The impact of gender upon professional perceptions of offending

Jodie Howarth-Beal BSc (Hons), MSc

Thesis submitted to the University of Nottingham for the degree of Doctor in Forensic Psychology (DForenPsy)

May 2021

Abstract

This thesis provides an investigation into professional perceptions of offending based upon the gender of offenders. The thesis adopts a funnel approach by exploring professional attitudes towards people convicted of offences generally and then narrows down to focus on those who have committed sexual offences. The work is composed of a systematic review, an organisational case study, an empirical research study, and a psychometric critique. The systematic review explores the attitudes of professionals towards male and female offenders of any offence type. The results showed some disparity between the gender of offenders, but overall there were limited differences. There was very slight gender bias, with male offenders being viewed more negatively than women, however caution around this finding is discussed due to the small number of studies and heterogeneous nature of them. Additionally, caution is suggested with the results due to sampling bias and methodological variances between the studies. The organisational case study explored the impact of training on the concept of resilience on attitudes towards male and female offenders. This was undertaken with a small cohort of staff members from a youth justice organisation. It is accepted that the wider generalisability of the results is difficult due to the small sample size and lack of statistical power. However, results indicated that training slightly increased positive attitudes towards offenders generally, although statistically only male offenders showed a slightly stronger effect in terms of re-offending. Findings are discussed in terms of clinical applications. The empirical study explored the implicit beliefs held by professionals working within forensic settings and how these impacted on the attitudes of male and females who commit sexual offences. The findings were not as expected, with no differences found in relation to attitudes towards male and female offenders, and with those

holding fixed beliefs that sexual offenders are unable to change advocating the use of rehabilitation. Again, findings provide suggestions for further research and for implications of clinical practice. A psychometric critique of the Attitude to Sexual Offenders Scale (ATS; Hogue, 1993) is also included within this thesis. This explored the validity and reliability of the ATS and ATS-21, which demonstrate some areas of limitation but also some very strong areas of merit. The findings of the thesis as a whole are considered within the final chapter, including considerations for further research and applications for clinical practice and the impacts on organisational need.

Thesis Overview

Professionals have a large impact on offenders in a number of ways, including how they are assessed, the type of treatment they receive, and how this is delivered. For those offenders who are detained, be that in a secure hospital or a prison, the attitudes of professionals towards them can have a major impact on rehabilitation levels. The "golden thread" of the thesis is to explore differences and if gender biases exist towards offenders based upon the gender of an offender from the perspective of professionals. The thesis comprises of six chapters, each briefly overviewed below;

Chapter one introduces the thesis; this includes the theory of attitudes, which considers a three-factor model of the underpinning concept of attitudes. It further explores offending in general terms, the importance of rehabilitation of offenders and how this differs between male and female offenders, the role of professionals within forensic settings with specific emphasis around the attitudes held by professionals. This chapter also sets out the reasoning behind the thesis, its aims and the overall structure.

Chapter two presents a systematic review of professional perceptions of offending based upon the gender of offenders. The review considers studies, which have examined a range of offence types and professional groups. It then provides a narrative overview of 17 studies and draws a tentative conclusion about a possible existence of a gender bias.

Chapter three is a research case study, which measured attitudes towards male and female offenders held by professionals following their attendance at a one-day training course which focussed on resilience. Following the training, attitudes towards offenders in general were more positive, however when this

was broken down by offender gender, whilst attitudes to females were more positive, only attitudes to male offenders were significantly improved to some extent. The implications of this within clinical practice are discussed at the end of this chapter. The results provided are explore in a tentative manner due to the small sample size of this study and lack of statistical power.

Chapter four is an empirical study which explores whether professionals working within forensic settings hold specific implicit theories (IT's) of both human nature and sexual offenders and the impact of these IT's on attitudes towards sexual offenders based upon the gender of the offender. The results provided findings against expectations, and these are discussed.

Chapter five critiques one of the psychometric tools often used to assess attitudes to sexual offenders, the Attitude to Sexual Offender Scale (ATS; Hogue, 1993) alongside a newer shortened version, the ATS-21 (Hogue & Harper, 2019). This chapter explores the reliability and validly of these measures and discusses the implication of their use within research.

To conclude this thesis, chapter six presents a discussion of the thesis overall, including implications for further research and the impact upon clinical practice.

Acknowledgements

I would firstly like to thank Professor Birgit Völlm and Associate Professor Vince Egan for supervising this thesis. I am extremely grateful for Professor Völlm's calming guidance throughout the process, in particular with the Systematic Review. Your encouragement and support has been welcomed and at times very much needed. Thank you to Associate Professor Egan for stepping in and taking over the full supervision of the thesis following Professor Völlm's departure. Thank you for being my cheerleader in the background and for giving me words of encouragement during the most difficult times. I would also like to thank my colleague Kathryn West for your endless proof reads, it has been very much appreciated. I am also extremely grateful to my placement supervisors throughout the Doctorate – Emma Longfellow, Naomi Callender, Andy Hood and Paul Cousins. Your vast amount of knowledge, encouragement and belief in me has enabled me to develop my skills as a psychologist and grow in confidence during this journey.

I would also like to thank all of my colleagues, past and present, for your support and guidance. I am particularly grateful to Nottinghamshire Healthcare Trust who supported my research. I am extremely grateful to all of the participants who so kindly gave your time to contribute to my primary research study and research case study.

I would also like to thank all of my friends, for your endless support and encouragement, thank you for putting up with my continual absences and for sticking by me. Thank you to my family for your kind words, practical support and much needed calmness. To Fletcher, my beautiful boy, thank you for putting up with Mummy whilst on this journey, you certainly have Daddy's patience. To my

beautiful baby, Thea, who joined this journey midway through, thank you for being a welcome distraction when needed.

Finally, thank you to my husband Russ, although thank you does not seem to be enough. I am extremely grateful for your endless, unwavering support, for becoming at times, a single parent; our financial provider; and my emotional rock. Your patience and love has no bounds and for this, I know I am eternally fortunate.

Table of Contents

Abstract i

Acknowledgements v

List of Tables xii

List of Figures xiii

List of Appendices xiv

Chapter 1: Introduction to Thesis 1

1. Introduction 1

1.1. The theory of attitudes 1

1.2. Male and female offenders 6

1.3. Rehabilitation of offenders 8

1.4. The role of professionals in forensic settings 9

1.5. Professional attitudes towards offending 11

1.6. Summary 13

1.7. Presentation of the thesis. 14

Chapter 2: The effect of perpetrator gender on perceptions of offending: a systematic review of professional perspectives 16

Abstract 16

2. Introduction 17

2.1.1. Scope of this review 17

2.1.2. Background literature 17

2.1.3. Perceptions of sexual offending 19

2.1.4. Perceptions of violent offending 21

2.1.5. Perception of intimate partner violence (IPV) 22

2.1.6. Measuring attitudes 23

2.2.6.1. Vignettes 23

2.2.6.2. Jackson Incest Blame Scale (JIBS) 24

2.2.6.3. Attitudes to Prisoners Scale(ATP)/ Attitudes to Sexual Offenders Scale (ATS) 24
2.1.7. Objectives 25
2.1.8. Previous reviews 26
2.2. Method 26
2.2.1. Inclusion/Exclusion criteria 27
2.2.2. Population 29
2.2.3. Characteristic profile 30
2.2.4. Outcomes 30
2.2.5. Study characteristics 30
2.2.6. Report characteristics 30
2.2.7. Information sources 30
2.2.8. Search terms 31
2.2.9. Study selection 34
2.2.10. Data extraction 34
2.2.11. Critical appraisal of study quality & risk of bias 34
2.3. Results 35
2.3.1. Results of searches 35
2.3.2. Characteristics of included studies. 35
2.3.3. Quality of included studies 35
2.3.4. Data synthesis 56
2.3.5. Attitudinal difference towards male and female offenders 56
2.3.5.1. Sexual offences (excluding incest) 56
2.3.5.2. Offences of incest 59
2.3.5.3. Violent offending 60
2.3.5.4. Other offences 62
2.4. Discussion 65
2.4.1. Gender bias overall 65
2.4.2. The impact of personal victim experiences 71

2.5. Limitations 72

2.6. Conclusion 73

Chapter 3: An organisational case study: The impact of resilience training on attitudes towards male and female offenders. 75

Abstract 75

3. Introduction 76

3.1. Method 86

3.1.1. Training workshop 86

3.1.2. Measures 88

3.2. Results 90

3.2.1. MATP 91

3.2.2. CBQ 92

3.2.3. Likelihood 93

3.2.4. Explanations for criminal conduct 94

3.2.5. Personal views 95

3.3. Discussion 96

3.4. Limitations 101

3.5. Future research 102

Chapter 4: Professional attitudes towards sexual offenders, based on perpetrator and victim gender, and the impact of implicit theories upon these attitudes. 104

Abstract 104

4. Introduction 105

4.1.1. Implicit theories 105

4.1.2. Professional attitudes 108

4.1.3. Impact on judgements of seriousness of crime and harm to the victim 109

4.1.4. Impact on judgements of recommended sentence 112

4.1.5. The present study 113

4.2. Method 115

4.2.1. Ethical considerations 115

4.2.2. Participants 115
4.2.3. Procedure 117
4.2.4. Materials 119
4.2.5. Analytic strategy 122
4.3. Results 127
4.4. Discussion 137
4.4.1. Summary findings 138
4.4.2.Implicit theories about sexual offenders 139
4.5. Conclusion 144
4.6. Limitations 144
4.7. Future research 145
Chapter 5: The use of the Attitude to Sex Offender Scale with staff working in forensic settings: A psychometric critique. 148
Abstract 148
5. Introduction 149
5.1.1. Overview of the ATS 153
5.1.2. Overview of the ATS-21 154
5.2. Normative data 155
5.3. Psychometric properties 157
5.3.1. Reliability 157
5.3.2. Internal consistency reliability 163
5.3.3. Test-retest reliability 164
5.3.4. Validity 166
5.3.4.1. Face validity 166
5.3.4.2. Concurrent validity 168
5.3.4.3. Predictive validity 168
5.3.4.4. Construct validity 170
5.3.4.5. Convergent validity 172
5.3.4.6. Discriminant validity 173

5.4. Other factors 173

5.5. Conclusion 174

Chapter 6: General Discussion 177

6.1. Theory & practice 181

6.2. Conclusion 184

References 185

Appendices 212

List of Tables

Table 1	Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria.....	**29**
Table 2	Study Characteristics.....	**37**
Table 3	Risk of Bias.....	**42**
Table 4	Key Findings of Studies Assessing Sexual Offences (Excluding Incest)	**44**
Table 5	Key Findings of Studies Assessing the Offence of Incest.....	**47**
Table 6	Key Findings of Studies Assessing Violent Offences (Including Murder and IPV).....	**48**
Table 7	Key Findings of Studies Assessing the Offences Classified as "Other"(Including Generic Offenders").....	**52**
Table 8	Means and Standard Deviations of the MATP for both Offender Groups Pre-and Post Training	**92**
Table 9	Changes on the Pre and Post-Training Scores for the Hypothetical Male Case Study on the Likelihood of Recidivism, Rehabilitation and Maintaining Employment.....	**93**
Table 10	Changes on the Pre-and Post-Training Scores for the Hypothetical Case Study on the Explanations for Offending.....	**95**
Table 11	Changes on the Pre-and Post-Training Scores for the Hypothetical Case Study on the Explanations for Personal Feelings.....	**96**
Table 12	Participants by Occupational Group.....	**116**
Table 13	Participants by Working Environment.....	**117**
Table 14	Internal Consistencies for the ATS-21, Including the Three Subscales....	**121**
Table 15	Shapiro-Wilk Normality Testing.....	**123**
Table 16	Means, Interquartile Ranges, Effect Size and Group differences on Each ATS-21 Subscale.....	**128**
Table 17	Results of the Goodness of Fit Test for the Severity of the offence Variable……	**129**
Table 18	Model Fitness Information for the Severity of the Offence Variable…..	**130**

Table 19 Tests of Model Effects for the Severity of the Offence Variable…….. **130**

Table 20 Parameter Estimates for the Severity of the Offence Variable……. **131**

Table 21 Results of the Goodness of Fit Test for the Impact on the Victim Variable……..... **132**

Table 22 Model Fitness Information for the Impact on the Victim Variable…….... **133**

Table 23 Tests of Model Effects for the Impact on the Victim Variable……. **133**

Table 24 Parameter Estimates for the Impact on the Victim Variable……. **134**

Table 25 Results of the Goodness of Fit Test for the Recommended Sentence Variable……. **135**

Table 26 Model Fitness Information for the Recommended Sentence Variable…. **136**

Table 27 Tests of Model Effects for the Recommended Sentence Variable…… **136**

Table 28 Parameter Estimates for the Recommended Sentence Variable……... **137**

Table 29 Studies Reporting Data for the ATS..... **157**

Table 30 Studies Reporting Data for the ATS-21..... **160**

List of Figures

Figure 1 Systematic Review Selection process..... **33**

Figure 2 Age Range of Participants..... **116**

Figure 3 Histogram & Normal Distribution Curve of the ATS-21 Total..... **124**

Figure 4 Histogram & Normal Distribution Curve of the ATS-21. Factor 1 "Trust" **124**

Figure 5 Histogram & Normal Distribution Curve of the ATS-21. Factor 2 "Intent" **125**

Figure 6 Histogram & Normal Distribution Curve of the ATS-21. Factor 3 "Social Distance" **125**

List of Appendices

Appendix 1:	Search Syntax……..	**212**
Appendix 2:	Data Extraction Form ……..…….....	**222**
Appendix 3:	Quality Appraisal Form…….…….	**226**
Appendix 4:	Case Study Measure A: Modified ATP (Male Offender).....	**234**
Appendix 5:	Case Study Measure B: Modified ATP (Female Offender).....	**236**
Appendix 6:	Case Based Questionnaires.....	**238**
Appendix 7:	Ethical Approval Letter...……...…...	**243**
Appendix 8:	Participant Information Sheet.....	**245**
Appendix 9:	Implicit Theories about Human Behaviour and Sexual Offenders	**249**
Appendix 10:	ATS-21.....	**250**
Appendix 11:	Vignettes.....	**253**
Appendix 12:	Questions following the vignette.....	**255**
Appendix 13:	Demographic Questionnaire…….....	**256**
Appendix 14:	Study Debrief.....	**258**
Appendix 15:	Normality Plots.....	**261**

Chapter 1: Introduction to Thesis

1. Introduction

The Criminal Justice System within the UK is focussed on the protection of the public. But this anodyne can be politicised, for example, the view that "Society needed to condemn more and understand less" was expressed by the Prime Minister John Major and this position was taken by the UK Government at the time of his administration (Macintyre, 1993). What followed within the UK was a shift in the role of criminal justice towards punishment and less towards societal reintegration and rehabilitation. This resulted in an increase in the length of prison sentences and the role of probation officers evolved to focus on control and risk assessment and subsequent management, with less emphasis on social work aspects of their job. Whilst society being involved in the democracy of many aspects of UK decision making has some positive points (Ryan, 2004), this also comes with risks, particularly when this involves criminal justice (Roberts et al., 2002), as society can collectively be punitive. Over the years, with increased media coverage, the UK public have often called for increasing and often limitless prison sentences with a "throw away the key" attitude. However, this is often in direct conflict with the reality of criminal justice, with overcrowding in prisons and increased criminological and psychological evidence indicating that incarceration alone is not a deterrent to future offending (King & Maruna, 2009).

1.1. The theory of attitudes

Attitude can be defined as "psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour" (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p.1). Attitudes work on an appraisal based approach, whereby individuals evaluate information and utilise this to make a judgement of

agreement or disagreement in relation to an object, situation or person. The entity (object), which is under consideration, can be anything that an individual chooses to appraise (Eagly, 1992). The attitude held by an individual is internal or personal to them, and thus is likely to produce a favourable response if the attitude held is positive, and conversely an unfavourable response if the attitude is negative. Eagly (1992) proposes that such responses can be cognitive, affective, or behavioural. It is suggested that these three components are distinct but inter-related; 1) the cognitive component is what people think about the attitude object, 2) the affective component is what people feel about the attitude object and 3) the behavioural component is how people act towards the attitude object. This tripartite model of attitude structure is not a new concept and has been explored within social psychology for many years (Allport, 1954; McGuire, 1969). Allport (1954) suggested that in addition to the interplay of thoughts, feelings and behaviour, attitudes are developed through past experiences, they generally persist over time and remain relatively stable. However, the stability can be impacted by some other process or event, although this needs to be of significance in order for a large attitudinal change.

Breckler (1984) evaluated this model a decade prior to Eagly's (1992) proposition. In Breckler's (1984) research, attitude was defined as a response to a precursor stimulus, with the stimulus considered as the independent variable. Breckler (1984) then suggested that the affect, cognition and behaviour are responses to the stimulus, however these responses are often unobservable. The findings of Breckler's (1984) study indicated that affect, behaviour and cognition are distinct components of attitudes, offering strong support for a tripartite model. Whilst, this study was limited to the single concept of snakes, it did however demonstrate a high correlation of the attitude components. This was

particularly the case when participants were only asked to imagine being in the presence of a snake. Indicative of the difference between actual or imagined affective states. Breckler (1984) highlighted that independence of attitude components could be expected when responses to an object are interceded by a number of response systems. This is in support of Greenwald's (1982) findings that the response from an individual's cognitive structure may be different to the other response systems such as behaviour or affect. Breckler (1984) uses the analogy of an individual having an allergy to animal fur; the allergy may control the affective and behavioural responses, (so the individual actively avoids coming into contact with a dog or has an adverse physiological reaction if they were exposed to one). However, the cognitive response is that they very much like dogs. Therefore, consideration should be given to the driver of the attitude and how this is presented. However, it is difficult to assess the attitude without the use of self-report measures. Whilst affect can be measured using physiological reactions such as heart rate or galvanic skin responses, verbal reports of personal feelings and mood are often also used. Behavioural responses can be collected through observations of overt behaviour, however, again the use of verbal statements regarding ones behaviour is likely to be adopted. Beliefs (cognitions) are so subjective and personal for each individual that the most used method of collection is self-report.

Gawronski and Bodenhausen (2006) proposed an alternative framework for attitudes, namely the associative – propositional evaluation (APE) model. They suggested that the tendencies of attitude evaluation is ingrained in two types of underlying mental processes; associative and propositional. Associative processes are when an individual encounters a relevant stimulus, certain associations will be automatically activated and result in spontaneous affective reactions. Personal

endorsements are not reflected in this process nor does a person consider if this association is correct or true. Associative activation can depend on a) the pre-existing structure of associations held in memory and b) the particular set of external input stimuli (Smith, 1996). In addition to this, the same object item may activate different associative patterns depending on the context in which the object is encountered. In many circumstances, people will use their spontaneous affective reactions when making an evaluative judgement. However, on other occasions people will utilise additional information to make an evaluative judgement. The importance aspect here is whether this additional information is consistent or inconsistent with the spontaneous affective response (Gawronski and Bodenhausen, 2006). The affective responses from spontaneously activated associations may be accepted or rejected based on the propositional process. The propositional process requires deductive reasoning, in order for an individual to evaluate the judgements. This is derived from propositional information that is considered relevant by the individual for a given judgement. The evaluation of a judgement is likely to develop a stronger foundation when the propositional implication of an automatic affective reaction is consistent with other related propositions.

Gawronski and Bodenhausen (2006) also considered the development of hypothetical propositions and simple knowledge of propositions. The APE model describes these as being propositions that are given truth values with a preliminary character. It is believed that even the simple consideration of such a proposition increases the activation of associations within the memory and this will then increase the perceived validity of the proposition. Even the knowledge of an endorsed proposition by other people can be enough to contribute to the activation process, even when the individual may not believe in the validity of that

proposition (Kawakami, Dovido, & Dijksterhuis, 2003). This demonstrates how attitudes can be impacted on by others, even when an individual may not fully hold that belief. For example, even minimal exposure of cultural stereotypes may lead to negative reactions towards members of a minority group when the stereotype is considered inaccurate (Devine, 1989). Thus, in consideration of sexual offenders, it is possible that exposure to stereotypes of sexual offenders within a work place setting is enough to impact upon the belief system of a professional.

Considering the above theories, it is possible to apply the social cognitive theory (SCT) to attitudes. The SCT focuses on the interaction between internal factors such as thinking and symbolic processing (such as attention and memory) and external factors (such as rewards and punishments) in determining an individual's behaviour. It is within this theory that terms such as schemas (Bless et al., 2004; Fiske & Taylor, 1991) or implicit theories (Ward, 2000) have been suggested to explain how individuals have developed networks of beliefs, which hold strong mutual links (Gannon, 2009). It is these beliefs, which allow people to make sense of the world, themselves and others based upon their own experiences. However often with schemas, predications are made based upon one's expectations rather than the reality of the attitude object. On this basis, a schema or implicit belief is likely to be an associative process. As Gannon (2009) highlights, because of this automatic process, errors in perception may occur, causing negative outcomes. Fiske and Taylor (1991) highlight that schemas can shape social experiences and when they are frequently rehearsed, they can automatically control ones interpretation of the world.

Tiedens (2001) also highlighted situational priming, which may include strong emotional states, that may influence an individual's cognitive capacity,

thus causing more complications in the processing of information. In Breckler's (1984) model, there is consideration of the interaction of all three components (cognitive, affect and behavioural responses). Therefore, it could be suggested that in a particular situation, if the emotional levels are so high they negatively impact upon an individual's cognition, developing a reliance upon the pre-existing schema to make sense of the situation. What can be seen from the exploration of the theory of attitudes is that they are complex and do not rely on a single construct.

Combing the complexities of attitudes with the perception of offenders, in particular how these perceptions may differ based upon the gender of the offender will be the focus of this research. The remainder of the introduction will explore the research on male and female offenders, how male and female offenders are generally dealt with post-conviction, the role of professionals working with offenders and the research on these professionals' attitudes towards offenders. This latter point will be re-visited throughout the various chapters within the thesis and so will not be extensively covered during the introduction as to ensure that repletion throughout the thesis is kept to a minimum.

1.2. Male and female offenders

Over time, research has aided a greater understanding of offenders, and has explored in more depth potential causes for such behaviour, so moving away from the belief systems that offenders are inherently bad for no reason. Windom (1997) identified that the risk of criminality increased by 50% if individuals have been exposed to abuse in their childhood. With this as a consideration, the punitive aspect of criminal behaviour makes it questionable as to whether incarceration without treatment for long-term abuse would aid an individual to

refrain from committing further offences. Where specific offences such as violence have been explored, findings have demonstrated that severe childhood maltreatment and abuse have been present across a range of offenders who have committed murder, including children (Shumaker & Prinz, 2000), adolescents (Beckman, 2004; Heide, 1995, 1999) and adults (Lewis, et al., 2001; Pincus, 2001), however, it must be noted that all of the offenders explored in these studies were male. Further to this, research has been conducted into the prevalence of trauma in female offenders. Babcock et al. (2003) found that female offenders scored high for trauma symptoms, with this relating to early exposure to violence. Research has also shown that whilst both male and female offenders have reported experiencing childhood abuse, this is often higher for females (64.8%) than males (55.4%) (Lake, 1995). In addition to this, Lake (1995) identified that types of victimisation experienced between men and women differs, whilst both genders report being victimised by strangers, this was mainly in the form of physical assault for men, and sexual assault for women.

Within the context of childhood abuse, is that of a poor development of attachment with a significant caregiver. Attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969) asserts that how adults function in relationships is largely developed in childhood through relationships with significant caregivers. There has been a wide range of research conducted into the links between attachment styles and the development of domestic violent behaviour. Dutton et al. (1994) found that in male perpetrators of domestic violence the rate of insecure attachment was much higher in comparison to a control group. When this research was extended to females who had perpetrated domestic violence, attachment was considered on a continuum. Women who reported high levels of attachment anxiety and low avoidance of attachment were more likely to perpetrate domestic violence (Orcutt et al., 2005).

A final consideration is given to the rates of mental illness between men and women who are incarcerated. Research indicates that mental illness amongst women who are in secure environments is higher than in men held in the same conditions (Lewis, 2006; Warren et al., 2002). Lewis (2006) reported that mental health treatment is required for between one and two thirds of women who enter the prison system, with common diagnoses of post-traumatic stress disorder, major depressive disorder and generalised anxiety disorder. When considering the co-morbidity of substance misuse and mental illness, research found that 51.8% of women who had a substance misuse problem reported experiencing mental health problems. Whilst this was lower in men who had a 30.7% existence of substance misuse and mental illness co-morbidity rate.

1.3. Rehabilitation of offenders

Throughout the last 40 years there have been continuous debates about the effectiveness of intervention programmes within forensic settings, starting with the notion that "nothing Works" (Martinson, 1974) moving through to a "something works" perspective (McGuire, 1995) and rehabilitation currently stands with a view that interventions do work, providing they are targeted correctly. However, much of the research into the rehabilitative culture of secure environments has been very much focussed on "general populations" (Gibbons, 1999). This predominantly means males, as they make up a large proportion of both the prison and secure hospital estates. Much less, research has been dedicated to the impact of rehabilitation of female offenders. The Department of Health set out a policy in which the gender-specific needs of women in secure settings needed to be targeted to ensure that those settings, detaining women were sensitive to their gender and care needs alongside their risk management (DoH, 2003). In support of this, Koons et al. (2007) completed a qualitative study

with the purpose of identifying a more specific intervention strategy solely for women. They identified a number of treatment targets, which only partially overlapped with their criminogenic needs, which had previously been identified in treatment literature for an offender population (Andrews & Bonta, 1998; Andrews et al., 1990). This was indicative that the male and female offender populations required different target needs to be met through different intervention packages and that offenders could not be put together as one whole group. However, Koons et al. (2007) suggested that the principals of effective treatment (i.e. Risk, Needs, Responsivity) might still apply to the female population. Although the intricacies of treatment may need to be more gender-specific.

In Canada, research has highlighted the need for rehabilitation programmes involving women to focus on areas such as family responsibilities (e.g. caring for children), positive coping strategies, healthy familial relationships, and access to educational programmes that will lead to better economic independence (Greene & Pranis, 2006). This is partially supported by the findings of Covington and Bloom (2006) who found that women were less likely to be in employment prior to their arrest compared to men. This suggests women may initially require more practical support around their rehabilitation needs. Additionally research has suggested that women in prison would likely benefit from programmes that incorporate structures such as empowerment, self-confidence and relationships (Covington & Bloom, 2006; O'Brien & Young, 2006). Whereas rehabilitation for men is likely to be targeted more towards cognitive impairments, the function of offending and strategies to desist from future offending.

1.4. The role of professionals in forensic settings

Central to the role of rehabilitation is that of the professionals who work alongside offenders, be it in the capacity of those who directly deliver

interventions or therapy, those who assess offenders, or those who manage them both within secure settings and on a community basis. Ward et al. (2004) found that the social environment of a prison is a key aspect as to the sustainability and generalisability of treatments gains. Further to this, prison environments that are deemed anti-therapeutic have been found to have a negative effect on readiness to treatment and programme outcomes (Schalast et al., 2008). The environment does not simply constitute of the physical surrounds, as the atmosphere provided by staff goes some way to contributing to the experiences of a secure environment. Blagden et al. (2016) found the attitudes of staff within the prison environment played a central role in the successful treatment and rehabilitation of offenders. Comparing secure hospitals and prisons, both house those who have been convicted by the courts, but the distinct difference for a secure hospital is described as it having fluidity between care and surveillance (Fernandez & Lézé, 2011), whereas prisons are thought of more as a punishment and indicate the need for detention. On this basis, it is fair to suggest that the environment of secure hospitals are set out as therapeutic in nature. However, both secure hospitals and prisons encourage offenders to engage in interventions as a means of aiding rehabilitation and reducing recidivism. Neither environment has a standalone function, as hospitals require security measures due to the level of risk attributed to residents, and a proportion of offenders in prison require psychiatric care due to poor mental health (Velpry & Eyraud, 2014).

A number of studies have highlighted the need for positive staff attitudes, a belief that offenders can change when developing effective rehabilitation for offenders, and how this helps promote effective change in offending behaviour (Hogue, 1993; Kjelsberg & Loos, 2008; Lea et al., 1999). It is arguable that these positive relationships need to be outside that of just therapy or interventions

staff. To encourage a stable belief of change in an offender, there needs to be a consistent approach from all staff. This in turn enables generalising of more positive environments as discussed above. Therefore, it can be argued that there is a requirement for prison officers, nursing staff, psychologists, psychiatrists, medical nurses, probation offices and the wealth of other disciplines working in such environments to hold, and outwardly display, positive attitudes towards change in order to promote a culture of changing offending behaviour.

1.5. Professional attitudes towards offending

There have been many studies, which have explored professional attitudes towards offenders, however few have explored the impact of offender gender upon these attitudes. Of the small number of studies which have explored the impact of gender it has been difficult to establish consistent outcomes due to the heterogeneous nature of the studies, this will be explored in more depth within the systematic review. Throughout this thesis, more in-depth considerations and examinations of the studies will be conducted. However to provide framing for the thesis, brief considerations are given to some of the existing research on professionals' attitudes towards offenders.

Research conducted by Horn and Hollin (1997), with the adapted version of the Attitudes Towards Prisoners (ATP) scale to measure police and non-police personnel attitudes towards male and female offenders, found no difference between the genders. However, female offenders were viewed as less deviant and more trustworthy than male offenders, suggesting that women are perceived to not have such a "criminal nature", and instead commit crime due to other reasons and only temporarily deviate from a law-abiding lifestyle. The implications from this study are that if police hold the views that women do not intentionally commit crimes, there is a possibility that police may show a higher

level of discretion with arresting or charging a female. The study by Horn and Hollin (1997) looked at offending in general, with no exploration into specific offences. It is possible that differences could emerge when the offending is more serious.

When considering females as sexual offenders, research has suggested that traditional gender scripts play a role in the dismissal of women being identified as sexual offenders, despite evidence of women also engaging in these behaviours (Denov, 2003a; Finklehor, 1984; Smith et al., 1997). Often women will commit sexual offences under the guise of child-caring behaviours, and as such, the probability of it being recognised by others, including professional agencies is greatly reduced (Hislop, 2001). It is possible that these stereotypes become the fixed beliefs held by people, which then distorts the reality of sexual abuse committed by females. Denov (2001) found police officers and psychiatrists drew upon belief systems that identified women as harmless and sexually passive, and as such, the abuse committed by women was seen as harmless and benign. This resulted in the minimisation of offences and the exoneration of their behaviour, and the view that they posed no danger to the community, despite their showing sexually aggressive behaviour towards children.

In keeping with the attitudinal results above, when considering the criminal justice processing of female offenders, early research purported that females were inherently less criminal, and were treated more leniently than men were. Women were less likely to be arrested, convicted and incarcerated (Daly, 1994; Daly & Bordt, 1995; Kruttschnitt, 1996), and when incarcerated, women's sentencing was much shorter than men (Steffensmeier et al., 1993). Chivalry was considered a key component of such leniency, with the idea that "ladies" are not considered on an equal footing as men, therefore they are thought to be less

capable of committing criminal acts in comparison to their male counterparts (Belknap, 2001). Newer research has still found that females are less likely to be incarcerated than males (Blackwell, Holleran, & Finn, 2008). This study found that there was little difference in the number of females being incarcerated whether structured sentencing guidelines were or were not in place. Previous research has suggested that when judges consider the defendants' attributes (including gender) in conjunction with the offence, generalised stereotypes have played a role in sentencing decisions (Steffenmeiser et al., 1998)

Considering the information presented above, it is possible that some professionals exhibit implicit prejudice, with more positive views towards women than men. As Ottaway, Hayden, & Oakes (2001) found, people often fail to recognise that they have sexist belief structures, but when undertaking implicit tasks they demonstrate such views. Therefore, it is possible that some professionals show this for female offenders, whilst they do not display overt discrimination towards either men or women, or even recognise that they hold such views, females are favoured, in terms of being seen as less harmful than men. This would allow professionals to potentially rationalise the behaviours of women and give consideration to other reasons as to why they have acted in the ways they have, such as mental health or exposure to trauma.

1.6. Summary

This introduction has provided an overview of theories of attitudes and how these may influence the views held by professionals about male and female offenders. Consideration has been given to male and female offenders in more general terms, including their early experiences and other factors including mental health and substance misuse. The prevalence of mental illness appears to differ between males and females and can impact upon the way in which female and

male offenders need to be managed. As has been identified, the impact of working relationships between professionals and offenders can have a positive impact on rehabilitation. This thesis aims to explore the similarities and differences between perceptions of male and female offenders from a professional perspective. This thesis topic was chosen as whilst opinions of offenders have been explored, these are generally based upon only one gender and of the few studies which have comparatively explored both genders. This information has not been synthesised, hence the role of the systematic review in chapter two. Little focus has been given on the role of implicit theories held by professionals and how these may impact upon attitudes towards male and female offenders; this is explored in chapter three. By exploring this topic, consideration can be given to the impact on clinical practice and the potential need for additional training or specific interview criteria to be employed when recruiting professionals to work within forensic settings.

1.7. Presentation of the thesis.

This thesis adopts a funnel approach to explore the impact of gender upon professional perceptions of offending. This approach has been utilised to explore a more varied range of professional perceptions initially, narrowing down the research to explore attitudes towards one type of offence. It was felt that this could add a more comprehensive overview of the role played by gender in a professional's perception of offenders. Therefore, the wider part of this funnel is represented in the systematic review and organisational case study, which are presented at the beginning of the thesis. This has allowed for an exploration of offending in more general terms, where male and female offenders are explored irrespective of the type of crime. In addition, it was felt that the systematic review would have been extremely limited if only one specific offence type was focussed on due to the relatively small research base of professional attitudes towards male

and female offenders. Chapters four and five (the empirical study and psychometric critique) provide the narrowest part of the funnel, with the emphasis on sexual offending and the means by which attitudes towards this type of offence can be measured. The decision to narrow down the thesis was chosen to develop the field of research around sexual offenders regarding professional attitudes towards male and female offenders.

Chapter 2: The effect of perpetrator gender on perceptions of offending: a systematic review of professional perspectives

Abstract

Professional attitudes towards offending is widely researched, however the impact of offender gender on these attitudes has been explored less, with no synthesis of the data. Professionals have many roles within the forensic field, including the rehabilitation of offenders, providing support and guidance for victims and reporting of abuse. Therefore, the differing views based on perpetrator gender are important to explore as this may help to inform professional practice. This review incorporates the existing research in relation to the impact of offender gender on professional perceptions of offending. An extensive systematic search was performed using seven electronic databases, five theses/systematic review databases and three search engines; hand searching via reference lists was also performed. After removing duplicates and the study's eligibility by title, 92 studies were then assessed against the inclusion criteria resulting in 17 publications being appraised, with data on 5179 participants. Quality appraisal was conducted by two raters, with good inter-rater reliability, however methodological bias was prevalent and so generalisability of the results is somewhat limited. A narrative synthesis was then performed. The results produced mixed findings; whilst just over half of the studies viewed males more negatively than women, it is difficult to conclude a definitive gender bias due to the heterogeneous nature of the studies. Consideration is given to the need for further exploration of the potential confounding factor of victim experience of participants taking part in such studies.

2. Introduction

2.1.1. Scope of this review

The main research question to be explored within this review is "Does the gender of the offender impact upon a professionals' attitude towards that offender". Within the context of a professional, roles such as police officers, prison officers, probation officers, nurses, psychologists, mental health practitioners, education staff, solicitors/those working within legal settings, social care staff and domestic violence support staff were all included. What this systematic review is designed to do is to examine all studies which have explored professionals' attitudes towards both male and female offenders and how the gender of the offender affects the attitudes. All types of crimes were chosen to be included within this review, allowing a wider range of results to be obtained. The reason for doing this is two-fold; 1) this would also allow the author to examine any patterns of attitudes held (if any) across certain offence types and 2) this would prevent the narrowing down of a potentially small set of search results.

2.1.2. Background literature

Despite the years of research, there continues to be disagreements amongst the academic community about how attitudes should be defined. One of the original general agreements from literature states that attitudes develop from the beliefs and values that an individual holds towards another person or object (Azjen & Fishbein, 1980). Higgins (1986) stated that such attitudes are developed via both experiences of thinking and feeling. Over time, these become more permanent and are held within the long-term memory. As explored within the introduction of this thesis (Chapter 1), the multi-factorial model of attitudes provides a more in depth exploration of attitudes, incorporating cognition, affect and behaviour as contributing factors to the development of attitudes (Breckler,

1984). In more recent research, an attitude is considered to be a summary evaluation of an object of thought, with the notion that an object can be anything that one holds in their mind, not necessarily a tangible object (Vogal & Wanke, 2016).

Research into the attitudes of offending is not a new phenomenon, this area of academia has been explored over the last 30 years, and primarily this has been with a focus on public attitudes (Harper 2012; Proeve & Howells, 2006). However, research has also been conducted into the impact of media on attitudes towards crime (Boda & Szabo, 2011; McCartan, 2004), attitudes towards sentencing (Warner & Davis, 2012) and also attitudes held by those working within the criminal justice field (Higgins & Ireland, 2009; Hogue, 1993; Johnson et al., 2007; Kjelsberg & Loos, 2008).

From the early 1980's attitudes towards offenders were explored, results demonstrated strong and negative stereotypes being held by prison officers, probation officers and offenders themselves (McCormick, 1984). However, in more recent years such findings have not been supported, with less support for strong stereotypes and less consistency being found across participant groups (Blagden, et al., 2016; Gakhal & Brown; 2011; Feguson & Ireland, 2006). In addition to this, research has been conducted to explore the similarities and differences between police and public perceptions of seriousness on several offences, including; violence, fraud, sexual offences, drug offences and driving offences. The findings suggested there is little difference between the two groups in the ordering of offences from least to most severe (Levi & Jones, 1985). However, when looking at the average ratings, members of the public tended to rate the offences as more serious than the police. When exploring driving offences alone, Corbett and Simon (1991) found there was a strong tendency for

the public to rate the relatively minor offences as more serious than the police. Research has also found that attitudes towards individuals who commit sexual offences have been more hostile from the general public than from those working within criminal justice settings (McAlindon & Shewan, 2014, cited by Harper & Hogue, 2015). It is arguable that the general public, who do not work within forensic settings, mainly get their knowledge of offenders from the media. Harper (2012), who suggested that attitudes could be mediated outside of an individual's education, has previously asserted this proposition and indicated that attitudes were likely influence by the national news agenda. If this is the case, it is possible that the general public hold a greater degree of concern and thus hold more negative views about offending due to only developing their opinions from limited and potentially biased sources.

Offending has consistently shown proportionally high rates of offences being committed by males than females (Heidensohn, 1997; Rowe et al., 1995). Whilst there has been a variety of research into the origins of criminality and the applicability of theories to both male and female offending. What has been less well explored are professional attitudes of offending based upon gender of the offender. Of the studies conducted to assess how gender of offenders affects perceptions of offending, much of these have focussed on the views of the general public. Alfredsson et al. (2016) found that beliefs about intimate partner violence and the type of violence used was dependent upon combinations of victim and offender gender.

2.1.3. Perceptions of sexual offending

It was argued that during the early 2000's there was a modern day moral panic surrounding paedophilia (Cohen, 2003; Silverman and Wilson, 2002). Moral panics are described as heightened sense of exaggerated concern about a threat

or perceived threat posed by “deviants” (Goode, 2017). Within this moral panic, paedophiles were seen to be potentially threatening to the stability of society due to their crimes. Whilst no doubt these crimes are of an extremely serious and damaging nature, the likelihood that the entire stability of societal structure would be affected was somewhat extreme and out of proportion to the actual threat posed. This prompted widespread fear and irrational responses from the general public, including the development of “paedophile hunters”. Silverman and Wilson (2002) suggested that this moral panic was caused by media influence. Whilst other offending groups have not caused panic to this level what has been found is that media plays a role in the views of the general public.

There are some historical research studies which suggest professionals regard both physical and sexual abuse perpetrated by mother’s towards their children as less severe when compared to father’s who commit similar abuse (Finklehor, 1984). More recently, findings indicate that professionals were in disbelief and discomfort when exploring female perpetrated sexual abuse (Denov, 2001), despite their professional roles increasing the likelihood of coming into contact with such offences. Peter (2009) suggested that the sexual acts carried out by females against children are often similar to those perpetrated by males and the psychosexual impact of the abuse by females appears to be as serious, if not more so, to that of male-perpetrated sexual abuse (Denov, 2004; Kelly, Wood, Gonzalez, et al., 2002). When assessing the impact of gender within sexual offending, Denov (2001) described a ‘‘culture of denial’’, which places males almost exclusively within the role of aggressor or abuser and females in the role victim or the abused. Public perceptions of male and female perpetrated sexual offences were explored by Borstein et al. (2007), who found that participants

perceived male sexual offences to be more traumatic and the victim to be more believable than in female sexual abuse cases.

2.1.4. Perceptions of violent offending

Boda and Szabo (2011) found that media representations of violence and aggression shaped the views of the Hungarian public to believe that there were high rates of violent offending, despite crime figures not supporting this. Indicative that the sensationalism of crime, created by the media, can have a profound impact on the views of offending. When exploring firearm violence, Payton et al. (2015) found that the vast majority of American legislators perceived this to be a very serious offence and they viewed that the best way to deal with such offences was to address societal issues as a whole. However, the focus of this study was on the African American community generally, with no differentiation of gender included within the findings.

Within in-patient care, findings suggest that nurses often perceive violence as offensive and destructive (Jonker et al., 2008). However, the complications of perceptions of seriousness around violence within these settings appear to develop from the notion that it is part of the job, or around reporting of incidents, with some staff members believing that the incident was minor so did not warrant a formal report (Skellern & Lovell, 2008). Research indicates that the violence experienced within in-patient settings is likely to be more severe than incidents in the community (Daynes et al. 2011), with these incidents often being more prolonged, lacking immediate support and extreme in nature (Lovell & Skellern, 2013). All of this can often result in a level of acceptance that experiencing violence is integral to the job (Hakeem & Fitzgerald, 2002). In addition to this, research has found that often nurses will try rationalising or finding reasoning for the violence and aggression they have experienced as it being a consequence of

an additional condition such as Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD), Borderline Personality Disorder (BPD) or dementia (Lovell & Skellern, 2019).

2.1.5. Perception of Intimate Partner Violence (IPV)

In respect of violence but within the context of the home/family environment, which would come under the more universal term of intimate partner violence (IPV) or domestic violence (DV). It has been suggested that attitudes towards DV held by police officers are likely to influence their assessment and response to the DV situation they are called to (Belknap, 1995; Robinson & Chandek, 2000). For example witnessing an act of violence, seeing physical injuries on the victim, involvement in substance abuse and the characteristics of the local neighbourhood have all been found to impact on how a police officer handles the DV case (Belknap, 1995; Buzawa & Buzawa, 2003). Logan et al. (2006) found that police officers believed that treatment would be more beneficial for DV offences when compared to other violent offences. This supports the findings of Belknap (1995), who found that police officers preferred to utilise mediation rather than arrest in DV cases. However, where it was evident that the offender used alcohol or drugs, police officers felt the need for high sanctions to be imposed in comparison to the offenders who did not use such substances. The overall results from Logan et al's. (2006) study indicated that whilst DV was believed to be a "treatable" offence, violent offending in general was not. However, DV and IPV offences are violent by the very nature of the behaviour involved in the crime. Therefore, it is interesting to see that professionals view violent offences and DV/IPV differently. There are a number of studies, which have highlighted that offenders who commit DV/IPV have a long history of violent offences and involvement in other criminal activities (Buzawa et al., 1998; Logan et al., 2001a, 2001b; Logan et al., 2002). It would appear from

these findings that at times, those who commit DV/IPV offences are viewed as standalone offenders with minimal consideration given to their offending histories. However, within the studies discussed here, there has been no consideration given to how these attitudes could have been affected by the gender of the offender and offenders have either been identified as male or there has been no assignment of gender.

2.1.6. Measuring attitudes

There are a variety of methods, which have been devised and are currently used by researchers in order to measure the attitudes towards offenders/offending. Some of the observed methods utilised by the studies included in this review are briefly described below. These ones were chosen as the ones which were used most frequently across the included studies.

2.2.6.1. Vignettes

Vignettes were found to be utilised the most within the studies included in this review and seem to be a popular method of data collection within social science research. Vignettes are stimuli which can include written, audio or visual information. Written forms may include short scenario based stories or newspaper or literature extracts. Audio vignettes can include songs, music, spoken narratives or general sounds. Visual vignettes may include pictures or extracts from films. Following the presentation of the vignette, participants are then presented with research questions which they are asked to respond to (Hughes & Huby, 2002). These questions will be related to the overall research question of the study, this may be around severity of offending, the effect of the offending on the victim, the proposed sentencing for the offender and attributions of responsibility. Vignettes have been found to play an important role in a variety of research studies including comparative research between groups of

professionals (Wilson & White, 1998). Vignettes are often used when trying to capture beliefs, attitudes, values and perceptions of participants, this method allows for some element of reality to be captured in what can often be very complex subject matter (Hughes & Huby, 2012).

2.2.6.2. Jackson Incest Blame Scale (JIBS)

The Jackson Incest Blame Scale (JIBS; Jackson & Ferguson, 1983) was adapted from the Attributions of Rape Blame Scale (Jackson & Ferguson, 1983). The JIBS consists of 20 statements designed to represent the way in which individuals may attribute blame in incest. Respondents are required to state the degree to which they agree or disagree with each statement, based on a 6 point-Likert scale of 0 to 5 (0 - strong agreement and 5 - strong disagreement). The scale is designed to measure four dimensions of attribution of blame in cases of incest (the victim, the offender, the situation and society). The higher the scale score, the more that factor is attributed blame. Statements include beliefs such as "Incest can be avoided by the victim" and "When incest occurs, it is the offender's fault". In the response items often the terms "offender" and "victim" are used, however in some studies these have been replaced by "father" and daughter" (McKenzie & Calder, 1993).

2.2.6.3. Attitudes to Prisoners Scale (ATP)/ Attitudes to Sexual Offenders Scale (ATS)

The Attitudes to Sexual Offenders Scale (ATS; Hogue, 1993) was developed as a 36 self-report item measure. This was adapted from the attitudes to prisoners scale (ATP; Melvin, et al., 1985), with the word "prisoner" being replaced with the term "sex offender". Each item is rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (Strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree), with 19 of the 36 items being reversed score. The total scoring range is 0-144, with higher scores demonstrating more

positive attitudes towards sexual offenders. The ATS has been adapted in a number of studies, replacing the term "sex offender" with a variety of other terms including "IPV perpetrator" and "juvenile sex offender". This tool, along with the revised ATS-21 is explored in more depth in chapter five of this thesis.

2.1.7. Objectives

Following a comprehensive search, to the author's knowledge there has been one systematic review which has explored professional perceptions of female perpetrated sexual abuse (Clements et al., 2013). However, to date there have not been any systematic reviews or meta-analyses that have focused on the examination of profession opinions of both male and female offenders. The aim of this systematic review is therefore to evaluate and synthesise the existing literature relating to perceptions of offending dependent upon the gender of the offender from the perspectives of professionals. In addition to this, as stated above any patterns relating to offence types and gender will also be examined.

Garland (2010) highlighted how penal policies have changed focus in response to general public views, where fear of crime led to a demand for more security with the control of risk and danger. Due to the fact that those who work in criminal justice, nursing and legal settings are also members of the general public, exploration in to whether these views also exist within professional environments would be of benefit. Professionals have a variety of roles within the rehabilitation of offenders, providing support and guidance for victims and reporting of abuse. Therefore, the differing views based on perpetrator gender are important to explore as this may help to inform professional practice and to consider how a professionals' attitudes could affect the way in which they work with offenders.

2.1.8. Previous reviews

Whilst there are some research studies that have explored perceptions of offending according to gender, to date there is no published systematic review that synthesise this research across both male and female offenders. As such, there has been no wider examination of the perceptions of offender gender by any group of people, including professionals, the general public or university students; therefore this review will go some way to fill this research gap with respect of professional attitudes and add to this relatively limited researched area. It would be remiss to think that the attitudes held by professionals do not have an impact on their work with offenders. As highlighted by Hogue (1993), attitudes held by professionals are likely to affect the way in which offenders respond to both the prison environment and the effectiveness of interventions that attempt to affect change in offenders. Therefore, it is fair to argue that the same could be said for offenders in other environments such as the community and secure hospitals. This review will add to the field of forensic psychology and help to consider within this thesis as a whole as to how perceptions of professionals may influence responses to offenders when coming into contact with a number of professionals and if these attitudes in fact alter based upon the gender of the offender. This systematic review is designed to provide an overview of the existing literature around the impact of gender on professional perceptions of offending, which could be built upon for future research. The remainder of the introduction will consider existing literature in relation to professional perceptions about a range of offence types.

2.2. Method

PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items of Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses) Guidelines (Moher, Liberati, Tatzlaff & Altman, 2009) were utilised to

aid the search and selection process. PRISMA is an evidenced-based minimum set of items for reporting within systematic reviews and meta-analyses. This allows for transparent and complete reporting of systematic reviews. The PRISMA process suggests a 27-item checklist for capturing the data, ensuring transparent reporting and four-phase flow diagram to be used. The flow diagram advised by the PRISMA guidelines allows the number of records identified, included and excluded studies and the reasons for exclusions to be mapped out in a clear format. Whilst the PRISMA guidelines were originally designed for use with randomised control trials (RCT's). Recognition has been given that the checklists can be modified in order to suit individual systematic reviews (Liberati et al., 2020), for example, whereby aetiology is being examined or alternative methodologies, such as cross sectional designs, as is the case in the present systematic review. The guidelines are used in order to provide a robust framework of how to plan and carry out a systematic review and then document and write up the results. The use of these guidelines within the present systematic review provided effective priori planning and documentation of the methodical approach that was utilised, thus offering a more rigorous framework for the systematic review. Whilst not all 27 items were used, as some were not relevant within this systematic review, a large number were used and are detailed in the headed sections below. The systematic review process is illustrated in Figure. 1 within a PRISMA flowchart. This shows the number of search results, duplications, how many results were removed due to not meeting the criteria and the final number of search results used within the systematic review.

2.2.1. Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria

Richardson et al. (1995) proposed a four-part model to structure a clinical question or to facilitate searching for a precise answer. They proposed that the

PICO model which comprises of patient or problem (P), the intervention or exposure (I), the comparison intervention or exposure (C), and if relevant, the clinical outcome of interest (O). The PICO model is frequently used for structuring clinical research questions in connection with systematic reviews. This is because this model ensures that the relevant components of the question can be well defined (Higgins & Green, 2010). In addition to this, the PICO framework can be used to develop search strategies (Considine et al., 2017). The Cochrane Handbook suggests that it is acceptable to employ only search terms for the patient or participants, intervention and study type, which allows the PICO model to be modified to a P,I and a S/T (study types or types of study) (Lefebvre & Glanville, 2008). The PICO framework was utilised for the search strategy within this systematic review, however as this was a phenomena based question the full PICO framework was not required. As such the P (this represented the population of those being examined within the studies as opposed to patients), and O (outcome) were utilised. There was no exposure to an intervention as all studies would be of a cross sectional nature due to the design of the systematic review. Therefore, I (intervention) was omitted. Due to the nature of the studies that needed to be included there was no comparison groups required, therefore C (comparison) was omitted. However, the systematic review is designed to look at the difference in opinions of professionals based on the gender of the offender. Therefore, the search strategy needed to ensure that the comparison of male and female offenders was included, therefore there was an additional criterion included of “characteristic profile” to ensure that the topic of gender was captured during the searching process. This was a key component of the inclusion/exclusion criteria; otherwise, the whole purpose of the systematic review would have been lost.

Table 1

Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria

	Inclusion	Exclusion
Population	Adults (aged 18+); males or females; professional groups (for example teachers, nursing staff, prison staff, psychologists etc.); non-professional groups **only** when being used as a comparison group to professional groups.	Children/juveniles; university populations, criminal populations, community samples, any nonprofessional groups.
Characteristic profile	Gender/sex of offender; must include comparison of male and female offenders	Where gender of offender is not specified; where only one gender is examined
Outcomes	Quantitative Data – Perceptions of offending and/or offenders (i.e., views on sentences imposed on offenders, views on seriousness of offence).	Qualitative Data
Study Design	Primary Research; Cohort; Cross-Sectional; Case-Control; RCT.	Case-Study, Reviews
Paper Types	Studies from all countries and in all languages; published or grey literature.	Non-empirical studies/papers, e.g. narratives, reviews, editorials, letters, biographies.

2.2.2. Population

Adult (aged 18+) professionals were included; there was no exclusion of the type of profession that people worked in and could include those working outside of a forensic environment such as lecturers, teachers and substance misuse practitioners, this was to ensure that the role of "professional" was as widely covered as possible. As this review was focusing on professional attitudes, community samples or offender samples were excluded unless they were used as a comparator group within a study. Also excluded where any populations that assessed juvenile attitudes towards offending, this was due to the nature of being a juvenile this would have discounted them as being in a profession due to their age.

2.2.3. Characteristic profile

As part of the study, attitudes or opinions towards offending based upon the gender of the offender were included. Thus, studies, which did not specifically explore the impact of gender upon professional attitudes or opinions, or where only one gender was explored, were excluded from the search results.

2.2.4. Outcomes

Due to qualitative data being open to subjective interpretation, any studies which reported qualitative outcomes were excluded. All data which was quantitative was included providing it examined some form of attitude towards offenders, including severity of offending, impact upon victims and likelihood of re-offending.

2.2.5. Study characteristics

Empirical research which adopted a cohort or cross-sectional design where included. Whilst it was unlikely that randomised control-trials would be used for research of this nature they were still included. Case studies and reviews were excluded due to not enabling the comparisons of groups.

2.2.6. Report characteristics

All research studies from any country and in any language were included. Non-empirical studies were excluded.

2.2.7. Information sources

An overview of the literature selection process is outlined in figure 1.

The following sources were searched:

a) **Electronic Bibliographic Databases:** Search date: 20/02/2017-24/02/2017

Databases searched: PsychInfo; MEDLINE; Embase; Applied Social Sciences Index and Abstracts (ASSIA); National Criminal Justice Reference Service (NCJRS); Scopus

b) Systematic review and Theses/Unpublished Literature searches: Search date: 24/02/2017

Sources searched: Proquest Dissertations and Theses; British Library e-these online service (EThOS); Campbell Collaboration; E-thesis University of Nottingham; E-thesis University of Birmingham.

c) Web Searches: Search date: 24/02/2017

The first 100 hits were retrieved from the following search engines: Google; Google Scholar; Yahoo.

2.2.7.1. Additional Search Techniques Employed: Between the dates of 26/02/2017 to 13/03/2017 the following the search techniques were applied:

a) Reference List Searching: The reference lists of all included studies were hand searched to identify any further suitable studies not found in the original search process.

b) Contact with authors/experts: Two researchers who's names appeared frequently within the field of perceptions of offending were contacted and asked whether they a) had any unpublished data that would be relevant for inclusion in the review; and b) whether they knew of any (published or unpublished) work that would be unlikely to be sourced through electronic bibliographic databases. Neither researcher replied.

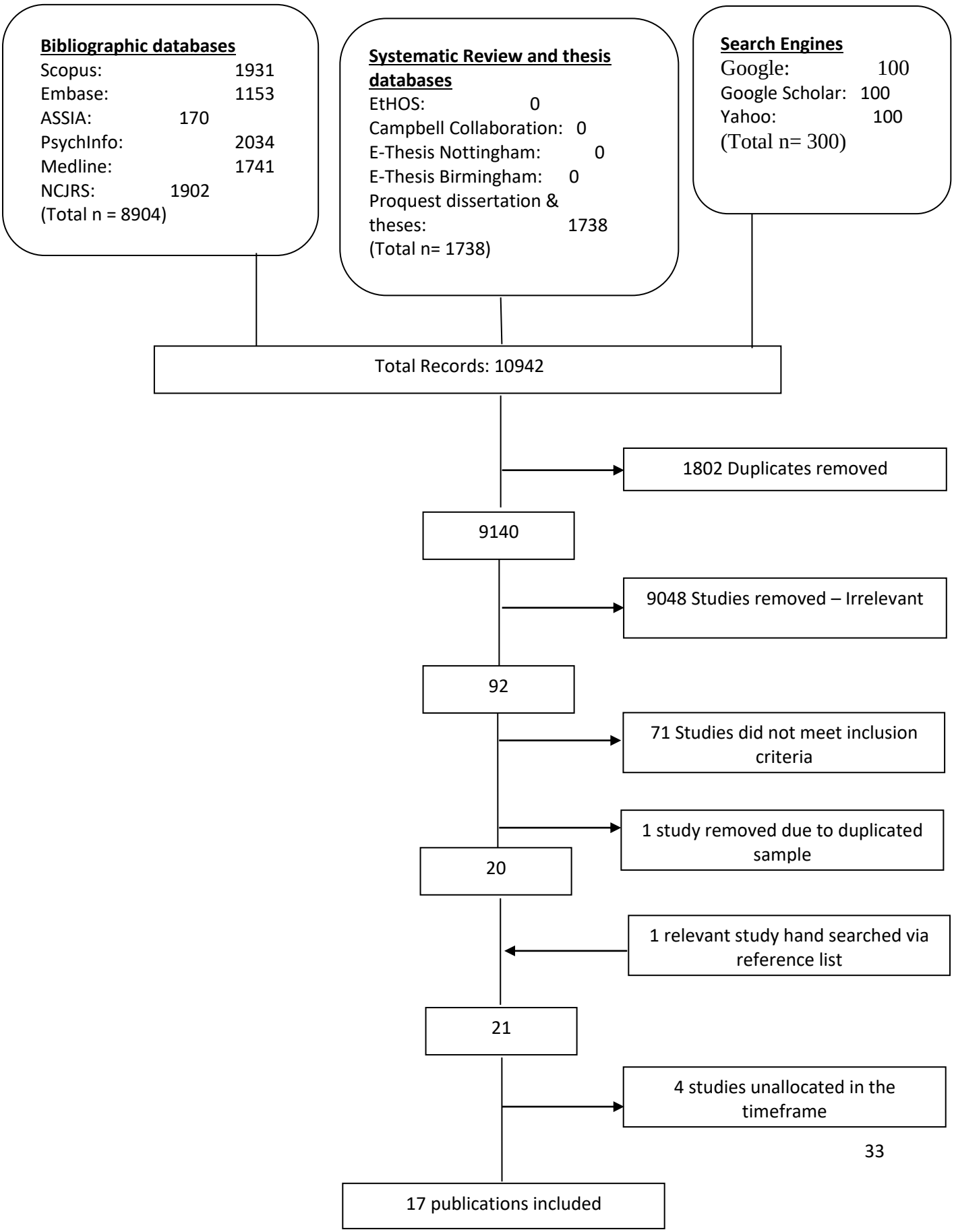
2.2.8. Search terms

The following search terms were used in all searches:

1. “sex role*” OR gender OR male* OR female* OR “gender identity” OR wom*n OR m*n
2. attitude* OR opinion* OR perception* OR judgement*
3. offend* OR crim* OR prisoner* OR “criminal behavio*r” OR perpetrator*
4. “professional personnel” OR professional OR staff
5. 1 AND 2 AND 3 AND 4

Figure. 1

The Selection Process (Following PRISMA guidelines, Moher et al., 2009)



The search syntax/strings were adjusted to meet the requirements of specific search sites. Please see appendix 1 for the specific search syntax.

2.2.9. Study selection

References were compared against the inclusion/exclusion criteria (outlined in Table 1) and those that did not meet the criteria were excluded.

2.2.10. Data extraction

A data extraction form was utilised for all included studies by the author. This form assisted with the collection of data relating to the study design, sample demographics, data analysis and the main results namely the outcome measures of attitudes towards offending based upon the gender of the offender. (See Appendix 2)

2.2.11. Critical appraisal of study quality & risk of bias

Data extraction for all but one study was complete by the author. Hornthal (1976) data extraction was completed by Professor Völlm, this was due to the paper being written in German and this being Professor Völlm's first language. A quality appraisal form was designed following a review of published appraisal tools. It is advocated that adapting existing frameworks is best practice (Traccinelli, 2010) when completing reviews which do not fit into existing appraisal forms. This option was taken in order to suit the studies under review (none of which were RCTs or high in the evidence hierarchy, making them less suited to systems such as "Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development Evaluation" system (GRADE)). The quality appraisal form included a range of items (e.g. "percentage of those agreed to participate" and "were withdrawals and drop-out numbers reported") which contributed to wider categories of potential bias (e.g. "Attrition bias"). The risk of bias for each overarching category was rated as either "High", "Partial" "Minimal" or "unclear".

The form considered issues relating to sampling and selection bias, attrition bias, measurement bias, blinding bias and results bias. (See Appendix 3 for a copy of the form). A second rater independently appraised 20% of the studies.

2.3. Results

2.3.1. Results of searches

The combined bibliographic database search produced 10,642 hits, a further 301 references were located via additional sources (web searches and hand searching). The elimination of duplicate and irrelevant references reduced this number to 92 full-text articles to be assessed. These were evaluated according to the eligibility criteria and a total of 21 studies met the minimum criteria for this review. One study was also removed due to the sample being a duplicate of an earlier study. It was at this point that the reference list was hand searched and an additional study was added into the included papers. Four of these papers were unobtainable, which left 17 papers suitable for inclusion as part of this review.

2.3.2. Characteristics of included studies.

All of the 17 studies adopted a cross sectional design and the total number of participants for included studies was 5,941, although only data for the population of interest, namely professionals (*n*= 5,179) contributed to this review. See Table 2 for full details of study characteristics.

2.3.3. Quality of included studies

As stated above, all of the studies utilised a cross-sectional design, which is the most appropriate design to investigate attitudinal prevalence (Mann, 2003). Nonetheless, the potential for bias due to confounding variables (e.g. the impact of personal exposure to offending) is difficult to eliminate. Studies were assessed

and scored according to set criteria for sampling, attrition, measurement, blinding and results/statistical bias (See Appendix 3). Whilst several of studies were identified as having high risk of bias in some areas, none of the studies were deemed so high risk across all of the areas to warrant exclusion. The inter-rater reliability (of quality appraisal) between two raters was calculated using a 2-way random intra-class correlation co-efficient (ICC) and the agreement was .832. Portney et al. (2000) suggest that ICC values less than 0.5 are indicative of poor reliability, values between 0.5 and 0.75 indicate moderate reliability, values between 0.75 and 0.9 indicate good reliability, and values greater than 0.90 indicate excellent reliability. Therefore, in this case a good level of reliability is indicated.

The publication date of the studies ranged from 1976 to 2011, with the majority of studies (*n*=16) being conducted in western countries, most of these being in the USA (*n*=7), with only one being conducted in Korea (Ko & Koh, 2007) and two conducted in Australia (Kite & Tyson, 2004 ; Mellor & Deering, 2010). There was a vast range in sample sizes across all 17 studies, with participant numbers ranging from 98 to 640. None of the studies provided evidence of a power analysis or explanation of how the study size was derived. Button et al., (2013) suggested that studies with small sample sizes limit the findings in terms of both external validity and the detection of true effect due to a lack of statistical power. This could result in reduced reliability in the results due to over exaggerated effect sizes.

There was a vast range in types of "professionals" included in the studies, comprising of university staff, police officers, psychiatrists and psychologists. All participants described in each study were measured against the inclusion criteria to ensure that they met the description of "professional".

Table 2

Study Characteristics

Authors	Professional Group								Comparison Group (where used)		Type of measure used											Type of offending measured				Type of opinion measured								
	Psychologist	Police officer	Counsellor	Prison staff	M/H staff	Social care staff	Lawyer	Other	Student population	General public	ATS	ATP	JIBS	RRS	IAS	(B)SRIS	ARWSBTCQ	Vignette & Questions	BEES	PISAS	Other	Sexual	Violent	murder	Other	Severity of crime	Blame	Belief of victim	Punishment	Attitude towards offender	Motivation to offend	Impact on victim	Need to involve services	Other
Adams (1989)			✓						✓				✓	✓	✓	✓		✓				✓					✓							
Clarke (1998)					✓							✓ +						✓					✓				✓			✓				
Fifield (2011)								✓ ♦										✓	✓				✓											✓ Δ
Follingstad et al. (2004)	✓																				✓ ♣				✓ ** *									✓ Δ Δ

Authors	Professional Group								Comparison Group (where used)		Type of measure used											Type of offending measured				Type of opinion measured								
	Psychologist	Police officer	Counsellor	Prison staff	M/H staff	Social care staff	Lawyer	Other	Student population	General public	ATS	ATP	JIBS	RRS	IAS	(B)SRIS	ARWSBTCQ	Vignette & Questions	BEES	PISAS	Other	Sexual	Violent	murder	Other	Severity of crime	Blame	Belief of victim	Punishment	Attitude towards offenders	Motivation to offend	Impact on victim	Need to involve services	Other
Hamel et al. (2007)					✓													✓					✓									✓		
Hetherton & Beardsall (1988)		✓				✓										✓	✓	✓				✓				✓			✓			✓	✓	
Higgins & Ireland (2007)	✓			✓						✓	✓							✓				✓								✓				
Horn & Hollis (1997)		✓								✓		✓									✓ *									✓				
Hornthal (1976)		✓																✓			✓ ** **								✓					

Authors	Professional Group								Comparison Group (where used)		Type of measure used											Type of offending measured				Type of opinion measured								
	Psychologist	Police officer	Counsellor	Prison staff	M/H staff	Social care staff	Lawyer	Other	Student population	General public	ATS	ATP	JIBS	RRS	IAS	(B)SRIS	ARWSBTCQ	Vignette & Questions	BEES	PISAS	Other	Sexual	Violent	murder	Other	Severity of crime	Blame	Belief of victim	Punishment	Attitude towards offender	Motivation to offend	Impact on victim	Need to involve services	Other
Howe et al. (1988)						?												?							?* *	?						?	?	
Kite & Tyson (2004)		✓																✓				✓				✓			✓			✓		
Ko & Koh (2007)								✓ ♦ ♦										✓				✓				✓								
Mellor & Deering (2010)	✓				✓	✓											✓	✓				✓						✓	✓			✓	✓	
Murphy & Brown (2000)								✓ ♦ ♦ ♦				✓				✓									✓ *					✓				

Authors	Professional Group								Comparison Group (where used)		Type of measure used											Type of offending measured				Type of opinion measured							
	Psychologist	Police officer	Counsellor	Prison staff	M/H staff	Social care staff	Lawyer	Other	Student population	General public	ATS	ATP	JIBS	RRS	IAS	(B)SRIS	ARWSBTCQ	Vignette & Questions	BEES	PISAS	Other	Sexual	Violent	murder	Other	Severity of crime	Blame	Belief of victim	Punishment	Attitude towards offenders	Motivation to offend	Impact on victim	Need to involve services	Other
Orthwien et al. (2010)							✓											✓						✓							✓			
Willits et al. (2009)				✓														✓							✓ *					✓				
Young (2009)					✓						✓							✓			✓ ♣ ♣		✓							✓				

* Non-specific offence, just offenders in general, ** Physical and emotional abuse towards children, *** Psychological abuse, ****Driving offences,
Δ Willingness to intervene, ΔΔ If the offending is viewed as abuse, perception of the recipient, frequency of offending
♦ Teacher, ♦♦ Hospital and school nurses, ♦♦♦ Nurses, Civil engineers, Radiographers
♣ Psychological Abuse Survey (PAS), ♣♣ Counselling Self-estimate Inventory (COSE)
+ Slightly modified from "prisoner" to "secure hospital patient"

Studies were either categorised as being at minimal (*n*=8) or partial (*n*=8) risk of bias through sampling selection, with only one being identified as unclear (Willits et al., 2008). Nine studies had a sample population comprising of either even or almost even splits of males and females, with four studies comprising of more female participants and two studies with more male participants. One study used only male participants (Hornthal, 1976), however the study highlighted that this was representative of the German police force at the time of the study. Conversely, one study comprised of only female participants (Ko & Koh, 2007), which presents with some bias, as the study is not clear as to whether this is representative of that specific population of professionals. Where demographics were reported, the majority of participants were Caucasian. Where ages were reported, these ranged from 18-88.

Seven out of the 17 studies were rated as having high risk attrition bias due to a lack of information due to low numbers of participants taking part in the study (Fifiled, 2011; Follingstad et al., 2004; Ortwein et al., 2010; Willits et al., 2011), a lack of information with regards to reasons for attrition (Fifield, 2011; and Hetherton & Beardsall, 1988), and a failure to identify attrition rates (Higgins & Ireland, 2009, Murphy & Brown, 2000). Out of the remaining studies four were identified as unclear, three with minimal risk bias and the remaining three as minimal bias (See Table 3).

Three studies were rated as high risk of measurement bias; this was due to a lack of consideration for the validity of the measurement tools used (Kite & Tyson, 2004; Ko & Koh, 2007; and Murphy & Brown, 2000). Of the three studies that were rated as minimal risk of measurement bias, one detailed consistent administration of the tools and demonstrated statistical properties of the tools

used (Mellor & Deering, 2010), one study (Follingstad et al., 2004) demonstrated the validity of the Psychological Abuse Survey (PAS; Follingstad & DeHart, 2000)

Table 3

Risk of Bias

Authors	Sampling Bias	Attrition Bias	Measurement Bias	Blinding Bias	Results Bias
Adams (1989)	Minimal	Partial	Partial	Unclear	Minimal
Clarke (1998)	Minimal	Unclear	Partial	Unclear	Minimal
Fifield (2011)	Minimal	High	Partial	High	Minimal
Follingstad, DeHart & Green (2004)	Partial	High	Minimal	High	Minimal
Hamel (2007)	Partial	Unclear	Unclear	Unclear	Minimal
Hetherton & Beardsall (1988)	Minimal	High	Partial	High	Minimal
Higgins & Ireland (2009)	Minimal	High	Unclear	Unclear	Minimal
Horn & Hollin (1997)	Partial	Unclear	Unclear	Unclear	Partial
Hornthall (1976)	Partial	Unclear	Partial	Minimal	Partial
Howe, Herzberger & tennen (1988)	Partial	Minimal	Partial	Unclear	Minimal
Kite & Tyson (2004)	Partial	Partial	High	Partial	Minimal
Mellor & Dearing (2010)	Partial	Partial	Minimal	Unclear	Minimal
Murphy & Brown (2000)	Minimal	High	High	High	Minimal
Orthwein, Packman, Jackson & Bongar (2010)	Minimal	High	Partial	Partial	Minimal
Willits, Broidy, Lyons, Gonzales (2008)	Unclear	High	Unclear	Unclear	Partial
Ko & Koh (2007)	Partial	Minimal	High	Unclear	Minimal
Young (2009)	Minimal	Minimal	Minimal	Unclear	Minimal

and one study (Young, 2008) demonstrated the validity and statistical properties of the ATS (Hogue, 1993). Four studies were rated as unclear due to providing insufficient information about the measurements used in order to ascertain a

level of bias. Therefore, the remaining seven studies were rated as having partial measurement bias.

Blinding aims to reduce the risk of bias that could be caused by an awareness of group assignment. With blinding, outcomes can be attributed to the specific group allocation given to participants (i.e. female offender or male offender) and not influenced by behaviour or assessment of outcomes that can result purely from knowledge of group allocation. When considering the bias of blinding within these studies only one study (Hornthal, 1976) was rated as having minimal bias and two as partial bias (Kite & Tyson, 2004; Ortwein, 2010). The remainder were either rated as high risk of bias (*n*=4) or unclear (*n*=10). The reason for the unclear ratings were due to a lack of information being provided about whether the assessor was aware of the groups in which participants were placed (i.e. if they received a male offender vignette or a female offender vignette). For those that were rated as high it was due to the outcome measure being influence by the condition.

Finally, no studies were rated as high risk of statistical bias, all were rated as either minimal (*n*= 14) or partial (*n*= 3). Of those rated as partial, none of the studies reported whether the confidence intervals were at 95% or above or how missing data was dealt with (Hornthal, 1976; Horn & Hollin, 1997; and Willits et al., 2011).

Table 4

Key Findings of Studies Assessing Sexual Offending (Excluding Incest)

Author	Measures used	Sample Characteristics	Location	Difference found between male and female perpetrators	Summary of findings
Kite & Tyson (2007)	Vignette (2 x vignette, 1 depicting male offender and depicting female offender)	Questionnaires posted out across multiple sites: **Police officers:** n = 361 Age: Females (m =31.23, range 20 – 54) Males (m=36.82, range 19-57) Gender: Females - 56%, Male – 44%	Australia	<u>Seriousness</u> Significant main effect for the offender's gender was found. Scores for male perpetrated abuse being higher than that for female perpetrated abuse. <u>Action taken</u> Significant main effect for offender gender. More stringent action would be taken for the male offender than the female offender. <u>Perception of impact</u> Perceived impact on the child was higher for the male perpetrated abuse than female perpetrator.	Male perpetrated crime was regarded more negatively than female-perpetrated crime. The male-perpetrated abuse was regarded as significantly more serious. More severe police action was recommended, the perceived impact on the child was greater when the offender was male.
Ko & Koh (2007)	Vignettes (64 in total, made up of 7 different items including cross-gender combinations of offender and victim). Each participant given a random selection of 16 vignettes.	Multiple sites: **Hospital Nurses** n = 503 **School nurses** n = 526 Age across the 2 samples: Mean – 33.2 years Gender across the 2 samples: Female n = 1029 (100%)	Korea	Not specifically explored.	Child sexual abuse situations viewed as more serious when the sexual interaction involves a female victim and male offender.

Author	Measures used	Sample Characteristics	Location	Difference found between male and female perpetrators	Summary of findings
Hetherton & Beardsall (1988)	BEM Sex Role Inventory – Short Form (BSRI-S) Vignettes	Multiple sites: **Social Workers** n = 65 Age: Mode – 35-39 years for males Mode – 40-44 years for females Gender: Female – n = 32, Male – n= 33 **Police** n = 65 Age: Mode – 35-39 years for males Mode – 30-34 years for females Gender: Female – n = 32,Male – n=33	UK	The number of actual "relevant" and "irrelevant" responses indicated no significant differences between participants' responses to the female versus the male offender vignettes. All participants viewed registration of the incidents as cases of child sexual abuse as significantly more appropriate when the offender was male as opposed to female. All participants considered imprisonment to be significantly more appropriate when the offender was male rather than female. There were no significant differences in responses to the male and female offender vignettes concerning the child being negatively affected by the sexual experience.	Police and social workers less likely to take child sexual abuse seriously if it had been committed by a female as opposed to a male. On a number of decisions, a gender bias, in favour of women, was found. Registration of incidents as cases of child sexual abuse was viewed as more appropriate by all participants as a group if abuse had been committed by a man rather than a woman. Imprisonment was viewed by all participants and, particularly, policemen as more appropriate for male offenders rather than female offenders. Relevance of the offender's gender to professionals' belief in a child's allegation, actual belief in a child's allegation, and the extent to which children would be negatively affected by an abusive event elicited similar responses regardless of the offender's gender.

Author	Measures used	Sample Characteristics	Location	Difference found between male and female perpetrators	Summary of findings
Mellor & Deering (2010)	Vignette and attitudinal questionnaire	Multiple sites: **Child protection workers** n = 61 **Psychologists** n= 99 **Probationary Psychologists** n= 28 **Psychiatrists** n=43	Australia (Victoria)	Social services involvement and the need for social services to investigate the case viewed as significantly more appropriate if the offender of the alleged abuse was male, as opposed to female. Participants felt that the victims of abuse perpetrated by males would be significantly more negatively affected by the abuse than the victims of female-perpetrated child sexual abuse. Participants considered it significantly more appropriate for male offenders to be criminally prosecuted to receive a term of imprisonment as punishment for the abuse in comparison to the female offenders.	Results indicate gender biases exist in professional decision-making concerning cases of child sexual abuse. Professionals are more likely to consider female child sex offenders more leniently than male child sex offenders. Indicating that traditional sexual scripts and implicit denial of females' potential for committing sexually abusive acts upon children exist among some professional groups, particularly psychologists, and female professionals.
Higgins & Ireland (2009)	Attitude to Sex Offender Scale(ATS) Vignettes (4x Scenarios)	Multiple Sites: **Prison Offices** n=80 **Prison Staff**, n= 80 Comparison Group: **Members of the public,** n=82 Age of all samples: Mean - 38.6 (Male – 42.7 Female – 34.3) Gender of all samples: Female n = 121, Male n = 121	England & Northern Ireland	No significant results between the four scenarios depicting different genders of sexual offenders.	The prediction that respondents would have more negative attitudes to female sex offenders than male offenders was not supported.

Table 5

Key Findings of Studies Assessing the Offence of Incest

Author	Measures used	Sample Characteristics	Location	Difference found between male and female perpetrators	Summary of findings
Adams (1989)	Hypothetical Interview notes (4x Scenarios) Jackson Incest Blame Scale (JIBS) Relative Responsibility Scale (RRS) Incest Attitudes Survey (IAS)	Multiple Site: **Counsellors** n=111 Age: Mean - 36 years, Range - 24 to 63 Gender: Female n= 67 ,Male n = 44 **Comparison group: Undergraduate Students,** n = 312 Age: Mean – 19 years, Range 16- 37 Gender: Female n=157, Male n=155	USA	<u>Offender blame</u> Counsellors blame mothers more than fathers for committing incest. <u>Situation Blame</u> Female counsellors rated mother-son incest and father-daughter incest higher than mother-daughter incest and father-son incest. Male counsellors, scored relatively stable across the offender condition for the mother-son and father-son condition. However, the situation was blamed the most in the mother-daughter incest and least in the father-daughter incest. <u>General Incest Attitudes</u> Counsellors rated the effects of incest as more harmful when the offender was the mother compared to the offender being the father. <u>Responsibility</u> Counsellors attributed more responsibility to the father than the mother. <u>Treatment for victim</u> Counsellors believed it was more likely that the mother would overcome the problem than the fathers.	The offender condition produced more significant results than the victim condition. Counsellors appeared to identify with the offender who was an adult. The sex of the victim seemed less important as in either case it was a child who was relatively helpless. Mothers as offenders were viewed less favourably than fathers as offenders. They were attributed more blame, and perceived as producing more harmful effects, however victims would overcome the abuse more when the perpetrator was the mother .

Table 6

Key Findings of Studies Assessing the Offence of Violence (Including Murder and Interpersonal Violence (IPV))

Author	Measures used	Sample Characteristics	Location	Difference found between male and female perpetrators	Summary of findings
Young (2007)	Adapted Attitude to sex offender scale (ATS) – "sex offender" replaced with "IPV perpetrators" Counselling Self-estimate Inventory (COSE) Case Vignettes	Online recruitment: **Mental Health Professionals & Counselling Graduates** n = 381 Age: 13.1% - 21-31 17.9% - 31-40 20.9% - 41-5 30.4% - 51-60 2.4% - 71-80 Gender: Female – 70.1%, Male –29.9%	USA	No differences found between male and female offenders.	Gender of the offender does not predict mental health professionals' attitudes towards IPV. Only predictors are gender of the participants and counselling self-efficacy.
Clarke (1998)	Adapted Attitude to Prisoner (ATP) "prisoner" changed to "Special Hospital Patient" Vignettes (2 vignettes describing an act of aggression to either a member of staff or towards a patient, described wither a male or female	Face to face recruitment on one site: **Nursing staff** n = 118 n=21 (17.8%) – Unqualified n = 52 (44.1%) - Nursing qualification n = 41 (34.7%) – RMN trained n = 21 (17.8%) RNMH trained N = 7 (5.9%) RMN & RNMH trained N = 5 (4.3%) Other	UK – Rampton High Secure Hospital	No significant effect of patient gender on attribution measures (internal temporary, internal enduring, and external), "internal-mad", "he/she is violent". Also, there were no significant interactions. No main effect of patient gender on victimisation or target of violence. No significant interactions. A significant interaction was found between staff and patient gender. Male	The gender of offender had no effect on the degree to which her/his violence was attributed to an internal inherent tendency to violence. The gender of the offender also had no overall effect on the degree to which the factor representing "mental illness" was viewed as causing the violence. There was no support for the

Author	Measures used	Sample Characteristics	Location	Difference found between male and female perpetrators	Summary of findings
Clarke (1998) cont….	aggressor) = 4 vignettes in total.	qualifications Age: Range – 24-59 Mean – 37.12 Gender: Females – N = 55, Males - N = 63		staff rated the female offenders as having more control of her aggression than the male offender. There was a tendency for female staff to rate female patients as slightly less in control than male patients. No main effect of target, staff or patient gender, for the estimated likelihood of future aggression occurring. Also, there were no significant interactions.	hypothesis that a male offender would be regarded as more blameworthy or responsible. Results failed to support the predictions that staff would attribute the male patients' aggressive behaviour to an internal inherent tendency to violence, and for the female patient, that the same behaviour would be attributed to mental illness and poor skills. Gender of the offender did not influence the degree to which his/her violence was attributed to victimisation experiences. Staff tended to attribute a greater degree of blame to the female vignette figure in the staff-as-target vignette, in comparison to the patient as-target in both the male and female patient vignettes. There was no main effect of gender on the degree to which responsibility was attributed to

Author	Measures used	Sample Characteristics	Location	Difference found between male and female perpetrators	Summary of findings
Clarke (1998) cont….					the male offender, but the significant interaction effects between gender and target indicated that more responsibility was assigned to the male patient in the fellow patient-as-target vignette.
Hamel et al. (2007)	Vignettes (3 different situations , with difference in gender of perpetrator and victim)	Mix of online & pen and paper across multiple sites: **Mental Health Workers** n = 82 **Domestic Violence Shelter Workers** n = 125 **Law Enforcement professionals** n = 21 **"other"** n =21 Gender of all samples: Female n = 273, Male n= 128 **Comparison Group:** **University students:** n = 167. Age: 52%, *n* = 205 aged 18 - 30, 18% (*n* = 72) aged 31 - 45 27%, (*n* = 105) aged 46 - 65. (<1%, *n* = 2) younger than 18 (3%, *n* = 11). older than 65	British Columbia, Canada	<u>Vignette 1 - Coercive</u> Significant main effect of perpetrator gender. Male-perpetrated aggression significantly higher than female perpetrated aggression. <u>Vignette 2 – Coercive/Expressive</u> Significant main effect of perpetrator gender. Male-perpetrated aggression was significantly higher than female perpetrated aggression. <u>Vignette 3 - Expressive</u> No differences between the 2 genders.	Results support the existence of a gender bias within the field of domestic violence to minimize intimate partner violence perpetrated by women. Given the same set of facts, domestic violence professional's rate male-perpetrated violence as more coercive and intentional and female-perpetrated violence as more expressive. Expressive motives are suggested to indicate a lesser threat. Female perpetrated IPV is assumed to be less serious than male-perpetrated IPV. Shelter workers and victim advocates were most likely group to minimize female-perpetrated abuse.

Author	Measures used	Sample Characteristics	Location	Difference found between male and female perpetrators	Summary of findings
Orthwein et al. (2010)	Vignette (Half the participants were given female perpetrator and half the population given the male perpetrator)	Multiple sites: **Attorneys:** n = 179 Age: Range 26-84 years. Gender: Females – 66.11% (n=119) Males – 33.89% (n= 61)	USA (California)	Attorneys more likely to encourage men to accept a plea bargain than women. Attorneys more likely to use mistake as a mitigating defence when the offender was female. Attorneys more likely to use insanity as a mitigating defence when the offender is female.	Women were more likely to be encouraged to use insanity or mistake as a mitigating defence than male perpetrators. Women were less likely to be encouraged to accept a plea bargain.
Fifeld (2010)	Vignettes - 4 x vignettes, each scenario having a different gender pairing Balanced Emotional Empathy Scale (BEES)	Multiple sites: **University Professors** n = 98 Gender: Male n = 58 (59.2%) Female n = 40 (40.8%)	USA	No significant correlation between professors' likelihood of intervention and the gender of the offender and target in the relationally aggressive scenario that was presented.	Offender/victim gender pairing had no significant relationship to professors' likelihood of intervention when they witness relational aggression in their classrooms.

Table 7

Key Findings of Studies Assessing the Offences Classified as "Other" (including generic offenders)

Author	Measures used	Sample Characteristics	Location	Difference found between male and female perpetrators	Summary of findings
Follingstad et al. (2004) ***	Psychological Abuse Survey (PAS)	Multiple sites: **Sample 1:** **Psychologists** n = 449 Age: Median – 52, range 26-88 Gender: Male – 56% (n=251) Female – 44% (n=198) **Sample 2:** **Psychologists** n = 263 Gender: male - 56% (n= 147) female - 44% (n= 116)	USA	Significant findings about different ratings dependent upon whether the husband or wife was committing the action. How frequently psychological actions were labelled "abusive" was significant in subsequent analysis, with the means indicating that actions by a husband were more likely to be considered psychologically abusive than those by a wife. Participants always rated the husband's actions toward his wife as more likely to be psychological abuse than a woman's perpetration of the same behaviours toward her husband.	Findings indicate that if psychologists thought an action by a wife toward her husband was actually "abusive," they did not think it was as bad, problematic, or pathological than if the husband engaged in that behaviour.
Murphy & Brown (2000) *	Adapted Attitude to Prisoner Scale (ATP) – "prisoner" altered to "offender" participants received either a male or female version. BEM Sex role Inventory (BSRI)	Multiple sites: **Nursing staff** **Civil Engineers** Gender from the 2 samples: Female - n = 83, Male – n = 82	UK	No statistically significant differences in terms of attitudes towards offenders in general, towards male offenders or towards female offenders by sex, Bem type or occupation.	Results indicated there to be no differences between men and women, sex role type or value orientation of occupation and attitudes towards offenders.
Horn & Hollin (1997) *	Adapted Attitude to Prisoner Scale (ATP) -	Multiple sites: **Police** n = 135	UK	<u>Deviance</u> Responses were, on average, higher for	Police officers viewed offenders as being less similar to non-

Author	Measures used	Sample Characteristics	Location	Difference found between male and female perpetrators	Summary of findings
Horn & Hollin (1997) cont…. *	"prisoner" changed to "offender" 2 versions; one female and one male.	Age: Median age 25-34 years Gender: Females – n = 29, Males – n= 106 **Public** n = 201 Age: Median age 25-34 years Gender: Females – n = 100, Males – n = 101		the female version of the questionnaire. This indicates that women who offend were thought to be less fundamentally 'bad' than men who offend. <u>Normality</u> Female offenders were perceived as more similar to non-offending women than male offenders were to non-offending men. No significant difference was found between male and female respondents, and there were no significant interactions between variables. <u>Trust</u> Male offenders were perceived as less trustworthy than female offenders.	offenders, and as less trustworthy, than the public did. Items about female offenders were consistently responded to differently to items about male offenders, by both police and non-police participants. Women who offend were thought to be less deviant or 'fundamentally bad' than men who offend. They were also thought to be more similar to non-offending women than male offenders were to non-offending men. No significant interactions were found.
Hornthal (1976) ****	Vignette	Multiple sites: **Police officers** n = 640 Age: Mean - 27 years Gender: Male = 640 (100%)	Hamburg (Germany)	Women received more monetary warnings for offence type 2 (stopping in the 2nd row). Men received more monetary warnings in offence type 7 (entering a congested crossing).	Gender had no influence on the overall amount of monatery warnings given across the seven motoring offences.
Willits et al. (2011) *	Vignettes	Multiple sites: **Correctional facilities staff** n = 407	USA (New Mexico)	Hypothetical male offenders were viewed as more likely to recidivate than	Male offenders were viewed as more likely to commit further offences than female offenders.

Author	Measures used	Sample Characteristics	Location	Difference found between male and female perpetrators	Summary of findings
Willits et al. (2011) cont… *		Age: Mean – 42.5 Gender: Female – 47.4%, Male – 52.6%		female offenders. No difference between male and female offenders on rehabilitation, finding any job and finding steady employment.	However there was no difference in the views of male and female offenders in terms of rehabilitation and employment.
Howe et al. (1988) **	Vignettes (8 in total. 4 described emotional abuse, 4 described physical abuse. Variation in perpetrator and victim gender mix)	Multiple sites: **Workers within social services agencies:** n = 101 Age: Range 26 to 64 Mean 37 years Gender: Male n = 40 Female n = 61	USA	<u>Severity of parental behaviour</u> Viewed as more severe when father was the offender compared to the mother. An interaction between parent's gender and the type of abuse revealed that physical abuse by a father was regarded as more severe than identical treatment by a mother while emotional abuse by either parent was regarded as equally severe. <u>Attributions of responsibility</u> No significant effects were associated with the responsibility rating. <u>Effect upon child</u> Those who experienced abuse felt that the least harm would result from physical abuse by a mother) .Those who had not experienced abuse saw little difference in the emotional effect of physical or emotional abuse by mothers or fathers.	The gender of the professional, of the parent, and of the child all influenced judgments of severity. Personal history of abuse also influenced these judgments. Mothers' actions were considered less severe and perhaps more temporary than the same behaviour by fathers.

Author	Measures used	Sample Characteristics	Location	Difference found between male and female perpetrators	Summary of findings
Howe et al. (1988) cont… **				<u>Effect of the intervention</u> An interaction between history of abuse and offender status revealed that only people with a history of abuse saw fathers as more likely to repeat the abuse. Those who had not experienced abuse saw no differences between fathers and mothers.	

* Non specific offence assessed, just offenders in general, ** Physical and emotional abuse towards children, *** Psychological abuse, ****Driving offences

2.3.4. Data synthesis

A meta-analysis was not attempted due to the heterogeneous nature of the included studies; therefore, a narrative synthesis was undertaken. All papers were included and reported in the summary tables, to present all the available data and facilitate the review of the range of analyses from the different studies. However, it must be noted that the total sample in this review represents only the professional participants contributing to the data under review.

2.3.5. Attitudinal difference towards male and female offenders

The synthesis of data related to professional perceptions of offending and the impact of the offender's gender upon these perceptions across the included studies. The synthesis of data was complicated by the variety in sample groups and methodologies employed used across the 17 studies. Therefore, the heterogeneity of the studies is considered in terms of the type of offence explored and these are discussed in turn below:

2.3.5.1. Sexual offences (excluding incest)

Five studies investigated professional perceptions of sexual offenders, whilst four out of the five all focussed solely on child sexual offending (Heatherton & Beardsall,1988; Kite & Tyson, 2004; Ko & Koh, 2007; Mellor & Deering, 2010), one study explored the victim as being either a female adult or a female child (Higgins & Ireland, 2009). It was decided to analyse all of these studies together as the offence focus was on sexual offending (See Table 4).

All five studies utilised the methodology of case based vignettes followed by questions relating to the research question, such as rating how seriously participants viewed the described offence, the need for additional services to be involved, and, appropriate level of punishment. In the case of Higgins and Ireland

(2009), participants were required to complete the ATS and answer questions based on the vignette they had just read. In addition to a vignette methodology, one study (Heatherton & Beardsall, 1988) utilised the BEM Sex Role Inventory-Short Form (BSRI-S; Bem, 1981). Three out of the five studies reported significant gender bias with male offenders viewed more negatively than female offenders (Heatherton & Beardsall, 1988; Kite & Tyson, 2004; Mellor & Deering, 2010). Specifically, professionals were more likely to indicate social services involvement (Heatherton & Beardsall, 1988; Mellor & Deering, 2010) when the offender was male. Also, findings showed that they favoured police involvement and imprisonment less when the offender was female as opposed to male (Heatherton & Beardsall, 1988; Kite & Tyson, 2004; and Mellor & Deering, 2010). In addition, the believability of the victim was found to not be significantly impacted upon by the gender of the offender (Heatherton & Beardsall, 1988). Indicative that there was no relevance of the offenders gender to a professionals' belief in a child's allegation, as similar responses were obtained across all professionals regardless of the gender of the perpetrator.

Ko & Koh (2007), failed to specifically explore the differences between male and female offenders directly, however their findings indicated that child sexual abuse was viewed as more serious when the gender mix involved a female victim and a male perpetrator. However, it must be considered that whilst this study did have a large sample size (*n*= 1029), 100% of these participants were female, which may have impacted upon the study findings. Research has found that female professionals at times are more concerned with the victim and their experiences and the perceived impacts of abuse than their male counterparts (Jackson & Nuttall, 1993). Therefore, without a male comparison professional group the findings from Ko and Koh (2007) may not be fully representative of this

professional group. However, this was not accounted for within the results, despite the study exploring a number of other responder characteristics. Ko & Koh (2007) explored a number of independent variables, including; situational characteristics (age of victim, age of perpetrator, cross-gender relationship of perpetrator and victim, victim resistance, closeness of relationship of perpetrator and child, frequency of sexual acts, and intrusiveness of the sexual act) and respondent background characteristics (demographic characteristics, childhood sexual victimisation experience, and frequency of media exposure about childhood abuse). These were assessed in terms of how these influenced the level of impact on the perceived seriousness of the child sexual abuse incidents. The overall findings indicated that perceptions of seriousness were affected by the characteristic of the sexual abuse situation rather than responder characteristics. The background characteristics accounted for a very small amount (Pseudo-R^2 = 0.8%) of the association in perceived seriousness of child abuse incidents. Indicating that perceptions of the seriousness of child sexual abuse are affected by characteristics of the child sexual abuse situation rather than the personal characteristics of the participants involved in the study.

Only one of the studies exploring sexual offending failed to find any significant differences between male and female offenders (Higgins & Ireland, 2009). This study failed to support the hypothesis that respondents would have more negative attitudes towards male offenders in comparison to female offenders. In this study the vignettes used described the victim as either “female adult” or “female child”. The results indicated that there was no significant difference between the vignettes, suggesting that the type of victim did not impact upon the results. However, there was a difference between professional groups, with prison officers having significantly more negative attitudes to sex

offenders overall in comparison to forensic staff members (M_a-M_b = -.12, p<.001). Mellor and Deering (2010) also explored differences between professional groups and found differences in some of the outcome variables, for instance psychiatrists believed that therapeutic interventions for offenders would be significantly more warranted in cases involving female offenders (Z=2.04, p <0.05). Whereas psychologists felt that therapy would be significantly more warranted in cases involving male perpetrators (Z=2.12, p <0.05). Heatherton and Beardsall (1988) also compared differences between police officers and social workers, however these differences were based upon gender and profession and so it is not possible to ascertain the differences on professional standing alone.

2.3.5.2. Offences of Incest

Only one study (Adams, 1989; See Table 5) specifically explored the offence of incest, focussing on the sexual abuse of children by their parents. This paper explored counsellor's attitudes across four areas (blame, general incest attitudes, responsibility and treatment for the victim). The results from the study found that counsellors attributed greater blame when the offender was the mother (M=6.77), as opposed to the offender being the father (M=5.98). Results indicated that the effects of incest were different when the offender was the mother, rather than the father, believing that the effects of incest were more harmful when perpetrated by the mother (M=13.68) and less harmful when perpetrated by the father (M=12.95). Results also showed that the counsellors attributed more responsibility to the situation when the father was the offender compared to the mother (F=4.46, p <.05), indicating that the offender is reacting to the situation, rather than initiating an act of abuse based on inherent characteristics. When assessing the effect of the gender of the offender on the impact on the victim, there was a significant offender effect (F=3.86, p <.05), with counsellors believing

that those who were offended against by their mothers would overcome the situation more than those who were abused by their fathers. Indicative that abuse perpetrated by females has a lower impact on victims. The results of this study seem to follow a similar indication around abuse perpetrated by males as being more serious or having more of an impact on the victim, with Heatherton and Beardsall, 1988; Kite and Tyson, 2004; Ko and Koh, 2007; and Mellor and Deering, 2010, all finding that when the offender was male the severity and impact on the victim was higher.

Adams (1989) also accounted for several demographic confounding variables during her study. Years of professional counselling experience, number of incest clients' seen, sex-role ideology and theoretical orientation (i.e. psychodynamic, humanistic, eclectic) all accounted for a significant amount of variance on the victim blame scale, fantasy scale, the belief scale, the dynamic scale and the child responsibility scale. Specifically, the most powerful predictor was the sex-role ideology, indicating that the more non-traditional sex role beliefs are endorsed, the more supportive a person is likely to be in the victims of incest. Another significant indicator was the number of years' experience, with participants who had more years of counselling experience placing more responsibility on the parent and less on society.

2.3.5.3. Violent Offending

Five studies explored professional perceptions of violent offending (Clarke, 1998; Fifield, 2010; Hamel et al., 2007; Orthwein et al., 2010; Young, 2007). These explored offences of violence, including interpersonal violence (IPV; Hamel et al., 2007; and Young, 2007) and murder (Orthwein et al., 2010) (See Table 6). Two of the studies utilised the Attitude to Prisoners (ATP: Melvin, 1985) or Attitude to Sexual Offender Scale (ATS: Hogue, 1993) but replaced "prisoner" with "special

hospital patient" (Clarke, 1998) or "sex offender" with "IPV perpetrator". Both papers highlighted the purpose of using these measures in a modified format due to the original studies reporting good reliability and validity for the groups in which the measures were originally designed for. All five of the studies utilised vignettes as a methodological tool. In two out of the five studies (Clarke, 1998; Young, 2007) there was minimal support for gender of the offender impacting upon professional perceptions of violence. Young (2007) found that the gender of the offender did not significantly predict participant's attitudes towards IPV. Young (2007) also accounted for participant age, gender and education as an impact upon their attitudes, which were found to be not significant (F=2.17, p =.07) and professional and personal experience with IPV, which again had no impact on the outcomes of attitudes towards IPV perpetrators (F=1.84, p =.09). The findings of Young (2007) were supported by Clarke (1998) to some extent, who found that the gender of the perpetrator had no significant impact upon whether ward staff viewed them as being inherently violent nor did it have an impact upon the view of mental illness causing the violent behaviour. Additionally, the hypothesis that male offenders would be viewed as more responsible for their violent behaviour was not supported. However, there was a difference between male and female offenders when the gender of the participant was incorporated, with male participants viewing female offenders as having more control over aggression in comparison to a male offender. However, the converse was found with female participants, who believed female offenders had less control. The target of the violence also had an impact upon professional views, with nursing staff attributing more blame to female offenders than male offenders when the target was a staff member as opposed to a fellow patient. However, when the target was a fellow patient, more blame was attributed to the male offender.

A gender bias was found in two of the studies (Hamel et al., 2007; Orthwein et al., 2010). Hamel et al. (2007) found a significant main effect of perpetrator gender in two out of three scenarios (F1,396) = 7.56, p <.001 (n_p^2)=02; (F1,397) = 5.32, p <.05 (n_p^2)=.01) indicating that when given the same set of facts, domestic violence professional's rate male-perpetrated violence as more coercive and intentional and female-perpetrated violence as more expressive. When exploring the differences between professional groups, it was found that victim advocates and shelter workers were more likely to minimise abuse committed by a female, in comparison to mental health workers and law enforcement professionals. Orthwein et al. (2010) supported these findings, as female offender's actions were more likely to be minimised in comparison to male offenders. This study found that attorneys were more likely to use mitigating factors such as "insanity" or "mistake" when mothers had committed filicide, thus reducing the fact of intent. Yet fathers were encouraged to accept a plea bargain, insinuating guilt and intention of the offence.

In comparison to the above studies but supporting Higgins & Ireland (2009), Fifield (2010) found that the gender of an offender had no significant impact upon professional attitudes of offending.

2.3.5.4. Other offences

The final six studies (See table 7) explored professional attitudes based upon gender of the offender on a variety of offending, including, generic offenders (no specific offence type; Horn & Hollin, 1997; Murphy & Brown, 2000; Willits et al., 2011), physical and emotional abuse towards children (Howe et al., 1988), psychological abuse (Follingstad et al., 2004) and driving offences (Hornthal, 1976). Three out of the six studies again used a version of the ATP

(Melvin, 1983) (Horn & Hollin, 1997; Murphy & Brown, 2000), whilst three used a vignette based methodology (Hornthal, 1976; Howe et al., 1988; Willits et al., 2011). As with the other offence types discussed previously, the results provided mixed outcomes. Two of the studies (Hornthal, 1976; Murphy & Brown, 2000) found that overall; there were no significant differences between male and female offenders of professional attitudes towards offending. However, as highlighted previously all participants in Hornthal (1976) were male and as such, it is possible that this skewed the data, however it is argued that this was representative of the police in 1976. These results would support those of Higgins and Ireland (2009) and Fifiled (2010), demonstrating that across some sexual, violent, driving and non specified offences, professionals view no difference between male and female offenders.

As with other offence types discussed previously, there were gender biases within the remaining four studies (Follingstad et al., 2004; Horn & Hollin, 1997; Howe et al., 1988; Willits et al., 2011) with men generally being viewed more negatively than women. When considering the psychological abuse between husbands and wives, Follingstad et al. (2004) found that psychologists viewed the actions of a husband as being more psychologically abusive than when a women displayed the same actions (t (206) = 3.81, $p < .001$). Even when professionals did identify the actions of a wife as abusive they did not deem them to be as pathological or problematic compared to the husband displaying the same behaviours. When exploring police officers perceptions of offenders in general, Horn and Hollin (1997) found that when considering deviancy, normality, and trust, women were perceived more positive across all three factors in comparison to men. Men were viewed as more fundamentally deviant, less similar to non-offending males and were also thought to be less trustworthy. In support of this

are the findings from Willits et al. (2011), whereby correctional facilities staff viewed male offenders as more likely to commit further offences when compared to females. However, when considering rehabilitation and employment status, men and women were viewed the same, with gender providing no statistical difference on the professional's views, which goes some way to supporting previous studies which found no difference between male and female offenders.

Finally, a gender bias in professional perceptions of offenders was found by Howe et al. (1988), when exploring social services staff views on emotional and physical abuse of children. Four outcomes were explored; severity of the parental behaviour, attributions of responsibility, effect upon the child and effect of the intervention). Overall, when the father was the perpetrator the behaviour was deemed as more serious ($F(1, 90) = 9.03$, $p = 0.04$) compared with the mother displaying the same behaviour towards a child. However, when exploring the type of abuse, emotional abuse was seen to be equally severe by both mothers and fathers, however physical abuse was deemed more severe when perpetrated by the mother. Generally, no significant effects were found in terms of the responsibility factor, however when taking into account the variable of professionals who have experienced childhood abuse, it was believed that physical abuse by fathers and emotional abuse by mothers were less appropriate than other combinations ($F(1,91) = 4.50$, $p < 0.04$). Similar findings occurred with regards to the effect upon the child, where professionals who had personal experiences of abuse viewed that physical abuse by the mother would result in less harm ($F(1, 91) = 3.85$, $p = 0.05$), compared to the father. However, those who had not experienced abuse saw little impact upon the child of either type of abuse committed by either a mother or a father. Again, the same was found when exploring effect of intervention with those who had experienced abuse believing

that a father was more likely to abuse again compared to a mother ($F(1, 76) = 4.59$, $p < 0.04$). Whereas those who had not experienced abuse viewed no differences between fathers and mothers.

2.4. Discussion

The question which aimed to be answered by undertaking this review was "Does the gender of the offender impact upon a professionals' attitude towards that offender". One aim of this review was to capture all relevant literature, avoiding restrictions by language or publication status. The intention of the review was to contribute to the existing knowledge base of attitudes towards offenders by adopting a systematic approach, which has not yet been applied to the review of professional attitudes to both male and female offenders. A second aim was to establish if gender did affect any attitudes held by professionals, whilst also ascertaining if there were any patterns across offences types. 17 studies were reviewed in total, these were separated into offence types in order to try and provide some clarity in the findings and to ascertain any patterns. However, caution should be applied to the results due to the heterogeneity in methodological approach, sampling bias in some of the studies and also the fact that some studies did not account for the confounding factors of participants being victims of offending, as in some studies this was found to affect the findings.

2.4.1. Gender bias overall

Nine out of the seventeen studies found that male offenders were viewed more negatively than female offenders in a range of offence types; Sexual offending (Heatherton & Beardsall, 1988; Kite & Tyson, 2004; Mellor & Deering, 2010), violent offending (Hamel et al., 2007; Orthwein et al., 2010), psychological abuse (Follingstad et al., 2004), physical and emotional abuse towards children

(Howe et al., 1988), and also in generic offending where no specific offence type was explored (Horn & Hollin, 1997; Willits et al., 2011). In addition to this, one study identified that the offence was deemed more serious when the victim, offender mix was a female victim and male offender, however direct analysis between genders of offenders were not undertaken (Ko & Koh, 2007). Only one study demonstrated a gender bias towards women (Adams 1989), with the participants placing greater blame on female offenders and perceiving that the harm done to the victim would be more significant when perpetrated by the mother. Participants in this study also believed that the victims would be able to overcome their experiences better when the offender was female. The remaining five studies found no significant differences between male and female offenders when exploring sexual offending (Higgins & Ireland, 2009), violent offending (Clarke, 1998; Young, 2009), driving offences (Hornthal, 1976), and no specific offence typology (Murphy & Brown, 2000).

The discrepancies between these views are interesting and one could argue that they are likely to be rooted in the way in which womanhood and femininity have been viewed culturally for many years. In many cultures, women are viewed as the nurturers, mothers, and carers, and sexually submissive when directly compared to men (Allen, 1990). Therefore, the view that women could be sexually deviant, harmful to children or violent provokes unease or disbelief in people. Mayer (1992) argued that females are not perceived as abusers because they are stereotyped as being physically and psychologically incapable of victimising others. With specific consideration to sexual offending, often women are viewed to be coerced into this type of offending by men (Jones, 2008), with co-perpetrators targeting vulnerable women or "women in crisis" in order to gain access to children (Elliott et al., 2010) and grounding a relationship in control and

domination (Wijkman, et al., 2010). All of which could impact on the differences in views of male and female offenders with the latter being viewed as a victim herself. Women are often cited to have additional needs such as learning disabilities or are extremely mentally unwell (Denov, 2004). Previous research has found that around 50% of female sexual offenders had received psychiatric care of some kind, including medication and care within a mental health facility at some point in their past (Peter, 2006) . However, there is some scepticism around the actual rate of additional needs presented in cases of female offenders. With suggestions that professionals prefer women to be labelled as either mentally unwell or intellectually disabled as it makes the reason for offending more palatable for behaviour (Gannon & Rose, 2008; Peter 2006) that in essence destroys the stereotype of women being caring, motherly and loving. Research also often highlights the victimisation histories of women who commit sexual offences as more frequent than their male counterparts, with females four times more likely to experience childhood sexual abuse than males (Hickey et al., 2008). Oliver (2007) found that when comparing men and women who commit sexual offences, females are more likely to have experienced severe and repeated sexual abuse at a young age and were more likely to have been a victim of incest.

It is less likely that it will be considered that men have such difficulties; instead, they will be viewed as deviant, callous or predatory. Peter (2006) highlighted that men are rarely identified as being mentally unwell for displaying predatory behaviour, yet this is often the first mitigating circumstance provided for women. The reason for such differences in views between male and female offenders may in part be due to the traditional sex offender scripts and the narratives that are developed about people who commit sexual offences (Finklehor & Russell, 1984) and women simply do not fit these scripts. Early

research into women who commit sexual offences suggested that many professionals were unable to accept that abuse could have taken place at the hands of a woman (Mathis, 1972, cited in Turton, 2008). More recent research highlights the notion of "professional blindness", which misinterprets the behaviour of women, especially mothers, because such behaviour is deemed as socially and professionally too complicated (Turton, 2008). Whilst those who work within forensic populations are more likely to be exposed to the realities of offending, however despite this, it is possible that they still rely on traditional stereotypes to guide their attitudes.

One consideration is that the role of heuristics principles (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974) are utilised by professionals when making judgements about male and females who offend. Utilising these principles reduces the complexity of assessing the information provided. Allowing simpler judgements to be made based on the available information and how representative that information is. This method of decision making is often quick and based upon learned implicit associations (Berger, 2007), in this case that men are more likely to offend than women or more likely to cause harm to others. Research has shown that the more available a representative category is in an individual's thinking, the more likely one is to classify an event/person using that category (Allison et al., 1992). In the case of offending it is possible that the thinking of professionals likely gravitates to offences committed by male's being seen as more dangerous, more serious in nature or having a more of an impact on victims because of the availability heuristic of males generally being viewed as more violent, predatory and dangerous than women. The opposite being that the available heuristic of women being that they are calm, caring and loving towards others. In addition to this, Garb (1998) found that anchoring biases could often have an impact on clinical

judgements made by mental health professionals. People have a tendency to rely heavily on the very first piece of information they learn (Teovanovic, 2019), in this case, most likely that those who offend are male. It is possible that this anchor point of offenders being male provided a heavier influenced in the decision making of participants within these studies. A further consideration is that of the affect heuristic, which suggests that an individual's judgements are guided more by automatic emotional evaluations (Slovic & Peters, 2006). It is noteworthy that professionals included in these studies still found offences committed by females to be concerning in nature and requiring professional involvement, however when being compared to male offenders, females were deemed to be less serious. It is possible that the affect heuristic had some part to play in this, with the thoughts of male offenders triggering feelings of dislike and unease when compared to female offenders. Thus resulting in a bias towards the male offender within the studies, viewing men as more dangerous, having a greater impact on the victim, requiring a more serious punishment, when compared to female offenders.

Of those studies who did not find any difference between male and female offenders, particularly concerning sexual offending it is possible that the participants did not discriminate between males and females and viewed "sex offenders" as a homogeneous group. Therefore, possibly not holding a representative heuristic with regards to males being seen as more dangerous or having a greater impact on victims rather than females. As Fifield (2010) highlighted, it is possible that other factors contributed more to the decision about professional perceptions of aggression rather than simply the gender of the professional. However, in many of the studies, additional factors were not measured so it is difficult to draw firm conclusions about why no significant differences were found.

What has been identified in previous research is that the knowledge base of female's who commit sexual offences has lagged behind that of male offenders for many years (Gannon & Cortoni, 2010; Nathan & Ward, 2001). As a result, a comprehensive theory of female offending has not been developed, or of those tentative theories that have been suggested they have not been subjected to the rigorous exploration or critique required to provide evidence for the aetiology of female sexual offending (Gannon et al., 2014). Therefore, for many years male derived theories have been applied to sexual offending committed by females, and typologies of females who sexually offend has often been built upon from the knowledge of males who sexually offend (Harris, 2010). As highlighted by Gannon et al. (2014) the risk with the application of male derived theories hinders professionals' ability to develop knowledge of the factors critical to female offending. Thus, prevents gender specific or even personal specific factors associated with the offending to be considered and professionals fall in to the trap of becoming generic in their views of offending. Therefore, it is possible that this is what occurred within these studies. That no difference was seen between males and females and instead the knowledge of sexual offending was applied to the offender as a whole.

Those studies in which no significant differences were found may have been mitigated by the environment in which the research was conducted. Three out of the four studies were carried out in large and what could arguably be contained institutions, including prisons (Higgins & Ireland, 2009), high secure mental health hospital (Clarke, 1998) and universities (Fifield, 2010). It is possible that the usual gender stereotypes and heuristics are mediated by the context of such environments. With wider issues such as victimised explanations (Clarke, 1998) of both male and female offending behaviours being considered by those

working in such environments. It could be argued that those working within these types of environments develop strong working relationships with patients/prisoners and so see beyond the categorisation of "man or woman" "sex offender or violent offender" and work on a more individualistic basis. This would support the findings of the Deaux's (1976) original proposition that the situational context plays an important role in the inference of attitudes as opposed to the specific characteristics of a person. This notion is further supported by the findings of Ko and Koh (2007) who reported that offender characteristics accounts for a small amount of the findings, with the context of the offending having a larger impact.

The studies which demonstrated a gender bias towards males are wide ranging in publication year, ranging from 1976 through to 2011 so it is not possible to say that these views are outdated or that people may not have as much knowledge compared to modern day research. The reporting of female offenders is often publicised in the media, concerning female violence specifically, women tend to get a higher volume of coverage and larger articles in comparison to men (Naylor, 2001). In addition, those working within the forensic field will no doubt have gained a greater understanding of the increasing number of women being prosecuted for offences. Therefore, it would appear that these studies have the robustness of time to demonstrate that this is not a generational viewpoint.

2.4.2. The impact of personal victim experiences

One variable which has been overlooked in most of the studies is that of personal experiences of being a victim of offending. It is important to consider that the participants who took part in the research considered in both this systematic review and many other psychological pieces of research may have previously been victims of offences and as such this is likely to add an additional

context to their attitudes of offenders. This remains true for participants who are students, members of the general public or indeed those who currently work with offenders. Clements et al. (2014) reviewed a number of studies exploring the impact of victim perspectives of sexual offences committed by women and found that the victims had a mistrust of professionals due to either not being believed (Peter, 2008) or having had negative professionals responses in which they outwardly showed disbelief of the disclosure (Ogilviw & Daniluk, 1995). Howe et al. (1988) explored the impact of a personal history of sexual abuse as a child on current judgements of offenders. There was a distinct difference with regards to the perceptions of offences committed by men and women, with those who had been abused and those who had not. Considering Higgin's (1986) view of how attitudes develop through experiences of thinking and feeling, it is unsurprising that those who have been victims of crimes, develop certain attitudes as they have had lived experiences of such crimes. In the other studies included within this review this confounding variable was not explored and it is possible that this could have impacted upon the findings; however this is currently unknown and requires further exploration within studies. However, the author is aware that this is a consideration from only one study and so the findings are not robust enough to generalise, but remain noteworthy.

2.5. Limitations

This review offers a systematic review of current literature in the field, providing a comparative view of male and female offenders from the perspectives of professionals. However, the author identifies that there are a number of limitations with this review, firstly despite a good inter-rater reliability of quality assessment ratings, a number of items across the studies had to be rated as unclear due to a lack of clarity. With hindsight, contacting the authors may have

aided clarity and produced higher ratings than those presented. Secondly, all studies included, utilised a cross-sectional design and as such cause cannot be determined with regards to the perceptions held by professionals. Instead, the review focuses only on the correlations between professionals and perceptions of gender. Thirdly, there were considerable differences noted in the methodology (e.g. vignette design, psychometric tools, postal questionnaires etc.), procedural robustness, sample sizes and poor attrition rates were apparent across a high proportion of the studies. This limited the ability to synthesise the findings into a fully coherent narrative and to generalise the findings.

2.6. Conclusion

The evidence presented in this review, suggests that where a gender bias exists with professional perceptions of offenders, this bias is in favour of women. Female offending was perceived as less severe and with less impact on victims when compared to men. Additionally, offences committed by females are likely to be minimised by professionals in comparison to the same behaviour being displayed by males. However, this is only represented in nine out of the seventeen studies and so it is not possible to state there is a clear gender bias more generally. Where no significant differences were found, the participant group were generally those who worked within large organisations such as secure hospitals, prisons and universities. Due to the complex variety of studies, methodologies and participant groups, it has not been possible to provide a clear overall conclusion of all studies. In addition to this, unfortunately it has not been possible to draw any conclusions around any patterns of attitudes in relation to certain offence typologies as was hoped.

In order to explore this subject further, continued research needs to be conducted with specific reference to the impact of personal victim experience and

how this influences attitudes of gender differences. It would also be pertinent to explore the reasons for such differences; it is likely that this will require qualitative analysis to understand themes and context. An understanding of the gender differences in professional opinions is imperative, particularly with those professionals working with offenders to ensure that assessment, treatment, and management of individuals is not impacted upon.

Chapter 3: An organisational case study: The impact of resilience training on attitudes towards male and female offenders.

Abstract

The purpose of this case study was to measure attitudes towards male and female offenders held by professionals following their attendance at a one-day training course, which focussed on resilience. The training explored the importance of resilience in an offending population and how increased levels of resilience are linked to protective factors to help mitigate the risks associated with offending. The training session encouraged professionals to consider their own levels of resilience, the importance of enhancing resilience, and the skills to do so. The training was delivered to fifteen staff members working within the youth justice system. Staff members were asked to complete a modified version of Attitudes to Prisoners (ATP: Melvin, et al., 1985) and a cased based scenario of a male and female offender both before and after their attendance on the training session. Following the training, attitudes towards offenders in general were slightly more positive, however when this was broken down into offender gender, whilst attitudes to females improved, only attitudes to male offenders were significantly. There were mixed results for the case based questionnaire, with attitudes towards rehabilitation, being more positive in the male offender scenario, whereas in the female offender scenario employment and relationships were viewed more positively. However, the results of this study are cautious due to the small sample size and lack of statistical power. The explanations for offending behaviour were also explored with no changes in the male offender scenario but an attitude change in personal characteristics and genetic factors in the female offender scenario. There was no different in feelings towards male and female offenders following the training.

3. Introduction

The rate of overall youth and adult offending have both decreased since 2007, with a decline of 18% for adults and 74% for juveniles (Ministry of Justice, 2018). However across the two groups some of the offences for which people have been prosecuted have been more serious, in the adult population sexual offences have increased by 32% over a ten year period and possession of offensive weapons increasing by 5% in only one year from 2016 to 2017 (Ministry of Justice, 2018). Considering juvenile offending specifically, the number of first time entrants (FTE) into the Youth Justice System (YJS) has decreased dramatically from 2007 to 2017, with an overall reduction of 85% (Youth Justice Board, 2018). Within this lowered number of FTE, the number of females entering the YJS has decreased substantially, with males representing 80% of all FTE in 2017. When taking into account the types of offences that young people are being convicted of, again these are of a more serious nature. The Youth Justice Board (2018) highlighted that between 2007 and 2017 sexual offences increased by 2% (although in one year alone from 2016 to 2017 this increased by 7%), violence against the person increased by 9% and drug offences increased by 4% (18% between 2016 to 2017).

Given the increased number of convictions for more serious offences, and in the case of youth justice more intensive supervision of young people who have committed more serious offences (Gray, 2013), it is fair to say that those professionals working within this field are likely to experience a more challenging working environment. Anderson and Huesmann (2007) found that offenders who are habitually violent hold more violent supportive attitudes. Further to this research, exploring the attitudes of youths who are involved in gangs and view themselves as being affiliated with gang memberships are more likely to hold favourable attitudes towards carrying and using weapons. Additionally they had

pro-violent attitudes and had greater entitled attitudes (Chu, et al., 2014) Therefore, those working within the criminal justice field are more likely to be exposed to more difficult and complex cases and be working with offenders who hold more entrenched and pro-criminal attitudes. When Schraer (2015) completed a survey amongst social workers, it was found that one of the most common reasons for stress was the complexity of cases. This was further supported by Phillips et al. (2016) who assessed probation officers in the National Probation Service in the UK. They considered the implications of how a workforce experiencing such high levels of stress is unlikely to be able to effectively complete their daily work and the impacts this can have upon the worker, the offender and the general public.

In addition to this, is the importance of attitudes towards offenders as this can affect the way in which professionals work with their clients (Lea et al., 1999). Hogue (1993) found that attitudes held by professionals are likely to impact on the effectiveness of the attempts to facilitate behavioural changes in offenders. Utilising the desistance theory for successful changes in offending behaviours there is a need for an offender's narrative identity to change (McNeil et al., 2005). This is where offenders begin to take responsibility for their actions, develop an internal locus of control and seek out rehabilitation. It is suggested that the role of a probation officer (and arguably other professionals centrally involved with offenders) is critical in terms of reducing reoffending, as such they need to be non-judgemental in their approach to their clients to aide reintegration (McNeill, 2006). In order for professionals to work in a non-judgmental way with offenders they need to maintain neutrality in their attitudes of offenders, across all factors including age, gender, nationality and offence type. Gordon (1999) found that the interaction between correctional staff and juvenile prisoners could affect not only

the experience of young people whilst serving their sentence but their longer-term future. This could have implications for how young people view their future and their development of a positive outlook.

Another consideration in the effectiveness of rehabilitation of offenders (or patients) is that of social climate. A good social climate in relation to forensic psychiatric wards tends to encompass the extent to which the ward environment is deemed supportive of therapy and therapeutic change, along with the cohesion between staff and patients (Schalast et al., 2008). Similarly, within a prison context, a positive social climate is considered to be supportive, offers a sense of safety, with opportunities for personal growth (van der Helm et al., 2011). Research dating back to the 1970's has found that the impact of a positive social climate has correlated with effective treatment outcomes (Moos et al., 1973). More recently, Long et al. (2011) evidenced that increased patient motivation and engagement in treatment occurred when there was a positive social climate. However, the most significant factor relating to social climate was found to be therapeutic alliance (Long et al., 2011), which in turn is reported to be the most crucial aspect of treatment outcomes (Cowie, 1999; Martin et al., 2000; Safran & Muran, 2000). Therefore it is arguable that in order to produce the most effective positive social climate in order to increase treatment outcomes, the therapeutic alliance is essential and in order for such an alliance, staff members need to be robust and working in an effective manner.

Blagden et al. (2016) further explored the aspect of social climate within a specialist sexual offender prison, considering if a therapeutically informed prison was beneficial to personal change and rehabilitation. This study found that the relationships between offender and prison staff were genuine and that the interactions with prison officers made the offender feel like real human beings. In

addition to this, staff were perceived as being genuinely interested in the offender's lives and went beyond just doing their job or being superficial in their role. The results showed that both offenders and prison staff scored highly on the ATS (Hogue, 1993), demonstrating that they held positive attitudes towards sexual offenders and believed that they could change. The positive attitudes of both prison staff and offenders helped to foster a positive social climate and in turn promote engagement in treatment, thus aiding rehabilitation. This supports the notion that prisons, which help to nurture positive self-belief in offenders, can aid desistence of offending (Göbbels et al., 2012).

In further support of the desistance of offending and the impact of professional approaches, are the findings from the Liverpool Desistance Study (LDS; Maruna 2001). It was found that the communication between professionals and offenders influenced the self-narratives developed by offenders. The findings suggested that in order to promote desistance from crime the discourse used needs to be one that promotes change and positivity, rather than having a sole emphasis on risk and needs. When considering the relationships between probation officers and offenders, the LDS study found that when the narratives focused on inspiring others, passing something on to the next generation or leaving a mark on the world rather than focusing on limitations, threats or withdrawal then lasting individual change was more likely to be promoted. The study argued that whilst the professional relationship alone is no guarantee to prevent the desire of the apparent gains of criminal activity, what the relationship can do is to help identify a possible alternative narrative for an offender, which they can adopt if they wish. It is suggested that in order for the re-integration of offenders back into society to be effective it is essential that a balance be struck between identifying and talking about risks and needs with an emphasis on the

individual's strengths (Maruna & LeBel, 2003). However, it can be argued that professionals without a level of resilience or belief in change will find it difficult to develop such discourse. Foote and Frank (1999) highlighted the importance of discourse and how self-stories are likely to be related in part to what individuals are told about themselves from authority, i.e. if a probation officer/case worker etc. repeatedly tells them they are a risk or are unable to achieve something then they are likely to develop this belief and self-narrative. However, if they are promoted as being someone able to obtain their goals and to change their lives around then this more likely to develop this type of self-story. The LDS study supported this view and stated that within the British criminal justice system, professionals wishing to promote desistence would be best suited to draw upon positive language and a strengths based approach. Hence, those professionals who have better levels of resiliency are in turn likely to have better attitudes towards offenders as they have a better sense of self, which they can promote in others, namely those offenders they are working with.

Work-related stress and burnout rates of those working within the criminal justice setting is a well-researched area and has been for over three decades (Castle & Martin, 2006; Cheek & Miller, 1983; Cullen et al. 1985; Dowden & Tellier, 2004; Keinan & Malach-Pines, 2007). Maslach (1993) found that amongst other features, depersonalisation is a factor of burnout. Depersonalisation refers to one viewing people in the workplace impersonally and as an object and treating them more callously (Maslach, 1993). Therefore, it is possible that professionals who experience high levels of work related stress and burnout are more likely to have negative views towards their clients. It is crucial that those involved with helping offenders to change their behaviour have the belief that they can do so, negative attitudes held by professionals are likely to indicate that

offenders are incapable of change and are deviant individuals (Melvin et al., 1985). In addition to this, not only do staff suffer personally when experiencing burnout, but also there are negative effects on rehabilitation programme delivery and thus impacts upon programme integrity (Andrews & Bonta, 2003). Poor morale and increased stress levels of staff have also been found to impact majorly on the quality of care received by individuals (Hatton et al., 1999). Further to this, workers experiencing burnout have been found to have lower levels of communication and interactions with their co-workers and offenders (Garner et al., 2007). Effective communication has been found to be an essential skill that professionals are required to utilise in order to maximise their care of patients or clients (Mauksch et al., 2008). In addition to this, Street et al. (2007) found that co-operation and co-ordination in communication between a patient and professional is essential when promoting an effective professional relationship. Therefore, it is arguable that a lack of communication is likely to cause problems with the therapeutic alliance between professional and client, particularly if the professional is under stress or experiencing burnout. This in turn is likely to impact on the effectiveness of the treatment being received by a client.

Whilst the research into staff burnout has predominately focused on prison based staff or social workers (Gould et al., 2013; Dowden & Tellier, 2004; Lloyd et al., 2002), it is fair to say that those working within community criminal justice settings are likely to experience similar experiences. It has also been found that professionals who generally work with people in some capacity are more likely to experience burnout and work related stress (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993). Of note is research conducted by Blevins et al. (2006) who suggested that those working with young offender populations may be more prone to stress and burnout

because their multiple, and sometimes conflicting roles may limit their ability to successfully rehabilitate young offenders.

Paton and Violanti (1996) first introduced the idea of those who work within occupations who are exposed to traumatic events as “critical occupations”. They described employees as being at risk of experiencing negative impacts on their psychological well-being. Initially the main employment groups under this category were identified as those who physically saw extreme situations such as emergency services and disaster responders. However, more recently, job roles such as prison staff and child protection workers are believed to be exposed to information, which could be psychologically damaging (Clarke, 2007). Within this same category, it could be argued that those who work within youth justice also experience similar situations, in terms of encounters with child victims, challenging families, descriptions of extreme violent or sexual offences, negative media, social blaming and conflicts within co-agency working. All of which could have serious impacts upon levels of stress and burnout rates.

Masten (2001) suggested that a workforce that holds high levels of resilience is more likely to be an engaged group of people. In turn, they are more likely to be able to respond appropriately to changing demands and extreme negative emotional situations. Hence, mitigate the likely experience of burnout. There have been a number of factors, which have been found to enhance professional’s well-being. These include a strong sense of personal and professional development, and a sense of control over adverse effects (Paton, 2006). Resilience is something that has been explored within psychology for a number of years (Rutter, 1999). More specifically, this topic has been adopted by practitioners working with vulnerable individuals and groups with the purpose of promoting strengths and wellbeing (Yates et al., 2014).

Anderson (2000) found that those who use active and engaged coping mechanisms associated with better levels of resilience are better able to deal with the demands of their job and thus burnout rates are likely to be lower. In support of this, White et al. (2005) found that probation officers dealt with stressors such as adverse feelings of distress, frustration and anger by adopting a proactive and engaging coping style as opposed to avoidant coping or blaming of others. For some professionals who have experienced trauma or maltreatment in their own personal histories they will either actively apply coping mechanisms or have difficulty in responding to current experiences (Shepel, 2009). McFadden et al. (2014) suggest that one's own experience is highly individual and as such the meaning which is applied to this will also vary and as such there is a need for professionals to develop internal resilience, which can be facilitated by engaging in personal and professional development strategies, such as training events.

There have been a number of studies undertaken to measure the impact of specialist staff training on professional's attitudes towards offenders (Craig, 2005; Hogue, 1995; Taylor et al., 2009). Whilst these have not specifically analysed the difference between male and female offenders and have had a direct focus on sexual offenders, the outcomes from such research has demonstrated that when staff receive specialist training their positive attitudes towards offenders increases. This case study wants to further explore those attitudes and look at any differences between views of male and female offenders and how training around resilience could affect this.

Resiliency is characterised as being able to successfully adapt and overcome difficulties in the presence of risk and adversity (Garmezy, 1986; Luthar, 2003; Olsson et al., 2003). Jensen and Fraser (2005) propose that such resiliency is not based on a single factor, nor does it occur because of one single influence.

Instead, they conceptualise that resilience is the result of an interactive process between exposure to risk and the presence of protective factors. There is no one universal consensus on a true definition of resilience, therefore, for the training, resilience was referred to as a positive adaptation or the ability to regain/maintain positive mental health, despite experiencing adversity (Wald et al., 2006). Rutter (2006) argued that resilience should be viewed as an interactive process as opposed to a fixed characteristic that one holds indefinitely. Therefore, the level of resilience held by an individual at any one time or in response to a particular situation is subject to change. With this in mind, the role of personal attributes (i.e. cognitive functioning) is argued to be at the centre of the development of resilience as this provides the foundations for selective attention and affective processing which are stated to be critical to an individual in overcoming adversity (Schwager et al., 2013). There are a number of considerations around the cognitive aspects of resilience. Firstly, how an individual appraises a situation will vary from person to person, Bonanno (2004) found that even the most tragic events (such as death of a partner) will have differing impacts across people. Secondly, there has found to be a link between automatic negative cognitive biases and emotional vulnerability (Mathews & MacLeod, 2005). For example, people who have high levels of trait anxiety are more likely to focus their attention towards threat-related stimulus when they are under stress. Finally, evidence has shown that when an individual is feeling anxious or stressed this will have a negative impact on their executive functioning (i.e. inhibitory control, cognitive flexibility, working memory) (Liston et al., 2009). Therefore, it can be argued that one's cognitive functions are critical at every stage of how one reacts in stressful situations. Based on the research findings around the cognitive qualities of resilience, the cognitive model of resilience was developed (Parsons, et al., 2016) in order to explain the relationship between adversity, stress and

resilience. The model holds cognitive processes (such as biases in information processing and executive control) at its core, which are typically suggested as implicit processes. Further to this is a mapping system which works around the cognitive processes, this allows an individual to appraise the current situational demands and their needs and goals. The mapping system is designed to be flexible and take in all information available in order to assess whether the current response is appropriate in meeting an individual's needs and aims. If the response was not appropriate then the mapping system would promote flexibility in the core of the model in order to facilitate more appropriate coping mechanisms. If this cognitive aspect of resilience can then be bolstered by the external experiences of individuals, such as support from family or those outside of their close networks then the development of resilience is likely to be longer lasting. Subsequently through experience and knowledge the mapping system will, over time, allow an individual to employ more adaptive methods of functioning.

The aim of this present study was to assess if there were any differences in attitudes towards male and female offenders using a modified version of the Attitude to Prisoner (MATP) questionnaire devised by Melvin et al. (1985) and to assess if there were impacts upon these attitudes following a one-day training session on resilience. Further to this Robertson et al. (2015) suggested that resilience can act as a mediating factor and lead to improvements in other outcomes. Therefore, this training package was used to examine if providing resiliency training to those working within the youth criminal justice system could affect their perceptions of offenders, with a focus on any difference between perceptions of male and female offenders given in a case based scenario questionnaire (CBQ).

3.1. Method

An invitation to attend training was sent to all client facing staff members from the Doncaster Targeted Youth Support (TYS) service. TYS is made up of three departments; a youth crime prevention team (The EPIC team), a youth offending service, and a care leavers service. 15 staff members, including youth justice officers, seconded police officers, team leaders, youth engagement workers and personal advisors attended the training workshop. Participants were invited to attend the training via a circulated email within the service. This training was not a mandatory requirement, and all participants were free to make the choice of attending or not. It was decided to keep the training as a voluntary option, as this has been shown to increase motivation and attendance at training events (Tsai & Tai, 2003). Of the participants who attended, 73% were female (*n=11)* and 27% were male (*n=4),* with a mean age of 44 *(SD* = 10.8 years, range 23 – 60 years*).* The length of time staff had been in post ranged from 6 months to 35 years (*M*=16.2, *SD*= 8.9).

3.1.1. Training workshop

The purpose of delivering the training workshop was three-fold; a) to increase participant's knowledge of resilience and the psychological underpinnings of this; b) to consider the impact of improving the participant's resilience whilst working in the criminal justice field; c) to explore the links between resilience and criminality and subsequently how to help increase resilience in those offenders being worked with. The areas covered included; exploring the underpinnings of research into resilience, providing summaries from Project Competence (Garmezy et al.1984; Masten & Tellegen, 2012) and a qualitative study into the resilience of adolescents who suffered with mental

health problems (Hauser et al., 2006); a cognitive model of resilience (Parsons et al., 2016) was explored; a number of skills which the participants could apply to themselves to enhance their resilience were introduced; promoting a strengths based approach with young offenders was also highlighted.

The aims of the training workshop were clearly defined at the beginning of the training and these were:

- Increase staff member's knowledge of resilience.
- Increase staff member's knowledge of a psychological model of resilience and its application to young people.
- Develop further skills to increase a young person's resilience/Increase staff member's ability in utilising skills to enhance their own resilience.
- Increase confidence in utilising skills to work with young offenders, which in turn could increase resilience.

In addition to the key five aspects of the workshop itself, there was the sub aim specifically for this case study. This sub aim was to explore the impact of resilience training on the perceptions of offenders in general.

The content of the workshop was devised so that it mirrored each of the above aims:

Part 1: Exploration of what resilience is. It was acknowledged that there is no universal definition of resilience so a number of characteristics of resilience were presented and the group were encouraged to explore as a group what resilience meant to them. As a general focal and reference point, resilience was referred to

as a positive adaptation or the ability to regain/maintain positive mental health, despite experiencing adversity (Wald et al., 2006).

Part 2: The cognitive model of resilience (Parsons et al., 2016). This section explained the role of cognitions and explored how cognitive processing styles that are adaptive in a specific situation are likely to aid an individual's development of resilience in a wide range of situations. Then the proposed model of resilience explored how having the ability to flexibly apply appropriate cognitive processing that is relevant to the current situation can aid resilience.

Part 3: This presented 10 skills to help enhance resilience, including working on how stressful situations are interpreted, working on acceptance, keeping things in perspective and self-care.

Part 4: This focussed on working with young offenders, adopting a strengths based approach and the link this has to increasing a positive self-view held by the young offender being worked with.

The training workshop was delivered via the use of PowerPoint projected onto a large screen. An active learning style was adopted throughout with the inclusion of lectures, short videos, with feedback sessions to discuss the content of the videos, group exercises and "quiz style" tasks. These were included in order to encourage learning and engagement with the training (Sivan et al., 2010) and also to try and adapt to a range of learning styles (Honey & Mumford, 1982).

3.1.2. Measures

Background information was collected on each participant including their specific job role and the length of time they had worked within the youth justice field. Two questionnaires were completed before and immediately after the training workshop. These included a modified Attitudes Towards Prisoners

questionnaire (ATP; Melvin et al., 1985) and a case based questionnaire, structured similarly to that used within the Attitude Towards Offenders Scale (Pereyra & Moreno, 2000).

The ATP was modified by changing the word 'Prisoner' to 'Offender' and by introducing a gender specific term of 'Male' or 'Female' before the term offender (see appendix 4 and 5). Thus resulting in two sets of modified ATP (MATP) questionnaires; one describing female offenders and one describing male offenders. These were randomly allocated to participants, ensuring each participant received the same gender of offender described in the MATP both pre and post training. The ATP consist of 36 statements which use 5-point Likert scales (1- disagree strongly through to 5 - agree strongly). Nineteen of the items are negative and reverse scored after which the scores for all items are summed. A constant of 36 is subtracted from the total scores, giving a potential range of scores from 0 to 144 (Melvin et al., 1985). The lower the score, the more negative the attitude towards the offender group.

The case based questionnaire (CBQ; see appendix 6) consisted of two cases; one male and one female along with a brief overview of demographic information for each case, which was the same for each case apart from the gender. Participants were then asked to respond to three key areas:

1) Likelihood of a) Recidivism; b) Rehabilitation; c) Maintaining Stable Employment; and d) Maintaining healthy relationships). These were each rated on a Likert scale (1 – Not at all likely through to 6 very likely).

2) Explanations of criminal conduct a) personal character, b) genetic factors and c) environmental factors, again rating this on a Likert Scale (1 – Strongly Disagree through to 6 Strongly Agree).

3) Personal views towards the hypothetical offender a)Disgust, b) sympathy, c) pity, d) anger and e) annoyance), each rated on a Likert Scale (1 Strongly Disagree through to 4 Strongly Agree).

These questions were not designed to provide a comprehensive assessment of all possible related attitudes but were intended to provide a general picture of beliefs between male and female offenders and to consider any changes pre and post training.

Participants were asked to complete the MATP and CBQ prior to beginning the training workshop and at the end. In scoring the questionnaires, each individual was asked to provide a unique code to maintain anonymity while still being able to match pre- and post-training responses.

3.2. Results

The results presented do need to be taken with some caution due to the lack of statistical power because of the small sample size. A post hoc power analysis undertaken with the program G*Power (Erdfelder et al., 1996) and revealed that in order to gain a minimum of 0.80 power to detect a large treatment effect (*d* = 0.80) and with alpha at .05 in the MATP measure then a minimum of *n*=20 would be required within each group. In the present study this falls extremely short with *n* = 8 and *n* =7 in each group resulting in a post-hoc power analysis of only 0.42. However, in terms of the CBQ in order to gain a minimum of 0.80 power to detect a large treatment effect (*d* = 0.80) and with alpha at .05, the required number of *n*= 15. Therefore, in the present study this was achieved as all participants completed the same questionnaire as there was no requirement for them to be divided into two groups.

It is acknowledged that this was a small sample size, which was unavoidable due to the nature of the environment in which the training was undertaken and limitations in being able to undertake more than one session. It was considered inappropriate to allow all participants to complete both the MATP measures (i.e. complete both the male and female offender versions) as there was a high chance they would have guessed the nature of the hypothesis and as such changed their responses due to this. Hence, it was decided to undertake the procedure of splitting the participants into two groups so that one group received a male offender version and another received the female offender version. The within person comparisons was undertaken as the focus of the research was to compare the pre and post scores of each measure based on the gender of the offender in that measure (i.e. whether a participant received a male or female offender version). Comparisons across the two versions were not undertaken, hence the choice of statistical test.

3.2.1. MATP

These were divided into two groups, one referring to a male offender and one referring to a female offender. All 15 participants completed the MATP both pre and post training, 7 participants completed the male offender version and 8 participants completed the female offender version, as discussed above these were randomly allocated to participants. The MATP scores were normally distributed for both the pre and post questionnaires, across both offender genders, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$). Therefore, the data was assumed to be parametric and as such the appropriate tests were used for this.

A paired samples T-test indicated that there was a significant difference in the total scores between the pre and post-training MATP across all participants

(Pre *M*= 97.74, Post *M* = 106.87, *t*(14) = 2.30, *p* = .010). In both the female and male offender group MATP questionnaires the means increased following testing, demonstrating an increase in positive attitudes towards the offenders post-training between the two offender groups. There was no significant difference in the total MATP pre and post training for those provided with the female group. However, the results indicate that those given the male offender MATP held significantly more favourable attitudes post-training as compared to pre-training, *t*(6) = 2.75, *p* =.033 (Table 8).

Table 8

Means and Standard Deviations of the MATP for Both Offender Groups Pre and Post Training

		Pre-Training		Post-Training			
Offender Group	*n*	M	SD	M	SD	*t*	*p*
Female	8	102.00	11.54	110.75	13.88	1.73	.128
Male	7	92.86	6.31	102.42	9.73	2.75	.033

3.2.2. CBQ

All 15 participants completed all aspects of the CBQ. When testing for normality all scores apart from one in the male case study (Q16; "What do you think the likelihood is of this person maintaining a healthy relationship") were not normally distributed as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p < .05$). Therefore, the data was assumed to be non-parametric and as such the appropriate tests were used for this. This included Q16 on the male case study as this was being compared to non-parametric data.

3.2.3. Likelihood

In the male case study, a Wilcoxon Signed-ranks test found a significant difference (p <.05, Bonferroni-corrected) between the pre and post scores of only the likelihood of recidivism. Whereas rehabilitation, maintaining employment and maintaining stable relationships were found to be non significant (Table 9), indicating slightly more positive views in one area following the training. The results would suggest that following training, the participants viewed the hypothetical male offender as being less likely to commit further offences. However, there was no difference in the views pre and post training in terms of the hypothetical male offender being rehabilitated, or being able to maintain stable employment and relationships.

Table 9

Changes on the Pre and Post-Training Scores for the Hypothetical Male Case Study on the Likelihood of Recidivism, Rehabilitation and Maintaining Employment.

	Pre-Training		Post-Training				
	Mdn	Range	Mdn	Range	Z	*P*	Adjusted *P**
Recidivism	4.00	2.00	3.00	3.00	2.59	.010	0.04
Rehabilitation	3.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	2.44	.015	0.06
Maintaining stable employment	4.00	2.00	4.00	3.00	2.07	.038	.152
Maintaining stable relationship	3.00	3.00	4.00	4.00	2.50	.013	.052

*Adjusted *P* value after a Bonferroni correction

In the female case study, the results found a significant difference between the pre training (Mdn = 4.00) and post training scores (Mdn = 5.00) in the hypothetical offender being able to maintain employment (Z = 2.97, p =.003,

adjusted p^* = 0.01) and being able to maintain healthy relationships (Pre Mdn = 3.00, Post Mdn = 5.00, Z =3.00, p=.003, adjusted p^* = 0.01). Thus, indicating that following participants undertaking the training, they believed the female offender was more likely to be able to maintain stable employment and healthy relationships in comparison to their ratings on these same items prior to the training session. However there was no significant difference in the scores of likelihood of recidivism (Z =.979, p = .327, adjusted p^* = 1.31) or likelihood of rehabilitation (Z = .431, p =.667, adjusted p^* = 2.67, pre and post training.

3.2.4. Explanations for criminal conduct

There were no significant differences across all three items (personal character, genetic factors and environmental factors) pre and post training for the male offender case study (p >.05). However, in the female offender case study a significant difference pre and post training was found on items 2 and 3 (genetic factors and environment factors) although a non-significant difference was found on item 1 (personal character) (Table 10). These results represent the view that post training participants felt more strongly that genetic/biological characteristics and social/environmental conditions were linked to the reason for female offender's criminal conduct.

Table 10

Changes on the Pre and Post-Training Scores for the Hypothetical Case Study on the Explanations for Offending.

Offender Case Study		Pre-Training		Post-Training		Z	*P*	Adjusted *P**
		Mdn	Range	Mdn	Range			
Male	Personal Character	4.00	3.00	5.00	5.00	.587	.557	1.67
	Genetic Factors	2.00	3.00	2.00	4.00	.577	.564	1.70
	Environmental Factors	5.00	3.00	5.00	5.00	.250	.803	2.40
Female	Personal Character	4.00	4.00	5.00	4.00	1.80	.073	.219
	Genetic Factors	2.00	4.00	3.00	4.00	2.35	.019	0.05
	Environmental Factors	5.00	4.00	5.00	4.00	2.65	.008	0.02

*Adjusted *P* value after a Bonferroni correction

3.2.5. Personal views

In both the male and female offender case studies, there were no significant differences (p >.05) across all five items in this part of the CBQ (Table 11). Incidentally, there was no change from the pre and post scores at all in the female offender case study for the feelings of disgust and anger towards the female offender. This is indicative that the training had no impact upon the participant's feelings towards either offender gender.

Table 11

Changes on the Pre and Post-Training Scores for Both Hypothetical Case Studies on the Explanations for Personal Feelings.

Offender Case Study	Feeling towards/for the offender	Pre-Training		Post-Training		*Z*	*P*	Adjusted *P**
		Mdn	Range	Mdn	Range			
Male	Disgust	1.00	2.00	1.00	2.00	1.732	.083	0.41
	Sympathy	2.00	2.00	2.00	3.00	.187	.248	1.24
	Pity	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	.378	.705	3.52
	Anger	1.00	2.00	1.00	2.00	1.633	.102	.510
	Annoyance	1.00	3.00	1.00	3.00	.736	.461	2.30
Female	Disgust	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	.000	1.00	5.00
	Sympathy	3.00	2.00	2.00	3.00	.250	.803	4.01
	Pity	2.00	2.00	1.00	3.00	.108	.914	4.57
	Anger	1.00	2.00	1.00	2.00	.000	1.00	5.00
	Annoyance	1.00	2.00	1.00	3.00	.378	.705	3.52

*Adjusted *P* value after a Bonferroni correction

3.3. Discussion

The aim of the present study was to examine the impact of a resiliency training package on the attitudes towards male and female offenders and to assess any differences in these attitudes. This was undertaken within Doncaster TYS, made up of three teams: a youth crime prevention team (The EPIC team), a youth offending service, and a care leaver's service.

The results of the present study indicate that attending the training session contributed in some aspects in slightly improving the participant's attitudes towards offenders as a whole when assessed using the modified ATP (MATP)

questionnaire. However, it is acknowledged that the sample size was small and subsequently the study lacked the required power, and as such, the inferences made from the results are done so with hesitancy and caution should be applied with regards to the interpretation of the results and the inferences that may be drawn in terms of their implications. Consistent with Hogue (2005) and Taylor et al.'s (2005) findings, engaging in this short training session may have aided participants in showing a tendency for more positive views about offenders, however this is only tentatively proposed due to the lack of power. It is possible that the training session encouraged the participants to take a more active approach to coping and as such this was reflected in some of their views of offenders and encouraged participants to move away from a sense of blame (White et al., 2005) and develop slightly more objective views of offenders, which may partially explain the observed trend for more positive attitudes to some extent. When considering the gender of offenders separately, the results indicated that the participants had a positive attitude towards both genders following the training sessions, however only attitudes towards male offenders showed a statistically significant increase. Avey et al. (2008) found that increasing positive emotions in staff members can increase positive attitudes. It is possible that the training provided staff with a new found belief that they can bounce back from adversity and that they are able to cope with difficult situations and as such increased positivity generally. The difference between views of male and female offenders may have been due to overcompensating for their previous negative views of male offenders prior to undertaking the training. However, due to the lack of statistical power in the present study design, no definitive conclusions can be drawn stemming from the results of this study.

The results for the cased based questionnaires (CBQ) found that there were significant differences from the pre to post training scores for the hypothetical male offender, however, this was only in relation to committing further offences. In the other three areas comprising of rehabilitation, maintaining stable employment and maintaining stable relationships, no difference was found between pre and post training after applying the Bonferroni correction. Paying attention to the re-offending factor, it is possible that this was the only positive change due to the fact that participants focused mainly on the change in criminal behaviour. This may have occurred as the training explored a strengths based approach when working with offenders, which focused around the concept of increased resilience reducing the potential for re-offending (Rutter, 2006). It is possible that this influenced participants to have more positive views towards the male offenders but only in the case of re-offending but not in the wider concepts of rehabilitation, maintaining stable employment and relationships. This was different in the hypothetical female offender case study. Following the training, only maintaining employment and maintaining relationships was significantly different from the pre-training session, demonstrating that participants viewed female offenders to be more likely to improve in these two areas, whereas there was no difference from pre and post training in terms of female offender's likelihood of reoffending or rehabilitation. It is unclear as to why there was this variation in rehabilitation and recidivism in the two groups of offenders and it would be beneficial to explore this further. One potential hypothesis is that the participants felt that increasing resilience would have little difference when exploring the likelihood of females re-offending or being rehabilitated. As explored in the introduction of this thesis, it is possible that this stems back to the view that women in the main are not generally seen as inherently criminal in nature (Horn and Hollin (1997). Therefore, it is possible that this was a

subconscious thought held by participants and as such their views did not change as they did not initially view them as criminals and thus there was a greater emphasis on the roles of employment and relationships. However, in the case of the male offenders an increase in the participant's resiliency levels could have more of an impact upon changes in their offending behaviour to some extent, as males may have been viewed initially as more criminal in nature. The findings of this study may tentatively support the findings of Willits et al. (2011), who found that those working in high stress environments are less likely to perceive positive potential for offender change, however the small sample size of the present study must be taken into consideration and as such the inferences are cautiously made. In the present study, once professionals had received training on resilience and specifically looking at how they could increase their own resilience in times of stress and professional difficulties, they had slightly more positive views about the capacity for change in offenders across some of the categories.

When rating the explanations for criminal conduct, there was no significant difference in any of the three items for male offenders, suggesting that the training may not have had an impact upon participants' views of criminal behaviour being linked to personal characteristics, genetic/biological factors or environmental factors. However, comparing the pre and post training scores for the hypothetical female case study found a significant difference in the personal characteristics and genetic/biological factors. This may suggest that following the training, participants found that both personal character and genetic factors were more likely to impact upon their criminal behaviour, again due to the small sample size and lack of statistical power these conclusions are tentative in nature. However, the training did not impact upon the item relating to environmental factors for this offender group. This is an interesting finding because it contradicts

other studies, which suggest that female offenders are not “inherently bad” and they are thought to offend for reasons other than having a criminal nature (Horn & Hollin, 2007), such as being encouraged by males or it being reactive to their environment. It is possible that because the training explored aspects of resilience including stress, biological hardiness and self-efficacy, participants will have viewed after the training that females lacking in these areas were more likely to commit offences, thus increasing the scores post training.

In the final category on the CBQ, participants were asked to rate their feelings towards an offender. In both the hypothetical female and male offender scenario there was no differences found from the pre and post scores. This may reflect that the training session did not impact upon participant’s feelings of disgust, sympathy, pity, anger or annoyance towards an offender. The difference between the other aspects of the CBQ and this part was that participants were required to impart their own personal emotional stance onto views of offenders. Due to this, the participants may have been more reserved in their answers and there could have been some social desirability in their responses.

It is important to remember that the participants were asked about “male offenders” or “female offenders” in general and no specific types of crimes were depicted. It is possible that had specific offences been detailed then the outcomes may have been different. Horn and Hollin (1997) suggest that attitudes towards female offenders are likely to depend greatly on the type of offence committed. It is argued that when females commit relatively trivial offences people view this as women having a “chivalrous intent”, whereas more serious offending is responded to by the calling for retribution (Naffine, 1987). Considering youth offenders specifically, statistically males commit more serious offences than females (Snyder & Sickmimd, 2006; Goldstein et al., 2003). Therefore, within this

participant group it is possible that they had pre-conceived ideas about the types of offences committed by males and females and this could have altered their responses.

This case study is rather unique in that many other studies have assessed the impact that training has upon attitudes but not the extent to which attitudes vary between male and female offenders. Some of the findings are interesting to note, particularly in terms of the views towards male offenders, in which developing professional's skills around resilience. It could be tentatively suggested that developing such skills may improve staff member's attitudes towards male offenders and viewing them to be less likely to commit future offences. This should be considered by organisations as a point to include in supervision sessions, as it is possible that those experiencing low levels of resilience or feeling particularly stressed during parts of their working careers will be more negative in their attitudes towards the male clients they are working with. Some of the results from this study indicate that incorporating resiliency workshops into a working environment may aid the working practices of some staff members.

3.4. Limitations

There are some limitations to this case study which should be taken into account when considering the outcomes. The largest of these limitations being the small sample size. As detailed in the results section, the limited statistical power because of the small sample size (n=15) is likely to have played a role in limiting the significance of the statistical comparisons. It is possible that the significant effects occurred due to the inflated effect sizes, and null effects cannot be interpreted as true or false due to the limited power of the present study. It is possible that with the low statistical power that the significant findings represent a false positive, which may have occurred within this study. However, a

Bonferroni correction was applied in an attempt to minimise Type I errors. The author acknowledges that the remaining significant results should still be taken with a cautious approach and as such inferences have been made tentatively. In addition, the external validity is likely to have been reduced (Button et al., 2013).

Also the only evaluation responses included were self-report measures. Self-report can sometimes be subject to social desirability and therefore it would be of benefit to use alternative forms of evaluation if conducting this training in future when assessing the impacts on attitudinal change. Another note to consider is that follow-up evaluations have not been undertaken for this training. It would have been useful to conduct a one-month follow up to consider if the training session had influenced attitudinal changes further in the future. It could also be useful to undertake a qualitative analysis during follow-up evaluations to assess any themes, which have been incorporated in the practice of the staff and what links these have to any changes in attitudes towards offenders. Finally, the measures used within this study used the term "offenders", which may have impacted somewhat on the outcomes as all participants worked within the youth justice field. Therefore, it is possible that because the measures did not specifically state "young offenders" then the participants may have assumed the measures to be exploring adults which could have altered the outcomes or at least caused some confusion.

3.5. Future Research

An interesting avenue for future research would be to examine any differences in the gender of the participant's, and whether this affects the attitudes towards male and female offenders following training. There are contradictions in findings about the attitudes of female workers towards offenders, however these studies have tended to focus on sexual offenders. Craig

(2005) found female workers had more negative views towards sexual offenders, Ferguson and Ireland (2006) found that females held more positive views towards sex offenders and Higgins and Ireland (2009) found that females were more positive in their views than men. Therefore, it would be useful to explore both sexual offenders and general offenders to establish if there are any differences amongst the different types of offences committed. Radley (2001) suggested that more positive attitudes held by females might be explained by women's tendency to be more empathic than males. Therefore, it would be interesting to explore this concept with a larger sample size and by exploring a range of offences.

Chapter 4: Professional attitudes towards sexual offenders, based on perpetrator and victim gender, and the impact of implicit theories upon these attitudes.

Abstract

Implicit theories (ITs) about human attributes provide a framework for the way people understand and react to human actions and conclusions. People foster their judgements and attitudes in line with an IT. Generally, people hold one of two ITs; believing attributes are fixed (entitists) or changeable (incrementalists). The present study examined whether holding a different IT would impact upon attitudes to a sexual offender, and whether specific ITs about sexual offenders impact upon different judgements in a given scenario which depict gender differences in a fictional child abuse case. The sample consisted of 221 professionals who completed self report measures to assess their ITs and attitudes towards sexual offenders using the ATS-21 (Hogue & Harper, 2019). Participants blindly selected one of four vignettes describing an incidence of child sexual abuse; all vignettes were identical except for the gender of the perpetrator of victim. Participants were then asked to rate their judgements on the severity of the offence, impact on the victim and recommended sentence. When examining the attitude towards sexual offenders using the ATS-21, entitists (across both IT domains) held more negative attitudes than incrementalists. No differences were found across either the severity of the offence or the impact on the victim. However, contrary to expectations, entitists recommended higher levels of rehabilitation than incrementalists. There were no significant differences across any of the three outcomes in terms of the gender of perpetrators or victims.

4. Introduction

"Real crime" is seen as fundamentally masculine (Reiner, 1985), in that it involves characteristics attributed to men such as ruthlessness, action, and risk taking. Female criminals challenge this theory; they prove capable of committing the same offences as men. However, female offenders' behaviour can be argued to be masculine in nature, with suggestions that women abandon their femininity and adopt the masculine traits of their male counterparts (Irwin & Chesney-Lind, 2008). Research has also shown that female offenders, particularly violent female offenders perceive themselves to possess more masculine characteristics when asked to use adjectives to describe themselves (Herrington & Nee, 2005). At other times, female offending is often mitigated by trivialising their crimes or by excusing such offending due to the situational factors of women (Allen, 1987). This latter reasoning of female offending has been observed amongst solicitors (Worrall, 1990), magistrates (Carlen, 1983, cited by Horn and Hollin, 1997; Worrall, 1990) and judges (Wilczynski, 1991 a, b). With likewise regard to sexual offending, perpetrators are expected to be male, and male sexual offenders are more likely to be found guilty than female defendants (Pozzulo, Dempsey, Meader & Allen, 2010). However, research into the influences of professionals' attitudes held about sexual offenders both in general and more specifically around severity of offending and seriousness of offences is well less known.

4.1.1. Implicit theories

Dweck, Chui and Hong (1995a), discuss how implicit beliefs may influence people's attitudes and judgements, particularly regarding negative events. They propose that implicit theories (ITs) held by people about human attributes provide a framework for the way they understand and react to human behaviours. People foster their judgements and attitudes in line with the

conceptual framework they have developed. Dweck et al. (1995a) proposed that people tend to hold one of two implicit theories about human attributes; (1) *Entity* ITs, where attributes are believed to be fixed, unchangeable and predictable; or (2) *Incremental* ITs, where attributes are believed to be malleable, and can be changed and developed. Hong (1994) found entitists generally view those who commit negative behaviours, such as offending, as having more internal factors or individual characteristics which influence their behaviour so are more punitive in their responses. This compares to incrementalists who are less punitive in their responses, and view the same behaviour as a result of the situation that the person was in, rather than innate. Decision-making is thus influenced by the ITs held by individuals. Skitka et al. (2002) found beliefs about prisoners shaped how participants viewed the decision to parole certain offenders; entitists suggested that offenders were freed due to institutional issues (e.g., overcrowding), while incrementalists suggested that release came as a result of personal change on the part of offenders.

Public attitudes towards sexual offenders can be shaped implicitly by how information is portrayed by the media (Crano et al., 2010). Harper and Hogue (2014) found that sexual crimes were described with significantly more negative and aggressive terms than other crimes such as violence or acquisitive offending. Epstein (1994, 2003) suggested that emotional information is experientially processed, resulting in the perceiver forming rapid judgements about the incoming information with little analysis, justification, or appraisal. This type of encoding often utilises heuristics, in which new information is associated with existing patterns or thoughts, rather than creating new patterns for each new experience (Kahneman, 2011), e.g. “availability heuristic” judgements. In the case of media coverage, sexual offenders are often described as “beasts”, “pervs” and

"monster" alongside the use of specific gender terms such as "man", "father" and "uncle", as found by Harper and Hogue (2014). This allows people to quickly develop a heuristic around the association of negative terminology and males when considering sexual offenders.

Harper and Bartels (2016) proposed the idea of "sex offender schema", which is developed from collective beliefs (or myths) of sexual offenders. These can include, boys are less traumatised as victims of sexual assault than girls; sexual offenders are "dirty old men"; sexual offenders will mostly be strangers to the victim; sexual offenders are generally "psychotic" or mentally unwell; and sexual offenders are a homogenous group (Bolen, 2001; Cromer & Goldsmith, 2010; Fedoroff & Moran, 1997; Fuselier et al., 2002; Morison & Greene, 1992; Sanghara & Wilson, 2006). When these are combined together, they develop a knowledge structure stored in the memory, known as a schema (Fiske & Taylor, 1984). Harper & Bartels (2016) suggest that this schema underpins many individuals' evaluations of sexual offenders. In their paper, they refer to the possibility that negative views held by people are formed because of the representation within this schema. They propose that those who reject social stereotypes (often depicted by the media; Harper & Hogue 2015a) are less likely to hold a biased sexual offender schema, and thus hold less negative attitudes. Harper and Bartels (2016) used implicit theories to examine whether these impacted upon the views held by a community sample about sex offenders, with particular reference to the representativeness of sexual offenders. The study examined views about adult male, adult female, and juvenile male perpetrators who offended against opposite sex victims. They found individuals who hold entity implicit theories expressed more negative attitudes towards sexual offenders than those with incremental implicit theories. Entitists advocated more

punishment-oriented sentences for offenders compared to incrementalists. Entitists supported significantly more punitive sentencing for the adult male offender than both the female and juvenile offenders.

4.1.2. Professional attitudes

The consideration of professional attitudes towards crime and offending is not new. Both Hogarth (1974) and Seitz (1989) suggested that attitudes are predictors of professional behaviour, thus potentially influencing interventions relating to crime. Melvin et al. (1985) also proposed that the study of attitudes towards crime, held by professionals working within the criminal justice system could positively contribute to crime measures' implementation and rehabilitation programmes.

Focusing on sexual offending, Denov (2001) found a number of professionals, including police officers and psychiatrists, dismissed and minimised sexual offences by women. When police officer attitudes towards male and female sexual offenders were explored, male perpetrated crime was regarded more negatively than crimes committed by females while sexual crimes committed by females were viewed to be less serious than sexual crimes committed by males (Kite & Tyson, 2007). Research has also suggested that attitudes of professionals demonstrate attempts to minimise the culpability of a female offender, where a sexual offence had been committed (Turton, 2010). Further to this, in the case of incest, professionals believed that whilst the effects of sexual offending by mothers would produce harmful effects when compared to the same act perpetrated by fathers, they concluded that victims would be more likely to overcome the abuse when mothers perpetrated it. Indicating that the level of impact upon a victim is deemed to be less severe if the same crime is committed by a woman. Findings from Kite & Tyson (2007) support this, with

police officers perceiving the impact on a child victim to be higher for male perpetrated abuse than offences committed by females. As highlighted by Harper and Bartels (2016), implicit theories affect judgements and attitudes. Considering their findings that individuals who hold entity implicit theories expressed more negative attitudes towards sexual offenders than those with incremental implicit theories, it is possible that these IT's affect the views of crime severity and impact. That is, more negativity towards impact and seriousness of a crime (i.e. more serious and a higher impact) maybe shown by those who hold entitist IT's.

IT's have received little attention in the field of forensic psychology. Interestingly, the notion of implicit theories within professional groups is even less researched. Blagden et al. (2016) recently reviewed the attitudes of staff within a therapeutically-orientated sex offender prison and suggested that more positive attitudes towards sexual offenders are associated with greater beliefs that prisoners can change. As attitudes toward sexual offenders became more positive, so, too, did the belief in an offender's ability to change. With this in mind, it would be useful to explore the attitudes of those working within a hospital setting to explore whether similar findings occur, as this is an under researched area in terms of the potential role of implicit theories on these professional's attitudes towards offenders.

4.1.3. Impact on judgements of seriousness of crime and harm to the victim

In June 2009, the Institute of Criminal Policy Research (ICPR) was commissioned to undertake a piece of research into the general public's attitudes to the principles of sentencing. Respondents indicated that some aggravating factors impacted upon their views of crime seriousness. Offences against

vulnerable victims were deemed the most likely factor increasing perceived seriousness of an offence.

Due to the traditional view of masculinity which dictates men to be strong, sexually dominant and assertive (Herek, 1986), the idea of men being sexually assaulted or raped is often dismissed and so often men are not viewed as being a vulnerable victim. However, it is now recognised that men may be victims of adult sexual assault (ASA), as well as the perpetrator. The prevalence of male victims of ASA is between 0.8% and 11% (de Visser et al., 2003; Elliott et al., 2004; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2006) and in some cases it has been suggested to be as high as 18% (Coxell et al., 1999; Coxell et al., 2000; et al., 2002). Although it is unclear, as to what impact this research has had on the influence of attitudes towards male victims of sexual assault.

When considering the role of professional attitudes upon the perceived seriousness of sexual offending, crimes of a sexual nature were perceived to be more serious when the sexual interaction involved a female victim and a male perpetrator (Ko & Koh, 2007). In addition to this, research has found that child sexual abuse perpetrated by a female is less likely to be taken seriously by police and social workers, when compared to the same offence being committed by a male (Hetherton & Beardsall, 1988). As highlighted within the systematic review chapter (see chapter 2), it is possible that the heuristics principles (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974) have informed professionals' attitudes when making decisions on such topics. If the associations held within a professional's mind is that men are more likely to be a perpetrator of a sexual offence then this is more likely to fit the notion that offending committed by men is likely to cause more harm and thus be viewed as more serious. This would fit the sexual offender schema that

one may hold as described previously. Harper and Bartels (2016) argue that the core basic assumptions (IT's) underlying people's attitudes towards sexual offenders can influence certain judgements. These judgements can be further impacted upon by the representations of the sexual offenders, this has found to be the case within community samples. In considering the interplay between IT's and the representativeness of a sexual offender, those who hold a fixed belief (entitist) of sexual offenders are more entrenched in their views. Accordingly when presented with a case which fits or closely matches their sexual offender schema, they are likely to deem the case as more serious and thus more harmful to the victim. As Dweck et al. (1995a) suggested domain-specific judgements will be influenced by an individual's framework (namely their IT) in conjunction with the sexual offender schema. In previous research highlighted above, findings have indicated that sexual offences committed by men are viewed to be more serious and have a greater impact on victims. It can be suggested that this is due to the nature of men fitting the sexual offender schema and men representing the notion of a "typical sexual offender". For those who have fixed belief systems (entitist IT's) it would be harder to be more flexible in thinking that a sexual offender could be anything other than an adult male. Subsequently, where an entitist IT is held they are likely to be more fixed in their view of how serious or the level of impact on a victim when presented with a representative sexual offender because it fits their cognitive framework. This is more consistent with the schema that males are more aggressive, brutal and violent than females (Slevin & Blasnick, 1980) and as such are more likely to cause more serious and significant harm to a victim. Kite and Tyson (2004) found a highly positive correlation between the impact on the child [victim] and seriousness of the crime. Indicating that the more serious and incident is to be perceived the greater the perceived impact on a victim.

4.1.4. Impact on judgements of recommended sentence

Whilst there are a variety of studies exploring gender differences into perceptions of offending, the literature on opinions of punishment of crime is not as common. Wilczynski, (1991 a, b) studied sentences imposed by courts where men and women had killed their children. The findings showed that whilst men were often given custodial sentences even in the case where psychiatric pleas were put forward, the courts were more reluctant to send women to prison, instead opting for psychiatric and/or non-custodial sentences. The punishment given to offenders appears to be indicative that women are perceived to commit crime due to psychopathology rather than making rational and conscious decisions to offend, whereas for men the reverse applies.

Attitudes toward sexual offenders correlate with sentencing judgments, with endorsement of more punitive policies coming from those who express more negative views (Nelson et al., 2002; Shackley et al., 2014). When making such judgments, members of the general public automatically draw upon the sexual offender schema, whereas when a case does not match the sexual offender schema the sentencing judgement will be less harsh (Harper & Bartels, 2016). Therefore, if a sexual offender matches a prototypical sexual offender schema, they are more likely to employ a harsher sentencing option. Harper and Bartels (2016) suggested that this is guided by the automatic representativeness heuristic (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974). For example, when undergraduates were asked to complete the ATS in order to assess their attitudes towards sexual offenders, when an offender did not fit the representative view of a sexual offender ("dirty old man"), students held less punitive attitudes (Harper, 2012). Hong (1994) found that those who hold incremental IT's are less punitive towards moral

wrong-doings viewing such behaviours to be the result of more external factors. With the opposing view being held for those who hold entitist views.

4.1.5. The present study

The existing literature indicates that ITs may play a role in the attitudes held about sexual offenders. Findings indicate that those who hold entitist ITs are likely to express more negative attitudes sexual offenders than those who hold incrementalist Its (Harper & Bartels, 2016). The present study built on Harper and Bartels' study, extending their enquiry to look at the impact of the gender of the victims and the attitudes from a professional perspective. Harper & Bartels (2016) found that more punitive attitudes were endorsed by participants who held entitist ITs in comparison to those with incrementalist ITs. However, it is less clear how these perceptions might affect the perceived severity of offending and the perceived impact upon the victim. Additionally, little is known about the role of ITs held by professionals working within a forensic environment.

Therefore, the present study aims to firstly, examine whether professional attitudes toward sexual offenders differ depending on the type of IT a professional holds about; (a) human nature, and (b) sexual offenders. Secondly, look at whether professionals' judgements of sexual offenders depends upon the interaction between a participant's IT about sexual offenders, and the representativeness of the offender and victim (i.e. sexual offenders are male, male victims are less affected than female victims). Therefore an exploration into whether the gender of a victim and offender impacts upon: 1) the view of severity of offending; 2) the perception of the impact upon the victim; and 3) the recommended punishment. The following hypotheses were made:

H1) In light of previous literature suggesting that those professionals who have more positive attitudes towards sexual offenders have a greater belief in an offenders ability to change (Blagden et al., 2016) and previous findings that those who hold more negative views of sexual offenders hold an entitist view (Harper & Bartels, 2016). The first hypothesis proposes that professionals who hold entitist implicit theories will express more negative attitudes towards sexual offenders as assessed using the ATS-21 compared to those with incremental implicit theories.

H2) Previous research has indicated that sexual offences committed by men are viewed to be more serious (Ko & Koh, 2007). In addition to this, men fit the sexual offender schema, with men representing the notion of a "typical sexual offender" in comparison to females (Harper & Hogue, 2014). Therefore, hypothesis two proposes that professionals who hold an entitist theory will perceive the severity of a crime as more serious in a representative case (i.e. male offender, female victim) than a non-representative case (i.e. female offender, female victim) in comparison to those who hold an incrementalist theory.

H3) Previous research has found a significant correlation between seriousness of an offence and the impact on a victim (Kite & Tyson, 2014). In addition to this, literature suggests that ITs underlying attitudes towards sexual offenders can influence certain judgements, which can be further influenced by the representativeness of an offender (Harper & Bartels, 2016). Therefore, hypothesis three suggests that professionals who hold an entitist theory and are presented with a representative case (i.e. male offender, female victim) they are more likely to deem the case as more serious and thus more harmful to the victim in comparison to those who hold and incrementalist theory.

H4) In line with the findings of Harper & Bartels' (2016) study, the fourth hypothesis proposes that professionals who hold implicit theories will express more punitive sentencing responses when judging the representative case (i.e. male perpetrator) than when judging the non-representative cases in comparison to those who hold an incrementalist theory.

4.2. Method

4.2.1. Ethical considerations

This project received ethical approval from the University Of Nottingham Institute Of Work Health and Organisation's Ethics Committee, and the NHS Research and Development department for the NHS Trust involved. Participants were directed to a Participant Information Sheet and were invited to contact the researcher for further information if required, prior to participating in the study. In this information to participants, it was made clear that their continued participation in the questionnaire implied their informed consent to participation in the research project. (See appendix 7 for confirmation of ethical approval).

4.2.2. Participants

The sample comprised of 221 professionals working across a range of forensic settings Initially, these consisted of employees of Rampton High Secure Hospital Arnold Lodge Medium Secure Unit, Wathwood Medium Secure Unit, and Wells Road Low Secure Unit, all of which are within Nottinghamshire NHS Trust. Emails were sent out by a gatekeeper, on a departmental basis. It was difficult to ascertain the return rate of this methodology due to not knowing how many received the email invitation. However, due to a poor response rate, recruitment was further completed via the use of social media (Facebook and Twitter). In addition to this the researcher (JHB), hand delivered paper based "packs" directly to Rampton High Secure Hospital and Arnold Lodge Medium Secure Unit. All of

the 221 (66 males, 148 females, 2 preferred not to disclose their gender, and 5 did not supply any information). Professionals worked within a forensic setting. All participants had direct contact with patients/clients/prisoners. The demographic questionnaire gathered their professional role from a list of patient-contact professions. Table 12 and 13 describe the demographic information.

Figure 2

Age Ranges of Participants

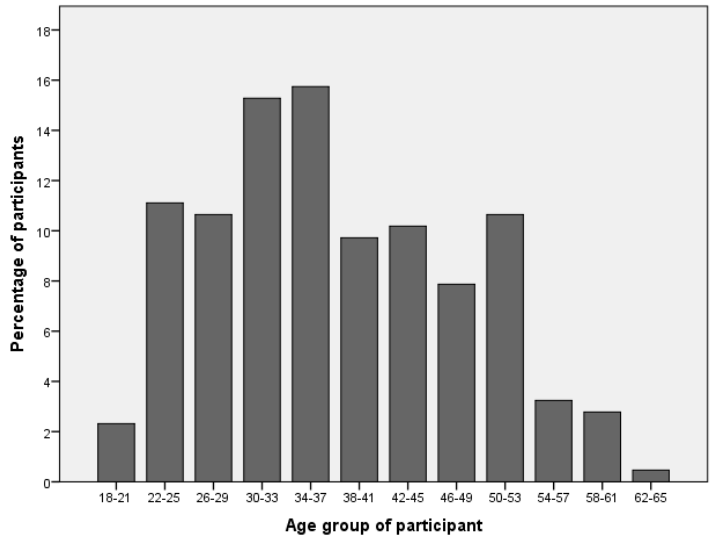


Table 12

Participants by Occupational Group

Occupational Group	Frequency	Percentage
Nursing	94	42.5
Doctors	13	25.9
Psychology	55	24.9
Social Work	6	2.7
Therapies and Education	6	4.8
Prison based staff	8	3.7
Other	23	10.5

Note: percentages do not sum to 100 due to n=5 missing data.

Table 13

Participants by Working Environment

Working environment (level of security)	Frequency	Percentage
High	110	49.8
Medium	50	22.6
Low	23	10.4
Locked Rehabilitation	4	1.8
Community	13	5.9
Prison – Category A	1	.5
Prison – Category B	5	2.3
Prison – Category C	2	.9
Prison – Category D	1	.5
Prison – Female Establishment	4	1.8
Other	8	3.6

4.2.3. Procedure

Participants were recruited via secure email sent to employees of the above-mentioned secure hospitals. Participants who were recruited via emails or social media were invited to complete the study using the Bristol Online Survey software. The participants followed a link provided on the email which directed them to the software platform; this provided further study information (See Appendix 8). Participants were then required to complete three questions relating to their beliefs about human nature, three questions relating to their beliefs about sexual offenders (See Appendix 9) and to complete the Attitude To Sex Offenders Questionnaire – shortened version (ATS-21; Hogue & Harper 2019, See Appendix 10). Following this they were required to click on one of four boxes which assigned each participant to one of four vignette conditions (See Appendix 11) followed by the three questions relating to the vignette (See Appendix 12).

Finally, the participants were required to complete the demographic section (See Appendix 13) of the questionnaire. A full debrief (See Appendix 14) was provided at the end of the study and this fully informed them of the purpose of the study.

Participants recruited via the author visiting two sites were invited to complete the study using a paper based questionnaire. The questionnaires were presented in the same way as the online version, in the following order; study information, three questions relating to their beliefs about human nature, three questions relating to their beliefs about sexual offenders and to complete the ATS-21, a vignette and related questions, demographic information and the debrief. However, random selection of the vignette was achieved by the full questionnaire being provided in a sealed plain envelope. Participants then selected an envelope, completed the questionnaires then placed these into an envelope, sealed it and sent it back to a central collection point within each hospital, in which the author then collected all envelopes.

A comparison of the demographic information between the online and paper based versions were undertaken to establish if there was any methodological effects when using the two different data collection methods.

Age: Of those who disclosed their age, 150 participants completed the online version, whilst 66 participants completed the paper based version, with 5 not providing any information on their age. The average age range for both the online version and the paper based version fell within the 34-37 age group. An independent samples t-test was not associated with a statistically significant effect $t(214) = .924$, $p=.139$. Thus, there was no difference in the ages of participants between the online and paper based data collection.

Gender: 151 participants completed the online version, whilst 65 completed the paper based version, with 5 participants declining to provide their gender. Levene's test indicated unequal variances (F= 33.89, p <.001), therefore the degrees of freedom was adjusted. The independent samples t-test was associated with a statistically significant effect, $t(85) = 3.06$, $p = .003$. This indicates that there was a difference between the genders of participants between the online and paper based data collection.

Occupation: 151 participants completed the online version, whilst 65 completed the paper based version, with 5 participants declining to provide their occupation. Levene's test indicated unequal variances (F= 14.01, p <.001), therefore the degrees of freedom was adjusted. The independent samples t-test was associated with a statistically significant effect, $t(163) = 6.82$, $p < .001$. This indicates that there was a difference between the occupation groups of participants between the online and paper based data collection.

4.2.4. Materials

Implicit theories measures: Two short (three-item) self-report measures were used to assess specific ITs. The first one was developed by Dweck et al. (1995a) and assesses ITs about human nature. The second was adapted by Harper and Bartels (2016), and assed ITs about the characteristics of sexual offenders. Participants rated their level of agreement to each statement using a 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). Scores on both measures were averaged to produce a composite score for beliefs about that particular domain. The HN-IT measure demonstrated excellent internal reliability (α = .93), with the SO-IT demonstrating a moderate level of internal reliability (α =.68).

Attitudes to Sex Offender Scale (ATS-21, Hogue & Harper, 2019): The original ATS (36 items) was developed by Hogue in 1993 to assess attitudes toward sexual offenders. The ATS has been used with community samples, sexual offenders, young offenders, prison officers, psychologists, and criminal justice professionals (Hogue, 1993; Kjelsberg & Loos, 2008). The scale has good internal reliability rating, alphas = .85 to .95 (Ferguson & Ireland, 2006; Nelson, et al., 2002). A shortened 21-item version of the ATS (ATS-21; Hogue & Harper, 2019) was used in this study Participants rated statements on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). The ATS-21 correlates extremely highly with the original measure (r = .98, p < .001). It has three 7-item subscales ("Trust," "Intent," and "Social Distance"), and 11 items are reverse-scored. The ATS-21 has a scoring range of 0 to 84, with higher scores being indicative of more positive attitudes toward sexual offenders. There is a reported internal consistency of .91 - .96 for the revised ATS-21 (Hogue & Harper, 2019; Harper & Bartels, 2017; Harper, Bartels & Hogue, 2018). In the present study a Cronbach's alpha was calculated for each of the three factors within the ATS and also the total ATS score from the entire sample (n= 221) for the present study, the ATS-21 demonstrated excellent internal consistency, along with two of the subscales ("Intent" and "Social Distance") and good interval consistency for the "Trust" subscale. (See Table 14).

Table 14

Internal Consistencies for the ATS-21, Including the Three Subscales

	n	$\bar{X}$	SD	α
ATS Trust	7	20.33	4.85	.77
ATS Intent	7	27.48	4.75	.89
ATS Social Distance	7	23.94	4.80	.83
ATS Total	21	69.52	11.04	.88

Vignettes: This study used 4 vignettes, depicting child sexual abuse. These were the same as those used the Harper and Bartels (2016) study, each being approximately 200 words in length. Permission was sought from Harper and Bartels to use their vignettes and to adapt them to the purpose of this study. The adaptations included the manipulation of perpetrator and victim gender to allow for same and opposite sex offences to be described. These allowed for the following conditions; 1) female perpetrator – male victim, 2) male perpetrator – female victim, 3) male perpetrator – male victim and 4) female perpetrator – male victim. After each scenario participants rated; (a) how severe they perceived the offence (*0= not severe at all, to 5 = Extremely severe);* (b) the impact on the victim (*0= no impact at all, to 5 = Extreme impact*); and (c) the type of punishment they would recommend (0= Punishment, to 5= Rehabilitation). All three questions used the same six point Likert scale to avoid confusion. All participants received the same instructions of "Please answer the following questions in relation to the above vignette by circling [paper version]/clicking on [online version] your response".

Demographic Questionnaire: The final section involved a demographic questionnaire, which collected data relating to the participants' information of

age, gender, and occupational demographic information, including occupational role and the level of security they generally worked in.

4.2.5. Analytic strategy

Due to the domain specificity of IT's only IT-SO scores will be used to examine H2, H3 and H4.

All questionnaires were completed correctly; whilst there were some missing values across the respondents, this was minimal and in the demographic information section and thus did not impact upon the overall data, therefore all questionnaires were included in the analysis. The missing data was scored as a "999" within the analysis and subsequently simply omitted. Statistical analyses were performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23.0.

Demographic information: Descriptive statistics were calculated for all demographic variables.

Data preparation: The author utilised the recommendations of Dweck et al. (1995a) to determine what type of IT each participant held within each group (IT-HN and IT-SO). Thus, participants with average scores of 1 to 3 were classified as "incrementalists" (i.e., holding the view that general human nature/sexual offending is flexible and changeable over time). Participants with average scores of 4 to 6 were classified as "entitists" (i.e., holding the view that human nature/ sexual offending is stable and unchangeable). Participants whose IT score fell between the discrete values of 3 and 4 were excluded from subsequent analyses (IT-HN: $n = 27$; IT-SO: $n = 55$). When examining the implicit theories about human nature, 64 participants were classified as incrementalists and 130 as entitists.

When examining the implicit theories about sexual offenders, 58 were classified as incrementalists and 108 as entitists.

ATS: Evidence from Shapiro-Wilk ($p < 0.05$) indicated that all the three ATS factors and the total ATS scores were not normally distributed. Visual inspection of the histograms, normal Q-Q plots, and box plots indicated that this was likely to be due to some outliers within the data, resulting in a the data being positively skewed. This can be seen in the graphical representations below of the histograms (the Q-Q plots and box plots are provided in Appendix 15). The positive skew appears to be caused by outliers in the data. These outliers are likely to be the cause of random sampling and as such, it was decided not to remove these as they are a natural aspect of data collection in studies such as the present one Aguinis et al. (2013). Therefore, instead transformations were applied to the data in an attempt to make it more normally distributed in order for parametric tests to be undertaken on the data. However, these transformations were unsuccessful, with the majority still being not normally distributed. As such non-parametric tests were undertaken on the data.

Table 15

Shapiro-Wilk Normality Testing.

	W	df	*p*
ATS-21 TOTAL	*.973*	*221*	*.000*
ATS-21 FACTOR 1 – "TRUST"	*.982*	*221*	*.007*
ATS-21 FACTOR 2 – "INTENT"	*.947*	*221*	*.000*
ATS – 21 FACTOR 3 – SOCIAL DISTANCE"	*.972*	*221*	*.000*

Figure 3

Histogram and Normal Distribution Curve of the ATS-21 Total

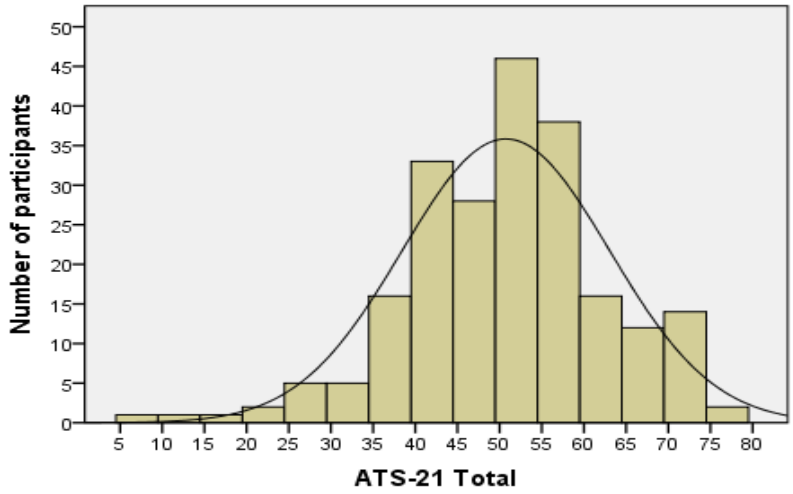


Figure 4

Histogram and Normal Distribution Curve of the ATS-21 Factor 1 – "Trust"

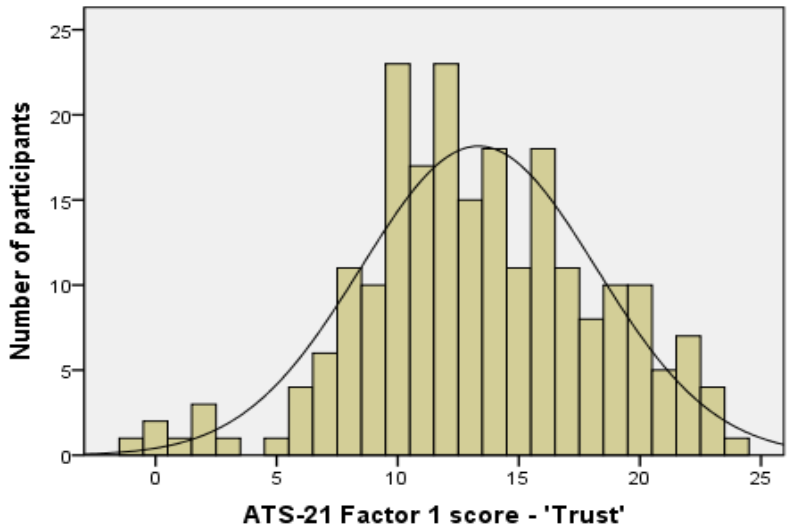


Figure 5

Histogram and Normal Distribution Curve of the ATS-21 Factor 2 – "Intent"

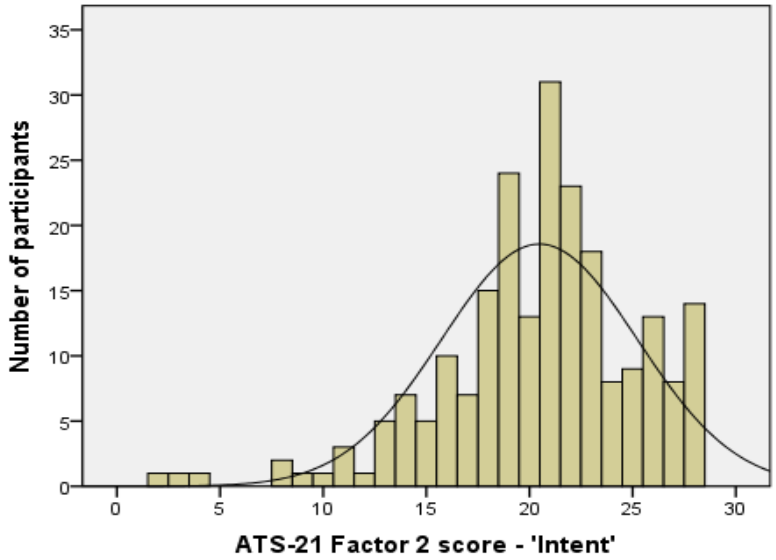
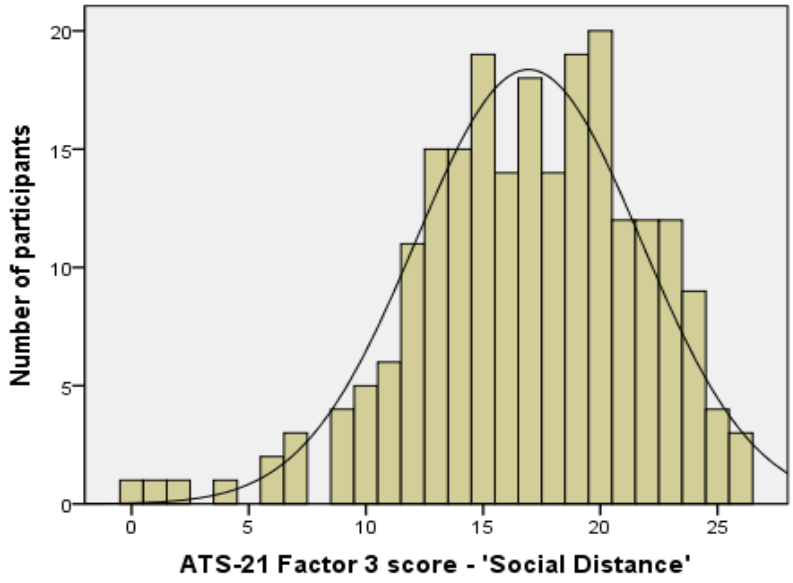


Figure 6

Histogram and Normal Distribution Curve of the ATS-21 Factor 3 – "Social Distance"



Chi-squared tests were conducted to assess whether there were significant differences for the two IT groups broken down into and occupational groups, both variables having nominal data. Mann-Whitney U

tests were conducted to assess whether there were significant differences in the two IT groups on the total ATS scores and the three subscales. All of the above was conducted for both HN and SO groups.

Severity, Impact & Sentence: Again, tests for normality were undertaken for the dependant variables of offence severity, victim impact, and recommended sentence. The data was not normally distributed and transformations were unsuccessful. However all other assumptions of using an ordinal logistic regression were met, therefore the analysis was run with an ordinal logistical regression using the bootstrapping method. This is the recommended method (Wilcoxon, 2012) of adjusting for problems of non-equal variances and non-normality. Ordinal logistical regression was used to determine whether the independent variables of the representativeness of a case and the type of implicit theory held by a participant has a statistically significant effect on the three dependent variables (severity of the offence, impact on the victim and recommended sentence).The analysis used within this study differs to that of Harper and Bartels (2016) as they used a factorial approach to their analysis. The reason for using a regression model within the present study is because this type of analysis is more robust to the homogeneity of variance when sample sizes across groups are unequal. Due to the dichotomisation of the implicit theories measures, there was a higher rate of participant attrition and as such groups became unequal, something which was unavoidable due to the nature of the study. Therefore, this type of analysis was deemed to be most appropriate.

Ordinal logistic regression analysis is used to establish an acceptable model that can consistently define the relationship between the predictor (independent) variables and the predicted (dependent) variables using the least number of variables possible. This specific analysis ensures the establishment of a regression

model without assumptions such as normality, continuity, co-variance, and multi-variable normality (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). Ordinal logistic regression was deemed the most appropriate test given that the data consisted of a dependant variable and two predictor variables for each of the hypotheses. Each of the dependant variables for H2, H3 and H4 were measured at the ordinal level and for each of these hypotheses the predictor variables were categorical. For H2, H3 and H4 the predictor variables were all the same, being the representativeness of the presented case (i.e. either male or female offender) and the type of implicit theory held (either incrementalist or entitist) . The dependant (predictor) variable was different for each of the three hypotheses, i.e., severity of offense for H2, impact on the victim for H3 and recommended sentence for H4, all measured at ordinal level., but were all measured at the ordinal level.

4.3. Results

Group differences in demographics and attitudes towards sexual offenders (H1)

IT-HN differences: No group differences in age were found between IT-HN incrementalists and entitists with both group means falling into the 34-37 age category. The groups differed in terms of participant occupation, with more professionals holding entitist views of human nature χ^2 (22, *N*=185) = 40.88, *p* = .009. As proposed by H1, entitists reported significantly more negative attitudes towards sex offenders (Mdn = 46.00) than incrementalists (Mdn = 38.00), *U* = 2412, *z* = -4.76, *p* <.001. Significant group differences were also found on each subscale of the ATS-21, with all the subtests having similar medium effect sizes (Table 16).

IT-SO differences: As with the IT-HN group, statistically more professionals held entitist views of sexual offenders than incremental views χ^2 (19, *N*=161) =

50.27, *p* <.001. There was no group differences found between IT-SO incrementalists and entitists for age, with both group means falling into the 34-37 age category. Supporting H1, entitists reported significantly more negative attitudes towards sex offenders (Mdn = 47.00) than incrementalists (Mdn = 35.00), *U* = 949, *z* = -7.27, *p* <.001. As with the IT-HN groups, the two IT-SO groups also differed on all three ATS-21 subscales, however in the IT-SO with the greatest effect size being on the "Trust" subscale. In addition, there was a greater magnitude of attitudinal differences between the IT-SO domain in comparison to the IT-HN domain.

Table 16

Means, Interquartile Ranges, Effect Sizes and Group Differences on Each ATS-21 Subscale.

	IT-HN Group					IT-SO Group				
ATS-21 Subscale	Entitist	Incrementalist	*Z*	*p*	*g*	Entitist	Incrementalist	*Z*	*P*	*g*
Trust	14.72 (6)	10.94 (5)	-4.38	<.001	.70	15.16 (6)	9.53 (4)	-6.79	<.00 1	1.18
Intent	21.64 (5)	18.53 (6)	-4.55	<.001	.68	21.64 (5)	17.60 (5)	-6.43	<.00 1	.86
Social Distance	18.12 (6)	15.41 (8)	-4.06	<.001	.66	18.25 (7)	14.10 (4)	-6.12	<.00 1	1.00

Severity of the offence: To test H2, a cumulative odds ordinal logistic regression analysis with proportional odds was run to determine the effect of implicit theories held about sexual offenders, and the representativeness of a case (i.e. male offender, female victim) [predictor variables] on the perceived severity of the crime described [dependent variable]. There were proportional odds, as

assessed by a full likelihood ratio test comparing the fitted model to a model with varying location parameters, $\chi^2(12) = 5.919$, $p = .920$. The parallelism assumption was validated, signifying that each category of the dependant variable of the severity of the offence was consistent across the different thresholds. As such, each category of the dependant variable was equal and justified the applicability of an ordinal logistic regression analysis.

The deviance goodness –of-fit test indicated that the model was a good fit to the observed data, χ^2 (24) = 15.210, p = .914. Table 17 shows that both the Pearson's Chi-Squared value and the deviation chi-squared value were not significant, indicating that the null hypothesis was supported and that the model was consistent with the data.

Table 17

Results of the Goodness of Fit Test for the Severity of the Offence Variable

	χ^2	df	*p*
Pearson	13.535	24	.956
Deviation	15.210	24	.914

The final model did not statistically significantly predict the dependant variable over and above the intercept-only model χ^2 (4) = 6.969, p = .138. Table 18 shows that there was not a significant difference between the model established with the independent variables and the initial model established without the independent variables. This indicates that there is not an existence of a relationship between the dependant variable and the independent variables.

Table 18

Model Fitness Information for the Severity of the Offence Variable

Model	-2 Log Likelihood	χ^2	df	*p*
Only the intercept	74.964			
Final	67.995	6.969	4	.138

Examining the findings of the significance analyses of the model parameters as seen in table 20 reveals that the odds of those holding an incrementalist implicit theory perceiving the severity of the offence as more severe was .362, (95% CI, -.249 to 1.089) times that of those holding an entitist implicit theory, however with no statistically significant effect χ^2 (1) = 1.306, *p* = .253 (see table 19). As shown by the tests of model effects in table 19, the representativeness of a case did not have a statistically significant effect on the perceived severity of the offence χ^2 (3) = 5.001, *p* = 1.72. Therefore H2 was not supported.

Table 19

Tests of Model Effects for the severity of the Offence Variable

	Wald	df	*p*
Condition randomly chosen by participants	5.001	3	.172
Type of implicit theory held for sexual offenders	1.306	1	.253

Table 20

Parameter Estimates for the Severity of the Offence Variable

Parameter		B	Std. Error	95% CI		*p*
				LL	UL	
Threshold[a]						
	Severity of the offence =1	-5.533	.559	-6.176	-4.050	.002
	Severity of the offence =2	-4.124	.493	-5.098	-3.125	.002
	Severity of the offence =3	-2.083	.375	-2.853	-1.390	.002
	Severity of the offence =4	-.292	.329	-.911	.393	.361
Independent Variables						
	Condition 1 (F-M)	-.604	.427	-1.498	.196	.144
	Condition 2(M-F)	-.480	.441	-1.423	.406	.250
	Condition 3 (M-M)	-.969	.470	-2.069	-.141	.037
	Condition 4 (F-F)	-.847	.351	-1.653	-.240	.016
	Incrementalist SO-IT	.362	.339	-.249	1.089	.250
	Entitist SO-IT[b]	0				

a. As defined by creating the dichotomous dependent variables which were based on the cumulative splits of the ordinal dependent variable. Where there are no categories provided this is due to no participant scoring in this field.

b. This is the reference category.

Impact on the victim: To test H3, a cumulative odds ordinal logistic regression analysis with proportional odds was run to determine the effect of implicit theories held about sexual offenders, and the representativeness of a case (i.e. male offender, female victim) [predictor variables] on the perceived impact of the crime on the victim [dependent variable]. There were proportional odds, as assessed by a full likelihood ratio test comparing the fitted model to a model with

varying location parameters, χ^2 (8) = 7.474, *p* = .486. As with the above hypothesis, the parallelism assumption was validated, signifying that each category of the dependant variable of the impact on the victim was consistent across the different thresholds. As such, each category of the dependant variable was equal and justified the applicability of an ordinal logistic regression analysis.

The deviance goodness –of-fit test indicated that the model was a good fit to the observed data, χ^2 (17) = 15.234, *p* = .579. Table 21 shows that both the Pearson's Chi-Squared value and the deviation chi-squared value were not significant, indicating that the null hypothesis was supported and that the model was consistent with the data.

Table 21

Results of the Goodness of Fit Test for the Impact on the Victim Variable

	χ^2	df	*p*
Pearson	13.535	24	.956
Deviation	15.210	24	.914

The final model did not statistically significantly predict the dependant variable over and above the intercept-only model χ^2 (4) = 4.418, *p* = .352. Table 22 shows that there was not a significant difference between the model established with the independent variables and the initial model established without the independent variables. This indicates that there is not an existence of a relationship between the dependant variable and the independent variables.

Table 22

Model Fitness Information for the Impact on the Victim Variable

Model	-2 Log Likelihood	χ^2	df	*p*
Only the intercept	72.570			
Final	68.152	4.418	4	.352

Examining the findings of the significance analyses of the model parameters as seen in table 24 reveals that the odds of those holding an incrementalist implicit theory perceiving the severity of the offence as more severe was -.155, (95% CI, -.766 to .453) times that of those holding an entitist implicit theory, however with no statistically significant effect χ^2 (1) = .246, *p* = .620 (see table 23). As shown by the tests of model effects in table 23, the representativeness of a case did not have a statistically significant effect on the perceived severity of the offence χ^2 (3) = 4.328, *p* = .228. Therefore, H3 was not supported.

Table 23

Tests of Model Effects for the Impact on the Victim Variable

	Wald	df	*p*
Condition randomly chosen by participants	4.328	3	.228
Type of implicit theory held for sexual offenders	.246	1	.620

Table 24

Parameter Estimates for the Impact on the Victim Variable

Parameter		B	Std. Error	95% CI		*p*
				LL	UL	
Threshold[a]						
	Impact on the victim =2	-3.942	.594	-5.494	-3.119	.001
	Impact on the victim =3	-2.041	.364	-2.846	-1.421	.001
	Impact on the victim =4	-.482	.322	-1.154	.091	.111
Independent Variables						
	Condition 1 (F-M)	-.774	.436	-1.639	.024	.064
	Condition 2(M-F)	-.186	.417	-1.049	.624	.665
	Condition 3 (M-M)	-.479	.456	-1.418	.385	.282
	Condition 4 (F-F)	-.556	.368	-1.332	.165	.103
	Incrementalist SO-IT	-.155	.320	-.766	.453	.622
	Entitist SO-IT[b]	0				

a. As defined by creating the dichotomous dependent variables which were based on the cumulative splits of the ordinal dependent variable. Where there are no categories provided this is due to no participant scoring in this field.

b. This is the reference category.

Recommended sentence: To test H4,a cumulative odds ordinal logistic regression analysis with proportional odds was run to determine the effect of implicit theories held about sexual offenders, and the representativeness of a case (i.e. male offender, female victim) [predictor variables] on the recommended sentence of the crime described [dependent variable]. There were proportional odds, as assessed by a full likelihood ratio test comparing the fitted model to a model with varying location parameters, $\chi^2(16) = 17.02$, $p = .384$. Consistent with

the two previous hypotheses, the parallelism assumption was validated, signifying that each category of the dependant variable of the recommended sentence was consistent across the different thresholds. As such, each category of the dependant variable was equal and justified the applicability of an ordinal logistic regression analysis.

The deviance goodness - of - fit test indicated that the model was a good fit to the observed data, χ^2 (31) = 41.289, p = .102. Table 25 shows that both the Pearson's Chi-Squared value and the deviation chi-squared value were not significant, indicating that the null hypothesis was supported and that the model was consistent with the data.

Table 25

Results of the Goodness of Fit Test for the Recommended Sentence Variable

	χ^2	df	*p*
Pearson	41.664	31	.096
Deviation	41.289	31	.102

The final model statistically significantly predicted the dependent variable over and above the intercept-only model χ^2 (4) = 20.13, p <.001. Table 26 shows that there was a significant difference between the model established with the independent variables and the initial model established without the independent variables. This indicates that there is an existence of a relationship between the dependant variable and the independent variables.

Table 26

Model Fitness Information for the Recommended Sentence Variable

Model	-2 Log Likelihood	χ^2	df	*p*
Only the intercept	156.909			
Final	136.780	20.129	4	.000

Examining the findings of the significance analyses of the model parameters as seen in table 28 reveals that the odds of those holding an incrementalist implicit theory recommending rehabilitation as a sentence option was -1.202, (95% CI, -1.968 to -.447) times that of those holding an entitist implicit theory, with a statistically significant effect χ^2 (1) = 15.813, *p* = .001(see table 27). However, as shown by the tests of model effects in table 27, the representativeness of a case did not have a statistically significant effect on recommended sentence of the offence χ^2 (3) = 6.785, *p* = 0.79. Due to the negative estimate value this suggests that those who hold incremental implicit theories of sexual offenders are less likely to recommend high levels of rehabilitation than those who hold implicit theories. These results are in direct contrast to H4.

Table 27

Tests of Model Effects for the Recommended Sentence Variable

	Wald	df	*p*
Condition randomly chosen by participants	6.785	3	.079
Type of implicit theory held for sexual offenders	15.813	1	.000

Table 28

Parameter Estimates for the Recommended Sentence Variable

Parameter		B	Std. Error	95% CI		*p*
				LL	UL	
Threshold[a]						
	Recommended Sentence =0	-2.704	.376	-3.546	-2.089	.001
	Recommended Sentence =1	-1.768	-.028	-2.542	-1.082	.001
	Recommended Sentence =2	-.932	.350	-1.631	-.230	.010
	Recommended Sentence =3	.241	.350	-.411	.995	.474
	Recommended Sentence =4	1.083	.370	.422	1.879	.004
Independent Variables						
	Condition 1 (F-M)	.312	.399	-.441	1.120	.440
	Condition 2 (M-F)	.039	.460	-.907	.962	.924
	Condition 3 (M-M)	-.725	.454	-1.574	.179	.103
	Condition 4 (F-F)	-.155	.329	-.365	.960	.380
	Incrementalist SO-IT	-1.202	.371	-.1.968	-.447	.001
	Entitist SO-IT[b]	0				

a. As defined by creating the dichotomous dependent variables which were based on the cumulative splits of the ordinal dependent variable.

b. This is the reference category.

4.4. Discussion

The first aim of this study was to examine professional attitudes towards sexual offenders based upon the type of IT held about: a) human nature and b)

sexual offenders; this was investigated using the ATS-21. The second aim was to explore the interaction between ITs about sexual offenders and the representativeness of the offender and victim (i.e. sexual offenders are male, male victims are less affected than female victims). This was investigated by presenting a participant with one of four fictional scenarios, each depicting a difference mix of gender relationships between the offender and victim and then assessing attitudes towards: 1) the view of severity of offending 2) the perception of the impact upon the victim; and 3) the recommended punishment.

4.4.1. Summary findings

1) On examination of the IT group differences for incremental and entity views held, slightly fewer participants held an incremental view of sexual offenders (*n* = 58) compared with those with an incremental view of human nature (*n* = 64). However more people held an entity IT with regard to sexual offenders (*n* = 130) compared with entitists about human nature (*n* = 108). These results support the idea that people can hold different theories in different domains (Dweck et al., 1995), in this case human nature and sexual offenders. However, what is not supported is the view that implicit theories are equally endorsed in most domains (Burnette et al., 2013), as in this present study there was not equal endorsement within the sample.

2) Participants with entity ITs expressed more negative attitudes toward sexual offenders than incrementalists. These differences were found in both of the IT domains. Each subscale of the ATS-21 was examined, and compared entitists and incrementalists for both IT-HN and IT-SO. The greatest difference in both IT domains was found on the “Trust” subscale. This suggests that trust has a bigger impact on those who hold views that

people (or sexual offenders) are unchangeable and fixed in their behaviours. The results indicate that entitists are more untrusting of sexual offenders than incrementalists, and this is apparent for both IT domains. Of interest was the subscale of social distance, which relates to how sexual offenders are viewed in terms of how distant they are from the normality of society. The magnitude of difference on this subscale was substantially larger in the IT-SO domain than in the IT-HN domain. This indicates that the IT-SO incrementalists had stronger positive attitudes, yet the IT-SO entitists had a stronger negative attitude in comparison to the IT-HN group.

3) The impact on the victim and the severity of the offence was not affected by the type of IT held by a participant. This suggests that whether someone held an entitist or incrementalist theory of sexual offenders made no difference to their views of victim impact or offence severity. In addition to this the condition (vignette) did not have an impact upon the views for these two outcomes. This means that the gender of the perpetrator and the gender of the victim did not make a difference to participant's attitudes.

4) In relation to the recommended sentence, entitists endorsed higher levels of rehabilitation than incrementalists, which is opposite the proposed hypotheses. As with the other two outcomes, the gender of the perpetrator or victim did not impact upon the recommended sentence.

4.4.2. Implicit theories about sexual offenders

The results of this study differ to Harper and Bartels (2016), where they suggest entity theories about sexual offenders may be based on the

representative heuristic (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974). The results from the present study would indicate that professionals do not hold a set view about sexual offenders, and so do not have a "sex offender schema". Harper and Bartels (2016) proposed that those who reject social stereotypes are less likely to hold a biased sexual offender schema and thus hold less negative attitudes. It is arguable that due to the findings from this study that professionals working within forensic settings have more likely to reject the collective beliefs around sexual offenders which are portrayed in society and the media. It is likely that those who work in forensic environments such as secure hospitals will have regular contact with patients who have committed sexual offences and support them in all aspects of their care needs. Thus, they may be more inclined to experience more than just the label of "sex offender" and consequently see beyond the generic stereotypes.

The work of a professional in a forensic setting often stretches far outside the context of the offence alone. It could be argued that the impact of media coverage of sexual offenders, which often uses emotive language and gender specific terms (Harper & Hogue, 2014), has less of an impact on actual forensic professionals. Kahneman (2011), proposed that judgements are likely to be anchored onto available examples, and a community population is likely to only get their examples of sexual offenders from media, literature or indeed from being a victim of a crime. However, professionals have more salient personal examples or experiences in which they can add any new information to, and thus do not rely on a stereotypical view when making decisions. Therefore, the present study goes someway to support the view that when people reject social stereotypes they are less likely to hold a biased sexual offender schema (Harper & Bartels, 2016). However, it is possible that the representative heuristic may still be prominent in a community sample, such as those who participated in Harper and

Bartels' (2016) study. A community sample is unlikely to have the availability of other information to use in which to build their knowledge and understanding around offenders, and so they revert to using the prime source of information available to them, which is often media (Brown et al., 2008). Ducat et al. (2009) and Frei (2008) highlighted the frequent stereotypical and biased portrayal of sexual offenders in the media, often with descriptions of sexual offenders being "monsters" who are beyond redemption and rehabilitation. If this is a member of the general public's only frame of reference then it is likely to be skewed in comparison to a professional who works with sexual offenders. In considering stereotyping and social prejudice, a social psychology theory would purport that lack of knowledge about "out-groups" maintain greater prejudice and negative stereotyping. However, personal knowledge and experience of particular groups reduce prejudice (Gaertner et al., 1999). Therefore, it is unsurprising that the general public would hold more negative views towards sexual offenders in comparison to those who work with this group of individuals.

The finding of hypothesis 4 is of particular interest. It was predicted that those holding an entitist view would make a more punitive recommendation on the sentence when presented with a more representative case (i.e., male perpetrator and female victim). Whilst there was no effect of the gender depicted in the vignette, the findings did show that entitists recommended higher levels of rehabilitation than incrementalists. This in itself contradicts the very nature of the entitist theory in that people are viewed as fixed and unchangeable. This also contradicts the findings of the community sample in Harper and Bartels' (2016) study. A possible reason for this finding is that the of the knowledge-activation framework (Poon & Koehler, 2006), which proposes that individuals have simultaneous knowledge which allows for both beliefs in change and stability.

Therefore, the dominant view held at any given time could depend on what knowledge has been primed. In addition to this, Kunda (1990) proposed that individuals will change their attitudes as much as reasonably possible even when constrained by their initial position. Leith et al. (2014) built on this framework and argued that people could actively gravitate towards an implicit theory that best suits their goals. It is possible that in the present study the goal for those who held entity theories was not to be seen as believing that there is no hope in rehabilitating sexual offenders as it could present them in a negative light. Considering that a large proportion of the participant group was drawn from a high secure hospital, which holds rehabilitation in high esteem, this is entirely possible. Despite the research being completely anonymous it was still commissioned by the NHS trust that the participants work for and this could have swayed their motivations. Therefore, they may have overly shifted to an incremental implicit theory because they believed that this was the right thing to say rather than a genuine belief.

Leith et al. (2014) found that implicit theories have more fluidity to them than first thought. They demonstrated that when motivated, participants could regulate and actively shift their validation of implicit theories in subtle yet meaningful ways. When exploring implicit beliefs about sexual offenders Leith et al. (2014) found that when motivated by the need to protect and guard against threat then the participants could reframe their underlying beliefs and shift their responses about rehabilitation. It is arguable that this may have occurred in the present study as the participants could have been motivated by preserving their jobs and not wanting their employers seeing them as opposing or demonstrating a negative view of the rehabilitative culture of their organisation. This would potentially be supported by the tentative suggestion that people may be able to

move away from an entity belief when sufficiently motivated to do so (Leith et al., 2014). As Harper and Bartels' (2016) study consisted of a community sample, they were less likely to have the same motivations as the participants in the present study and this could potentially explain the observed differences in the two studies.

Across all three outcome measures following each of the vignettes, there were no statistically significant effects of the condition (gender of perpetrator and gender of the victim) upon the attitudes of the, impact on the victim, the severity of the offence and the recommended outcome. This would refute much of the present literature which suggests that male perpetrators of sexual offences are regarded more negatively than female perpetrators of crime (Eisenberg et al., 1987; Hetherton & Beardsall, 1998; Kite & Tyson, 2004). However, the current findings support the findings of Higgins and Ireland (2009) who found that there were no differences in the attitudes of sexual offenders based upon the gender of the perpetrator. Higgins and Ireland (2009) suggested that the participants treated the sexual offender as a homogeneous group, and failed to make the distinction between the gender depicted in the vignette they read, and simply viewed the perpetrator as a generic "sexual offender". Therefore, there is reason to argue that the difference may have arisen due to the difference in participant groups. In the studies conducted by Eisenberg et al. 1987; Hetherton and Beardsall, 1998; and Kite and Tyson, 2004, the professional groups were made up of police, social workers and nurses. Whereas the professional participant groups of both the present study and Higgins and Ireland (2009) were primarily from secure hospitals and psychology. It is possible that the latter professional groups have more long-term contact with sexual offenders and work with them beyond just the offence. This could impact upon the more holistic view that professionals

in these fields develop about sexual offenders, and as such refute the social stereotype of a sexual offender, as discussed above.

4.5. Conclusion

What has been indicated by the results of the present study is that irrespective of perpetrator/victim gender, participants perceived the severity and impact on the victim to be high, as indicated by the skewness of the scores. This is in contrast to the findings of Bornstein et al., (2007) who found that participants viewed homosexual abuse as more traumatic than heterosexual abuse. In the present study, the impact on the victim did not change dependent upon that gender relationship between the perpetrator and the victim. Indicating that participants viewed the sexual abuse of a child to be extremely severe and to have major impact upon them.

In addition to this, the results have demonstrated that despite the participants holding entitist views of sexual offenders (indicative of a belief that people are unable to change) they still indicated that they believed rehabilitation was the most appropriate sentencing option. This would suggest that despite a personal belief system, participants felt that punishment was not a suitable option of dealing with a sexual offender. However what is unclear is why punishment was not deemed suitable. As discussed above, it is possible that the view of choosing rehabilitation was because of a personal motivation of self-preservation within the organisation.

4.6. Limitations

As discussed earlier in the study, it was not possible to examine the number of non-responders, additionally there were a high proportion of nursing staff in comparison to other staff members working within a forensic environment.

Therefore, it is fair to say that there is some ambiguity surrounding the representativeness of the sample. Thus, the present findings cannot be confidently stated to be representative of professionals working within forensic environments. Further to this, the outcomes may have been skewed by the fact that almost half of the respondents worked within a high secure hospital, which by the very nature works within a rehabilitative culture and thus it is possible that it is the culture of the organisation which is being represented as opposed to individual values and beliefs.

There was a disproportionate split in terms of male and female participants within the sample, which may have had some influence of bias. Due to the small and unequal sample sizes between genders, it was not possible to explore the effect of participant gender.

The data analysis followed Dweck et al.'s (1995a) recommendation with regards to preparing the IT data, resulting in both IT measures being dichotomized to produce two entitist and incrementalist groups. As such, the IT aspect of the study was cross-sectional in nature. Therefore, it can be argued that the conclusions drawn via this method are not strong enough to dictate a full cause and effect of IT on attitudes. However when looking at the numbers for in both IT domains (Human Nature and Sexual Offender), the amount that were excluded due to being middle values were still less than the values for each of the implicit beliefs (entitist or incrementalist). However, the use of the logistic ordinal regression aimed to overcome this dichotomisation.

4.7. Future research

As mentioned in the limitations, there was minimal data collected for prison officers and so it would be useful to extend this research into the prison estates.

Previous research has shown that prison officers have negative views about sexual offenders in comparison to other professions (Higgins & Ireland, 2009; Kjelsberg, Skoglund & Rustad, 2007; Kjelsberg & Loos, 2008). However, more recent research has shown that professionals working within a specialised prison environment and who work therapeutically with sexual offenders generally hold incremental ITs (Blagden et al., 2016). Therefore, it would be useful to now combine the knowledge about ITs and more general prison based staff to consider how the two impact upon attitudes towards sexual offenders and offenders more generally. This may also help to explore the possibility of the malleability of implicit theories because of personal motivations with regards to the organisational culture as discussed above.

Future research could examine any differences in participant gender and their views. This could be explored in a number of ways such as whether male or female participants score higher on the ATS-21 and whether this then has a subsequent impact on outcome variables such as impact, severity or recommended sentencing. Additionally differences in these dependent variables could be explored individually to examine any differences between men and women, for example whether the recommended level of rehabilitation is higher in one group over another.

It would also be beneficial to explore the impact of organisational culture on ITs to examine if there are any changes in these over time. Studies have indicated the positive impact of staff training on improving attitudes and knowledge of those working with sexual offenders (Craig, 2005; Hogue, 1994). It would be useful to take this a step further and explore if ITs change along with

attitudes towards offender groups and if these are facilitated by the type of work environment.

Chapter 5: The use of the Attitude to Sex Offender Scale with staff working in forensic settings: A psychometric critique.

Abstract

This paper presents a psychometric critique of the Attitudes to Sex Offender Scale (ATS; Hogue, 1993). The ATS is a measure to assess attitudes towards sexual offenders in a single dimension. This review explores the extent of the validity and reliability of both the original ATS and the revised, shortened version of the ATS-21 (Hogue & Harper, 2019) used across a range of participant samples. The critique highlights a number of areas of both strengths and limitations and concludes that there is proven excellent internal consistency across a number of studies across both the ATS and ATS-21. Additionally the ATS-21 shows good levels of face validity as it was found not to be influenced by impression management. Overall, those using the ATS should consider the purpose of their research in terms of the constructs they are exploring. This is because a tool such as the shortened version of the ATS (ATS-21) may be more useful if researchers want to explore specific factors within their research.

5. Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to explore the use of the attitudinal measure, the Attitude to Sex Offenders Scale (ATS; Hogue, 1993), with the inclusion of the shortened version of the ATS-21 (Hogue & Harper, 2019). Normative data and psychometric properties (including internal reliability, concurrent validity, predictive validity, and content validity) will be considered. The ATS has been used with a variety of populations, including the general public, university students and forensic staff. The application of this tool with staff working within forensic settings, particularly those who work with sexual offenders is important because of the impact of personal views held by staff may have on offenders during their interactions (Bauman, 2016), therefore particular focus is given to this population. As research continues into the field of attitudinal impacts of staff on the recovery of sexual offenders (Beech et al., 2005; Blagdenet al., 2016; Hogue 2015), employers and organisations may need to consider the use of psychometric tools during interviewing and training and may wish to explore attitudinal changes over time. Therefore, the aim of this chapter is to outline the scale itself, incorporating relevant literature in this area and to critically examine the properties of the ATS. Within this, examination of the ATS-21 (Hogue & Harper, 2019) will also be included as this is a shortened version of the ATS and as such it is relevant to this chapter.

As highlighted in chapter one of this thesis, the research into attitudes has suggested that these are complex and are not based upon a single concept. Attitudes are judgement based, whereby individuals appraise the information presented to them and utilise this to make a decision about whether they agree or disagree in relation to an object, situation or person. Previous definitions, suggest that an attitude is a settled way of thinking or feeling about something,

comprised of mental constructs that influence ones behaviour and interpretations (Anderson, 1983). As an attitude is personal to individuals then the outcomes which occur to these is likely to result in positive responses if the attitude is positive, and negative responses if the attitude is negative (Eagly, 1992) . As outlined in chapter one, Breckler (1984) proposed that attitudes are comprised of three distinct components: cognition, which is based upon the types of belief an individual holds about a given concept or entity; affect, which relates to the deep internal emotional connection that an individual has towards a given concept or entity; and behaviour, which pays attention to the way in which an individual acts towards the given concept or entity. These attitudes are developed via both experiences of thinking and feeling and through time become permanent within the long-term memory (Fazio, 1986; Higgins, 1986). A more recent definition states, "an attitude is a summary evaluation of an object of thought" (Vogal & Wanke, 2016, pp 17). An attitude object can be anything that an individual discriminates or holds in mind. These can be concrete, abstract, people or groups of people, or even inanimate objects. The term "sexual offender" often evokes negative feelings in many people and these are often underpinned by strong belief systems (Brown 2009; Willis et al., 2013). Research has found the formation of attitudes and the extremes of attitudes can be impacted upon by the type of crime committed (Tennfjord, 2006) and even based upon the circumstances of the offences (Engle et al., 2007; Nelson et al., 2002). In addition, studies have found that training amongst the forensic population can influence attitudinal change (Craig 2005; Hogue 1994).

Jung et al. (2012) found differences in opinions of risk and character of offenders affected beliefs about an offender's abilities to be rehabilitated. West (2000) found that society makes demands for sexual offenders to be harshly

punished and have high restrictions imposed, often with these requests being made based upon their belief systems. Due to the modern day use of social media, the negative attitudes held within the general public are well known without the use of measurement tools. However, being able to quantify such views is beneficial so that these can be explored in more depth and be examined across groups of people, including community samples, professionals and those working directly with sexual offenders. By quantitatively appraising such attitudes, this can influence social policy, education of the general public, particularly where beliefs may be based on incorrect information (Quinn et al., 2004), assistance in re-integrating sexual offenders back in the community, and training for those who work with this forensic population. Harper et al. (2017) reviewed a breadth of research literature, which examined the attitudes towards sexual offenders. One of the findings from this review was that of the influence of stereotypes and the impact these have upon attitudes towards sexual offenders. Therefore, an important aspect in the shaping of attitudes of sexual offenders is to first address the stereotypical views that are often held by individuals. Research has found that stereotypes, which induce strong emotional responses, have guided societal and personal responses to sexual offending, particularly when focussed on children being the victims of sexual crime (Harper & Hogue, 2014; Imhoff, 2015). In summary to their review, Harper et al. (2017), found that the literature exploring attitudes held by professionals working with sexual offenders may influence the therapeutic atmosphere within treatment groups, which in turn could have an impact on treatment outcomes for participants. Further to this, they also found that the decision-making and judgements of professionals may be affected by the attitudes held towards sexual offenders. Harper et al. (2017) also suggested that the findings from the literature review indicated that the media driven and

socially constructed stereotypes are in part a contributing factor to the attitudes and perceptions held by individuals about sexual offenders.

Prior to the 1990's there appears to have been limited research completed into the impact of staff attitudes towards sexual offenders. However, with increased evidence based programmes and the need for therapists to work closely alongside this offender group, research has focused on effective outcomes and how these have been affected by the beliefs of those supporting sexual offenders. Lea et al. (1999) found that positive attitudes of staff members are essential for the effective rehabilitation of those who have committed sexual offences. They suggest that viewing sexual offenders as normal people who are capable of change is likely to increase the possibility of a positive outcome, as opposed to situations where staff members hold negative attitudes indicative of beliefs that sexual offenders are incurable, deviant individuals. Further research has also supported the finding that positive staff attitudes and the belief that sexual offenders can change have had positive impacts upon fostering offender rehabilitation and promoting positive change in the behaviour of offenders (Hogue, 1993; Kjelsberg & Loos, 2004). Ward et al. (2004) found that the prison environment can shape the behaviours of offenders. They highlighted that sexual offenders who find themselves in prison display characteristics such as suspicion, hostility and guardedness, all of which are likely to impair treatment outcomes. There are arguments to suggest that sexual offenders present in such ways as a response to their experiences of the prison environment. Often sexual offenders experience stigmatization by both fellow inmates and members of staff and as such can be treated negatively (Ireland, 2000; Schwaebe, 2005; Spencer, 2009). Further to this, Ricciardelli and Moir (2013) found that sexual offenders felt a constant threat of victimisation by fellow inmates and as such described a sense

of feeling unsafe in the prison environment. Therefore, it is unsurprising that studies have found that sexual offenders display characteristics such as those described above. Treatment outcomes are likely to be further compounded if those professionals working with them openly display negative attitudes. Blagden, et al. (2016) conducted a piece of research within a therapeutically orientated sexual offenders' prison. Quantitative findings from this study highlighted that prisoners held positive views about their relationships with staff and felt that both staff and the prison environment had contributed positive change in prisoners. This was further supported with psychometric measures, which also demonstrated that both prisoners and staff held positive attitudes towards offenders and had high beliefs that offenders could change.

5.1.1. Overview of the ATS

The Attitudes to Sex Offenders Scale (ATS) was adapted by Hogue (1993) from the Attitude to Prisoners Scale (ATP; Melvin et al., 1985). The ATP was developed as a psychometric tool in order to assess the general attitudes of those working within the criminal justice system towards prisoners. Hogue (1993) described the ATP as a social distance measure, which was designed to assess attitudes towards prisoners in general. Hogue (1993) adapted the ATP to take into account attitudes towards sexual offenders specifically, rather than towards prisoners as a whole. Prior to the development of the ATS, research had started to consider how sexual offenders were considered "outcasts" within the prison system, Akerstrom (1986) found that sexual offenders were viewed as the "out-group" amongst the prison population and as a group of people who have never belonged. From this Hogue (1993) considered that attitudes towards sexual offenders are likely to differ from attitudes towards prisoners in general and as such there needed to be a tool in which attitudes towards this specific group of

offenders could be explored. Thus, the ATS was developed as a way of measuring these attitudes; this was a parallel scale to the ATP, with the word "prisoner" being replaced with "sex offender".

The ATS rates attitudes as a single dimension and is a 36-item self-report questionnaire. Following the structure of the ATP, there are 19 statements that are negatively framed (e.g., sex offenders never change) and 17 that are positively framed (e.g., sex offenders have feelings like the rest of us). All 36 items relate to the responder's belief and feelings about sexual offenders. When completing the questionnaire, participants are required to indicate on a five-point Likert scale as to how much they agree with the statement ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. For the 19 negatively framed items, the scores are revered. Once this is done a total score from all 36 items is obtained, a constant score of 36 is removed (one point for each item), making the possible score range from 0 to 144. A higher score is indicative of more positive attitudes towards sexual offenders. The ATS is described as a global measure of attitudes towards sexual offenders and as such the tool should be regarded as a reflection of generalised feelings towards this offender group, thus it can be used as a baseline measure (Hogue & Harper, 2018).

5.1.2. Overview of the ATS-21

Factor analysis of the 36 items enabled Hogue and Harper (2019) to devise a shorter, 21 item ATS. This is based on a three-factor model; "Trust", "Intent" and "Social Distance", each factor has 7 items and provides individual scores and an overall ATS total. This works the same as the full ATS version with higher scores showing more positive attitude to sexual offenders. Hogue and Harper (2019) highlighted the use of this tool in practice due to the possibility that the different subscales could be used to consider risk judgements. The goal of the research

undertaken by Hogue and Harper (2018) was to highlight existing methodological issues within the ATS and provide a revised, reliable, and theoretically valid measure of attitudes towards sexual offenders. Whilst the ATS-21 is still relatively new, there has now been a number of research studies which have included this measure within their methodology sections and consequently these studies have been included within this critique. A critique of the original ATS alongside the ATS-21 would be useful as this will allow researchers to consider either of the tools in their chosen methodologies and thus this critique could aid in their research practices and possibly assist when choosing between the original ATS and the revised version.

Considering the tripartite model of attitudes as proposed by Breckler (1984) as briefly described previously within this chapter (See Chapter 1 for a more in depth explanation of this model), it can be argued that the ATS and more specifically, by extension the ATS-21 provides a comprehensive inspection of all three components of attitudes. Firstly, the affect (emotion) based judgements are represented by the "Trust" factor (e.g., "I would like associating with some sex offenders"). Secondly, the cognitive based judgements are represented by the "Intent" factor, which are stereotype-based evaluations of sexual offenders (e.g., "Sex offenders only think about themselves"; reverse-scored). Thirdly, the behaviour based judgements of sexual offenders are represented by the "Social Distance" factor (e.g., "If sex offenders do well in prison/hospital, they should be let out on parole").

5.2. Normative data

In Hogue's (1993) original paper the ATS was validated on police officers, prison officers (a mix of both those involved in treatment of sexual offenders and those who were not) probation officers/psychologists and sexual offenders. The

means for which can be found in table 29. Whilst Hogue does not categorically state that these are normed values, these are the only values provided and as such, ones that researchers are likely to use as a reference point. Within Hogue's (1993) original participant group there was an over representation of males in the police officer group (male *n*=30, female *n*=3), in the prison officers not involved in treatment of sexual offenders group (male n= 19, female n= 2), and in the prison officers involved in treatment of sexual offenders group (male n= 43, female n=7). Whilst there was an even split of males (n=16) and females (n=16) in the probation officer/psychologist group, caution should be employed when generalising this data across the professional field as a whole due to the large difference in numbers between male and female participants in three out of the four groups.

The ATS-21 completed four studies in order to develop a shorter version of the ATS, whilst also confirming and identifying the three-factor structure of affect, cognition and behaviour. The first two studies used general community samples, there were slightly more females in each study (Study 1 = 62.8% females; Study 2 = 57.3% females). Study 3 utilised the sample from Hogue's (1993) original study, in which professionals and sexual offenders were the focus of the participant group, and as highlighted previously there was an over representation of male participants (80% males). Study 4, recruited participants from a university and included both students, staff members and members of the general public who frequented public areas of the campus. In this sample, there was an over representation of female participants (84.7% females).

In the original ATS there is no information relating to the ethnicity of the participants, therefore, it is difficult to comment of the use of this measure concerning the ethnicity of populations, because there is no data in regards to this

as a baseline measure. In the ATS-21 research, Study 1 reported that 93.6% of participants were British born, however in the other three studies no details were provided about the ethnicity of the participants. Again, it is difficult to comment on the use of the ATS-21 concerning the ethnicity of populations as there is minimal data with regards to this. Whilst there is data from study 1 with regards to the majority of participants being British born it can therefore be suggested that caution should be taken when generalising the data populations which are ethnically diverse.

5.3. Psychometric properties

A psychometric test is defined as "any procedure on the basis of which inferences are made concerning a person's capacity, propensity or liability to act, react, experience or to structure or order thought or behaviour in particular ways" (Cutt et al., 2012, p.51). The British Psychological Society (BPS; 2017) state that psychological tests should be supported by evidence of reliability and validity for the intended purpose of the test. Additionally, in order for inferences to be drawn from any test, there should be supportive evidence.

5.3.1. Reliability

Reliability is concerned with how reproducible the elements of a test are (American Psychological Associate; APA, 1999); ultimately how consistent scores are from one assessment to another. Jack and Clarke (1998) describe reliability as the repeatability, stability or internal consistency of a questionnaire or test. Measures of test reliability allow the researcher to estimate the accuracy of the test and thus quantify the degree of accuracy on the scores obtained. Reliability is a necessary but not sufficient component of validity (Downing, 2003), indicative that when a test does not produce reliable scores, then the interpretations of said test are not valid (Cook & Beckman, 2006).

Table 29

Studies reporting data for the ATS

Source	Sample of who was assessed (*n*)	Specific offender group in the ATS questions	ATS Total		Cronbach's α
			M	SD	
Hogue (1993)	Police Officer (33)	Non specified sexual offender	62.6	17.47	
	Prison officer no treatment (21)		71.5	17.34	
	Prison officer treatment (50)		80	13.13	
	Probation/psychologist (11)		90.7	11.64	
	Sexual Offender (28)		99.1	20.42	
Higgins & Ireland (2009)	Forensic Staff (80) Prison Officer (80) Public (81)	Adult male or female sexual offender			0.96
Kjelsberg & Loos (2008)	Prison Employees: Pre (105) Post (90)	Adult sexual offender	 83 84	 17.6 17.9	
	College students (419)		74	18.2	0.91-0.94
Proeve & Howells (2006)	University Students (123)	Adult Male sexual offender			0.85
Craig (2005)	Residential hostel workers & probation officers (74) Pre Training Post Training	Non specified "sexual offender"	76.44 76.05	 12.95 12.46	0.86

Source	Sample of who was assessed (*n*)	Specific offender group in the ATS questions	ATS Total		Cronbach's α
Gakhal & Brown (2011)	Public (92) Forensic Professional (22) Undergraduate Students (64)	Female sexual offender	64.47 99.55 70.63	14.92 9.45 14.07	0.88
Whitehead (2009)	Post Graduate Students men (50) Post Graduate Women (242)	Juvenile sexual offenders	85.2 86.3	16.9 16	0.91
Ferguson & Ireland (2006)	Student (49) Forensic Staff (90)	Male sexual offender	94.6 123.3	18.3 15	0.95
Johnson et al. (2007)	Probationer police Officers (75) General public (99)		100.8 94.8	13.2 20	0.91 - 0.94
Harper (2012)	Undergraduate Students (178)	Male sexual offender Juvenile sexual offender	68.44 78.72	17.6 18.86	
Hogue & Peebles	Professionals who worked with sexual offenders or people who had been victimized by sexual offenders (50)	Non specified "sexual offender" (however associated vignettes described a male perpetrator and female victim)	Police profession: 72.54 Other profession: 81.15		
Sanghara, & Wilson (2006)	Professional experienced in child sexual offender treatment (60) Professionals not experienced in child sexual offender treatment[teachers] (71)	Non specified "sexual offender"	109.48 90.00	10.32 14.65	0.92

Source	Sample of who was assessed (*n*)	Specific offender group in the ATS questions	ATS Total		Cronbach's α
Nelson et al. (2002)	Counselling professionals (437)	Non specified "sexual offenders"	120.11	17.07	0.92
Blagden et al. (2016)	Prison staff (48) Prisoners (112)	Non specified "sexual offender"	92.91 103.62	18.09 14.22	
Kleban & Jeglic (2012)	Study 1 Undergraduate students: Experimental (176) Control (115) Study 2 Undergraduate students: Condition 1 (29) Condition 2 (28) Condition 3 (34) Control (28)	Non specified sexual offender	 110.16 109.68 102.32 95.09 109.86 115.07	 13.56 12.44 16.08 15.81 15.72 15.88	0.86
Hogue (1994)	British prison staff: Pre (81) Post (33)	Non specified sexual offender	 81.98 86.91		

Note: Blank spaces indicate unreported results.

Table 30

Studies Reporting Data for the ATS-21

Source	Sample of who was assessed (*n*)	Specific offender group in the ATS questions	ATS-21 Total Cronbach's α	"Trust" Cronbach's α	"Intent" Cronbach's α	"Social Distance" Cronbach's α
Hogue & Harper (2019)	Study 1: General public (188) Study 2: General public (383) Study 3: Same as Hogue (1993) Police Officer (33) Prison officer no treatment (21) Prison officer treatment (50) Probation/psychologist (11) Sexual Offender (28) Study 4: University students & staff members/members of the public frequenting public areas of the university campus (59)	Non specified sexual offender	0.91 0.94	0.83	0.84	0.79
Harper & Bartels (2017)	British Community Members (252)	Non specified sexual offender The study provided 3 different vignettes describing either an adult male, adult female or juvenile male offender	0.95			
Harper & Bartels (2017)	British Community Members (252)	Non specified sexual offender The study provided 3 different vignettes describing either an adult male, adult female or juvenile male offender	0.95	0.89	0.88	0.84
Harper, Bartels & Hogue	University Students (100)	Non specified sexual offender	0.96			

Source	Sample of who was assessed (*n*)	Specific offender group in the ATS questions	ATS-21 Total Cronbach's α	"Trust" Cronbach's α	"Intent" Cronbach's α	"Social Distance" Cronbach's α
(2018)						
Harper & Hogue (2015)	General public (400)	Non specified sexual offender				0.94

Note: Blank spaces indicate unreported results. Mean and SD were not reported in any of the ATS-21 results therefore these columns were omitted from this table.

5.3.2. Internal consistency reliability

Internal consistency reliability is an assessment of how reliable individual items on a test or survey that are designed to measure the same thing actually do so; ultimately this is how well individual items inter-correlate with each other within the one scale. A common measurement of internal reliability is calculated using Cronbach's Alpha (α; Cronbach, 1951). Alpha is described as the proportion of a scale's total variance that is related to a common source. If the components of a scale are essentially equal, then the alpha value serves as an unbiased estimator of reliability (Devellis, 1991). Ultimately, whilst the individual items can have different means and variances, their covariance should be equal. A coefficient value (Cronbach α) of 0.70 or above represents a good level of internal consistency, with anything lower indicating an unreliable scale (Field, 2014).

In the development of the ATS, Hogue (1993) did not report a coefficient value for the measure, therefore there is no original alpha by which to baseline results reported in studies whereby the ATS was used. However, in further studies which have utilised this measure internal consistency appears to have ranged from 0.85-0.96 depending upon the sample used within the study (see Table 29). This suggests that the ATS may be a reliable tool as there is a good level of internal consistency that has found to be generally stable across a range of populations being assessed. However, it must be noted that in the main, these studies have been based on the 36-item measure as one general factor, thus measuring a single construct. Kjelsberg et al. (2007) suggested that based on this single construct the length of the scale could be significantly reduced without the psychometric properties being sacrificed. Seemingly, Hogue and Harper (2019) responded to this and developed the ATS-21 (as mentioned above), which produced equally strong psychometric properties with an alpha coefficient of 0.91

(Hogue & Harper 2019) and again as reported in table 30 the internal consistency of the ATS-21 as an overall measure, ranges from 0.95-0.96 across a number of other studies. In addition to this, some of the studies have also included Cronbach's alpha's for the individual factors, which again show good levels of internal consistency, ranging between 0.79 – 0.83 (Harper & Bartels, 2017; Hogue & Harper, 2019). Thus showing the ATS-21 to be a good reliable method of measuring attitudes towards sexual offenders.

This data suggests that both the ATS and the shortened ATS-21 may be a reliable tool within the general populations as there is an acceptable level of internal consistency as are reported in tables 29 and 30. The ATS also shows a good level of internal consistency across a range of populations including professional and offender groups, again reported in table 29. However, only general public populations have a reported Cronbach's alpha in the studies reported in table 30. Therefore, at this stage it is not possible to draw firm conclusions of the internal consistency of the ATS-21 when used with other populations.

5.3.3. Test-retest reliability

The test-retest (or external) reliability refers to the stability and consistency of a psychometric assessment over time, with scores being correlated from the first and second administration. The test-retest reliability of a tool needs to be completed with the same sample in order to eliminate confounding variables. However, Nunnally (1978) highlights that recall, time and reactivity problems may still result in flawed test-retest outcomes despite the elimination of bias from the sample. Nunnally (1978) states that a satisfactory test-retest coefficient should be at least 0.70.

Bogle (2012) suggests that as schema's are relatively stable cognitive constructs, then the attitudes one holds about sexual offenders should also show a degree of consistency over time. With this in mind, theoretically the ATS should have strong test-retest reliability as it is asking for attitudinal responses from participants. Hogue (1993) did not undertake external validity within the development of the ATS and to date there are very few studies that have explored this, simply due to the nature of the type of research being undertaken. The majority of the research which has used the ATS has been to explore attitudes on only one time period hence external consistency is not possible to calculate. However, Sanghara and Wilson (2006) asked 12 participants to repeat the ATS after a two-week period, for the purposes of reliability testing and this was found to provide good results (r=.82). The only other studies which have re-examined attitudes towards sexual offenders using the ATS have been those which have wanted to test the impact of training upon staff attitudes (Craig, 2005; Hogue, 1994; Kjelsberg & Loos, 2008). By the very nature of the research the purpose has been to examine if training improves attitudes towards sexual offenders and as such the authors of these papers were not examining the test-retest reliability. However, what is known is that the ATP, which the ATS is very closely based upon, was found to have good test-retest reliability (r = .82, p <.01; Melvin et al., 1985). As part of the development of the ATS-21, Hogue and Harper (2019) examined the test-retest reliability across three conditions (online – online, in person – in person and in person – online) over a two week time period. The results from this ranged from r = .70 to r = .98, demonstrating excellent levels of external reliability. Therefore, what is clear is that examination of the external validity of the original ATS would be beneficial and in addition to this further exploration of the ATS-21 would be useful to ensure that the external validity may hold beyond a two week time frame.

5.3.4. Validity

The APA (1999) describes validity as "the degree to which evidence and theory support the interpretations of test scores entailed by the proposed uses of the tests"; namely to what extent the tests can be trusted to measure what it proposes to measure. There are a number of forms by which validity can be measured, including; face validity, concurrent validity, predictive validity, content validity and discriminate validity. When considering validity, Cook and Beckman (2006) advise on some caution, as often the concept of a "validation tool" implies a dichotomy, that the tool is valid or invalid. Instead they suggest viewing validity as a property of inference, not just the tool and to remember that the validity of one's interpretations is a matter of degree, i.e. the tool's scores will reflect the underlying construct to some accuracy be it more or less, however it will never do so perfectly.

5.3.4.1. Face validity

Eysenck (2004) describes face validity as the extent to which items contained within a test seem to be of obvious relevance to the construct the test is designed to measure; meaning that the tool/measurement appears to do what it claims to do. Kline (2013) highlights that whilst face validity is important it can also be problematic if it acts as a motivator for participants, as they may want to present themselves in a certain way. For example with the ATS, professionals who work with sexual offenders may be more inclined to present as more positive towards sexual offenders particularly if the research takes place within their own working environment or is undertaken by their employers. The items within the ATS all seem to have high face validity; this is unsurprising given that the measure is designed to assess self-reported attitudes towards the subject. In Hogue's' (1993) development of the ATS there was no direct exploration of social

desirability, however Melvin et al. (1985) did assess this by providing participants with the ATP scale and the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (MC; Crown & Marlow, 1960). The correlation between the scales was -.02 (p >.10), indicating no relationship between social desirability and the ATP. As the ATS is directly based on the ATP, it can be tentatively suggested that this would be the same for the ATS because all 36 items are the same expect for the alteration of the work "prisoner" to "sexual offender". In addition to this, the ATP and the ATS adopt the use of both negatively and positively worded items in a random sequence in an attempt to counteract acquiescence. Hogue and Peebles (1997) utilised the MC to establish if there were any social desirability biases within participant responses and they found that using the MC as a covariant did not alter the main effects, hence the ATS was not influenced by social desirability.

In the development of the ATS-21, Hogue and Harper (2019) utilised the Social Desirability Scale (SDS; Reynolds, 1982) to examine the relationship between the measure and social desirability bias. The results indicated that the ATS-21 was not influenced by such biases, thus demonstrating good face validity. On the basis that sexual offenders are viewed more negatively than any other offender group (Turoff, 2001), it could be beneficial to utilise the original ATS or the ATS-21 alongside a desirability scale, such as the SDS or the Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (BIDR; Paulhaus, 1998). The BIDR would allow the researcher to consider if the ATS is associated with self-deception enhancement and impression management, which may aid reliability.

5.3.4.2. Concurrent validity

The definition for concurrent validity is "a form of criterion validity where there is evidence that scores from an instrument correspond to concurrently recorded external measures conceptually related to the measured construct" (Field, 2014, p872). This type of validity examines whether the ATS correlates with other tests professing to measure the stated construct. There are a few measures that attempt to assess attitudes towards sexual offenders, namely; the Community Attitudes to Sex Offenders Scale (CATSO; Church et al., 2008), the Attitudes to the Treatment of Sex Offenders Scale (ATTSO; Wnuk et al., 2006) and the Perceptions of Sex Offenders Scale (PSO; Harper & Hogue 2015) . To the best of the author's knowledge, there have been no examinations of the correlation between the three measures. However, the ATS-21 has been found to correlate at a moderate to high level with the PSO, with the highest associations being for "intent" and "social distance" (Hogue & Harper, 2019) and at a high level (r=-.84, p <.001) for the ATS-21 total (Harper & Hogue, 2015). Therefore, it is not possible to comment on the concurrent validity of the original ATS, however the ATS-21 shows promise within this area. Whilst the ATS was developed directly from the ATP and so it would be expected that the two could correlate highly together, it is considered that in fact the two are measuring very different attitudes, this is discussed further in the discriminant validity section.

5.3.4.3. Predictive validity

Coolican (2004) describes predictive validity as the extent to which test scores can be used to make specific predictions based on other variables. In his original study, Hogue (1993) predicted the general pattern of scores reported by Melvin et al. (1985) would be replicated in a British sample of participants. Namely, that police officers would show the most negative attitudes towards

sexual offenders, with probation officers/psychologists showing the most positive attitudes. When considering prison officers it was predicted that those involved in the treatment of sexual offenders would have more positive attitudes than those prison officers not involved in the treatment process. This is exactly what Hogue (1993) found (see table 29 for mean ATS scores). These findings have been extended from just prison officers to a wider range of professionals, it was found that those who are experienced in working with sexual offenders held more positive attitudes towards them than inexperienced professionals (Sanghara & Wilson, 2006). A number of other studies, which have explored different categories of sexual offenders (i.e. females or juveniles) and have produced very similar outcomes (Gakhal & Brown, 2011; Hogue & Peebles, 1997), have replicated these findings. The ATS has also been used within training packages, whereby involvement in training has predicted the increase in positive attitudes towards sexual offenders as measured by the ATS, table 29 highlights three studies where the mean ATS score increased post treatment (Hogue, 1994; Craig, 2005; Kjelsberg & Loos, 2008). Hogue (1994) found that staff working in British prisons had increasingly positive attitudes towards working with sexual offenders [$t(29) = -2.84$, $p < .01$) after a six month follow up period following three weeks' worth of training. However, Craig (2005) found no significant differences in the total ATS score between pre and post training of probation officers and residential hostel workers, however there was a significant difference on seven items indicating positive attitudinal change toward sexual offenders following the training workshop. Three items also revealed negative attitudinal changes towards sexual offenders post training, which was predicted. This indicates that the ATS does have some predictive validity, whilst this may not be found in the tool as a whole, the items included still demonstrate some validity.

Johnson et al. (2007) used the ATS to predict that there would be a relationship between attitudes toward sexual offenders and overall empathy as measured by the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI; Davis, 1983), with specific predictions that higher levels of empathy would be associated with positive attitudes based on perspective taking and empathic concern. The results confirmed this prediction with significant correlations (albeit small in size) between attitudes and perspective taking (r=0.32) and attitudes and overall cognitive empathy (r=0.24). However, it must be noted that these results were found only on the overall sample and not within police officer sample. They also predicted that those with internal locus of control (LOC) would be more likely to display negative attitudes towards sexual offenders in comparison to those with external LOC. This prediction was not supported by the findings as there were no significant correlations.

Further research into the predictive validity of the ATS within the forensic staff population would be beneficial, particularly in light of the changing working practices and training that many police, prison and probation officers are required to undergo as part of their job role. In addition to this, there is no reported data with regards to the mean ATS-21 scores between participants, therefore it is not possible to comment on the predictive validity of the shorter version of the ATS, and this is something which should be considered for future research.

5.3.4.4. Construct validity

Construct validity is defined as the degree to which a test measures what it claims, or purports, to be measuring (Polit & Beck, 2012), this is generally done by using the measure to test a hypothesis or theoretical prediction. Within the category of construct validity are the subcategories of convergent and divergent

validity, both of these are required for excellent construct validity; each of these will be discussed below.

Whitehead (2009) directly examined the construct validity of the ATS by utilising exploratory factor analyses (Devliils, 1991) to examine attitudes towards juvenile sexual offenders. Factor analysis is used to investigate relationships between items in an instrument and the constructs that they are intended to measure (Tinsley & Brown, 2000). Whitehead (2009) ensured that the data was suitable for a factor analysis, with the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Tests of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) producing a value of 0.917, which exceeded the recommended value of 0.6 (Pallant, 2001). Via the use of eigenvalues and scree plots, the data revealed three factors and rotated. It was found that the three factors accounted for 41% of the total variance. When a principal component analysis (PCA) was conducted for the three factors, 26 out of the 36 items were included. In the analysis, all three factors demonstrated good levels of alpha coefficients (0.70 to 0.85). This indicated that items that did not load were not needed within the measure and should either be re-written or removed. These results support that of Johnson et al. (2007) who also found support for the three factor model. In Johnson et al.'s (2007) study the three factors outlined were, were 1) interpersonal/appreciation of feelings; 2) similarities of offenders to others in society/willingness to engage with a sexual offender; and 3) rehabilitation/justification of behaviour. The three factors outlined in Whitehead's (2009) study were 1) Allow oneself or a loved one to be open to association/interact with a sexual offender; 2) personal attributes of a juvenile sexual offender/appreciation of feelings; and 3) similarities of offenders to others in society/understanding of environment and how this may have made them different. Whilst these two studies demonstrate a failure to replicate the same

factor structure, there are elements which do tap into Breckler's (1984) ABC model, across both studies, however these do not appear to be clearly defined as they are within the ATS-21 factor structure. Considering both Johnson et al.'s (2007) and Whitehead's (2009) factors, it could be suggested that the ones which contain items centred on interpersonal qualities and the appreciation of feelings may be affect based judgements. Those items which are looking at either supporting treatment or association and interaction with a sexual offender may be behaviour based judgements. Finally, those items which make up the factor around the similarities of a sexual offender in comparison to others in society are seemingly cognitive based judgements.

In Johnson et al.'s (2007) study, only 24 out of the 36 items loaded, indicating that not all items measured what they purported to. It is difficult to draw firm similarities and conclusions between the two studies due to the difference in the ATS stem being used (juvenile –vs- non specified sexual offender) and the differences in populations, as Johnson et al. (2007) assessed attitudes of police officers and the general public, whereas Whitehead (2009) assessed post-graduate students. However, whilst surface analysis would suggest a number of differences, the theoretical base of both these studies which explore the factor analysis of the ATS appear to be the same and later supported by the development of the ATS-21. It would be beneficial to try and replicate these results and re-affirm the theoretic basis of the ATS across the same populations in order to further evaluate the reliability of the ATS and to establish if the factor's do replicate that of the ATS-21 more clearly.

5.3.4.5. Convergent validity

Convergent validity is the degree to which there is a strong relationship between measures of the same construct. Within Whitehead's (2009) study

it was found that the ATS (juvenile version; whereby the term "sexual offender" was replaced with "juvenile sexual offender") was positively correlated with the original ATS and high in magnitude (*r*=.846), supporting the hypothesis that the two versions of the ATS would be convergent with each other. Indicating that the measure is a valid tool which can be used to assess attitudes towards a variety of sub-groups of sexual offenders. However further exploration of this is needed.

5.3.4.6. Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity is the degree to which there is no relationship between measures of constructs that should have be unrelated. Whitehead (2009) compared the ATS to the ATP arguing that different results were expected because the two measures are assessing attitudes of two very different offender populations. However the results found a high correlation with each other (*r*=.784) suggesting that the two instruments are in fact similar to each other. However, consideration is given to the fact that the subjects within this study were all post-graduate students and as such may not have had the same experiences with either offending populations before, therefore without discriminant analysis being examined in the same manner but with forensic staff participants, it is difficult to conclude if the two are distinctly different are not.

5.4. Other factors

There is no manual for the ATS and as such, there is no guidance on the comparison and interpretation of the scores, apart from an indication that higher scores mean a more positive attitude towards sexual offenders. Therefore, it could be suggested that this lack of guidance is a limitation of the ATS. Stirland (2016, as cited by Hogue & Harper 2019) completed a review of the ATS and

found that 33% of the studies failed to correctly calculate the scores according to the scoring instructions. Many of these 33% failed to remove the constant figure of 36 from the overall score or did not provide accuracy in the explanation of the reverse scoring. Therefore, it appears that the ATS may be a little ambiguous to researchers and cause some confusion about how to accurately score. The ATS-21 aimed to overcome this limitation and provide a consistent approach to the scoring process by providing a blank SPSS datasheet and scoring syntax for calculating the total ATS-21 score and the three factor scores, in addition to the reliability coefficients of the ATS-21.

5.5. Conclusion

This critique has highlighted areas of merit within the ATS, also with some areas of limitation. The ATS has shown to be a versatile tool and has been applied to different sexual offenders, including adults, juveniles and females and has shown convergent validity between these different populations. The ATS has demonstrated a similar pattern of findings across a number of studies in relation to the participants who have completed this measure. It has been consistently found that that the general public and police officers have more negative attitudes towards sexual offenders, in relation to those professionals who work alongside sexual offenders, who have more positive attitudes. This is indicative of the validity of the ATS, as it has consistently resulted in similar findings. However, it would be useful for further exploration to be undertaken with regards to the potential for social desirability and impression management that may occur within forensic staff populations, depending upon who is undertaking the research. The ATS-21 has demonstrated that social desirability biases does not impact on the scale, which is positive and as this is a shortened version of the original ATS, it

could be assumed that the ATS is as robust in this area. However, best practice would be to ensure the original ATS is not influenced by such biases.

Hogue (1993) has provided some baseline mean ATS scores for some forensic staff populations and these have been similarly replicated in other studies, providing some basic normative data for the ATS. However, it would be beneficial to undertake further studies researching the normative data for the ATS within forensic staff populations with larger sample sizes. The same could be applied to the ATS-21 also.

What has been proven to be a strength of the ATS and the newer ATS-21 is the internal consistency of both tools, a number of studies have shown good to excellent internal consistencies measure with alpha coefficients. This has also been the case where the overall tool has been separated down into factors as the individual factors have continued to demonstrate high levels of internal consistency. Additionally the ATS-21 has shown good internal consistency across all three factors. Due to the nature of the studies which have utilised the ATS, test-retest reliability has not been measured and as such cannot be commented upon. Therefore there is a recommendation that this be undertaken to ensure that the ATS is reliable based upon test-retest measurement. However, the ATS-21 has shown excellent levels of temporal stability when test-retest reliability has been undertaken.

The ATS has shown good predictive validity, particularly in terms of the attitudes of staff populations, particularly when centred around staff training, however it would be useful to assess this further ensuring that confounding variables are accounted for. One study (Johnson et al., 2007) showed some predictive validity of the ATS with regards to concepts such as cognitive empathy

and perspective taking. However, more exploration into this with more up to date research and the examination of different staff groups would be useful.

Notwithstanding the specific psychometric properties, the ATS has a number of strengths and limitations with regards to its application. The tool is easy to administer and can be adapted to both paper based and online formats and it is freely available for all researchers to use. However, it has been found that the scoring of the ATS has not been consistently undertaken across all studies, thus making it difficult to draw firm conclusions across all studies. Therefore, it may be beneficial for a more structured paper or even small manual type document to be produced which could help to reduce the ambiguity of the ATS, such as reverse scoring not happening or the score of 36 being removed. The ATS-21 has overcome these difficulties by providing a freely accessible SPSS datasheet and scoring syntax for ensuring accurate scoring.

What a number of studies have demonstrated is that the 36 items may be too many for what the measure aims to assess and as such items could be removed, as discussed above Hogue and Harper (2019) have responded to this with the development of the ATS-21 shortened version. Overall, this tool does demonstrate some strengths in its application to measuring the attitudes of those working within forensic environments. However, when researchers are considering the use of the ATS, they would be recommended to consider specifically what they are measuring. For example if they are only measuring one construct then the ATS would be useful, however if they want to measure attitudes relating to certain factors then the use of the newer shortened version of the ATS-21 should be considered.

Chapter 6: General Discussion

This thesis broadly examined the attitudes held by professionals towards male and female offenders. The thesis was presented in such a way to allow for a wider exploration initially, followed by a narrower focussed latter part. A comprehensive exploration of the topic of attitudes was undertaken, which investigated the attitudes of professionals towards any type of offending behaviour committed by men and women (Chapter Two). A more specific assessment of clinical staff was then undertaken to explore the impact of staff training on their attitudes towards male and female offenders (Chapter Three). This was then narrowed down during an empirical study to directly assess the impact of implicit theories (ITs) held by professionals working within forensic settings towards their attitudes of male and female sexual offenders (Chapter Four). Finally, a critique of the ATS (Hogue, 1993) and a shortened version, the ATS-21 (Hogue & Harper, 2019) was undertaken to explore the reliability and validity of a widely used psychometric tool in assessing the attitudes towards sexual offenders (Chapter Five). This chapter aims to consider the findings as a whole, and the implications for future research and the impact on clinical practice will be explored.

The systematic review in chapter two explored both male and female offenders and how the gender of an offender influenced the attitudes of professionals. Whilst previous systematic reviews have explored attitudes towards offending, these have primarily focused on one gender, therefore this review allowed the information to be pooled together and for a gender bias in attitudes to be considered. The results of this systematic review found sampling and methodological bias amongst many of the studies, affecting possible conclusions. The exploration of attitudes involved a range of methods, including vignettes, self-prepared questionnaires and psychometric tools across the 17

studies, which makes the synthesis of information difficult. However, where there were biases towards gender, all but one study found that this bias was towards females, with males viewed more negatively than females. However, there were four studies which found no significant differences between the attitudes towards male and female offenders and three of these studies represented participants from large organisations such as the prison service and secure hospitals. This has provided a clearer overview of the existing research on professional attitudes towards male and female offenders. This has opened up the possibility of further qualitative research being conducted to explore the reasons as to why these differences may be present in settings such as these. It would possibly be beneficial to use a qualitative approach in order for themes to be explored in more depth.

The case study in chapter three allowed for the exploration of a direct clinical application of training. This training was examined in terms of the impact that developing an understanding of resilience could have on youth justice professional's attitudes towards male and female offenders. Whilst the training cohort was only small (n=15) and there was a lack of statistical power, this makes it difficult to generalise the findings on a broader spectrum, however it does go some way to continue to add to the field of psychology in terms of training impacts on professionals (Craig, 2005; Hogue, 1994). The results indicated that generally the attitudes towards offenders were more positive following the training session, however only attitudes towards males were significantly more improved. Again, this opens the door for more research to be considered within the field of male and female offenders. Often research will explore increased attitudes towards offenders in general, however less information is known about why male and female offenders evoke differences in attitudes towards them.

Therefore, this thesis has provided some groundwork for this to be explored further through the use of providing training and researching such training.

Chapter four explored attitudes of professionals including nursing staff, psychologists, psychiatrists, and prison staff towards sexual offenders, but with an emphasis on implicit theories (IT's) and how this could impact upon their attitudes. It is suggested that people hold one of two IT's, with the belief that attitudes are fixed (entitists) or changeable (incrementalists). These IT's were explored in terms of both human nature and sexual offenders. The results demonstrated that entitists held more negative views of sexual offenders as assessed by the ATS-21, than incrementalists. This supported the findings of Harper and Bartels (2016) when they assessed student attitudes towards sexual offenders. However, against the proposed hypotheses of the study, no differences were found across the severity of the offence or the impact of the victim. Interestingly and in contradiction to expectations and Harper and Bartels (2016), entitists recommended higher levels of rehabilitation than incrementalists, with no significant differences in terms of the gender of the offender. This goes against the idea that entitists believe that people are unable to change, if this was the case it would be expected that the role of rehabilitation is pointless. Consideration is given to the fact that the majority of the sample were from the secure hospital environment, which by its very nature is designed to be therapeutic and holds a strong rehabilitative culture. Therefore, it is possible the working environment itself enables those working within it to develop a greater understanding for offenders outside of the label of "sexual offender". This is supported further by Kahneman (2011) who suggested that people draw their views from available examples. Within the secure environment, staff spend time with offenders or patients and develop therapeutic relationships with them and

so work beyond just their offence and it is possible that this influenced their attitudes. There is certainly a need for this to be investigated further, with a particular focus on the difference types of secure environments. Whilst studies have explored the difference between prison officer and psychologist attitudes (Higgins & Ireland, 2006), less focus has been given to the incorporation of IT's and also if there is a difference between prisons and secure hospitals.

Chapter five critically evaluated the psychometric properties of the Attitude towards Sexual Offenders (ATS; Hogue, 1993), and the revised ATS-21 (Hogue & Harper, 2019) with both reliability and validity being examined. Both measures demonstrated good validity, with consistent findings across a number of studies. It has also found to be an extremely versatile tool due to it being able to be applied to a range of offence stems. However, the findings did indicate that little is known about the impact of social desirability and impression management of the original ATS. However, the ATS-21 has shown that impression management does not impact the outcome of the scores (Hogue & Harper, 2019). The original ATS would benefit from developing a normative data sample with larger sample sizes, as many of the studies which have utilised the ATS have only had small to medium sample sizes. The internal consistency of this tool is a particular strength, with the majority of studies reporting excellent alpha coefficients.

Revision of this scale has recently taken place and despite it only being relatively new, the ATS-21 is showing positive psychometric properties. The ATS-21 also works on a three factor model, in line with Breckler (1984) allowing for a greater understanding of attitudes to be explored. In addition to this, the ATS-21 provides free access to an SPSS data sheet and scoring syntax in order to reduce scoring errors within research. It would be beneficial for further research to be continued utilising the newer ATS, so that more evidence can be gathered with

regards to the reliability and validity of the ATS-21. However, what Hogue (1993) and Hogue and Harper (2019) have provided to the forensic community are two tools which at present are demonstrating their usefulness within forensic research.

6.1. Theory & practice

Considering the thesis as a whole, it is apparent that the concept of male and female offending is a topic, which has been researched over a number of years; although this has often been with disparity between the two genders or with subject samples being drawn from the general public. However, what this thesis has been able to do is draw together a number of research areas, such as IT's and the use of resilience within the offending field and with the main themes of gender of offender and professional attitudes, and draw some conclusions about how these fit together. What is clear is that there is still disparity between a gender bias and the idea that there is no difference between the two offending groups. Where this has been found, most of the research participants, who have been professionals, have been drawn from large organisations such as secure hospitals or prison establishments as was found in the systematic review. Indeed, within chapter four of this study the majority of participants worked within a large organisation. It is possible that the results of the studies which found no differences between men and women can be explained through the concept of selective exposure (Galdi et al., 2008) which forms part of the APE model (Gawronski & Bodenhausen, 2006). In which, it is suggested that people will selectively expose themselves to information which is consistent with spontaneous affective responses and use this to make a final decision. It is possible that those people working within criminal justice settings choose to do so as they have a belief that they can make a difference and want to help others.

This idea is supported by Blagden et al. (2016) who found that the climate of the specialist prison was conducive to offender rehabilitation in the opinions of staff.

Another consideration of the findings of this thesis is that of context dependence of implicit responses (Gawronski & Bodenhausen, 2006). It is suggested that the same object, within this case a "sexual offender" can illicit different responses depending upon the context, for most participants across this the thesis chapters this is 'the work place' in which it is encountered. Additionally, the findings from this thesis also provide some support for aspects of the social cognitive theory (Gannon, 2009). Namely that as part of the shaping of information processing an individual is required to compare or interpret the stimulus presented with stored representations they already hold. Hence, it is possible that a sexual offender is considered differently for professionals when they have a frame of reference to individuals who they work with. Therefore, within the findings of this thesis, participants may have been able to remove the label of "sexual offender" or "man" or "women" and work on a more individualistic basis, hence why no differences have been found between men and women who commit offences.

Considering the previous research, this thesis has highlighted the need for further research into the types of professional groups and the places in which they work to examine how these influence attitudes across the two genders within an offending population, with the continued exploration of implicit associations. Alongside this, it would be beneficial to have a deeper examination into how attitudes differ across the multi-factorial model. This could be undertaken with the ATS-21 as discussed below.

The results tentatively suggest that where there is a gender bias of opinions held by professionals this is generally towards males being viewed more negatively than females. However, what has been demonstrated through this research is how the application of training can slightly improve views of male offenders. This is something, which could be considered in clinical practice by organisations such as prisons, secure hospitals or probation services. The results included in this thesis about training impacts on professionals goes some way to extending the existing research. The results support other research findings, which have demonstrated that professionals who undertake training develop more positive attitudes towards offenders (Craig, 2005; Hogue, 1994). The development of training, particularly at the induction stage for new staff may also be beneficial to aid them to develop a greater understanding about the field in which they work, including the non-heterogeneous nature of offenders. It is hoped that this would aid the therapeutic alliance of staff and offenders and as such increase the rehabilitation prospects of offenders.

A second factor which organisations may want to consider is the implementation of psychometric tools within interviews for staff, including the exploration of IT's. It is important to consider the impact that IT's can have upon the belief systems that people hold about offenders, which in turn could impact upon how they work alongside patients or prisoners who have offended. It is not anticipated that the results of such assessments would prevent someone from being employable, but what it may enable is the understanding of where additional training may be required. In addition to this, there is an area of research, which could be utilised to examine if the attitudes towards offenders change over time during someone's employment. As has been demonstrated within this thesis the available psychometric tools such as the ATS and the ATS-21

have good psychometric properties, the ATS-21 in particular has shown not to be affected by the demands of social desirability and both can be utilised to assess different stems of offending. The ATS-21 has been developed specifically to use a multi-factorial approach following Breckler's (1984) ABC model, by utilising this measure within organisational settings, this would allow a deeper understanding of the multi-factorial components of attitudes.

6.2. Conclusion

Overall, this thesis has made some headway into developing a wider knowledge base about the differences in attitudes held by professionals towards male and female offenders. This thesis has provided an overview of existing research into professional attitudes towards male and female offenders, finding that whilst there is apparent minimal differences between the views of male and female offenders. Where there is a difference this is usually in terms of male offenders being viewed more negatively in comparison to women. It has also made a start in extending the knowledge of professional attitudes of male and female offenders, specifically within exploring the impact of implicit beliefs. Whilst also further providing some support for the use of training packages amongst professionals in order to improve positive attitudes towards offenders. However, what is now required is further investigation into the causation of these attitudes and a deeper understanding of why such attitudes exist or not amongst various professional groups.

References

* Adams, E. M. (1989). Sex of the victim, offender, and helper: The effects of gender differences on attributions and attitudes in cases of incest. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 50*(1-B), 369-370.

Aguinis, H., Gottfredson, R.-K., & Joo, H. (2013). Best-practice recommendations for defining, identifying, and handling outliers. *Organizational Research Methods, 16*(2), 270–301. https://doi. org/10.1177/1094428112470848

Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1980). *Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behaviour*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Akerstrom, M. (1986). Outcasts in prison: The case of informers and sex offenders. *Deviant Behaviour*, *7*(1), 1-12. https://doi.org/10.1080/01639625.1986.9967691

Allport, G. W. (1954). *The nature of prejudice*. Cambridge, MA: Perseus Books

Allen, C. (1990). Women as perpetrators of child sexual abuse: Recognition barriers*.* In A. Horton, B. Johnson, L. Roundy & D. Williams (Eds.), *The incest perpetrator: A family member no one wants to treat* (pp. 108 - 125). Newbury Park: Sage Publications.

Allen, H. (1987). Rendering the harmless: The professional portrayal of women charged with serious violent crimes. In P. Carlen and A. Worrall (Eds), *Gender, Crime and Justice.* Milton Keynes: Open University Press.

American Psychological Association (1999). *National Council on Measurement in Education. Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing*. Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association.

Anderson, D. G. (2000). Coping strategies and burnout among veteran child protection workers. *Child Abuse and Neglect*, *24*(6), 839 – 48. http://doi.org/10.1016/s0145-2134(00)00143-5

Anderson, C. A., & Huesmann, L. R. (2007). Human aggression: A social cognitive view. In M. A. Hogg & J. Cooper (Eds.), *The sage handbook of social psychology* (pp. 259 - 287). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Andrews, D.A., & Bonta, J. (1998). *The Psychology of Criminal Conduct*, (2nd Eds). Cincinnati, OH: Anderson Publishing.

Andrews, D.A., & Bonta, J. (2003). *The psychology of criminal conduct* (3rd Eds). Cincinnati, OH: Anderson Publishing.

Andrews, D.A., Bonta, J., Hoge, R.D. (1990). Classification for effective rehabilitation: Rediscovering Psychology. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, *17*(1), 19-52. https://doi.org/10.1177/0093854890017001004

Avey, J. B., Wernsing, T. S., & Luthans, F. (2008). Can positive employees help positive organizational change? Impact of psychological capital and emotions on relevant attitudes and behaviors. *The journal of applied behavioral science*, *44*(1), 48-70. https://doi.org/10.1177/0021886307311470

Babcock, J., Miller, S., & Siard, C. (2003). Toward a typology of abusive women: Differences between partner-only and generally violent women in the use of violence. Psychology *of Women Quarterly*, 27(2), 151–161. https://doi.org/10.1111/1471-6402.00095

Bauman, A. E. (2016). *Exploration of factors in established scales regarding attitudes toward sex offenders*. MSU Graduate Theses, 2951. Accessed from https://bearworks.missouristate.edu/theses/2951/

Beckman, M. (2004). Crime, culpability, and the adolescent brain. *Science*, *305*, 596−599. Doi: 10.1126/science.305.5684.596.

Bem, S. (1981). *Bem Sex-Role Inventory: Professional manual*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Blagden, N., Winder, B., & Hames, C. (2016). "They treat us like human beings"—Experiencing a therapeutic sex offenders prison: Impact on prisoners and staff and implications for treatment. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, *60*(4), 371- 396. https://doi.org/10.1177/0306624X14553227.

Blevins, K., Cullen, F. T., Frank, J., Sundt, J. L., & Holmes, S. T. (2006). Stress and satisfaction among juvenile correctional workers: A test of competing models. *Journal of Offender Rehabilitation*, *44*(2-4), 55–79. https://doi.org/10.1300/J076v44n02_03

Boda, Z., & Szabo, G. (2011). The media and attitudes towards crime and the justice system: A qualitative approach. *European or Journal of Criminology*, *8*(4), 329-342. https://doi.org/10.1177/1477370811411455.

Bogle, B.C. (2012). Further assessment of the psychometric properties of the sex offender attitude scale. *Electronic Theses and Dissertations*. Paper 1478. Retrieved from http://dc.etsu.edu/etd/1478

Bolen, R. M. (2001). *Child sexual abuse: Its scope and our failure*. New York: Kluwer Academic.

Bonanno, G. A. (2004). Loss, trauma, and human resilience: have we underestimated the human capacity to thrive after extremely aversive events?. *The American Psychologist, 59*(1), 20–8. http://doi.org/10.1037/0003- 066X.59.1.20

Bordtein, B.H., Kaplan, D.L., & Perry, A.R. (2007). Child abuse in the eyes of the beholder: Lay perceptions of child sexual and physical abuse. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, *31*(4), 375-391. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2006.09.007.

Brown, S. (2009). Attitudes towards sexual offenders and their rehabilitation: A special case? In J. Wood & T. Gannon (Eds.), *Public opinion in criminal justice* (pp. 187–213). Cullompton, UK: Willan Publishing.

Brown, S., Deakin. J. & Spencer, J. (2008). What people think about the management of sex offenders in the community. *The Howard Journal, 47*(3), 259-274.

Bowlby, J. (1969). Attachment and loss: Volume one. New York: Basic Books.

Burnette, J. L., O'Boyle, E. H., VanEpps, E. M., Pollack, J. M., & Finkel, E. J. (2013). Mindsets matter: A meta-analytic review of implicit theories and self-regulation. *Psychological Bulletin*, *139*(3), 655-701. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0029531.

Button, K.S., Ioannidis, J.P.A., Mokrysz, C., Nosek, B.A., Flint, J., Robinson, E.S.J., & Munafò, M.R. (2013). Power failure: Why small sample size undermines the reliability of neuroscience. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience,* 14, 365-376. https://doi.org/10.1038/nrn3475

Castle, T. L., & Martin, J. S. (2006). Occupational hazard: Predictors of stress among jail correctional officers. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, *31*(1), 65– 80. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02885685

Cheek, F. E., & Miller, M. D. (1983). The experience of stress for correction officers: A double-bind theory of correctional stress. *Journal of Criminal Justice, 11*(2), 105–120. https://doi.org/10.1016/0047-2352(83)90046-6

Chu, C. M., Daffern, M., Thomas, S. D., Ang, Y., & Long, M. (2014). Criminal attitudes and psychopathic personality attributes of youth gang offenders in Singapore. *Psychology, Crime & Law*, *20*(3), 284-301. http://doi.org/10.1080/1068316X.2013.772182

Church, W. T., Wakeman, E. E., Miller, S. L., Clements, C. B., & Sun, F. (2008). The community attitudes toward sex offenders scale: The development of a psychometric assessment instrument. *Research on Social Work Practice, 18*(3), 251–259. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049731507310193.

*Clarke, J. A. (1998). *Gender, victim status and attribution: implications for the management of aggression in a high secure hospital.* [U114348 Clin.Psy.D. Unpublished thesis], University of Leicester (United Kingdom), Ann Arbor. Accessed from http://ezproxy.nottingham.ac.uk/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/301521099?accountid=8018

Clarke, J. (2007). Promoting professional resilience. *Contemporary Risk Assessment in Safeguarding Children*, Chapter 9, p164-180. Accessed from http://www.petros.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/2014/11/chapter9.pdf

Cohen S. (2003). *Folk Devils and Moral Panic* (3rd ed). London and New York, Routledge.

Coolican, H. (2004). *Research methods and statistics in psychology* (5th ed.). Great Britain,UK: Hodder Arnold.

Cook, D. A, & Beckman, T. J. (2006). Current concepts in validity and reliability for psychometric instruments: theory and application. *The American journal of medicine*, *119*(2), 166.e7–16. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amjmed.2005.10.036.

Covington, S., & Bloom, B. (2006). Gender responsive treatment and services in correctional settings. *Women & Therapy, 29*(3-4), 9-33. https://doi.org/10.1300/j015v29n03_02.

*Cowie, H. (1999). Counselling psychology in the UK: the interface between practice and research. *The European Journal of Psychotherapy, Counselling and Health, 2*(1), 69-80. https://doi.org/10.1080/13642539908400807

Coxell, A., King, M., Mezey, G., & Gordon, D. (1999). Lifetime prevalence, characteristics, and associated problems of non-consensual sex in men: Cross-sectional survey. *British Medical Journal, 318*(7187), 846-850. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.318.7187.846

Coxell, A., King, M., Mezey, G., & Kell, P. (2000). Sexual molestation of men: Interviews with 224 men attending a genitourinary medicine service. *International Journal of STD and AIDS*, *11*(9), 574-578. https://doi.org/10.1258/0956462001916542.

Galdi, S., Arcuri, L., & Gawronski, B. (2008). Automatic mental associations predict future choices of undecided decision-makers. S*cience*, *321*(5892), 1100-1102. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1160769

Craig, L.A. (2005). The impact of training on attitudes towards sex offenders. *Journal of Sexual Aggression*, *11*(2), 197-207, https://doi.org/10.1080/13552600500172103

Crano, W. D., Cooper, J., & Forgas, J. P. (2010). Attitudes and attitude change: An introductory review. In J. P. Forgas, J. Cooper, & W. D. Crano (Eds.), *The psychology of attitudes and attitude change* (pp. 3-18). New York, NY: Psychology Press.

Cromer, L. D., & Goldsmith, R. E. (2010). Child sexual abuse myths: Attitudes, beliefs, and individual differences. *Journal of Child Sexual Abuse*, *19(6)*, 618-647. https://doi.org/10.1080/10538712.2010.522493

Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika, 16*(3), 297 - 334. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02310555

Crowne, D.P. and Marlowe, D. (1960). A scale of social desirability independent of Psychopathology. *Journal of Consulting Psychology, 24*(4), 349-354. Accessed from https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/9c58/c19b01b04ca7dbf122d59684bf05353cc77b.pdf.

Cullen, F., Link, B., Wolfe, N., & Frank, J. (1985). The social dimensions of correctional officer stress. *Justice Quarterly*, *2*(4), 505–533. https://doi.org/10.1080/07418828500088711

Cutt, M., Flynn, N., Mowl, P., Orme, S., & Davis, T. (2012). *Talent assessment: A new strategy for talent management*. Hampshire, UK: Gower.

Davis, M. H. (1983). Measuring individual differences in empathy: evidence for a multidimensional approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *44*(1), 113-26.

Deaux, K. (1976). Sex: A perspective on the attribution process. In J.H. Harvey, WJ. Ickes, & R.F. Kidd (Eds.) *New Directions in Attribution Research* (vol. 1, pp. 335-352). Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum.

Denov, M. S. (2004). The long-term effects of child sexual abuse by female perpetrators: A qualitative study of male and female victims. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, *19*(10), 1137-1156. https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260504269093

Denov, M, (2001). A culture of denial: Exploring professional perspectives on female sex offending. *Canadian Journal of Criminology, 43*(3), 303-329. Accessed from https://heinonline-org.ezproxy.nottingham.ac.uk/HOL/Page?collection=journals&handle=hein.journals/cjccj43&id=313&men_tab=srchresults.

Department of Health. (2003). Mainstreaming gender and women's mental health: Implementation guidance. London: Department of Health.

de Visser, R., Smith, A. M. A., Rissel, C. E., Richters, J., & Grulich, A. E. (2003). Experiences of sexual coercion among a representative sample of adults. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Public Health, 27*(2), 198-203. https://doi.org/10.1071/SH14103

Devellis, R.F. (1991). *Scale development*. Newbury Park, New Jersey: Sage.

Dodge, M., Bosick, S.J., & Van Antwerp, V. (2013). Do men and women perceive white-collar and street crime differently? Exploring gender differences in the perception of seriousness, motives, and punishment. *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice*, *29*(3) 399–415. https://doi.org/10.1177/1043986213496378

Dowden, C., & Tellier, C. (2004). Predicting work-related stress in correctional officers: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, *32*(1), 31– 47. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcrimjus.2003.10.003.

Downing, S. M. (2003). Validity: on the meaningful interpretation of assessment data. *Medical Education, 37*(9), 830-837. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2923.2003.01594.x

Ducat, L., Thomas, S., & Blood, W. (2009). Sensationalising sex offenders and sexual recidivism: Impact of the serious sex offender monitoring act 2005 on media reportage. *Australian Psychologist, 44*(3), 156-165. DOI: 10.1080/00050060903127499

Dutton, D., Saunders, K., Starzomski, A., & Bartholomew, K. (1994). Intimacy, anger and insecure attachment as precursors of abuse in intimate relationships. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 24*(15), 1367–1386. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.1994.tb01554.x

Dweck, C. S., Chiu, C., & Hong, Y.-Y. (1995a). Implicit theories and their role in judgments and reactions: A world from two perspectives. *Psychological Inquiry*, *6*(4), 267-285. Accessed from http://www.jstor.org/stable/1448940

Eagly, A. H. (1992). Uneven progress: Social psychology and the study of attitudes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *63*(5), 693-710. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.63.5.693

Eagly, A. H., & Chaiken, S. (1993). *The psychology of attitudes*. Fort Worth, TX: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Eisenberg, N. (1987). Attitudes of health professionals to child sexual abuse and incest. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, *11*(1), 109-116. https://doi.org/10.1016/0145-2134(87)90039-1

Engle, M.J., McFalls J.A., & Gallagher, B.J. (2007). Attitudes of members of the association for the Treatment of sexual abusers towards treatment, release, and recidivism of violent sex offenders: An exploratory study. *Journal of Offender Rehabilitation, 44*(4), 17-24. https://doi.org/10.1300/J076v44n04_02.

Epstein, S. (1994). An integration of the cognitive and psychodynamic unconscious. *American Psychologist*, 49(8), 709-724. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066x.49.8.709.

Epstein, S. (2003). Cognitive-experiential self-theory: An integrative theory of personality. In T. Millon, & M. J. Lerner (Eds.). *Handbook of psychology: Personality and social psychology*, (Vol. 5, pp. 93-118). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley.

Eysenck, M. W. (2004). *Psychology: An International Perspective*. Psychology Press Ltd: Hove, Sussex.

Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Lang, A.-G., & Buchner, A. (2007). G*Power 3: A flexible statistical power analysis program for the social, behavioral, and biomedical sciences. *Behavior Research Methods, 39(2)*, 175-191. Accessed from https://search.proquest.com/docview/204305161?pq-origsite=primo&accountid=8018.

Fazio, R. H. (1986). How do attitudes guide behavior? In R. M. Sorrentino & E. T. Higgins (Eds.), *Handbook of motivation and cognition: Foundations of social behavior* (pp. 204-243). New York, NY, US: Guilford Press.

Fedoroff, P. J., & Moran, B. (1997). Myths and misconceptions about sex offenders. *The Canadian Journal of Human Sexuality*, *6(4)*, 263-276. Accessed from https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/db69/f2c96afc0d57a5287555515b3629b724e9f9.pdf

Ferguson, K., & Ireland, C. (2006). Attitudes towards sex offenders and the influence of offence type: a comparison of staff working in a forensic setting and students. *The British Journal of Forensic Practice*, *8*(2), 10- 9. https://doi.org/10.1108/14636646200600009.

Fernandez, F., & Lézé, S. (2011). Finding the moral heart of treatment: Mental health care in a French prison. *Social science and Medicine*, *72*(9):1563-1569. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2011.03.013.

Field, A. (2014). Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics (4th ed.). London, England: Sage.

*Fifield, A. O. (2011). College professors' perceptions of and responses to relational aggression in college students. *Dissertation Abstracts International Section A: Humanities and Social Sciences, 71*(12-A). Accessed from http://hdl.handle.net/10415/2182.

Finkelhor, D., & Russell, D. (1984). Women as perpetrators: Review of the evidence. *Child sexual abuse: New theory and research*, 171-187.

Fiske, S. T., & Taylor, S. E. (1984). *Social cognition*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

*Follingstad, D. R., & DeHart, D. D. (2000). Defining psychological abuse of husbands towards wives: Contexts, behaviours, and typologies. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, *15*(9), 891-920. https://doi.org/10.1177/088626000015009001.

Foote, C.E., & Frank, A.W. (1999). Foucault and Therapy: The Disciplining of Grief , in A.S. Chambon, A. Irving, & L. Epstein (Eds) *Reading Foucault for Social Work*. New York: Columbia.

Frei, A. (2008). Media consideration of sex offenders: How community response shapes a gendered perspective. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, 52(5), 495-498. https://doi.org/10.1177/0306624X08323453

Fuselier, D.A., Durham, R.L., & Wurtele, S.K. (2002). The child sexual abuser: Perceptions of college students and professionals. *Sexual Abuse, 14*(3), 271-80. https://doi.org/10.1177/107906320201400306.

Gaertner, Samuel L, Dovidio, John F, Rust, Mary C, Nier, Jason A, Banker, Brenda S, Ward, Christine M, Mottola, Gary R, & Houlette, Missy. (1999). Reducing Intergroup Bias. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 76(3), 388–402. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.76.3.388

Gakhal, B,K., & Brown, S.J. (2011). A comparison of the general public's, forensic professionals' and student's attitudes towards female sex offenders. *Journal of Sexual Aggression*, *17*(1), 105-116. https://doi.org/10.1080/13552600.2010.540678.

Garcia-O'Hearn, H., & Margolin, G. (2000). Men's attitudes condoning marital aggression: A moderator between family of origin abuse and aggression between family of origin abuse and aggression against female partners. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, 24(2), 159-174. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1005493908363

Garmezy, N. (1986). On measures, methods, and models. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, 25*, 727–729. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0002– 7138(09)60303–4

Garner, B. R., Knight, K., & Simpson, D. D. (2007). Burnout among corrections-based drug treatment staff: Impact of individual and organizational factors. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology, 51*(5), 510 –522. https://doi.org/10.1177/0306624X06298708.

Gibbons, D. C. (1999). Review Essay: Changing Lawbreakers—What Have We Learned Since the 1950s? Crime and Delinquency, 45(2), 272–293. https://doi.org/10.1177/0011128799045002006

Göbbels, S., Ward, T., & Willis, G.M. (2012). An integrative theory of desistance from sex offending. Aggression and Violent Behavior, 17(5), 453–462. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2012.06.003

Goldstein, N., Arnold, D., Weil, J., Mesiarik, C, Peuschold, D., Grisso, T., & Osamn, D. (2003). Comorbid symptom patterns in female juvenile offenders. *International Journal of Law and Psychiatry, 26*(5), 565-582. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0160-2527(03)00087-6.

Gordon, J. A. (1999). Do staff attitudes vary by position? A look at one juvenile correction center. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, *24*(1), 81 -93. https://doi.org/10.1007/bf02887619

Gordon, J. A. (1998). *A qualitative evaluation of the program implementation process at Barrett juvenile correctional center*. Richmond, VA: Virginia Commonwealth University.

Gould, D.D., Watson, S.L., Price, S.R., & Valliant, P.M. (2013). The relationship between burnout and coping in adult and young offender center correctional officers: An exploratory investigation. *Psychological Services*, *10*(1), 37-47. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0029655

Gray, E, (2013). *What Happens to Persistent and Serious Young Offenders When They Grow Up: A Follow-Up Study of the First Recipients of Intensive Supervision and Surveillance*. London. Youth Justice Board.

Greene, J., & Pranis, K. (2006). Growth trends and recent research. In *Hard hit: The growth in the imprisonment of women*, 1977-2004 (pp. 9-30). New York: Women's Prison Association.

Greenwald, A. G. (1982). Is anyone in charge? Personalysis versus the principle of personal unity. In J. Suls (Ed.), *Psychological perspectives on the self* (Vo1. 1, pp. 15 1 - 18 1). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

*Hamel, J. M. S. W., Desmarais, S. L., & Nicholls, T. L. (2007). Perceptions of Motives in Intimate Partner Violence: Expressive Versus Coercive Violence. *Violence and Victims, 22*(5), 563-576. https://doi.org/10.1891/088667007782312113.

Harper, C. A. (2012). In pursuit of the beast: Undergraduate attitudes towards sex offenders and implications for society, rehabilitation, and British psychology education. *Internet Journal of Criminology*. file:///C:/Users/Owner/Downloads/Harper2012-Undergradattitudestowardssexoffenders.pdf

Harper, C.A., & Bartels, R.M. (2016). Implicit theories and offender representativeness in judgements about sexual crime. *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research and Treatment, 30*(3), 276-295. https://doi.org/10.1177/1079063216658019.

Harper, C. A., & Hogue, T. E. (2014). A prototype-willingness model of sexual crime discourse in England and Wales. *The Howard Journal of Criminal Justice*, *53*(5), 511-524. https://doi.org/10.1111/hojo.12095.

Harper, C. A., & Hogue, T. E. (2015a). The emotional representation of sexual crime in the national British press. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, *34*(1), 3-24. https://doi.org/10.1177/0261927X14544474

Harper, C. A, & Hogue, T.E. (2015). Measuring public perceptions of sex offenders: reimagining the Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders (CATSO) scale. Psychology, *Crime & Law, 21*(5), 452–470. https://doi.org/10.1080/1068316X.2014.989170

Harper, C. A, Hogue, T. E, & Bartels, R. M. (2016). Attitudes towards sexual offenders: What do we know, and why are they important? *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 34*, 201–213. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2017.01.011

Harris, A. J., & Socia, K. M. (2014). What's in a name? Evaluating the effects of the "sex offender" label on public beliefs and opinions. *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research and Treatment, 28(7), 660-678*. https://doi.org/10.1177/1079063214564391

Hatton, C., Emerson, E., Rivers, M., Mason, H., Mason, L., Swarbrick, R., Kiernan, C., Reeves, D., & Alborz, A. (1999). Factors associated with staff stress and work satisfaction in services for people with intellectual disability. *Journal of Intellectual Disability Research, 43*(4), 253–267. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2788.1999.00208.x

Heatherton, J., & Beardsall, L. (1998). Decisions and attitudes concerning child sexual abuse: does the gender of the perpetrator make a difference to child protection professionals?. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, *22*(12), 1265-1283. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0145-2134(98) 001010-X

Heide, K. M. (1995). Why kids kill parents : child abuse and adolescent homicide. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Heide, K. M. (1999). *Young killers: The challenge of juvenile homicide*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Heidensohn, F. (1997). Gender and crime. In M. Maguire, R. Morgan, & R. Reiner (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of criminology* (2nd ed.) (pp. 761 – 798). Oxford, England7 Clarendon Press.

Herek, G. M. (1986). On heterosexual masculinity: some psychical consequences of the social construction of gender and sexuality. *American Behavioural Scientist*, *29* (5), 563 – 577. https://doi.org/ 10.1177/000276486029005005.

*Hetherton, J. (1995). *Decisions and attitudes concerning child sexual abuse: does the gender of the perpetrator make a difference to child protection professionals?* (U104557 D.Clin.Psychol.), University of Birmingham (United Kingdom), Ann Arbor. Accessed from http://ezproxy.nottingham.ac.uk/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/1820316079?accountid=8018.

*Higgins, C., & Ireland, C. (2009). Attitudes towards male and female sex offenders: a comparison of forensic staff, prison officers and the general public in Northern Ireland. *The British Journal of Forensic Practice*, *11*(1) 14-19. https://doi.org/10.1108/14636646200900004.

Hogue, T. E. (1993). Attitudes towards prisoners and sexual offenders. In N. K. Clark & G. M. Stephenson (Eds.), *Sexual offenders: Context, assessment and treatment* (pp. 27-32). Leicester: BPS.

Hogue, T. E. (1994). Training multi-disciplinary teams to work with sex offenders: Effects on staff attitudes. *Psychology, Crime & Law*, *1*(3), 227-235. https://doi.org/10.1080/10683169508411958.

Hogue, T. E. (1995). Training multi-disciplinary teams to work with sex offenders: Effects on staff attitudes. *Psychology, Crime & Law*, 1(3), 227-235. https://doi.org/10.1080/10683169508411958.

Hogue, T. E. (2009). Attitudes Toward Sexual Offenders; what impact on clinical practice. International Association of Forensic Mental Health Services Annual Conference (IAFMHS), Edinburgh, Scotland

Hogue, T. E. (2015). *Attitudes to sexual offenders*. Paper presented at the BPS Division of Forensic Psychology Annual Conference. Manchester, UK.

Hogue, T.E. & Harper, C.A. (2019). Development of a 21-item short form of the Attitudes to Sexual Offenders (ATS) scale. *Law and Human Behavior*. ISSN 0147-7307 (Forthcoming) Retrieved from http://irep.ntu.ac.uk/id/eprint/34553/1/12041_Harper.pdf.

Honey, P. & Mumford, A. (1982). *Manual of Learning Styles,* London: P Honey

*Horn, R., & Hollin, C. (1997). Police beliefs about women who offend. *Legal and Criminological Psychology*, *2*(2), 193–204. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8333.1997.tb00343.x

*Hornthal, S. (1976). Critical Study of Judgment in Police Officers. [Kritische untersuchungzum ermessen von polizeibemten]. *POLIZEL, 67*(11), 375-378.

*Howe, A. C., Herzberger, S., & Tennen, H. (1988). The influence of personal history of abuse and gender on clinicians' judgments of child abuse. *Journal of Family Violence, 3*(2), 105-119. https://doi.org/10.1007/bf00994028.

Imhoff, R. (2015). Punitive attitudes against pedophiles or persons with sexual interest in children: Does the label matter? *Archives of Sexual Behavior, 44*(1), 35–44. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10508-014-0439-3.

Ireland, J. L. (2000). "Bullying" among prisoners: A review of research. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, *5*(2), 201-215. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781843925750.

Jack, B. & Clarke, A. (1998). The purpose and use of questionnaires in research. *Professional Nurse, 14*(3), 176–179.

Johnson, H., Hughes, J. G., & Ireland, J. L. (2007). Attitudes towards sex offenders and the role of empathy, locus of control and training: A comparison between a probationer police and general public sample. *Police Journal*, *80*(1), 28 - 54. https://doi.org/10.1350/pojo.2007.80.1.28.

Jung, S., Jamieson, L., Buro, K., & Decesare. (2012). Attitudes and Decisions about Sexual Offenders: A Comparison of Laypersons and Professionals. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology, 22*(3), 225-238. https://doi.org/10.1002/casp.1109.

Kahneman, D. (2011). *Thinking, fast and slow*. London, England: Penguin.

Keinan, G., & Malach-Pines, A. (2007). Stress and burnout among prison personnel: Sources, outcomes, and intervention strategies. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, *34*(3), 380 – 398. https://doi.org/10.1177/0093854806290007.

Kelly, R. J., Wood, J. J., Gonzalez, L. S., MacDonald, V., & Waterman, J. (2002). Effects of mother-son incest and positive perceptions of sexual abuse experiences on the psychosocial adjustment of clinic-referred men. *Child abuse & neglect*, *26*(4), 425 - 441. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0145-2134(02)00317-4.

King, M., Coxell, A., & Mezey, G. (2002). Sexual molestation of males: Associations with psychological disturbance. *British Journal of Psychiatry*, *181*(2), 153-157. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007125000161884.

King, A., & Maruna, S. (2009). Is a conservative just a liberal who has been mugged? Exploring the origins of punitive views. *Punishment & Society*, *11*(2), 147-169. https://doi.org/10.1177/1462474508101490.

*Kite, D., & Tyson, G.A. (2004). The impact of perpetrator gender on male and female police officers'perception of child abuse. *Psychiatry, Psychology & Law*, *11*(2), 308-318. https://doi.org/10.1375/pplt.2004.11.2.308.

Kjelsberg, E., & Loos, L. (2008). Conciliation or condemnation? Prison employees' and young peoples' attitudes towards sexual offenders. *The International Journal of Forensic Mental Health*, *7*(1), 95-103. https://doi.org/10.1080/14999013.2008.9914406.

Kjelsberg, E., Skoglund, T.H., & Rustad, A. (2007). Attitudes towards prisoners, as reported by prison inmates, prison employees and college students. *BMC Public Health*, 7(71), https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-7-71.

Kleban, H., & Jeglic, E. (2012). Dispelling the myths: Can psychoeducation change public attitudes towards sex offenders?. *Journal of sexual aggression*, *18*(2), 179-193. https://doi.org/10.1080/13552600.2011.552795

Kline, P. (2013). *The handbook of psychological testing* (2nd ed.). London, England: Routledge.

*Ko, C., & Koh, C.K. (2007). The influence of abuse situation and respondent background characteristics on Korean nurses' perceptions of child sexual abuse: A fractional factorial design. *International Journal of Nursing Studies, 44*(7), 1165-1176. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2006.05.009.

Koons, B.A., Burrow, J.D., Morash, M., & Bynum, T. (1997). Expert and Offender Perceptions of Program Elements Linked to Successful Outcomes for Incarcerated Women. *Crime & Delinquency*, 43(4), 512-532. https://doi.org/10.1177/0011128797043004007.

Kunda, Z. (1990). The case for motivated reasoning. *Psychological Bulletin, 108*(3), 480–498. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.108.3.480

Lake, E. S. (1995). Offenders' experiences of violence: A comparison of male and female inmates as victims. *Deviant Behavior: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, *16*(3), 269-290. https://doi.org/10.1080/01639625.1995.9968002.

Lea, S., Auburn, T., & Kibblewhite, K. (1999). Working with Sex Offenders: The Perceptions and Experiences of Professionals and Paraprofessionals. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, *34*(1), 103-119. https://doi.org/10.1177/03066.

Lewis, C. (2006). Treating incarcerated women: Gender matters. *Psychiatric Clinics of North America*, *29*(3), 773-789. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psc.2006.04.013

Lewis, D. O., Yeager, C. A., Gidlow, B., & Lewis, M. (2001). Six adoptees who murdered: Neuropsychiatric vulnerabilities and characteristics of biological and adoptive parents. *Journal of the American Academy of Psychiatry and the Law*, *29*(4), 390−397.

Liston, C., McEwen, B. S., & Casey, B. J. (2009). Psychosocial stress reversibly disrupts prefrontal processing and attentional control. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences - PNAS*, *106*(3), 912–917. http://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0807041106

Lloyd, C., King, R., & Chenoweth, L. (2002). Social work, stress and burnout: A review. *Journal of Mental Health*, *11*(3), 255-265. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09638230020023642.

Long, C.G., Anagnostakis, K., Fox, E., Silaule, P., Somers, J., West, R. and Webster, A. (2011). Social climate along the pathway of care in women's secure mental health service: Variation with level of security, patient motivation, therapeutic alliance and level of disturbance. *Criminal Behaviour and Mental Health, 21*(3), 202–214. https://doi.org/10.1002/cbm.791

Lonsway, K. A. & Fitzgerald, L. F. (1995). Attitudinal antecedents of rape myth acceptance: A theoretical and empirical re-examination*. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *68*(4), 704-711. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.68.4.704.

Luthar, S. S. (2003). Resilience and vulnerability: Adaptation in the context of childhood adversities. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/ CB09780511615788

MacCoun, R. (2005). Voice, Control and Belonging: the double edged sword of procedural justice. *Annual Review of Law and Social Science*, *1*(1), 171-201. Accessed from: http://repositories.cdlib.org/csls/fwp/30.

Macintyre, D. (1993) *Major on Crime: 'Condemn more, Understand less'*, The Independent [online]. Accessed from http://www.independent.co.uk/news/major-on-crimecondemn-more-understand-less-1474470.html.

Mann, C. J. (2003) Observational research methods. Research design II: cohort, cross sectional and case-control studies. *Emergency Medicine Journal*, *20*(1), 54-60. http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/emj.20.1.54.

Martin, D.J., Garske, J.P. and Davis, M.K. (2000). Relation of the therapeutic alliance with outcome and other variables. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 68*(3), 438–450. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-006X.68.3.438

Martinson, R. (1974). What Works? Questions and Answers About Prison reform. *The Public Interest*, 35, 22-54. Accessed from: https://search-proquest com.ezproxy.nottingham.ac.uk/docview/1298113963/fulltextPDF/CDDA958CCE7443BEPQ/1?accountid=8018

Maruna, S. (2001). *Making good: How ex-convicts reform and rebuild their lives*. Washington, DC:APA.

Maruna, S. & LeBel, T. (2003). Welcome Home? Examining the "Re-entry Court" Concept from a Strengths-based Perspective. *Western Criminology Review, 4*(2), 91-107. Accessed from: http://www.westerncriminology.org/documents/WCR/v04n2/article_pdfs/marunalebel.pdf

Mayer, A. (1992). *Women sex offenders: Treatment and dynamics*. Holmes Beach: FL.

Maslach, C. (1993). Burnout: A multidimensional perspective. In W. B. Schaufeli, C. Maslach, & T. Marek (Eds.), *Professional burnout: Recent developments in theory and research* (pp. 19 –32). Washington, DC: Taylor & Francis.

Maslach, C., & Schaufeli, W. B. (1993). Historical and conceptual development of burnout. In W. B. Schaufeli, C. Maslach, & T. Marek (Eds.), *Professional burnout: Recent developments in theory and research* (pp. 1–16). Washington, DC: Taylor & Francis.

Masten, A.S. (2001). Ordinary Magic: Resilience Processes in Development. *American Psychologist*, *56*(3), 227–38. https://doi.org/110.1037/0003-066X.56.3.227

Mathews, A., & MacLeod, C. (2005). Cognitive vulnerability to emotional disorders. *Annual Review of Clinical Psychology*,*1*(1),167–95. http://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.clinpsy.1.102803.143916

Mauksch L.B., Dugdale, D.C., Dodson, S., & Epstein, R. (2008). Relationship, communication, and efficiency in the medical encounter: Creating a clinical model from a literature review. *Archives of Internal Medicine, 168*(13), 1387–1395. https://doi.org/10.1001/archinte.168.13.1387

McCartan, K. (2004). Here there be monsters: The public's perception of paedophiles with particular reference to Belfast and Leicester. *Medicine, Science and the Law*, 44(4), 327-342. https://doi.org/10.1258/rsmmsl.44.4.327.

McFadden, P., Campbell, A., & Taylor, B. (2014). Resilience and Burnout in Child Protection Social Work: Individual and Organisational Themes from a Systematic Literature Review. *British Journal of Social Work*, *5*(1), 1-18. https://doi.org/10.1093/bjsw/bct210

McGuire, W. J. (1969). The nature of attitudes and attitude change. In G. Lindzey & E. Aronson (Eds.). *The handbook of social psychology* (2nd ed., Vol. 3, pp. 136-314). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

McGuire, J. (1995). What Works: Reducing reoffending – Guidelines from research and Practice. Chichester, UK: Wiley.

McNeill, F. (2006). A desistance paradigm for offender management. *Criminology & Criminal Justice*, *6*(1), 39-62. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1748895806060666.

McNeill, F., Batchelor, S., Burnett, R., & Knox, J. (2005). *21st century social work. Reducing Reoffending: Key practice skills*. Edinburgh: Scottish Executive.

*Mellor, D., & Deering, R. (2010). Professional response and attitudes toward female-perpetrated child sexual abuse: A study of psychologists, psychiatrists, probationary psychologists and child protection workers. *Psychology, Crime & Law, 16*(5), 415-438. https://doi.org/10.1080/10683160902776850.

Melvin, K. B., Gramling, L. K., & Gardner, W. M. (1985). A scale to measure attitudes towards prisoners. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, *12*(2), 241/253. https://doi.org/10.1177/0093854885012002006

Ministry of Justice (2018). *Criminal Justice Statistics quarterly, England and Wales, 2017*. Accessed from https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/707935/criminal-justice-statistics-quarterly-december-2017.doc.pdf. Last accessed on 03/07/2018.

Moher, D., Liberati, A., Tatzlaff, J. & Altman, D.G. (2009). Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses: The Prisma Statement. *Annals of Internal Medicine*, *151*(4), 264-269. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.b2535.

Moos, R., Shelton, R. and Petty, C. (1973). Perceived ward climate and treatment outcome. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 82*(2), 291-8. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0035184

Morison, S., & Greene, E. (1992). Juror and expert knowledge of child sexual abuse. *Child Abuse and Neglect*, *16*(4), 595-613. https://doi.org/10.1016/0145-2134(92)900075-3.

Naffine, N. (1787). *Female Crime: Thee Construction of Women in Criminology*. Sydney: Allen & Unwin.

Nelson, M., Herlihy, B., & Oescher, J. (2002). A survey of counselor attitudes towards sex offenders. *Journal of Mental Health Counseling*, *24*(1), 51-67. Accessed from http://www.biomedsearch.com/article/survey-counsellor-attitudes-towards-sex/83032627.html

Nunnally, J. C. (1978) *Psychometric theory*. 3rd ed,. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill, Inc.

Olsson, C. A., Bond, L., Burns, J. M., Vella-Brodrick, D. A., & Sawyer, S. M. (2003). Adolescent resilience: A concept analysis. *Journal of Adolescence, 26*(1), 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-1971(02)00118-5

Orcutt, H., Garcia, M., & Pickett, S. (2005). Female-perpetrated intimate partner violence and romantic attachment style in a college student sample. *Violence and Victims*, *20*(3), 287–302. https://doi.org/10.1891/vivi.20.3.287

*Orthwein, J., Packman, W., Jackson, R., & Bongar, B. (2010). Filicide: Gender bias in California defense attorneys' perception of motive and defense strategies. *Psychiatry, Psychology and Law, 17*(4), 523-537. https://doi.org/10.1080/13218710903566987.

Pallant, J. (2001). *SPSS survival manual.* Buckingham, UK: Open University Press.

Parsons S, Kruijt A-W, Fox E. A. (2016). Cognitive Model of Psychological Resilience. *Journal of Experimental Psychopathology*, *7*(3) 296-310. https://doi.org/10.5127/jep.053415

Paton, D. (2006) Critical Incident Stress Risk in Police Officers: Managing Resilience and Vulnerability. *Traumatolgy*, *12*(3), 198–206. https://doi.org/10.1177/1534765606296532.

Paton, D., & Violanti, J. M. (Eds.). (1996). *Traumatic stress in critical occupations: Recognition, consequences and treatment.* Springfield, IL, England: Charles C Thomas, Publisher.

Paulhus, D. L. (1998). *Manual for the Paulhus Deception Scales: BIDR Version 7.* Toronto, Ontario, Canada: Multi-Health Systems.

Pereyra, M., Moreno, E., & an Offense, A. T. (2000). Attitude Toward Offenders Scale (ATOS). Assessment, validation and research. I*nternational journal of psychology*, *35*(3-4), 435-435. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4757-6238-9_46.

Peter, T. *(2009). Exploring Taboos Comparing Male-and Female-Perpetrated Child Sexual Abuse. Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 24(7), 1111-1128.* https://doi.org/10.1177/088626050832219.

Phillips, J., Westaby, C., & Fowler, A. (2016). It's relentless: The impact of working primarily with high risk offenders. *Probation Journal*, *63*(2), 182-192. https://doi.org/10.1177/0264550516648399.

Pincus, J. H. (2001). *Base instincts: What makes killers kill?* New York: Norton.

Polit, D.F., & Beck, C.T. (2012). Nursing Research: Generating and Assessing Evidence for Nursing Practice, 9th ed. Philadelphia, USA: Wolters Klower Health, Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.

Poon, C. S. K., & Koehler, D. J. (2006). Lay personality knowledge and dispositionist thinking: A knowledge-activation framework. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 42*(2),177–191. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2005.04.001

Portney, L.G., Watkins, M.P. (2000). *Foundations of clinical research: applications to practice*. Prentice Hall; New Jersey.

Pozzulo, J. D., Dempsey, J., Maeder, E., & Allen, L. (2010). The effects of victim gender, defendant gender, and defendant age on juror decision making. *Criminal Justice And Behavior*, *37*(1), 47-63. https://doi.org/10.1177/0093854809344173.

Proeve, M.J., & Howells, K. (2006). Effects of remorse and shame and criminal justice experience on judgements about a sex offender. *Psychology, Crime & Law*, *12*(2), 145-161. https://doi.org/10.1080/10683160512331316271

Radley, L., (2001). Attitudes towards sex offenders. *Forensic Update*, *66*, 5–9.

Reiner, R. (1985). A watershed in policing. *The Political Quarterly*, *56*(2), 122-131. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-923X.1985.tb02344.x

Reynolds, W. M. (1982). Development of reliable and valid short forms of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. *Journal of clinical psychology*, *38*(1), 119-125. https://doi.org/10.1002/1097-4679(198201)38:1<119::AID-JCLP2270380118>3.0.CO;2-I

Ricciardelli, R., Moir, M. (2013). Stigmatized among the stigmatized: Sex offenders in Canadian penitentiaries. *Canadian Journal of Criminology and Criminal Justice*, *55*(3), 353-386. https://doi.org/10.3138/cjccj.2012.E22.

Roberts, Julian V., Loretta Stalans, David Indermaur and Michael Hough (2002). *Penal populism and public opinion: Lessons from five countries*. Oxford & New York: Oxford University Press.

Robertson, I.T., Cooper, C.L., Sarkar, M., & Curren, M. (2015). Resilience training in the workplace from 2003 to 2014: A systematic review. *Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *88*(3), 533-562. https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12120.

Rowe, D. C., Vazsonyi, A. T., & Flannery, D. J. (1995). Sex differences in crime: Do means and within-sex variation have similar causes?. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, *32*(1), 84 – 100. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022427895032001004.

Rutter, M. (2006). Implications of resilience concepts for scientific understanding. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, *1094*(1), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1196/annals.1376.002.

Ryan, M. (2004). Red tops, populists and the irresistible rise of the public voice(s). *Journal for Crime,* Conflict and the Media, 1(3): 1–14. Accessed from http://site.iugaza.edu.ps/tissa/files/2010/02/Red_Tops,_Populists_and_the_Irresistible_Rise_of_the_Public_Voice(s).pdf

Safran, J.D. and Muran, J.C. (2000). *Negotiating the therapeutic alliance: A relational treatment guide*. The Guilford Press, New York, NY.

Sanghara, K. K., & Wilson, J. (2006). Stereotypes and attitudes about child sexual abusers: A comparison of experienced and inexperienced professionals in sex offender treatment. *Legal and Criminological Psychology*, *11*(2), 229-244. https://doi.org/10.1348/135532505X68818.

Schraer, R. (2015). Social workers too stressed to do their job according to survey. *Community Care, 7*. Accessed from http://www.communitycare.co.uk/2015/01/07/stress-stoppingjob-social-workers-say. Last accessed on 08/07/2018.

Schalast, N., Redies, M., Collins, M., Stacey, J., & Howells, K. (2008). EssenCES: A short questionnaire for assessing the social climate of forensic psychiatric wards. *Criminal Behaviour and Mental Health*, *18(1)*, 49-58. https://doi.org/10.1002/cbm.677.

Shumaker, D. M., & Prinz, R. J. (2000). Children who murder: A review. *Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review*, *3*(2), 97−115. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1009560602970

Schwaebe, C. (2005). Learning to pass: Sex offenders' strategies for establishing a viable identity in the prison general population. *Interpersonal Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, *49*(6), 614-624. https://doi.org/10.1177/0306624X05275829

Schwager, S., & Rothermund, Klaus. (2013) The Automatic Basis of Resilience: Adaptive Regulation of Affect and Cognition. In Kent, M., Davis, M., & Reich, J. The Resilience Handbook: Approaches to Stress and Trauma (pp. 55-72). New York, NY: Routledge.

Shackley, M., Weiner, C., Day, A., & Willis, G. W. (2014). Assessment of public attitudes towards sex offenders in an Australian population. *Psychology, Crime & Law*, *20*(6), 553-572. https://doi.org/10.1080/1068316X.2013.793772

Shepel, L. M. (2009). Potential triple jeopardy: A descriptive cross-sectional study of the impact of vicarious traumatisation and secondary traumatic stress on Aboriginal child welfare social workers. *Dissertation Abstracts International, A: The Humanities and Social Sciences*, *69*(11), 4508.

Silverman J. and Wilson D. (2002) *Innocence Betrayed: Paedophilia, the Media and Society*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Sivan, A., Leung, R.W., Woon, C.C. & Kember, D. (2010). An Implementation of Active Learning and its effect on the Quality of Student Learning. *Innovations in Education & Training International, 37(4*), 381-389. https://doi.org/10.1080/135580000750052991.

Skitka, L. J., Mullen, E., Griffin, T., Hutchinson, S., & Chamberlin, B. (2002). Dispositions, scripts, or motivated cognition? Understanding ideological differences in explanations for social problems. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *83*(2), 470-487. https://doi.org/10.1037//0022- 3514.83.2.470.

Snyder, H., & Sickmund, M. (2006). *Juvenile Offenders and Victims: National Report*. Chapter 3: Juvenile Offenders. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Spencer, D. (2009). Sex offender as homo sacer. *Punishment & Society*, *11*(2), 219-240. https://doi.org/10.1177/1462474508101493

Street, R.L.J., Gordon, H., & Haidet, P. (2007). Physicians' communication and perceptions of patients: is it how they look, how they talk, or is it just the doctor? *Social Science & Medicine, 65*(3), 586–598. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2007.03.036

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (1996). Using Multivariate Statistics (3rd ed.). New York: Harper Collins.

Tacconelli, E. (2010). Systematic reviews: CRD's guidance for undertaking reviews in health care. *The Lancet Infectious Diseases*, *10*(4), 226. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099(10)70065-7

Taylor, J. L., Keddie, T. & Lee, S. (2003). Working with sex offenders with intellectual disability: Evaluation of an introductory workshop for direct care staff. *Journal of Intellectual Disability Research*, *47(*3), 203-209. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2788.2003.00471.x

Tennfjord, O.S. (2006) Prediction of attitudes towards child sexual abuse among three different Norwegian samples. *Journal of Sexual Aggression*, 12(3), 245- 263. https://doi.org/10.1080/13552600601090196.

Tinsely, H. E. A., & Brown, S. D. (2001). Handbook of applied multivariate statistics and mathematical modeling. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Tjaden, P., & Thoennes, N. (2006). Extent, nature, and consequences of rape victimization: Findings from the National Violence Against Women Survey (Vol. NCJ 210346). Washington, DC: U.S. *Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs*. Accessed from https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/210346.pdf.

Tsai, W.C., & Tai, W.T. (2003). Perceived importance as a mediator of the relationship between training assignment and training motivation, *Personnel Review*, *32*(2), 151-63. https://doi.org/10.1108/00483480310460199

Turoff, A. G. (2001). Throwing away the key on society's youngest sex offenders. *The Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology, 91*(4), 1127-1152. https://doi.org/10.2307/1144158

Turton, D.J. (2010). Female sexual abusers: Assessing the risk. *International Journal of Law, Crime and Justice*, 38(4), 279-293. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijlcj.2010.11.001

Tversky, A., & Kahneman, D. (1974). Judgement under uncertainty: Heuristics and biases. *Science*, *185*, 1124-1131. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.185.4157.1124

Tyler, T.R. (2003). Procedural justice, legitimacy, and the effective rule of law. In: M. Tonry (Eds.) *Crime and justice--A review of research*, Volume 30: 431-505. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Tyler, T.R. & Huo, Y.J. (2002) *Trust in the law: Encouraging public cooperation with the police and courts*. New York: Russell-Sage Foundation.

van der Helm, G. H.P., Stamms, G. J. J. M., & van der Laan, P. H. (2011). Measuring group climate in a forensic setting. *The Prison Journal, 91*(2), 158-177. https://doi.org/10.1177/0032885511403595

Velicer, W. F., Huckel, L. H., & Hansen, C. E. (1989). A measurement model for measuring attitudes toward violence. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 15(3), 349-364. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167289153006.

Velpry,L., & Eyraud, B. (2014). Confinement and psychiatric care: A comparison between high-security units for prisoners and for difficult patients in france. *Culture, Medicine and Psychiatry, 38*(4), 550–577. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11013-014-9400-0

Vogue, T.K., & Wanke, M. (2016). *Attitudes and attitude change*, 2nd Edition. New York, Routledge.

Wald, J., Taylor, S., & Asmundson, G.J.G. (2006). Literature review of concepts: psychological resiliency. Toronto (ON): Defence R&D Canada.

Ward, T., Day, A., Howells, K., & Birgden, A. (2004). The multifactor offender readiness model. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 9(6), 645-673. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2003.08.001.

Warner, K., & Davis, J. (2012). Using Jurors to Explore Public Attitudes to Sentencing. *The British Journal of Criminology, 52*(1), 93-112. https://doi.org/10.1093/bjc/azr066

Warren, J. I., Hurt, S., Loper, A. B., Bale, R., Friend, R., & Chauhan, P. (2002). Psychiatric symptoms, history of victimization, and violent behavior among incarcerated female felons: An American perspective. *International Journal of Law and Psychiatry*, 25(2), 129-149. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0160-2527(01)00104-2

White, W.L., Gasperin, D., Nystrom, J., Ambrose, C.T. & Esarey, C.N. (2005). The other side of burnout: Exemplary performance and health among probation officers. *Perspectives: The Journal of the American Probation and Parole Association*, *29*(2), 26- 31. Accessed from http://www.t.williamwhitepapers.com/pr/2005TheOtherSideofBurnout.pdf. Last accessed 25/06/2018.

Whitehead, C. (2009). Validating the Attitudes toward Sex Offenders Scale. *Dissertations*. Retrieved from http://scholarworks.wmich.edu/dissertations/728.

Widom, C. S. (1997). Child abuse, neglect, and witnessing violence. In D. M. Stoff, J. Breiling, & J. D. Maser (Eds.), *Handbook of antisocial behavior*. New York: Wiley.

Wilcyzenski, A. (1991a). *Images of parents who kill their children.* Paper presented at the British Criminology Conference. University of York, 24-27 July.

Wilcyzenski, A. (1991b). Images of women who kill their infants: the mad and the bad. *Women & Criminal Justice, 2*(2), 71-88. https://doi.org/10.1300/J012v02n02_05.

Wilcox, R. R. (2012). Modern statistics for the social and behavioral sciences: A practical introduction. New York: Chapman & Hall/CRC Press.

*Willits, D., Broidy, L., Lyons, C., & Gonzales, A. (2011). *Criminal Justice Professionals' Attitudes Towards Offenders: Assessing the Link between Global Orientations and Specific Attributions*. Accessed from http://www.jrsa.org/pubs/sac-digest/documents/NM_DentalTreatmentReentryProgramOutcomes.pdf.

Willis, G. M., Malinen, S., & Johnston, L. (2013). Demographic differences in public attitudes towards sex offenders. *Psychiatry, Psychology and Law, 20*(2), 230-247. https://doi.org/10.1080/13218719.2012.658206

Wnuk, D., Chapman, J. E., & Jeglic, E. L. (2006). Development and Refinement of a Measure of Attitudes Toward Sex Offender Treatment. Journal of Offender Rehabilitation, 43(3), 35-47. https://doi.org/10.1300/J076v43n03̲03

Worrall, A. (1990). *Offending Women*. London: Routledge.

Yates, T.M., Tyrell, F., & Masten, A.S. (2014). Resilience theory and the practice of positive psychology from individual to societies. *Public Policy and Systems for Resilience and Social Planning,* 44, 773 -788. Accessed from http://adlab.ucr.edu/wp-content/uploads/2014/12/Yates-et-al.-2014-Resilience.pdf.

*Young, A. (2009). Mental health professionals attitudes toward abusing partners: The relationship to gender of victim, type of abuse, and counselor self-efficacy. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering, 70*(3-B)

Youth Justice Board for England and Wales (2018). *Youth Justice annual statistics: 2016 to 2017*. Accessed from https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/676072/youth_justice_statistics_2016-17.pdf.

Appendices

Appendix 1: Search syntax used for each database

Embase

	Searches	Results
1	"professional personnel".mp.	177
2	professional.mp.	309340
3	exp staff/ or staff.mp.	255996
4	1 or 2 or 3	538376
5	attitude*.mp. or exp attitude/	755313
6	opinion*.mp.	128262
7	exp perception/ or perception*.mp.	494905
8	judgement*.mp.	18566
9	5 or 6 or 7 or 8	1292458
10	4 and 9	125334
11	exp offender/ or offen*.mp.	35944
12	exp crime/	74373
13	crim*.mp.	68888
14	prisoner*.mp. or exp prisoner/	16996
15	exp criminal behavior/ or "criminal behavio*r".mp.	7877
16	perpetrator*.mp.	6470
17	11 or 12 or 13 or 14 or 15 or 16	138731
18	10 and 17	2164
19	exp sex role/ or "sex role*".mp.	5127
20	gender.mp. or exp gender/	502255
21	exp male/ or male*.mp.	7984352
22	exp female/ or female*.mp.	8066296
23	"gender identity".mp. or exp gender identity/	16531
24	wom*n.mp.	1396266
25	m*n.mp.	10051069

26	19 or 20 or 21 or 22 or 23 or 24 or 25	16093187
27	18 and 26	1153

Medline

	Searches	Results
1	"professional personnel".mp.	177
2	professional.mp.	309340
3	staff.mp.	255996
4	1 or 2 or 3	538376
5	exp Attitude/ or attitude*.mp.	755313
6	opinion*.mp.	128262
7	perception*.mp. or exp Perception/	494905
8	judgement*.mp. or exp Judgment/	340000
9	5 or 6 or 7 or 8	1539614
10	4 and 9	143859
11	offen*.mp.	35944
12	crim*.mp.	68888
13	prisoner*.mp. or exp Prisoners/	16996
14	exp Criminals/ or exp Crime/	81430
15	"criminal behavio*r".mp.	7877
16	perpetrator*.mp.	6470
17	11 or 12 or 13 or 14 or 15 or 16	138731
18	10 and 17	2536
19	"sex role*".mp.	5127
20	gender.mp.	499360
21	male*.mp.	7977760
22	female*.mp.	8027664
23	"gender identity".mp. or Gender Identity/	16239
24	exp Women/ or wom*n.mp.	8015142
25	m*n.mp.	10051069
26	19 or 20 or 21 or 22 or 23 or 24 or 25	16091096
27	18 and 26	1741

Psychinfo

	Searches	Results
1	"professional personnel".mp. or exp Professional Personnel/	177
2	professional.mp.	309340
3	staff.mp.	255996
4	1 or 2 or 3	538376
5	attitude*.mp.	457455
6	exp ATTITUDES/	0
7	perception*.mp. or exp PERCEPTION/	494905
8	exp Judgment/ or judgement*.mp.	340000
9	opinion*.mp.	128262
10	5 or 6 or 7 or 8 or 9	1274890
11	4 and 10	128814
12	offen*.mp.	35944
13	crim*.mp.	68888
14	exp Prisoners/ or prisoner*.mp.	16996
15	exp Criminal Behavior/ or "criminal behavio*r".mp.	7877
16	exp Crime/ or exp Criminals/	81430
17	exp PERPETRATORS/ or perpetrator*.mp.	6470
18	12 or 13 or 14 or 15 or 16 or 17	138731
19	11 and 18	2255
20	exp Sex Roles/ or "sex role*".mp.	5127
21	gender.mp.	499360
22	male*.mp.	7977760
23	female*.mp.	8027664
24	"gender identity".mp. or exp Gender Identity/	16531
25	wom*n.mp. [mp=title, abstract, heading word, drug trade name, original title, device manufacturer, drug manufacturer, device trade name, keyword, floating subheading word, candidate term word]	1396266
26	m*n.mp.	10051069
27	m*n.mp.	10051069
28	20 or 21 or 22 or 23 or 24 or 25 or 26 or 27	16077580
29	19 and 28	2034

ASSIA

Set	Search	Results
S44	(("professional personnel" OR su.Exact("professionals") OR professional OR su.Exact("staff") OR staff) AND (su.Exact("attitudes") OR attitude* OR su.Exact("opinion" OR "opinions") OR opinion* OR su.Exact("perceptions" OR "perception") OR perception* OR su.Exact("judgement") OR judgement*)) AND (su.Exact("offending" OR "offences" OR "offenses" OR "offenders") OR offen* OR su.Exact("criminals" OR "crime") OR crim* OR su.Exact("prisoners") OR prisoner* OR su.Exact("criminal behaviour") OR "criminal behavio*r" OR su.Exact("perpetrators") OR perpetrator*)) AND (su.Exact("sex roles") OR "sex role*" OR su.Exact("gender") OR gender OR su.Exact("males") OR male* OR su.Exact("females") OR female* OR su.Exact("gender identity") OR "gender identity" OR su.Exact("women") OR wom*n OR su.Exact("men") OR m*n)	170°
S43	su.Exact("sex roles") OR "sex role*" OR su.Exact("gender") OR gender OR su.Exact("males") OR male* OR su.Exact("females") OR female* OR su.Exact("gender identity") OR "gender identity" OR su.Exact("women") OR wom*n OR su.Exact("men") OR m*n	203,503°
S42	m*n	129,089°
S41	su.Exact("men")	9,184°
S40	wom*n	66,836°
S39	su.Exact("women")	24,209°
S38	"gender identity"	911°
S37	su.Exact("gender identity")	620°
S36	female*	30,676°
S35	su.Exact("females")	1,377°
S34	male*	29,630°
S33	su.Exact("males")	481°
S32	gender	40,927°
S31	su.Exact("gender")	6,827°
S30	"sex role*"	3,017°
S29	su.Exact("sex roles")	267°
S28	(("professional personnel" OR su.Exact("professionals") OR professional OR su.Exact("staff") OR staff) AND (su.Exact("attitudes") OR attitude* OR su.Exact("opinion" OR "opinions") OR opinion* OR	489°

Set	Search	Results
	su.Exact("perceptions" OR "perception") OR perception* OR su.Exact("judgement") OR judgement*)) AND (su.Exact("offending" OR "offences" OR "offenses" OR "offenders") OR offen* OR su.Exact("criminals" OR "crime") OR crim* OR su.Exact("prisoners") OR prisoner* OR su.Exact("criminal behaviour") OR "criminal behavio*r" OR su.Exact("perpetrators") OR perpetrator*)	
S27	su.Exact("offending" OR "offences" OR "offenses" OR "offenders") OR offen* OR su.Exact("criminals" OR "crime") OR crim* OR su.Exact("prisoners") OR prisoner* OR su.Exact("criminal behaviour") OR "criminal behavio*r" OR su.Exact("perpetrators") OR perpetrator*	33,423°
S26	perpetrator*	2,108°
S25	su.Exact("perpetrators")	711°
S24	"criminal behavio*r"	1,541°
S23	su.Exact("criminal behaviour")	549°
S22	prisoner*	4,662°
S21	su.Exact("prisoners")	3,464°
S20	crim*	22,676°
S19	su.Exact("criminals" OR "crime")	2,634°
S18	offen*	14,827°
S17	su.Exact("offending" OR "offences" OR "offenses" OR "offenders")	4,902°
S16	("professional personnel" OR su.Exact("professionals") OR professional OR su.Exact("staff") OR staff) AND (su.Exact("attitudes") OR attitude* OR su.Exact("opinion" OR "opinions") OR opinion* OR su.Exact("perceptions" OR "perception") OR perception* OR su.Exact("judgement") OR judgement*)	12,426°
S15	su.Exact("attitudes") OR attitude* OR su.Exact("opinion" OR "opinions") OR opinion* OR su.Exact("perceptions" OR "perception") OR perception* OR su.Exact("judgement") OR judgement*	78,732°
S14	judgement*	2,162°
S13	su.Exact("judgement")	1,972°
S12	perception*	39,677°
S11	su.Exact("perceptions" OR "perception")	13,358°

Set	Search	Results
S10	opinion*	7,328°
S9	su.Exact("opinion" OR "opinions")	267°
S8	attitude*	35,885°
S7	su.Exact("attitudes")	17,722°
S6	"professional personnel" OR su.Exact("professionals") OR professional OR su.Exact("staff") OR staff	67,690°
S5	staff	21,547°
S4	su.Exact("staff")	850°
S3	professional	50,614°
S2	su.Exact("professionals")	150°
S1	"professional personnel"	5°

NCJRS

Set	Search	Results
S34	((("professional personnel" OR professional OR staff) AND (su.Exact("attitudes (03657)") OR attitude* OR opinion* OR su.Exact("perception (04012)") OR perception* OR judgement*)) AND (su.Exact("offenses (04600)" OR "offenders (00715)") OR offen* OR su.Exact("crime (60110)") OR crim* OR prisoner* OR su.Exact("criminal behavior (60115)") OR "criminal behavio*r" OR perpetrator*)) AND ("sex role*" OR "sex role*" OR su.Exact("gender (89017)") OR gender OR male* OR su.Exact("females (04215)") OR female* OR "gender identity" OR wom*n OR m*n)	1,902°
S33	"sex role*" OR "sex role*" OR su.Exact("gender (89017)") OR gender OR male* OR su.Exact("females (04215)") OR female* OR "gender identity" OR wom*n OR m*n	65,685°
S32	m*n	38,628°
S31	wom*n	17,391°
S30	"gender identity"	62°
S29	female*	19,042°
S28	su.Exact("females (04215)")	982°
S27	male*	19,163°
S26	gender	7,552°
S25	su.Exact("gender (89017)")	279°
S24	"sex role*"	822°
S23	"sex role*"	822°
S22	(("professional personnel" OR professional OR staff) AND (su.Exact("attitudes (03657)") OR attitude* OR opinion* OR su.Exact("perception (04012)") OR perception* OR judgement*)) AND (su.Exact("offenses (04600)" OR "offenders (00715)") OR offen* OR su.Exact("crime (60110)") OR crim* OR prisoner* OR su.Exact("criminal behavior (60115)") OR "criminal behavio*r" OR perpetrator*)	5,754°
S21	su.Exact("offenses (04600)" OR "offenders (00715)") OR offen* OR su.Exact("crime (60110)") OR crim* OR prisoner* OR su.Exact("criminal behavior (60115)") OR "criminal behavio*r" OR perpetrator*	224,876°
S20	perpetrator*	3,980°
S19	"criminal behavio*r"	4,178°
S18	su.Exact("criminal behavior (60115)")	18°

Set	Search	Results
S17	prisoner*	9,770°
S16	crim*	224,876°
S15	su.Exact("crime (60110)")	24°
S14	offen*	73,553°
S13	su.Exact("offenses (04600)" OR "offenders (00715)")	1,196°
S12	("professional personnel" OR professional OR staff) AND (su.Exact("attitudes (03657)") OR attitude* OR opinion* OR su.Exact("perception (04012)") OR perception* OR judgement*)	5,754°
S11	su.Exact("attitudes (03657)") OR attitude* OR opinion* OR su.Exact("perception (04012)") OR perception* OR judgement*	34,029°
S10	judgement*	374°
S9	perception*	9,896°
S8	su.Exact("perception (04012)")	790°
S7	opinion*	5,843°
S6	attitude*	24,522°
S5	su.Exact("attitudes (03657)")	1,073°
S4	"professional personnel" OR professional OR staff	31,458°
S3	staff	18,227°
S2	professional	15,517°
S1	"professional personnel"	45°

EtHOS/E-thesis Birmingham/E-thesis Nottingham/Campbell Collaboration/Google/Google Scholar/Yahoo

("sex role*" OR "sex difference*" OR Gender OR male* OR female* OR "gender identity") AND (attitude* OR "public opinion*" OR perception* OR "social perception*" OR "adult attitude*" OR judgement* OR "attitude of health personnel") AND (offen* OR crim* OR prisoner* OR "criminal behaviour*" OR perpetrator*)

Appendix 2: Data Extraction Form

General information

Date of data extraction:	
Author(s):	
Article title:	
Source (e.g. journal, conference), year, pages, country of origin:	
Identification of the review:	
Notes:	

Study Characteristics

Study Design	
Geographic location of the study	
Type of measure	
Specific tool used (E.g ATP) , If so were these validated?	
Focus of measure (E.g, Severity of crime, view of offence and/or offenders, views of punishment)	
Type of offending measured	
Setting (E.g, interview room, secure establishment, community)	
Inclusion Criteria	

Exclusion Criteria	
Blinding used	
Notes:	

Participant characteristics

Population (describe and include numbers)	
Comparison group (if yes – define)	
Recruitment procedures (participation rates if available)	
Characteristics of participants (numbers and means)	
Age	
Gender	
Sexuality	
Ethnicity	
Profession	
Other information	
proportion of participants did not agree to participate	
rate of drop-outs	
reasons for drop-out	
Notes:	

Outcome/Result Characteristics

Outcome measured	
Who carried out the measurement	
If there was a) an assessor and b) a comparison group, was the assessor blind to the group status?	
Statistics used	
Do the statistics account for confounding variables if so how?	
How was any missing data dealt with	
Internal reliability of measured used	
Attitude towards male offenders	
Attitude towards female offenders	
Any differences between male and female offenders (if so provide detail)	
Any differences between professional groups (if used)	

towards offenders	
Main conclusion of the study	
Notes:	

Appendix 3: Quality Assessment Form

AUTHOR:

TITLE:

YEAR:

A) Title and Abstract

Q1) Is the study's design indicated with a commonly used term in the title or the abstract?

Yes (item adequately addressed)
No (item not adequately addressed)
Partially (item is partially addressed)
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Q2) Does the abstract provide an informative and balanced summary of what was done and what was found

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Rate this section: **Strong** **Moderate** **Weak**

B) Introduction

Q1) Does the background/rationale adequately explain the purpose of the research?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Q2) Are specific objectives, including any prespecified hypotheses outlined?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Rate this section: **Strong** **Moderate** **Weak**

C) Methods

Study design:

Q1) Was the research design appropriate to address the aims of the research?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Q2) Indicate the study design:

1. Randomised controlled trial
2. Controlled clinical trial
3. Cohort analytic (one group pre + post)
4. Case-control
5. Cohort (one group pre + post)
6. Interrupted time series
7. Other specify _____Cross sectional_____
8. No information

Q4) Was the study described as randomised? If NO, go to question 7.

Yes
No

Q5) If Yes, was the method of randomisation described?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear

Q6) If Yes, was the method appropriate

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear

Study Setting:

Q7) Are descriptions of the setting, locations, and relevant dates provided? (Including periods of recruitment, exposure – if relevant, follow-up – if relevant, and data collection)

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Participants:

Q8) Was the recruitment strategy appropriate to the aims of the research?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Q5) Was eligibility criteria, recruitment and selection process clearly stated?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Q6) Were the participants representative of the defined population?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Q7) What percentage of selected individuals agreed to participate?

80-100% agreement
60-79% agreement

Less than 60% agreement
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Q8) Were withdrawals and drop-out numbers reported?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Q9) Were reasons given for non participation/attrition?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Variables:

Q7) Were interventions, outcomes and potential confounders clearly defined?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Data Collection:

Q8) Were the tools shown to be valid?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Q9) Was the administration consistent? (Including carried out in same environment, with the same assessor and assessor trained to use the tool)

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Q10) Are assessment methods comparable if more than two groups were used?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Blinding:

Q11) Was (were) the outcome assessors aware of the intervention or exposure status of participants?

Yes
Partial
No
No information
N/A

Q12) Were the study participants aware of the research question?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Q13) Could classification of intervention status have been affected by knowledge of the outcome or risk of the outcome?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Q14) Could the outcome measure have been influenced by knowledge of the intervention?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Rate this section: **Strong** **Moderate** **Weak**

D Analyses

Q1) Are the statistical methods appropriate for the study design?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Q2) Are all statistical methods discussed, including those used to control for confounding?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Q3) Is there an explanation of how missing data was addressed?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Rate this section: **Strong** **Moderate** **Weak**

E Results

Q1) Were the characteristics of study participants (e.g. demographic, clinical, social) described?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Q2) Are results clearly defined?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear

N/A

Q3) Are confidence intervals 95% or above?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Q4) Are the results accurate? (outside of confounding variables, chance or bias)

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Rate this section: **Strong** **Moderate** **Weak**

F Discussion

Q1) Is there a clear statement of findings?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Q2) Is there a summary of key results with reference to study objectives?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Q3) Are limitations of the study discussed, taking into account sources of potential bias?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear

N/A

Q4) Are the results discussed in terms of external validity?

Yes
No
Partially
Not stated/unclear
N/A

Rate this section: **Strong** **Moderate** **Weak**

Appendix 4: Case Study Measure A: Modified ATP (Male Offender)

Case Study Measure

Identifying code	
Job Title	
Gender	
Age	
Length of time working with young people	
Does this include working in a previous job role	☐ Yes ☐ No If Yes how long was this for.....
Ethnicity	

The statements listed below describe different attitudes towards offenders. There are no right or wrong answers, only opinions. You are asked to express your feelings about each statement by indicating whether you (1) Disagree Strongly, (2) Disagree, (3) Undecided, (4) Agree, (5) Agree Strongly. Indicate your opinion by writing the number that best describes your personal attitude in the left hand margin. Please answer every item.

	1. Male offenders are different from most people
	2. Only a few male offenders are really dangerous
	3. Male offenders never change
	4. Most male offenders are victims of circumstance and deserve to be helped
	5. Male offenders have feelings like the rest of us
	6. It is not wise to trust a male offender too far
	7. I think I would like a lot of male offenders
	8. Bad personal environments just make a male offender more bitter
	9. Give a male offender an inch and he'll take a mile
	10. Most male offenders are stupid
	11. Male offenders need affection and praise just like anybody else
	12. You should not expect too much from a male offender
	13. Trying to rehabilitate a male offender is a waste of time and money
	14. You never know when a male offender is telling the truth
	15. Male offenders are no better or worse than other people.
	16. You have to constantly be on your guard with male offenders
	17. In general, male offenders think and act alike
	18. If you give a male offender your respect, he'll give you the same
	19. Male offenders only think about themselves
	20. There are some male offenders I would trust with my life

	21. Male offenders will listen to reason
	22. Most male offenders are too lazy to earn an honest living
	23. I wouldn't mind living next door to an male ex-offender
	24. Male offenders are just plain mean at heart
	25. Male offenders are always trying to get something out of somebody
	26. The values of most male offenders are about the same as the rest of us
	27. I would never want one of my children dating an male ex-offender
	28. Most male offenders have the capacity for love
	29. Male offenders are just plain immoral
	30. Male offenders should be under strict harsh discipline
	31. In general, male offenders are basically bad people
	32. Most male offenders can be rehabilitated
	33. Some male offenders are pretty nice people
	34. I would like associating with some male offenders
	35. Male offenders respect only brute force
	36. If a male offender does well in prison he should be let out on parole

Appendix 5: Case Study Measure B: Modified ATP (Female Offender)

Case Study Measure B

Identifying code	
Job Title	
Gender	
Age	
Length of time working with young people	
Does this include working in a previous job role	☐ Yes ☐ No If Yes how long was this for.....
Ethnicity	

The statements listed below describe different attitudes towards offenders. There are no right or wrong answers, only opinions. You are asked to express your feelings about each statement by indicating whether you (1) Disagree Strongly, (2) Disagree, (3) Undecided, (4) Agree, (5) Agree Strongly. Indicate your opinion by writing the number that best describes your personal attitude in the left hand margin. Please answer every item.

	37. Female offenders are different from most people
	38. Only a few female offenders are really dangerous
	39. Female offenders never change
	40. Most female offenders are victims of circumstance and deserve to be helped
	41. Female offenders have feelings like the rest of us
	42. It is not wise to trust a female offender too far
	43. I think I would like a lot of female offenders
	44. Bad personal environments just make a female offender more bitter
	45. Give a female offender an inch and she'll take a mile
	46. Most female offenders are stupid
	47. Female offenders need affection and praise just like anybody else
	48. You should not expect too much from a female offender
	49. Trying to rehabilitate a female offender is a waste of time and money
	50. You never know when a female offender is telling the truth
	51. Female offenders are no better or worse than other people.
	52. You have to constantly be on your guard with female offenders
	53. In general, female offenders think and act alike
	54. If you give a female offender your respect, she'll give you the same
	55. Female offenders only think about themselves
	56. There are some female offenders I would trust with my life

	57. Female offenders will listen to reason
	58. Most female offenders are too lazy to earn an honest living
	59. I wouldn't mind living next door to an female ex-offender
	60. Female offenders are just plain mean at heart
	61. Female offenders are always trying to get something out of somebody
	62. The values of most female offenders are about the same as the rest of us
	63. I would never want one of my children dating an female ex-offender
	64. Most female offenders have the capacity for love
	65. Female offenders are just plain immoral
	66. Female offenders should be under strict harsh discipline
	67. In general, female offenders are basically bad people
	68. Most female offenders can be rehabilitated
	69. Some female offenders are pretty nice people
	70. I would like associating with some female offenders
	71. Female offenders respect only brute force
	72. If a female offender does well in prison she should be let out on parole

Appendix 6: Case Based Questionnaires

Name/Identifying code	
Job Title	
Gender	
Age	

INSTRUCTIONS

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this survey. The survey begins by asking you to consider the two hypothetical offender profiles. You will be asked to read one profile at a time, and then answer the same series of questions about each of the hypothetical offenders profiled below.

Although some of the offender profiles may seem similar to each other, all of the profiles you will be asked to consider differ in some aspect. Please pay attention to the characteristics of each offender profile, and answer the questions about the offender as best as you can based on the information provided.

Case Number 1

Age	17 years
Race	White British
Sex	Male
Relationship status	Single
Children	0 children
Employment/Education history	Steady Education
Current employment status	Seeking employment
Current living situation	Living with family
History of substance abuse	Yes
Prior convictions	2
Current offence	Violence

Based on the profile presented above, on a scale from 1 (not likely at all) to 6 (very likely), how likely do you think it is that this offender will do the following? Circle the number that corresponds with your response.

	Not at all Likely					Very Likely
a. Recidivate (commit another crime)	1	2	3	4	5	6
b. Rehabilitate (stop criminal activity)	1	2	3	4	5	6
c. Maintain stable employment	1	2	3	4	5	6
d. Maintain healthy relationships	1	2	3	4	5	6

The following questions ask you to evaluate general explanations for this hypothetical offender's criminal conduct. Please evaluate the statements by circling a response from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 6 (Strongly Agree).

This individual's criminal conduct was likely due mostly to his/her personal character, attitude, and personality traits.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 Strongly Agree

This individual's criminal conduct was likely due mostly to his/her inborn, genetic, biological or hereditary characteristics.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 Strongly Agree

This individual's criminal conduct was likely due mostly to the social conditions under which he/she has lived, including family and peer dynamics.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 Strongly Agree

When you think of people like the offender described above, you feel:

	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
a. Disgusted by them	1	2	3	4
b. Sympathy for them	1	2	3	4
c. Pity toward them	1	2	3	4
d. Anger toward them	1	2	3	4
e. Annoyed with them	1	2	3	4

Case Number 2

Age	17 years
Race	White British
Sex	Female
Relationship status	Single
Children	0 children
Employment/education history	Steady education
Current employment status	Seeking employment
Current living situation	Living with family
History of substance abuse	Yes
Prior convictions	2
Current offence	Violence

Based on the profile presented above, on a scale from 1 (not likely at all) to 6 (very likely), how likely do you think it is that this offender will do the following? Circle the number that corresponds with your response.

	Not at all Likely					Very Likely
a. Recidivate (commit another crime)	1	2	3	4	5	6
b. Rehabilitate (stop criminal activity)	1	2	3	4	5	6
c. Maintain stable employment	1	2	3	4	5	6
d. Maintain healthy relationships	1	2	3	4	5	6

The following questions ask you to evaluate general explanations for this hypothetical offender's criminal conduct. Please evaluate the statements by circling a response from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 6 (Strongly Agree).

This individual's criminal conduct was likely due mostly to his/her personal character, attitude, and personality traits.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 Strongly Agree

This individual's criminal conduct was likely due mostly to his/her inborn, genetic, biological or hereditary characteristics.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 Strongly Agree

This individual's criminal conduct was likely due mostly to the social conditions under which he/she has lived, including family and peer dynamics.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 Strongly Agree

When you think of people like the offender described above, you feel:

	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
a. Disgusted by them	1	2	3	4
b. Sympathy for them	1	2	3	4
c. Pity toward them	1	2	3	4
d. Anger toward them	1	2	3	4
e. Annoyed with them	1	2	3	4

Appendix 7: Ethical approval letter

The University of Nottingham

E-mail: FMHS-ResearchEthics@nottingham.ac.uk

Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences

Research Ethics Committee
C/o Faculty PVC Office
School of Medicine Education Centre
B Floor, Medical School
Queen's Medical Centre Campus
Nottingham University Hospitals
Nottingham
NG7 2UH

23rd March 2017

Jodie Howarth-Beal,
Student on the Doctorate in Forensic Psychology
Division of Psychiatry and Applied Psychology,
The University of Nottingham
School of Medicine
Jubilee Campus
Nottingham University Hospitals
NG7 2UH

Dear Jodie

Ethics Reference No: J200317 17009 – **please always quote** **Sponsor Ref:** 17009 **IRAS Project ID:** 218006	
Study Title: The impact of implicit theories and gender on professional attitudes towards sexual offending. **Short Title:** Professional attitudes towards gender differences in sexual offending	
Chief Investigator/Supervisor: Professor Birgit Volm, Professor of Forensic Psychiatry, Division of Psychiatry and Applied Psychology	
Lead Investigators/student: Jodie Howarth-Beal, Student on the Doctorate in Forensic Psychology, Division of Psychiatry and Applied Psychology	
Other Key Investigators: Professor Vincent Egan, Director of Forensic Psychology Programmes, Centre for Division of Psychiatry and Applied Psychology.	
Type of Study: student project, questionnaire	
Proposed Start Date: 11/2016	**Proposed End Date:** 06/2017 7 mths
No of Subjects: 200	**Age:** 18+years
School: Medicine	

Thank you for submitting the above application which was considered by the Committee at its meeting on 20th March 2017 and the following documents were received:

Short Title: Professional attitudes towards gender differences in sexual offending

- FMHS Research Ethics Application form dated 17.03.2017
- Protocol final version 1.0/17.03.2017
- Appendix 1: Participant Information Sheet final version 1.0/17.03.2017
- Appendix 2: Consent Information final version 1.0/17.03.2017
- Appendix 3: Implicit Theories about Human Behaviour questionnaire
- Appendix 4: Implicit Theories about Sexual Offenders questionnaire
- Appendix 5: Attitudes to Sexual Offenders Scale
- Appendix 6: Vignettes
- Appendix 7: Question following vignettes
- Appendix 8: Participant debrief final version 1.0/17.03.2017
- Appendix 9 : Recruitment Email final version 1.0/17.03.2017
- Appendix 10: Follow up Recruitment Email final version 1.0/17.03.2017
- Appendix 11: Confirmation email from Nottinghamshire Healthcare Trust 10/3/17

The University of Nottingham

These have been reviewed and are satisfactory and the study has been given a favourable opinion.

Approval is given on the understanding that the conditions 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.

3. This study is approved for the period of active recruitment requested. The Committee also provides a further 5 year approval for any necessary work to be performed on the study which may arise in the process of publication and peer review.

4. An End of Project Progress Report is completed and returned when the study has finished (Please request a form).

Yours sincerely

pp Lomegadri

Professor Ravi Mahajan
Chair, Faculty of Medicine & Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee

Appendix 8: Participant Information Sheet

Title of study: Attitudes of professionals working in forensic settings to sexual offending

Name of Researcher: Jodie Howarth-Beal

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide whether to take part it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. The researcher's email address is provided in order for any questions you might have to be asked. Please take time to read the following information carefully and feel free to discuss it with others.

What is the purpose of this study?

This study is looking at attitudes of professionals working within a forensic setting toward the severity of sexual abuse, impact on the victim and recommended punishments.

Why have I been asked to take part?

All members of contracted members of staff working within a forensic setting have been asked to take part in the study; we are inviting 200 participants to take part in this study.

Do I have to take part?

No, participation is voluntary. It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to take part, you are still free to withdraw from the study at any time and without giving a reason. This would not affect your legal rights.

What does the study involve? What will I have to do?

The study requires you to initially answer a series of questions, these will be divided into sets, the first two sets will have three questions each and will ask you about how you view people and the second set will have 21 questions and will ask you about your views of sexual offenders. Then you will be asked to read a hypothetical scenario, which will describe a case about a sexual offence and then you will be asked three questions in relation to the scenario. If you identify with anything written in the questionnaire and feel that you could be negatively affected by it you are advised not to participate any further in the study. If you do choose to participate, the whole questionnaire should take you no more than 20 minutes to complete, after which time you will be asked questions regarding your age, sex, relationship status and occupation, and see a debrief screen detailing how the research might be used in the future. The debrief screen will also give contact details for the researcher and supervisor, should you have any queries regarding the study, and some references for further reading.

Expenses and payments
Participants will not be paid to participate in the study.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?
Some of the material contained within the brief questionnaire contains descriptions of abuse which may be distressing. Additionally if you have personally been affected by any of the issues covered in the study then there is a chance that it could trigger some disturbing thoughts or images.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?
We cannot promise that the study will help you, but the information we get from this study may help future victims of crime. The information gleaned from this study might go towards creating training and education programmes for those working within forensic services so that they have a greater general awareness of criminal behaviour and a better understanding of the perpetrators and victims of sexual abuse.

What happens when the study stops?
The data will be stored in files on a password-protected computer, only accessible to the researcher and members of university staff. The data will be analysed using statistical methods, via a computer programme called SPSS.

What if there is a problem?
If you have a concern about any aspect of this study, you should speak to the researcher who will answer your questions. The researcher's contact details are given at the end of this information sheet. If you remain unhappy, you can contact the researcher's supervisor. These contact details are also at the end of this information sheet.

Will my taking part in the study be kept confidential?
No identifiable personal information will be collected as part of the study. All information which is collected about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential. It will be stored securely and on a password protected computer. The information you provide will be viewed by the researcher and the researcher's supervisor. It may be viewed by other authorised individuals at the University of Nottingham who will check that the study is being carried out correctly. All will have a duty of confidentiality to you as a research participant and we will do our best to meet this duty.

All research data will be kept securely for seven years. After this time your data will be disposed of securely.

Your confidentiality will be safeguarded during and after the study by asking participants to decide on a code for their data before they start the study. This code will mean that the data is completely anonymous to everyone except the participant and can be used to withdraw data before analysis begins. Once analysis of the data has begun it will not be possible to identify which sets of data belong to which individual participant, and therefore withdrawal during or after analysis is not viable.
The procedures for collecting, analysing, storing and destroying data meet the requirements of the Data Protection Act.

What will happen if I don't want to carry on with the study?
Your participation is voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason, and without your legal rights being affected. If you withdraw from the study, then any unidentifiable information collected so far cannot be erased and this information may still be used in the project analysis.

You may withdraw from the study at any time before data analysis begins. If you choose to withdraw, your data will be completely removed from the study and destroyed. However, it will not be possible for you to withdraw during or after data analysis, as identification and extraction of individual data will be impossible.

What will happen to the results of the research?
The results of the study will be included in a Doctoral level thesis, which will be submitted for assessment in 2017. If the study is published, it will be within a peer-reviewed journal. The reviewing and publishing process can take some time to complete. After the study you will be given a debrief sheet, as detailed above. However, if you would like a summary of the results, this can be made available to you once the study is complete. You will not be identified in any reports, dissertations or publications. The results of this study will be written up as part of my educational qualification.

Who has reviewed the study?
This study has been reviewed and given a favourable opinion by the University of Nottingham's Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences' research ethics committee and Nottinghamshire Healthcare trust R&D department.

Further information and contact details
Researcher's name: Jodie Howarth-Beal
Researcher's e-mail address: msxjh11@nottingham.ac.uk

Supervisor's name: Professor Birgit Völlm
Supervisor's e-mail address: Birgit.völlm@nottingham.ac.uk

If you feel you will be, or have been, negatively affected as a result of taking part in this questionnaire, please use the resources below for help and support:

- **Occupational Health Services** for staff – your local service will be able to be located through your work based intranet.
- **The Samaritans**

www.samaritans.org
Tel: 116 123

- **National Association for People Abused in Childhood (UK**) - NAPAC

http://napac.org.uk/
0808 801 0331

- **Supportline**

http://www.supportline.org.uk/
info@supportline.org.uk
01708 765200

Appendix 9: Implicit Theories about Human Behaviour and Sexual Offenders

Question Set 1

Please rate your agreement with the following statements by circling your response:

1)

The kind of person someone is, is something very basic about them and it can't be changed very much

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

People can do things differently, but the important parts of who they are can't really be changed

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Everyone is a certain kind of person and there is not much that can be done to really change that

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

2)

Whether somebody commits a sexual crime is very much related to who they are as a person

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Somebody who has committed a sexual offence is likely to do so again in the future

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Sexual offenders cannot be successfully rehabilitated

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Appendix 10: ATS-21

Question Set 2

Please rate your agreement with the following statements by circling your response:

Sex offenders are different from other people

0	1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

Most sex offenders are victims of circumstance and deserve help

0	1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

Sex offenders have feelings like the rest of us

0	1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

It is not wise to trust a sex offender too far

0	1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

I think I would like a lot of sex offenders

0	1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

Give a sex offender an inch and they take a mile

0	1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

Sex offenders need affection and praise just like anybody else

0	1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

Trying to rehabilitate sex offenders is a waste of time and money

0	1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

Sex offenders are no better or worse than other people

0	1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

You have to be constantly on your guard with sex offenders

0	1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

If you give a sex offender your respect, they'll give you the same

0	1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

Sex offenders only think about themselves

0	1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

There are some sex offenders I would trust with my life

0	1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

Most sex offenders are too lazy to earn an honest living

0	1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

I wouldn't mind living next door to a treated sex offender

0	1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

Sex offenders are just plain mean at heart

0	1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

Sex offenders are always trying to get something out of somebody

0	1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

Sex offenders are immoral

0	1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

I would like associating with some sex offenders

0	1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

Sex offenders respect only brute force

0	1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

If sex offenders do well in prison/hospital, they should be let out on parole

0	1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

Appendix 11: Vignettes

Scenario

Participants blindly selected one of these.

Male Offender, Female Victim Vignette

Alan is a 35-year-old man. Last May he was invited to a work colleague's barbeque, which he attended with his wife. A few hours into the event, Alan went inside to use the bathroom, located on the first floor of his colleague's home. On his way to the bathroom he passed the bedroom of his colleague's 8-year-old daughter, Sarah, whom he had met on several occasions and knew well. Alan entered the room to find Sarah playing with some toys. Alan sat talking to Sarah for a few minutes, asking her about the toys that she was playing with and what else she had been doing that day. During the interaction, Alan touched Sarah's genitals, telling her that it was a game that adults play. When he stopped, Alan stayed with Sarah for several more minutes, before returning to the barbeque for the remainder of the evening.

The following day, Sarah told her parents about what Alan did, and the police were informed. Alan was arrested and charged with a sexual offence. His trial begins in next month.

Male Offender, Male Victim Vignette

Alan is a 35-year-old man. Last May he was invited to a work colleague's barbeque, which he attended with his wife. A few hours into the event, Alan went inside to use the bathroom, located on the first floor of his colleague's home. On his way to the bathroom he passed the bedroom of his colleague's 8-year-old son, Thomas, whom he had met on several occasions and knew well. Alan entered the room to find Thomas playing with some toys. Alan sat talking to Thomas for a few minutes, asking him about the toys that he was playing with and what else he had been doing that day. During the interaction, Alan touched Thomas's genitals, telling him that it was a game that adults play. When he stopped, Alan stayed with Thomas for several more minutes, before returning to the barbeque for the remainder of the evening.

The following day, Thomas told his parents about what Alan did, and the police were informed. Alan was arrested and charged with a sexual offence. His trial begins in next month.

Adult Female, Female Victim Vignette

Amanda is a 35-year-old woman. Last May she was invited to a work colleague's barbeque, which she attended with her husband. A few hours into the event, Amanda went inside to use the bathroom, located on the first floor of her colleague's home. On her way to the bathroom she passed the bedroom of her colleague's 8-year-old daughter, Sarah, whom she had met on several occasions and knew well. Amanda entered the room to find Sarah playing with some toys. Amanda sat talking to Sarah for a few minutes, asking her about the toys that she was playing with and what else she had been doing that day. During the interaction, Amanda touched Sarah's genitals, telling her that it was a game that adults play. When she stopped, Amanda stayed with Sarah for several more minutes, before returning to the barbeque for the remainder of the evening.

The following day, Sarah told her parents about what Amanda did, and the police were informed. Amanda was arrested and charged with a sexual offence. Her trial begins in next month.

Adult Female, Male Victim Vignette

Amanda is a 35-year-old woman. Last May she was invited to a work colleague's barbeque, which she attended with her husband. A few hours into the event, Amanda went inside to use the bathroom, located on the first floor of her colleague's home. On her way to the bathroom she passed the bedroom of her colleague's 8-year-old son, Thomas, whom she had met on several occasions and knew well. Amanda entered the room to find Thomas playing with some toys. Amanda sat talking to Thomas for a few minutes, asking him about the toys that he was playing with and what else he had been doing that day. During the interaction, Amanda touched Thomas's genitals, telling him that it was a game that adults play. When she stopped, Amanda stayed with Thomas for several more minutes, before returning to the barbeque for the remainder of the evening.

The following day, Thomas told his parents about what Amanda did, and the police were informed. Amanda was arrested and charged with a sexual offence. Her trial begins in next month.

Appendix 12: Questions following the vignette

Please answer the following questions in relation to the above vignette by circling your response:

How would you rate the severity of the offence?

Not severe at all					Extremely severe
0	1	2	3	4	5

How would you rate the impact on the victim?

No impact at all					Extreme impact
0	1	2	3	4	5

What level of sentence would you recommend?

Punishment					Rehabilitation
0	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 13: Demographic Questionnaire

Demographics

What is your age?

(Please circle)

18-21	22-25	26-29	30-33	34-37	38-41	42-45	46-49
50-53	54-57	58-61	62-65	66-69	70-73	74-77	77+

What is your gender?

(Please circle)

Male

Female

Other (i.e. Agender, Gender Fluid, Gender Questioning, Transgender, etc..)

Prefer not to say

What is your occupation?

(Please circle)

Staff nurse	Assistant psychologist	Speech and language therapy assistant
Nursing assistant	Qualified social worker	Art therapist
Team leader	Trainee social worker	Music therapist
Ward manager	Occupational therapist	Art/music therapist
Student nurse	Occupational therapist support worker	Prison officer
Consultant Psychiatrist	Technical Instructor	OSG
Associate Specialist doctor/staff grade doctor	Lecturer	Chaplaincy
Trainee doctor	Associate lecturer	Education staff
Chartered psychologist	Learning support worker	Interventions facilitator
Trainee psychologist	Speech and language therapist	

Other (Please State).....
.....

What level of security do you work in?
(Please circle)

High	Community	Prison – Category C
Medium	Prison – Category A	Prison – Category D
Low	Prison – Category B	Prison – Female Establishment
Locked Rehabilitation		

Other (Please State).....
.....

Appendix 14: Study Debrief

Thank you for taking the time to take part in this study.

Study title: Attitudes of professionals working within forensic settings towards sexual offending, dependant on gender of perpetrator and victim and the impact of implicit theories upon these attitudes.

Background:

Theories have been developed around how an individual's implicit theory will influence their attitude and judgements of various situations. Dweck et al. (1995a) proposed that people tend to hold one of two implicit theories about human attributes; (1) Entity implicit theories where attributes are believed to be fixed, unchangeable and predictable, or (2) Incremental implicit theories where attributes are believed to malleable, which can be changed and developed. It is proposed that these implicit theories will determine individual's beliefs around sex offenders and the impact this can have on their perceptions of severity of crime.

Research has shown that perpetrators of sexual offenders are expected to be male and male sexual offenders are more likely to be found guilty than female defendants (Pozzulo, Dempsey, Meader & Allen (2010). In addition to this, Harper and Bartles (2016) proposed that individuals who hold social stereotypes of sexual offenders (that sex offenders are male) will have more negative attitudes towards them. Harper and Bartels (2016) found that individuals with entitists implicit theories were more punitive in sentencing recommendations with perpetrators who fit the social stereotypes of sexual offending.

Previous research has not looked at the implicit theories held by professionals and how these impact upon their views of male and female sexual offenders. This is what this current study is exploring.

Aims:

In this study we want to find out if the gender of victim and perpetrator affects the perception of sexual offending and also if the type of implicit theory held by an individual affects their views of sexual offenders, severity of crime, impact on the victim and sentencing recommendations.

We hypothesised that individuals who hold entitist implicit theories will be more negative towards a sexual offender and recommend more punitive sentences, offences committed by

male perpetrators would be viewed as more severe and a greater impact upon the victim than those committed by a female perpetrator and that there would be a difference in be a difference in the perceived severity of the offence and impact on the victim dependent upon whether the abuse was heterosexual or homosexual.

How it works:

You may have found the information sheet at the start of the study to have been vague in its description of this study. This was necessary so as not to influence your beliefs prior to answering the questionnaire. This debrief sheet should give you a more of an idea of what the study is about.

Initially you were asked to complete questions around your views on human nature and sexual offenders, this was to identify whether you held entitist of incrementailst implicit theories. The second set of questions was the attitude to sex offenders scale (ATS-21), this is to establish your views of sexual offenders. Then finally you were asked to read a short story followed by three questions based on the story.

This study has 4 different conditions (hence you were asked to randomly select from blank envelopes so you only chose one of the conditions). All details of the hypothetical scenario you read remained the same, excepted for the genders of the perpetrator and victim (male perpetrator and male victim, male perpetrator and female victim, female perpetrator and male victim or female perpetrator and female victim).

Why do we need this research?

A lot of research around perceptions of male and female sex offenders has been carried out within community samples, however little is known about the views of professionals. In addition to this even less is known about the impacts of implicit theories of professionals and how this can affect their views of sexual offenders. Research has shown that as attitudes toward sexual offenders become more positive, so, too, do the belief in an offender's ability to change (Blagden, Winder and Hames, 2016). These findings have important implications for treatment, as positive attitudes and a supportive therapeutic environment have been linked to successful outcomes in the treatment of sexual offenders (Beech & Hamilton-Giachritsis, 2005).

The results of this study may aid further staff training and education around the impacts of attitudes towards offenders and specifically how this can impact upon change in offenders.

If you feel you will be, or have been, negatively affected as a result of taking part in this questionnaire, please use the resources below for help and support:

- **Occupational Health Services** for staff – your local service will be able to be located through your work based intranet.

- **The Samaritans**

www.samaritans.org
Tel: 116 123

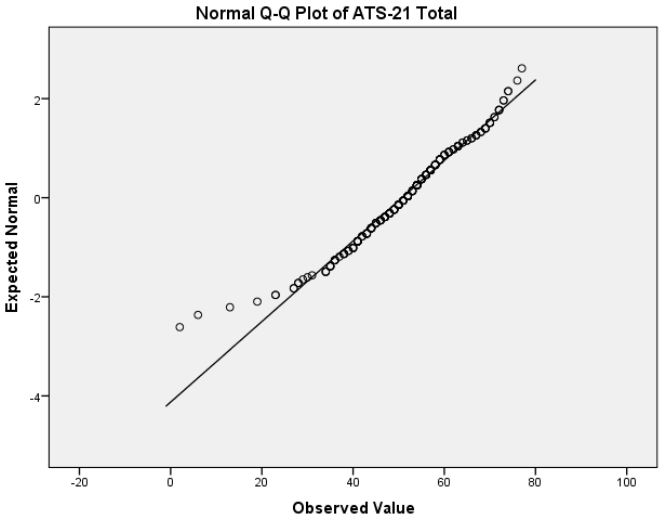
- **National Association for People Abused in Childhood (UK**) - NAPAC

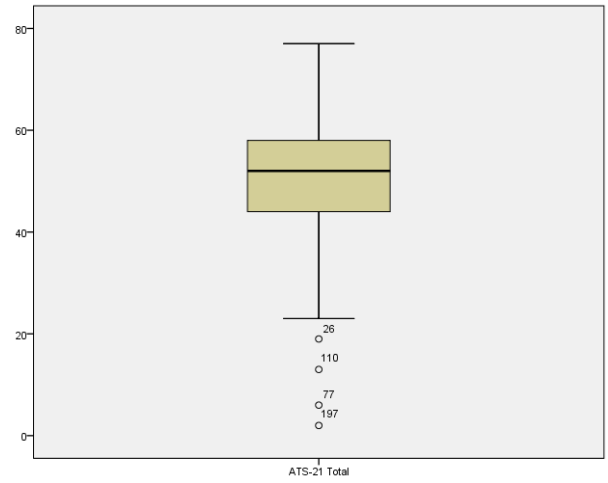
http://napac.org.uk/
0808 801 0331

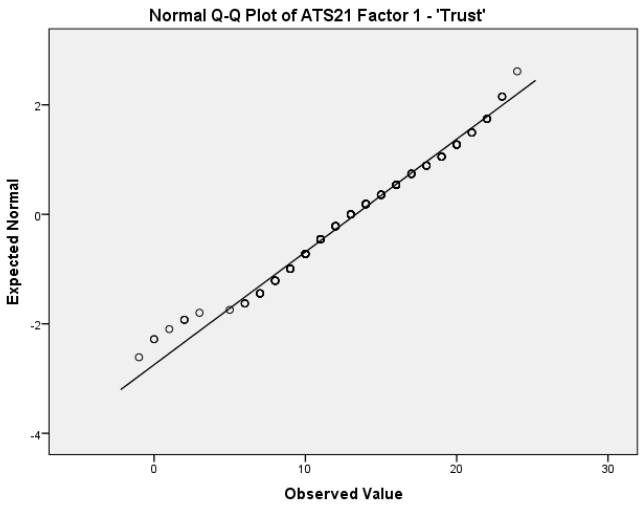
- **Supportline**

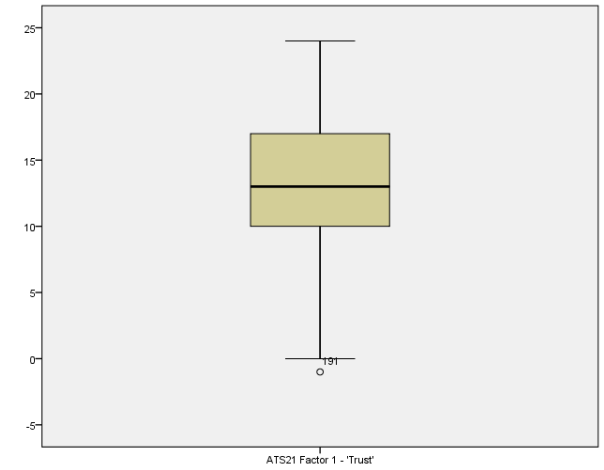
http://www.supportline.org.uk/
info@supportline.org.uk
01708 765200

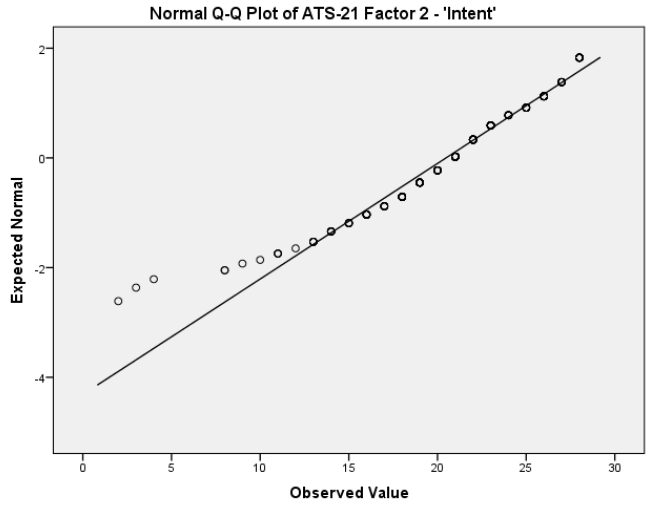
Appendix 15: Normality plots

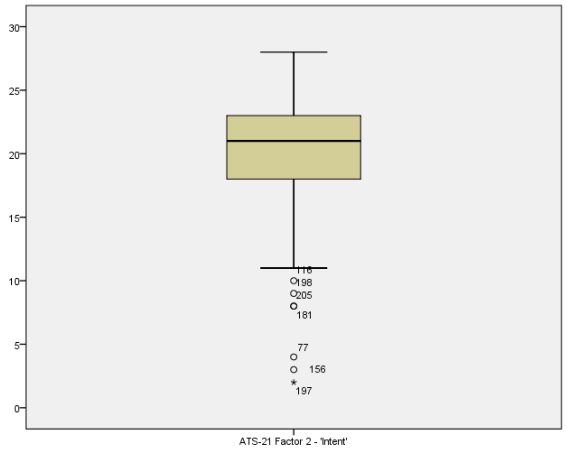


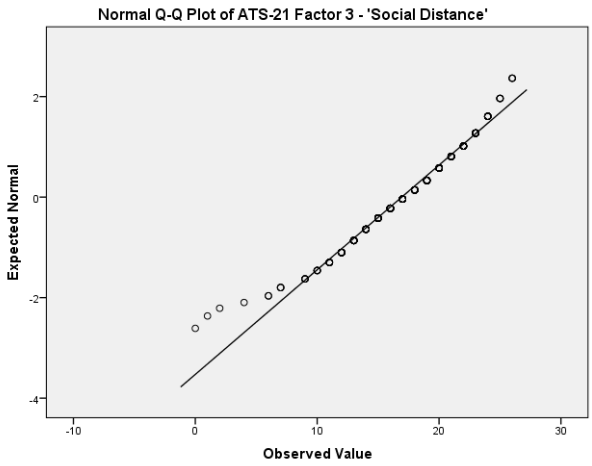


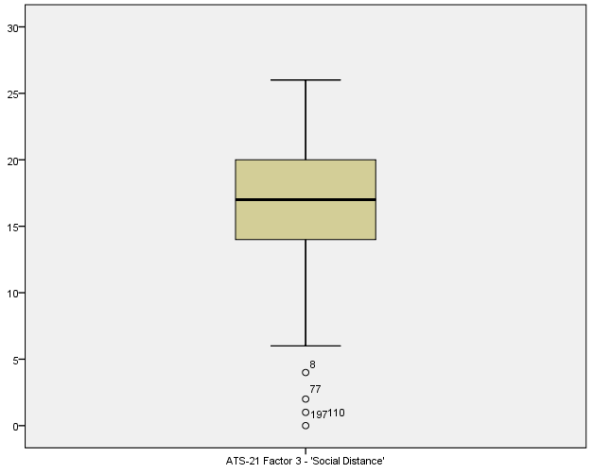









Normal Q-Q Plot of ATS-21 Factor 3 - 'Social Distance'
Expected Normal
Observed Value
2
0
-2
-4
-10
0
10
20
30


30
25
20
15
10
5
0
8
77
197110
ATS-21 Factor 3 - 'Social Distance'