scale at the top of the page (A, B, C, D, or E). When you have decided, fill in the answer (letter) underneath the item. Please read each item carefully before responding and answer as honestly as you can.

Answer Scale

Does not describe me well				Describes me very well
A	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**

1. I daydream and fantasize, with some regularity, about things that might happen to me.

Answer	

2. I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than me.

Answer	

3. I sometimes find it difficult to see things from the "other guy's" point of view.

Answer	

4. Sometimes I don't feel very sorry for other people when they are having problems.

Answer	

5. I really get involved with the feelings of the characters in a novel.

Answer	

6. In emergency situations, I feel apprehensive and ill-at-ease

Answer	

7. I am usually objective when I watch a movie or play, and I don't often get completely caught up in it.

Answer	

8. I try to look at everybody's side of a disagreement before I make a decision.

Answer	

9. When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective towards them.

Answer	

10. I sometimes feel helpless when I am in the middle of a very emotional situation.

Answer	

11. I sometimes try to understand my friends better by imagining how things look from their perspective.

Answer	

12. Becoming extremely involved in a good book or movie is somewhat rare for me.

Answer	

13. When I see someone get hurt, I tend to remain calm.

Answer	

14. Other people's misfortunes do not usually disturb me a great deal.

Answer	

15. If I'm sure I'm right about something, I don't waste much time listening to other people's arguments.

Answer	

16. After seeing a play or movie, I have felt as though I were one of the characters.

Answer	

17. Being in a tense emotional situation scares me.

Answer	

18. When I see someone being treated unfairly, I sometimes don't feel very much pity for them.

Answer	

19. I am usually pretty effective in dealing with emergencies.

Answer	

20. I am often quite touched by things that I see happen.

Answer	

21. I believe that there are two sides to every question and try to look at them both.

Answer	

22. I would describe myself as a pretty soft-hearted person.

Answer	

23. When I watch a good movie, I can very easily put myself in the place of a leading character.

Answer	

24. I tend to lose control during emergencies.

Answer	

25. When I'm upset at someone, I usually try to "put myself in his shoes" for a while.

Answer	

26. When I am reading an interesting story or novel, I imagine how I would feel if the events in the story were happening to me.

Answer	

27. When I see someone who badly needs help in an emergency, I go to pieces.

Answer	

28. Before criticizing somebody, I try to imagine how I would feel if I were in their place.

Answer	

Raw Data for IRI

Item	Before Intervention
I daydream and fantasise with some regularity about things that might happen to me	D
I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than me	E
I sometimes find it difficult to see things from others' perspectives	A
Sometimes I don't feel sorry for other people when they are having problems	A
I really get involved with the feelings of characters in a novel	C
In emergency situations, I feel apprehensive and ill-at-ease	C
I am usually objective when I watch a move or play and I don't often get completely caught up in it	A
I try to look at everybody's side of a disagreement before I make a decision	E
When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective towards them	E
I sometimes feel helpless when I am in the middle of a very emotional situation	D

I sometimes try to understand my friends better by imagining how things look from their perspective	E
Becoming extremely involved in a good book or movie is somewhat rare for me	B
When I see someone get hurt I tend to remain calm	A
Other people's misfortune do not usually disturb me a great deal	A
If I'm sure I am right about something, I don't waste much time listening to other people's arguments	B
After seeing a play or movie, I have felt as though I were one of the characters	B
Being in a tense emotional situation scares me	D
When I see someone being treated unfairly, I sometimes don't feel very much pity for them	B
I am usually pretty effective in dealing with emergencies	C
I am quite often touched by things that I see happen	E
I believe that there are two sides to every question and try to look at them both	E
I would describe myself as pretty soft-hearted person	E

When I watch a good measure, I can very easily put myself in the place of a leading character	D
I tend to lose control during emergencies	C
When I am upset at someone, I usually try to “put myself in his shoes” for a while	E
When I am reading a story, I imagine how I would feel if the events in the story were happening to me	C
When I see someone who badly needs help in an emergency, I go to pieces	B
Before criticising somebody, I try to imagine how I would feel if I were in their place	E