An Analysis of Situational, Personal and Professional Characteristics in Perceptions of Rape within the Police Service

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By

Kayleigh Ann Denyer

School of Psychology

University of Kent

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Abstract

Previous research has indicated that some police personnel can have negative perceptions of rape victims (Sleath & Bull, 2017). The majority of past research examining officers' perceptions of rape has focused predominantly on the characteristics of rape victims and perpetrators; not recognising the effects of police personnel characteristics, and the role they may play in influencing their perceptions of sexual offences, and ultimately the outcome of such cases. In addition, research that has taken police personnel characteristics into account has not taken into consideration how a combination of personal and professional characteristics, in relation to sexual offence type, may impact upon perceptions; instead, studying such factors in isolation. This thesis addressed this gap in the research, whilst also considering the Sexual Offences Act (2003) which recognises two distinct sexual offences which in other countries may be classified as rape; specifically, sexual assault by penetration and sexual activity without consent. This research using a national data collection from police services in England and Wales confirmed that several personal and professional characteristics were related to police personnel rape myths and rape empathy. It also showed that the gender of the victim and perpetrator, and the type of sexual offences being reported can affect police personnel perceptions of the parties involved. The findings in this thesis also have implications for how police services manage and support police personnel; specifically, compassion fatigue. The findings also raise awareness of how police personnel characteristics and perceptions may affect reporting and attrition rates, and victim experiences of reporting to the police.

Declaration

The student, Miss Kayleigh Denyer under the supervision and guidance of Dr Afroditi Pina, was primarily responsible for the design and execution of the body of research presented in this thesis. With contributions from Dr Jane Wood, Miss Denyer was the lead investigator and responsible for all data collection and statistical analyses that were performed.

Publications

Research from this thesis has been published in the following journal article:

Parratt, K.A., & Pina, A. (2017). From "real rape" to real justice: A systematic review of police officers' rape myth beliefs. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 34,* 68-83. doi:10.1016/j.avb.2017.03.005

Research from this thesis has been presented at the following conferences:

Whitby, K.A., & Pina, A. (2016). From "Real Rape" to Real Justice: A Systematic Review of Police Officers' Rape Myth Perceptions and the Implications on Victim Experience: Poster presented at the Postgraduate Research Conference, University of Kent.

Whitby, K.A., & Pina, A. (2015). From "Real Rape" to Real Justice: A Systematic Review of Police Officers' Rape Myth Perceptions and the Implications on Victim Experience: Poster presented at the Postgraduate Research Symposium, University of Kent.

Whitby, K.A., & Pina, A. (2015). From "Real Rape" to Real Justice: A Systematic Review of Police Officers' Rape Myth Perceptions and the Implications on Victim Experience: Poster presented at the Sexual Violence Conference, Middlesex University.

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Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to all the women out there who have ever felt that they were not good enough. Stay married to your goals, as there is nothing more beautiful than a woman who is determined to rise.

Acknowledgements

When things go wrong as they sometimes will,
When the road you're trudging seems all up hill,
When the funds are low and the debts are high
And you want to smile, but you have to sigh,
When care is pressing you down a bit,
Rest if you must, but don't you quit.
Life is strange with its twists and turns
As every one of us sometimes learns
And many a failure comes about
When he might have won had he stuck it out;
Don't give up though the pace seems slow—
You may succeed with another blow.
Success is failure turned inside out—
The silver tint of the clouds of doubt,
And you never can tell just how close you are,
It may be near when it seems so far;
So stick to the fight when you're hardest hit—
It's when things seem worst that you must not quit

-John Greenleaf Whittier-

First and foremost, I like to say thank you to my supervisor, Dr Afroditi Pina for your support and guidance, not only professionally but personally. Even when I was in despair, you were always there to provide me reassurance and direction when needed. I truly believe that during my PhD I have truly found myself, solidifying my beliefs and passions, both as a researcher and supporter for gender equality and women's rights. Our many emotive discussions on feminism, politics, and making the world a safer place for women always gave me inspiration as to the woman I want to be and my role in the world. Thank you for being my inspiration.

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Aims and Overview of Thesis

The first aim of the thesis was to explore how police personnel personal and professional characteristics (both singularly and in combination), affected their perceptions of sexual offences. In order to examine this, the research first set out to systematically gather all current literature investigating police officers' rape myth beliefs to highlight influential factors. The review was then used to identify gaps and inconsistencies in the literature, assess the quality of the research, including the methodology and validity and reliability of rape myth measures implemented. This was then used to establish areas needing further exploration.

The data on police personnel and perceptions of rape identified a variety of personal and professional characteristics that required further investigation. These included some characteristics that had not been explored with the police but that had been suggested to be related to rape myth endorsement in non-policing populations. Furthermore, previous studies in this area analysed personal and professional characteristics independently without considering how the relationship between characteristics may play a role in police personnel perceptions. The thesis then set out to address this by gathering multiple personal and professional characteristics from police personnel throughout England and Wales. This allowed investigation of the direct relationship of the characteristics in relation to their rape myths and rape empathy, while taking into consideration the impact of other characteristics.

No previous research had examined police personnel perceptions of sexual offences, other than rape, which are covered by the Sexual Offences Act (2003) in England and Wales, specifically sexual assault by penetration and sexual activity without consent. The thesis set out to address this gap by gathering police personnel perceptions of victim credibility, agreement to sex, victim blame, sexual provocativeness, victim lying, assumed interest, and victim unreasonableness and perpetrator reasonableness, in relation to female

rape (male perpetrator), male rape (male perpetrator), sexual assault by penetration, and sexual activity without consent. In addition to this, the thesis examined how their personal and professional characteristics also affect these aforementioned perceptions.

The second aim of the thesis was to explore what police personnel perceived to influence their perceptions of sexual offences. This was done in two stages: firstly, assessing how they defined rape, sexual assault by penetration, and sexual activity without consent, and secondly, whether they felt their perceptions of rape had changed over the course of their careers, and if so, what factors they felt had changed their perceptions.

Overview of the Thesis

Chapter One presented a systematic review of the existing literature of the rape myths that infiltrate the police service, including cognitions and attitudes relating to rape victims and perpetrators. The review systematically examined published and unpublished research, investigating the factors that influence personnel beliefs of rape. The key findings showed gaps within the research area, and highlighted future research directions and policy avenues to develop the field. The review indicated that police attitudes towards rape are influenced by a vast array of interrelated elements, which can vary from case to case and officer to officer, including personal, professional, and victim/crime scene factors. The findings from the review highlighted that some of the previous research does not correspond with the legal terminology currently found in the Sexual Offences Act (2003) for England and Wales. This is problematic as there are differences between the legal definition of rape in England and Wales compared to what constitutes rape in other countries, in addition to any academic definitions. The law in England and Wales does not currently recognise that a woman is capable of raping another person (Sexual Offences Act 2003), which is an issue when research applies findings from countries such as the United

States of America (where there is a gender-neutral definition of rape (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2014), to police personnel in the England and Wales (where there is a non-gender-neutral definition of rape). This means that findings may not be applicable or take into account such legislative discrepancies. The review highlighted the need for research that addresses the differences in legislation regarding rape and how officers' beliefs may differ depending on country and culture of origin.

Chapter Two provided the aims of the thesis, including a brief overview of the key gaps in the literature identified by the systematic review (Chapter One), and how the thesis plans to address these gaps. The chapter also discussed the theoretical approach behind the thesis, and outlines the research questions that will be addressed, followed by a review of the methodology adopted in the empirical studies. The discussion of the theoretical approach included a presentation of feminist theory, the Intra-Female Gender Thesis, and the implications that secondary victimisation and blame can have on victim confidence in the Criminal Justice System. The methodological review included the main measures implemented in gathering data throughout England and Wales on police personnel perceptions of sexual offences, and the reasons why specific methodologies were chosen. This included reviewing measures of rape myths (including victim and perpetrator blaming), and victim and perpetrator empathy. In addition, the chapter briefly discussed the utilisation of vignettes within the rape perception research and a discussion of the use of online questionnaires with the police service.

Chapter Three presented the first data collection (Study One) from police personnel throughout England and Wales. It investigated the effects of police personnel personal characteristics (e.g. gender identity, age, religion, marital status,) and professional characteristics (e.g. years of experience, education level, rank, main role, hours of sexual assault training) on their perceptions of rape, including rape myths and empathy. Findings

revealed that non-religious individuals were more empathetic to perpetrators of rape than Christian police personnel. For professional characteristics, it was found that police personnel with GCSEs as their highest education level endorsed more rape myths compared to those with university degrees (Undergraduate, Masters). With regards to rape victim empathy, results revealed that as rape victim empathy increases so does rape perpetrator empathy, and as rape perpetrator increases, so does rape myth acceptance. It was also found that the less useful and less relevant police personnel perceived sexual assault training to be, the higher their rape myth endorsement, and the more useful they perceived the training to be, the less their rape victim empathy.

Based on the recommendations in Chapter One, Chapter Four presented the second data collection (Study Two) from police personnel throughout England and Wales. The purpose of this data collection was to investigate police personnel perceptions of other sexual offences in addition to rape, specifically, sexual assault by penetration and sexual activity without consent. This was conducted by examining police personnel perceptions using four vignettes depicting female rape (male perpetrator), male rape (male perpetrator), sexual assault by penetration (male victim, female perpetrator), and sexual activity without consent (male victim, female perpetrator). Findings suggested that personnel perceived the male victim of sexual activity without consent as the least credible and most to blame compared to the victims of male rape, sexual activity without consent, and sexual assault by penetration. The victim of sexual activity without consent was also perceived to be lying the most about the incident compared the victims of some of the other sexual offences. Furthermore, the perpetrator of sexual activity without consent was most reasonable compared to some of the other perpetrators, whereas the victim was perceived as the most unreasonable compared to some of the other victims. Study Two also investigated the relationships of personal and professional characteristics in relation to police personnel

perceptions. It was found that heterosexual police personnel perceived the victim in all of the vignettes as more sexually provocative compared to non-heterosexual police personnel. It was also found that police personnel in serious crime tended to rate victims as more interested in sex across all vignettes compared to police personnel in 'other' role.

Chapter Five, presented the qualitative results of Study Two, including assessing police personnel's definitions of rape, sexual activity without consent, and sexual assault by penetration, and if they felt their beliefs had changed since starting their careers, and what factors they felt had changed their beliefs (if at all). When asked to define sexual offences there was an overall reliance on the Sexual Offences Act (2003), in some but not all cases. Specifically, when asked to define rape, police personnel relied on the legal definition in the Sexual Offences Act (2003), and when asked to define sexual assault by penetration, it was also found that most personnel relied on the legislation, although some respondents confused the offence with rape, suggesting an uncertainty of how to define it. This uncertainty was even greater when asked to define sexual assault by penetration, with many participants highlighting touching (perpetrator touching the victim), which is not sexual activity without consent, but a legal requirement of sexual assault (Sexual Offences Act, 2003). When asked how their perceptions have changed since first becoming an officer, most police personnel felt that their perceptions had not changed. The second most common theme was police personnel estimating false allegations; appearing to hold victims to a high standard in terms of consistency of their reporting. Police personnel also tended to estimate a high number of false allegations and not consider why victims may claim that the offence did not happen. For the last qualitative question, when asked what experiences or factors have helped them in changing their perceptions of rape, most referred to training, education, experience and direct contact with victims. The second most common answer was personnel not directly responding to the question being asked, and the third was

personnel expressing rape myths, which included blaming the victim for the offence and questioning the genuineness of the allegations. The following most common response from personnel was them expressing no change in their perceptions, and the least common response was personnel noting a failure in the criminal justice system with juries acquitting guilty offenders and the emotional turmoil of working hard on a case which does not result in a conviction.

Chapter Six provides a general overview of the research findings of this thesis, along with briefly reviewing the hypotheses for each study in the thesis. This chapter also discusses the strengths of the research presented in the thesis and the theoretical implications of the research findings, leading onto the practical implications of the research findings, and a discussion of the limitations and presentations of possible future research avenues. Some of the unanswered questions regarding the current research are also explored as considerations for future research. Finally, the contribution of this research is evaluated concerning what we now know about perceptions of particular sexual offences in the police service and what can influence them, and the possible directions that future research can follow. The chapter also provides concluding remarks regarding the research presented in the thesis, whilst noting the implications for real-world issues, particularly for the police service and investigations of sexual offences.

Chapter One

From "Real Rape" to Real Justice: A Systematic Review of Police Officers' Rape Myth Beliefs

This systematic review examined 19 documents that contained information about rape myths/cognitions of police officers with the goal of identifying the factors that influence police officers' beliefs of rape. Past research on sexual offence processing decisions has rarely considered the characteristics of police officers as active participants in the legal decision-making process (Alderden & Ullman, 2012), meaning that the factors that directly influence police officers' rape myths and the implications these may have on rape victims' experiences when reporting to the police remain unclear. The current review systematically examines the literature on police officers' rape myth beliefs, and evaluates the current available research regarding decision-making, victim credibility, police training and experiences, and police gender. It concludes by providing recommendations for policy makers in terms of best practice, continual police training and development, and improving rape victims' reporting experiences.

Victims' Experiences and Attrition Rates

The United Kingdom has the lowest conviction rates for rape cases in Europe (Hohl & Stanko, 2015); with rape being considered as one of the most under-reported crimes (Fisher, Daigle, & Cullen, 2008), whereby most rapes that occur never reported to the police (Hohl & Stanko, 2015). Attrition is also at its highest at the beginning of the police investigation, with victim withdrawal explaining a large proportion of attrition (Hester, 2013; Stern, 2010). Victim withdrawal may be attributable to secondary victimisation, as rape victims are at an increased risk, through negative beliefs of their credibility (Hackett, Day, & Mohr, 2008). Attrition can also be explained by rape myth conceptions, which can

include, but are not limited to, the idea that a "real" rape victim will report to the police as soon as the offence has occurred, and will also have bruising and distinguishing marks on their person (Hohl & Stanko, 2015). Some of the attempts to address the issue of attrition in rape cases include the introduction of Sexual Assault Referral Centres (SARCs), also known as Havens, address the medical and physical needs of rape victims (Hohl & Stanko, 2015). SARCs are also available in many areas to facilitate support to sexual assault victims, providing multi-agency, forensically secure one-stop services for victims (ACPO Rape Working Group, 2008). Despite such implementations, victims report dissatisfaction when reporting to the police, finding that officers are too lenient on the perpetrator, and lack sensitivity especially when the victim and perpetrator are acquaintances not complete strangers (Felson & Pare, 2008).

Rape Myths

Rape myths were first recognised in the 1970s as cultural beliefs supporting male sexual violence against women (Brownmiller, 1975; Schwendinger & Schwendinger, 1974), thereby trivialising rape (Brownmiller, 1975). Research sought to examine the cultural mythology of sexual aggression perpetrated by men against women (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994), which was theorised to be serving a similar function to that of just world beliefs (Lerner, 1980), thus blaming the victim for their own victimisation (Ryan, 1976). Rape myths were then defined in 1980 by Burt, combining social psychological and feminist theories, as "prejudicial, stereotyped, or false beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists" (p.27). Rape myths have also been conceptualised as "attitudes and beliefs that are generally false, but are widely and persistently held, and that serve to justify male sexual aggression again women" (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994, p.134). By conceptualising males as perpetrators and females as victims, these myths could be seen as denying the possibility

of males also being victims of rape (Newburn & Stanko, 1994). In the same time period, male rape research was undertaken (Zeringer, 1972), however it is still considered to be approximately twenty years behind female rape research (Rogers, 1998; Sleath & Bull, 2012). More recently, rape myths have been referred to as beliefs about rape, beliefs about victims and beliefs about perpetrators (McMahon, 2010). Such beliefs focus on ideas regarding the victim's responsibility for a sexual assault occurring or excusing the perpetrator; thus, justifying or minimising the action of someone who sexually assault another person (Payne et al., 1999). It is this gender-neutral definition of rape myths that is preferred for this thesis; primarily due to Newburn and Stanko's (1999) assertion that previous definitions of rape myths can be seen as denying the possibility that men can also be victims.

Rape myths serve many purposes, including blaming the victim whilst exonerating the perpetrator from responsibility (Anderson, 1999), implying that the victim is lying about the offence (Cuklanz, 2000; Grubb & Turner, 2012) or is to blame (Scully, 1990), and providing justifications for acquaintance rape (Johnson, Kuck, & Schander, 1997). Therefore, such beliefs have been suggested by Grubb and Turner (2012) to have a significant impact on: 1) how victims of rape are perceived, 2) how victims of rape are treated, and 3) the dissemination of a cultural acceptance of rape and a rape-supportive society.

Aim of the Current Review

Rape myths within the police service.

The aim of this review is to describe the literature that investigates rape myths within the police service, including negative cognitions/schemas of victims/perpetrators which may influence decision making in sexual assault cases. Over the past three decades (Page, 2008a) there has been limited research into police officers' rape myths (Sleath &

Bull, 2015). With attrition rates being greatest at the investigative stage of a sexual assault case (Brown, Hamilton, & O'Neill, 2007), it needs to be recognised that police officers are actively involved in the legal decision-making process and ultimately, officers' identity, social position, and past experiences may be influential in the decisions made in processing a rape case (Alderden & Ullman, 2012).

This review is the first of its kind to systematically investigate police officers' rape myths in relation to a variety of attributes, both internationally and nationally. It is essential that the review is as inclusive as possible, analysing both police officers' perspectives and capturing the impact of negative beliefs regarding sexual assault victims, which infiltrate the legal system and may impact on the decision-making process involved in sexual assault cases. The review will only examine direct empirical literature from 1980, since this year was the first conceptualisation of rape myths (Burt, 1980). Additionally, the systematic review will only include research that examines adults and police officers directly.

Method

Initial Search Strategy

A computer –assisted systematic literature review was conducted. The databases used for the initial searches were EBSCO, ERIC, PsychINFO, Scopus, Web of Science, Criminal Justice Abstracts, ScienceDirect, and PsychArticle (from 1st January 1980 to 31st December 2014). The search terms were: rape* AND myths, Rap* AND myths, "Rape Myths", "rape myths" AND "Victim blaming" AND "Perceptions", "Male Rape" AND "police training" AND "Rape Myths", Rac* OR Ethn* AND "Rape Myths", "Male rape myths " AND "police" AND Train* OR Edu* OR Teach* OR Prac*, "rape myths" AND "Victim blaming" AND "Perceptions", "just world" AND "Rape myths", and "male rape myths". These initial searches were intentionally broad in order to locate all relevant

research for the review. In addition, to ensure location of grey material, the following databases were also searched with the same search terms: Social Sciences Research Network, Grey Net, Intute, Proquest Dissertations & Theses: UK & Ireland, EThOs, Zetoc, Networked Digital Library of Theses and Dissertations (NDTLD), and OpenThesis.

Selection Criteria

For the initial screening the following primary inclusion criteria were applied:

a) Written in English.
b) Written after Burt (1980).
c) Published in a peer-reviewed journal or unpublished, not including books.

Secondary screening based on reading the title and abstract for each article excluded articles that did not:

a) Analyse rape myths/cognitions of police officers who may or may not have a comparison group (e.g. we excluded comparison groups of non-adults).
b) Analyse rape myths and/or cognitions of adults (over the age of 18; e.g. we excluded beliefs of children or adolescents).
c) Focus on beliefs of rape (male and female) or related to rape and sexual violence and beliefs related to such offences (e.g. we excluded offences against children or sexual harassment).
d) Include a measure (qualitative/quantitative) of rape myths (or cognitions related to rape myths).
e) Use empirical evidence (e.g. essay or opinion pieces were excluded from the review).

Studies that analysed case files of rape cases were also excluded from the review. The review looks specifically at police officers' beliefs of rape cases, and it is felt that in

this context, inferences cannot be made from case reports (e.g. what the officers have written) as to what the investigating officers were thinking at that time (Soulliere, 2005).

Secondary Search Strategy

Additional searches were conducted using new search terms with the same databases (excluding Proquest Dissertations & Theses: UK & Ireland was replaced with Proquest Dissertation and Thesis Global and Intute, and NDTDL was no longer active) with the same exclusion criteria. The search terms were: “police officers” AND “decision making” AND “sex offences”; “sexual assault” AND “victim credibility” AND “investigative bias”; “male sexual assault” AND police; police AND victim AND “sexual assault”; “sexual assault” AND “decision making” and police; and “police training” AND “sexual assault”.

Results

Literature Searches

The initial search applying the primary and secondary inclusion criteria identified 1484 documents (after duplicates were removed). Secondary screening based on the criteria laid out in the Methods section, and also reading the title and abstract for each article, reduced the number of articles to 38. If it was unclear if the article met the inclusion criteria or not, the article remained in the review. Full copies of all 38 articles were obtained and underwent a full screening. The screening process also ensured that rape myths/beliefs in police officers were investigated through data analyses, that the articles directly measured police officers’ beliefs, and did not use case studies. This reduced the pool of articles to 29. Additional searches were conducted using the same search terms and databases for 2015,

which yielded 3 results. After checking for duplicates (*n*=2) only one document was added, bringing up the pool to 30.

The second search identified 239 documents (*n*=51 duplicates removed), but after applying the primary and secondary inclusion criteria, 10 documents remained. After reading the abstracts and title, the sample was further reduced to 8. Overall, all searches culminated in a total of 38 documents included for the review. See Figure 1 for search strategy.

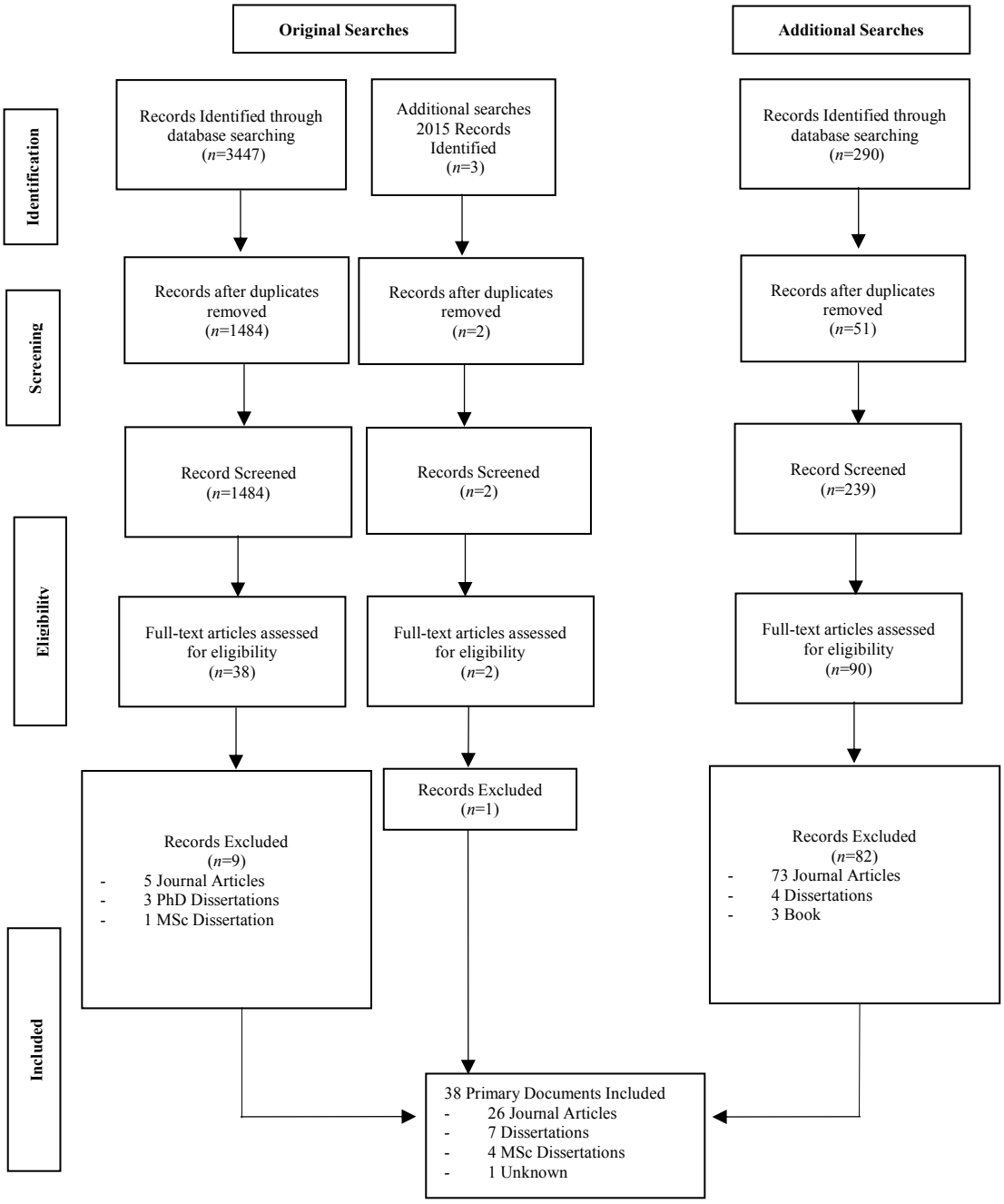


Figure 1. Prisma Diagram of Systematic Overview of Study Selection

Data Extraction and Assessment of Study Quality

For each of the identified articles, a process of data extraction was undertaken using an author-constructed form that collected information on: peer reviewed, abstract, location, sample characteristics (age range, gender, ethnicity, source of participants, number of participants), methodology (quantitative, qualitative, quasi), interventions used, key themes,

strengths of the paper, and limitations. A quality scoring system was also developed in order to rate identified studies; addressing the differences and similarities of the studies that are of importance. Differences were based on sample size, publication type, method of gathering beliefs or experiences, and validation and reliability of the methods used.

Rape is considered a sensitive and controversial topic; therefore, it may cause some officers to give biased answers in face to face interviews (Campbell, 1995). Additionally, interviews may further bias results as researchers may become familiar with officers through spending time with them for interviewing purposes (Campbell, 1995). Interviews on sensitive topics may also prompt some participants to give an official point of view, as opposed to a personal, say what the researcher wants to hear, create a good impression by not answering honestly, tend to say something even though they cannot answer the question, and the researcher may influence the participants' responses by expressing surprise or disapproval (Doody & Noonan, 2013). It is for the aforementioned reasons that interviews and focus groups were assigned a lower quality score compared to other data collection methods. Table 1 shows the scoring assigned to each category for the documents.

Table 1.

Scoring System for Quality of Police Belief Papers

		Validity Score			Validity Score
Publication	Peer reviewed	3	Method of gathering beliefs	Self-report Survey	2
	PhD Dissertation	2		Focus group	1
	MSc Dissertation	1		Semi-structured Interview	1
	Unknown	0		Mixed Methodology	3
Sample Size	0-50	0	Validity and reliability of rape myths measure	No information on reliability/validity provided.	0
	51-100	1		Citation to the original study provided but no reliability/validity.	1
	101-200	2		Author constructed, but data provided on reliability/validity scores for the present study.	2
	201-400	3		Citation to the original study (established method/scale) and provided reliability/validity for current study.	3
	401+	4			

Scoring in Table 1 was adapted from a systematic review on juries' assessment of rape victims (Dinos, Burrowes, Hammond, & Cunliffe, 2015). As no previous research has systematically gathered research on police officers' rape myths, Dinos et al.'s (2015) quality scoring was adapted due to the similar topic nature to the current review.

The documents in the current review varied greatly in standards, which is reflected in the scoring system to assess overall quality of each document. Using the median (i.e. 8), documents were grouped into three themes: low quality (0-4), medium quality (5-8), and high quality (9-13). Based on the quality scoring of the documents they will now be

presented via their quality scoring themes. The highest scoring document achieved a score of 13 (see Table 2); the lowest, a score of 2 (see Table 4), and the average score was 8 (see Table 3). Seven documents fell within the low quality-scoring category, 14 fell into the medium quality-scoring category and 17 fell into the high quality-scoring category.

Table 2 shows the 17 studies that scored highly on the quality scoring sheet, along with each study's sample size, design (including measures used) and quality score. Most studies that fell into this category were peer-reviewed journals (14 documents; 82.35%), with the remaining being PhD dissertations (three documents; 17.65%). The majority of these documents also had a high number of participants, with nine documents (52.94%) having over 401 participants, six documents (35.29%) having between 101-200 participants, one document (5.88%) having between 201- 400, and one document (5.88%) having between 51-100 participants. The majority of the documents measured officers' beliefs through self-report surveys (14 documents; 82.35%), with the remaining using mixed methodology (three documents; 17.65%), which included self-report surveys and role-playing simulated rape interviews, vignettes and interviews. In terms of reliability and validity, four documents (23.53%) constructed their own measures, and provided information on reliability/validity scores for their study, 12 documents (70.59%) cited the original study (if they used an established method or scale) and provided validity and reliability for their current study, and one document (5.88%) did not provide any information on reliability or validity.

Table 2.

Summary of High Scoring Studies that Identified Factors Influencing Police Beliefs

Publication	Sampling		Design/Measure(s)	Quality of Study
Author(s), year of publication	Total Police Sample	Other Sample		Quality Score
Baldry (1996)	130	-	• Videotaped Testimonies (author constructed); Perceived Credibility Scale (Winkel & Koppelaar, 1991, 1992)	10
Campbell (1995)	91	-	• Experience with Rape Scale (EWR) (author constructed); Training on Rape- The Helpfulness of Training Likert items (author constructed); The Sexualized Work Environment Scale (SWES) (modified from Gutek, Cohen Konrad, 1990); The Attitudes Towards Women Scale (Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1973); Adversarial Sexual Beliefs and Acceptance of Interpersonal Violence (Burt, 1980); and Attitudes Towards Date Rape Scale (author constructed). Three open-ended questions (author constructed) on influential factors on officers' beliefs of date rape	9
Lee, Lee, and Lee (2012)	236	-	• Korean Rape Myth Acceptance Scale-Revised (KRMAS-R) (Oh & Neville, 2004); vignette questions adapted from the Rape-Supportive Attributions Scale (Monson, Langhinrichsen-Rohling, & Binderup, 2000); The Attitudes Toward Women Scale (AWS) (Spence & Helmreich, 1978)	11
Lonsway (1996)	161	-	• Post-recruit judgement Likert scale (author-constructed); Role play ratings Likert scale (author-constructed); Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (IRMA) (Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald, 1999); simulated interview; baseline curriculum; experimental workshop; integrated workshop	9

Lonsway, Welch, and Fitzgerald (2001)	608	-	• Police Training Program (experimental, baseline, workshop); background information questionnaire (author constructed); Knowledge of Sexual Assault Response Scale (author constructed); IRMA (Payne et al., 1999); simulated sexual assault interview (role playing), role player evaluation questionnaire (author constructed); Post interview recruit judgements (author constructed) adapted from Victim Evaluation Questionnaire (Naber, 1991; Wyer, Bodenhausen, & Gorman, 1985)	13
Muram, Hellman, and Cassinello (1995)	977	-	• 10 statements regarding sexual assault on a 4-point Likert scale (author constructed)	9
Page (2007)	891	-	• Rape Myth Acceptance Scale-Revised (RMA-R) (adapted from Burt, 1980); Victim Credibility Scale (VCS) (author constructed)	11
Page (2008a)	891	-	• RMA-R (adapted from Burt, 1980); Non-Genuine Victim Scale (NGVS) (Spohn & Horney, 1996)	12
Page, (2008b)	891	-	• Old Fashioned Sexism Scale (OFSS) and Modern Sexism Scale (MSS) (Swim, Aikin, Hall, & Hunter, 1995); Victim Credibility Scale (VCS) (Page, 2007); RMA-R (adapted from Burt, 1980)	12
Page (2010)	891	-	• RMA-R (adapted from Burt, 1980); VCS (Page, 2007); Feedback on survey instrument (author constructed)	12
Rich and Seffrin (2012)	429	-	• Knowledge of Interview Techniques Scale (KIT-author constructed); Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (author constructed); Sexual Assault Education Scale (author constructed); several author-constructed items: number of sexual assault cases victims known personally, years as a police officer and rank; general education, agency type	11
Rich and Seffrin (2013)	429	-	• Crime victim advocacy measure (CVA; author constructed); Victims known personal item (author constructed); KIT (author constructed); Sexual Assault Education item (author constructed); Number of sexual assault cases item (author constructed); years as police officer and rank (author constructed); general education item (author constructed);	11

			gender item; age and agency type; Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (author constructed)	
Rich and Seffrin (2014)	429	-	• CVA (Rich & Seffrin, 2013); author constructed items: sexual assault education; attitudes towards training; negative comments towards rape victims; reporting rape to the police; victims known personally; number of sexual assault cases; years as a police officer and rank; general education; gender and age; and agency type; Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (author constructed)	11
Sleath (2011)	123	-	• Victim and perpetrator blaming scale (Sleath & Bull, 2010); belief in a just world (Dalbert, Montada, & Schmitt, 1987); Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) (Bem, 1981); IRMA (Payne et al., 1999); and vignettes (author constructed)	9
Sleath and Bull (2012)	123	-	• Vignettes(Sleath & Bull, 2010); Victim and Perpetrator Blaming Scale (Sleath & Bull, 2010); General belief in a just world (Dalbert et al., 1987); BSRI (Bem, 1981); IRMA (Payne et al., 1999)	10
Sleath and Bull (2015)	123	147 psychology students; 82 law students	• IRMA (Payne et al., 1999)	10
Venema (2013)	184	-	• Semi-structured interviews; vignettes (author constructed), open-ended item on questions officers would ask regarding vignette (author constructed); 3 Likert type questions on legitimization of vignettes (author constructed); 4 Likert type questions on behavioural intent (author constructed); 3 Likert type questions on attitude towards behaviour (author constructed); Subjective Norm measures (author constructed); Compliance with Subjective Norm measure (author constructed); Perceived Behavioural Control measure (author constructed); Decisional Frames (author constructed); Attribution of Blame Scale (Bieneck & Krahe, 2011); Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (author constructed) developed from Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale- Short Form (IRMA-SF) (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994) and Subtle Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (McMahon & Farmer, 2011); The Marlowe-Crown Social Desirability Scale-Short Form (Reynolds, 1982)	10

Table 3 highlights the studies that fell into the medium-quality scoring category. Of the 14 studies that fell into this category, many were peer reviewed (nine documents; 64.29%), with the remaining being PhD dissertations (two documents; 14.29%), and MSc dissertations (two documents; 14.29%) and one unknown (7.14%). These documents mainly consisted of low sample sizes, with two having 50 participants or less (14.29%), followed by five documents (35.71%) including between 51-100 participants, three documents (21.43%) having between 101-200 participants, two documents (14.29%) having between 201-400 participants, and two (14.29%) document having over 401 participants. These documents also measured officers' beliefs through self-report measures (13 documents; 92.86%), followed by mixed methodology (one document; 7.14%). In terms of reliability, five documents (35.71%) provided no information on the reliability or validity of the measures used, four documents (28.57%) cited the original authors but did not provide information on reliability or validity for current study, three documents (21.43%) cited the original authors and provided information on validity/reliability for the current study and the remaining (two documents; 14.29%) used author-constructed measures and provided information on validity/reliability for their own research.

Table 3.

Summary of Medium Scoring Quality-Scoring Studies of Officers' Beliefs of Rape

Publication	Sampling		Design/Measure(s)	Quality of Study
Author(s), year of publication	Total Police Sample	Other Sample		Quality Score
Abdullah-Khan (2002)	93	16 sexual assault victims	• Author constructed questionnaire	5
Areh, Mesko and Umek (2009)	1,000	-	• Vignettes, and questionnaire including personal descriptions of vignettes measured on a 7-point scale (Fischer, 2000)	5
Brown and King (1998)	50	50 students	• Hyper Masculinity Scale (Mosher & Sirkin, 1984); Hyper femininity Scale (Murnen & Byrne, 1991); Short Form on Attitudes Towards Women (Spence, et al., 1973); General Attitudes Towards Rape Scale (Larsen & Long, 1988); and Acceptance of Interpersonal Violence Scale (Burt, 1980)	6
Darwinkel, Powell and Tidmarsh (2013)	77	-	• Training course; vignettes and vignette questionnaires on 10-point Likert scale and 1 open-ended vignette question (author constructed)	6
Fay (2013)	85	-	• Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (IRMA) (Payne et al., 1999)	8
Goodman-Delahunty and Graham (2011)	125	-	• Vignette and questionnaire with Likert items (author constructed), IRMA-SF (Payne et al., 1999)	8
Kinney, Bruns, Bradley, Dantzler and Weist (2008)	301	125 sexual assault victims	• Author constructed survey	8
Mennicke, Anderson, Oehme and Kennedy	149	-	• Qualitative questions on definition of rape (Campbell & Johnson, 1997) and beliefs of unfounded rape claims (author	8

(2014)			constructed); RMA-R(Page, 2007); background questionnaire (author constructed)	
Rhim (2005)	26	-	• RMA (Burt, 1980); Attitudes Towards Rape Victims Scale (ARVS) (Ward, 1988)	6
Schuller and Stewart (2000)	212	-	• Vignettes (author-constructed), author constructed Likert items (assessing credibility, attribution of blame, case evaluation, response to complaint, and perceived levels of intoxication)	8
Schwartz (2010)	286	-	• Semi-structured interviews, using questions drawn from Rape Myths Scale (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1995); the Rape Attitude and Perception Questionnaire (Hinck & Thomas, 1999); the Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (Carmody & Washington, 2001), and questions drawn from the qualitative interviews with sexual assault investigators; author constructed questionnaire-questions drawn from Cochran and Bromley (2003 cited by Schwartz 2010) and "Dr Edith Lynn of Kean College" (Schawartz, 2010, p.37).	8
Stephanus (2006)	100	-	• Rape Scenarios (Simonson & Subich, 1999); AWS-Short Form (Spence & Helmreich, 1978); BSRI (Bem, 1981); ARVS (Ward, 1988)	7
Westera, Kebbell and Milne (2011)	136	-	• A quasi-experimental questionnaire including Likert scale items and open-ended items (author-constructed); mock rape investigative case (author constructed)	7
Wentz and Archbold (2012)	100	-	• Vignettes (Schuller & Stewart, 2000); author-constructed questionnaire both Likert items and open-ended items.	8

Low quality-scoring studies are shown in Table 4. The seven studies that fell into this category were a mixture of peer-reviewed journals (four documents; 57.14%), PhD dissertations (two documents; 28.57%) and a MSc dissertation (one document; 14.29%). These documents also had a low number of participants, with all of them having fewer than 50.

Table 4.

Summary of Low Quality-Scoring Studies of Officers' Beliefs of Rape

Publication	Sampling		Design/Measure(s)	Quality of Study
Author(s), year of publication	Total Police Sample	Other Sample		Quality Score
Barrett and Hamilton-Giachritsis (2013)	22	-	• Vignettes and simulated investigation materials (author constructed), and structured interview	4
Campbell, Menaker and King (2015)	44	-	• Semi-structured interviews	4
Hellmann (2005)	6	-	• Semi-structured interviews	2
Javaid (2014)	3		• Semi-structured interviews	4
King (2009)	14	-	• Semi-structured interviews, using Jordan (2001) and Campbell (2001) interview guideline questions; 10 scenarios partially modelled from the Rape Empathy Scale (Deitz, Blackwell, Daley, & Bentley, 1982); vignette open-ended questions (author constructed)	3
Shoultz (2011)	11	-	• Focus groups	3
Venema (2014)	10	-	• Semi-structured interviews	4

Table 4 shows that all low scoring documents utilized primarily interviews or focus groups when assessing police officers' beliefs regarding rape. The decision was made to re-asses medium and low quality scoring studies that specifically implemented qualitative methodology; using the Consolidated Criteria for Reporting Qualitative Research (COREQ) 32-item checklist, which enables comprehensive reporting of qualitative research (Tong, Sainsbury, & Craig, 2007). We implemented and adapted the COREQ version by Katz et al. (2013), assessing the documents in Table 4 on the following criteria: 1) researchers' role; 2) sampling method; 3) data collection method; 4) analyses; and 5) type of paper. Such studies were re-assigned a qualitative quality score which determined if they should be kept in the review (see Table 5).

Table 5.

Summary of Qualitative Quality-Scoring of Previously Low-Quality Scoring Studies

Publication	Quality of Study
Author(s), year of publication	Qualitative Quality Score
Barrett and Hamilton-Giachritsis (2013)	6
Campbell et al. (2015)	6
Hellmann (2005)	7
Javaid (2014)	6
King (2009)	6
Schwartz (2010)	1
Shoultz (2011)	5
Venema (2014)	6
Wentz and Archbold (2012)	7
Westera et al. (2011)	6

Using the median (i.e. six), qualitative documents were summarized into three themes: low quality (0-3), medium quality (4-6), and high quality (seven). One document fell within the low quality-scoring category, seven fell into the medium quality-scoring category, and two fell into the high quality-scoring category. Low scoring and medium scoring studies were excluded from any further analyses as it is essential that only high-quality articles are included in the review. This resulted in a total of 19 high quality scoring studies being included.

Are there Factors that Influence Officers' Beliefs of Rape?

Methodological findings.

Location and sample.

Table 6 demonstrates the location and methodological findings of the documents that analysed beliefs of rape within the police service. The majority of studies were conducted in the USA, followed by the UK, with a small number of studies in various other locations. Most failed to identify the race and ethnicity of participants, and of those that did, the majority identified their samples as being over 60% white. For gender, documents were largely non-diverse, with most identifying that over 60% of their participants were male. Thus, overall, studies analysing police beliefs of rape were from white male officers.

Table 6.

Study Characteristics of Remaining High-Quality Articles in Review for Police Officers' Beliefs

Study characteristics (N=19 studies) [1]	*M (SD)*	Range	*n*	%
Publication type				
Peer-reviewed journal article			15	77.78
PhD Dissertation			3	16.67
Masters Dissertation			1	5.56
Interventions				
Mixed methodology			3	16.67
Self-report questionnaire			14	77.78
Interview			1	5.56
Study location				
United States of America			13	66.67
United Kingdom			3	16.67
South Korea			1	5.56
South Africa			1	5.56
Unknown			1	5.56
Type of data gathered				
Quantitative			13	72.22
Qualitative			1	5.56
Mixed methods			5	22.22
Study population race/ethnicity				
>60% White			8	44.44
<60% White			0	0.00
Not reported			11	55.56
Study population gender				
>60% male			14	72.22
>60% female			0	0.00
Diverse (no group more than 60%)			5	27.78
Total sample size[1]	405.95(342.93)	6-977		

Note.

[1] Sample size range within studies, including mean, standard deviation and minimum and maximum number of participants

Measuring beliefs within the high-quality scoring studies.

Out of the 19 high quality scoring documents, five documents (26.32%; Page, 2007; Rich & Seffrin, 2012, 2013, 2014; Wentz & Archbold, 2012), received a score of two for reliability and validity of their measure(s) due to administering author constructed methods,

and providing validity and reliability scores. Two documents (10.53%; Hellmann, 2005; Muram et al., 1995) were assigned a quality-score of zero for their reliability and validity of measures used, as they failed to provide information on reliability/validity. Lastly, 12 documents (63.16%; Baldry, 1996; Campbell 1995; Lee et al., 2012; Lonsway, 1996; Lonsway et al., 2001; Page, 2008a, 2008b, 2010; Sleath, 2011; Sleath & Bull, 2012; Sleath & Bull, 2015; Venema, 2013), received a score of three on the quality of their study for reliability and validity due to providing a citation of the original study for the established scale/measure and the validity and reliability of the measure(s) for their current study (see Table 7).

Table 7.

Studies that Scored High on Providing Reliability/Validity in High-Quality Studies using Established Measures for Police Beliefs

Measures used (N=12 studies)	Details	α	*n*	%
Adversarial Sexual Beliefs and Acceptance of Interpersonal Violence (Burt, 1980)	Measures opinions on dating and violence in intimate relationships.	0.89[b]	1	8.33
Attribution of Blame Scale (Bieneck & Krahé, 2011)	Measures aspects of victim and suspect responsibility and blameworthiness.		1	8.33
	- Victim blame items	0.76[l]		
	- Perpetrator blame items	0.84[l]		
AWS (Spence & Helmreich, 1978)	Measures attitudes towards the right and roles of women.	0.70[c]	1	8.33
BSRI (Bem, 1981)	Participants' beliefs of their masculine and feminine attributes, including a degree to which individuals are masculine, feminine and undifferentiated.		2	16.67
	- Masculine items	0.79[i] 0.71[j]		
	- Feminine items	0.88[i] 0.90[j]		
General Belief in a Just World (Dalbert et al., 1987)	Measured a general belief in a just world.	0.77[k] 0.77[l]	2	16.67
IRMA (Payne et al., 1999)	Assesses rape myth beliefs.	0.93[d] 0.92[e] 0.96[i]	5	41.67

		0.96[j] 0.95[k]		
KRMAS-R (Oh & Neville, 2004)	Measures level of acceptance of rape myths among Koreans, and consists of two subscales.		1	8.33
	- Rape survivor myths	0.73[c]		
	- Myths about the impact of rape	0.84[c]		
NGVS (Spohn & Horney, 1995)	Measures opposing characteristics of genuine rape victims based on vignettes.	0.94[f]	1	8.33
OFSS and MSS (Swim et al., 1995)	Assesses stereotyped sexist attitudes associated with hegemonic masculinity as well as subtle forms of modern-day sexism.		1	8.33
	- OFSS	0.73[g]		
	- MSS	0.77[g]		
Perceived Credibility Scale (Winkle & Koppelaar, 1991, 1992)	Measured perceived credibility of a man and a woman in videos.		1	8.33
	- Woman's credibility	0.85[a]		
	- Woman's responsibility	0.84[a]		
	- Man's credibility	0.86[a]		
	- Man's responsibility	0.80[a]		
Perpetrator Blaming Scale (Sleath & Bull, 2010)	Assesses perpetrator blaming.	0.60[j] 0.60[i]	2	16.67

RMA-R (Page, 2007)	Adapted from Burt's (1980) RMAS, assessing endorsement of rape myths.	0.75[f] 0.75[g] 0.75[h]	3	25.00
The Attitudes Towards Women Scale (Spence et al., 1973)	Modified version of Spence et al. (1973). Measures opinions towards rights and roles of women in society.	0.82[b]	1	8.33
The Sexualized Work Environment Scale (SWES)	Adapted from Gutek et al. (1990) Sexualized Work Environment Scale	0.83[b]	1	8.33
Victim Blaming Scale (Sleath & Bull, 2010)	Assesses victim blaming.	0.77[j] 0.70[i]	2	16.67
VCS (Page, 2007)	Measures how believable a certain victim would be to individual police officers.	0.81[g] 0.81[h]	2	16.67

Note.

[a] Baldry (1996) [b] Campbell (1995) [c] Lee et al. (2012) [d] Lonsway (1996); [e]Lonsway et al. (2001) [f] Page (2008a) [g] Page (2008b) [h] Page (2010)

[i] Sleath (2011) [j] Sleath and Bull (2012) [k] Sleath and Bull (2015) [l] Venema (2013)

Rape myth questionnaires.

Table 7 shows the details of the established scales used in the 12 documents that scored highly on reliability. For rape myth scales, the IRMA (Payne et al., 1999) was one of the most implemented measures within these documents, and consists of 40 rape myth items, including five filler items designed to reduce the effects of response set (Sleath & Bull, 2012). There are seven subscales: "She asked for it", "It wasn't really rape" "He didn't mean to", "She wanted it", "She lied", "Rape is a trivial event", and "Rape is a deviant event" (Sleath & Bull, 2012). Participants indicate their level of agreement to items on a 7-point scale, 1 (very strongly disagree) to 7 (very strongly agree), with a neutral mid-point of 4 (neither agree or disagree). An example item would be "If a woman is raped while she is drunk, she is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of control". McMahon and Farmer (2011) developed a slightly revised version of the IRMA, because of concerns about the language used in the IRMA; the Subtle Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (McMahon & Farmer, 2011), and it is thought to eliminate potential bias or strong language (e.g. caught having an illicit affair), and replaced it with more common vernacular (e.g. caught cheating) (Venema, 2013). Additionally, the Subtle Rape Myth Acceptance Scale uses the word "girl" rather than "woman."

The next most commonly used rape myth measure (see Table 7) was the RMA-R (designed by Page, 2007) and adapted from Burt's (1980) RMAS. Page (2007) altered Burt's (1980) scale by removing items that appeared outdated, and deleted the hitchhiking item, feeling that the practice is no longer common, and deleted the "stuck-up" and "drunk at a party" items as they were double-barrelled items and were unclear. Several other double-barrelled items in the original scale were either separated into individual items or shortened. Page (2007) also changed gendered items into gender-neutral items to coincide with a change in the law in the USA, as at the time when Burt (1980) designed the RMA,

rape was seen as a crime against women, whereas now in America is it legally possible for a man to be raped.

The KRMAS-R was used once within the 12 studies (Table 7). It was developed by Oh and Neville (2004) to measure the level of rape myth endorsement among Koreans, consisting of two subscales: (a) rape survivor myths and (b) myths about the impact of rape. The rape survivor myths subscale comprises of 12 items, largely adopted from the IRMA (Payne et al., 1999), and means across items were calculated, with higher scores indicating greater endorsement of rape survivor myths. The myths about the impact of rape subscale comprises of nine items, reflecting the belief that rape is related to losing one's chastity, which is the unique cultural dimension of rape myths in South Korea (Oh & Neville, 2004).

Other questionnaires.

These questionnaires measured a variety of beliefs, which do not include rape myths but cover beliefs related to rape and sexual offences.

The BSRI (Bem, 1981) was implemented twice out of the 12 documents, and places participants into four unique gender roles according to the participants' beliefs of their masculine and feminine attributes; including the degree to which individuals are masculine, feminine and undifferentiated, consisting of 30 items on a 7-point Likert-type scale. The BSRI has been criticized for its' underlying structure and construct measurement (Colley et al., 2009; cited by Sleath, 2011) meaning that the effects of gender role traits and role of victim blaming may be obscured. Sleath (2011) suggests that the structure still needs to be fully validated, despite her attempting to guard against this by using the current Choi, Fuqua, and Newman (2009) structures of femininity, social masculinity, and personal masculinity.

The VCS (Page, 2007) was implemented twice, and measures how believable a certain victim would be to individual police officers with varying characteristics, and serves

as a more specific measure of rape myth acceptance than the RMA-R (Page, 2007). Page (2007) developed the VCS from Burt's (1980) RMAS questions that did not factor load on other questions in their analyses. Page (2007) reworked items relating to age, sex, profession and marital status, with items ranging on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from "very unlikely" to "very likely".

The Victim and Perpetrator Blaming Scale (Sleath & Bull, 2010) was implemented twice and consists of two subscales: The Victim Blaming scale (items one, three, five, nine, 10, and 11), and the Perpetrator Blaming scale (items six, seven, eight, and 13). Scores on both scales were averaged out in order to allow for comparisons between victim and perpetrator blaming (Sleath & Bull, 2012).

The General Belief in a Just World (Dalbert et al., 1987), was implemented twice in the 12 documents (16.67%), and measures a general belief in a just world by using six statements with officers answering on a 6-point Likert-style scale.

The remaining questionnaires were used only once within the 12 documents. The OFSS and MSS (Swim et al., 1995) measures stereotyped sexist attitudes associated with hegemonic masculinity, as well as the more subtle forms of modern day sexism. The response set for both scales ranged from ‘‘strongly disagree’’ to ‘‘strongly agree’’ and used a 5-point scale. The scales were formulated from the Modern Racism Scale (McConahay, 1986) and were adapted to apply to women.

The Perceived Credibility Scale (Winkle & Koppelaar, 1991, 1992) measured perceived credibility of a man and woman in videos (when used by Baldry, 1996). All responses are measured on a 7-point scale, 1= certainly not to 7= certainly.

The Attribution of Blame Scale (Bieneck & Krahe, 2011) measures participants' evaluation of victim and perpetrator responsibility and blameworthiness, consisting of eight items on a 7-point rating scale, whereby 1 represented "not at all" and 7 represents "very

much", and includes two subscales: suspect blame and victim blame which consist of four items. An example would be "Do you think the victim is to blame for the incident?". Subtracting the participants' victim blame score from the participants' total victim blame score creates suspect blame.

The NGVS (Spohn & Horney, 1996) is based on opposing characteristics that make up the "genuine" victim ideal (Page, 2008a). According to research by Spohn and Horney (1996), the perceived ideal is seen as a virgin who is unacquainted with the perpetrator, who screamed and who physically resisted the assault and/or reported the incident to the police within 24 hours (Page 2008a). Participants are offered the opposite of such characteristics, and are provided with a response set ranging from "very unlikely" to "very likely" on a 5-point scale.

The AWS (Spence & Helmreich, 1978) measures attitudes towards the rights and roles of women. Participants rate their opinions on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "disagree strongly" to "agree strongly". An example would be "Women earning as much as their dates should bear equally the expense when they go out together".

The Acceptance of Interpersonal Violence Scale (Burt, 1980) measures the endorsement of violence and coercion as appropriate and legitimate methods in interpersonal interactions; specifically, sexual relationships. The Adversarial Sexual Beliefs Scale (Burt, 1980) measures participants' beliefs regarding heterosexual relationships. Both scales are measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". The Adversarial Sexual Beliefs consists of five items, with an example being "A man's got to show the women who's boss right from the start or he'll end up henpecked". The Acceptance of Interpersonal Violence consists of six items with an example would be "being roughed up is sexually stimulating for women".

The Attitudes Towards Women Scale (Spence et al., 1973) measures opinions towards the rights and roles of women in society. Campbell (1995) revised the original version by Spence et al. (1973), which consists of 25 items on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree'. Campbell (1995) dropped five items from the original scale due to ambiguous wording and dropped a further 10 items due to low factor values which were reported by Spence et al. (1973). Scores from participants were averaged out to create the final scale and several items were reverse scored (for more details see Campbell, 1995).

The Sexualized Work Environment Scale (Campbell 1995) was a modified version of the Gutek et al. (1990) scale. The original scale measured the frequency participants engaged in various activities, for example flirting that occurs in the workplace. Participants would answer on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from "very frequently" to "not frequently at all". Scores were then averaged to create the scale, with higher scores indicating that participants felt that their working environment was more sexualized and that sexual harassment was a problem in their workplace (Campbell, 1995). Campbell (1995) dropped one item from the original scale due to low item-total correlation.

Overall findings of factors related to police beliefs of rape.

Out of the remaining high-quality documents, several factors were analysed that covered essentially four elements: victim/crime scene characteristics, police personal characteristics, beliefs/attitudes and professional characteristics, which can be seen in Figure 2.

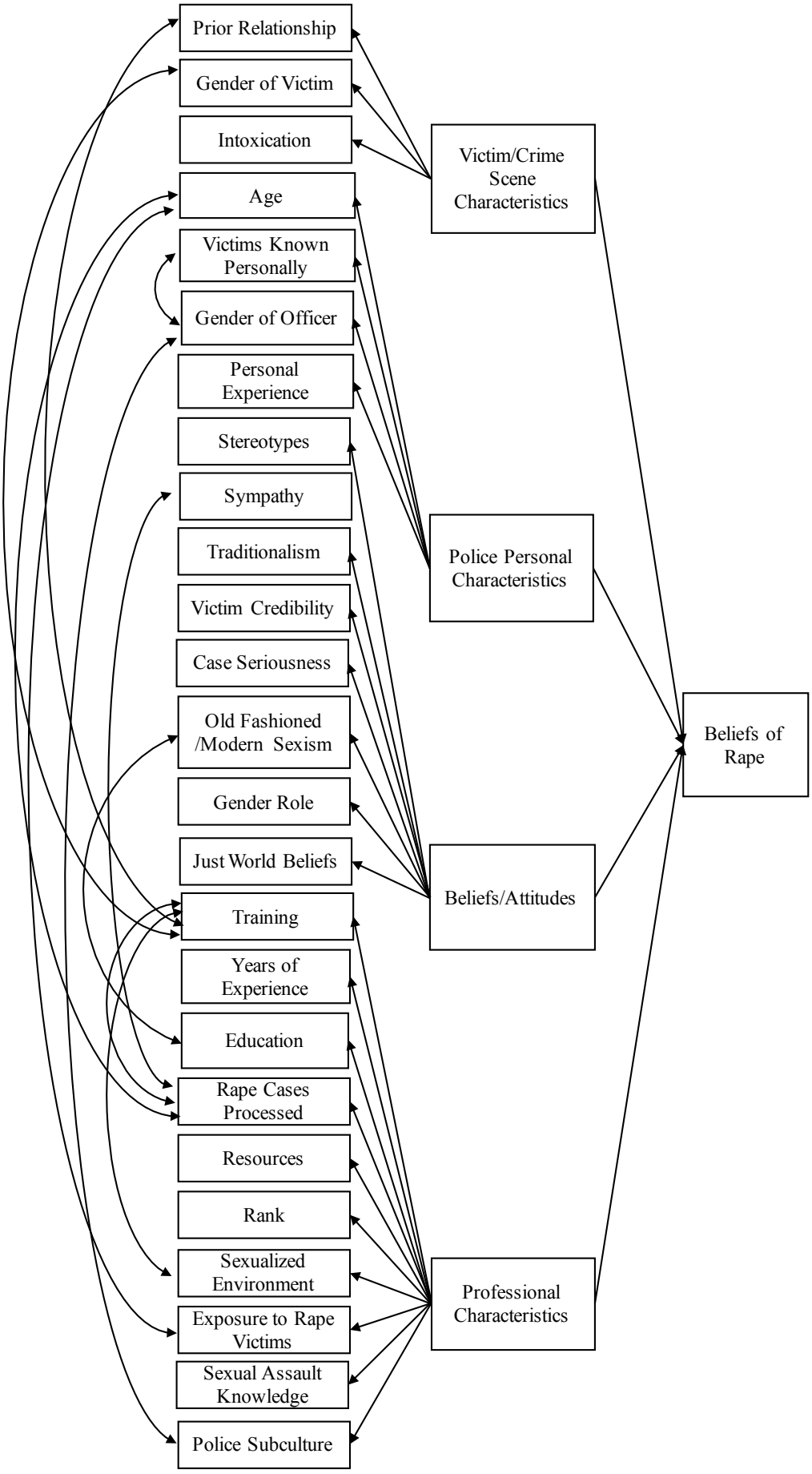


Figure 2. Model of the factors related to officers' beliefs of rape in the systematic review.

Figure 2 highlights the main factors that have been encountered in the remaining 19 documents in the review. Figure 2 also demonstrates that several factors are inter-related in explaining officers' beliefs of rape. The nature of these interactions and other factors are discussed in further detail below.

Victim/crime scene characteristics.

Five (26.32%) out of the 19 documents analysed factors associated with the victim or crime scene and how these influenced officers' beliefs. Such documents highlight that prior relationship between the victim and the perpetrator may influence officers' beliefs of rape. Acquaintance rape victims were blamed more, than those involved in stranger rape (Sleath, 2011; Sleath & Bull, 2012). Venema (2013) also found that in qualitative interviews, prior relationship led to officers' perceiving the case as ambiguous and not legitimate. However, in their self-report surveys, Venema (2013) found that prior relationship had no effect on beliefs of the suspect and victim and behavioural intentions. Venema (2013) also found that in qualitative interviews, victim intoxication resulted in officers' believing the case to be more ambiguous, not legitimate or completely false. However, self-report measures did not show this effect on officers' beliefs about the victim, or how they would continue with the case.

The remaining documents in this category focused on the gender of the victim in relation to officers' beliefs surrounding rape. One study found that female rape victims were believed more than a male perpetrator regardless of how the victim was dressed (Baldry, 1996). In Hellmann (2005), a study conducted in South Africa, officers placed responsibility on the male rape victim, believing that the victim should have been able to fend off the assault. When comparing officers' beliefs of female rape to male rape, many officers did not believe that male rape was possible. In addition, officers also exhibited several male rape myths; specifically, that a man cannot be raped, and that only

homosexual men can be raped. They also endorsed the belief that male rape victims cannot be taken seriously as they should be strong and able to protect themselves.

Beliefs and attitudes of officers.

Table 8 lists the factors of influence related to the general beliefs and attitudes of officers' and how these can influence their beliefs of rape. Stereotypes appeared to be highly influential in officers' beliefs of rape, where in most, but not all, officers had pre-conceived ideas of what a genuine victim presents as, and when victims do not fit such stereotypes, they are believed to be less credible than those that do.

Table 8.

The Influence of Stereotypes on Officers' Beliefs of Rape

Publication	Finding(s) Related to Beliefs of Rape
Baldry (1996)	• Police officers had a pre-conceived idea that a woman who has been raped should be emotional. • Even though a victim did not fit officers' stereotype (shocked and emotional), they did not hold her anymore responsible. • Victim who was not shocked or emotional was believed less than one that was.
Page (2008a)	• Victims who adhered to "genuine victim" stereotypes were more likely to be believed and officers assigned less rape myths to these individuals than victims who did not.
Page (2010)	• Police officers generally endorsed some rape myths whilst discounting others and deemed victims with certain characteristics (e.g. virgin, a professional woman) more credible than others (e.g. a man, a prostitute).
Venema (2013)	• Beliefs that false reporting is prevalent, and real or serious rapes involve strangers, injury, and weapons, as opposed to acquaintances and incapacitated or under-the-influence victims.

Five (26.32%) out of the 19 documents also highlighted a variety of beliefs/attitudes relating to rape, which are presented in Table 9. Some studies found that traditional beliefs and sexist attitudes are related to rape myth endorsement. This is logical considering that rape myths serve to support sexual violence against women by men (Brownmiller, 1975; Schwendinger & Schwendinger, 1974), which supports the notion that women should be subordinate to male domination (Lee et al., 2012).

Table 9.

Beliefs and Attitudes of Officers' and How They Influence Officers' Beliefs of Rape

Publication	Factor(s) of Influence	Finding(s) Related to Beliefs of Rape
Lee et al. (2012)	Traditional Views	• Officers who had more traditional beliefs of women tended to have stronger rape survivor myths, leading to greater rape supportive attitudes.
	Rape Myths	• Officers who had stronger beliefs in rape survivor myths tended to also have greater rape-supportive attributions.
Lonsway (1996)	Rape Myths	• Rejecting rape myths related to increase in probable arrest in simulated rape case. • Rape myth rejection associated with increased likelihood of believing victim and their story.
	Victim Credibility	• Victim credibility associated with perceived victim harm, incident seriousness, probable cause to arrest, and believing that the perpetrator should be prosecuted and convicted. • Victim credibility associated with victim role-player evaluations of police performance in simulated rape interview.
	Seriousness of Case	• Perceived seriousness of the incident related to increased perceived victim harm, identifying probable cause, and greater police belief that the suspect should be convicted. • Perceived seriousness of the incident related to more favourable victim ratings in interview content, and greater victim belief that the officer will make an arrest.
Page (2008b)	OFFS/ MSS	• Officers did not endorse blatantly sexist attitudes. • Officers who accepted more rape myths were more likely to endorse old-fashioned and modern sexism.
Sleath (2011)	Gender Role	• Gender role did not predict female victim blaming.
	Just World	• Belief in a just world decreases victim blaming. • Belief in a just world did not predict perpetrator blaming.

Sleath and Bull (2012)	Gender Role	• Androgynous gender role blamed perpetrator more than undifferentiated gender role. No significant effect for victim blaming.
	Rape Myths	• Rape myth acceptance significantly predicted victim blame but not perpetrator blaming.

Personal Characteristics of Officers

Nine (47.37%) out of the 19 documents included personal characteristics of police officers in relation to their beliefs of rape. Table 10 demonstrates the factors of influence related to these personal characteristics, specifically gender and how it relates to officers' beliefs of rape. Gender was influential, in that female officers, overall, appear to have more positive perceptions of rape victims compared to their male colleagues.

Table 10.

The Influence of Personal Characteristics on Officers' Beliefs of Rape

Publication	Factor(s) of Influence	Finding(s) Related to Beliefs of Rape
Campbell (1995)	• Personal Experiences	• Personal experiences such as being a rape victim or having a daughter who could be a victim, prompted them to take rape cases more seriously
Muram et al. (1995)	• Gender	• Male officers compared to female officers were more likely to agree that homosexuals can rape men. Difference disappeared after training.
Rich and Seffrin (2012)	• Gender	• Female officers had lower rape myths than male officers. • Regardless of rank, years of experience, agency types, female officers were better adapted than male officers in interviewing suspects of rape.
Rich and Seffrin (2013)	• Gender	• Female officers used victim advocates more extensively that their male colleagues, which resulted in better statements. Although gender was less significant than sexual assault training.
	• Victims Known Personally	• Officers who knew victims personally were more likely to collaborate with advocates in rape cases.
Rich and Seffrin (2014)	• Gender	• Female officers showed more enthusiasm than male colleagues in working with victim advocates. • Female officers more likely to make personal contact with advocacy agency and involve them early in the process.
Sleath (2011)	• Gender	• Male officers blamed the rape victim more than female officers when there were high rape myth elements in scenario, compared to low rape myth scenario. • Female officers blamed the female victim more when there were low rape myths in the scenario than male police officers.
Sleath and Bull (2012)	• Gender	• Male police officers blamed the rape victim significantly more when there was a higher level of rape myths present in the scenario compared to when there was a lower level.

		• Female officers blamed the female victim more when there were low rape myths in the scenario than male police officers.
Sleath and Bull (2015)	• Gender	• Significant effect found between males accepting more rape myths than female police officers. On particular subscales ("she lied"), male officers and male students accepted more rape myths than male psychology students. Female officers accepted "she lied" to a higher degree than female law and psychology students.
Wentz and Archbold (2012)	• Gender	• Qualitative data suggested that female police officers held more negative views of rape victims than male officers. • Quantitative data suggested no difference in relation to gender and perceptions.

Professional characteristics.

Professional characteristics covered elements that were related to the profession of being a police officer, such as training, experience (years of service, and processing rape cases), education, resources, and police subculture. Table 11 presents the influence of training on officers' beliefs regarding rape. It can be seen that training has mixed results, whereby it may change behaviour but not necessarily officers' beliefs.

Training of police officers.

Ten documents (52.63%) focused on the influence of training on officers' beliefs regarding rape, finding mixed results. Training was found to be associated with possible benefits such as an increased likelihood of including victim advocates when taking rape complaints, and advanced interviewing skills. However, in terms of beliefs of rape, even though training appeared to influence behaviour, it failed to alter officers' attitudes, and even when officers outperformed in simulated interviews after training, the knowledge they gained deteriorated over time, and had no eventual influence on victim blaming. Additionally, training had no effect on rape myth acceptance rates regarding the victim.

Table 11.

The Influence of Training on Officers' Beliefs of Rape

Publication	Finding(s) Related to Beliefs of Rape
Campbell (1995)	• Officers who found that sexual assault training to be very helpful had less victim-blaming perceptions of date rape.
Lee et al. (2012)	• Training programs can have an influence on behaviour and beliefs without changing attitudes.
Lonsway (1996)	• Significant increase in sexual assault knowledge and less sceptical of women following completion of general curriculum training. • Experimental (specialised) training had no effect on rape myths, or sexual assault knowledge compared to baseline curriculum. • Officers in experimental training more likely to communicate victim credibility, better questioning, perform more favourably, and describe the offence as rape and more serious than baseline curriculum. • Officers in workshop training more likely in simulated interview to address victim physical needs, emotional/information needs and perpetrator responsibility and statutory requirements. • Officers in workshop and integrated training more likely to give victim more choice on interview location and tone. • Officers in integrated training less likely to mention victim intoxication, explain procedures for criminal prosecution and emphasize seriousness of offence. • Perceived likelihood to arrest did not differ amongst victim role-players within training conditions.
Lonsway et al. (2001)	• Recruits who performed in experimental training did not change in attitudinal or cognitive variables, however they outperformed in the simulated sexual assault interview. • Experimental training did not change levels of rape myths or knowledge of sexual assault investigations. • Knowledge gained deteriorates over time. • Training had no influence on victim blaming.
Muram et al. (1995)	• After lecture on sexual assault training, there was no significant difference in the acceptance rates of negative myths regarding rape victims.
Page (2008a)	• Large disagreement between officers in same department on whether training for dealing with rape cases was offered and frequency.
Rich and Seffrin (2012)	• Training had a positive influence in relation to police work in that training was a bigger influence over interviewing skills (more so than general education).

Rich and Seffrin (2013)	• More training meant more likely to always include victim advocates when taking rape complaints.
Sleath (2011)	• No effect on specialised training in victim blaming.
Sleath and Bull (2012)	• No significant effect was found for specialist rape victim training regarding levels of victim blaming.

Sexual assault training does not incur consistent results in terms of its ability to alter officers' beliefs of rape, suggesting that there may be inconsistencies in the type of training provided to officers, or in the ability of the training to bring about a more permanent change in attitudes or beliefs (Table 11).

Professional experience of police officers.

Five of the documents (26.32%) analysed officers' professional experience in relation to their beliefs of rape. Years of experience had a positive impact in reducing officers' negative beliefs of rape, as the longer officers served, the less likely they were to endorse rape myths, than officers who had less experience (Table 12). This included officers of higher ranks with more experience in processing rape cases and dealing with victims.

Table 12.

The Influence of Professional Experience on Officers' Beliefs of Rape

Publication	Finding(s) Related to Beliefs of Rape
Campbell (1995)	• Officers often reported that more experience with rape victims resulted in more sympathetic views on date rape and date rape victims.
Muram et al. (1995)	• Officers who were in the force for 2-10 years were less likely to exhibit negative attitudes in response to the myths that stipulated that the system is used to resolve arguments or that teenagers often lie after being punished.
Page (2007)	• Officers with higher educational attainment were less likely to endorse rape myths than officers with more experience of conducting rape cases. • Police officers with lower levels of educational attainment and less experience of rape investigations were more accepting of rape myths.
Rich and Seffrin (2012, 2013)	• Officers who were of higher ranks, with more years of experience appeared to be better at interviewing rape victims, and endorsed less rape myths than officers who had attended sexual assault training sessions.

Education of police officers.

Two documents (10.53%) examined education in relation to officers' beliefs of rape, finding that education has an overall positive effect; in that officers with a higher education are less likely to endorse rape myths (Page, 2007; Page, 2008b). In addition, the higher the education level, the lower officers scored on the MSS (Swim et al., 1995) (e.g. more subtle forms of sexism; Page, 2008b), however education level had no impact on old-fashioned sexism (e.g. statements that denote hegemonic masculinity). Officers with a higher education level were also less likely to endorse rape myths than officers with more experience of investigating rape. Police officers with lower levels of education and less experience of rape investigations were also more accepting of rape myths.

Resources, police subculture and working environment.

Three documents (15.79%) included the influence of resources, police culture and questioning style in relation to officers' beliefs. One study reported that the majority of police officers felt that resources had no influence on their decision to pursue a rape case (Page, 2008a). It also found that 90% of officers felt at that they did not have individual discretion over pursuing rape cases, and 70% of their sample stated that there were not written guidelines on which rape investigation to pursue (Page, 2008a). Lastly, Page (2008a) found that 77% of officers felt that their department did not provide guidelines for rape investigations.

The type of agency was also influential in officers' beliefs of rape, specifically that officers from larger agencies endorsed a lower amount of rape myths than officers in smaller and more rural agencies, however, this did not seem to influence officers' interviewing skills (Rich & Seffrin, 2012). Campbell (1995) reported that officers who felt that their work environment was sexualized and sexual harassment was a problem also held less victim-blaming perceptions.

Gender and other inter-related influential factors.

Five documents (26.32%) also highlighted interactions between different factors and how they influenced officers' beliefs of rape. Specifically, regarding gender, some of the articles highlighted that female officers found training to be more useful and show greater appreciation for it than their male colleagues, and blame perpetrators more than male officers (Rich & Seffrin, 2012, 2013, 2014). Knowing a victim personally appears to result in officers collaborating with advocates of rape cases and endorsing less rape myths. In addition, female officers were found to be more likely to know a rape victim, however

Rich and Seffrin (2012, 2013, 2014) neglected to specify the gender of those victims, or have a control group in any of their studies, to compare whether the numbers of rape victims known differed between male, female officers and non-officers. Therefore, it may be that women naturally know more rape victims, regardless of whether they are an officer or not. This finding may also explain why other studies have found that female trained officers blame rape victims less than male trained officers (Sleath, 2011; Sleath & Bull, 2012). It can, therefore, be argued that training has a positive effect on female officers, but less so on male officers. However, it is important to highlight that these findings come from the same police population, but are presented in three separate documents (i.e. Rich & Seffrin, 2012, 2013, 2014).

Other inter-related factors were also found (Table 13). Gender affected other factors related to officers' beliefs of rape. Specifically, regarding police subculture, female officers are more likely to notice negative comments being made about rape victims in their police department than their male colleagues. This is associated with them attending more training and collaborating with other agencies in rape cases. With regards to intoxication, male officers are more likely to perceive an intoxicated victim as more to blame and less credible than female officers. In summary, this suggests that male officers are less likely to notice negative comments about rape, while at the same time are influenced by other factors brought by them to the crime scene and victim.

Table 13.

Interacting Factors and Their Influence on Officers' Beliefs of Rape

Publication(s)	Inter-relational Factors	Finding(s) Related to Beliefs of Rape
Campbell (1995)	Sympathy and Experience of Rape Cases	• Officers with more experience with rape cases held more sympathetic beliefs about date rape and date rape victims.
	Training, Experience of Rape Cases, and Sexualized Work Environment	• Officers with more experience and those who perceived their training to be helpful, and had a heightened awareness of sexual harassment in the workplace, also held more favourable attitudes towards women which predicted less victim-blaming perceptions of date rape.
Lonsway (1996)	Age, Experience of Rape Cases and Direct Contact with Rape Victims	• Older and more experienced officers were more likely to expect some professional contact with a rape victim over the course of the coming year, report having more experience of law enforcement, and have more contact with sexual assault victims. • Even though older and more experienced officers had more exposure to rape victims, they had no more sexual assault knowledge than new recruits.
Sleath (2011)	Gender of Officer and Training	• Male trained officers blamed perpetrator more than female trained officers. For untrained officers, stranger rape perpetrator blamed more than acquaintance rape perpetrator.
Sleath and Bull (2012)	Prior Relationship and Training	• Police officers who were not specially trained blamed the stranger rape perpetrator more than the acquaintance rape perpetrator.
Page (2008b)	Modern Sexism and Education	• Officers with a higher school diploma or GED scored higher on the MSS scale than officers with Masters degrees. • Level of education did not appear to influence scores on the OFSS.
Rich and Seffrin (2012)	Victims Known Personally and Gender of Officer	• Female officers report knowing more rape victims personally.
Rich and Seffrin (2014)	Gender of Officer, Police Subculture and Training	• Female officers were 2.7 times more likely than male officers to report hearing negative comments made. • Female officers were more likely than male officers to highlight that officers in their department would make negative comments about rape victims. These officers were also more likely to attend sexual assault training and collaborate with victim

		advocates.
	Victims Known Personally and Gender of Officer	• Knowing rape victims personally increases participation in sexual assault training and inclusion of Crime Victim Advocates in victim interviews and reporting of negative comments in department. • Knowing victims' personally, less rape myths than officers who do not and those who do not less likely to participate in training.

Discussion

This review has systematically analysed published and unpublished research, examining the factors that influence officers' beliefs of rape. It has also demonstrated several important findings, including implications for research and policy. Additionally, the review highlighted key problems within the research field, indicating areas for possible future research.

Overall, the majority of the research highlighted that officers' attitudes towards rape are influenced by a vast array of elements, which can vary from case to case and officer to officer; specifically, personal, professional, and victim/crime scene factors. Such factors were found to be inter-related, further affecting officers' beliefs of rape. Ultimately, it is unclear, based on the findings of the review, as to whether any specific factors have greater influence over officers' beliefs than others, and to what extent they affect their behaviour when interacting with victims.

Studies showed that for victim and crime scene characteristics, the prior victim and perpetrator relationship can have a damaging effect on how officers perceive the victim. Specifically, a previous relationship leads officers to place more blame on the victim and less on the perpetrator; believing the case to be ambiguous or not legitimate. Similarly, alcohol intoxication was also related to officers perceiving the case as less legitimate, false and more ambiguous. In relation to the gender of the victim, studies found that some

officers endorsed several rape myths relating specifically to male rape; believing that men cannot be victims of rape and that they should be able to defend themselves from their attacker.

For personal characteristics, findings highlighted that male officers endorsed more rape myths than female officers. Specifically, male officers were found to blame a rape victim more than female officers, if the assault included factors relating to rape myths; such as intoxication or provocative clothing (Sleath, 2011; Sleath & Bull, 2012). However, female officers blamed the victim more if the assault did not include elements relating to rape myths, such as conservative clothing and no intoxication (Sleath, 2011; Sleath & Bull, 2012). Female officers were also found to use rape victim advocates more extensively than their male counterparts (Rich & Seffrin 2012, 2013, 2014). However, there was some discrepancy between self-report measures using quantitative and qualitative data; with qualitative data from Wentz and Archbold (2012) suggesting that female officers held more negative views of victims than male officers; with no such differences found in the quantitative data.

Regarding professional elements, studies indicated that sexual assault training was related to possibly some variety of benefits for officers' skills, but not rape beliefs including, rape myths and victim blaming. In addition, an increase of years of experience, higher ranks and experience of rape case processing resulted in a decrease of rape myths and negative attitudes. In terms of education level, the higher the education level of officers, the less they endorsed rape myths. Two studies also examined working conditions, specifically resources and police subculture, and found that most officers did not feel resources affected their decision to pursue rape cases, and officers from larger police services had lower rape myth acceptance than those from smaller and more rural police services.

As far as beliefs and attitudes analysed in the documents in the review go, stereotypes were the most widely researched, indicating that officers had a pre-conceived idea of what an ideal victim would be; leading them to question the victims' credibility and increase victim blame if victims did not fit officers' pre-conceptions. Studies also highlighted that knowing a victim personally was related to officers participating in sexual assault training, less likely to endorse rape myths, and include Crime Victim Advocates. Female officers were also more likely to know a rape victim personally than male officers. Traditionalism and sexism were also found to lead to endorsement of rape myths, with gender roles also predicting perpetrator blaming (but not victim).

The review highlighted a number of inter-related factors affecting officers' beliefs of rape. Specifically, female officers appeared to benefit more from sexual assault training than their male counterparts, which led to other benefits, such as finding the training more useful, an increased likelihood to include victim advocates in investigations; no such benefits were found in male officers. In addition, female officers were more likely to report negative remarks about rape victims in their department than men and this, in turn, was related to them seeking sexual assault training. Furthermore, female officers were not influenced by intoxication of the victim or revealing clothing worn by the victim, unlike their male colleagues. However, when such factors were not present (no alcohol or provocative clothing) female officers blamed the victim more than male officers (Sleath, 2011). As females are suggested to be better at empathising with female rape victims (Mitchell, Hirschman, & Nagayama Hall, 1999), Sleath (2011) suggests that this may explain why female officers could reject rape myths compared to male officers. Other inter-related factors were also highlighted such as sexism and educational level, with the higher the education of the officer, the less likely they were to endorse ideologies that reflected modern sexism. However, education did not influence old-fashioned sexism.

Lastly, increased experience of processing rape cases was found to be associated with increased sympathy for date rape victims.

Considering previous research on the purpose of rape myths, officers who indicated higher endorsement of rape myths were likely to perceive a rape victim as less credible, more responsible, and less likely to communicate non-consent, therefore alleviating guilt from the perpetrator, and less likely to recommend that the perpetrator be charged. Thus, rape myths in officers increased victim blaming but not perpetrator blaming, and led to greater rape supportive attitudes.

Limitations of the Literature

There are several limitations concerning the research included in the review. Firstly, there is a lack of comparison groups. This is problematic, as it means that there is an uncertainty as to whether officers' beliefs differ from non-policing populations. By failing to provide comparisons to other populations we cannot infer with certainty whether individuals who embark on a policing career, naturally differ in their beliefs to other members of the public. However, one study (Sleath & Bull, 2015) included a comparison group and found that police officers scored lower than psychology and law students on all of the rape myth subscales on the IRMA (Payne et al., 1999) apart from the "she lied" subscale. Secondly, research tends to rely on white male officers, thus limiting its applicability to other ethnicities, genders and cultures. However, it is important to highlight that lack of diversity in policing populations with women remaining the minority in police departments throughout the world (Ward & Prenzler, 2016), and some police forces in the United Kingdom reporting that only 5% of police officers are from ethnic minority backgrounds (Rowe & Ross, 2015). In addition, sexual orientation of the officer, victim and perpetrator have frequently not been considered. This is particularly crucial,

considering that research into non-policing samples has found that such factors are influential. Specifically, heterosexual men appear to endorse more rape myths than women or gay men, and gay men make more pro-victim judgements overall (Davies & McCartney, 2003).

Furthermore, religious beliefs and affiliation, and ethnicity have not been examined in detail in past literature. This is surprising as research in non-policing samples further suggests differences in rape beliefs in relation to ethnicity (namely White and African Americans) (Nagel, Matsuo, McIntyre, & Morrison, 2005). Nagel et al. (2005) suggest that the relationship between race and beliefs of rape is complex, especially when considering socioeconomic status and educational background, highlighting the inter-relatedness of such factors and their contribution to rape myths. Furthermore, religion and ethnicity considerably overlap and in some cultures, specifically for Hispanic Catholics, females are expected to protect their virginity at all costs and failing to do so will dishonour their family (Lira, Koss, & Russo, 1999). Thus, it becomes important to consider the impact that both religion and ethnicity may have on officers' beliefs of rape.

Additionally, an overwhelming majority of studies assessed rape myths and beliefs through self-report questionnaires, which tend to have recognised limitations. The topic of rape is a sensitive one, meaning that officers may respond in a socially desirable fashion, which is not always directly assessed in research (Lee et al., 2012). Page (2008a) also highlights that self-report scales operationalizing the term 'rape myths' may have missed out the subtle nuances that a qualitative interview may capture. Furthermore, officers may have felt obliged to portray the police service in a positive light which in turn could have influenced their responses (Page, 2007, 2008a, 2008b, 2010; Rich & Seffrin, 2012); resulting in them being more dishonest than other groups and leading them to think they have to answer in a 'politically correct' way (Campbell, 1995).

Limitations of the Review

There are three main limitations of this review: 1) non-English articles were excluded, (2) included studies that are not legally comparable, and 3) lack of consistency regarding what is defined as a rape myth. By not including articles not written in English, the review may have missed some essential literature. Including articles that are not legally comparable is particularly problematic, especially when applying international research to the United Kingdom and the legal definition of what constitutes rape. Specifically, research into rape beliefs of police officers needs to keep in mind that there are differences between the legal definition of rape in the United Kingdom and what constitutes rape in some other countries, in addition to any academic definitions. Scarce (1997) claims that in academia rape is defined as "any penetration of a person's mouth, anus, or vagina by a penis or any other object, without the person's consent." (p. 7). This is not the definition that police officers will necessarily follow. The law in the United Kingdom does not currently recognise that a woman is legally capable of raping a man (Sexual Offences Act 2003), unlike in the USA (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2014).

Furthermore, there are also theoretical concerns with the research included in this review. There is a lack of consistency in the definition of rape myths, meaning that research lacks a comprehensive articulation of rape myths (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Specifically, authors often propose their own list of items to measure rape myths which are similar in nature but do not necessarily overlap, and their origins are unclear (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). This lack of consistency makes it difficult to clearly deduce what the characteristics that influence officers' beliefs are, as there is a lack of accord in the literature as to what qualifies as a rape myth and other negative beliefs of rape.

Implications

The findings from this systematic review highlight that any intervention that attempts to modify officers' rape myths should take into consideration all of the elements that were identified in the present model (Figure 2), and even in doing so, whether the effects of the interventions will be long lasting is still unknown. The specifics that are often brought to the case cannot be controlled, such as the victim and crime scene variables, which, until officers encounter each unique case, remain unknown. Thus, it may be more appropriate to encourage officers to be aware of how specific factors may affect their beliefs relating to particular rape cases and how such beliefs can have an impact on victim experiences when working with the police. This is not to say that training and interventions should not be implemented, as with greater knowledge and understanding, officers can at least be aware of rape myths and therefore monitor how they then conduct themselves in rape investigations. However, from this review it can be seen that training alone may be insufficient in tackling negative beliefs on a permanent basis. Arguably, even when officers have found training useful, it may be unreasonable to expect that when training is completed, they are not then influenced by the elements they experience every day (for example their gender, working environment and so forth), which may explain why training itself does not appear to have long lasting effects.

Conclusion

The present systematic review concludes that rape beliefs in police officers are influenced by a variety of factors, from the beliefs and prejudices that they bring to work with them to the characteristics surrounding the offence and the victim. As many factors seem inter-related, it can be concluded that future research needs to address a combination of personal, professional and victim/offence related factors when investigating officers' beliefs of rape. This review has highlighted that because officers (like other people) also

have pre-conceived ideas and attitudes that may influence their beliefs of rape, training or experience alone may not be sufficient in order to reduce bias and prejudice. Specifically, training can address negative beliefs of rape and suggest good standards of practice for rape investigations. However, if other factors that may influence officers, such as their gender, ethnicity, and age (to name but a few), are not addressed in training, it can be argued that knowledge alone may well not induce attitude or behaviour change. As shown in this review, the effectiveness of training is influenced by a variety of different factors that need to be highlighted during training and throughout the officers' time in service. Finally, this review calls for research that addresses the differences in legislation regarding rape and how officers' beliefs may differ depending on country and culture of origin.

Chapter Two

Theoretical Approach, Methodological Review and Research Questions

This chapter will review the main measures which will be used in the following chapters to examine the particular concepts concerning this thesis, in addition to the theoretical approach that will underpin this thesis. This will include the aims of the thesis; specifically, a brief overview of the key gaps in the literature that have been identified from the systematic review (Chapter One), and how the thesis plans to address these gaps. The chapter will also outline the research questions that will be addressed, followed by a review of the methodology adopted in the empirical studies in this thesis; such as the reasons behind collecting the datum in two separate studies as opposed to one, followed by a review of rape myth measures (including victim and perpetrator blaming), and victim and perpetrator empathy. Lastly, there will be a brief overview of the utility of the vignettes within the rape perception research, and a summary of the use of online questionnaires in rape research with the police service.

Aims of the Thesis

The systematic review (Chapter One) identified many research gaps that the thesis aims to address; with the first aim being to investigate the effect of personal and professional characteristics on police personnel perceptions of rape (Study One). It was found in the systematic review that previous research tends to investigate the contributing factors (e.g. age, gender) in relation to perceptions of rape in isolation, not taking into consideration the relationships between such factors. The research presented in this thesis will address this by taking into consideration the relationships between personal and

professional characteristics in relation to perceptions of sexual offences; specifically, rape empathy and rape myth acceptance (Study One).

Research gathered from the systematic review also suggested that even though sexual assault training may alter behaviour, it is less successful in altering police personnel perceptions in relation to sexual offences. A sufficiently small amount of research has also investigated how perceptions of sexual assault training from police personnel may play a role in perceptions of sexual offences; with only one study investigating this (see Systematic Review). Due to the limited research in this area, it is important that the thesis investigates police personnel perceptions of sexual assault training in relation to their perceptions of sexual offences. The thesis will achieve this by measuring police personnel perceptions of relevance and usefulness of sexual assault training in relation to their rape myth endorsement and rape empathy (Study One).

The second aim of this thesis is to investigate the effect of personal and professional characteristics in relation to police personnel perceptions of sexual offences in addition to rape (Study Two). The systematic review highlighted that previous research investigating police officers' rape myths is also limited in its legal applicability. This is particularly relevant in England and Wales, whereby the Sexual Offences Act (2003) does not have a gender-neutral definition of rape; meaning that only a man (and not a woman) can be a perpetrator of rape. According to the legal definition of rape in the Sexual Offences Act (2003), rape is performed by the penetration of a victim with a penis, and as biological females do not anatomically fit this description, they cannot be prosecuted for the offence of rape in England and Wales. This can have implications when comparing research in England and Wales to other countries that do have a gender-neutral definition of rape, such as the United States of America (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2014), where anyone can be prosecuted for rape regardless of their biological sex. In addition, police personnel in

England and Wales could be seen as endorsing rape myths in comparison to their American counter-parts if legislation is not taken into consideration. For example, police officers in England and Wales may express that they do not believe that a woman can rape a man; as reflected in the Sexual Offences Act (2003), which could be interpreted as rape myth endorsement, whereas American police officers would most likely state that a woman can rape a man. In addition, instead of recognising such an offence as rape, the Sexual Offences Act (2003) defines sexual offences where a female is the perpetrator as sexual activity without consent or sexual assault by penetration (depending on the type of penetration). Despite such legislative differences, the systematic review in Chapter One highlighted that previous research has not investigated police personnel perceptions of sexual assault by penetration and sexual activity without consent, and it is this gap that this research aims to address (Study Two). In order to do this, police personnel perceptions of vignettes depicting female rape (male perpetrator), male rape (male perpetrator), sexual assault by penetration, and sexual activity without consent will be measured. Study Two will also investigate police personnel personal and professional characteristics in relation to their perceptions of the aforementioned sexual offences.

Research gathered in Chapter One also emphasised that not all personal characteristics have been investigated in the policing population. For example, in non-policing samples other characteristics have been suggested to be relevant to rape myths; specifically, religion, marital status and ethnicity, which in non-policing research has suggested may play a role in perceptions of rape. For instance, in relation to ethnicity, Jimenez and Abreu (2003) compared White and Latinos scores on the Attitude Towards Rape Victim Scale (ARVS; Ward, 1988), finding that White women held more favourable attitudes towards rape victims than Latino women. In addition, other research has also found that Asian Americans held more negative attitudes towards rape victims compared to

White Americans (Lee & Cheung, 1991; Mori, Bernat, Glenn, Selle, & Zarate, 1995). Lastly, Nagel et al. (2005) found that White participants were more sympathetic to rape victims than African Americans, although they also found that African American males were less sympathetic to rape victims in comparison to White males. Such studies demonstrate the importance of investigating the relationship, if any, of police personnel ethnicity and rape myth perceptions. Thus, Studies One and Two will measure police personnel ethnicity in relation to their perceptions of sexual offences, including rape.

Previous studies have demonstrated the importance of religion in relation to perceptions of rape. Sheldon and Parent (2002) found that the more fundamentalist beliefs the clergy held, the more unfavourable their attitudes were towards female rape victims, finding that for date rape and acquaintance rape vignettes, the more negative attitudes towards rape victims, the higher their victim blame. In addition, when the victim was perceived to be violating gender-norms and behaving carelessly, victim blame increased. Other research has also found that in relation to religious fundamentalism in clergy from Christian Churches; the higher the sexism rating, the lower rape victim empathy, and the higher the negative attitudes towards rape victims (Yuvarajan & Stanford, 2016). However, it is important to highlight that other research has found no significant differences between religious and non-religious participants in their attitudes towards victims of rape (Nagel et al., 2005). Other studies have also shown that attending church did not significantly relate to undergraduate students' empathy towards rape, rape victims, or rape perpetrators (Borden, Karr & Caldwell-Colbert, 1988). Duriez (2004) also found that general empathy was not related to being religious, but it was positively related to processing religious contents in a symbolic way. Due to the ambiguity as to whether being religious is related to rape myths or not, it was felt important to investigate this relationship in policing

populations. Thus, Studies One and Two will investigate the relationship between religion and perceptions of sexual offences in police personnel.

No previous research has investigated the relationship in the policing population between marital status and rape myths. In non-policing populations it has been found that individuals endorse more rape myths relating to marital rape than acquaintance rape (Ferro, Cermele, & Saltzman, 2008); meaning that married police personnel may also endorse more rape myths than non-married police personnel. However, it is important to highlight that Ferro et al. (2008) measured perceptions of marital rape, and not participants marital status. The thesis aims to address these gaps by investigating police personnel religion, ethnicity and marital status in relation to rape myths and rape empathy.

Theoretical Approach

The occurrence of sexual assault (specifically rape) has often been considered to be a deep social problem in many societies (Krug, Mercy, Dahlberg, & Zwi, 2002). In 1984, Russell estimated that one in three women will be a victim of rape during their lifetime in the United States, describing the prevalence of rape as reaching epidemic proportions (Russell & Bolen, 2000). This estimation is not to dissimilar in England and Wales (Walby & Allen, 2004), with recent figures indicating that police recordings of rape have increased by 15% compared to 2016 (Office for National Statistics, 2017); strongly suggesting that rape is an increasing problem in society. In addition, victims of rape can be assigned blame for their own victimisation, and numerous theories have been proposed to explain the phenomenon of victim blaming (Grubb & Harrower, 2005). Theories as to why individuals blame victims and the implications this can have on the Criminal Justice System; specifically, secondary victimisation, victim cooperation, attrition rates, and conviction rates will now be reviewed.

Feminist theory of rape.

Feminist theories of rape are based on research suggesting that there is a relationship between dominance and sexual aggression (Hockett, Saucier, Hoffman, Smith, & Craig, 2009). In 1989, feminism was defined as "a world view and a social movement that encompasses assumptions and beliefs about the origins and consequences of gendered social organisation as well as strategic directions and actions for social change" (Simpson, 1989, p.606). Feminism is considered to not be a single theory, but a diverse set of agendas or perspectives concerning gender inequality and oppression; including liberal feminism, socialist feminism, and radical feminism (Simpson, 1989). Liberal feminism sees gender inequality as emerging from the creation influence and traditional attitudes with regards to the appropriate roles of men and women in society (Pateman & Phillips, 1987). Social feminism relates to the domination of class and patriarchy, whereas radical feminism views the origins of patriarchy and the subordination of woman as a result of male aggression and an attempt to control women's sexuality (Simpson, 1989).

Susan Brownmiler (1974) is considered to be the most dominant perspective in feminist theory of rape, suggesting that the patriarchy system of gender inequalities serves to empower men and oppress women; underpinning sexual violence. According to this strand of feminist theory, rape ideologies (such as myths) essentially emanate from the patriarchal system; encouraging and justifying, and thereby trivialising sexual violence; demeaning and devaluing women who become victims of rape. Brownmiller (1974) also argued that rape myths are resistant to change as they have a long-standing history, and function on interpersonal and societal levels which is shared by individuals. Other feminists feel that such beliefs are so engrained in patriarchal cultures that they are barely recognised or questioned, and therefore underlie the relationship between the two sexes (Burt, 1980; Ward, 1995). Boakye (2009) suggests that it is the process of socialisation, and agents of

socialisation that act as primary sites for the perpetration of patriarchal and gender stereotypical beliefs and rape myths, which feminist theorists see as fundamental in the understanding of attitudes towards rape and rape victims. Agents of socialisation- such as family, profession and religion, has led feminist researchers to pay particular attention to certain demographics, such as gender, age, ethnicity, education, social class and religion (Boakye, 2009). The aforementioned factors have also consistently emerged in feminist literature as important in explaining rape myth acceptance and attitudes towards rape and victims of rape (Boakye, 2009). As highlighted in Chapter One, some but not all of the aforementioned characteristics (e.g. religion, ethnicity, social class) have been researched in relation to rape myths in the policing population.

Feminist theory focuses on gender inequality and societal acceptance of the patriarchy and male dominance leading to a tolerance of violence against women (Rozee & Koss, 2001). Empirical research also supports feminist theories that rape is motivated by men's desires to express dominance, with the majority of previous research indicating that the motivation to rape is driven by sexual gratification or dominant motivation to exert power (Hockett et al., 2009). The dominance motivation is primarily driven by feminist theory emanating from Brownmiller's (1975) feminist analysis of rape as a form of male dominance to exercise patriarchal power. To emphasise this point further, Chiroro, Bohner, Viki and Jarvis (2004) expressed that the dominance motivation to rape "maintains that rape is used as one means (among others) by which men maintain and enforce a status hierarchy that is to their own advantage and to the disadvantage of women" (p.429). It is also argued that rape myths play a central role in maintaining male dominance; whereby victim blame can be used to intimidate women, and this intimidation and acceptance of rape myths can enforce the social hierarchy in which men are dominant (Buchwald, Fletcher, & Roth, 2005; Sanday, 1981).

Victim blaming has also been found to occur in both men and women (Acock & Ireland, 1983), and can even occur in the victim themselves when explaining their own behaviour (Damrosch, 1985). Many studies have investigated gender differences in victim blaming, with findings showing that women can attribute more responsibility to victims than men (Krulewitz & Payne, 1978; Luginbuhl & Mullin, 1981). Thus, women may also play a role in enforcing the social hierarchy by accepting rape myths, and this can be particularly relevant when they perceive themselves as being similar to the victim. For example, Muller, Caldwell and Hunter (1994) found that participants who viewed themselves as being personally similar to the victim were more likely to assign victim blame. It is suggested that observers who consider themselves as being similar to the victim, respond by assigning the victim responsibility for their own victimisation (Grubb & Harrower, 2008); thus, blaming the victim could be perceived as an unsafe and harm avoidance tactic. This tactic will now be discussed in relation to intra-female hostility, highlighting the potential impact it can play in relation to reporting of sexual offences, victim experiences, attrition rates, and convictions of rape.

Intra-female gender thesis.

The Intra-Female Gender Thesis (IFGHT) was introduced by Batchelder, Koski and Byxbe (2004), and suggests that females may be hostile towards female victims as a means of distancing themselves from the incident; serving as a self-protective measure. Thus, the more psychological distance that is placed between them and the female rape victim, the less likely they believe that they will also become a victim, and one way of doing this is to place more blame on the victim rather than sympathising with them (Batchelder et al., 2004). To test this hypothesis, Batchelder et al. (2004) gathered qualitative and quantitative data from participants to test differences in verdicts between male and female mock jurors.

Initially the mock jurors read a narrative from a consent-defence rape case, and were asked to individually respond as to whether they would acquit or vote for a guilty verdict. Results found that female jurors were more likely to favour a not guilty verdict in comparison to male jurors. In the second phase of the study, mock jurors were asked to deliberate as a group, and during such deliberations, female jurors were more vocal in what they would have done differently if they were in the victim's situation. In addition, it was found that some of the female jurors also persuaded male jurors into voting for a non-guilty verdict during the deliberations; whereas prior to such deliberations, many of the male mock jurors had voted for a guilty verdict. To explain the IFGHT further, Chesler (2001) suggests that women being less sympathetic to other women who have been victimised may be due to in part, an increase of women in the workforce. Women have become more educated and more present in the workplace, meaning that there is more competition amongst women to obtain jobs; leading to indirect aggression (Chesler, 2001). Thus, seeing other women as competition may mean that female officers are likely to securitize the conduct of other women with whom they work with and encounter while working; including rape victims (Wentz & Archbold, 2012). Wentz and Archbold (2012) also found some support for the IFGHT in their qualitative (but not quantitative) analyses; finding that a higher percentage of female police officers (48 percent) blamed rape victims (in comparison to 31 percent of male police officers), and made statements that contained rape myths. Such statements included the belief that only women whom have bad reputations are raped, that a real rape victim does not know the perpetrator, and that the victim should have done more than only verbally contest the actions of the offender (Campbell & Johnson, 1997; Galton, 1975; Kerstetter, 1990; Krahé, 1991; Du Mont, 2003; Page, 2007). Other research has also found that female detectives were less likely to arrest suspects in sexual assault cases in comparison to their male colleagues; even when other factors that influence decisions to

arrest were considered (Alderden & Ullman, 2012); thus, suggesting that female police personnel may not be as compassionate to sexual assault victims as their male counterparts. The aforementioned findings in relation to the IFGHT demonstrate the importance of investigating gender identity of police personnel when understanding their perceptions of rape and other sexual offences.

Police perceptions of rape victims also include elements of victim blaming and rape myths (Feild, 1978; Jordan, 2001; Page 2008a, 2008b; Schuller & Stewart 2000). As demonstrated in Chapter One, police officers who had high endorsement of rape myths were more likely to perceive the victim as less credible, more responsible, and less likely to communicate non-consent; therefore, alleviating any guilt from the perpetrator, and less likely to recommend that the perpetrator be charged. Schuller and Stewart (2000) also demonstrate the importance of tapping into various aspects of a case that officers may pay attention to, such as victim interest, victim lying, victim sexual provocativeness, perpetrator reasonableness, victim unreasonableness, and so forth. Schuller and Stewart (2000) measured these perceptions in a vignette depicting rape, and found notable gender differences; specifically, that male police officers (in comparison to female police officers), were more likely to believe that given how far things had progressed between the victim and alleged perpetrator, that the alleged perpetrator was reasonable not to stop, and that it was unreasonable of the victim to expect him to do so. However, Wentz and Archbold (2012) found no such gender differences. Thus, this suggests that further exploration of unreasonableness is needed in relation to perceptions of sexual offences. Schuller and Stewart (2000) also found that the more intoxicated police officers perceived the victim to be, the less credible she was, the more interested she was in intercourse, the more likely she was to have communicated that she was interested in sex, the more responsible she was given how things have progressed, and the more unreasonable she was. In relation to the

perpetrator, they found that the more intoxicated police officers perceived the victim to be, the less they blamed the perpetrator, and the more they believed that the perpetrator honestly thought that the victim wanted to engage in intercourse. As demonstrated in Chapter One, no other research has investigated the aforementioned perceptions in policing samples; highlighting the need for further exploration.

Rape victims must still battle to gain credibility, as some police officers may use stereotype-based judgements that may inadvertedly impact their perceptions and decision-making (Jordan, 2001). As identified in Chapter One, victim credibility was associated with police officers' perceived victim harm, probable cause to arrest, and believing that the perpetrator should be prosecuted and convicted (Lonsway, 1996). In their police file analysis, Jordon (2001) identified key factors that police officers noted when assessing a rape victim's credibility. These factors included alcohol/drug use, delayed reporting, previous consensual sex with the accused, previous rape or abuse, mental illness, perceived immorality, intellectually impaired, previous false rape allegation, and concealment (for example extent of alcohol consumption on the night in question). Jordon (2001) concludes that the above-mentioned factors suggest that appraisals of a victim's characteristics and culpability are conducted in relation to officers' assessments of the victim's credibility. Analyses of police files also indicated that police perceptions of rape victims' credibility are influenced by wide range of factors; especially, when there are clusters of such factors. For example, when victim alcohol consumption did not affect the victim's credibility, alcohol consumption in connection with other factors such as previous consensual sex with the perpetrator or concealment of drugs, may overall affect perceived victim credibility.

Wentz and Archbold (2012) also felt that in order to further understand how officers view rape victims, it is important to understand how they define rape. Campbell and Johnson (1997) asked officers to define rape, finding that responses could be categorised

into one of three groups-responses included those who gave definitions that reflected reformed legislation where force or threat of force were prominent; responses that focused on pre-reform rape laws that included penetration and lack of consent; and lastly, responses that defined rape as combination of pre- and post-reform definition and included victim-blaming views. It was found that just over half of their sample (51% of police officer) defined rape in the latter definition where victim blaming formed part of their responses. Thus, Wentz and Archbold (2012) suggest that these findings indicate that such "police officers' personal perception of rape victims varies from the legal definition" (p.27); demonstrating the importance of asking officers to qualitatively define sexual offences. Wentz and Archbold (2012) also found that when asking police officers to define rape/sexual assault, most provided a response that reflected the legal definition (94%), with the second most common category being responses that included victim blaming attitudes. When asking police officers whether their views about rape had changed since first becoming a police officer; 40% of officers felt that their perceptions had altered. A small proportion felt that their perceptions had changed (2%), and another small percentage felt that their perceptions had changed but coincided with victim blaming responses (5%). Thirty-five percent of officers expressed that their views toward rape had changed and that they now question victim's credibility. In addition, more female police officers (48%) felt that the victim is to blame for the rape (compared to 31% of male police officers). Wentz and Archbold (2012) also asked officers which factors or experience contributed to them changing their view of rape victims (if it had changed), finding that the majority of police officers cited training, education, and experience (33%). The second most common response included officers citing rape myths and victim blaming attitudes (31%). A small percentage (3%) of police officers reported that they felt that the criminal justice system had failed and had consequently altered their perceptions of rape and rape victims. Fifteen

percent of officers felt that their perceptions had not changed, and 18% did not respond. Thus, the aforementioned findings demonstrate the importance of asking police personnel what they feel has affected their perceptions of rape, and whether their own definition of sexual offences reflect legislation.

Secondary victimisation and victim blame.

The notion of the IFGHT in rape investigations may also relate to victim blaming (Ryan, 1976). As noted previously, intra-female hostility suggests the propensity for females to attribute more blame to female victims than males (Batchelder et al., 2004). Thus, according to the IFGHT, female officers may be more likely to subscribe to rape myths and victim blaming attitudes than their male counterparts; meaning that victims may experience secondary victimisation. Secondary victimisation has been described as victim blaming attitudes or behaviour that can result in additional trauma for rape survivors (Campbell, Wasco, Ahrens, Sefl, & Barnes, 2001). As previously highlighted, rape victims are in a unique position as even though they have been the target of the assault, they are not necessarily afforded sympathy, and in some cases can be perceived as responsible for having participated in their own victimisation (Amir, 1971; Curtis, 1974; Goldner, 1972; Schultz, 1968; Wood, 1973); meaning that they are at an increased risk of secondary victimisation through negative perceptions of their viable credibility (Hackett, Day, & Mohr, 2008). There have been many previous accounts of research showing that observers have a tendency to denigrate rape victims; holding them responsible for the sexual assault (Calhoun, Selby, & Warring, 1976; Cann, Calhoun, & Selby, 1979; Donnerstein & Berkowitz, 1981; Janoff-Bulman, Timko, & Carli, 1985). However, it is important to highlight that such investigations have typically implemented laboratory-based methodologies, using undergraduate students at North American universities (Grubb &

Harrower, 2008). Secondary victimisation can also expose the victim to feeling like they are being raped all over again (Madigan & Gamble, 1991); increasing the level of self-blame and leading to a delayed recovery (Anderson, 1999; Campbell & Raja, 1999). In fact, it has been found that rape victims felt that reporting the offence often made it feel like they were being raped again (Lees & Gregory, 1999; Temkin & Krahé, 2008).

As highlighted already, it is essential that the impact of secondary victimisation is considered; especially, in the context of policing. Police personnel are often considered to be the gate-keepers of the justice system, and are usually the first people a rape victim will interact with after the offence has occurred (Galton, 1975; Page, 2008b), and the first point of contact thereafter (Galton, 1975). Many of the actions undertaken by police officers can induce secondary victimisation for rape victims; such as, asking the victim questions in relation to their rape that the victim may find offensive, or asking questions in relation to their clothing, alcohol consumption, or behaviour at the time of the offence (Campbell & Raja, 1999). Secondary victimisation may also result in rape victims not wanting to cooperate further in the investigation; leading to detrimental effects on the work of the police and prosecution, as it can decrease the likelihood of prosecuting a rape case if the victim is uncooperative (Kaiser, O'Neal, & Spohn, 2017); resulting in low conviction rates in rape cases. Empirical research defines the lack of conviction rates in rape cases as the 'justice gap' (Brown, 2011), and how rape complaints are treated can indicate a powerful signal to the rest of society (Hohl & Stanko, 2015). It could also be argued that rape has been effectively 'decriminalised' (Lees & Gregory, 1996), especially as the conviction rate for rape can be as low as 7 percent (Home Office and Ministry of Justice, 2013). It is also important to highlight that attrition of rape cases is at its highest at the beginning of the police investigation, with victim withdrawal explaining a large proportion (Hester, 2013; Stern, 2010). It has been suggested that one of the key mistakes that police departments

make is assuming that a particular gender will have the skills necessarily to be able to effectively relate to victims (Rich & Seffrin, 2012). However, just because an officer is female, does not necessarily mean that she will be respectful and empathic, and as the IFGHT suggests, a female officer may be more likely to subscribe to rape myths and victim blaming attitudes than her male counterparts (Batchelder, Koski, & Byxbe, 2004; Chesler, 2001).

The IFGHT demonstrates the potential impact intra-female hostility may have on the Criminal Justice system; specifically, secondary victimisation, high attrition rates and low conviction rates in rape cases. Thus, it is important that the thesis addresses the gaps identified from the systematic review; expanding on previous research investigating police personnel characteristics, and in addition, exploring new research avenues in relation to police personnel perceptions of sexual offences. The research in this thesis will therefore address the following research questions.

Research Questions

There are four research questions that this thesis aims to address and the argument and reasoning behind each research question will be put forward in this Chapter. Chapter One identified that a variety of personal (e.g. gender) and professional (e.g. training, length of service, education level, type of agency) characteristics are related to police personnel perceptions of rape; demonstrating the importance of researching both personal and professional characteristics in relation to the perceptions of sexual offences in policing populations. Therefore, the research presented in this thesis wants to build and contribute to the research covered in Chapter One, using online self-report questionnaires which are to be administered in two studies to police services throughout England and Wales.

What personal characteristics, if any, of police personnel influence their perceptions of rape?

As demonstrated in Chapter One, many personal characteristics have been investigated of police populations in relation to their perceptions of rape. Specifically, various studies have investigated the relationship of officers' gender (Page, 2004, 2008, 2010; Sleath & Bull, 2010, 2012; Sleath, 2011; Wentz & Archbold, 2012), age (Lonsway, 1996), personally knowing the victim (Rich & Seffrin, 2013), personal experiences (Campbell, 1995) and ethnicity (Fay, 2013) in relation to perceptions of rape. Despite some research being conducted on policing populations which recognises that police personnel personal characteristics may be related to their perceptions of sexual offences; other research on non-policing populations indicates that more research is needed in investigating other personal characteristics (as already discussed).

What professional characteristics, if any, influence police personnel perceptions of rape?

As covered in Chapter One, previous research has investigated the effects of training (Campbell, 1995; Lee et al., 2012; Lonsway, 1996; Lonsway et al., 2001; Muram et al., 1995; Page, 2008a; Rich & Seffrin, 2012, 2013; Sleath, 2011; Sleath & Bull, 2012), years of experience (Muram et al., 1995), education (Page, 2007; 2008b), rape cases processed (Page, 2007), resources (Page, 2008a), rank (Rich & Seffrin, 2012), sexualised environment (Campbell, 1995), exposure to rape victims (Lonsway, 1996), sexual assault knowledge, and police subculture (Rich & Seffrin, 2012). The thesis attempts to investigate whether some of the aforementioned factors affects officers' rape myths, in addition to investigating previously unexplored professional characteristics such as main role, hours of

sexual assault training, and perceptions of sexual assault training. Rank as demonstrated in Chapter One has been rarely investigated, which is surprising as the police service encompasses a variety of ranks that vary in how much direct victim contact a person can have. For example, Police Constables have more direct exposure to victims of rape than police staff employees, as Police Constables are usually the front line first responders, who have sole responsibility of dealing with offences (Crisp, 2016). It was therefore deemed important that police personnel's rank was investigated in relation to their perceptions of rape.

Is there a change in perceptions of sexual offences in relation to perceptions of sexual assault training?

Chapter One also highlighted that sexual assault training has been found to have no effect on officers' attitudes relating to sexual offences (Lee et al., 1996; Lonsway et al., 2001; Muram et al., 1995; Sleath, 2011; Sleath & Bull, 2012), however, officers who perceived such training as very helpful, had less victim-blaming perceptions to date rape than those that did not find it helpful (Campbell, 1995). On this basis, it was felt important to investigate police personnel perceptions of sexual assault training in terms of relevance and usefulness, and whether this has implications for their perceptions.

Is there a change in police personnel perceptions depending on the type of sexual offences?

No research has previously explored whether perceptions differ depending on the type of sexual offence; specifically, female rape, male rape, sexual activity without consent and sexual assault by penetration. This is particularly important as in England and Wales, the Sexual Offences Act (2003) includes a non-gender-neutral definition of rape; meaning

that only men can commit rape, and when the perpetrator is a woman, depending on the type of penetration the offence would be classified either as sexual assault by penetration or sexual activity without consent (as previously discussed). In order to explore this research question, the thesis will assess the following police personnel perceptions in relation to female rape (male perpetrator), male rape (male perpetrator), sexual activity without consent and sexual assault by penetration: credibility, agreement to sex, victim blame, sexual provocativeness, victim lying, assumed interest, victim reasonableness and perpetrator unreasonableness. This will be investigated by assessing police personnel perceptions of several vignettes depicting male on male rape, female rape (male perpetrator), sexual assault by penetration, and sexual activity without consent. The vignettes and vignette questionnaires to measure perceptions of the vignettes will be adapted from Wentz and Archbold's (2012) study, whereby they implemented vignettes to assess officers' perceptions of victim credibility, agreement to sex, complainant blame, sexual provocativeness, complainant lying, assumed interest, and unreasonableness, in relation to intoxication. However, instead of intoxication, the replication intends to replace this variable with the aforementioned sexual offences.

To further explore this research question, the thesis will qualitatively assess how police personnel define rape; sexual assault by penetration; and sexual activity without consent; whether they feel their perceptions have changed towards rape, and if they have, what they feel has influenced their perceptions.

What personal and professional characteristics of police personnel influence their perceptions of other sexual offences in addition to rape?

No previous research, to the best of the author's knowledge, has ever considered the role of personal and professional characteristics in relation to police personnel perceptions

of other sexual offences than rape. Thus, the thesis will assess whether perceptions (credibility, agreement to sex, victim blame, sexual provocativeness, victim lying, assumed interest, victim unreasonableness and perpetrator reasonableness), in relation to sexual activity without consent, sexual assault by penetration, male rape (male perpetrator) and female rape (male perpetrator) are affected by police personnel personal and professional characteristics.

Methodological Review

Collecting the data in two separate studies.

In order to gather data from police personnel, the decision was made to not only collect data from as many police forces as possible throughout England and Wales, but to also to collect the data in two separate studies. Police personnel are known to be notoriously difficult to gather data from when the subject matter is of a sensitive nature or considered controversial (Page, 2008a). Thus, it was felt that by collecting the data in two separate studies and from as many forces as possible would increase the probability of gathering a meaningful sample size, as we are not relying on just one opportunity to gather our data from one force, and it would give police personnel two opportunities to participate in the research. In addition, due to the amount of variable data needed to be gathered from police personnel (e.g. personal and professional characteristics and perceptions), the length of time for participants to complete all of the questionnaires in one study would have likely resulted in a high attrition rate. Numerous studies have indicated significant negative effects in relation to questionnaire length and response rate of surveys (Bogen, 1996), with a meta analyses finding that longer questionnaires are associated with lower response rates (Heberlein & Baumgartner 1978; Yammarino, Skinner, & Childers 1991). Furthermore, questions towards the end of the questionnaire may be processed differently than those at the beginning (Helgeson & Ursic, 1994), which may lead to ‘do not knows’ (Krosnick et

al., 2002), and identical answers to different questions (Herzog & Bachman, 1981). In addition, on approaching police services to ask them if they would allow me to gather data from their police personnel, I also enquired into the preferred methodology that would be the least disruptive to their working environment. Many police services noted the difficulty of police personnel; specifically, officers being able to stay in an office for a prolonged period of time due to regularly being called to emergencies, and if they were in the office, they would be completing paperwork; meaning limited opportunities to participate in research. Based on the aforementioned reasons, the decision was made to collect the data as two separate studies as opposed to one, and to collect data from as many forces throughout England and Wales as possible. It is also important to highlight that police forces in Scotland were not approached due to differences in sexual offences legislation.

Measures

For an in-depth coverage of rape myth measures implemented in policing populations in previous research, as well as rape myth definitions, see Chapter One.

Rape myth acceptance.

One of the earliest constructed scales to measure rape myth acceptance was the Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (RMAS) developed by Burt (1980). This scale has historically demonstrated a satisfactory level of reliability; producing Cronbach's alphas in the range of 0.73 to 0.88 (Burt, 1980; Gray, 2006). However, several limitations have been highlighted by Oh and Neville (2004), suggesting that; 1) the items are ambiguous and include awkward phrasing, 2) a focus on the beliefs about rape victims to the detriment of other types of rape myths such as those relating to perpetrators, and 3) the inclusion of outdated rape myths. In addition, there is a lack of rape myths relating to the perpetrator

(highly victim focused) or items which do not always specifically relate to rape myths (Payne et al., 1999). The IRMA (Payne et al., 1999), RMA-R (Page, 2007), and KRMAS-R (Oh & Neville, 2004) are extensively covered in the systematic review see Chapter One.

The Acceptance of Modern Myths About Sexual Aggression Scale (AMMSA) (Gerger, Kley,Bohner, & Siebler, 2007) was devised to counteract some of criticisms of the RMAS, and measures the acceptance of modern myths relating to sexual aggression. The AMMSA used content themes proposed by Swim et al. (1995), which were designed to reflect classic themes in a more subtle manner compared to previous rape myth scales (Gerger et al., 2007). The AMMSA also resulted in a very high internal consistency, with Cronbach's alphas ranging from .90 to .95 (Gerger et al., 2007). The test-re-test reliability coefficients were also of satisfactory levels (Gerger et al., 2007). Based on the aforementioned benefits of the AMMSA, this measure was chosen to be implemented to assess police personnel myths relating to sexual aggression.

Rape victim and perpetrator empathy.

Considering the role of empathy is important, as rape myths are a way of causing doubts and disbelief of rape victims; resulting in a lack of victim empathy (Hebert, 2013). Throughout the literature, empathy has been defined in a number of different ways, with early empathy researchers defining it as an 'effective reaction' (Mehrabian & Epstein, 1972; Stotland, Matthews, Sherman, Hansson, & Richardson, 1978), with much more recent researchers defining empathy to include cognitive and affective elements (Levenson & Ruef, 1992). Others have defined empathy to include the understanding of the feelings of another individual (Kohler, 1929), which can include recognising their feelings (Davis, 1980; Hoffman, 1987; Ickes, Stinson, & Bissonnette, 1990), and taking another person's perspective on a situation, or having the cognitive ability to put oneself in that persons place in order to understand how they are feeling (Mead, 1934). More recently, empathy

has been described as a socio-cognitive attribute; allowing the ability to understand distinct cognitive and affective states, which elicits the development of positive attitudes towards others (Tarrant, Dazeley & Cottom, 2009). Previous research has suggested that rape empathy can impact how much empathy someone feels for a rape victim (Osland, Fitch, & Willis, 1996), which may affect perceptions of blame and responsibility in a rape situation. This is important as rape myths are a way of excusing the actions of the perpetrator, by causing doubts and disbelief in the rape victim, thus creating a lack of victim empathy (Hebert, 2013). Furthermore, previous research has found that rape victims who are treated with more empathy and respect are more likely to follow through with the reporting procedures, cooperate with police, and be satisfied with the criminal justice system (Allen, 2007; Campbell, 1998).

Defining rape empathy.

Rape empathy has had various definitions in research, from positive feelings and greater identification with a rape victim (Dietz, Blackwell & Bentley, 1982), to an understanding of the perspective or emotions of the rape victim or perpetrator (Smith & Frieze, 2003), and the amount of empathy someone feels for a rape victim in a rape situation (Osland et al., 1996). Rape empathy may have implications for police personnel perceptions of blame, as rape empathy applies to a rape context which includes two perspectives; the perpetrator and the victim (Smith & Frieze, 2003). Osman (2011) suggests that rape victim empathy influences blame in rape cases, meaning that police officers who have the capacity to empathise with the rape victim, may be influenced in their perceptions of the rape victim, and the victim's credibility. Thus, empathy is important in a rape context as it may influence other perceptions and judgements of rape victims (Smith & Frieze, 2003). In relation to legal proceedings, perpetrator rape empathy can be used by the

defence to highlight how the perpetrator was not at fault and that they are the innocent party, unlike the alleged victim (Feild & Beinen, 1980), meaning that empathy can impact how victims and perpetrators are perceived (Smith & Frieze, 2003).

Measuring rape empathy.

Rape is a unique offence insofar as the perpetrator has the ability to claim that the victim consented to the act (Archambault & Lindsay, 2001). Due to the two conflicting perspectives existing in a rape situation (victim vs. perpetrator), the Rape Empathy Scale (RES) was created as a specialised measure for this setting (Dietz, Blackwell & Bentley, 1982), and is the most widely used scale to assess rape empathy (Ferrão, Gonçalves, Parreira, & Giger 2013). Responses for the RES are measured on a 7-point Likert scale, so that each item score of 1 indicates a strong perpetrator empathy, and 7 indicates strong rape victim empathy (Dietz et al., 1982). However, the RES has been criticised by Smith and Frieze (2003) for using statements that do not directly measure rape empathy but rape myths; such as "if a man rapes a sexually active woman, he would probably (his actions would not) justify it using the fact that she chooses to have sexual relations with other men". Smith and Frieze (2003) argue that if a participant truly takes the perspective of a rape victim, then they cannot rely on rape myths, agreeing that "stereotypes do not reflect empathy" (p.477). In addition, the RES is criticised for only measuring empathy when a rape is perpetrated by a man against a woman (e.g. female victim male perpetrator) (Olsen-Fulero & Fulero, 1997). Furthermore, the RES has also been criticised for assuming that empathy for the victim and perpetrator are mutually exclusive. For example, that an individual cannot report empathy for both parties, which Smith and Frieze (2003) argue is possible as victim empathy and perpetrator empathy are independent as they are theoretically measuring different perspectives which may not affect one another. Previous research which has found no relationship between rape victim and perpetrator empathy

(Ferrão et al., 2013). Thus, Smith and Frieze (2003) developed a measure to assess rape victim empathy and rape perpetrator empathy; measuring them using two separate scales (the Rape Victim Empathy Scale (RVES) and Rape Perpetrator Empathy Scale (RPES)). Smith and Frieze's (2003) scale is also gender-neutral, although it is argued that individuals are still likely to envisage a male perpetrator and female victim due to cultural gender expectations regarding rape (Hannon, Kuntz, Van Laar, Williams, & Hall, 1996). The Smith and Frieze (2003) RPES/RVES also have a parallel structure, reflecting emotional and cognitive aspects in relation to rape victim and perpetrator empathy during and after the rape subscales (Ferrão et al., 2013). Based on the above-mentioned benefits of RPES and RVES respectively, these will be implemented in the thesis to measure rape empathy of police personnel.

Social desirability.

It was deemed essential to take social desirability into account due to the fact that the police service is continually open to scrutiny from the public, the media, and other organisations on how they handle sexual offence cases. These factors can mean that police personnel may feel obliged to answer any questions relating to their perceptions of sexual offences in a socially desirable way; portraying the police service in a positive light (Page, 2007, 2008a, 2008b, 2010; Rich & Seffrin, 2012). Despite the recognition that such individuals may desire to respond in a socially desirable fashion; this is not always taken into account in research which requires police personnel to provide answers relating to sensitive matters (Lee et al., 2012). Police personnel feeling that they have to answer questions regarding sexual offences in a 'politically correct' way, may also lead them to answering dishonestly (Abdullah-Kahn, 2002; Campbell, 1995), meaning that answers may not reflect how they genuinely feel. To mitigate against any social desirability effects, the

Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale-Short Form (Reynolds, 1982) will be implemented in the empirical studies in this thesis that gather data from policing populations. This measure is a 13-item scale that measures social desirability in participants, and has demonstrated strong psychometric properties (Venema, 2013). Participants are required to select "True" or "False" to each of the 13-items. An example item is "There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right" and such an item would score on higher social desirability bias. Necessary items are also reverse scored to indicate social desirability.

Vignette methodology.

Vignettes have been widely used in rape research (Bell, Kuriloff, & Lottes, 1994; Frese, Moya, & Megias, 2004), and research investigating violence and victimisation (Sleed, Durrheim, Solomon & Baxter, 2002). Vignettes include a short description of a situation, containing elements that are considered important for a participant's judgements, such as presenting a scenario in a "concrete, detailed, context-specific and standardized way" (Venema, 2013, p.131). They allow the context to be explored, allowing for participants' judgements, and provide a less personal and threatening way of exploring sensitive topics, as participants may find it difficult to answer such questions in other situations (Barter & Renold, 1999; Neale, 1999). Therefore, the less threatening and personal nature of vignettes makes them highly suitable for assessing police personnel perceptions of sexual offences due the reasons outlined in the social desirability section above (Page, 2008b).

Anderson and Lyons (2005) have also provided some recommendations when using vignettes to measure perceptions of sexual offences (and rape). They suggest that a too detailed vignette would be detrimental to rape perceptions because the attributional process that occurs in everyday life (e.g. outside laboratory conditions), which often relies

on “partial and incomplete information typical of rape accounts” (p. 19). Thus, if a vignette is too detailed it will not represent real life, or real cases that police personnel deal with every day. However, if vignettes include too little detail and not enough information, participants will have to ‘fill in the blanks’ based on their own inferences, biases and perceptions (Anderson & Lyons, 2005). Anderson and Lyons (2005) also argue that rape research should focus on the inference’s participants make in addition to the information that is provided in the vignettes when judging rape incidences, which is the premise this thesis based its’ vignettes on. Vignettes are also very useful in enabling researchers to systematically vary the characteristics contained within them; allowing for precise investigation as to how the effects of the elements changed within the vignettes and characteristics of participants, correspond to any changes in attitudes or judgements (Alexander & Becker, 1978). In this thesis, Schuller and Stewart (2000) vignettes which analysed male and female officers’ responses to an acquaintance rape situation involving alcohol, will be adapted to measure police personnel perceptions of sexual offences. Specifically, Schuller and Stewart’s (2000) vignettes will be adapted to fit the legal requirements defined in the Sexual Offences Act (2003) for the offences of: male rape (male perpetrator), female rape (male perpetrator), sexual assault by penetration and sexual activity without consent, enabling investigation of police personnel perceptions of the aforementioned offences. In addition, as the thesis will also gather information on police personnel professional and personal characteristics, the vignettes will also enable us to investigate the relationship of these characteristics in relation to the different sexual offences represented in the vignettes.

The use of vignettes has both strengths and limitations. It has been argued that through “conceptualisation and standardization, vignettes provide a more valid and reliable measure of opinion, than “simpler” and more abstract questionnaires” (Venema, 2013,

p.131). However, vignettes have also been criticised as they only reflect a "snapshot of reality" (Venema, 2013, p. 131), and do not convey the complexity of real life or real cases. Despite the noted limitations, many studies have used vignettes in relation to understanding perceptions of sexual assault (Maurer, & Robinson, 2008; Schuller, & Stewart, 2000; Schneider, Mori, Lambert, & Wong, 2009; Taylor & Sorenson, 2005), and therefore the decision was made to utilise this methodology in this thesis with police personnel. Vignettes will be replicated from Schuller and Stewart (2000) which examined the differences between male and female police officers in how they responded to an acquaintance rape involving alcohol. As women cannot be perpetrators of rape in England and Wales as per the Sexual Offences Act (2003), the genders of the victims and perpetrators in each vignette will be manipulated to depict sexual activity without consent, sexual assault by penetration, female rape (male perpetrator), and male rape (male perpetrator). Thus, each vignette will reflect the aforementioned sexual offences; meeting the legal definition of each offence in the Sexual Offences Act (2003). The decision was also made so that the sexual assault by penetration and sexual activity without consent vignettes will include a male victim and a female perpetrator. If it was not for time constraints of police personnel (as previously discussed), it would have been desirable to also include additional vignettes of the aforementioned sexual offences with varying genders; however, to do so would have substantially increased participation time and potentially attrition rates. In order to cater for all combinations of male and female victims/perpetrators in all of the vignettes; police personnel would have to view a substantial number of vignettes, followed by a questionnaire per vignette. By including a female perpetrator and male victim in sexual activity without consent and sexual assault by penetration, there is potential that any differences observed in perceptions of the aforementioned sexual offences and rape (female and male), may be related to rape myths

that are traditionally associated with male rape. For example "men are incapable of functioning sexually unless they are sexually aroused" (Smith et al., 1988, p. 103); "men cannot be forced against their will" (Stermac, Boce, Del & Addison, 2004, p.901); "men are less affected by sexual assault than women" (Stermac et al., 2004, p.901); "men are in a constant state of readiness to accept any sexual opportunity" (Clements-Schreiber & Rempel, 1995, p.199); and "a man is expected to be able to defend himself against sexual assault" (Groth & Burgess, 1980, p. 808). Furthermore, this decision also ties into the suggestion that there is a cultural denial that females can be sex offenders (Denov, 2003), and that sexual offences conducted by females are silent and hidden crimes (Eastwood, 2003). Thus, it is suggested that victims of a female perpetrator in the vignettes may be perceived more negatively that those who are a victim of a male perpetrator. It is for the aforementioned reasons that sexual activity without consent and sexual assault by penetration vignettes will include female perpetrators and not male.

The vignettes from Schuller and Stewart (2000) will only be adapted to alter the gender of the perpetrator and victim and the type of sexual offence being reported. By only changing the aforesaid characteristics amongst the vignettes, any changes in perceptions within the vignettes can be attributed to the differences in these characteristics when perceived by the same police personnel. The following is an example vignette from Schuller and Stewart (2000):

The morning after a university toga party, Jane Wilson arrived at the police station to press a charge of rape against John Ryan. She stated that she had arrived at the party with a group of friends, and midway through the evening met John Ryan. Jane stated that she had consumed alcohol during the party. At the end of the evening, John offered to walk her home to the house she shared with two other students. When they got back to her place, she

invited John into her house for a cup of coffee. After coffee, they started kissing on the couch and John started undoing her toga. She stated that she did not want to have sex. John said that it was OK that she didn't want to have sex, and they continued to fool around. Then he undressed himself, and against her objections, penetrated her. Jane Wilson stated that she had not struggled and there was no evidence of bruising. The police interviewed John Ryan. He admitted to having sexual intercourse with Jane Wilson, but maintained that she was a willing participant. He also stated that he had not consumed any alcohol over the course of the evening.

For the sexual activity without consent vignette, the above vignette will be changed to the following:

The morning after a university party, Oliver Wilson (complainant) arrives at a police station to press a charge of sexual activity without consent, which was perpetrated by Chloe Anderson (perpetrator). He stated that he had arrived at the party with a group of friends, and midway through the evening met Chloe Anderson. At the end of the evening, Chloe offered to walk him home to the house he shared with two other students. When they got back to his place they started kissing on the couch and Chloe started undoing his top. Alex stated that he did not want to engage in any sexual activity; Chloe said that it was OK, and they continued to fool around. Then Chloe, against Oliver's objections, forced him to penetrate her with his penis. Oliver Wilson stated that he had not struggled and there was no evidence of bruising. The police interviewed Chloe Anderson. She admitted that Oliver Wilson penetrated her, but maintained that he was a willing participant.

The vignettes for female rape, sexual assault by penetration and male rape will also be adapted accordingly (Appendix G).

Online questionnaires compared to traditional paper-based surveys.

Past research has suggested that there is no difference in the validity and reliability of participants answers between questionnaires provided as 'hard copy versions' and questionnaires administered online (Buchanan & Smith, 1999; Pettit, 2002). However, Tuten, Urban and Bosnjak (2002) found in their review that self-report datum may be more accurate when gathered online, due to social desirability being found to be lower on web-based surveys than paper versions (Reitz & Wahl, 1999). Rowe, Poortinga and Pidgeon (2006) also suggest that surveys administered electronically may also be an improvement over other methods, as they may provide less biased and more truthful responses, since they can guarantee anonymity for participants (Cooper, 1998). This is particularly relevant when analysing police personnel perceptions of rape, as noted in the social desirability section above. Another benefit of online survey research is that it allows researchers to test populations which would otherwise be difficult or impossible to reach through other means (Wellman, 1997). With the police service, it is not guaranteed when personnel will be available to participate in research due to their work commitments, meaning that online surveys can be easily accessible by police personnel at their own convenient time and location (Binik, 2001; Cooper, 1998).

Using online questionnaires will allow us to do the following for this thesis: 1) access a diverse group of participants (in this instance gathering data from police personnel on a national level) (Riva, Teruzzi, & Anolli, 2003); and 2) enabled immediate receipt and ease of access for analysis (Tourangeau, 2004).

Differences between the two studies.

The two studies will be vastly different in their aims, even though their overall purpose is to measure police personnel perceptions of sexual offences. The aim of Study

One is to investigate personal and professional characteristics in relation to rape myths and rape empathy, and therefore will administer the following measures to police personnel: RVES (Appendix C) and RPES (Appendix C) and AMMSA (Appendix D), in addition to asking them questions with regards to their personal (Appendix A) and professional characteristics (Appendix B). Study Two aims to investigate police personnel perceptions in relation to other sexual offences in addition to that of female rape (male perpetrator); specifically, male rape (male victim male perpetrator), sexual activity without consent, and sexual assault by penetration. This will be achieved through measuring personnel perceptions of several vignettes (Appendix D) of the aforementioned sexual offences. Study Two will also investigate perceptions of the above-mentioned sexual offences in relation to police personnel professional and personal characteristics. Study Two will also qualitatively measure (Appendix F) how police personnel define the aforesaid sexual offences, and if they feel their perceptions have changed since first began their careers in the police service, and if so, which factors they feel have altered their perceptions.

Chapter Three

Study One: Police Personnel's Personal and Professional Characteristics in Relation to Perceptions of Rape and Empathy

Study One will address the following research questions: what personal characteristics, if any, of police personnel influence their perceptions of rape, and what professional characteristics, if any, influence police personnel perceptions of rape. Study One will also test several hypotheses regarding the personal characteristics of personnel in relation to rape myth acceptance and rape empathy. Firstly, it is hypothesised that male personnel will be more accepting of rape myths compared to female personnel. Secondly, it is predicted that Christian personnel will endorse more rape myths, be more empathetic to perpetrators of rape, and less empathetic to victims of rape than non-religious personnel. Thirdly, it is predicted that non-heterosexual police personnel will endorse less rape myths and be more empathetic to victims of rape, and less empathetic to perpetrators of rape in comparison to heterosexual police personnel. Forth, it is hypothesised that as rape myths increase, rape perpetrator empathy will also increase, and rape victim empathy will decrease. Fifth, it is predicted that married police personnel may endorse more rape myths than non-married police personnel, and be more empathetic to perpetrators of rape than to victims, compared to non-married police personnel. Sixth, it is predicted that there will be no relationship between age and rape myths in police personnel. Finally, it is predicted that when considering all personal characteristics; gender identity, religion, marital status and sexual orientation, will be predictive of rape myths, victim empathy, and perpetrator empathy.

With regards to professional characteristics, Study One will also test the following hypotheses. Firstly, it is hypothesised that as police personnel educational level increases,

their rape myth acceptance will decrease. Secondly, as education level increases, victim empathy will increase, and perpetrator empathy will decrease. Thirdly, as years of service increases, rape myths will decrease. Forth, it is predicted that the longer police personnel serve in the police service, the higher their rape victim empathy, and the lower their rape perpetrator empathy. Fifth, it is predicted that there would be no relationship between sexual assault training and rape myth acceptance, or rape empathy. Lastly, when taking all other professional characteristics into account; education level and years of service will predict rape myths and rape empathy.

Chapter One presented findings from a systematic literature review on police personnel rape myths. The findings from the review highlighted that a variety of personal and professional characteristics had been identified to relate to police personnel perceptions; however, there were some characteristics that were unexplored which in non-policing populations had been suggested to be related to rape myth endorsement. Furthermore, many previous studies in this area tended to analyse personal and professional characteristics in isolation, without taking into account how the relationship between such characteristics may play a role in police personnel perceptions.

The current chapter builds on previous research (covered in Chapter One) by examining under-researched personal (e.g. gender identity, age, religion, marital status, ethnicity) and professional characteristics (e.g. years of experience, sexual assault training, and education level) of police personnel and their perceptions of rape, quantifiably evaluating not only how each characteristics relates to their rape myths, but also their rape empathy, and whether some personal or professional factors are more significant than others. In addition, the current chapter will also investigate previously unexplored characteristics in relation to police personnel rape myths and empathy. Furthermore, due to previous research highlighting that sexual assault training is not successful in reducing

police officers' rape myths (Lee et al., 2012; Muram et al., 1995; Sleath, 2011; Sleath & Bull, 2012), the current study also analysed how personnel perceive sexual assault training in terms of its relevance and usefulness.

Method

Design

The design of this study was a between participants survey design examining the relationship between personnel personal (gender identity, marital status, religion), and professional characteristics (education level, rank, main role, relevance of sexual assault training, usefulness of sexual assault training), and rape myth beliefs and rape empathy (see Chapter Two for in-depth discussion on methodological review). The relationship between rape victim empathy and rape perpetrator empathy was also examined.

Power Analyses

Several priori power calculations were conducted to compute the required sample size for this study.

G*Power analysis for a multiple regression with two predictors with a medium effect size of 0.09, and to achieve a power of 0.80, indicated that a sample size of 109 is required.

G*Power analysis for a correlation, with a medium effect size of 0.30 suggests that to achieve a power of 0.80, a sample size of 64 is needed.

Power analysis for a one-way ANOVA, with a small effect size of 0.10 with a power of 0.80, indicated a sample size of 1096. However, a power analysis for a one-way ANOVA, with a large effect size of 0.40 with a power of 0.80, indicated that a sample size of 76 is required.

Participants

One-hundred and sixty-four police personnel took part in this study, with 91 identifying as male and 70 identifying as female. Please see Table 17 for the descriptive statistics of the personal characteristics of police personnel that participated in Study One.

Table 17.

Police Personnel Personal Characteristics (N=164)

	N	%
Gender Identity		
Male	91	55.49
Female	70	42.68
Prefer not to say	1	0.61
Transgender	1	0.61
Other[a]	1	0.61
Age		
Minimum	24	
Maximum	58	
Range	34	
Mean	40.54	
SD	7.91	
Marital Status		
Married	93	56.71
Cohabiting	35	21.34
Separated	7	4.27
Divorced	9	5.49
Single	20	12.20
Religion		
Christian (Including Church of England, Catholic, Protestant all other Christian denominations)	84	51.22
Buddhist	1	0.61

No religion	77	46.95
Any other religion[b]	2	1.22
Sexual Orientation		
Heterosexual	152	92.68
Lesbian	5	1.83
Gay	2	1.22
Bisexual	3	1.83
Asexual	1	0.61
Prefer not to say	1	0.61
Ethnicity		
White	162	98.78
Mixed/Multiple ethnic group	1	0.61
Black/African/Caribbean/Black British	1	0.61

Notes.

[a] Either N=1

[b] Jedi N=1, Pantheistic N= 1

Study One also included police personnel from a variety of departments, such as officers who directly deal with rape victims, and those who work in other areas of crime, which may not entail direct victim contact. Table 18 provides the descriptive statistics of professional characteristics of police personnel who participated in Study One.

Table 18.

Police Personnel Professional Characteristics (N=164)

	N	%
Education		
GCSE/O level	34	20.73
BTEC	11	6.71
A-level	39	23.78
Undergraduate Degree	57	34.75
Masters Degree	15	9.15
PhD Degree	2	1.22
Other	6	3.66
Rank		
Police Constable	100	60.98
Police Sergeant	30	18.29
Inspector	12	7.32
Chief Inspector	4	2.44
Superintendent	1	0.61
Police Staff Employee	14	8.54
Other	3	1.83
Main Role		
Neighbourhood	12	7.32
Response	32	19.51
Public Protection	29	17.68
CID (Criminal Investigators Department)	26	15.85
Management	3	1.83
Firearms	1	0.61
Tactical/Operational Support Unit	2	1.22
Intelligence	5	3.05
Criminal Justice Unit	2	1.22
Community Safety	6	3.66
Serious Crime	14	8.54
Volume Crime	2	1.22

Other[a]	30	18.29
Hours spent in sexual assault training		
Minimum	0	
Maximum	600	
Range	600	
Mean	45.91	
SD	82.54	
Sexual assault trained officers		
Non-sexual assault trained officers	64	39.02
Sexual assault trained officers	94	57.32
Other[b]	6	3.66
Years of Experience		
Minimum	1	
Maximum	37	
Range	36	
Mean	14.00	
SD	7.18	

Notes.

[a] Auditor N=1 (0.60%), Change team N=1 (0.60%), Child safeguarding N=1 (0.60%), Control room staff N=1 (0.60%), Counter terrorism N=1 (0.60%), Crime bureau N=1 (0.60%), Crime training N=1 (0.60%), Custody N=3 (1.80%), Domestic abuse investigator N=1 (0.60%), Economic crime N=1 (0.60%), Financial investigator N=1 (0.60%), Front desk N=1 (0.60%), Local district policing team N=1 (0.60%), Learning and development N=1 (0.60%), Licensing N=1 (0.60%), Local district policing team N=1 (0.60%), Major crime N=1 (0.60%), Organised crime N=1 (0.60%), Partnerships N=1 (0.60%), Protecting vulnerable people from child abuse N=1 (0.60%), Public contact N=1 (0.60%), Police enquiry office N=1 (0.60%), Rape investigation N=2 (1.20%), Support N=1 (0.60%), Training N=4 (2.40%)

[b] Some police personnel declined to indicate whether they had received sexual assault training

Materials

Information Sheet. An invitation sheet (Appendix H) was emailed to a senior person in a specific police force who acted as the gatekeeper, and who emailed the information sheet nationally to senior members in other police services, requesting that the study be advertised on each police services' intranet. The information sheet included an introduction to the study, reasons for participating, eligibility, what to expect from their participation, length of time for participation, and advantages/disadvantages of participating. The form also emphasised that participation was entirely voluntary, and that the data would be completely confidential and anonymous. A link to the study at the bottom of the page took personnel willing to participate to Qualtrics, where they could complete the questionnaires online.

Identification Number. For anonymity, police personnel were asked to create a unique participation identification code before they began the study. They provided the last two digits of their year of birth, the first two letters of their mother's maiden name and the last two letters of their previous address. For example: someone born in 1982 whose mother's maiden name is Smith and lived on Salisbury Rd would be 82SMRY.

Personal Background Questionnaire. The personal background questionnaire (Appendix A) was devised and implemented to gather information on personnel personal characteristics. Police personnel were asked to indicate the gender that they identify with, age, marital status, religion, sexual orientation, and ethnic group.

Professional Background Questionnaire. This questionnaire (Appendix B) asked police personnel to provide their highest education level, rank, main role, police service that

they work for, years of experience in the police service, approximate hours of sexual assault training, how useful they felt that the sexual assault training they had received was, how relevant they feel the sexual assault training was, and the names of the sexual training courses that they have undertaken.

Rape Victim Empathy Scale (RVES) and Rape Perpetrator Empathy Scale (RPES- Smith & Frieze, 2003). These scales were selected based on the explanations in Chapter Two. Both questionnaires measured rape victim and perpetrator empathy (Appendix C), consisting of two 18-item scales. Police personnel were required to indicate their level of agreement with each item on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The RVES includes items such as: "*I find it easy to take the perspective of a rape victim",* and the RPES includes items such as "*I can imagine how a person who raped might feel during an actual rape"*. Two items in both measures were reverse-scored so that higher scores indicated higher empathy, and scores were evaluated by using mean values. Both scales showed an acceptable level of reliability (RVES α=.82 and RPES α=.79). Previous research has found an α=.84 for the RVES, and α=.89 for the RPES (Smith & Frieze, 2003).

Acceptance of Modern Myths About Sexual Aggression Scale (AMMSA- Gerger et al., 2007). AMMSA (Appendix D) measures modern myths regarding sexual aggression in general, and participants indicated, on a 7-point Likert scale, their level of agreement with 30 statements; an example item would be *"when it comes to sexual contacts, women expect men to take the lead"*. Statement scores ranged from 1 (completely disagree) to 7 (completely agree). The AMMSA demonstrated an excellent level of reliability for the current study (α=.90; Kline, 1999), which is consistent with the level of reliability of the

measure in previous research (α =.90; α =.95, α =92) (Gerger et al., 2007). Scale scores were averaged with higher scores indicating greater rape myth acceptance and lower scores indicating lower endorsement of rape myth acceptance.

Social Desirability Short Form-C (Reynolds, 1982). Developed from the 33-item Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964) the Social Desirability Short-Form (Appendix E) (Reynolds, 1982) measures the impact of social desirability on self-report measures, and this was considered especially important considering the personal nature of the questions being asked of police personnel. Form C was used which consisted of 13 items from the original Marlow-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. Participants were required to indicate either 'true' or 'false' to statements as *"It is sometimes hard for me to go out with my work if I am not encouraged"*. It was seen as appropriate to implement Form C of the scale as it is brief and easy to administer (Reynolds, 1982). The Social Desirability Short Form (Reynolds, 1982) generated a α=.46, which is below what is considered a satisfactory level (Kline, 1999). This is not consistent with previous research that has found an acceptable level of reliability of α=.76 for the Social Desirability Scale (Reynolds, 1982). Responses were rated as either socially desirable (0) or not socially desirable (1).

Data Collection

Data was collected in two studies (please see Chapter Two for methodological review). Study One collected data from April to May 2016.

Procedure

Participants were recruited via police forces' intranets, through an advertised information sheet (Appendix H) which was displayed on their desktops upon logging on. The information sheet provided information that allowed police personnel to make an informed decision regarding participation, and further details were included in the consent form. Upon clicking on the link on the information sheet, they were taken to Qualtrics and shown the consent form (Appendix L). Police personnel had to review and agree with each statement on the consent form in order to continue with the study, and view the questionnaires. Upon agreeing with the conditions set out in the consent form, personnel proceeded to input their identification number, and were presented with the personal background questionnaire (Appendix A) and professional background questionnaire (Appendix B), followed by the RVES (Appendix C) and RPES (Appendix C) and AMMSA (Appendix D). Finally, they were presented with the Social Desirability Scale (Appendix E). Following completion of the questionnaires, they were presented with the Debrief form (Appendix J), where they could seek further information or support if the content of the study had caused distress, as well as locate the contact details of the researchers, if needed. The studies One and Two were approved by the School of Psychology Ethics Committee at the University of Kent, following the guidelines laid down by the British Psychological Society.

Results

Missing Data

When exploring the data, 15.38% were blank cases (42/273) and 24.54% (67/273) of cases were where participants had not answered an entire measure; thus these 109 cases

were omitted from the study. For the remaining 164 cases, mean substitution is a popular way of estimating missing values (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Means were calculated from the available datum and used to replace missing values prior to analyses (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). This method is more conservative, and the mean for the distribution will not change (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Replacing missing Likert datum with "mean substitution replaces the missing value with the mean from all individuals completing that variable" (Downey & King, 1998, p. 176). This approach is suggested to retain the original mean but reduces variance and scale correlations (covariance) with other scales (Little, 1988; Roth, 1994; Roth & Switzer, 1995). This method is also good for attitudinal scales as they are generally constructed to ensure that their items correlate (Crocker & Algina, 1986), and therefore using the mean of the items that have been responded to by a participant in a scale is suggested to be a reasonable estimation for the missing item for the specific individual (Downey & King, 1998). Seven cases that had missing Likert datum (4.27% of remaining datum) were replaced by the mean for each specific case on the measure that had missing datum, for example, if a case had a mean of 4 across the AMMSA scale, then any missing datum for that case was replaced by 4. Once missing datum was replaced with the mean, the maximum amount of missing datum was reduced to 1.2%. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) recommend that a dataset should include no more than 5% of missing data, and the current dataset is in line with this.

Outliers

The data was checked for outliers, which is the process that has been suggested to reduce the likelihood of a Type 1 and Type 2 error for non-normality (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). An inspection of the histograms did not indicate any extreme scores.

Assumption of Normality

An analysis of normality of each item was investigated in terms of kurtosis and skewness. According to guidelines for severe non-normality (skew>2, kurtosis>7) recommended by West, Finch and Curran (1995), the normality assumption was met for all items (see Table 19). A Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test was also conducted and demonstrated that the scores on rape perpetrator empathy were not significantly non-normal, $D(164)= .07$, $p=.066$. The normality assumption was violated for rape victim empathy, $D(164)= .07$, $p=.029$, but not for rape myth scores, $D(164)= .059$, $p=.200$. In addition, the K-S test demonstrated that the scores were significantly non-normal for relevance of sexual assault training, $D(162)= .29$, $p<.001$, and usefulness of sexual assault training, $D(162)= .30$, $p<.001$.

Field (2014) suggests that the K-S Test should be used in conjunction with the histograms, P-P or Q-Q plots and the values of skewness and Kurtosis. An inspection of the P-P and Q-Q plots (Appendix N) for rape myth acceptance, rape victim empathy and rape perpetrator empathy, show that the quantiles fall very close to the line which represents a normal distribution (Field, 2014). In addition, an inspection of the P-P and Q-Q plots (Appendix N) for relevance and usefulness of sexual assault training, show that the quantiles also fall very close to the line. This is at odds with the K-S test that highlighted a significant result, which Field (2014) suggests can lead very minor deviations from normality to be determined as significant in large samples. Based on the guidelines for severe non-normality (West et al., 1995), and interpretations of the Q-Q and P-P plots, it was decided the variables did not severely deviate from normality.

Descriptive Statistics

In analysing the data from this study, the initial process also involved examining the descriptive statistics for myths of sexual violence, rape victim and rape perpetrator

empathy, and usefulness and relevance of sexual assault training (see Table 19). Table 19 indicates that police personnel had more empathy for rape victims than they did for perpetrators of rape, and perceived sexual assault training as useful and relevant. In addition, it can be seen in Table 19 that police personnel had low levels of rape myths overall.

Table 19.

Descriptive Statistics of Rape Myth Acceptance, Rape Victim Empathy and Rape Perpetrator Empathy (N=164)

	M	*SD*	*Skew*	*Kurtosis*
Myths of sexual aggression	2.74	.69	.05	-.34
Rape victim empathy	3.43	.42	-.71	2.01
Rape perpetrator empathy	2.76	.37	-.16	-.41
Relevance of sexual assault training	1.99	1.26	1.92	4.49
Usefulness of sexual assault training	2.07	1.27	1.88	4.14

Note. Myths of sexual aggression and usefulness/relevance of sexual assault training on a 7-point scale, rape empathy on a 5-point scale.

Analytical Strategy

This section describes the analytical strategy implemented in the results section. The sample size is 164, and therefore meets the necessary power requirements to carry out the below analyses.

Bivariate analyses.

To assess for multicollinearity, a Point Biserial Correlation was calculated for police personnel perceptions and personal and professional characteristics. This type of correlation

is used when one variable is dichotomous (e.g. marital status, gender identity, religion) and one is continuous (e.g. age) (Field, 2014).

Coding of personal characteristics.

Several variables were re-coded to be suitable for bivariate analyses. It was found that a large proportion of participants identified as either male or female; with 1.83% identifying as either transgender, 'other', or preferring not to say. Due to the sufficiently small number of participants not identifying as male or female, analyses will exclude 1 transgender, one 'prefer not to say' and one 'other'. Table 17 shows that for marital status, just over half of the sample were married, with the remaining not being married; thus, marital status was divided into married and not married. For religion, there were nearly an equal number of police personnel identifying as Christians and non-religious. Therefore, religion was coded into non-religious and Christian police personnel, excluding 1 participant who identified as Buddhist and 2 identifying as 'other' (including 1 participant identifying as a Jedi and 1 identifying as a Pantheistic). Ethnicity was not re-coded as 98.80% of the sample were white, and therefore would not be included in the following analyses. The same applies to sexual orientation as 92.68% of the sample identified themselves as being heterosexual.

Coding of professional characteristics.

In relation to professional characteristics, education level was recoded into two levels, lower education (including GCSEs, BTEC, A level, Other and no education), and upper education (Undergraduate, Masters, and PhD). Splitting education level via lower and upper was felt to enable analyses of university education compared to school/college education; thus, reflecting the British education system (UK Education System Guide,

2018). Table 18 showed that the majority of police personnel were Police Constables (69.8%), and therefore rank was recoded into Police Constable and 'other' ranks. Lastly, for the main role characteristic, to make it suitable for bivariate analyses, most officers identified as being response officers, and therefore main role was recoded into response officers and non-response officers.

Multivariate analyses.

Significant relationships between police personnel perceptions and personnel characteristics from the bivariate correlation were further analysed. For categorical variables additional analyses were conducted using a one-way ANOVA. In relation to continuous datum, a multiple regression was conducted.

One-way ANOVA.

The Point Biserial Correlation identified a significant relationship between rape myths and education level. To investigate this relationship further, a one-way ANOVA was implemented, with education level (GCSE/O level, BTEC, A-level, Undergraduate Degree, Masters Degree, PhD, No Qualifications, and Other) as the dependent variable, and credibility in sexual activity without consent vignette as the independent variable.

The Point Biserial Correlation (Table 20), also showed that rape perpetrator empathy was significantly correlated with religion. To determine whether differences could be seen between non-religious and Christian police personnel in rape perpetrator empathy; a one-way ANOVA was conducted with rape perpetration empathy as the dependent variable and religion as the independent variable.

Multiple regression.

Bivariate analyses also found a significant relationship between rape acceptance and usefulness and relevance of sexual assault training. In order to asses this relationship further, a multiple regression was conducted with rape myth acceptance as the dependent variable and usefulness and relevant of sexual assault training as the predictors.

Police Characteristics and Perceptions: Correlations and Descriptive Statistics

A Point Biserial Correlation was calculated for police personnel perceptions and personal and professional characteristics. Table 20 shows several significant correlations.

Table 20.

Police Personnel Characteristics and Perceptions: Correlations and Descriptive Statistics (N=157)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Rape Victim Empathy	-													
2. Rape Perpetrator Empathy	.25**	-												
3. Rape Myths	-.03	.16*	-											
4. Usefulness of Sexual Assault Training	-.21*	.06	.17*	-										
5. Relevance of Sexual Assault Training	-.16	.03	.23**	.89**	-									
6. Education	.04	.04	-.32**	-.15	-.14	-								
7. Rank	.05	.01	-.06	.14	.10	.14	-							
8. Main Role	.14	.08	-.06	-.11	-.15	.11	.12	-						
9. Years of Experience	-.00	-.05	.11	-.02	-.01	-.09	.23**	.29**	-					
10. Hours of Sexual Assault Training	-.04	-.14	-.04	-.35**	-.35**	.04	.04	.13	.21**	-				

11. Gender Identity	.13	-.08	-.09	-.05	-.03	.10	-.05	.13	-.10	.09	-			
12. Age	.10	-.02	.11	.05	.00	-.12	.22**	.33**	.69**	.17*	-.02	-		
13. Marital Status	.07	.08	.06	-.04	-.01	.04	-.06	-.11	-.21**	.13	.27**	-.211**	-	
14. Religion	.02	.22**	-.08	.07	.05	-.14	-.09	-.02	-.11	-.10	.06	-.05	.14	-
M	3.43	2.75	2.75	2.73	2.57	1.45	1.38	1.81	15.22	46.78	1.43	40.71	1.42	1.48
SD	.41	.37	.68	1.53	1.48	.50	.49	.39	7.08	83.46	.50	7.83	.50	.51

**p<.05 **p<.01*

Rape victim empathy was significantly positively correlated with rape perpetrator empathy, r=.25, 95% BCa CI [.04, .44], p=.001, showing that as rape victim empathy increases so does rape perpetrator empathy. Rape victim empathy was also significantly negatively correlated with usefulness of sexual assault training, r= -.21, 95% BCa CI [-.39, -.04], p=.008; meaning that the more useful personnel perceived sexual assault training, the less rape victim empathy they had.

Rape perpetrator empathy was significantly positively correlated to rape myth acceptance, r=.16, 95% BCa CI [-.01, .32], p=.041, showing that as rape perpetrator increases, so does rape myth acceptance. Rape perpetrator empathy was also positively correlated with religion, r=.22, 95% BCa CI [.07, .36], p=.006, showing that non-religious personnel were more empathetic to perpetrators of rape than Christian police personnel.

Rape myth acceptance was significantly positively correlated with usefulness of sexual assault training, r= .17, 95% BCa CI [.02, 32], p=.029, showing that the less useful police personnel perceived sexual assault training to be, the higher their rape myth endorsement. Rape myth acceptance was also significantly positively correlated with relevance of sexual assault training; showing that the less relevant police personnel perceived sexual assault training to be, the more rape myths they endorsed, r= .23, 95% BCa CI [.09, .39], p=.004.

Education level was significantly negatively correlated with rape myth acceptance, r=-.32, 95% BCa CI [-.46, -.18], p<.001, showing that police personnel with higher education level had less rape myths than personnel with lower education.

Usefulness of sexual assault training was significantly positively correlated with relevance of sexual assault training, r=.89, 95% BCa CI [.84, .93], p<.001, showing that the less useful police personnel found sexual assault training, the less relevant they perceived it to be. Usefulness of sexual assault training was also significantly negatively correlated with

hours of sexual assault training, r=-.35, 95% BCa CI [-.47, -.29], p<.001, showing that as hours of sexual assault training increases, the more useful police personnel found the training to be.

Hours of sexual assault training was also significantly negatively correlated with relevance of sexual assault training, r= -.35, 95% BCa CI [-.44, -.31], p<.001, showing that as the number of hours of sexual assault increased, the more relevant police personnel perceived the training to be.

Rank was significantly positively correlated with years of experience, r= .23, 95% BCa CI [.08, .38], p=.003, showing that police constables have less years of experience than 'other ranks'. Rank was also significantly positively corelated with age, r= .22, 95% BCa CI [.05, .37], p=.003, showing that Police Constables were younger than 'other ranks'.

Main role was significantly positively correlated with years of experience, r= .29, 95% BCa CI [.15, .42], p<.001, showing that police personnel with more years of experience were less likely to be neighbourhood policing, and more likely to be 'Other'. Main role was also significantly positively correlated with age, r= .33, 95% BCa CI [.18, .47], p<.001, showing that response officers were younger than non-response officers.

Years of experience was significantly positively correlated with age, r= .69, 95% BCa CI [.59, .78], p<.001, showing that the more years of experience police personnel have, the older they are. Years of experience was also negatively correlated with marital status, r= -.21, 95% BCa CI [-.36, .07], p=.007, showing that police personnel with more years of experience are more likely to be unmarried than married.

Hours of sexual assault training was found to be significantly positively correlated with age, r=.17, 95% BCa CI [.04, .27], p=.037, showing that older police personnel have received more hours of sexual assault training than younger police personnel.

Gender was found to be significantly positively correlated with marital status, r=.27, 95% BCa CI [.11, .42], p=.001, showing that female police personnel were more likely to be unmarried than male personnel.

Age was also found to be significantly negatively correlated with marital status, r=-.21, 95% BCa CI [-.36, -.06], p=.008, showing that older police personnel were more likely to be unmarried than younger police personnel.

The correlations in Table 20 showed that for continuous variables; relevance and usefulness of sexual assault training were significantly correlated with rape myth acceptance, and therefore a multiple regression was conducted; with rape myth acceptance as the dependent variable, and usefulness and relevance of sexual assault training as the predictors.

In relation to categorical datum, Table 20 showed that education was significantly correlated with rape myth acceptance, and rape perpetrator empathy was significantly correlated with religion. Therefore, two one-way ANOVA's were conducted to explore this further.

Rape Perpetrator Empathy and Religion

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine whether differences could be seen between Christian and non-religious police personnel in rape perpetrator empathy. Results revealed a statistically significant difference between Christian police personnel (M=2.68, SD=0.40) and non-religious police personnel (M=2.85, SD=0.33), in rape perpetrator empathy, F(1, 158)=8.03, p=.005, with a small size effect of d=0.46. An inspection of the mean scores indicates that Christian police personnel endorsed less empathy to perpetrators of rape than non-religious police personnel.

Rape Myth Acceptance

The model served as a statistically significant predictor for rape myth acceptance, indicating that the predictors combined account for 6.6% of the variance for rape myth acceptance (Table 21).

Table 21.

Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Rape Myth Acceptance

Model: R^2=.07, *p*=.004*	*b*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	*p*
Usefulness of Sexual Assault Training	-.06	.07	-.14	-.84	.40
Relevance of Sexual Assault Training	.17	08	.38	2.28	.02*

Note.

N=161, p<.05, ΔR^2* =.055, *df*= 161, *F*=5.62

Table 21 shows that the model served as a statistically significant predictor for the perceptions of rape myth acceptance. The standardized coefficient for relevance of sexual assault training suggests that for every unit of personnel perceived relevance of sexual assault training, there will be an increase of .38 for rape myth acceptance, which is significant (*p*=.02). Thus, personnel who perceived sexual assault training as less relevant were more likely to endorse rape myths.

Rape Myths and Education

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to analyse whether rape myths differed amongst the different levels of education; findings suggested that there was a significant difference in personnel rape myth acceptance between education levels *F*(6, 156)=4.17, *p*=.001, with a medium size effect of *r*=0.30. An inspection of the means suggests that police personnel with a GSCEs as their highest education level endorsed the most rape

myths (*M*=3.15, *SD*=0.65), followed by Other (*M*=3.04, *SD*=0.69), BTEC (*M*=2.87, *SD*=0.65), A-level (*M*=2.77, *SD*=0.68), Masters (*M*=2.51, *SD*=0.75), Undergraduate Degree (*M*=2.49, *SD*=0.62), and PhD (*M*=2.40, *SD*=0.75).

A post-hoc comparison using Bonferroni, indicated that rape myth scores for personnel with GCSEs did not significantly differ from personnel with BTEC (*p*=1.000), A-level (*p*=.326), PhD (*p*=1.000), and Other (*p*=1.000). Rape myth scores for personnel with GCSEs as their highest education level did differ significantly to rape myth scores of those with a Masters (*p*=.045), meaning that personnel with GCSEs significantly endorsed more rape myths than those with a Masters. Rape myth scores in personnel with GCSEs as their highest education level, also differed significantly to rape myth scores with personnel who had an Undergraduate Degree (*p*<.001), meaning that personnel with GCSEs significantly endorsed more rape myths than those with an Undergraduate degree.

Personnel with BTEC were not found to significantly differ in rape myths from personnel with A-levels (*p*=1.000), Undergraduate (*p*=1.000), Masters (*p*=1.000), PhD (*p*=1.000), and Other (*p*=1.000).

Personnel with A-levels did not significantly differ in rape myths from personnel with Undergraduate (*p*=.939), Masters (*p*=1.000), PhD (*p*=1.000), and Other (*p*=1.000).

Personnel with an Undergraduate degree did not significantly differ in rape myth acceptance from personnel with a Masters (*p*=1.000), PhD (*p*=1.000), and Other (*p*=1.000).

Personnel with a Masters degree did not significantly differ in rape myth endorsement from police personnel with PhD (*p*=1.000), and Other (*p*=1.000).

Lastly, personnel with Other as their highest education level, did not significantly differ from personnel with a PhD (*p*=.536).

Relevance and Usefulness of Sexual Assault Training

Table 22 suggests that police personnel generally view sexual assault training as useful, which is demonstrated by the high percentage of *Useful* responses in the item.

Table 22.

Item Percentages of Usefulness Sexual Assault Training (N=162)

Item	VU	U	SU	N	SNU	NU	NAAU
Usefulness of sexual assault training	19.50%	34.10%	19.50%	15.20%	3.0%	2.40%	4.90%

Note. VU= Very Useful, U=Useful, SU= Somewhat Useful, N= Neutral, SNU=Somewhat Not Useful, NU= Not Useful, NAAU= Not At All Useful

Table 23 also shows that most police personnel feel that sexual assault training is relevant for their work, which is indicated by the high percentage of the *Relevant* responses on the item.

Table 23.

Item Percentages of Relevance Sexual Assault Training (N=162)

Item	VR	R	SR	N	SI	IR	VI
Relevance of sexual assault training	25.60%	32.30%	15.20%	18.90%	2.40%	0.00%	4.30%

Note. VR= Very Relevant, R= Relevant, SR= Somewhat Relevant, N=Neutral, SI= Somewhat Irrelevant, IR= Irrelevant, VI= Very Irrelevant

Discussion

The aim of Study One was to establish whether any personal or professional characteristics of police personnel were related to rape myths, and rape victim and

perpetrator empathy. Our collective findings revealed specific personal and professional characteristics to be linked with rape myth acceptance and victim and perpetrator empathy.

In opposition to the first hypothesis, no relationship with gender identity, rape myths and rape empathy were found. No support was found for the second hypothesis; with findings showing that non-religious personnel were more empathetic to perpetrators of rape than Christian police personnel. However, a small effect size was found for this relationship; meaning that religion made up a small percentage of the total variance for rape perpetrator empathy. The third hypothesis could not be tested due to a substantial number of police personnel identifying as being heterosexual; thus, analyses of sexual orientation in relation to perceptions could not be conducted. The results lent some support to the forth hypothesis; finding that as rape victim empathy increases so does rape perpetrator empathy; and as rape perpetrator empathy increases, so does rape myth acceptance. However, the aforementioned relationships were found to be weak due to small effect sizes. The fifth hypothesis was not supported as findings revealed no differences in marital status in relation to rape myths and rape empathy. The sixth hypothesis was also not supported as no relationship was found between age and rape myth acceptance. The seventh hypothesis could not be tested as not all personal characteristics were independently related to rape perceptions.

In relation to professional characteristics, some support was found for the first hypothesis, as findings revealed that police personnel with a high education level had less rape myths than personnel with a lower education. Further investigation into the different levels of education in relation to rape myths found that police personnel with GCSEs as their highest education level endorsed more rape myths compared to those with degrees (Undergraduate, Masters). However, a small effect size was found for the relationship between rape myths and education level; meaning that even though this relationship is

significant, the proportion of rape myths attributed to education level in police personnel is small.

No support was found for the second hypothesis as education level was not related to rape empathy. No support was found for the third hypothesis, as years of service was found not to be related to rape myths. The results did not support the forth hypothesis, as length of service was not related to rape empathy. The fifth hypothesis was supported, as no relationship was found between sexual assault training and rape myth acceptance, or rape empathy. The last hypothesis could not be tested as no independent relationships were found between all professional characteristics; however, when considering usefulness and relevance of sexual assault training in predicting rape myths; relevance of sexual assault training was predictive; finding that personnel who perceived sexual assault training as less relevant were more likely to endorse rape myths. However, it is important to highlight that the model contributed to a small percentage of the variance of rape myth acceptance. Study One also found that overall, police personnel have a lower level of endorsement of rape myths.

As noted previously, Study One also investigated police personnel perceptions of sexual assault training in terms of perceived usefulness and relevance. Most perceived sexual assault training as both relevant and useful, and it was found that the less useful police personnel found sexual assault training to be, the less relevant they also perceived it to be. In addition, a large effect size was found, meaning that the relationship between relevance and usefulness of sexual assault training was very substantial. Secondly, the more sexual assault training hours police personnel received, the more relevant and useful they perceived such training to be; with a moderate relationship being found between relevant and usefulness with hours of sexual assault training. Thirdly, the less useful and less relevant police personnel perceived sexual assault training to be, the higher their rape myth

endorsement; and the more useful they perceived the training to be, the less victim empathy they had. However, it is important to highlight that small effect sizes were found for the relationship between perceptions of usefulness and relevance of sexual assault training with rape myths and victim empathy; thus, even though these relationships are significant; they are weak.

The finding of no relationship between gender identity and perceptions is not consistent with prior studies that have found that male police officers were more accepting of rape myths than female police officers (Brown & King, 1998; Muram et al., 1995; Rich & Seffrin, 2012, 2013, 2014; Schullar & Stewart, 2000; Sleath, 2011; Sleath & Bull, 2012, 2015). The fact that the current findings indicated no difference in rape myth endorsement between male and female police personnel may be explained by the possibility that women who serve in the police service, go against traditional sex-role stereotypes (Deitz et al., 1984), by working in a highly male-dominated environment (Santos, Leather, Dunn & Zerola, 2009). Thus, they may experience a buffer in the threat of rape, and assume that they have more physical strength (Rozee, 2008); therefore eliminating any differences in rape myth endorsement between the two genders. However, it could also be suggested that the positive changes in the police service over recent years to tackle discrimination against women, have also had a positive effect on rape myth endorsement between male and female personnel; thus, lessening rape myths in male personnel. These positive changes may relate to ‘positive action’ in the policing sector for gender equality, which refers to increasing female presence in higher positions in the police service (Van der Lippe, Graumans & Sevenhuijsen, 2004), and such affirmative action policies have also been suggested to increase the number of female police officers, and thus improved male attitudes (Stokes & Scott, 1996).

This thesis is also the first of its kind to investigate the relationship between religion and police personnel rape empathy. The present findings could potentially be explained through Christian virtues, which condemn sexual violence and rape, and view them as morally, ethically, and religiously unacceptable (Redmond, 1989). Specifically, morality in religion is perceived to be deeply engrained (McKay & Whitehouse, 2015), with some arguing that morality is impossible without a belief in God (Pew Research Global Attitudes Project, 2007). Moral theorists have highlighted several principles for morality: care-harm (it is wrong to harm another), fairness (people should not take more than they deserve), group loyalty-betrayal, respecting authority supervision, and lastly, purity degradation (the body is a temple and can be desecrated by immoral actions) (McKay & Whitehouse, 2015). Therefore, a person who rapes another person, may be perceived as violating these principles, and therefore is attributed less empathy; thus, explaining why Christian police personnel were less empathetic to perpetrators of rape than non-religious police personnel.

The fact that as rape victim empathy increases so does rape perpetrator empathy, and as rape perpetrator increases, so does rape myth acceptance, supports Smith and Frieze's (2003) suggestion that rape myths may not necessary reflect empathy as an individual "who truly takes the perspective of the rape victim cannot rely on rape myths" (p.477). Smith and Frieze's (2003) further suggest that victim and perpetrator empathy are independent from one another, as theoretically, they are measuring empathy from a different perspective. Therefore, police personnel appear to be generally empathetic overall, both to victims and perpetrators of rape.

The investigation of marital status and rape myth acceptance in policing populations has never been previously investigated. In non-policing samples, participants are often found to endorse more rape myths regarding marital rape than for acquaintance rape (Ferro et al., 2008). Although it is important to note that Ferro et al. (2008) measured participants'

perceptions of marital rape, not participants' marital status in relation to their rape myth acceptance; however, it was felt that analysing this relationship was important due to the suggestion that the patriarchal view of marriage, leads to the belief that a husband can have full access to his wife's body with or without her consent (Russell, 1998). Thus, married personnel were expected to accept more rape myths than non-married personnel; however, this was not found to be the case, and no differences were found between marital status and their perceptions.

The findings in relation to age and rape perceptions are in concordance with previous research; finding no relationship between age and rape myths (Fay, 2013). Age was not related to perpetrator and victim empathy, and to the best of the author's knowledge, this relationship has not been investigated before.

The results in relation to education level and rape myths; finding that police personnel with higher education endorsed less rape myths, than those with lower education, supports previous studies that have found the same (Page, 2007, 2008b). Education level was not found to be related to rape victim or perpetrator empathy; which could be explained by the notion that rape victim and rape perpetrator is not directly related to rape myths as they are taking different perspectives of an individual i.e. victim or perpetrator (Burt, 1980; Coller & Resick, 1987).

The current findings revealing no relationship between length of service and rape myth acceptance are not in concordance with previous research which has found contradictory findings, with some finding that an increase in years of experience was associated with a reduction in police employees' rape myths (Muram et al., 1995, Rich & Seffrin, 2012, 2013), whereas others have found that as years of experience increased, so did rape myth acceptance (Campbell, 1995; Muram et al., 1995; Rich & Seffrin, 2012,

2013). The current findings and previous research highlight a need to further explore the relationship between rape myths and length of service.

With regards to a lack of relationship between number of hours of sexual assault training and perceptions, this supports previous research that also found that sexual assault training is ineffective in altering officers' victim blaming attitudes (Lee et al., 2012; Lonsway et al., 2001; Muram et al., 1995; Sleath, 2011; Sleath & Bull, 2012).

The fact that police personnel were found to have relatively low levels of rape myths overall supports previous research that has found that police personnel in general have a low adherence to rape myths (LeDoux & Hazelwood, 1985). In recent years, there has been a focus in the policing sector in protecting vulnerable people; for example, the College of Police launched the 'public protection learning programme' in 2017. The aforementioned programme ensures a basic working knowledge of the 13 core disciplines of public protection; one of which is serious sexual offences. Such programmes may raise awareness of rape myths to police personnel; thus, potentially having a positive impact in rape myth reduction in policing populations.

As touched on already, Study One also investigated perceptions of sexual assault training. These findings therefore suggest that police personnel who perceive sexual assault training as useful and relevant, take in the information presented to them which has a positive impact on rape myths. Thus, personnel who find sexual assault training useful and relevant to their role are listening to the information presented to them, and such training tends to cover a variety of topics, for example: crisis intervention, victim response, and personal attitudes to rape (Lonsway et al., 2001). Personal attitudes to rape are perceived to be a block to an effective police response to rape (Lonsway et al., 2001), and therefore personnel that find this information useful may apply it in their work; increasing their understanding and lessening their rape myths. However, the current study also found that

police personnel who perceived sexual assault training as more useful were significantly less empathetic to victims of rape. This finding is difficult to explain, but it may be that sexual assault training is seen as more useful to personnel who may have more direct experience with rape victims and are more sceptical of allegations. Previous research has found that police officers consistently estimate false allegations of rape to be more frequent compared to prosecutors, which may be due to officers coming into contact with victims who retract their allegations (Ask, 2009); leading to greater scepticism and therefore less empathy.

Unlike other countries such as the United States of America, England and Wales does not have a gender-neutral definition of rape (Sexual Offences Act, 2003) (see Chapter One) instead recognising two different sexual offences: sexual assault by penetration and sexual activity without consent. The next chapter will address this by assessing police personnel perceptions of the aforementioned sexual offences in addition to rape, and will also assess if their personal and personal characteristics relate or predict their perceptions.

Chapter Four

Study Two: Police Personnel Perceptions of Sexual Offences Involving Penetration and Police Personnel Professional and Personal Characteristics on Victim Credibility, Blame and Responsibility

The purpose of Study Two is to answer the following research questions: Is there a change in police personnel perceptions depending on the type of sexual offences; and what personal and professional characteristics of police personnel influence their perceptions of other sexual offences in addition to rape? Study Two will also test the following hypotheses regarding police personnel perceptions of four vignettes depicting female rape (male perpetrator), male rape (male perpetrator), sexual assault by penetration, and sexual activity without consent: Firstly, it is predicted that the victim in the sexual activity without consent will be perceived as the least credible, most to blame, the most agreeing to sex, the most lying, the most unreasonable, the most interested in sex, the most provocative, and the perpetrator perceived as the most reasonable, out of the vignettes. Secondly, the victim in the female rape (male perpetrator) would be perceived as most credible, least to blame, the least agreeable to sex, the least lying, the least unreasonable, the least interested in sex, the least provocative, and the perpetrator perceived as the least reasonable, out of all the vignettes. Thirdly, there will be a difference in perceptions for the vignettes between heterosexual and non-heterosexual police personnel. Forth, there will be a difference in perceptions between male and female police personnel in relation to the vignettes. Fifth, hours of sexual assault training would not be related to personnel perceptions amongst the vignettes. Sixth, it is also predicted that the higher the education level, the more credible, less to blame, least agreeable to sex, least lying, least unreasonable, least interested in sex, least provocative they would perceive the victim to be, and more unreasonable the

perpetrator will be perceived to be amongst the vignettes. Seventh, that Christian personnel will perceive the victims more negatively in all the vignettes than non-religious personnel. Eighth, when taking all personal characteristics into account, gender identity would be predictive. Lastly, it is hypothesised that when taking all professional characteristics into account, education level would be predictive of perceptions in the vignettes.

The investigations in Study One provided evidence demonstrating that several professional and personal characteristics are related to police personnel perceptions of rape myths and rape empathy; specifically, with regards to personal characteristics, non-religious personnel were more empathetic to perpetrators of rape than Christian personnel. In relation to professional characteristics; with regards to education level, police personnel with GCSEs as their highest education level endorsed more rape myths than police personnel with an Undergraduate degree or Masters. In relation to perceptions of sexual assault training, the less useful and less relevant police personnel perceived sexual assault training to be, the higher their rape myth endorsement.

The purpose of Study Two is to investigate police personnel perceptions of sexual offences other than rape. Study Two will build on prior research presented in Chapter One by assessing police personnel personal and professional characteristics in relation to their perceptions of several vignettes depicting female rape (male perpetrator), male rape (male perpetrator), sexual assault by penetration, and sexual activity without consent as defined by the Sexual Offences Act (2003). Perceptions will be measured through vignettes (Schuller & Stewart, 2000) and questionnaires adapted from Wentz and Archbold (2012), and examine the following perceptions: victim credibility, victim agreement to sex, victim blame, sexual provocativeness, victim lying, victim interest, victim unreasonableness and perpetrator reasonableness.

Method

Design

Study Two implemented a within participant survey design which enabled the investigation of personnel perceptions of several vignettes; analysing the effects of offence type (female rape, male rape, sexual assault by penetration, sexual activity without consent) on personnel perceptions of victim credibility, agreement to sex, victim blame, sexual provocativeness, victim lying, assumed interest, victim unreasonableness and perpetrator reasonableness. In addition, the study also examined the relationship of personnel professional and personal characteristics in relation to the aforementioned perceptions.

Power Analyses

Several a priori power analyses calculations were conducted to calculate the required sample size for Study Two.

G*Power analysis for a correlation, with a medium effect size of 0.30 suggests that to achieve a power of 0.80, a sample size of 64 is needed.

A power analysis was conducted for a one-way Repeated Measures MANOVA, with a medium effect size of 0.25. For a power of 0.80, a sample of 40 is needed.

A power analysis was also conducted for a Mixed MANOVA, with the vignette (independent variable) and perceptions (dependent variables) being Within Subjects, and characteristics (e.g. education, rank, role, hours of training, and years of experience) (independent variables) being Between Subjects. With a small effect size of 0.10, and for a power of 0.80, a sample size of 65 is needed.

Participants

Eighty-four participants were included in this study, which involved individuals working in the police service in a variety of departments from officers who directly deal with rape victims, to those who work in other sectors. Table 24 provides the descriptive statistics of the personal characteristics of police personnel who participated in Study Two.

Table 24.

Police Personnel Personal Characteristics

	N	%
Gender Identity		
Male	43	51.20
Female	40	47.60
Prefer not to say	1	1.20
Age		
Minimum	26	
Maximum	60	
Range	34	
Mean	40.06	
SD	7.91	
Ethnicity		
White	83	98.80
Mixed/Multiple ethnic group	1	1.20
Marital Status		
Married	48	57.10
Cohabiting	16	19.00
Separated	1	1.20
Divorced	6	7.10
Single	13	15.50
Religion		

Christian (Including Church of England, Catholic, Protestant and all other Christian dominations)	44	52.40
Buddhist	1	1.20
No religion	38	45.20
Any other religion[1]	1	1.20
Sexual Orientation		
Heterosexual/Straight	73	86.90
Lesbian	2	2.40
Bisexual	6	7.1
Prefer not to say	3	3.60

Notes.

[1] Jedi N=1

Table 25 provides the descriptive statistics of the professional characteristics of police personnel who participated in Study Two.

Table 25.

Police Personnel Professional Characteristics

	N	%
Education level		
GCSE/O level	18	21.40
BTEC	4	4.8
A-level	14	16.70
Undergraduate Degree	31	36.90
Masters Degree	12	14.30
PhD Degree	1	1.20
No Qualifications	1	1.20
Other[1]	3	3.6
Rank		
Police Constable	52	61.90
Police Sergeant	11	13.10

Inspector	9	10.70
Chief Inspector	1	1.20
Police Staff Employee	8	9.50
Other[2]	3	3.6
Main Role		
Neighbourhood	2	2.40
Response	12	14.30
Public Protection	14	16.70
CID (Criminal Investigators Department)	15	17.90
Management	1	1.20
Tactical/Operational Support Unit	3	3.60
Intelligence	1	1.20
Criminal Justice Unit	1	1.20
Community Safety	2	2.40
Serious Crime	18	21.40
Other[3]	15	17.90
Hours spent in sexual assault training		
Minimum	0	
Maximum	200	
Range	200	
Mean	33.63	
SD	44.54	
Sexual Assault Trained Officers		
Non-sexual assault trained officers	34	40.50
Sexual assault trained officers	44	52.40
Other[4]	6	7.10
Years of Experience		
Minimum	1	
Maximum	40	
Range	39	
Mean	14.99	
SD	8.24	

Notes.

[1]DTLLS N=1; Post-graduate in Education N= 1; Tax Technician N=1

[2] Police personnel in 'other' were Detective Constable N=2; Detective Sergeant N=1

[3] Change Project N= 1; Child Protection N=1; Control Room N=1; Crime Management N=1; Learning and Development N= 2; Licensing N=1; Major Crime Unit N=1; Professional Standards N=1; Rape Investigation N=1; Sexual Offences Unit N=1; Special Branch N=1; Strategic Project N=1, Telephone Research Bureau N= 1; Traffic Investigations Fatals N=1

[4] Some personnel declined to indicate whether they had received sexual assault training

Materials

Identical Materials. Identification number, professional background questionnaire (Appendix B), personal background questionnaire (Appendix A) are the same as Study One included in Chapter Three.

Vignettes. The four vignettes (Appendix G) used within this study were developed from Schuller and Stewart (2000), which investigated male and female officers' responses to an acquaintance rape situation involving alcohol, but were adapted for the specific purpose of this research. Specifically, Schuller and Stewart's (2000) vignettes were adapted to fit the legal requirements defined in the Sexual Offences Act (2003) for the offences of: male rape (male perpetrator), female rape (male perpetrator), sexual assault by penetration and sexual activity without consent. To minimise the risk for any other effects, the vignettes were as identical as possible, except for the gender of the victim and perpetrator, and the type of offence committed and reported. This approach was taken so that any differences in perceptions of police personnel viewing all four vignettes could be attributed to the differences in gender and offence type, and not any other factor that may have differed amongst the vignettes. All vignettes involved the victim attending a party with friends and meeting a person (the perpetrator) who was a stranger. Both parties would then walk to the victims' apartment, whereby the offence would take place, and then would be reported to

the police. In all four vignettes the perpetrator would state that the victim had consented and there would be no physical evidence (such as bruising on the victim). An example of a vignette is as follows:

The morning after a university party, Junior Wilson (complainant) arrives at a police station to press a charge of sexual assault by penetration, which was perpetrated by Isabelle Anderson (perpetrator). He stated that he had arrived at the party with a group of friends, and midway through the evening met Isabelle Anderson. At the end of the evening, Isabelle offered to walk him home to the house he shared with two other students. When they got back to his place they started kissing on the couch and Isabelle started undoing his top. Junior stated that he did not want to engage in any sexual activity; Isabelle said that it was OK, and they continued to fool around. Then Isabelle, against Junior's objections, penetrated Junior with her fingers. Junior Wilson stated that he had not struggled and there was no evidence of bruising. The police interviewed Isabelle Anderson. She admitted to having penetrated Junior Wilson, but maintained that he was a willing participant.

Vignette Questionnaires. Personnel read four vignettes (Appendix G) which portrayed male rape, female rape, sexual assault by penetration, and sexual activity without consent. A questionnaire (Appendix G) was assigned to each vignette that was replicated from Wentz and Archbold (2012), whereby personnel answered their level of agreement to each statement on a 7-point Likert scale, measuring victim credibility, victim agreement to sex, complainant blame, sexual provocativeness, complainant lying, perpetrator assumed interest, and victim unreasonableness. All four vignettes were presented in a randomized order. A Cronbach's alpha for victim credibility is .87, victim blame is .90, victim

agreement is .90, victim interest .78, victim provocativeness is .95 victim lying is .95, perpetrator reasonableness is .87, and victim unreasonableness is .92, meaning that all are an acceptable value (Kline, 1999). In Wentz and Archbold (2012), the vignette questionnaire was administered for one vignette; meaning that the alpha was calculated for all eight items, resulting in an alpha of .83.

Social Desirability Short Form-C (Reynolds, 1982). As used in Study One (Appendix E). Reliability analyses revealed an alpha of .64 for the current study, demonstrating a level of reliability which is below what is usually considered acceptable (Kline, 1999).

Information Sheet. The same used in Study One (Appendix H).

Data Collection

The duration of data collection on a national level was from May to July 2016, comprising of police personnel throughout England and Wales.

Procedure

The information sheet (Appendix H) was dispersed the same as Study One. Personnel were presented with the consent form (Appendix L) and the professional (Appendix 2) and personal background questionnaires (Appendix A). They were then presented with the qualitative survey instrument (Appendix F) adapted from Wentz and Archbold (2012). They were then presented with the vignettes (Appendix G), followed by the vignette questionnaires (Appendix G) assessing victim credibility, victim agreement to sex, complainant blame, sexual provocativeness, complainant lying, perpetrator assumed

interest, and victim unreasonableness. Upon completion of these measures, personnel were presented with the Social Desirability Scale (Reynolds, 1982) (Appendix E), followed by the debrief (Appendix J) which included full information on the research, in addition to contact details of the researchers and support services if needed.

Results

Missing Quantitative Data

When exploring the data, analyses revealed that the highest amount of missing datum was 73.40% for one variable, with 201 cases having missing datum out of 274, leaving 73 cases (26.60%) with no missing datum. The same procedures for handling missing datum were adopted as in Study One, whereby the means were calculated from the available datum and used to replace the missing values prior to analyses (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Therefore, blank cases (59/274) and cases where personnel had not answered an entire measure (131/274) were omitted from the study, leaving 84 cases left. Once missing datum was replaced with the mean (4 cases; 4.76%) the maximum amount of missing data was reduced to 3.6%. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) recommend that a dataset should include no more than 5% of missing data, and the current dataset is in line with this recommendation. This left 84 cases included for analyses.

Outliers

The data was checked for outliers which has been suggested to reduce the likelihood of a Type 1 and Type 2 error for non-normality (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), and none were found.

Assumption of Normality

An analysis of normality of each item for the vignette questionnaires was investigated in terms of kurtosis and skewness, and according to guidelines for severe non-normality (skew>2, kurtosis>7) recommended by West et al. (1995), the normality assumption was met for all items (see Tables 30, 31 and 33 in Appendix O) apart from victim agreement for sexual assault by penetration (see Table 32 in Appendix O). A K-S test was also conducted on all items in the vignette questionnaires, which demonstrates that all the scores on were significantly non-normal (See Tables 26- 29 in Appendix O).

An inspection of the P-P and Q-Q plots for the vignette questionnaire items show that the quantiles fall very close to the line, apart from the victim agreement for sexual assault by penetration and female victim and male perpetrator rape (Appendix O) which fall far from the line. Based on the guidelines for severe non-normality (West et al., 1995), and interpretations of the Q-Q and P-P plots, it was decided that the victim agreement item for sexual assault by penetration vignette (see Table 32, Appendix O) would need to be transformed. A log transformation resulted in skewness of 0.45, and kurtosis of -0.21, and square root transformation resulted in skewness of 1.11 and kurtosis of 2.05. As both of these transformations reduce skewness and within normality (as recommended by West et al., 1995), the log transformation of this item will be used.

Recoding of Variables

Table 24 showed that the majority of the police personnel were heterosexual (86.90%), therefore sexual orientation was recoded into heterosexual and non-heterosexual (including lesbian, bisexual, and 'prefer not to say'). For the remaining personal characteristics, they are the same as Study One for recoded variables.

In relation to education level, the variable was recoded into three levels: School (including GCSEs, BTEC, no qualifications), College (including A level, Other such as tax technician and DTLLS certificate), and University (including Undergraduate, Masters, PhD, and a post-graduate degree). Splitting education level this way reflects the British education system (UK Education System Guide, 2018).

Table 25 showed that the majority of police personnel were Police Constables (61.90%), therefore rank was recoded into Police Constables and 'other' ranks (which included Police Sergeant, Inspector, Chief Inspector, Detective Constable, Detective Sergeant, and police staff employee). For main role, most police personnel identified as being serious crime, and therefore main role was recoded into serious crime and other.

Credibility scores were also reverse scored (e.g. 1=7, 2=6 and so forth) so that a higher score means higher victim credibility.

Correlations Among Perceptions

All analyses in the results section met the required minimum sample size, as per the prior power analyses conducted.

To assess for multicollinearity, Pearson Correlations were calculated for police personnel perceptions in each vignette. There are moderate to high correlations among the perception measurements in all the vignettes (Tables 33 to 36). This indicated that an appropriate statistical analysis would be Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA), which will be discussed later in the Analytical Strategy sections.

Table 33.

Female Rape (Male Perpetrator) Vignette

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.Credibility	1							
2.Blame	-.58**	1						
3.Victim agreement	-.47**	.64**	1					
4.Victim interest	-.38**	.56**	.50**	1				
5.Victim sexual provocativeness	-.35**	.51**	.39**	.36**	1			
6.Victim lying	-.65**	.45**	.38**	.45**	.39**	1		
7.Perpetrator reasonableness	-.49**	.55**	.50**	.43**	.36**	.35**	1	
8.Victim unreasonableness	-.38**	.52**	.37**	.54**	.31**	.34**	.39**	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 33 shows several significant correlations for perceptions in the female rape vignette. Victim credibility was significantly negatively related to victim blame, r=-.58, 95% BCa CI [-.76, -.36], p<.001, finding that the less credible police personnel perceived the victim to be in the female rape vignette, the more they also blamed the victim.

Victim credibility was also significantly negatively related to victim agreement, r=-.47, 95% BCa CI [-.71, -.15], p<.001, finding that the less credible police personnel perceived the victim to be, the more they also perceived that the victim did not communicate they did not want to have sex.

Victim credibility found to be significantly negatively related to victim interest, *r*=-.38, 95% BCa CI [-.62, -.16], *p*<.001, finding that the less credible police personnel perceived the victim to be, the more interested they perceived the victim to be in sex.

Victim credibility was also found to be significantly negatively related to victim provocativeness, *r*=-.35, 95% BCa CI [-.55, -.15], *p*=.001, finding that the less credible police personnel perceived the victim to be, the more they perceived the victim to be sexually provocative.

Victim credibility was also found to be significantly negatively related to victim lying, *r*=-.65, 95% BCa CI [-.77, -.50], *p*<.001, finding that the less credible police personnel perceived the victim to be, the more they also perceived her to be lying.

Victim credibility was also found to be significantly negatively related to reasonableness of the perpetrator, *r*=-.49, 95% BCa CI [-.72, -.24], *p*<.001, finding that the less credible police personnel perceived the victim to be, the more reasonable the perpetrator was perceived to be. Lastly, victim credibility was found to be significantly negatively related to victim unreadableness, *r*=-.38, 95% BCa CI [-.63, -.11], *p*=.001, finding that the less credible the victim was perceived, the more unreasonable she was perceived to be.

Victim blame was found to be significantly positively related to victim agreement, *r*=.64, 95% BCa CI [.43, .80], *p*<.001, finding that the more police personnel blamed the victim, the more they perceived that the victim did not communicate that they did not agree to sex. Victim blame was also found to be significantly positively related to victim interest, *r*=.56, 95% BCa CI [.38, .74], *p*<.001, finding that the more police personnel blamed the victim, the more they perceived the victim to be interested in sexual intercourse.

Victim blame was also significantly positively related to sexual provocativeness, *r*=.51, 95% BCa CI [.33, .66], *p*<.001, finding that the more the victim was blamed, the

more sexually provocative the victim was perceived to be. Victim blame was also significantly positively related to victim lying, r=.45, 95% BCa CI [.25, .61], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was blamed, the more they were also perceived to be lying. Victim blame was significantly positively related to perpetrator reasonableness, r=.55, 95% BCa CI [.27, .75], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was blamed, the more reasonable the perpetrator was perceived to be. Lastly, victim blame was significantly positively related to victim unreasonableness, r=.52, 95% BCa CI [.27, .53], p<.001, finding that the more police personnel blamed the victim, the more unreasonable they perceived the victim to be.

Victim agreement was found to be significantly positively related to victim interest, r=.50, 95% BCa CI [.31, .73], p<.001, finding that the more police personnel perceived that the victim did not communicate that they did not want to have sex, the more they also perceived that the victim was interested in sexual intercourse. Victim agreement was also found to be significantly positively related to sexually provocativeness, r=.39, 95% BCa CI [.21, .53], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was perceived to not communicate that they did not agree to sex, the more they were perceived to be sexually provocative. Victim agreement was also significantly positively related to victim lying, r=.38, 95% BCa CI [.20, .52], p<.001, finding that the more police personnel perceived that the victim did not communicate that they did not agree to sex, the more they perceived the victim to be lying. Victim agreement was also significantly positively related to perpetrator reasonableness, r=.50, 95% BCa CI [.25, .70], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was perceived as not communicating that they did not agree to sex, the more reasonable the perpetrator was perceived to be. Lastly, victim agreement was also significantly positively related to victim unreasonableness, r=.37, 95% BCa CI [.10, .68], p=.001, finding that the more police

personnel perceived that the victim did not communicate that they did not agree to sex, the more unreasonable they were also perceived to be.

Victim interest was found to be significantly positively related to sexual provocativeness, r=.36, 95% BCa CI [.18, .54], p=.001, finding that the more the victim was perceived to be interested in sex, the more the victim was perceived to be sexually provocative. Victim interest was also significantly positively related to victim lying, r=.45, 95% BCa CI [.25, .62], p<.001, finding that the more police personnel perceived the victim to be interested in sex, the more they perceived her to be lying. Victim interest was also found to be significantly positively related to perpetrator reasonableness, r=.43, 95% BCa CI [.20, .65] p<.001, finding that the more the victim was perceived to be interested in sexual intercourse, the more perpetrator was perceived to be reasonable. Lastly, victim interest was also significantly positively related to victim unreasonableness, r=.54, 95% BCa CI [.31, .74] p<.001, finding that the more police personnel perceived the victim to be interested in sexual intercourse, the more they perceived her to be unreasonable.

In relation to victim provocativeness, it was found to be significantly positively related to victim lying, r=.39, 95% BCa CI [.18, .57] p<.001, finding that the more sexually provocative police personnel perceived the victim to be, the more the victim was also perceived to be lying. Victim provocativeness was also significantly positively related to perpetrator reasonableness, r=.36, 95% BCa CI [.16, .53] p=.001, finding that the more sexually provocative the victim was perceived to be, the more reasonable the perpetrator was perceived to be. Lastly, victim provocativeness was also significantly positively related to victim unreasonableness, r=.31, 95% BCa CI [.14, .48] p=.004, finding that the

more sexually provocative the victim was perceived to be, the more police personnel perceived the victim to be unreasonable.

With regards to victim lying, it was found to be significantly positively related to perpetrator reasonableness, r=.35, 95% BCa CI [.14, .54] p=.001, finding that the more the victim was perceived to be lying, the more reasonable the perpetrator was perceived to be. Lastly, victim lying was found to be significantly positively related to victim unreasonableness, r=.34, 95% BCa CI [.12, .52] p=.002, finding that the more the victim was perceived to be lying about the incident, the more unreasonable the victim was perceived to be.

In relation to perpetrator reasonableness, it was found to be significantly positively related to victim unreasonableness, r=.39, 95% BCa CI [.19, .60] p<.001, finding that the more reasonable the perpetrator was perceived to be, the more unreasonable the victim was perceived to be.

Table 34.

Male Rape (Male Perpetrator) Vignette

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.Credibility	1							
2.Blame	-.48**	1						
3.Victim agreement	-.48**	.50**	1					
4.Victim interest	-.45**	.45**	.46**	1				
5.Victim sexual provocativeness	-.28*	.53**	.33**	.45**	1			
6.Victim lying	-.29**	.21*	.26*	.38**	.32**	1		
7.Perpetrator reasonableness	-.36**	.52**	.53**	.56**	.51**	.37**	1	
8.Victim unreasonableness	-.46**	.64**	.52**	.50**	.42**	.30**	.61**	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 34 shows several significant correlations for perceptions in the male rape vignette. Victim credibility was significantly negatively related to victim blame, r= -.48, 95% BCa CI [-.71, -.22], p<.001, finding that the less credible the victim was perceived to be, the more the victim was blamed. Victim credibility was also significantly negatively related to victim agreement, r= -.48, 95% BCa CI [-.69, -.21], p<.001, finding that the less credible the victim was perceived to be, the more it was perceived that the victim did not communicate that they did not agree to sex. Victim credibility was significantly negatively related to victim interest, r= -.45, 95% BCa CI [-.70, -.20], p<.001, finding that the less credible the victim was perceived to be, the more the victim was perceived to be interested in sexual penetration. Victim credibility was significantly negatively related to victim sexual provocativeness, r= -.28, 95% BCa CI [-.51, -.03], p=.024, finding that the less credible the victim was perceived to be, the more sexually provocative they were also perceived to be. Victim credibility was found to be significantly negatively related to victim lying, r=-.29, 95% BCa CI [-.51, -.06], p=.007, finding that the less credible the victim was perceived to be, the more the victim was perceived to be lying. Victim credibility was found to be significantly negatively related to perpetrator reasonableness, r= -.36, 95% BCa CI [-.61, -.10], p=.001, finding that the less credible the victim was perceived to be, the more the perpetrator was perceived as being reasonable. Lastly, victim credibility was found to be significantly negatively related to victim unreasonableness, r= -.46, 95% BCa CI [-.68, -.23], p<.001, finding that the less credible the victim was perceived to be, the less reasonable they were also perceived to be.

Victim blame was found to be significantly positively related to victim agreement, r= .50, 95% BCa CI [.20, .71], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was blamed, the more it was perceived that they did not communicate that they did not agree to sexual penetration. Victim blame was also found to be significantly positively related to victim

interest, r= .45, 95% BCa CI [.21, .66], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was blamed, the more the victim was perceived to be interested in sexual penetration. Victim blame was found to be significantly positively related to victim provocativeness, r= .53, 95% BCa CI [.34, .69], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was blamed, the more they were perceived to be sexually provocative. Victim blame was found to be significantly positively related to victim lying, r= .21, 95% BCa CI [-.01, .45], p=.05, finding that the more the victim was blamed, the more they were perceived to be lying. Victim blame was found to be significantly positively related to perpetrator reasonableness, r= .52, 95% BCa CI [.26, .71], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was blamed, the more reasonable the perpetrator was perceived to be. Lastly, victim blame was found to be significantly positively related to victim unreasonableness, r= .64, 95% BCa CI [.43, .80], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was blamed, the more unreasonable they were perceived to be.

Victim agreement was found to be significantly positively related to victim interest, r= .46, 95% BCa CI [.22, .69], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was perceived to not communicate that they did not agree to sexual penetration, the more they were perceived to be interested in sex. Victim agreement was also found to be significantly positively related to victim provocativeness, r= .33, 95% BCa CI [.15, .49], p=.002, finding that the more the victim was perceived to not communicate that they did not agree to sex, the more provocative they were also perceived to be. Victim agreement was also found to be significantly positively related to victim lying, r= .26, 95% BCa CI [.03, .47], p=.015, finding that the more that it was perceived that the victim did not communicate that they did not agree to sex, the more they were perceived to be lying. Victim agreement was also found to be significantly positively related to perpetrator reasonableness, r= .53, 95% BCa CI [.29, .72], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was perceived to not communicate

that they did not agree to sex, the more it was perceived that the perpetrator was reasonable. Lastly, victim interest was found to be significantly positively related to victim unreasonableness, r= .52, 95% BCa CI [.23, .74], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was perceived to be interested in sexual intercourse, the more unreasonable they were also perceived to be.

Victim interest was found to be significantly positively related to victim provocativeness, r= .45, 95% BCa CI [.28, .62], p<.001, finding that the more interested in sex the victim was perceived to be, the higher the victim was perceived to be sexually provocative. Victim interest was also found to be significantly positively related to victim lying, r= .38, 95% BCa CI [.12, .60], p<.001, finding that the more interested in sex the victim was perceived to be, the more they were also perceived to be lying. Victim interest was also found to be significantly positively related to perpetrator reasonableness, r= .56, 95% BCa CI [.34, .75], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was perceived to be interested in sex, the more reasonable the perpetrator was perceived to be. Lastly, victim interest was found to be significantly positively related to victim unreasonableness, r= .50, 95% BCa CI [.31, .69], p<.001, finding that as victim interest increased, so did victim unreasonableness.

Victim provocativeness was also found to be significantly positively related to victim lying, r= .32, 95% BCa CI [.08, .52], p=.007, finding that the more sexually provocative the victim was perceived to be, the more they were also perceived to be lying. Victim provocativeness was also found to be significantly positively related to perpetrator reasonableness, r= .51, 95% BCa CI [.32, .67], p<.001, finding that the more police personnel perceived the victim to be sexually provocative, the more they also perceived the perpetrator to be reasonable. Victim provocativeness was found to be significantly positively related to victim unreasonableness, r= .42, 95% BCa CI [.23, .59], p<.001,

finding that the more police personnel perceived the victim as sexually provocative, the more they also perceived the victim as unreasonable. Victim lying was found to be significantly positively related to perpetrator reasonableness, r= .37, 95% BCa CI [.12, .58], p=.001, finding that the more police personnel perceived victim to be lying, the more they also perceived the perpetrator to be reasonable. Lastly, victim lying was also found to be significantly positively related to victim unreasonableness, r= .30, 95% BCa CI [.10, .47], p=.006, finding that the more police personnel perceived the victim to be lying, the more they also perceived the victim as unreasonable.

Perpetrator unreasonable as found to be significantly positively related to victim unreasonableness, r= .61, 95% BCa CI [.10, .47], p<.001, finding that the more police personnel agreed that the perpetrator was reasonable, the more they also agreed that the victim was unreasonable.

Table 35.

Sexual Assault by Penetration Vignette

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.Credibility	1							
2.Blame	-.45**	1						
3.Victim agreement	-.41**	.48**	1					
4.Victim interest	-.26*	.44**	.50**	1				
5.Victim sexual provocativeness	-.18	.48**	.29**	.35**	1			
6.Victim lying	-.53**	.30**	.33**	.39**	.32**	1		
7.Perpetrator reasonableness	-.33**	.57**	.47**	.47**	.60**	.43**	1	
8.Victim unreasonableness	-.44**	.47**	.42**	.39**	.39**	.50**	.66**	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 35 shows several significant correlations for perceptions in the sexual assault by penetration vignette. Victim credibility was found to be significantly negatively related to victim blame, r= -.45, 95% BCa CI [-.66, -.21], p<.001, finding that the less credible the victim was perceived to be, the more they were also blamed. Victim credibility was also found to be significantly negatively related to victim agreement, r= -.41, 95% BCa CI [-.60, -.19], p<.001, finding that the less credible the victim was perceived to be, the more it was also perceived that they did not communicate that they did not agree to penetration. Victim credibility was also found to be significantly negatively related to victim interest, r= -.26, 95% BCa CI [-.47, -.06], p=.016, finding that the less credible the victim was perceived to be, the more they were perceived to be interested in sexual penetration. Victim credibility was also found to be significantly negatively related to victim lying, r= -.53, 95% BCa CI [-.73, -.31], p<.001, finding that the less credible the victim was perceived to be, the more they were also perceived to be lying. Victim credibility was also found to be significantly negatively related to perpetrator reasonableness, r= -.33, 95% BCa CI [-.56, -.11], p=.002, finding that the less credible the victim was perceived to be, the more reasonable the perpetrator was perceived to be. Lastly, victim credibility was significantly negatively related to victim unreasonableness, r= -.44, 95% BCa CI [-.65, -.18], p<.001, finding that the less credible the victim was perceived to be, the more unreasonable they were also perceived to be.

Victim blame was found to be significantly positively related to victim agreement, r= .48, 95% BCa CI [.25, .68], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was blamed, the more it was also perceived that they did not communicate that they did not agree to sexual penetration. Victim blame was also found to be significantly positively related to victim interest, r= .44, 95% BCa CI [.18, .71], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was blamed, the more it was perceived that they were interested in sexual penetration. Victim

blame was also found to be significantly positively related to victim provocativeness, *r*= .48, 95% BCa CI [.25 .66], *p*<.001, finding that the more the victim was blamed, the more sexually provocative they were perceived to be. Victim blame was also found to be significantly positively related to victim lying, *r*= .30, 95% BCa CI [.07, .55], *p*<.001, finding that the more the victim was blamed, the more they were perceived to be lying. Victim blame was also found to be significantly positively related to perpetrator reasonableness, *r*= .57, 95% BCa CI [.34, .78], *p*<.001, finding that the more the victim was blamed, the more reasonable the perpetrator was perceived to be. Lastly, victim blame was found to be significantly positively related to victim unreasonableness, *r*= .47, 95% BCa CI [.21, .72], *p*<.001, finding that the more the victim was blamed, the more unreasonable they were also perceived to be.

Victim agreement was found to be significantly positively related to victim interest, *r*= .50, 95% BCa CI [.37, .68], *p*<.001, finding that the more the victim was perceived to not communicate they did not agree to penetration, the more they were perceived to be interested in sex. Victim agreement was found to be significantly positively related to victim provocativeness, *r*= .29, 95% BCa CI [.08, .47], *p*<.001, finding that the more the victim was perceived that they did not communicate that they did not agree to penetration, the more they were perceived to be sexually provocative. Victim agreement was found to be significantly positively related to victim lying, *r*= .33, 95% BCa CI [.12, .54], *p*=.002, finding that the more the victim was perceived to not communicate that they did not agree to penetration, the more they were perceived to be lying. Victim agreement was also significantly positively related to perpetrator reasonableness, *r*=.47, 95% BCa CI [.22, .70], *p*<.001, finding that the more the victim was perceived to not communicate that they did not agree to penetration, the more reasonable the perpetrator was perceived to be. Lastly, victim agreement was found to be significantly positively related to victim

unreasonableness, r= .42, 95% BCa CI [.14, .65], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was perceived to not communicate that they did not agree to penetration, the more unreasonable they were perceived to be.

Victim interest was found to be significantly positively related tor victim provocativeness, r= .35, 95% BCa CI [.12, .57], p<.001, finding that the more interested in sex the victim was perceived to be, the more sexually provocative they were perceived to be. Victim interest was found to be significantly positively related tor victim lying, r= .39, 95% BCa CI [.19, .59], p<.001, finding that the more interested the victim was perceived to be, the more they were also perceived to be lying. Victim interest was also found to be significantly related to perpetrator reasonableness, r= .47, 95% BCa CI [.24, .70], p<.001, finding that the more interested the victim was perceived to be, the more reasonable the perpetrator was perceived to be. Lastly, victim interest was found to be significantly positively related to victim unreasonableness, r= .39, 95% BCa CI [.15, .65], p<.001, finding that that the more interested in sex the victim was perceived to be, the more unreasonable they were also perceived to be.

Victim sexual provocativeness was significantly positively related to victim lying, r= .32, 95% BCa CI [.06, .54], p=.003, finding that the more sexually provocative the victim was perceived to be, the more they were perceived to be lying. Victim sexual provocativeness was also found to be significantly positively related to perpetrator reasonableness, r=.60, 95% BCa CI [.40, .75], p<.001, finding that the more sexually provocative the victim was perceived to be, the more reasonable the perpetrator was perceived to be. Lastly, sexual provocativeness was significantly positively related to victim unreasonableness; r= .39, 95% BCa CI [.162, .59], p<.001, finding that the more sexually provocative the victim was perceived to be, the more the victim was perceived to be unreasonable.

Victim lying was found to be significantly positively related to perpetrator reasonableness, r= .43, 95% BCa CI [.18, .64], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was perceived to be lying, the more reasonable the perpetrator was perceived to be. Finally, victim lying was found to be significantly positively related to victim unreasonableness, r= .50, 95% BCa CI [.27, .67], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was perceived to be lying, the more unreasonable they were perceived to be.

Lastly, perpetrator reasonableness was found to be significantly positively related to victim unreasonableness, r= .66, 95% BCa CI [.42, .85], p<.001, finding that the more reasonable the perpetrator was perceived to be, the more unreasonable the victim was perceived to be.

Table 36.

Sexual Activity Without Consent Vignette

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.Credibility	1							
2.Blame	-.70**	1						
3.Victim agreement	-.48**	.49**	1					
4.Victim interest	-.58**	.60**	.54**	1				
5.Victim sexual provocativeness	-.33**	.56**	.38**	.31**	1			
6.Victim lying	-.63**	.48**	.27*	.46**	.27*	1		
7.Perpetrator reasonableness	-.61**	.68**	.52**	.67**	.42**	.42**	1	
8.Victim unreasonableness	-.53**	.65**	.49**	.49**	.45**	.47**	.63**	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 36 shows several significant correlations for perceptions in the sexual activity without consent vignette. Victim credibility was found to be significantly negatively related to victim blame, r= -.70, 95% BCa CI [-.83, -.52], p<.001, finding that the less credible the victim was perceived to be, the more the victim was also blamed. Victim credibility was also found to be significantly negatively related to victim agreement, r= -.48, 95% BCa CI [-.67, -.26], p<.001, finding that the less credible the victim was perceived to be, the more they were perceived to not communicate their agreement to penetration. Victim credibility was also found to be significantly negatively related to victim interest, r= -.58, 95% BCa CI [-.73, -.36], p<.001, finding that the less credible the victim was perceived to be, the more interested they were perceived to be in sexual penetration. Victim credibility was also found to be significantly negatively related to victim provocativeness, r= -.33, 95% BCa CI [-.55, -.10], p=.002, finding that the less credible the victim was perceived to be, the more sexually provocative they were perceived to be. Victim credibility was also found to be significantly negatively related to victim lying, r= -.63, 95% BCa CI [-.76, -.49], p<.001, finding that the less credible the victim was perceived to be, the more they were also perceived to be lying. Victim credibility was also found to be significantly negatively related to perpetrator reasonableness, r=- .61, 95% BCa CI [-.75, -.41], p<.001, finding that the less credible the victim was perceived to be, the more reasonable the perpetrator was perceived to be. Lastly, victim credibility was significantly negatively related to victim unreasonableness, r= -.53, 95% BCa CI [-.69, -.33], p<.001, finding that the less credible the victim was perceived to be, the more unreasonable they were also perceived to be.

Victim blame was found to be significantly positively related to victim agreement, r= .49, 95% BCa CI [.25, .67], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was blamed, the more it was perceived that they did not communicate that they did not agree to sexual penetration. Victim blame was also found to be significantly positively related to victim

interest, r= .60, 95% BCa CI [.41, .76], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was blamed, the more it was also perceived that they were interested in sexual penetration. Victim blame was also found to be significantly positively related to victim provocativeness, r= .56, 95% BCa CI [.36, .75], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was blamed, the more sexually provocative they were perceived to be. Victim blame was also found to be significantly positively related to victim lying, r= .48, 95% BCa CI [.28, .64], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was blamed, the more they were perceived to be lying. Victim blame was also found to be significantly positively related to perpetrator reasonableness, r= .68, 95% BCa CI [.51, .81], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was blamed, the more reasonable the perpetrator was perceived to be. Lastly, victim blame was found to be significantly positively related to victim unreasonableness, r= .65, 95% BCa CI [.49, .79], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was blamed, the more unreasonable the victim was perceived to be.

Victim agreement was found to be significantly positively related to victim interest, r= .54, 95% BCa CI [.30, .75], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was perceived to not communicate they did not agree to penetration, the more they were perceived to be interested in sex. Victim agreement was found to be significantly positively related to victim provocativeness, r= .38, 95% BCa CI [.15, .57], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was perceived that they did not communicate that they did not agree to penetration, the more they were perceived to be sexually provocative. Victim agreement was found to be significantly positively related to victim lying, r= .27, 95% BCa CI [.08, .46], p=.013, finding that the more the victim was perceived to not communicate that they did not agree to penetration, the more they were perceived to be lying. Victim agreement was also significantly positively related to perpetrator reasonableness, r= .52, 95% BCa CI [.31, .69], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was perceived to not communicate that they did

not agree to penetration, the more reasonable the perpetrator was perceived to be. Lastly, victim agreement was found to be significantly positively related to victim unreasonableness, r= .49, 95% BCa CI [.24, .73], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was perceived to not communicate that they did not agree to penetration, the more unreasonable they were perceived to be.

Victim interest was found to be significantly positively related to victim provocativeness, r= .31, 95% BCa CI [.08, .53], p=.0014, finding that the more the victim was perceived to be interested in sex, the more they were also perceived to be sexually provocative. Victim interest was also found to be significantly positively related tor victim lying r= .46, 95% BCa CI [.28, .62], p<.001, finding that the more interested the victim was perceived, the more they were perceived to be lying. Victim interest was also found to be significantly related to perpetrator reasonableness, r= .67, 95% BCa CI [.51, .82], p<.001, finding that the more interested in the sex the victim was perceived to be, the more reasonable the perpetrator was perceived to be. Lastly, victim interest was found to be significantly positively related to victim unreasonableness, r= .49, 95% BCa CI [.24, .69], p<.001, finding that that the more interested the victim was perceived to be the more unreasonable the victim was also perceived to be.

Victim sexual provocativeness was significantly positively related victim lying, r= .27, 95% BCa CI [.04, .48], p=.014, finding that the more sexually provocative the victim was perceived to be, the more they were also perceived to be lying. Victim sexual provocativeness was found to be significantly positively related to perpetrator reasonableness, r= .42, 95% BCa CI [.22, .62], p<.001, finding that the more sexually provocative the victim was perceived to be, the more reasonable the perpetrator was perceived to be. Lastly, sexual provocativeness was significantly positively related to victim unreasonableness; r= .45, 95% BCa CI [.24, .62], p<.001, finding that the more

sexually provocative the victim was perceived to be, the more the victim was perceived to be unreasonable.

Victim lying was found to be significantly positively related to perpetrator reasonableness, r= .42, 95% BCa CI [.23, .58], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was perceived to be lying, the more reasonable the perpetrator was perceived to be. Lastly, victim lying was found to be significantly positively related to victim unreasonableness, r= .47, 95% BCa CI [.27, .63], p<.001, finding that the more the victim was perceived to be lying, the more unreasonable the victim was perceived to be.

Lastly, perpetrator reasonableness was found to be significantly positively related to victim unreasonableness, r= .63, 95% BCa CI [.45, .78], p<.001, finding that the more reasonable the perpetrator was perceived to be, the more unreasonable the victim was perceived to be.

Analytical Strategy for Hypotheses One and Two

Hypotheses one and two relate to differences in perceptions across vignettes, i.e. how the perceptions change across each vignette. We have eight perception measurements; victim credibility, victim blame, victim agreement, victim interest, victim provocativeness, victim lying, perpetrator reasonableness and victim unreasonableness. Exploratory analysis (Correlation Analysis-Tables 33-36) demonstrated that these perceptions are moderately or sometimes highly inter-correlated (r= 0.3 ~ r=0.7). This is true for each vignette. Due to the intercorrelation of the perception measurements, an appropriate statistical analysis would be a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) (Field, 2014). The perception measurements, however, are measured repeatedly across each vignette, thus incorporating a within-subjects effect of vignette. Therefore, the statistical model to be applied is a one-way repeated measures MANOVA. There is one within-subjects independent variable

"vignette" and eight dependent variables measuring perceptions e.g. credibility, blame, etc. RM MANOVA examines whether the combined measurements of perception (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010) change across vignettes.

Repeated Measures MANOVA

The effect of vignette on the combined perceptions is marginally insignificant ($F(24, 60) = 1.58$, $p = .079$, Wilk's lambda = 0.61, partial $\eta^2 = .39$). Normally, an insignificant MANOVA means we should continue further examination. However, the η^2 means that vignette accounts for the 38.7% of the variation of perceptions – high magnitude. Moreover, due to the small sample size (N= 84) and while MANOVA utilises a lot of degrees of freedom, the power of the MANOVA is reduced.

Given the above, we proceed to the Univariate RM ANOVA's reported for each perception separately.

Credibility.

The Mauchley's test indicated that the assumption of sphericity has been violated, $\chi^2(5)=63.74$, $p<.001$, therefore the degrees of freedom were corrected using the Greenhouse-Geisser estimates of sphericity ($\varepsilon=.73$). The results show that perception of credibility was affected by type of vignette, $F(2.14, 177.78)=12.79$, $p<.001$, partial $\eta^2=0.13$).

Blame.

The Mauchley's test indicated that the assumption of sphericity has been violated, $\chi^2(5)=42.34$, $p<.001$, therefore the degrees of freedom were corrected using the Greenhouse-Geisser estimates of sphericity ($\varepsilon=.78$). The results show that perception of blame was affected by type of vignette, $F(2.27, 188.15)=1.00$, $p<.001$, partial $\eta^2=0.11$).

Victim agreement.

The Mauchley's test indicated that the assumption of sphericity has been violated, $\chi^2(5)=32.31$, $p<.001$, therefore the degrees of freedom were corrected using the Greenhouse-Geisser estimates of sphericity ($\varepsilon=.84$). The results show that perception of agreement was affected by type of vignette, $F(2.44, 202.53)=2.95$, $p=.044$, partial $\eta^2=0.03$).

Victim lying.

The Mauchley's test indicated that the assumption of sphericity has been violated, $\chi^2(5)=28.44$, $p<.001$, therefore the degrees of freedom were corrected using the Greenhouse-Geisser estimates of sphericity ($\varepsilon=.89$). The results show that perception of victim lying was affected by type of vignette, $F(2.57, 213.15)=4.76$, $p=.005$, partial $\eta^2=0.05$).

Perpetrator reasonableness.

The Mauchley's test indicated that the assumption of sphericity has been violated, $\chi^2(5)=14.50$, $p<.001$, therefore the degrees of freedom were corrected using the Greenhouse-Geisser estimates of sphericity ($\varepsilon=.89$). The results show that perception of perpetrator reasonableness was affected by type of vignette, $F(2.67, 221.82)=5.30$, $p=.002$, partial $\eta^2=0.06$).

Victim unreasonableness.

The Mauchley's test indicated that the assumption of sphericity has been violated, $\chi^2(5)=63.12$, $p<.001$, therefore the degrees of freedom were corrected using the Greenhouse-Geisser estimates of sphericity ($\varepsilon=.74$). The results show that perception of

victim unreasonableness was affected by type of vignette, $F(2.23, 185.15)=5.55$, $p=.003$, partial $\eta^2=0.06$).

Victim interest and victim sexual provocativeness.

The results show that perception of victim interest ($F(2.53, 209.60)=1.81$, $p=.156$, partial $\eta^2=0.02$), and victim sexual provocativeness were not affected by type of vignette, ($F(2.47, 205.27)=.34$, $p=.767$, partial $\eta^2=0.04$).

Post-hoc Analyses

The results of the one-way repeated measures MANOVA's are omnibus; we cannot tell which vignettes are different, therefore post-hoc analyses were conducted.

A post-hoc comparison using Bonferroni showed that victim credibility in sexual activity without consent is significantly lower compared to the other three vignettes (female rape, $p<.001$; male rape, $p<.001$; sexual assault by penetration, $p<.001$). This means that the victim in the sexual activity without consent vignette was perceived as significantly less credible than the victims in the other vignettes. The other three vignettes have no significant differences in victim credibility ($p>.05$).

The same findings were also found for victim blame, with the sexual activity without consent vignette significantly lower compared to the other three vignettes (female rape $p<.001$; male rape, $p<.001$; sexual assault by penetration, $p<.001$). This means that the victim in the sexual activity without consent vignette was perceived as more to blame than the victims in the other vignettes. The other three vignettes have no significant differences in victim blame ratings ($p>.05$).

With regards to victim agreement, the Bonferroni adjusted pairwise comparisons showed no significant differences in any pair of the vignettes ($p>.05$).

Victim lying in the sexual activity without consent vignette was significantly higher compared to female rape (p=.013) and male rape (p=.02). This means that the victim in the sexual activity without consent vignette was perceived as significantly perceived as lying the most about the incident compared to the victims in the female rape and male rape vignettes. No difference in victim lying ratings were found between sexual activity without consent and sexual assault by penetration (p=.394).

With regards to perpetrator reasonableness, in the sexual activity without consent, perpetrator reasonableness is significantly higher compared to female rape (p=.008), and sexual assault by penetration (p=.032). This means that the perpetrator in the sexual activity without consent vignette was perceived as more reasonable than the perpetrators in the female rape and sexual assault by penetration vignettes. There was no significant difference in perpetrator reasonableness ratings between sexual activity without consent and male rape (p=.073).

Lastly, in relation to victim unreasonableness, ratings are significantly higher for sexual activity without consent than female rape (p=.004), and male rape (p=.042). This shows that the victim in the sexual activity without consent vignette was perceived as more unreasonable, than the victims in the female rape and male rape vignettes. No significant difference was found in victim unreasonableness between sexual activity without consent and sexual assault by penetration (p=.654).

Analytical Strategy for Hypothesis Three to Seven: Effect of Demographic Characteristics [Gender, Education, Sexual Orientation, Religion]

We deployed this strategy for hypotheses three to seven. We first explored whether each demographic characteristic interacts with each vignette with respect to perceptions. In other words, whether some differences in the set of observations between vignettes are

moderated by the personnel characteristic [interaction within-subjects effects]. Then, we explored whether the personnel characteristics had a multivariate effect on the perception irrespective of the vignettes [multivariate between-subjects effect]. Lastly, we explored whether the police personnel characteristics had an effect on the average perception over the vignettes (e.g. average credibility over all 4 vignettes) [test of between-subjects effects].

The analysis employed was a Mixed MANOVA, with one between-subjects independent variable "personnel characteristics", one within-subjects independent variable "vignette", and eight dependent variables for the perceptions.

Hypothesis Three

The results of the MANOVA showed no statistically significant effect of sexual orientation on perceptions ($F(8, 72)= .74$, $p= 0.657$, Wilks Lambda =.92, partial $\eta^2 = 0.08$), and no interaction between sexual orientation and vignettes with respect to the perceptions ($F(24, 56)=.793$, $p= .8729$, Wilks Lambda = 0.75, partial $\eta^2 =.25$).

However, tests of between-subjects effects showed that sexual orientation significantly differentiates the average victim sexual provocativeness over all vignettes, $F(1,79) = 4.90$, $p=.03$, partial $\eta^2 = .058$. An inspection of the mean scores indicates that heterosexual police personnel ($M=2.95$, $SD= 1.55$) perceived the victim in the female rape vignette as more provocative compared to non-heterosexual police personnel ($M=1.88$, $SD=1.13$). The same was found in the male rape vignette, with heterosexual police personnel ($M=2.90$, $SD=1.51$) perceiving the victim as more provocative than non-heterosexual police personnel ($M=1.63$, $SD=.74$). In relation to sexual assault by penetration, heterosexual sexual police personnel ($M=2.89$, $SD=1.60$) compared to non-heterosexual police personnel ($M=1.63$, $SD=.74$) perceived the victim as more provocative. Lastly, for sexual activity without consent, heterosexual police personnel ($M=2.84$,

SD=1.52) compared to non-heterosexual police personnel (*M*=1.88, *SD*=1.13) also perceived the victim as being more sexually provocative.

Results should be taken with caution since the sample size here is 81 (three didn't identify their sexual orientation), with a non-heterosexual sample size of eight versus a heterosexual sample size of 73.

Hypothesis Four

The result of the MANOVA showed no statistically significant effect of gender on perceptions ($F(8, 74)=1.79$, $p=.092$, Wilks Lambda =.84, partial $\eta^2 = 0.16$), and no interaction between gender and vignettes with respect to the perceptions ($F(24, 58)=.89$, $p=.613$, Wilks Lambda =.73, partial $\eta^2 = 0.27$).

Moreover, tests of between-subjects effects (Table 40 Appendix P) showed that gender does not significantly differentiate the average perception across all vignettes ($p>.05$).

Hypothesis Five

The result of the MANOVA showed no statistically significant effect of hours of training on perceptions ($F(8, 74)=.66$, $p=.724$, Wilks Lambda =.93, partial $\eta^2 =.07$), and no interaction between hours of training and vignettes with respect to the perceptions ($F(24, 58)=.68$, $p=.581$, Wilks Lambda =.78, partial $\eta^2 =.22$).

Moreover, tests of between-subjects effects (Table 41 Appendix Q) showed that sexual assault training is not significantly associated with the average perception over all vignettes ($p>.05$).

Hypothesis Six

The result of the MANOVA showed no statistically significant effect of education on perceptions ($F(16, 148)=1.34$, $p=.182$, Wilks Lambda =.76, partial η^2 =.13), and no interaction between education and vignettes with respect to the perceptions ($F(48, 116)=.74$, $p= 0.877$, Wilks Lambda =.59, partial $\eta^2=.24$).

Moreover, tests of between-subjects effects (Table 42- Appendix R) showed that education does not significantly differentiate the average perception across all vignettes ($p>.05$).

Hypothesis Seven

The result of the MANOVA showed no statistically significant effect of religion on perceptions ($F(8, 73)= 1.16$, $p=.333$, Wilks Lambda =.89, partial η^2 =.11), and no interaction between religion and vignette with respect to the perceptions ($F(24, 57)=.64$, $p=.196$, Wilks Lambda =.64, partial η^2 =.36). Moreover, tests of between-subjects effects (Table 43 Appendix S) showed that religion does not significantly differentiate the average perception across all vignettes ($p>.05$).

Hypothesis Eight

MANOVA results showed no statistically significant effect between-subjects or within-subjects on the perceptions ($p>.05$) (Table 44 Appendix T).

Hypothesis Nine

The result of the MANOVA showed a statistically significant between-subjects effect of role on perceptions ($F(8, 57)= 2.49$, $p=.022$, Wilks Lambda =.74, partial η^2 =.26),

but no interaction between any of the characteristics (independent variables) and vignettes with respect to the perceptions (p>.05) (Table 45 Appendix U).

Following up with Bonferonni adjusted Post Hoc Tests (Table 46 Appendix V), showed that Serious Crime police personnel tend to rate victim interest higher than Other Role police personnel (Mean Difference = 0.48, SE = 0.27, p=.078).

Tests of between-subjects effects (Table 47 Appendix W) also showed that role marginally differentiates the average victim interest rating across all vignettes, $F(1,64) = 3.22$, p=.078, partial η^2 =.048. Role did not significantly differentiate across the average for the remaining perceptions across all vignettes (p>.05).

Discussion

The aim of Study Two was to examine police personnel perceptions of four vignettes depicting female rape (male perpetrator), male rape (male perpetrator), sexual assault by penetration, and sexual activity without consent. Results revealed that across all of the vignettes, an increase in a negative perception against the victim (i.e. less credibility) resulted in an increase of other negative perceptions against the victim (i.e. increase blame, sexually provocativeness etc.), and an increase in positive perceptions of the perpetrator (i.e. perpetrator reasonableness). However, it is important to highlight that several relationships indicated a weak relationship through small effect sizes. For the female rape vignette, all of the perceptions that showed a significant relationship had a medium to large effect size, demonstrating a substantial to very substantial relationship between the variables. However, in relation to perceptions in the male rape vignette, several small effect sizes were found; specifically, in relation to victim credibility a small effect size was found for sexual provocativeness and victim lying. Thus, even though the relationship between

victim credibility and the aforementioned perceptions were significant, they are not substantial.

With regards to the sexual activity without consent vignette, the majority of significant relationships between perceptions had a medium to large effect size, indicating that the relationship between the variables were substantial to very substantial. However, for the relationship between victim credibility and victim provocativeness, a small effect size was found. The same was also found in the relationship between victim agreement and victim lying, and victim provocativeness and victim lying within the sexual activity without consent vignette. Lastly, in relation to sexual assault by penetration, there were several significant relationships between perceptions within the vignette that indicated small effect sizes, and therefore weak relationships; specifically, with regards to the relationship between victim credibility and victim interest, and victim agreement and victim provocativeness. All other significant relationships between perceptions in the sexual assault by penetration vignette indicated a substantial or very substantial relationship.

Results partially support the first and second hypotheses. The victim in the sexual activity without consent vignette was perceived to be the least credible and most to blame compared to the victims in the other vignettes (male rape, sexual activity without consent, and sexual assault by penetration). However, the aforementioned relationships were found to be weak due to small effect sizes.

In relation to victim lying, the victim in the sexual activity without consent vignette was perceived to be lying the most about the incident compared the victims in the female rape and male rape vignettes (no difference in lying ratings between sexual activity without consent and sexual assault by penetration). However, a small effect size was also found meaning that even though this relationship is significant the relationship is weak.

With regards to perpetrator reasonableness, findings showed that the perpetrator was perceived as more reasonable in the sexual activity without consent vignette compared to the perpetrators in the female rape and sexual assault by penetration vignette (no difference in perpetrator reasonableness ratings between sexual activity without consent and male rape vignettes). It was also found that the victim of sexual activity without consent was perceived as the most unreasonable compared to the victims in the female rape and male rape vignettes (no difference compared to sexual assault by penetration). However, small effect sizes were found in the aforementioned findings, demonstrating weak relationships for these perceptions. No differences were found in perceptions of victim agreement, victim provocativeness, and victim interest amongst the vignettes.

The second aim of Study Two was to examine whether police personnel professional and personal characteristics related to their perceptions within the vignettes. Results support the third hypothesis, with findings revealing that heterosexual police personnel perceived the victim in all of the vignettes as more sexually provocative compared to non-heterosexual police personnel. However, results should be taken with caution due to a limited sample size of non-heterosexual police personnel. In addition, small effect sizes were found meaning that even though there is a significant difference between heterosexual and non-heterosexual police personnel and perceptions of victim sexual provocativeness amongst the vignettes, they are not substantial.

Findings revealed no difference in perceptions between male and female police officers; therefore, rejecting the forth hypothesis. Hypothesis five is supported as results showed that hours of sexual assault training were not related to personnel perceptions amongst the vignettes.

Education level was not related to perceptions of the vignettes; rejecting the sixth hypothesis. The seventh hypothesis is also rejected as no difference in perceptions was

found between Christian and non-religious police personnel. In addition, no difference was found for police personnel gender identity and perceptions, meaning that the eighth hypothesis is also rejected.

Lastly, it was found that when taking all professional characteristics into account, education level was not predictive of perceptions, meaning that the ninth hypothesis is rejected. However, it was found that police personnel in serious crime tended to rate victims as more interested in sex across all vignettes compared to police personnel in 'other' role. The effect size of this finding was medium, suggesting a substantial relationship between the variables.

The finding that the victim in the sexual activity without consent was perceived the most negatively in most cases compared to the other vignettes could be due to the 'genuine victim stereotype' (Hohl & Stanko, 2015). Previous research has found that police officers assign less rape myths to rape victims who do fit the stereotype than victims who do not (Page, 2008b). In addition, the findings revealing that the victim in the sexual activity without consent being perceived more negatively could be explained by male rape myths. Such beliefs can include the beliefs that men cannot be sexually assaulted, and that if the victim obtained an erection, then they must have been sexually aroused (Smith, Pine & Hawley, 1988). In the sexual activity without consent vignette it was inferred that the victim obtained an erection in order for the female perpetrator to force him to penetrate her with his penis. This may explain why police personnel perceived the victim in this vignette least favourably and the perpetrator most reasonable compared to some of the other sexual offences.

The current findings in relation to the differences between heterosexual and non-heterosexual police personnel perceptions of victim sexual provocativeness, partially supports previous research. Research in non-policing samples has found that heterosexual

men endorse more rape myths than women or gay men, and gay men make more pro-victim judgements overall (Davies & McCartney, 2003). However, if this was the case overall, we would expect a difference on all perceptions between heterosexual and non-heterosexual personnel. The current research is pioneering as this is the first time that research has investigated sexual orientation in a policing population in relation to perceptions of sexual offences. Thus, the current findings demonstrate that further exploration is needed.

In relation to the current findings revealing no gender differences in perceptions amongst the vignettes, this does not support previous research. Prior research has found that male police officers are more accepting of negative perceptions of rape victim than female police officers (Brown & King, 1998; Muram et al., 1995; Rich & Seffrin, 2012, 2013, 2014; Schullar & Stewart, 2000; Sleath, 2011; Sleath & Bull, 2012, 2015. However, former research investigated rape myths, and not perceptions of other sexual offences. The current findings also do not support the Intra-Female Gender Hostility Hypothesis, which suggests that women distance themselves from rape victims so that they do not feel that they could also become a victim (Batchelder, Koski, & Byxbe, 2004). If this was the case we would expect female police personnel to have more negative perceptions compared to male police personnel. Thus, as this is a new line of enquiry, further exploration is needed in relation to gender identity in policing populations and perceptions of other sexual offences.

The current findings between hours of sexual assault training and perceptions supports previous research that also found that sexual assault training is ineffective in altering officers' victim blaming attitudes (Lee et al., 2012; Lonsway et al., 2001; Muram et al., 1995; Sleath, 2011; Sleath & Bull, 2012).

The current results in relation to education are contrary to previous research which has found that the higher the education level of the officer, the lower their rape myths (Page, 2007, 2008b). However, it is important to highlight that prior research relates to rape

myths, whilst the current study investigated perceptions of sexual offences. The current study is the first of its kind to investigate police personnel education level in relation to perceptions of sexual offences, meaning that further research in this area is needed.

The difference in perceptions of victim interest between police in serious crime and other main roles may be explained by exposure to victims. Police personnel who are in serious crime may come into contact with victims of sexual offences more often than police personnel in other roles. People who come into direct contact with traumatised individuals may experience upset, and therefore experience indirect secondary victimisation of the event (Figley, 1999), which can cause behavioural effects, such as irritation, cognitive (lack of concentration and depersonalisation), and emotional effects (such as negativity, helplessness, and hopelessness) (Bride, Radey, & Figley, 2007; Figley, 2002). Serious crime police personnel may also be front line first responders, who have sole responsibility of dealing with such offences (Crisp & Annette, 2016). However, if the findings were solely due to compassion fatigue, we would find a difference in all perceptions between serious crime personnel and other personnel. Further research is needed into the investigation of main role and police personnel perceptions of sexual offences.

Study Two has investigated police personnel professional and personal characteristics in relation to their perceptions of female rape, male rape, sexual assault by penetration, and sexual activity without consent, as defined by the Sexual Offences Act (2003). The next chapter will now investigate how police personnel define the aforementioned sexual offences, and what they feel has affected their perceptions throughout their careers.

Chapter Five

Study Two Continues: Exploring how Police Personnel Define Sexual Offences in Relation to the Sexual Offences Act (2003) and How Perceptions Have Changed Throughout Their Careers

The qualitative portion of Study Two will address the following research question: Is there a change in police personnel perceptions depending on the type of sexual offences?

Previous research has emphasised the importance of also measuring perceptions of sexual offences qualitatively. Batchelder et al. (2004) gathered qualitative and quantitative data from participants to test the differences in verdicts between male and female mock jurors, finding that quantitatively males were more likely than females to favour a not guilty verdict. However, qualitative data shows that females were more likely to provide a not guilty verdict compared to males. Thus, the findings from Batchelder et al. (2004) stress the importance of using both quantitative and qualitative methods to assess law enforcement attitudes (Wentz & Archbold, 2012). Wentz and Archbold (2012) have also emphasised the value of incorporating a mixed methodological approach to provide a full picture of how police officers perceive rape.

Chapter Three presented the first data collection from police personnel throughout England and Wales, and investigated the effects of police personnel personal characteristics (e.g. gender identity, age, religion, marital status) and professional characteristics (e.g. years of experience, education level, rank, main role, hours of sexual assault training) in relation to their perceptions of rape, including rape myths and empathy; finding that several personal and professional characteristics were related to the aforementioned perceptions. Chapter Four presented the second study gathering data from police personnel throughout England and Wales, with the purpose of examining police

personnel perceptions of four vignettes depicting female rape (male perpetrator), male rape (male perpetrator), sexual assault by penetration, and sexual activity without consent. Findings suggested that personnel perceived the male victim of sexual activity without consent as the least credible and most to blame compared to the victims of male rape, sexual activity without consent, and sexual assault by penetration. The victim of sexual activity without consent was also perceived to be lying the most about the incident compared to some of the victims in the other sexual offences. Furthermore, the perpetrator of sexual activity without consent was most perceived as the most reasonable compared to some of the other perpetrators, whereas the victim was perceived as the most unreasonable compared to some of the other victims. Chapter Four further found that some personal and professional characteristics were related to police personnel perceptions of the vignettes.

Following on from Study Two, the current chapter will now qualitatively assess police personnel definition of rape, sexual activity without consent, and sexual assault by penetration. In addition, it will also assess whether they feel that their beliefs have changed since starting their careers, and what factors they felt had changed their beliefs (if at all).

Method

Participants and data collection are the same as in Study Two. Identification number, professional background questionnaire (Appendix B), personal background questionnaire (Appendix A), and information sheet (Appendix I) are also the same as Study Two in Chapter Four.

Design

Qualitative data was gathered from police personnel to answer what factors (if any) they felt influenced their perceptions, and how their perceptions had changed over their

policing careers. Personnel were also asked to define rape, sexual activity without consent, and sexual assault by penetration.

Materials

Qualitative Survey Instrument (Wentz & Archbold, 2012). The survey was modified from the qualitative portion of Wentz and Archbold's (2012) survey instrument (Appendix F). In addition to including the qualitative questions based on rape, the instrument also implemented qualitative questions on sexual assault by penetration and sexual activity without consent. This included five-open ended questions: *1) As you know, it's the legislators who make laws and decide how to define crimes and what punishments will be given out for certain crimes. But, you are actually in the community dealing with victims and criminals. Based on your work as a police officer, how would you define rape? 2) Based on your work as a police officer, how would you define sexual assault by penetration? 3) Based on your work as a police officer, how do you define sexual activity without consent? 4) Have you changed how you think about rape cases from when you first became a police officer to now? If so, how have your beliefs changed? 5) What experiences or factors have helped change your perceptions of rape cases?*

Results

Missing Qualitative Datum

When exploring the qualitative items, it was found that each qualitative item had varying amounts of missing datum. See Table 40 in relation to missing cases per qualitative item.

Table 40.

Cases and Percentages of Missing Datum in Qualitative Items (N=274).

	Item				
	Define Sexual assault by Penetration	Define Sexual Activity Without Consent	Define Rape	How Have Perceptions Changed	What Has Influenced Perceptions
Missing Cases	156	156	154	156	163
% of Missing Datum	56.93%	56.93%	43.80%	56.93%	59.49%
Remaining Cases	118	118	120	118	111

Analytical Strategy

Manifest and content analyses were used to identify themes for each qualitative question. Manifest content analysis entails calculating the number of times key words or phrases are present in responses, and latent content analysis requires interpreting the intended meaning within responses (Maxfield & Babbie, 2007).

Inter-rater Reliability

For each of the five questions, a second rater independently coded 25% of the data using the coding framework. To calculate inter-rater reliability, Cohen's kappa was used to account for agreement by chance. In relation to the question asking police personnel to

define rape, there was an "almost perfect" agreement between both raters, κ= .87 (95% CI, .74 to 0.99), p<.001. For the question seeking to define sexual assault by penetration, there was κ=.90 (95% CI, .79 to 1.00), p<.001, meaning that an "almost perfect agreement" between both raters. In relation to defining sexual activity without consent; a "substantial" agreement was found between the two raters, κ=.70 (95% CI, .52 to .88), p<.001. The question asking police personnel whether their views about rape had changed over the course of their policing careers, also found a "substantial" agreement between the two raters, κ=.90 (95% CI, .79 to 1.00), p<.001. Lastly, the question asking police personnel what experiences or factors may have changed their views towards rape and rape victims found "substantial" agreement between the two raters, κ=.77 (95% CI, .60 to .93), p<.001. All of the kappa coefficients were evaluated in accordance with Landis and Koch (1977).

Themes

For the first item in the Qualitative Survey Instrument (Appendix F), police personnel were asked to define rape. Four themes emerged within the data: 1) the 'legalisation' theme included responses that matched/or were highly similar to the legal definition of rape or sexual assault, and were coded as 1. Responses that also emphasised unwanted sexual acts/threat of force and lack of consent were also coded as 1; 2) 'confusing sexual offences' theme, which contained responses whereby the police personnel described other sexual offences instead of rape, coded as 2; 3) the 'no mention of consent' theme, coded as 3, included responses that failed to mention lack of consent. Lastly, 4) the 'did not answer' theme which would be coded as 4, included responses that did not answer the question.

The second qualitative question asked police personnel how they would define sexual assault by penetration; with 4 themes emerging: 1) the 'legislation' theme coded as

1, whereby the answer reflected the law in the England and Wales; specifically, the Sexual Offences Act (2003) defined sexual assault by penetration; 2) 'penetration with an object', coded as 2; 3) did not answer the question or gave a vague response, coded as 3; and lastly, 4) 'consent' included responses that did not mention lack of consent, coded as 4.

The third qualitative question asked police personnel how they would define sexual activity without consent. Six themes emerged in the data: 1) legislative theme, coded as 1, and 2) 'lack of consent', coded as 2, included responses that referred to elements of the offence but did not mention lack of consent; 3) 'touching/kissing', coded as 3, included responses that mentioned touching or kissing; 4) 'confusion of sexual offences/vague', coded as 4, and included responses that referred to other sexual offences or were vague in nature; 5) 'did not answer', coded as 5; and lastly, 6) 'other', included a response that did not fit into the other themes.

The fourth qualitative question asked personnel whether their views about rape had changed over the course of their policing careers. Several themes emerged within the data: responses whereby personnel only provided a 'yes' or 'no' were coded as 1 and 2 respectively; 2) whereby personnel indicated direct experience or training were coded as 3; 3) whereby personnel indicated consent (coded 4), such responses included personnel highlighting or referring to the importance of consent; 4) responses whereby personnel indicated that they now have a better understanding (coded as 5); 5) false allegations- included responses whereby personnel questioned the truthfulness of allegations (coded as 6); 7) 'credibility' category whereby personnel included elements that questioned victims' credibility (coded as 7); 8) 'legislative'- focused on legislation in relation to perception change (coded as 8). The last category 'did not answer/not sure' (coded 9), included missing responses or whereby the participant did not answer the question.

The fifth question asked personnel what experiences or factors may have changed their views towards rape and rape victims (Wentz & Archbold, 2012). Five themes emerged from the data. The first theme (coded 1) included personnel who cited rape myths and victim blaming factors. Similarly to Wentz and Archbold (2012), such factors included "false reports, alcohol use, recanting of claim by the victim and so on" (Wentz & Archbold, 2012, p.32). 2) Responses whereby personnel referred to training, education, experience and contact with rape victims as factors of change were coded as 2; 3) responses whereby police personnel noted a failure in the criminal justice system were coded as 3; 4) responses where personnel stated that there were no changes in their perceptions were coded as 4; 5) personnel who did not respond to the question were coded as 5.

Qualitative Results

Define rape.

The first open-ended question asked personnel to define rape whereby four themes emerged. The first theme included the legal responses whereby personnel provided answers that mirrored the legal definition of rape in the United Kingdom (including unwanted sexual act, lack of consent etc). Legalistic responses comprised of the majority of responses provided by personnel, with 84.17% (101/120) personnel defining rape akin to the legal definition. Example responses that fit into this theme are as follows:

"(1)A person (A) commits an offence if— (a)he intentionally penetrates the vagina, anus or mouth of another person (B) with his penis, (b)B does not consent to the penetration, and (c)A does not reasonably believe that B consents." [Participant 81]

"Rape is when a man puts his penis inside the vagina, anus or mouth or another person, that person does not consent and there is a belief / ought to have known that the other person did not consent." [Participant 27]

"Rape is when a person uses their penis to penetrate the vagina, anus or mouth of another without their consent." [Participant 11]

Responses in the above theme, tended to report verbatim the legislative definition of rape in the Sexual Offences Act (2003).

The second theme included responses whereby personnel responses fell into the 'confusing sexual offences' theme, consisting of 7.5% of the responses (9/120). Example responses that fit into this theme are as follows:

"Non-consensual penetration of vagina or anus by penis or fingers." [Participant 94]

"sexual assault involving penetration without consent." [Participant 111]

Answers that fell into the 'confusing sexual offences' theme suggested that the personnel did not fully understand the legal definition of rape. With regards to participant 94 (above), they are partly correct in relation to non-consensual penetration of the vagina or anus with a penis. However, they have also stated 'fingers', which according to the Sexual Offences Act (2003), is not rape, but would be classed as sexual assault by penetration.

The third theme included responses whereby personnel answers fell into the ‘no mention of consent’ theme, consisting of 5% of the responses (6/120). Example responses that fit into this theme are as follows:

“Penetration of vagina, anus or mouth with penis.” [Participant 104]

“Penetration of the vagina anus or mouth with a penis.” [Participant 119]

The answers that fell into the ‘consent’ tended to not mention the need for lack of consent. For example, participants 119 and 104 (above), negate to mention lack of consent, which is a criterion of rape in the Sexual Offences Act (2003)

The forth theme included responses whereby personnel responses fell into the ‘did not answer’ theme, consisting of 2.5% of the responses (3/120). Example responses that fit into this theme are as follows:

“I'm not a police officer.” [Participant 101]

“N/A” [Participant 89]

Responses that fell into the ‘did not answer’ theme tended to say that were not a police officer.

Define sexual assault by penetration.

The second open-ended question asked personnel to define sexual assault by penetration, whereby responses fell into four themes. The first theme reflected that of legalisation, whereby personnel provided answers akin to the legal definition of assault

through penetration, as defined by the Sexual Offences Act (2003); consisting of 56.78% of responses (67/118). Example responses that fit into this theme are as follows:

"Assault by penetration refers to the victim being penetrated by a finger or object (but not a penis), the act is not consented too *[sic]* and the offender doesn't reasonable *[sic]* believe the victim consented." [Participant 5]

"A person (A) commits an offence if— (a)he intentionally penetrates the vagina or anus of another person (B) with a part of his body or anything else, (b)the penetration is sexual, (c)B does not consent to the penetration, and (d)A does not reasonably believe that B consents." [Participant 80]

"I would define assault by penetration as the intentional penetration of the vagina, anus or mouth of a person by another person, through use of a part of the body, excluding a penis, or by any other physical object, when the recipient does not consent to the penetration, and that the other party does not reasonably believe they consent." [Participant 21]

The responses that fell into the above theme tended to report verbatim the definition of sexual assault by penetration as defined in the Sexual Offences Act (2003).

The second theme included responses whereby personnel fell into the 'penetration with an object' theme and consisted of 32.20% of the responses (38/118). Example responses that fit into this theme are as follows:

"Assault by penetration can include fingers or objects used to enter another through *[sic]* mouth anus or vagina." [Participant 4]

"Penetration by penis, digit or object of the vagina / anus (and mouth by penis)." [Participant 89]

"Any digit, or other object that penetrates the vagina, anus or mouth." [Participant 86]

Responses that fell into this theme tended to include penetration of an orifice with an object. In addition, these answers also tended to neglect mentioning lack of consent in relation to the victim and reasonable belief (or lack of) by the perpetrator.

The third theme included responses whereby personnel fell into the 'did not answer/vague' theme and consisted of 7.63% of the responses (9/118). Example responses that fit into this theme are as follows:

"I am not a police officer." [Participant 108]

"Any sexual assault involving penetration." [Participant 62]

Such responses tended to lack detail in their answers or not answering the question as they were police staff and not a police officer.

The last emerging theme was 'consent'; consisting 3.39% (4/118) of responses. The following are examples:

"The intentional penetration of the anus, vagina or mouth, without the consent or true consent of the victim." [Participant 20]

‘Sexual penetration of vagina or anus with anything without consent and no belief of consent.” [Participant 13]

Such responses focus primarily on lack of consent and not the sexual offence being perpetrated. For example, both responses above could be referring to an array of sexual offences, and not sexual assault by penetration.

Define sexual activity without consent.

The third open-ended question asked personnel to define sexual activity without consent, with six themes emerging. The first theme reflected that of legalisation, whereby personnel provided answers akin to the legal definition of causing sexual activity without consent, which was the majority of police personnel answers (45.76%; 54/118). Examples of responses that fit into this theme are below:

“As per the legal definition.” [Participant 14]

“Similar to the previous definitions but including any sexual act (touching and everything less than penetration which is sexual) and the person is not consenting and person B knows that person A is not consenting or reasonably believing they are consenting.” [Participant 35]

“Where suspect without consent causes another person to engage in sexual activity (sexual within the terms of what a reasonable person defines would be sexual) there is no consent and the suspect does not reasonably believe there is consent.” [Participant 57]

Responses such as that above tended to state verbatim the offence of sexual activity without consent verbatim as defined by the Sexual Offences Act (2003).

The second theme included responses whereby the personnel answers fell into the 'lack of consent' theme; consisting of 22.03% of the responses (26/118). Example responses that fit into this theme are as follows:

"Any act where the motive or intent has a sexual element. the *[sic]* other person does not consent, cannot consent or the perpetrator does not reasonably believe that they consent." [Participant 51]

"Consent not given age /disability unable to consent unable to consent because unconscious /drunk/drugged." [Participant 62]

"Under the age of consent or able *[sic]* to provide informed consent." [Participant 73]

Such responses tended to focus on the lack of consent given by the victim and reasonable belief by the perpetrator that the victim consented, which is a requirement for the definition of Causing Sexual Activity Without Consent by the Sexual Offences Act (2003). However, such responses as seen above did not go into detail as to the type of sexual offence being perpetrated by the perpetrator.

The third theme, included responses that fell into the 'touching/kissing theme'; consisting of 17.80% of the responses (21/118). Example responses that fit into this theme are as follows:

"Any form of sexual activity (touching/kissing/other) of another person when that person does not consent and the suspect does not believe that they consent." [Participant 10]

"Any other sexual activity such as kissing, touching private parts of the body or touching accompanied by words or actions that make the touching sexual." [Participant 49]

Many participants defined sexual assault in the Sexual Offences Act (2003), as seen above in participants 49 and 10, which covers touching and kissing, which is not sexual activity without consent.

The forth theme, included responses whereby responses fell into the 'confusion of sexual offence' theme, consisting of 8.47% of the responses (10/118). Example responses that fit into this theme are as follows:

"Not sure I recognise this, there care *[sic]* sexual activity offences in relation to children but not adults, there are sexual assault offences against adults." [Participant 103]

"Any activity carried out by the offender, for the purpose of sexual gratification, against the victim." [Participant 19]

Responses that fell into this theme tended to suggest that personnel were unsure as to how to define sexual activity without consent, which is highlight by participant 103; expressing that they do not recognise this offence.

Beliefs changed since first becoming an officer.

The fourth open-ended question asked personnel to think about whether their beliefs have changed since they first became police officers. Nine themes emerged from personnel answers: 1) yes 2) no, 3) direct experience/training, 4) consent, 5) better understanding, 6) false allegations, 7) credibility, 8) legislation, and 9) not answered. Most police personnel (39/118; 33.05%) stated that their views had not changed since they had become a police officer. Examples of responses that fit into this theme are below:

"No not really. I have always thought of it as being a serious crime." [Participant 17]

"Not changed." [Participant 26].

"No, I have always had the same beliefs." [Participant 47].

The second most common theme was the 'false allegations' theme (20/118; 16.95%). Examples of responses that fit into theme are below:

"YES, I have investigated hundreds of rape allegations and only a handful of these have been truthful allegations. The reasons for false allegations made varies enormously and as a result the first question asked is " is it genuine" This *[sic]* is based on experience not judgement. I think the offence is horrific for a genuine victim and those who make false allegations should be dealt with robustly. It is sad that as detectives we spend as much time checking the account of the alleged victim because of the majority of false allegations made. This means the genuine victims of this crime are losing out on an immediate effective investigation. The publics *[sic]* perception is that the police do not investigate matters properly. This is completely untrue and the statistics pubslished *[sic]* for fale *[sic]*

allegations are based on those charged and convicted of this. In my experience of 12 years as a detective and litereally *[sic]* hundreds of false allegations, I have never known this happen. so *[sic]* the statistics regarding this are completely inaccurate." [Participant 79]

"Since becoming a police officer I have come across people making false reports and malicious allegations in all sorts of cases and crimes. It would be naïve to discount the possibility that some rape allegations are false or malicious. All reports of rape should be investigated, the same way that all reports of other crimes should be investigated. Victims of crime should be believed in the first instance, no matter what type of crime they are reporting. The OIC should be able to justify why a crime is filed, or no crimed *[sic],* using the principles of NCRS and HOCR." [Participant 25]

Such responses as shown above tended to express the rape myth that many allegations are generally false (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994), whilst not taking into consideration the reasons as to why a victim may claim that the allegation was false. From the above answers, it may be that the experience of processing rape cases has potentially resulted police personnel being more sceptical of the genuineness of allegations.

The third theme included personnel who expressed that they now have a better understanding of sexual offences (15/118; 12.71%). The following are example answers in this theme:

"Yes, I have broadened my view of what counts as rape. Before I joined I believed it to be stranger rapes and you had to have been dragged kicking and screaming. Now I understand that this is a very small minority of cases and actually rape occurs in domestic

settings and amongst acquaintances. Also that people when they are vulnerable are more likely to become a victim ie *[sic]* domestic abuse, mental health, alcohol." [Participant 58]

"When first joining the police I think my beliefs were very similar to "most people". I would still say the definition of rape is fairly obvious and any person can understand that. What has changed is my perception of rape when first joining being the fact it's a stranger who jumps out from a bush to attack and rape someone. In reality this is very very rare and 99% of rape offences are by persons known to the victim, in a relationship in most cases as part of domestic abuse or aquaintances *[sic]* / friends. A lot of victim's aren't fully aware they are victim's *[sic]* of rape such as when they are asleep and partners have sex with them. Some victim's *[sic]* seem to accept this as "normal" in an abusive relationship and don't realise this is wrong." [Participant 48]

Responses that fell into the above theme tended to highlight rape myths that police personnel had previously endorsed, which have been reduced through direct experience of working on rape cases. Rape myths previously endorsed appeared to relate to the belief that most rapes are committed by strangers, which was discredited by police personnel direct experience of cases.

The forth theme included personnel who expressed issues with credibility (10/118; 8.47%). The following are example answers in this theme:

"As a uniformed officer I *[sic]* was trained to carry out the initial contact with victims and my focus was to manage the victim sensitively whilst balancing the needs of the investigation – i *[sic]* have always had a very victim focused approach to rapes and in my inital *[sic]* years as a detective dealt primarily with domestic rapes. More recently

departments have been merged and i *[sic]* now deal with 'non domestic' rapes. I now find an increasing amount of investigations whereby a complaint is made and transpires very quickly that events did not happen as described. I have also found an increase of reports by females that have been out drunk and not remembered what is *[sic]* happened to them and they automatically assume they have been raped. Both sets of circumstances lead to lengthy enquiries (appropriately so) which use time that could be used to better effect elsewhere. I still remain very victim focused and sometimes to my detriment i *[sic]* will accept what a victim says beyond reason. If i *[sic]* am honest though I am becoming increasingly frustrated when dealing with a very occasional set of circumstances that was 'not as first reported." [Participant 68]

"All allegations of rape or sexual assault must be treated with utmost seriousness. However, having been a police officer for over two years, my experience has taught me to look at the bigger picture. Is the allegation they have given a likely one? What evidence is there to support their version of events? What is the victim's physical and emotional state? What is the victim's background? Are they known to us? Is the alleged offender known to us? University and policing has taught me that the simplest explanation and the most likely one is usually the correct one. This does not mean that as an officer i *[sic]* decide what I think has happened and do not bother to investigate the full allegation. However, it must be considered that the account the victim has given may not always be the entire story and to consider evidence gatjhering *[sic]* throughout and to take meticulous detail." [Participant 118]

Answers tended to suggest that police personnel are assessing the credibility of allegations; with Participant 118 highlight many aspects of the genuine victim stereotype (Hohl & Stanko, 2015).

The fifth theme included personnel who noted direct experience (9/118; 7.63%). The following are example answers in this theme:

"Certainly experience and exposure to the offence makes you think differently however professionally the stance cannot change and the way investigations are conducted should remain with the victim at the forefront." [Participant 55]

"Yes - through training and experience" [Participant 33]

The above responses indicate that direct experience through working on cases and/or training has changed their perceptions.

The sixth theme included personnel who noted legislation (12/118; 10.17%). The following are example answers in this theme:

"SOA 2003 was introduced bringing changes in legislation from when I joined and trained with *[sic]* 1956. changes *[sic]* include Rape *[sic]* of male, rape of wife, rape including oral and statutory rape- U13yr olds. I believe these changes are for the better." [Participant 53]

"Yes, but only in line with the changes between the 1956 SOA and the 2003 SOA regarding the change in legislation on Consent etc." [Participant 80]

The above responses highlight how police personnel are guided by the legislation in England and Wales in their perceptions of rape.

The seventh theme included personnel who indicated consent (6/118; 5.08%). The following are example answers in this theme:

"Hadn't previously considered them in detail. Now have much greater understanding of how consent should be understood and reality that most rape takes place within context of existing relationships." [Participant 7]

"I know *[sic]* wonder how police can prove rape beyond reasonable doubt in many cases, especially historical reports where forensics are not relevant. Where it is a case of one person's word against another, particularly where the victim claims that they were too drunk to consent, I wonder how police can possibly prove the offence. This does not mean that I do not believe the victim or treat them differently to any other victim." [Participant 95]

The above responses highlight the complexity of consent in relation to rape, and the difficulties police personnel face when there are mitigating factors involved.

The eighth theme included personnel who did not answer the question (5/118; 3.39%). and the last theme was 'yes' (1/118; 0.85%) for responses that did not fall into any of the other themes.

Experiences or factors that may have changed perceptions of rape.

The fifth open-ended question asked personnel what experiences or factors have helped them change their perceptions of rape. Five themes emerged from personnel responses: 1) responses that referred to training, education, experience and contact with victims; 2) personnel who did not respond to the question; 3) responses that cited rape

myths and victim blaming; 4) personnel who stated that there were no changes in their perceptions, and lastly 5) personnel noting a failure in the criminal justice system. Most answers referred to training, education, experience and contact with victims (54/111; 48.65%). The following are example answers in this theme:

"Early on in my career I came across negative attitudes towards rape and the circumstances in which it can happen, not only from colleagues but from members of the public. It is shocking how many people still think rape involves violence, can only be committed by a stranger and that a victim's choice of lifestyle and clothing can be seen as a 'reason' someone is assaulted. I was fortunate to be able to take on the role of STO and to support survivors of sexual offences. I think it is important to remember that everyone deals and reacts differently and that trauma effects *[sic]* us all differently. Keep and *[sic]* open mind with each individual case." [Participant 19]

"From working on a sexual offences investigation team I deal with this on a daily basis and has changed my perception over the shear amount of time and volume of cases I have dealt with. I have spent a huge amount of time with domestic violence victims that have been raped continuously over several years. I have also spent a large amount of time with child victim's *[sic]* of child sexual exploitation who also don't realise they are victim's because they believe they are consenting and have been brain washed by older males to protect them. I have dealt with a couple of what people would assume are typical stranger type rapes that are attacked in the street but these are certainly rare." [Participant 34]

"Experience of dealing with investigations of rape offences has increased knowledge and understanding of the offences." [Participant 67]

Answers that fell into this theme demonstrated how direct experience in dealing with rape victims and rape cases had resulted in a greater acknowledgement of the affects of rape on the victim and a better understanding of the offence.

The second most common theme were personnel answers did not respond to the question (27/111; 24.32%). Examples of responses that fit into theme are below:

"Consent is hugely complex area and very difficult to evidence." [Participant 9]

"None." [Participant 23]

"N/A" [Participant 55]

The third theme included personnel who expressed rape myths (23/111; 20.72%). The following are example answers in this theme:

"I have also seen a number of women who have consumed a vast amount of alcohol and placed themselves in a vulnerable position, then waking up the next day to find they are unsure if they have been raped or not. I still treat these cases as seriously as any other and am sensitive to the horrible nature of the act performed on the victims, however I do often see both missed opportunities and avoidable situations." [Participant 20]

"We receive rape allegations from disgruntled partners and spurned girlfriends (and boyfriends) which lack any substance and are regularly malicious in origin. I have taken genuine `nailed-on` rapes to court to see them thrown out for a variety of reasons. There are a number of issues which have changed my perception of dealing with rape cases - I still believe that rape is the most serious of offences." [Participant 29]

Answers in the above theme tended to highlight a lack of belief in the victims, indicating that they speculated on the 'genuineness' of allegations, and suggested blaming the victim for the offence.

The forth theme included personnel who expressed no change in perceptions (7/111; 6.31%). The following are example answers in this theme:

"My perception hasn't changed." [Participant 6]

"I've investigated a number of rapes and my view has not changed." [Participant 27]

"My perceptions of rape cases have not changed from before I joined the police service. I was fully aware of the issues of rape, of consent and of perceptions of victims and perpetrators. I have been consistently saddened by the way society as a whole still treats the subject of rape." [Participant 37]

The last theme included personnel expressed a failure of the Criminal Justice System (4/111; 3.60%). The following are example answers in this theme:

"The factors present within rape allegations involving people known to each other are too myriad to list here. I have certainly dealt with matters where on the balance of probabilities I would say that consent had not been properly given but I would not have felt able to find an accused guilty had I been sitting on a jury. Under the current system I am of the opinion that the perceived low rate of conviction cannot be greatly improved. I know the suggestion arouses high emotion, but I do think consideration should be given to at least debating further, the possibility of different levels of rape." [Participant 38]

"Juries acquitting clearly guilty offenders." [Participant 39]

"I have celebrated with complainants upon the successful prosecution of their rapist, and i *[sic]* have cried when a *[sic]* prosecution has been unsuccessful and an alleged rapist released back onto the streets despite all my hard work. It's extremely emotive work, that cannot just be left in the office when you go home for the night." [Participant 69]

The answers that fell into the theme (above) tended to highlight the emotional turmoil of working on a case which has not resulted in a conviction, and juries acquitting a suspect.

Discussion

The aims of this part of Study Two was to determine police personnel perceptions of sexual offences. Specifically, how they define certain sexual offences; how their perceptions have changed over the course of their careers; and what factors (if any) have affected their perceptions of rape. Two independent coders were used to identify themes within the data, resulting in a minimum of substantial agreement over and above chance (Landis & Koch, 1977). This means that the data collected in this study is unlikely to be erroneous as both coders agreed on the final theme names (McHugh, 2012).

The results of the content analysis when asked to define sexual offences indicate an overall reliance on the Sexual Offences Act (2003), in some but not all cases. Specifically, when asked to define rape, police personnel relied on the legal definition in the Sexual Offences Act (2003), a finding which supports previous similar research (Wentz & Archbold, 2012), and the prediction that police personnel would cite the legislative definition in the Sexual Offences Act. Police personnel being guided by legislation could be perceived as being highly beneficial to rape victims, as they are not subjectively defining rape, and are instead following the law on a factual basis; thus, defining it through the

Sexual Offences Act (2003). However, it was also found that some participants failed to mention lack of consent in their definitions, or confused rape with other forms of sexual offending. Lack of consent is essential in relation to sexual offending, as it is the lack of reasonable belief that the victim consented which results in the act being a sexual offence, as defined by the Sexual Offences Act (2003). When asked to define sexual assault by penetration it was also found that most personnel relied on the legislation, although some participants confused this offence with rape, suggesting uncertainty as to how to define it. This uncertainty was even greater when asked to define sexual activity without consent, with many participants highlighting penetration with an object with no further elaboration, or included responses that were vague. A theme that also emerged when asked to define sexual activity without consent was responses highlighting touching (perpetrator touching the victim), which is not sexual activity without consent, but a legal requirement of sexual assault (Sexual Offences Act, 2003). These findings could be the result of police personnel having more experience in applying the law for rape, through processing rape cases, and less experience or familiarity with the other sexual offences. This is supported by statistical evidence that indicates that sexual assault and rape (against men and women) make up the first and second largest proportions of sexual offences recorded by the police in the United Kingdom (Ministry of Justice Office of Statistics, 2013). Thus, rape is reported more often than sexual assault by penetration and sexual activity without consent, potentially resulting in personnel not having as much experience of applying the law to these offences as they do with rape.

Police personnel were also asked how their perceptions have changed since first becoming an officer. Most personnel felt that their perceptions had not changed; however, it was not necessarily clear if these individuals held rape myths or not. This is important as it could be suggested that training has had no effect on these specific individuals with regards

to changing their perceptions, which supports previous research (Lee et al., 2012; Lonsway, 1996; Lonsway et al., 2001; Muram et al., 1995; Sleath, 2011; Sleath & Bull, 2012). The second most common theme was police personnel estimating false allegations, such as appearing to hold victims to a high standard in terms of consistency of their reporting, and estimating a high number of false allegations, without necessarily considering why victims may claim that the offence did not happen. It is also unclear if these false allegations were evidenced to be false, or whether personnel took the victim withdrawing from the case as a sign that the allegation was false. For example, victims may have withdrawn from the case due to secondary victimisation, through negative beliefs of their credibility (Hackett et al., 2008). If personnel feel that the allegation is false, they may have communicated this with the victim, which may discourage the victim from continuing with the case. Thus, confirming to such personnel that the allegation was indeed false. In addition, victims may not feel that they fit the "real" rape victim stereotype, such as reporting to the police as soon as the offence has occurred, and having bruising and distinguishing marks on their body (Hohl & Stanko, 2015). However, participants scepticism could be the result of compassion fatigue, which can have a variety of effects on a person, such as negativity, helplessness, and hopelessness (Bride et al., 2007; Figley, 2002); thus resulting in scepticism of rape allegations.

The third theme reflected personnel suggesting that they now have a better understanding of rape; specifically, in terms of debunking rape myths that they had previously believed. Participants expressed that they had endorsed rape myths such as believing that rape is usually between strangers, noting that direct experience with cases led them to recognise that this was not the case. This misconception is also demonstrated in previous research which has found that untrained officers blamed the perpetrator of stranger rape more than a perpetrator of acquaintance rape (Sleath, 2011; Sleath & Bull 2012).

The forth theme included police personnel noting the importance of credibility of the alleged victims, specifically, inconsistency of the allegation, suspected lying, intoxication, prior relationship between the two parties, mental health or malicious intent on part of the victim. The issue of victim credibility is emphasised in previous research in the systematic review (Chapter One), highlighting that victims are at an increased risk of secondary victimisation due to negative beliefs surrounding their credibility (Hackett et al., 2008).

The fifth theme highlighted police personnel including direct experience or training in relation to how their perceptions have changed. This supports previous research which also found that most officers cited training, education and experience in relation to a change in their perceptions (Wentz & Archbold, 2012).

The sixth theme reflected police personnel noting legislation in relation to changes in their perceptions. As noted previously, a reliance on legislation could be seen as beneficial as they are being guided by the law in England and Wales, and not consciously relying on biases and misconceptions.

The seventh theme included police personnel responses that noted consent. Responses in this theme tended to emphasise a greater understanding on the issue of consent and the complexities around it. This supports previous research that highlighted rape as a unique offence, insofar as the perpetrator has the ability to claim that the victim consented to the act (Archambault & Lindsay, 2001).

The eighth theme were responses that did not answer the question due to them not being a police officer, highlighting a methodological flaw in the current study that needs to be taken into consideration in future research, and taking into account police staff and volunteers. Even though such police personnel may not be police officers, civilian staff can

be call handlers and may be the first point of contact for a victim when they report the offence at the first contact centre.

The ninth theme included only one response stating that their perceptions have changed since first becoming a police officer; however, they did not elaborate any further. The last qualitative question asked personnel what experiences or factors have helped them in changing their perceptions of rape, with the most common theme referring to training, education, experience and contact with victims. As mentioned previously, this supports previous research which also found that most officers cited training, education and experience (Wentz & Archbold, 2012). Unlike Wentz and Archbold (2012), where the second most common theme was officers citing victim blaming, for the current study the second most common theme was participants not directly responding to the question (which was the third theme for Wentz and Archbold, 2012). The third emerging theme for this question was personnel expressing rape myths, which included blaming the victim for the offence and questioning the genuineness of the allegations. Such perceptions were related to victim intoxication, supporting previous findings suggesting that when the victim was intoxicated, officers were more likely to perceive the case as more ambiguous, not legitimate or completely false (Venema, 2013). The forth emerging theme were participants expressing no change in their perceptions, and the final emerging theme was personnel noting a failure in the criminal justice system with juries acquitting guilty offenders and the emotional turmoil of working hard on a case which does not result in a conviction. This finding supports research which describes ‘burnout’, which is the emotional and psychological exhaustion associated with feelings of hopelessness in relation to doing one’s job effectively (Stamm, 2010). Thus, if personnel have worked extensively on a case which does not result in a conviction, they are likely to feel exasperated by the whole experience.

Chapter Six

General Discussion and Conclusion

This discussion is divided into several sections. The first section will discuss the research findings of the thesis and cover the hypotheses of each empirical chapter. The second section will discuss the strengths of the research presented in the thesis, and the third section will discuss the theoretical implications of the research findings. The fourth section will discuss the practical implications of the research findings, and the fifth section will discuss the limitations of the research presented, and suggest future research avenues. The conclusion will provide concluding remarks and recommendations based on the overall findings of the thesis.

Summary of Findings and Hypotheses

Study one: hypotheses.

Study One examined hypotheses regarding personnel personal characteristics in relation to rape myth acceptance and rape empathy. Firstly, it was hypothesised that male personnel will be more accepting of rape myths compared to female personnel. Secondly, it was predicted that Christian personnel would endorse more rape myths and be more empathetic to perpetrators of rape, and less empathetic to victims of rape than non-religious personnel. Thirdly, it was predicted that non-heterosexual police personnel would endorse less rape myths and be more empathetic to victims of rape, and less empathetic to perpetrators of rape compared to heterosexual police personnel. Forth, it was hypothesised that as rape myths increase, rape perpetrator empathy would increase and rape victim empathy would decrease. Fifth, it was predicted that married police personnel may endorse more rape myths than non-married police personal, and be more empathetic to perpetrators of rape than to victims, when compared to non-married police personnel. Sixth, it was predicted that there would be no relationship between age and rape myths in police

personnel. Finally, it was predicted that when considering all personal characteristics; gender identity, religion, marital status and sexual orientation, will be predictive of rape myths, victim empathy, and perpetrator empathy.

With regards to professional characteristics, Study One tested the following hypotheses: Firstly, it was hypothesised that as police personnel educational level increases, rape myths will decrease. Secondly, as education level increases, victim empathy would increase, and perpetrator empathy would decrease. Thirdly, as years of service increases, police personnel rape myths decrease. Forth, it was predicted that the longer police personnel served in the police service, the higher their rape victim empathy, and the lower their rape perpetrator empathy. Fifth, it was predicted that there would be no relationship between sexual assault training and rape myth acceptance, or rape empathy. Lastly, when taking all other professional characteristics into account; education level and years of service would predict rape myths and rape empathy.

Key findings.

Study One (Chapter Three) investigated whether personal (gender identity, age, religion, marital status) and professional (education, rank, main role, hours of sexual assault training, years of experience, usefulness of sexual assault training, relevance of sexual assault training) characteristics of police personnel were related to rape myths, and rape victim and perpetrator empathy.

Rape myth acceptance.

In relation to rape myths, no personal characteristics were related. However, with regards to professional characteristics; it was found that police personnel with a high education level had less rape myths than personnel with a lower education. Further investigation into the different levels of education in relation to rape myths found that

police personnel with GCSEs as their highest education level endorsed more rape myths compared to those with degrees (Undergraduate, Masters). In relation to perceptions of sexual assault training, it was found that the less useful and less relevant police personnel perceived sexual assault training to be, the higher their rape myth endorsement. Additional analyses found that when considering usefulness and relevance of sexual assault training in predicting rape myth acceptance; relevance of sexual assault training was predictive, in that personnel who perceived sexual assault training as less relevant were more likely to endorse rape myths. Study One also found that overall, police personnel have a low level of rape myths. No other professional characteristics were related to rape myths.

Rape empathy.

With regards to rape perpetrator empathy, non-religious personnel were found to be more empathetic to perpetrators of rape than Christian police personnel.

Interaction of rape myths and rape empathy.

In relation to rape victim empathy, it was found that as rape victim empathy increases so does rape perpetrator empathy, and as rape empathy perpetrator increases, so does rape myth acceptance.

Study two: research questions and hypotheses for vignettes.

The purpose of Study Two was to answer the following research questions: Is there a change in police personnel perceptions depending on the type of sexual offences; and what personal and professional characteristics of police personnel influence their perceptions of other sexual offences in addition to rape? Study Two also tested the following hypotheses regarding police personnel perceptions of four vignettes depicting

female rape (male perpetrator), male rape (male perpetrator), sexual assault by penetration, and sexual activity without consent: Firstly, it was predicted that the victim in the sexual activity without consent, would be perceived as the least credible, most to blame, the most agreeing to sex, the most lying, the most unreasonable, the most interested in sex, the most provocative, and the perpetrator perceived as the most reasonable, out of the vignettes. Secondly, the victim in the female rape (male perpetrator) would be perceived as most credible, least to blame, the least agreeing to sex, the least lying, the least unreasonable, the least interested in sex, the least provocative, and the perpetrator being perceived as the least reasonable, out of all the vignettes. Thirdly, there would be a difference in perceptions for the vignettes between heterosexual and non-heterosexual police personnel. Forth, there would be a difference in perceptions between male and female police personnel in relation to the vignettes. Fifth, hours of sexual assault training would not be related to personnel perceptions amongst the vignettes. Sixth, it was also predicted that the higher the education level, the more credible, less to blame, least agreeing to sex, least lying, least unreasonable, least interested in sex, least provocative they would perceive the victim to be, and more unreasonable the perpetrator would have perceived to be amongst the vignettes. Seventh, that Christian personnel would perceive the victims more negatively in all the vignettes, than non-religious personnel. Eighth, when taking all personal characteristics into account, gender identity would be predictive. Lastly, it was hypothesised that when taking all professional characteristics into account, education level would be predictive of perceptions in the vignettes.

Study two: quantitative findings.

Perceptions of sexual offences.

Findings revealed that across all of the vignettes an increase in a negative perception against the victim (e.g. less credible) tended to be related an increase of other negative perceptions against the victim (e.g. blame, sexually provocative etc.), and an increase in positive perceptions of the perpetrator (e.g. perpetrator reasonableness).

It was also found that the victim in the sexual activity without consent vignette was perceived to be the least credible and most to blame compared to the victims in the other vignettes. In addition, it was found that the victim in the sexual activity without consent vignette was perceived to be lying the most about the incident compared the victims in the female rape and male rape vignettes. Results also showed that the perpetrator was perceived as the most reasonable in the sexual activity without consent vignette compared to the perpetrators in the female rape and sexual assault by penetration vignette. Finally, it was found that the victim was perceived as the most unreasonable compared to the victims in the female rape and male rape vignettes (no difference compared to sexual assault by penetration. No differences were found in perceptions of victim agreement, victim provocativeness, and victim interest amongst the vignettes.

Personal characteristics and perceptions of sexual offences.

Study Two also investigated police personnel perceptions of the vignettes in relation to their personal and professional characteristics.

Sexual orientation and victim sexual provocativeness.

Findings revealed that heterosexual police personnel compared to non-heterosexual police personnel perceived the victim in all of the vignettes as more sexually provocative.

No other personal characteristics were related to victim credibility, victim blame, victim lying, victim agreement, victim interest, perpetrator reasonableness and victim unreasonableness.

Serious crime personnel and victim sexual interest.

Findings revealed that police personnel in serious crime tended to rate victims as more interested in sex across all vignettes compared to police personnel in 'other' role. No other professional characteristics were related to perceptions amongst the vignettes.

Study two: research questions for qualitative data.

The qualitative section of Study Two examined the research questions regarding police personnel perceptions of sexual offences; specifically, how they define certain sexual offences; how their perceptions have changed over the course of their careers, and what factors (if any) they feel have affected their perceptions of rape.

Study Two: qualitative findings.

Defining sexual offences.

When asked to define rape, most personnel stated verbatim the legislative definition defined in the Sexual Offences Act (2003), and the same was found when asked to define sexual assault by penetration; however, it was noted that several personnel confused this offence with rape. There was also confusion when asked to define sexual activity without consent, with many participants highlighting touching (perpetrator touching the victim), which is not sexual activity without consent, but a legal requirement of sexual assault (Sexual Offences Act, 2003).

Change of perceptions throughout police personnel careers.

Most personnel felt that their perceptions had not changed since first becoming an officer, and those that did included victim blaming statements, such as expressing rape myths; specifically, appearing to hold victims to a high standard in terms of consistency of their reporting, and highlighting the large amount of suspected false allegations; with participants not considering why victims may claim that the offence did not happen. Some personnel when asked how their perceptions have changed also highlighted a better understanding of sexual offences due to direct experiences with victims and dealing with cases; whilst others expressed issues with credibility of rape allegations, questioning the authenticity of the allegation. Personnel also indicated that their perceptions had changed due to direct experience or training. A small amount of police personnel highlighted the change in legislation in 2003 in altering their perceptions. Police personnel also noted the complexity in relation to consent and the proving beyond reasonable doubt that the offence occurred. The remainder did not answer the question and one participant felt that they their perception had changed but did not elaborate further.

Factors or experiences which may have changed perceptions.

Lastly, Study Two asked police personnel what factors or experiences have helped in changing their perceptions of rape; with most noting training, education, experience and contact with victims. The second emerging theme included personnel not answering the question, and the third theme included personnel expressing rape myths; including victim blaming statements, and questioning the genuineness of the allegations; especially in relation to victim intoxication, and the relationship between the alleged perpetrator and victim. The forth theme included answers where personnel indicated that their perceptions had not changed, and the final theme included answers which noted a failure in the criminal

justice system; highlighting juries acquitting guilty offenders and the emotional turmoil of working hard on a case which does not result in a conviction.

Strengths of the Research Presented in Thesis

There are several strengths of the research presented in this thesis, which will now be discussed. Firstly, previous rape research in policing samples (See Chapter One) has neglected to take into consideration how personal and professional characteristics may relate to each other in how they impact police personnel perceptions of sexual offences. An individual is a combination of characteristics, such as their gender, age, educational background, religion and so forth, and any number of factors may have a role to play in a person's perceptions. This is in addition to any characteristics that are presented to them from the environment, for example a sexual offence case with varying factors such as the sexes of the parties involved. The research presented in this thesis not only investigated the direct relationship between police personnel personal and professional characteristics in relation to their perceptions of sexual offences, but also investigated how such characteristics in combination affected their perceptions. Secondly, the research in this thesis went beyond investigating characteristics which have already been researched in policing populations, and went further by delving into characteristics that have been suggested to be influential in non-policing samples in relation to rape myths and empathy; such as marital status and religion.

Thirdly, the research in this thesis also investigated police personnel perceptions of male rape (male perpetrator), female rape (male perpetrator), sexual activity without consent, and sexual assault by penetration, which has not been previously investigated. With findings indicating that the male victim of sexual activity without consent being perceived less favourably compared to some of the other victims; whilst the perpetrator was perceived more favourably compared to some of the other perpetrators. Forth, previous

research has been over reliant on gathering data from male police officers (see systematic review in Chapter One); and in recognising this, the research presented in this thesis represents a near equal balance between male and female police personnel.

Fifth, it was highlighted in the systematic review in this thesis (see Chapter One) that many previous studies have utilised interviews or focus groups (Barrett & Hamilton-Giachritsis, 2013; Campbell et al., 2015; Hellmann, 2005; Javaid, 2014; King, 2009; Shoultz, 2011; Venema, 2014) in gathering police officers' perceptions of rape. Due to the sensitive topic nature, using such a methodology may have resulted in officers answering in a socially desirable fashion (Lee et al., 2012), wanting to portray the police service in a positive light (Page, 2007, 2008a, 2008b, 2010; Rich & Seffrin, 2012); resulting in them answering in a 'politically correct' way (Campbell, 1995) which may have affected their responses. The research presented in this thesis noted such limitations, opting to implement online self-report surveys instead to measure police personnel perceptions. Self-report questionnaires are more beneficial when investigating sensitive topics, as they enable personnel to provide less biased and more truthful responses due to anonymity (Cooper, 1998) (for full methodological review, see Chapter Two); therefore, the research presented in this thesis is more likely to reflect more truthful responses when compared to the use of interviews and focus groups.

Sixth, the research presented in this thesis also made use of vignettes in order to measure personnel perceptions of the victims and perpetrators of sexual offences. Using vignettes is considered appropriate for investigating perceptions of sexual offences as they are perceived as less threatening than talking about a personal experience, as they entail asking opinions of situations that are less personal (Barter & Renold,1999). The aforementioned reason makes vignettes highly suitable for assessing police officers' rape myths (Page, 2008b) (for a full mythological review see Chapter Two).

Seventh, previous research (Chapter One) has continually highlighted that sexual assault training does not change officers' perceptions (Lonsway, 1996; Lonsway et al., 2001; Muram et al., 1995; Sleath, 2011; Sleath & Bull, 2012), and data collection in this thesis provides us with some insight as to why this may be. Due to the analyses in Study One, we now know that perceptions of usefulness of sexual assault training are directly related to personnel rape myths. Findings suggested that police personnel who perceived sexual assault training as less useful and relevant, endorse more rape myths, and police personnel who perceived sexual assault training as relevant are more empathetic to victims of rape, than those who perceived such training as less relevant. Thus, we now know that it may not be the sexual assault training which is ineffective in changing police personnel perceptions, but how police personnel perceive such training. Based on the research in Chapter One, only one previous study has found that perceptions of training may relate to perceptions rape, finding that officers who perceived sexual assault training as very helpful, had less victim-blaming perceptions to date rape than those who did not find it helpful (Campbell, 1995). Thus, demonstrating the importance of perceptions of sexual assault training in relation to victim blaming attitudes.

Lastly, due to the findings presented in this thesis (Chapter Five), we now have a clearer understanding as to why police personnel may appear to become more cynical and judgemental of rape cases when working directly with rape victims. The qualitative findings in Study Two suggest that police personnel experience psychological effects when processing sexual offence cases; especially when they do not get the end result they were hoping for, such as conviction or reaching trial; leading to perceived injustice for the victim. Thus, police personnel responses in the qualitative data indicate that such experiences are resulting in compassion fatigue, whereby those suffering from it can experience a reduction of capacity of bearing the suffering of other people (Figley, 2002);

resulting in a lack of empathy or compassion (Elwood, Mott, Lohr & Galovski, 2011; Mathieu, 2007).

Theoretical Implications of Findings

The research presented in this thesis has several important theoretical implications for rape research in policing populations.

Police personnel perceptions in relation to sexual offences.

Firstly, the research presented in this thesis has theoretical implications for rape myths, and how perceptions of victims and perpetrators can deviate depending on the type of sexual offence that is reported. The findings in Study Two (Chapter Four), revealed that a female raped by a male perpetrator was perceived as most credible, least to blame, the least agreeing to sex, the least lying, the least unreasonable, and the perpetrator being perceived as the least reasonable; however, a male victim of a female perpetrator of sexual activity without consent, was perceived as the least credible, the most to blame, most agreeing to penetration, and the most unreasonable out of the sexual offences, with the perpetrator being perceived as the most reasonable. Thus, negative perceptions of the victim were more present when the victim was a male and the perpetrator was female. As covered in Chapter One, one of the many purposes of rape myths is to blame the victim for their own victimisation (Ryan, 1976; Scully, 1990), whilst exonerating the perpetrator from any responsibility (Anderson, 1999); implying that the victim is lying about the offence (Cuklanz, 2000; Grubb & Turner, 2012). Thus, it is suggested that perceptions that are usually associated to rape, may also be present when the perpetrator is female in other types of sexual offences; specifically "men are incapable of functioning sexually unless they are sexually aroused" (Smith et al., 1988, p. 103); "men cannot be forced against their will" (Stermac, Boce, Del,& Addison, 2004, p.901); "men are less affected by sexual assault than

women" (Stermac et al., 2004, p.901); "men are in a constant state of readiness to accept any sexual opportunity" (Clements-Schreiber & Rempel, 1995, p.199); and "a man is expected to be able to defend himself against sexual assault" (Groth & Burgess, 1980, p. 808). It is also important to note that these findings may have implications for female on female sexual offences. Even though the research presented in this thesis predominately investigated perceptions of a male victim of sexual offences; theoretically, female victims of female perpetrators may also be subjected to rape myths traditionally relating to female or male rape; thus, requiring further investigation. The aforementioned findings also suggest that sexual offences in England and Wales are perceived as less serious when the perpetrator is female; as the female rape victim of a male perpetrator was perceived most favourably out of the other sexual offences where the victim was male. This may be due to the female rape victim being more congruent with the genuine victim stereotype (Hohl & Stanko, 2015); which supports previous research that has found that officers assign less rape myths to rape victim who fit the genuine victim stereotype (Page, 2008b).

The current thesis findings from the vignettes also suggest that there is a denial that women can also be sex offenders (Denov, 2003); explaining why male victims of female preparators were perceived (sexual activity without consent and sexual assault by penetration) more negatively than the sexual offences (female rape and male rape) with male perpetrators. In addition, the qualitative portion of Study Two (Chapter Five) also highlighted police personnel obligation to follow the Sexual Offences Act (2003), with the majority referring to the legislation when asked to define sexual offences. It is unclear as to why England and Wales do not have a gender-neutral definition of rape, unlike the Sexual Offences Act (2009) in Scotland (Sexual Offences and Related Matters, 2007), and the United States of America (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2014); however the lack of a gender-neutral definition also play a role in the genuine-victim stereotype (Hohl & Stanko,

2015) as previous mentioned. This also supports Denov's (2003) suggestion that there is a cultural denial in relation to female sex offences, and Eastwood (2003) further suggests that female sex offending is a 'silent crime'; which could also be argued as being facilitated by the current legislation with regards to the non-gender-neutral definition of rape. It is also suggested that victims of female perpetrators may be reluctant to report to the police for a variety of reasons; specifically, fear of secondary victimisation, embarrassment and/or a lack confidence in the justice system, or feeling that others may perceive the offence as having a low impact (Denov, 2003, Deering & Mellor, 2007, cited by Hayes & Baker, 2014). It is important to highlight that even though the aforementioned reasons relate specifically to child sexual abuse; the same could be applied to the reasons as to why individuals may not want to report being a victim of sexual assault at the hands of a female perpetrator. There is also the suggestion that the occurrence of female sex offending is more widely spread than originally thought (The Lucy Faithfull Foundation, 2009); however, this is again relating to child sexual exploitation as there appears to be little information on female adult sexual offending against other adults. Nevertheless, Chapleau, Oswald and Russell (2008) note that reporting rates may also be lower still when considering sexual offences where the perpetrator is a woman; although this is entirely speculative, as in England and Wales there does not appear to be any data available. The lack of data in relation to a female offender may also reflect the lack of reporting to police of intimate partner violence; where the victim may feel shame or stigma and are faced with other practical problems (Felson, Ackerman & Gallagher, 2005). Furthermore, female-perpetrated intimate partner violence may also not be reported to police due to the deep-rooted social conventions which perceives male aggression towards a female partner as more negative, as opposed to when the perpetrator is female (Arias & Johnson, 1989; Straus, Kantor & Moore, 1997).

Perpetrator empathy and religion of police personnel.

Secondly, the findings in this thesis also demonstrated that non-religious police personnel were more empathetic to perpetrators of rape than Christian police personnel. As covered in Chapter Three such findings could be explained by Christian virtues which condemn sexual violence and rape, and view them as morally, ethically, and religiously unacceptable (Redmond, 1989), and the suggestion that morality in religion is deeply engrained (McKay & Whitehouse, 2015), and that morality is impossible without a belief in God (Pew Research Global Attitudes Project, 2007). Thus, individuals who are not religious may lack the same adherence to moral values that are related to Christians. However, it is important to highlight that morality was not investigated in this thesis, and is therefore purely speculative at this point.

Practical Implications of Findings

The current selection of research presented in this thesis has highlighted some important practical implications, especially in relation to sexual assault training, and education of police personnel. Study One clearly indicates that several personal and professional characteristics relate to police personnel rape myth acceptance, and rape empathy, and these can have implications for victim treatment, victim reporting, public confidence, and victim attrition rates in sexual offences cases. In relation to victim treatment in rape cases, there has been the assumption that female victims will want a female liaison officer (Jamel, 2009; Jamel, Bull & Sheridan, 2008); however, the findings in this thesis indicate no gender differences in perceptions. In addition, previous research has demonstrated the assumptions that women police personnel are more empathetic to rape victims, and that victims want a female officer can have negative implications on the victim's experience. Pitfield (2013) for instance, found that a male rape victim reported that

a female police officer expressed feeling uncomfortable photographing them. In addition, Pitfield (2013) suggests that victims found that the gender of the officer they dealt with was of less importance than qualities of compassion and care. Other research has also found being believed and being taken seriously was important, in addition to feeling cared for and supported; as well as friendly officers and the victim being given the choice of gender for their assigned officer (Jamel, 2009; Jordan, 2002). Although the results in this thesis overall indicate that gender is not related to perceptions, it is important to highlight that the thesis did not measure personnel behaviours in interacting with rape victims; only their perceptions. As demonstrated by previous research, a change in behaviour does not mean a change in perceptions (Lonsway et al., 2001), and vice versa. Therefore, it is proposed that police personnel are informed of how specific characteristics may impact their perceptions of sexual offences, which in turn may affect how they work on cases and interact with victims. Raising awareness of perceptions can be targeted in sexual assault training; however, the current findings emphasise the importance of ensuring that personnel know of the usefulness and relevance of such training in relation to their duties. Research findings in this thesis also go beyond simply raising awareness; especially in relation to education level of police personnel, which is not so easily addressed through training. For example, in Study One; findings suggested that police personnel with GCSEs as their highest education level, endorsed more rape myths than personnel with degrees (Undergraduate, Masters). It is therefore suggested that in recruitment for police personnel, police services should require that candidates have a minimum of an undergraduate degree on entering the police service. This suggestion is currently being implemented throughout police services in England and Wales, with the College of Policing (2017) proposing three entry routes into policing; including an undergraduate degree into policing, a graduate conversion programme, and a higher-level apprenticeship.

The qualitative findings in Study Two noted that many police personnel believed that attrition rates indicated the number of false allegations in sexual offence cases. Attrition is referred to the process of early withdrawal by complainants (Kelly, Lovett, & Regan, 2005) and is highest at the beginning of the police investigation (Brown, Hamilton, & O'Neill, 2007); with victim withdrawal explaining a large proportion of attrition rates in rape cases (Hester, 2013; Stern, 2010). Thus, based on the finding in Study Two, it is recommended that during sexual assault training police personnel are provided information as to the reasons why sexual assault victims may not want to pursue or continue with the rape case, or may claim that the allegation was false. Attrition is also increasing in rape cases; therefore widening the justice gap (decrease in conviction rates) (Lonsway & Archambault, 2012), and police personnel perceiving allegations as false may not be helping the situation.

Rape victims are at an increased risk of secondary victimisation through negative perceptions of their viable credibility (Hackett et al., 2008) which may affect attrition rates, and by police personnel questioning the authenticity of allegations; victims may feel that they have to prove the offence occurred; leading to a feeling of lack of belief or support, which can lead to attrition. The assumption that some allegations are false may also lead to police personnel bringing victims credibility into question when they do not fit their preconceptions of what a genuine rape victim will be like, for example, that a genuine rape victim would report to the police as soon as the offence has occurred, and would have bruising and marks on their person (Hohl & Stanko, 2015). When the victim does not fit such misconceptions, they no longer fit 'real' rape victim stereotypes which can be perpetuated from criminal justice personnel; thus, affecting victims' willingness to continue with the case (Hohl & Stanko, 2015). This is further emphasised by past research which has also found that victims who adhered to the genuine victim stereotype were also more likely

to be believed by officers, with officers also assigning less rape myths to those individuals than to rape victims who did not fit such stereotypes (Page, 2008b). It is however important to highlight the issues police personnel face with putting a case together to be presented to the Crown Prosecution Service, only for it be thrown out or the perpetrator to not be convicted. The qualitative research presented in this thesis highlighted the emotional turmoil personnel experience when these instances happen, and may lead to personnel only wanting to continue with cases that have a realistic chance of conviction and justice for the victim. For example, it has been suggested that law enforcement agencies are able to filter out all but the "strongest" of cases (Lonsway & Archambault, 2012) to be presented to the Crown Prosecution Service. In addition, prosecution levels for rape are declining; thus leading to falling conviction rates (Lovett & Kelly, 2009); with the United Kingdom having the lowest conviction rate for rape in Europe (Hohl & Stanko, 2015). It is therefore admirable but not necessarily justifiable that when presented with a case that includes factors that police personnel know will be used against the victim by the defence (e.g. alcohol intoxication and perpetrator-victim relationship), that they may be reluctant to continue with the case; becoming cynical of such cases and leading to a higher estimation of false allegations.

There are two practical suggestions in dealing with police personnel frustrations and cynicism in relation to sexual assault allegations. Firstly, it is suggested that police personnel are only able to work in the Sexual Offences Unit for a specified period of time; possibly on a secondment basis, before being either moved to another department or given desk duties until they are able to return to victim facing responsibilities. This suggestion will give personnel a respite from dealing directly with sexual offence cases, and seek the support needed to overcome compassion fatigue (which can increase negativity and scepticism) before returning. However, there are several considerations needed for this

recommendation. It is not practical to suggest a specific amount of time as to when personnel should be required to temporarily move onto another unit, or when it would be suitable to move back and continue investigating sexual offence cases, as firstly; it is out of the remit of this thesis, and secondly; it may depend on the resilience of the individual and the types and frequency of the sexual offences they encounter; and thirdly; specialist knowledge is needed in processing sexual offence cases, which may not be easily covered if a person is taken away from such lines of work. Thus, future research should also attempt to investigate police personnel length of service in the Sexual Offences Unit in relation to their rape myths and monitor secondary victimisation and compassion fatigue due to the type of work involved (how this can be addressed will be discussed later on). In addition, it is questionable if it is morally justifiable to remove an individual to a different line of work that they are passionate about, and if personnel feel that expressing their frustrations with the Crown Prosecution Service will result in them being moved, then they may feel that they cannot express their emotions or seek support; resulting in compassion fatigue not being addressed. Furthermore, to move personnel to another unit may also result in a loss of staff retention, which is supported by research finding that from 2004-2005, 27% of police officers that had left the police service, took voluntary resignations (Disney, Crawford & Simpson, 2017), and a recent report by the Hargreaves, Husband and Linehan (2017) found that the number of officers leaving the police service is on the increase; with 7% of officers leaving in 2017, compared to 6% in 2016; demonstrating an upward trend of loss of retention. Moreover, in relation to officer wellbeing; 2% of police officers in England and Wales have been found to be on long-term sick leave, and 3.6% of officers are on recuperative duties; thus, emphasising the importance of personnel being able to express their emotions (Hangreaves et al., 2017). Therefore, the second suggestion is that police personnel should be given the opportunity to express their emotions in relation to working

with sexual offences in one to one supervision, without fear of repercussions. This supports previous research which has noted the importance of understanding police officer burn out (Burke, 1993a, 1993b, 1994) and their perceptions of their daily work (Kohan & Mazmanian, 2003). The third suggestion is that police personnel are encouraged to undertake mindfulness sessions. Compassion fatigue symptoms have been suggested to be reduced through the implementation of Mindfulness-Based Interventions (MBIs), which teach individuals to become more aware of their thoughts and feelings whist developing internal states of non-judgemental curiosity (Duarte & Pinto-Gouveia, 2016). Mindfulness allows for a greater awareness of the current moment; helping the individual to develop more healthy and adaptive ways of coping with stress (Duarte & Pinto-Gouveia, 2016). The accumulation of concentration, attention, and non-judgemental acceptance of what is being experienced in the current moment is central to mindfulness practice (Kabat-Zinn, 1990; Bishop et al., 2004). In the emergency services, the implementation of MBIs have been found to decrease compassion fatigue, burnout, stress, experiential avoidance, and increased satisfaction with life, mindfulness and self-compassion (Duarte & Pinto-Gouveia, 2016) Thus, it is suggested that police services implement MBIs in order to help police personnel who work on sexual offence cases cope with the indirect secondary victimisation that they experience in such lines of work, which may also help with their cynicism and over-estimation of false allegations.

As noted above, compassion fatigue may have implications for secondary victimisation experienced by rape victims who report to the police. To address this, a two-pronged approach could be implemented- firstly encouraging victim reporting, and secondly measuring victim satisfaction ratings from victims who have reported to the police. For example, British Transport Police have the ‘Report it to Stop It’ campaign (British Transport Police, n.d.-a); whereby they encourage the public to report anything that

makes them feel uncomfortable. The campaign aims to tackle all forms of unwanted sexual behaviour on the railway, describing it as a priority for the force, and encourages the public to report such behaviour via text or phone. The aforementioned campaign indicates that the force is taking sexual offences seriously; and being taken seriously is fundamental to victims (Jamel, 2009; Jordan, 2002); thus, potentially reducing or limiting secondary victimisation. In relation to victim satisfaction, the Home Office requires police forces to conduct victim satisfaction surveys on a regular basis (British Transport Police, n.d.-b). In practice, there is the potential for victims of sexual offences to report how satisfied they are with the service they have been provided, which could be reported back to the investigating officer in ensuring that the service they are providing victims is of the highest possible standard; which can also provide learning and development opportunities, such as additional sexual offence training or respite from investigating such offences.

Study Two also found that the male victim of sexual activity without consent was generally perceived less favourably compared to the other forms of sexual offences presented in vignettes amongst police personnel, suggesting the belief that the victim obtaining an erection indicates sexually arousal (Smith et al. 1988); and therefore consent. However, it is not uncommon for a male victim to obtain an erection or even ejaculate during the assault, with previous findings suggesting that fifty per cent of male rape victims reporting that they maintained an erection throughout the assault (Groth & Burgess, 1980), and 20% reported ejaculation (King, Coxell & Mezey, 2000). Thus biologically, an ejaculation or erection should not be interpreted as consent, and police personnel need to be educated in training on the physiological responses that can occur in a sexual assault.

Lastly, relatively little research has investigated police personnel perceptions of sexual assault training in relation to perceptions of rape; however, research that has investigated this suggests officers who perceived such training as very helpful, had less

victim-blaming perceptions to date rape than those that did not find it helpful (Campbell, 1995). Similarly, the results in this thesis also demonstrate the importance of police services emphasising the relevance and usefulness of sexual assault training to police personnel. Thus, police services need to ensure that they highlight the importance of this training in order to reduce the negative aforementioned perceptions in relation to victims of sexual offences; which may increase victim blame and responsibility. It is suggested that in order to emphasise the usefulness and relevance of sexual assault training to police personnel, police services should enquire with them as to what specific objectives and information they want from the training that is both relevant and useful to their roles in relation to sexual offending. This will ensure that sexual assault training covers the information that personnel need and want, in addition to any core information that may need to be covered (such as documentation and processes), but may also increase personnel engagement with the material presented; leading to a reduction in negative perceptions in relation to victims.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

In examining the limitations of the research presented in this thesis, it is important to highlight that this research is the first of its' kind to investigate police personnel perceptions in relation to other sexual offences, and how personal and professional characteristics in combination, may affect their perceptions. However, such perceptions were gathered through self-report measures, and despite the research implementing a social desirability measure (which was found to have unacceptable levels of reliability); police personnel answers may have been affected by social desirability due to the topic nature. Thus, personnel may have responded in a socially desirable fashion (Lee et al., 2012), wanting to portray the police service in a positive light (Page, 2007, 2008a, 2008b, 2010; Rich & Seffrin, 2012); resulting in them being more dishonest and answering in a

'politically correct' way (Campbell, 1995). It is hoped however that the research presented in this thesis mitigates against the need to answer in a favourable fashion, due to enabling personnel to complete the questionnaires online; which have been suggested to increase disclosure and honest responses (Copper, 1998; Joinson, 1999), and accurate data (Tuten Urban, & Bosnjak, 2002). Additional investigation into the social desirability measure using the 'Cronbach's alpha if item deleted' also revealed that deletion of the following items resulted in an increase of the alpha: *"on a few occasions, I have given up on doing something because I thought too little of my ability"*, and *"It is sometimes hard for me to go out with my work if I am not engaged"*. However, the deletion of the aforementioned items does not increase the alpha to a satisfactory level (alpha of .56 and .53 respectively) (Kline, 1999). Based on the systematic review in Chapter One, no previous research in sexual offences has administered a social desirability measure to a policing population, and in non-policing populations, the measure achieves an acceptable level of reliability (Reynolds, 1999). Thus, further exploration is needed in how to address social desirability when researching sensitive topics for policing personnel.

The data gathered for this research also demonstrated a lack of ethnic and religious diversity, and unfortunately, the lack of ethnic diversity reflects previous research in policing samples, with most also being over 60% White (see Chapter One). Furthermore, the lack of ethnic diversity in the current research also reflects the current situation of the police service in England and Wales; where statistics suggest that only 6% of police officers are from Black and Minority Ethnic Communities; however, it is important to highlight that this is the highest proportion since records began (Hangreaves et al., 2017). In addition, Chapter One also highlights that policing population samples largely comprise of males; meaning that the research in this thesis is in the minority in terms of securing a near equal sample between female and male police personnel. Therefore, future research

should attempt to gather a racially and religiously diverse policing sample to enable the investigation of such characteristics in relation to perceptions of sexual offences. This is important as research in non-policing samples has indicated that both ethnicity (Jimenez & Abreua, 2003; Lee & Cheung, 1991; Mori et al., 1995) and religion (Sheldon & Parent, 2003; Nagel et al., 2005) can affect perceptions relating to sexual offences.

There was also a lack of diversity of sexual orientation in the policing samples gathered in this thesis. Despite attempting to gather data from individuals that represent different sexual orientations; police personnel were largely heterosexual, meaning that people with other sexual orientations needed to be recategorized as non-heterosexual due to small numbers. No data appears to be available on the diversity of sexual orientation in the police service, and it may be that the data gathered reflects the lack of such diversity within the police service. Regardless, future research should attempt to gather a diverse spectrum of sexual orientations from policing populations in order to enable the investigation of this characteristic in relation to perceptions of sexual offences. Research in non-policing populations has suggested that heterosexual men are more likely to endorse rape myths, than heterosexual women or gay men; with gay men being the least likely to endorse rape myths overall (Davies & McCartney, 2003). Therefore, further investigation is needed to analyse whether this is also the case for policing populations, and what this could mean for learning and development of police personnel and victim experiences when reporting to the police service.

Due to the significantly limited number of individuals who indicated that they were transgender in the research in this thesis, they had to be excluded from any analyses for gender identity. To date, there is no official estimation of the number of transgendered people in the United Kingdom (Ellis, McNeil & Bailey, 2014); however, the transgendered population is suggested to be on the increase. For example, Reed, Rhodes, Schofield and

Wylie (2009), estimate that the number of transsexual people in the United Kingdom who undergo gender reassignment is within the region of the 10,000 among the transgendered community; although a person does not need to go through gender reassignment to be considered as transgender. It is therefore likely that the number of police personnel who are transgendered will be on the increase if it is not already. No data appears to be available on how many transgendered police officers there are in England and Wales; making it difficult to know whether transgender is a characteristic to be considered in policing populations in relation to perceptions of sexual offences. However, with positive action taking place in the police service in relation to protective factors and promoting difference (Humberside Police, 2017); it is only a matter of time before such data is produced on the number of police personnel who do identify as transgender. Furthermore, even though the number of transgendered police personnel that were gathered in this thesis were too few for quantitative analyses to reach a significant level of power; future research could conduct qualitative analyses to investigate their perceptions of sexual offences; potentially through focus groups and interviews.

It is also important to highlight that some of the characteristics in the systematic review (Chapter One), were not investigated in the research presented in this thesis; for professional characteristics: experience of rape case processing, police subculture, resources, sexualized environment, sexual assault knowledge; personal characteristics: victims known personally, personal experience; and personal beliefs: stereotypes, sympathy, traditionalism, old fashioned/modern sexism, gender role, and just world beliefs. Due to the limited availability police personnel have to participate in research (please see methodological review on police time constraints in Chapter Two), the thesis focused on addressing new research avenues which had not been considered before, and although analyses of the aforementioned factors would have been beneficial, there was a concern that

the time spent participating in the research would have resulted in high dropout rates or low participation. It is therefore proposed that future research should investigate the aforementioned factors whilst also building on the findings in this thesis in relation to other sexual offences; including rape.

It is also important to highlight that the research presented in this thesis only applies to England and Wales. Firstly, there are legislative differences in England and Wales and other locations; specifically, the offences of sexual activity without consent and sexual assault by penetration only apply to the Sexual Offences Act (2003). In other countries, the aforementioned sexual offences would likely be classified as rape in the United States of America (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2014) and South Africa (Sexual Offences and Related Matters, 2007). In addition, in Scotland the Sexual Offences Act (2009) does not have the offence sexual activity without consent, meaning that the findings in this thesis in relation to the above-mentioned sexual offences can only be applied to police personnel in England and Wales. Secondly, only police personnel in England and Wales participated in the research; therefore, it is proposed that future research compares perceptions of police personnel of sexual offences; comparing them to police personnel in different locations in order ascertain how legislation may play a role. Not only will such research assess any differences between personnel who are guided by either the Sexual Offences Act (2003) or the Sexual Offences Act (2009) (if comparing England and Wales with Scotland), but it will also assess if such individuals differ in terms of their personal and professional characteristics in relation to their perceptions.

It also needs to be stressed that an endorsement of rape myths or negative perceptions of a victim of a sexual offence does not necessarily mean a difference in behaviour. This has been emphasised in previous research which has found that in relation to sexual assault training; behaviour of police officers changed with regards to which form

of training they had been given; however, there were no differences in victim blaming attitudes (Lonsway et al., 2001). Thus, the research presented in this thesis only applies to police personnel perceptions of sexual offences, and not how they behave when processing a case or interacting with victims or perpetrators. Therefore, future research should investigate if perceptions of training in terms of usefulness or relevance is related to how personnel behave in investigations.

It is also important to highlight that many of the significant findings in this thesis included small effect sizes; specifically, for religion, education level, main role, gender identity, and rank; meaning that aforementioned characteristics accounted for a small percentage of the variance of specific perceptions across the findings in the thesis. It was also found that many of the relationships between perceptions in the vignettes had small effect sizes; thus, indicating a weak relationship. Therefore, it is recommended that future research investigates what other variables may contribute to the remaining variance for rape perpetrator empathy, rape myths, victim, credibility, blame, victim agreement, victim lying, perpetrator reasonableness, and victim unreasonableness.

The research in this thesis (specifically the vignettes) measured police personnel perceptions of identical situations which only differed on the genders of the victim and perpetrator and type of sexual offence reported, and ultimately all other factors such as intoxication and the perpetrator and victim relationship remained consistent. Thus, it is recommended that future research investigates if police personnel perceptions differ of the same sexual offence if other characteristics are changed. For example, research in Chapter One highlighted that in relation to police personnel perceptions of rape; investigating victim/crime scene characteristics such as prior relationship and intoxication can be influential. Thus, it would be beneficial to investigate if differences in these characteristics

affect police personnel perceptions of the same sexual offence; which appears to be unexplored in relation to sexual assault by penetration and sexual activity without consent.

In the qualitative analyses in Study Two police personnel were asked to describe if their perceptions of changed, and if so, what factors have influenced their perceptions since first becoming a police officer. Unfortunately, this resulted in several police personnel declining to answer these specific questions by stating that they were not a police officer. Therefore, recognition is needed of the diverse roles of police officers, police staff and volunteers in the police service. Thus, it is suggested that future research replicates these specific questions in order to qualitatively analyse perceptions from a variety of individuals who have different roles in the policing sector.

Lastly, even though the thesis investigated police personnel perceptions in relation to sexual assault by penetration and sexual activity without consent through utilising vignettes; police personnel rape myths of these offences were not measured. This is especially important as the findings in this thesis demonstrated a difference in perceptions (such as credibility, blame and so forth) depending on the type of sexual offence, which as demonstrated in Chapter One, may affect police personnel rape myth endorsement. It is therefore recommended future research develops a rape myths scale to measure rape myths in relation to the sexual offences covered in vignettes and in doing so, the measure will be directly applicable to the Sexual Offences Act (2003). It is also suggested that due to the differences in legislation; as previously covered, it would also be beneficial for such a measure to analyse police personnel rape myths in relation to a woman raping a man. Although the Sexual Offences Act (2003) does not recognise that a woman is legally capable of raping a man, such a comparison would enable researchers to compare police personnel rape myths between this type of offence and other sexual offences. Furthermore, depending on the findings; for example, if police personnel are found to be endorse more

rape myths in relation to a woman raping a man, it could have implications for the current definition of rape in the Sexual Offences Act (2003); encouraging legislators to adopt a gender-neutral definition of rape.

The thesis did not measure male rape myths which may have been beneficial considering that rape myths relating to female rape were measured, in addition to perceptions of other sexual offences that also included a male victim. As noted in Chapter Two, police personnel are known for being notoriously difficult to gather data from (Page, 2008a), and by asking too many questions would have increased the participation time; leading to increased risks of low participation and high attrition rate. In addition, previous research has highlighted the implications of implementing overly long questionnaires in relation to responses (Bogen, 1996); specifically, lower response rates (Heberlein & Baumgartner 1978; Yammarino, et al., 1991), and questions towards the end of the questionnaire may be processed differently than those at the beginning (Helgeson & Ursic, 1994); leading to 'do not knows' (Krosnick et al., 2002), and identical answers to different questions (Herzog & Bachman, 1981). Thus, it was felt that it was more essential to investigate rape myths in relation to female rape, as it has been so extensively researched (see Chapter One), and to address the noted limitations of such research; considering the relationship between personal or professional characteristics on perceptions of female rape. Furthermore, it was deemed essential to investigate perceptions in relation to sexual offences that have not been previously explored; such as sexual assault by penetration and sexual activity without consent, using established measures, and considering the legislation in England and Wales. Furthermore, self-report questionnaires that measure male rape myths have been suggested to require further development, and may not be suited for gathering such data from police personnel. There are several self-report measures that measure male rape myth, for example, Struckman-Johnson and Struckman-Johnson's

(1992) scale measures participants' level of agreement of male rape myths; including 12 male rape myth statements (six related to female perpetrator and six related to male perpetrator) modelled from some of the items comprising Feild's (1978) Attitude Towards Rape Scale. However, an analysis of the Struckman-Johnson and Struckman-Johnson's (1992) measure in previous research has suggested that further scale development is needed due to low reliability coefficients (Chapleau et al., 2008). Melanson (1998) developed the Male Rape Myth Scale, which also measures male rape myths, and was developed from the research conducted by Struckman-Johnson and Struckman-Johnson (1992). The MRMS has been found to demonstrate an excellent of level of reliability; encompassing a broad range of rape myths, relating to homosexuality, enjoyment of sex, coping and blame (Sleath, 2011). However, Sleath (2011) has noted that there is still more scope for the development of a new measure of male rape myth acceptance which measures the fuller range of male rape myths which is not currently covered by the Melanson (1999) scale. Sleath (2011) went onto develop her own scale using seven rape myth themes: 'Masculinity', 'Association with Homosexuality', 'Invulnerability to Rape', Hierarchy of suffering', 'Coping', Enjoyment of Sex', and 'Responsibility'. A good level of internal consistency was found for this scale, ranging from .87 to .94, and demonstrated a good construct validity with already established scales such as the IRMA (Payne et al., 1999). Sleath (2011); however, noted that further testing of the factor structure is needed; meaning that it was not suitable for the purpose of this thesis. The MRMS (Melanson, 1999) may also not be suitable for gathering data in England and Wales as it is not legally compatible with England and Wales. For example, the MRMS (Melanson, 1999), includes the item *"it is a terrible experience for a man to be raped by a woman"*, which is problematic as the Sexual Offences Act (2003) does not recognise that a woman is legally capable of raping another person. Therefore, if administered to policing personnel in England and Wales, they may

express that they strongly disagree with this item; not because they endorse rape myths, but due to the fact that the Sexual Offences Act (2003) does not recognise rape perpetrated by a woman as an offence. Therefore, they may be indicating their disagreement with the wording of the item and not expressing rape myth endorsement. Based on the aforementioned reasons, male rape myths were not analysed in this thesis; however, it is suggested that future research replicates Study One in order to investigate whether considering all personal or professional characteristics relate to male rape myths.

Conclusion

The findings from this thesis demonstrate that both professional and personal characteristics do not consistently affect police personnel perceptions in the same way, and that is it essential to take into consideration not only how such characteristics interact with one another in how they impact perceptions, but also the type of sexual offence being reported.

Police personnel are guided by the legislation in England and Wales, as evidenced in this thesis, which can be problematic when such legislation distinguishes between genders of the perpetrator in determining the type of sexual offence; specifically, rape, sexual assault by penetration, and sexual activity without consent (Sexual Offences Act, 2003). To criticise the police service for the negative police personnel perceptions of victims when the perpetrator is female may be misdirected, and instead the focus should likely be towards legislators in order to encourage a gender-neutral definition of rape; leading to gender-equality in the Sexual Offences Act (2003). Police personnel unquestionably following legislation can be seen as a benefit to victims, as they are not relying on their own pre-conceptions in determining how they would define rape. However, if such legislation is biased, this can cause problems, as demonstrated in this thesis.

The empirical research presented in this thesis started by investigating what factors have already been identified as being related to police personnel perceptions of rape, by conducting a systematic review. After analysing the data gathered from the systematic review, it became clear that it was not the case that one characteristic directly interacts with a particular perception consistently; with most previous research failing to consider how other factors may also play a role. Thus, the research presented in this thesis, attempted to not only investigate the relationship of previously researched factors, but also never before studied elements in policing populations; highlighting not only how negative perceptions may be present in other forms of sexual offences, but also that police personnel characteristics are not present in isolation, and interact with one another in how they affect perceptions. It is not practical to say that gender identity is directly related to rape myths without taking account all the other elements, both physically and psychologically a person may have; in addition to all the factors that any case may bring, such as the victim-perpetrator relationship and sexual offence type, to name but a few. Thus, the research presented in this thesis, marks the first step in attempting to be as true to life as possible when personnel work on a sexual offence case in England and Wales. It is hoped that by being as ecologically valid as possible, the new research presented can help support police services in addressing how they can tackle negative perceptions within police personnel, and the potential impact this may have on sexual offence victims; in particular attrition rates. Ultimately, it is hoped that the findings from this thesis can inform new initiatives, that, combined with already existing initiatives within the police service, will improve police officer and victim interactions and perceptions with regards to sexual violence incidents.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Personal Background Questionnaire

Please be as accurate as possible when answering these questions. If you need to exit the questionnaire without completion, you can complete it later at your earliest convenience.

What is the gender you identify with?
- ❍ Male
- ❍ Female
- ❍ Prefer not to say
- ❍ Transgender
- ❍ Other (please specify) _____

Please indicate your age (numerically).

What is your marital status?
- ❍ Married
- ❍ Cohabiting
- ❍ Widowed
- ❍ Separated
- ❍ Divorced
- ❍ Single

What is your religion?
- ❍ Muslim
- ❍ Christian (Including Church of England, Catholic, Protestant and all other Christian denominations)
- ❍ Buddhist
- ❍ Hindu
- ❍ Jewish
- ❍ Sikh
- ❍ No religion
- ❍ Any other religion, write in _____

What is your sexual orientation?
- ❍ Heterosexual/Straight
- ❍ Lesbian
- ❍ Gay
- ❍ Bisexual
- ❍ Asexual
- ❍ Prefer not to say
- ❍ Other (please specify) _____

What is your ethnic group?

- ❍ White
- ❍ Mixed/Multiple Ethnic Group
- ❍ Asian/Asian British
- ❍ Black/African/Caribbean/Black British
- ❍ Other Ethnic Group (please describe) _____

Please select the sub-theme of your ethnic group (white)

- ❍ Irish
- ❍ Gypsy or Irish Traveller
- ❍ Any other white background (please describe) _____

Please select the sub-theme of your ethnic group (Mixed/Multiple)

- ❍ White and Black Caribbean
- ❍ White and Black African
- ❍ White and Asian
- ❍ Any other mixed background (please describe) _____

Please select the sub-theme of your ethnic group (Asian/Asian British)

- ❍ Indian
- ❍ Pakistani
- ❍ Banglideshi
- ❍ Chinese
- ❍ Any other Asian Background (please describe) _____

Please select the sub-theme of your ethnic group (Black/African/Carribean/Black British)

- ❍ African
- ❍ Caribbean
- ❍ Any other black African/Caribbean (please describe) _____

Appendix B

Professional Background Questionnaire

The following questions will relate to information regarding your professional background, including your level of expertise and any training you may or may have not received. Please be as accurate as possible when answering these questions. If you need to exit the questionnaire without completion, you can complete it later at your nearest convenience.

What is your highest educational level?

- ❍ GCSE/ O Level
- ❍ BTEC
- ❍ A-level
- ❍ Undergraduate Degree
- ❍ Masters Degree
- ❍ PhD Degree
- ❍ No Qualifications
- ❍ Other (please specify) _____

What is your rank?

- ❍ Police Constable
- ❍ Police Sergeant
- ❍ Inspector
- ❍ Chief Inspector
- ❍ Superintendent
- ❍ Chief Superintendent
- ❍ Assistant Chief Constable
- ❍ Deputy Chief Constable
- ❍ Chief Constable
- ❍ Police Staff Employee
- ❍ Other (please specify) _____

What is your main role (please select only one)?
- ❍ Neighbourhood
- ❍ Response
- ❍ Public Protection
- ❍ CID (Criminal Investigators Department)
- ❍ Management
- ❍ Firearms
- ❍ Tactical/Operational Support Unit
- ❍ Intelligence
- ❍ Criminal Justice Unit
- ❍ Community Safety
- ❍ Serious Crime
- ❍ Volume Crime
- ❍ Other (please specify) _____

Please state which police service you work for (please note that this is purely for analytical purposes and will only be disclosed to the researchers).

Please state how many year's experience you have in the police service (round to the nearest year).This experience includes years in other police services if different from the one you are in now, therefore please provide your overall experience in the police service numerically.

How many hours (approximately) of sexual assault training have you received? Please provide the hours numerically.

How useful have you found the sexual assault training that you have received?
- ❍ Very Useful
- ❍ Useful
- ❍ Somewhat Useful
- ❍ Neutral
- ❍ Somewhat Useless
- ❍ Useless
- ❍ Not at all Useful

How relevant do you feel the sexual assault training you have received is when you are investigating or are involved in the processing of a sexual assault case?
- ❍ Very relevant
- ❍ Relevant
- ❍ Somewhat Relevant
- ❍ Neutral
- ❍ Somewhat Irrelevant
- ❍ Irrelevant
- ❍ Very Irrelevant

Please provide the names of the Sexual Training Courses that you have received? (If applicable)

- ❍ Not Applicable
- ❍ Name of Training Course(s) _____

Appendix C

Rape Victim Empathy Scale (RVES- Smith & Frieze, 2003)

Please give your answer to the extent you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. If you need to exit the questionnaire, you can continue later at your nearest convenience.

I find it easy to take the perspective of a rape victim.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I can imagine how a victim feels during an actual rape.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I get really involved with the feelings of a rape victim in a movie.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I can understand how helpless a rape victim might feel.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I can feel a person's humiliation of being forced to have sex against their will.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

Hearing about someone who has been raped makes me feel that a person's upset.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

It's not hard to understand the feelings of someone who is forced to have sex.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I can empathise with the shame and humiliation a rape victim feels during a trial to prove rape.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

○	○	○	○	○

I know if I talked to someone who was raped i'd become upset.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I can imagine the courage it takes to accuse a person in a court of rape.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I can understand why a rape victim feels bad for a long time.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I imagine the anger a person would feel after being raped.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I find it difficult to know what does on in the mind of a rape victim.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I don't understand how a person who is being raped would be upset.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I can't understand how someone who has been raped can blame their partner and not take some of the responsibility.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I can see how someone who had been raped would get upset at their rape trail.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I can see how dealing with the police can be an emotional event for a rape victim.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

Rape Perpetrator Empathy Scale (RPES-Smith & Frieze, 2003)

Please give your answer to the extent you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. If you need to exit the questionnaire, you can continue later at your nearest convenience.

I find it easy to take the perspective of a person who rapes.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I can imagine how a person who raped might feel during an actual rape.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I get really involved with the feelings of a rapist in a movie.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I can understand how powerful a rapist might feel.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

Hearing about a rape, I can imagine the feelings the rapist might have felt.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

It’s not hard to understand the feelings that would drive someone to force sex on another person.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I know if I talked to someone accused of rape I’d become upset at their upset.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I can feel a person’s humiliation at being accused of forcing someone to have sex.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I can emphasise with the shame and humiliation an accused rapist feels during a trial to prove rape.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I imagine the anger a person would feel at being accused of rape.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I can feel the emotional trauma that a person accused of rape might feel if the rape trial were publicised in the press.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I can imagine the courage it takes to defend oneself in a court against the charge of rape.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I can understand a rapist's feelings after a rape.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I find it difficult to know what does on in the mind of a rapist.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I don't see how a person accused of rape could be upset.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I can't imagine how someone accused of rape can blame their victim.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I can see how someone accused of rape would become upset at their rape trial.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

I can see how dealing with the police can be an emotional event for a person accused of rape.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○

Appendix D

AMMSA (Gerger et al., 2007)

Please give your answer to the extent you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. If you need to exit the questionnaire, you can continue later at your earliest convenience.

Q1 When it comes to sexual contacts, women expect men to take the lead.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q2 Once a man and a woman have started ‘‘making out’’, a woman’s misgivings against sex will automatically disappear.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q3 A lot of women strongly complain about sexual infringements for no real reason, just to appear emancipated.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q4 To get custody for their children, women often falsely accuse their ex-husband of a tendency toward sexual violence.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q5 Interpreting harmless gestures as ‘‘sexual harassment’’ is a popular weapon in the battle of the sexes.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q6 It is a biological necessity for men to release sexual pressure from time to time.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q7 After a rape, women nowadays receive ample support.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q8 Nowadays, a large proportion of rapes is partly caused by the depiction of sexuality in the media as this raises the sex drive of potential perpetrators.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q9 If a woman invites a man to her home for a cup of coffee after a night out this means that she wants to have sex.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q10 As long as they don't go too far, suggestive remarks and allusions simply tell a woman that she is attractive.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q11 Any woman who is careless enough to walk through ''dark alleys'' at night is partly to be blamed if she is raped.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q12 When a woman starts a relationship with a man, she must be aware that the man will assert his right to have sex.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q13 Most women prefer to be praised for their looks rather than their intelligence.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q14 Because the fascination caused by sex is disproportionately large, our society's sensitivity to crimes in this area is disproportionate as well.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q15 Women like to play coy. This does not mean that they do not want sex.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q16 Many women tend to exaggerate the problem of male violence.
- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q17 When a man urges his female partner to have sex, this cannot be called rape.
- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q18 When a single woman invites a single man to her flat she signals that she is not averse to having sex.
- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q19 When politicians deal with the topic of rape, they do so mainly because this topic is likely to attract the attention of the media.
- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q20 When defining ‘‘marital rape’’, there is no clear-cut distinction between normal conjugal intercourse and rape.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q21 A man’s sexuality functions like a steam boiler—when the pressure gets to high, he has to ‘‘let off steam’’.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q22 Women often accuse their husbands of marital rape just to retaliate for a failed relationship.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q23 The discussion about sexual harassment on the job has mainly resulted in many a harmless behavior being misinterpreted as harassment.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q24 In dating situations the general expectation is that the woman ‘‘hits the brakes’’ and the man ‘‘pushes ahead’’.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q25 Although the victims of armed robbery have to fear for their lives, they receive far less psychological support than do rape victims.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q26 Alcohol is often the culprit when a man rapes a woman.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q27 Many women tend to misinterpret a well-meant gesture as a ‘‘sexual assault’’.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q28 Nowadays, the victims of sexual violence receive sufficient help in the form of women's shelters, therapy offers, and support groups.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q29 Instead of worrying about alleged victims of sexual violence society should rather attend to more urgent problems, such as environmental destruction.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Q30 Nowadays, men who really sexually assault women are punished justly.

- ❍ Totally Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Totally Agree

Appendix E

Social Desirability Scale Short Form (Reynolds, 1982)

Please answer 'true' or 'false' to each of the following statements.

3 It is sometimes hard for me to go out with my work if I am not encouraged.
- ❍ True
- ❍ False

6 I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my own way.
- ❍ True
- ❍ False

10 On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability.
- ❍ True
- ❍ False

12 There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right.
- ❍ True
- ❍ False

13 No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener.
- ❍ True
- ❍ False

15 There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.
- ❍ True
- ❍ False

16 I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.
- ❍ True
- ❍ False

19 I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.
- ❍ True
- ❍ False

21 I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.
- ❍ True
- ❍ False

26 I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own.
- ❍ True
- ❍ False

28 There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others.
- ❍ True
- ❍ False

30 I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favours of me.
- ❍ True
- ❍ False

33 I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.
- ❍ True
- ❍ False

Appendix F

Qualitative Survey Instrument Modified from Wentz and Archbold (2012)

As you know, it's the legislators who make laws and decide how to define crimes and what punishments will be given out for certain crimes. But, you are actually in the community dealing with victims and criminals.

Q1 Based on your work as a police officer, how do you define rape?

Q2 Based on your work as a police officer, how do you define assault by penetration?

Q3 Based on your work as a police officer, how do you define sexual activity without consent?

Q4 Have you changed how you think about rape cases from when you first became a police officer to now? If so, how have your beliefs changed?

Q5 What experiences or factors have helped change your perceptions of rape cases?

Appendix G

Vignettes Modified from Schuller and Stewart (2000)

Rape: Male perpetrator, female victim

The morning after a university party, Amelia Wilson (complainant) arrives at a police station to press a charge of rape perpetrated by Harry Ryan (perpetrator). She stated that she had arrived at the party with a group of friends, and midway through the evening met Harry Ryan. At the end of the evening, Harry offered to walk her home to the house she shared with two other students. When they got back to her place they started kissing on the couch and Harry started undoing her top. She stated that she did not want to engage in any sexual activity; Harry said that it was OK, and they continued to fool around. Then he undressed himself, and against Amelia's objections, penetrated her with his penis. Amelia Wilson stated that she had not struggled and there was no evidence of bruising. The police interviewed Harry Ryan. He admitted to having sexual intercourse with Amelia Wilson, but maintained that she was a willing participant.

Rape: Male perpetrator, male victim

The morning after a university party, Stephen Wilson (complainant) arrives at a police station to press a charge of rape perpetrated by John Ryan (perpetrator). He stated that he had arrived at the party with a group of friends, and midway through the evening met John Ryan. At the end of the evening, John offered to walk him home to the house he shared with two other students. When they got back to his place they started kissing on the couch and John started undoing his top. He stated that he did not want to engage in any sexual activity; John said that it was OK, and they continued to fool around. Then he undressed himself, and against Stephen's objections, penetrated him with his penis. Stephen Wilson stated that he had not struggled and there was no evidence of bruising. The police interviewed John Ryan. He admitted to having sexual intercourse with Stephen Wilson, but maintained that he was a willing participant.

Sexual assault by Penetration: Female perpetrator, male victim

The morning after a university party, Junior Wilson (complainant) arrives at a police station to press a charge of sexual assault by penetration, which was perpetrated by Isabelle Anderson (perpetrator). He stated that he had arrived at the party with a group of friends, and

midway through the evening met Isabelle Anderson. At the end of the evening, Isabelle offered to walk him home to the house he shared with two other students. When they got back to his place they started kissing on the couch and Isabelle started undoing his top. Junior stated that he did not want to engage in any sexual activity; Isabelle said that it was OK, and they continued to fool around. Then Isabelle, against Junior's objections, penetrated Junior with her fingers. Junior Wilson stated that he had not struggled and there was no evidence of bruising. The police interviewed Isabelle Anderson. She admitted to having penetrating Junior Wilson, but maintained that he was a willing participant.

Sexual Activity Without Consent: Female perpetrator, male victim

The morning after a university party, Oliver Wilson (complainant) arrives at a police station to press a charge of sexual activity without consent, which was perpetrated by Chloe Anderson (perpetrator). He stated that he had arrived at the party with a group of friends, and midway through the evening met Chloe Anderson. At the end of the evening, Chloe offered to walk him home to the house he shared with two other students. When they got back to his place they started kissing on the couch and Chloe started undoing his top. Alex stated that he did not want to engage in any sexual activity; Chloe said that it was OK, and they continued to fool around. Then Chloe, against Oliver's objections, forced him to penetrate her with his penis. Oliver Wilson stated that he had not struggled and there was no evidence of bruising. The police interviewed Chloe Anderson. She admitted that Oliver Wilson penetrated her, but maintained that he was a willing participant.

Q1 How would you rate the credibility of the complainant's claim of sexual assault?

- ❍ Completely Credible
- ❍ Credible
- ❍ Somewhat Credible
- ❍ Neither Credible or Not Credible
- ❍ Somewhat not Credible
- ❍ Not Credible
- ❍ Completely not Credible

Q2 How much blame should be placed on the complainant for the alleged sexual assault?
- ❍ Not at all to Blame
- ❍ Not Blameworthy
- ❍ Somewhat not Blameworthy
- ❍ Neither Blameworthy or Not Blameworthy
- ❍ Somewhat Blameworthy
- ❍ Blameworthy
- ❍ Very Blameworthy

Q3 The complainant communicated that they did not agree to sex.
- ❍ Completely agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Do not agree at all

Q4 The complainant was interested in sexual intercourse.
- ❍ Do not agree at all
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Completely Agree

Q5 The complainant was sexually provocative.
- ❍ Do not agree at all
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Completely Agree

Q6 The complainant is lying about the incident.
- ❍ Do not agree at all
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Completely Agree

Q7 Given the complainant's behavior, it was reasonable for the perpetrator to assume that they was interested in having sex.

- ❍ Do not agree at all
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Completely Agree

Q8 Given how far things had progressed between the two parties, the complainant was unreasonable to expect the perpetrator to refrain from trying to have sex with them.

- ❍ Do not agree at all
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Completely Agree

Appendix H

Police National Collection Information Email/Sheet Study One

Research into the Attitudes of Police Officers' towards Victims and Perpetrators of Crime: Study One

Introduction

I would like to invite you to participate in this study, which is part of the research examining the influences of personal and professional characteristics of police officers' on their perceptions of victims and perpetrators of particular offences.

Why am I doing this study?

This study forms part of the research conducted for a PhD thesis at the University of Kent.

Am I eligible to participate?

If you are a member of a police service then you are eligible to participate in this research.

What will I have to do if I agree to take part?

1. Providing that you are happy to take part in this study, you can click on the link at the bottom of this the page to be taken to the consent form.
2. When you are happy with the consent form and agree with the terms and conditions, you can proceed to the questionnaires.
3. After completion of the questionnaires you will be provided with the contact details of the researchers and services you may need if you have become distressed as a result of your participation or have any questions regarding your participation in the study and the results.
4. There is a second part of this research, which will commence in the near future, and we encourage you to also take part is that phase of the research, but you do not have to.
5. The debrief will include contact details and services you may need if you have become distressed as a result of your participation or have any questions regarding your participation in the study and the results.

How much time does it take to participate?

The study is expected to take no longer than 20-30 minutes to complete. Should you be called away for whatever reason, you can return at a later date and re-enter the study from where you left off.

What are the advantages of taking part?

You may find this topic interesting as this study aims to help the Police Service in its' training and development of its' officers. We hope to be able to provide valuable input to the police service by highlighting existing good practice, and recognising crucial elements that will need to feature in future training. We hope that from this research we can develop and propose a training tool, which can be utilised throughout the police service that targets perceptions of sexual offences.

What are the risks/Discomforts involved in participating?

This study will involve discussing topics, which some people may find distressing. However, you will be provided with a contact number of a support service should you experience distress as a result of your participation. We will also provide you with our contact details should you want to make enquiries regarding the research or your participation.

Do I have to take part in the study?

Your participation is entirely voluntary. You are not obliged to participate and you have only been approached if you are a member of the police service.

Is my data kept confidential?

This research will inform a doctoral thesis, and we intend to submit an anonymised version of the data for publication. The research may also be presented at conferences; however, it is not in our interests to name any police service or individual who participates in our research.

How do I participate?

If you are interested in participating in this research, please proceed to the following link whereby you will be taken to the consent form. If however, you feel that you would rather not participate in this study, you need not proceed any further.

Researcher: Kayleigh Parratt, University of Kent

Supervisor: Dr Afroditi Pina, University of Kent

https://kentpsych.eu.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_9BqCNmuTSNQOOgZ

Appendix I

Police National Collection Information Email/Sheet Study Two

Research into the Attitudes of Police Officers' towards Victims and Perpetrators of Crime: Study Two

Introduction

I would like to invite you to participate in part two of this study, which is examining the influences of personal and professional characteristics of police officers on their perceptions of victims and perpetrators of particular offences.

Why am I doing this study?

This study forms part of the research conducted for a thesis in a PhD at the University of Kent.

Am I eligible to participate?

If you are a member of a police service, then you are eligible to take part. If you participated in the first part of our research you are still encouraged to participate in the second part. Likewise, if you did not participate in the first part, you are still eligible to participate in the second part.

What will I have to do if I agree to take part?

1. Providing that you are happy to take part in this study, you can click on the link at the bottom of this the page to be taken to the consent form.
2. When you are happy with the consent form and agree with the terms and conditions, you can proceed to the questionnaires.
3. After completion of the questionnaires you will be taken to the debriefing form, informing you of the whole purpose of this study and additional information.
4. The debrief will include contact details and services you may need if you have become distressed as a result of your participation or have any questions regarding your participation in the study and the results.

How much time does it take to participate?

The study is expected to take no longer than 20-30 minutes to complete. Should you be called away for whatever reason, you can return at a later date and re-enter the study from where you left off.

What are the advantages of taking part?

You may find this topic interesting as this study aims to help the Police Service in its' training and development of its' officers. We hope to be able to provide valuable input to the police service by highlighting existing good practice, and recognising crucial elements that will

need to feature in future training. We hope that from this research we can develop and propose a training tool, which can be utilised throughout the police service that targets perceptions of sexual offences.

What are the risks/Discomforts involved in participating?

This study will involve discussing topics, which some people may find distressing. However, you will be provided with a contact number of a support service should you experience distress as a result of your participation. We will also provide you with our contact details should you want to make enquiries regarding the research or your participation.

Do I have to take part in the study?

Your participation is entirely voluntary. You are not obliged to participate and you have only been approached if you are a member of the police service.

Is my data kept confidential?

This research will inform a doctoral thesis, and we intend to submit an anonymised version of the data for publication. The research may also be presented at conferences; however, it is not in our interests to name any police service or individual who participates in our research.

How do I participate?

If you are interested in participating in this research, please proceed to the following link whereby you will be taken to the consent form. If however, you feel that you would rather not participate in this study, you need not proceed any further.

Researcher: Kayleigh Parratt, University of Kent

Supervisor: Dr Afroditi Pina, University of Kent

https://kentpsych.eu.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_9Ts1eoJdMNyWWIR

Appendix J

Police National Collection Debrief Study One

Debriefing

Thank you for participating in our research. The purpose of our research was to analyse police officers' personal and professional factors influences on perceptions of victims and offenders of rape and sexual assault by penetration.

Rape victims generally provide favourable feedback of their interactions with the police (Cohen & Roth, 1987; Frazier & Haney, 1996; Greenberg & Ruback, 1992); however, there is still some feedback that is less positive (Campbell, Sefl, Barnes, Ahrens, Wasco & Zaragoza-Diesfeld, 1999; Cluss, Boughton, Frank, Stewart, & West, 1983; Wyatt, Notgrass, & Newcomb, 1990), and it is important to understand why that is by examining potential reasons for this finding.

This research will inform a doctoral thesis, and we intend to submit an anonymised version of the data for publication. It is not in our interests to name any police service or individual who participates in our research.

If you have become distressed as a result of your participation in our research, please seek support through the Contact Counselling Directory on 0844 8030 240.

Should you have any enquiries relating to the research, your participation, or you have experienced concern as a result of your participation, please contact Kayleigh Parratt on 01227 823090. If you decide that you would like to withdraw your data from the research for whatever reason, please call Kayleigh Parratt quoting your 'unique participant identification code' and your data will be withdrawn.

Thank you again for your participation in our research.

Appendix K

Police National Collection Debrief Study Two

Debriefing

Thank you for participating in our research. The purpose of our research was to analyse police officers' personal and professional factors influences on perceptions of victims and offenders of rape and sexual assault by penetration.

Rape victims generally provide favourable feedback of their interactions with the police (Cohen & Roth, 1987; Frazier & Haney, 1996; Greenberg & Ruback, 1992); however, there is still some feedback that is less positive (Campbell, Sefl, Barnes, Ahrens, Wasco & Zaragoza-Diesfeld, 1999; Cluss, Boughton, Frank, Stewart, & West, 1983; Wyatt, Notgrass, & Newcomb, 1990), and it is important to understand why that is by examining potential reasons for this finding.

Past research on sexual offence processing decisions has failed to consider the characteristics of police officers as active participants in the legal decision making process (Alderden & Ullman, 2012). For example, there are several stages a rape and assault by penetration case will go through which involves police officers' decision making, such as deciding if the incident actually constitutes a criminal offence as defined by the law (Alderden & Ullman, 2012). Therefore, one's identity, social position, and past experiences may be influential in terms of the decisions made in the processing of the case (Alderden & Ullman, 2012).

This research will inform a doctoral thesis, and we intend to submit an anonymized version of the data for publication. It is not in our interests to name any police service or individual who participates in our research.

If you have become distressed as a result of your participation in our research please seek support through the Contact Counselling Directory on 0844 8030 240.

Should you have any enquiries relating to the research, your participation, or you have experienced concern as a result of your participation, please contact Kayleigh Parratt on 01227 823090. If you decide that you would like to withdraw your data from the research for whatever reason, please call Kayleigh Parratt quoting your 'unique participant identification code' and your data will be withdrawn.

Thank you again for your participation in our research.

Appendix L

Police National Collection Consent Form Study One

Informed Consent

Title of Research: Research into the Attitudes of Police Officers Towards Victims and Perpetrators of Crime: Part One

Investigators: Kayleigh Parratt and Dr Afroditi Pina

Purpose of the Research:

We are interested in examining whether personal and professional characteristics of police officers affect their perceptions of particular offences. We hope to establish the factors that can play a role in enhancing positive perceptions and empathy. Thus, we hope to be able to provide valuable input to the police service by highlighting existing good practice, and recognising crucial elements that will need to feature in future training.

Procedure:

You will be asked to complete two questionnaires asking you questions on your experience and personal characteristics. You will then be presented with a further three questionnaires asking you questions relating to your perceptions of rape and sexual assault by penetration, and then one general questionnaire. After completing these questionnaires, you will be presented with a debriefing form, which will outline the purpose of the study, the researchers contact details and any other services you may require.

To be completed by the participant:

- I understand that I am free to withdraw my participation at anytime and for any reason.
- I understand that I can terminate my participation in the study at anytime and for any reason.
- I understand that I may be exposed to sensitive topics which may be distressing to some, and I am aware that the researchers will provide the appropriate contact details in debriefing of services which I may need if I become distressed.
- I understand that it is a requirement from The British Psychological Society Ethics Committee that all information that is gathered from me will be entirely confidential.
- I also understand that if the study was to be published participants' data will not be identifiable to a specific participant.
- I understand that my data will be kept confidential and that only the researchers (Kayleigh Parratt and Dr Afroditi Pina) will have access to it.

If you would like a copy of this consent form to keep, contact the researcher (Kayleigh Parratt, 01227 823090). If you have any complaints or concerns about this research, you can direct these, in writing, to the Chair of the Psychology Research Ethics Committee at Ethics Committee Chair, School of Psychology, University of Kent, Canterbury, CT2 7NP. If

you wish to withdraw your data, please ring the School of Psychology on 01227 823961 quoting your 'unique identification code' or call Kayleigh Parratt.

Appendix M

Police National Collection Consent Form Study Two

Informed Consent

Title of Research: Research into the Attitudes of Police Officers Towards Victims and Perpetrators of Crime: Study Two

Investigators: Kayleigh Parratt and Dr Afroditi Pina

Purpose of the Research:

We are interested in examining whether personal and professional characteristics of police officers affect their perceptions of particular offences. We hope to establish the factors that can play a role in enhancing positive perceptions and empathy. Thus, we hope to be able to provide valuable input to the police service by highlighting existing good practice, and recognising crucial elements that will need to feature in future training.

Procedure:

You will be asked to complete two questionnaires relating to your perceptions of particular offences. After this you will be presented with a number of scenarios, followed by questions relating to the scenarios. After finishing the questionnaires, you will be presented with a debriefing form, which will outline the purpose of the study, the researchers contact details and any other services you may require.

To be completed by the participant:

- I understand that I am free to withdraw my participation at anytime and for any reason.
- I understand that I can terminate my participation in the study anytime and for any reason.
- I understand that I may be exposed to sensitive topics which may be distressing to some, and I am aware that the researchers will provide the appropriate contact details in debriefing of services which I may need if I become distressed.
- I understand that it is a requirement from The British Psychological Society Ethics Committee that all information that is gathered from me will be entirely confidential.
- I also understand that if the study was to be published participant's data will not be identifiable to a specific participant.
- I understand that my will be kept confidential and that only the researchers (Kayleigh Parratt and Dr Afroditi Pina) will have access to it.

If you would like a copy of this consent form to keep, contact the researcher (Kayleigh Parratt, 01227 823090). If you have any complaints or concerns about this research, you can direct these, in writing, to the Chair of the Psychology Research Ethics Committee at Ethics Committee Chair, School of Psychology, University of Kent, Canterbury, CT2 7NP. If you wish to withdraw your data, please ring the School of Psychology on 01227 823961 quoting your 'unique identification code' or call Kayleigh Parratt.

Appendix N

Study One P-P and Q-Q Plots

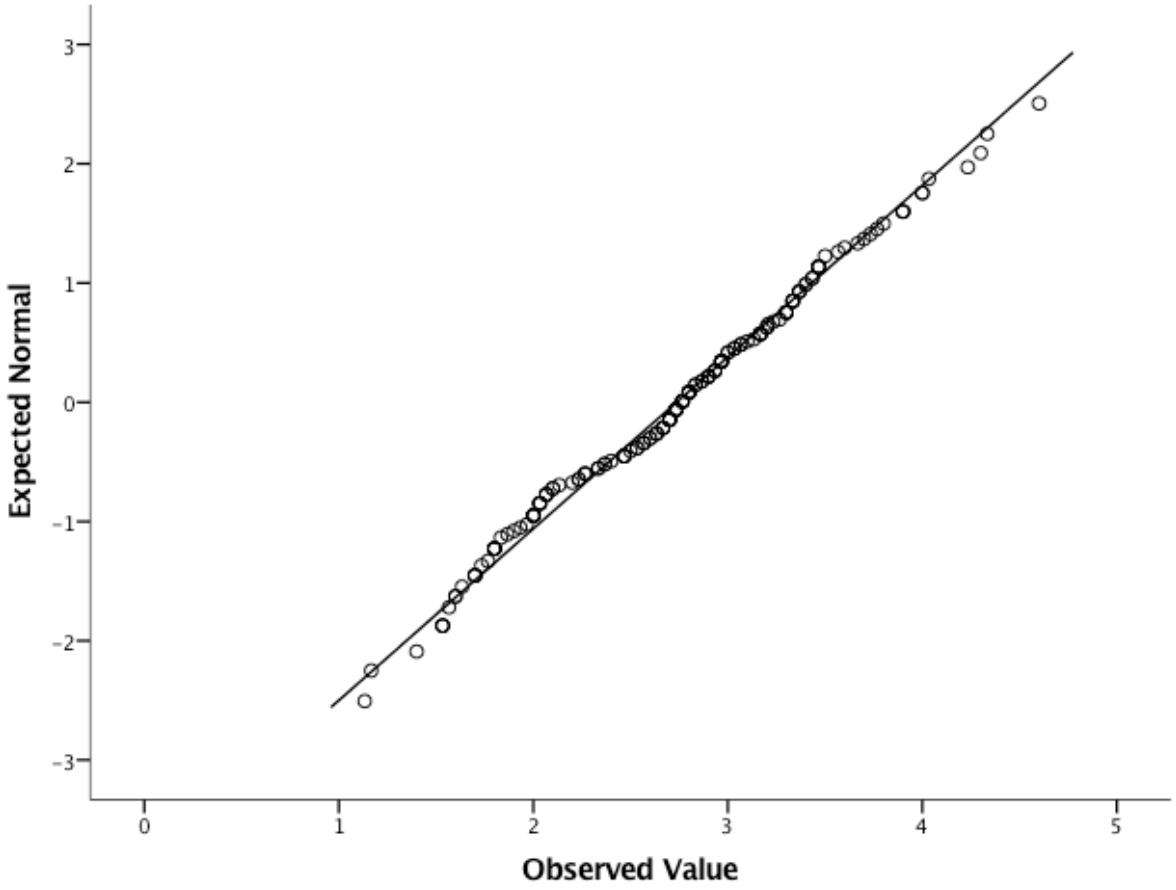


Figure 3. Normal Q-Q Plot for AMMSA

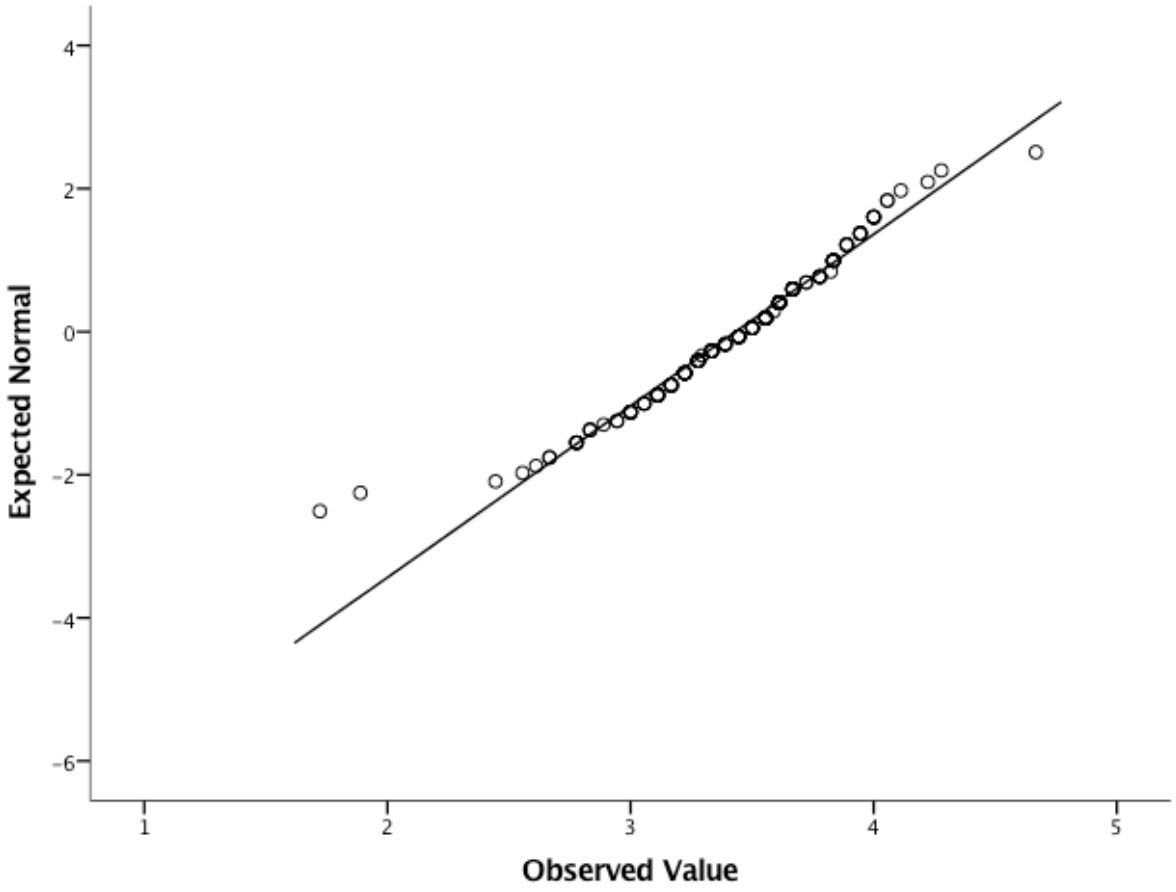


Figure 3. Normal Q-Q Plot for RVES

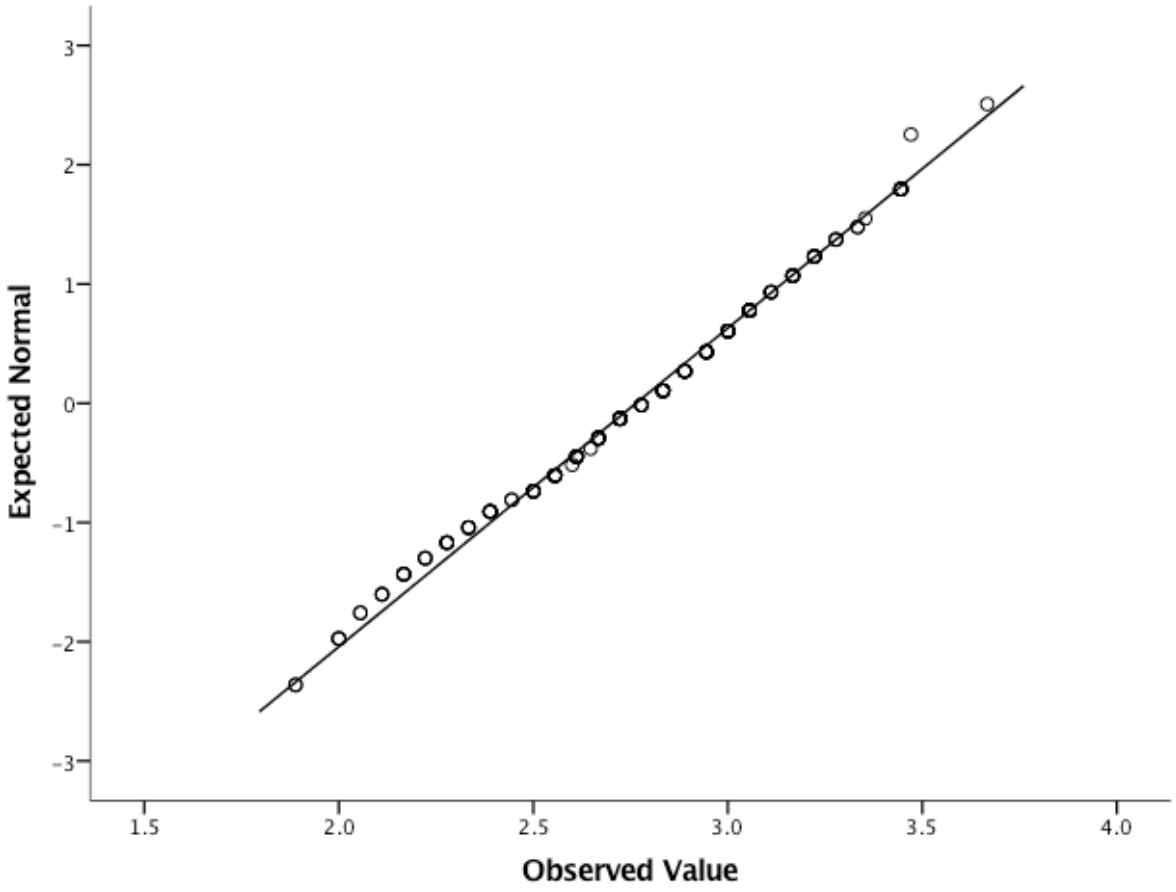


Figure 5. Normal Q-Q Plot for RPES

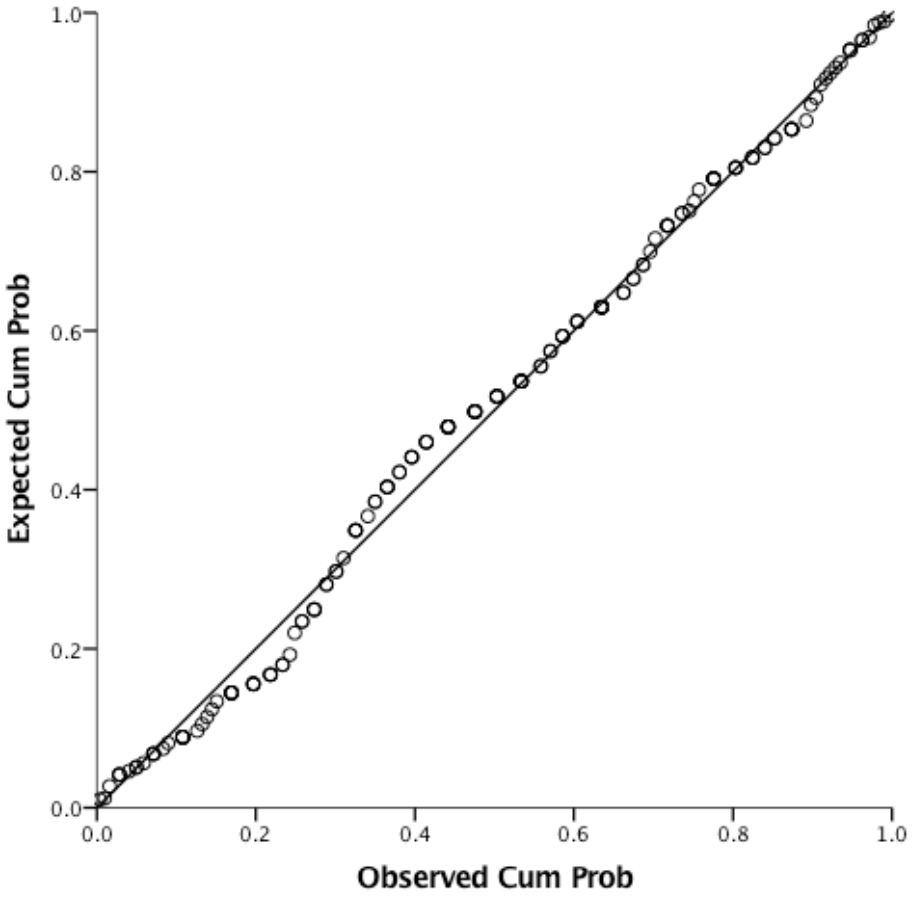


Figure 6. Normal P-P Plot for AMMSA

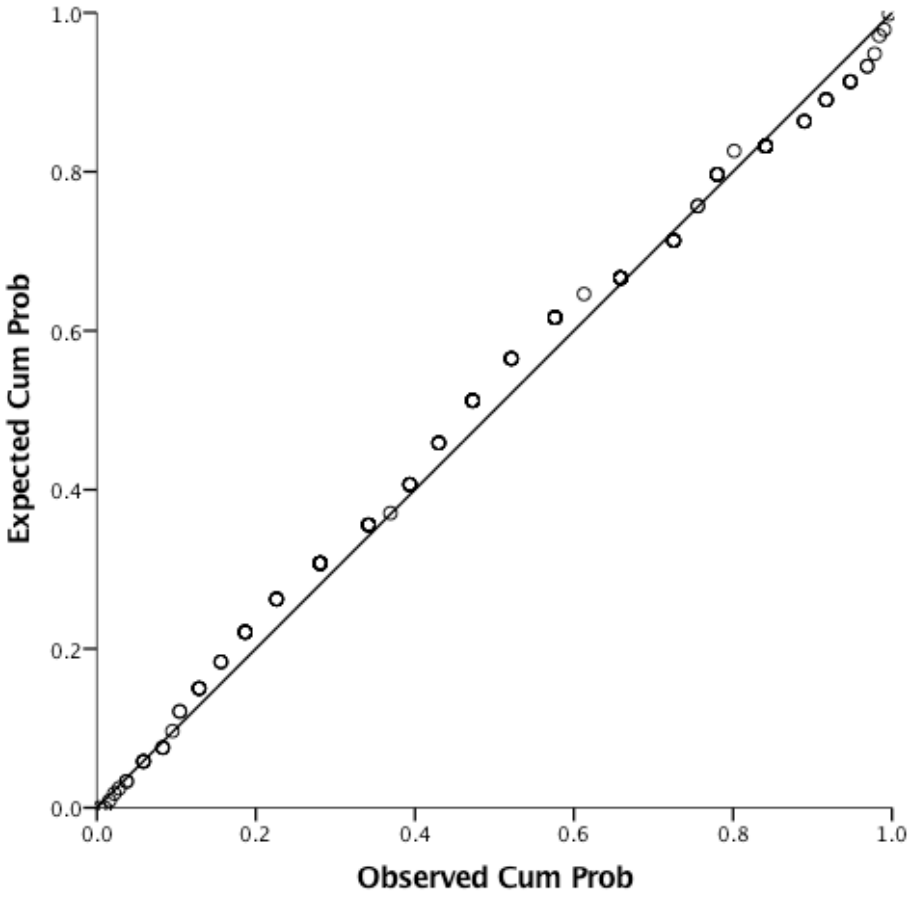


Figure 7. Normal P-P Plot for RVES

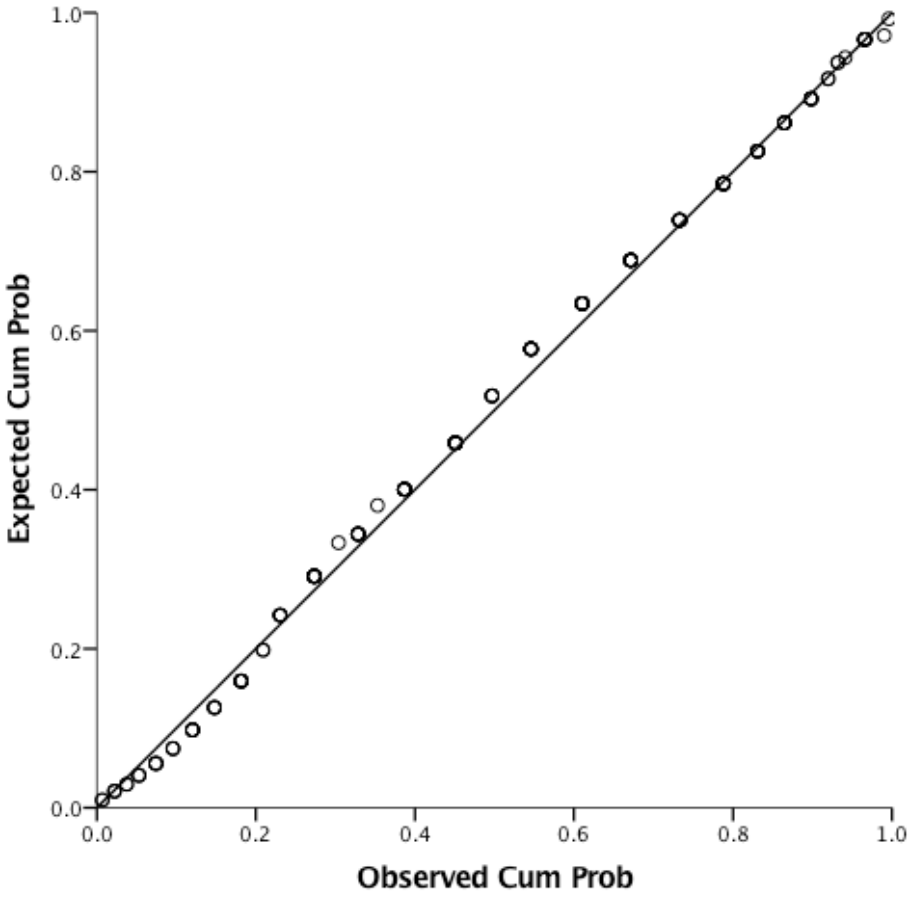


Figure 8. Normal P-P Plot for RPES

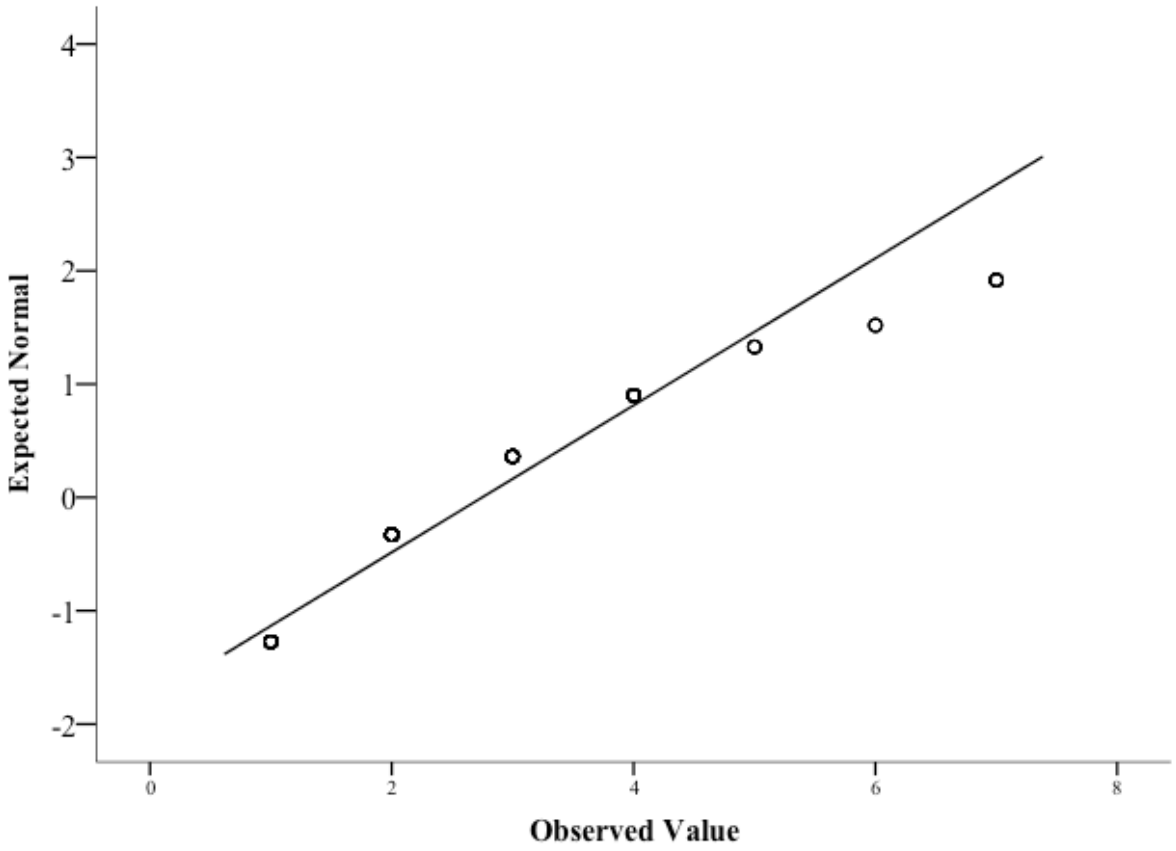


Figure 9. Normal Q-Q Plot for Usefulness of Sexual Assault Training

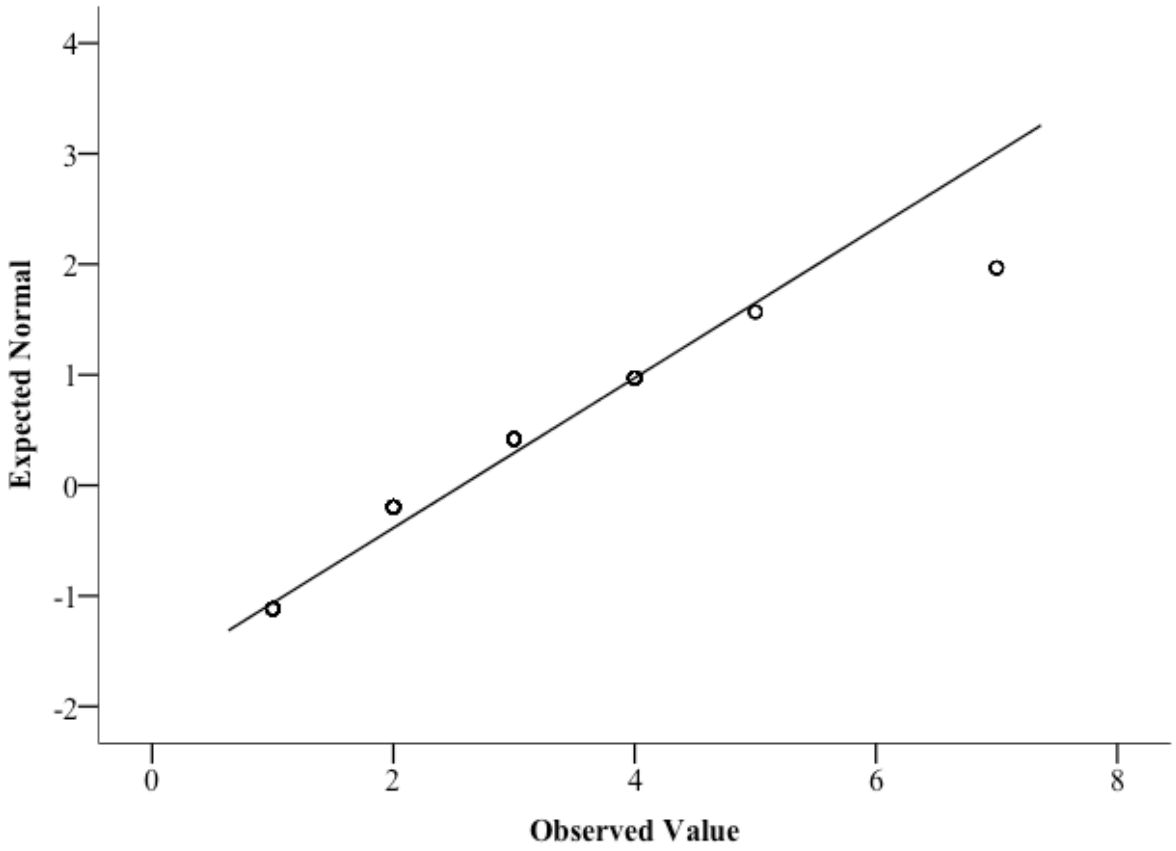


Figure 10. Normal Q-Q Plot for Relevance of Sexual Assault Training

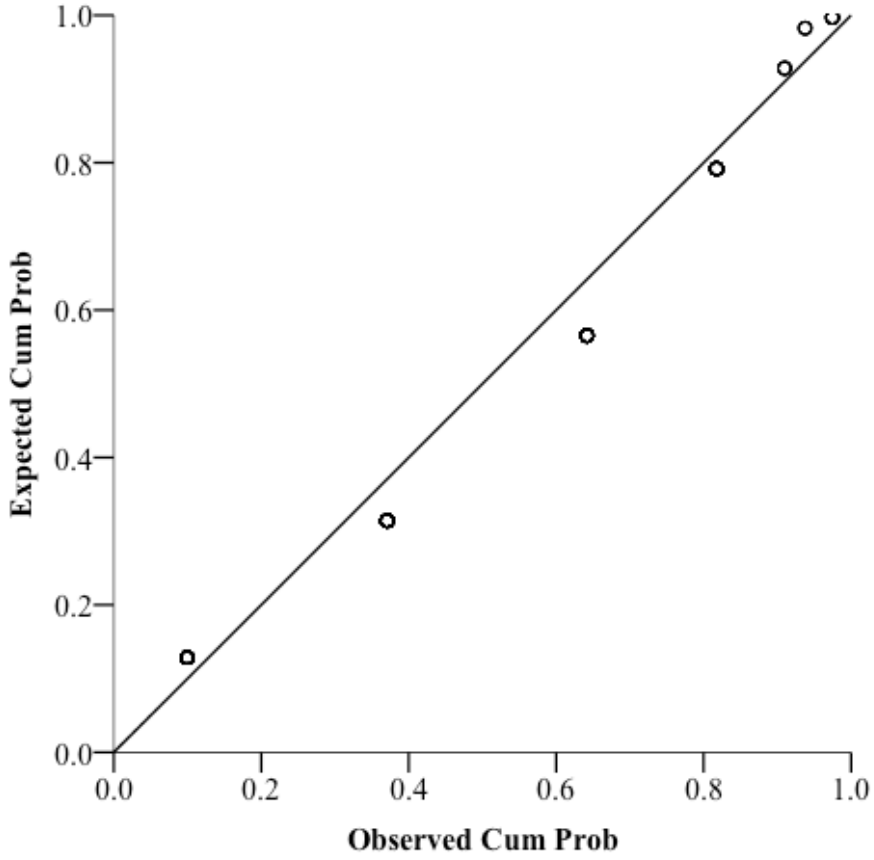


Figure 11. Normal P-P Plot for Usefulness of Sexual Assault Training

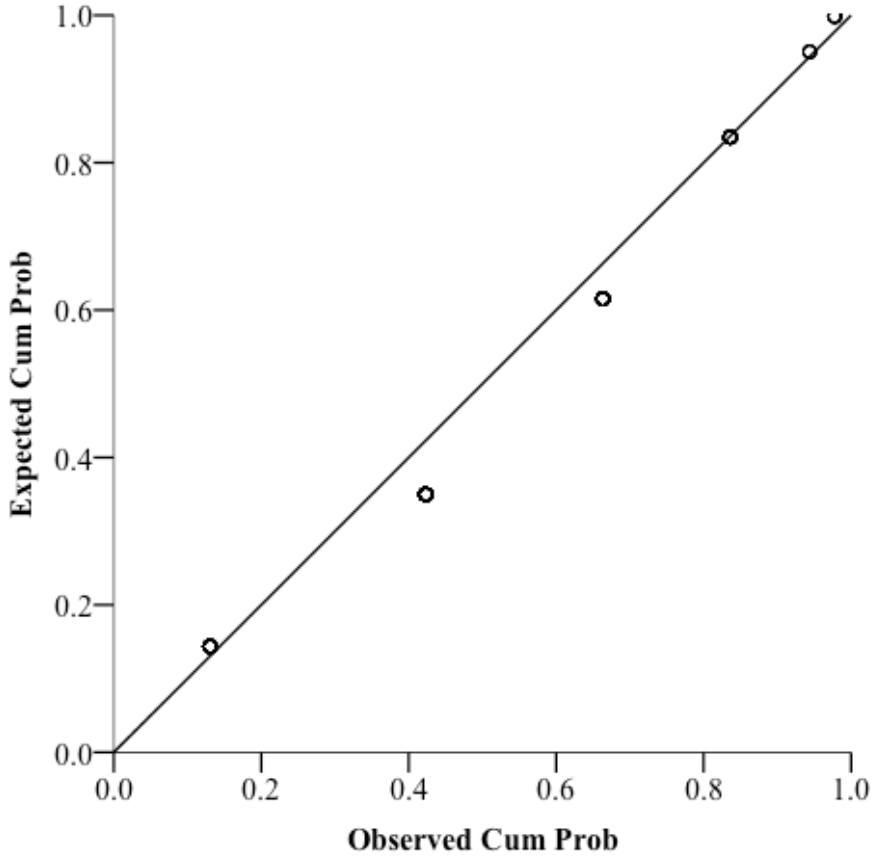


Figure 12. Normal P-P Plot for Relevance of Sexual Assault Training

Appendix O

Study Two K-S Tests, Descriptive Statistics, P-P and Q-Q Plots for Vignette Questionnaire Items

Table 26.

Summary of K-S tests conducted on Male Perpetrator Female Victim Vignette items

Item	Statistic	*p*
Victim Credibility	.318	.00***
Victim Blame	.320	.00***
Victim Agreement	.272	.00***
Victim Interest	.298	.00***
Victim Provocativeness	.228	.00***
Victim Lying	.279	.00***
Perpetrator Reasonableness	.346	.00***
Victim Unreasonableness	.276	.00***

Note. *df*= 84

Table 27.

Summary of K-S Tests Conducted on Male Perpetrator Male Victim Vignette Items

Item	Statistic	*p*
Victim Credibility	.337	.00***
Victim Blame	.310	.00***
Victim Agreement	.267	.00***
Victim Interest	.318	.00***
Victim Provocativeness	.219	.00***
Victim Lying	.298	.00***
Perpetrator Reasonableness	.310	.00***
Victim Unreasonableness	.292	.00***

Note. *df*= 84

Table 28.

Summary of K-S Tests Conducted on Sexual Assault By Penetration Vignette Items

Item	Statistic	*p*
Victim Credibility	.305	.00***
Victim Blame	.313	.00***
Victim Agreement	.299	.00***
Victim Interest	.324	.00***
Victim Provocativeness	.255	.00***
Victim Lying	.270	.00***
Perpetrator Reasonableness	.346	.00***
Victim Unreasonableness	.305	.00***

Note. *df*= 84

Table 29.

Summary Of K-S Tests Conducted on Sexual Activity Without Consent Vignette Items

Item	Statistic	*p*
Victim Credibility	.279	.00***
Victim Blame	.292	.00***
Victim Agreement	.305	.00***
Victim Interest	.327	.00***
Victim Provocativeness	.257	.00***
Victim Lying	.246	.00***
Perpetrator Reasonableness	.299	.00***
Victim Unreasonableness	.318	.00***

Note. *df*= 84

Table 30.

Descriptive Statistics for Perceptions of Female Victim Male Perpetrator Vignette

	M	*SD*	*Skew*	*Kurtosis*
Victim Credibility	2.11	0.97	0.92	-.35
Victim Blame	1.96	1.06	1.32	1.26
Victim Agreement	1.63	0.72	1.67	5.25
Victim Interest	1.92	0.95	1.04	0.37
Victim Provocativeness	2.83	1.49	0.41	-1.09
Victim Lying	2.43	1.24	0.35	-1.41
Perpetrator Reasonableness	2.07	1.15	1.42	1.41
Victim Unreasonableness	1.71	0.87	1.60	2.91

Table 31.

Descriptive Statistics for Perceptions of Male Victim Male Perpetrator Vignette

	M	*SD*	*Skew*	*Kurtosis*
Victim Credibility	2.13	1.02	1.15	1.02
Victim Blame	2.00	1.09	1.21	0.81
Victim Agreement	1.70	0.77	1.54	3.95
Victim Interest	2.02	1.10	1.19	0.67
Victim Provocativeness	2.76	1.49	0.42	-1.07
Victim Lying	2.48	1.29	0.26	-0.01
Perpetrator Reasonableness	2.14	1.17	1.14	0.53
Victim Unreasonableness	1.80	0.90	1.42	2.11

Table 32.

Descriptive Statistics for Perceptions of Sexual Assault By Penetration Vignette

	M	*SD*	*Skew*	*Kurtosis*
Victim Credibility	2.30	1.15	0.81	-0.26
Victim Blame	2.08	1.22	1.33	1.14
Victim Agreement	1.79	0.91	**2.04**	6.38
Victim Interest	2.08	1.28	1.70	3.09
Victim Provocativeness	2.75	1.57	0.50	-1.10
Victim Lying	2.56	1.33	0.55	-0.31
Perpetrator Reasonableness	2.12	1.29	1.38	1.00
Victim Unreasonableness	1.89	1.05	1.42	1.57

Note. Skewness >2 is in bold

Table 33.

Descriptive Statistics for Perceptions of Sexual Activity Without Consent Vignette

	M	*SD*	*Skew*	*Kurtosis*
Victim Credibility	2.70	1.47	0.74	-0.54
Victim Blame	2.48	1.49	0.81	-0.62
Victim Agreement	1.83	1.03	1.84	4.03
Victim Interest	2.21	1.30	1.24	0.81
Victim Provocativeness	2.73	1.50	0.57	-0.80
Victim Lying	2.73	1.31	0.23	-1.12
Perpetrator Reasonableness	2.50	1.48	0.92	-0.31
Victim Unreasonableness	2.02	1.13	1.44	1.89

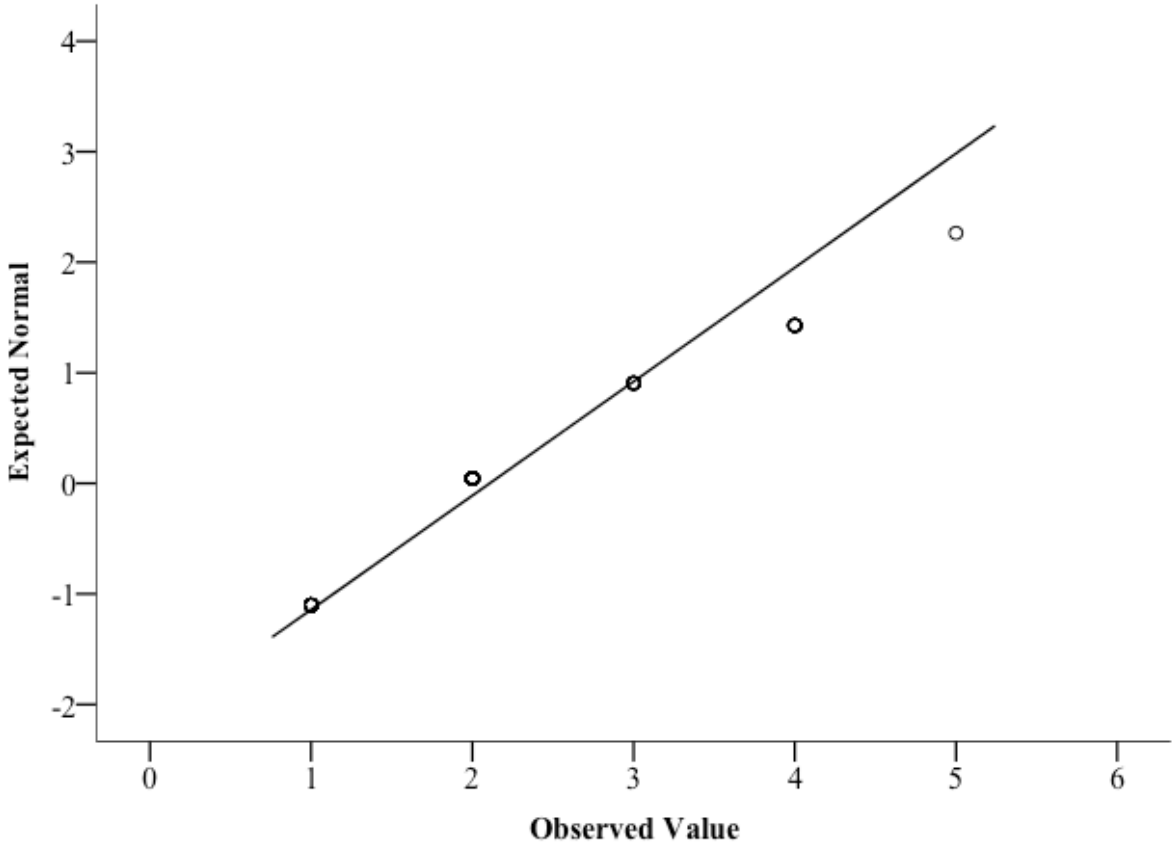


Figure 13. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Credibility for Female Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

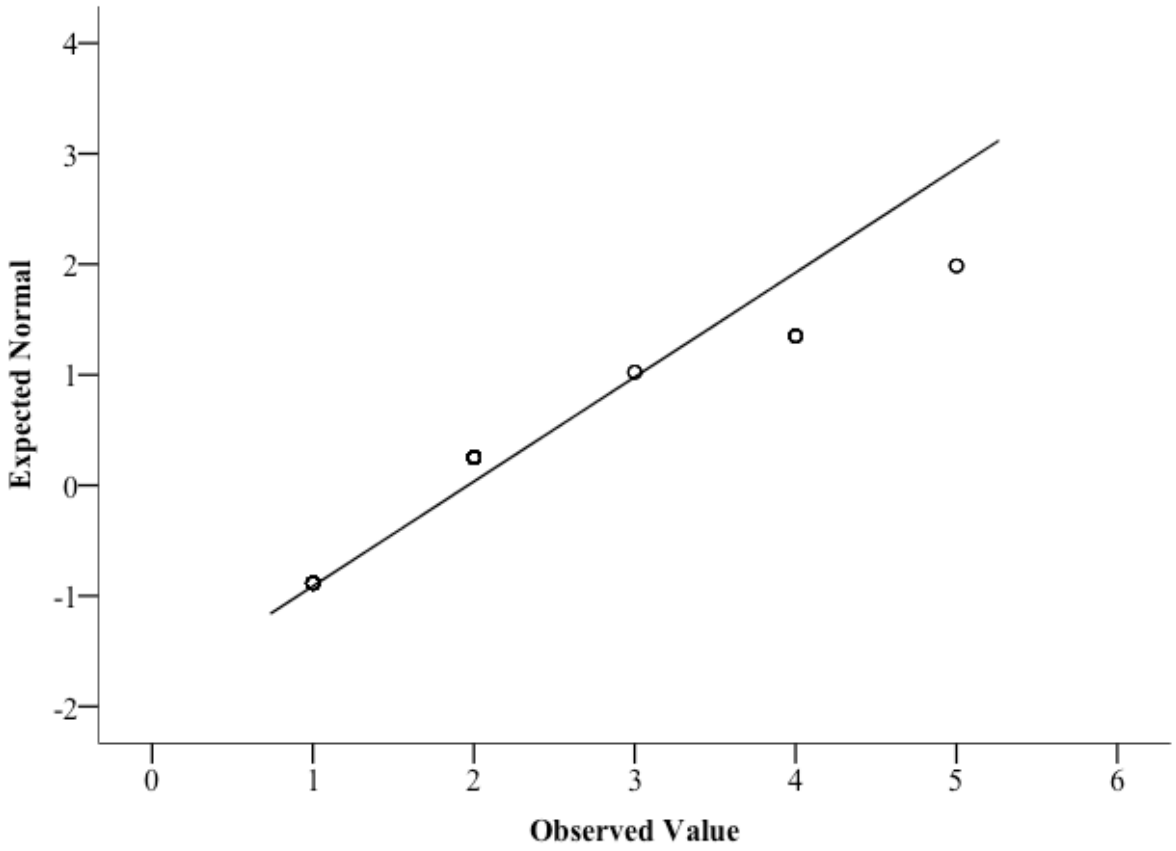


Figure 14. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Blame for Female Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

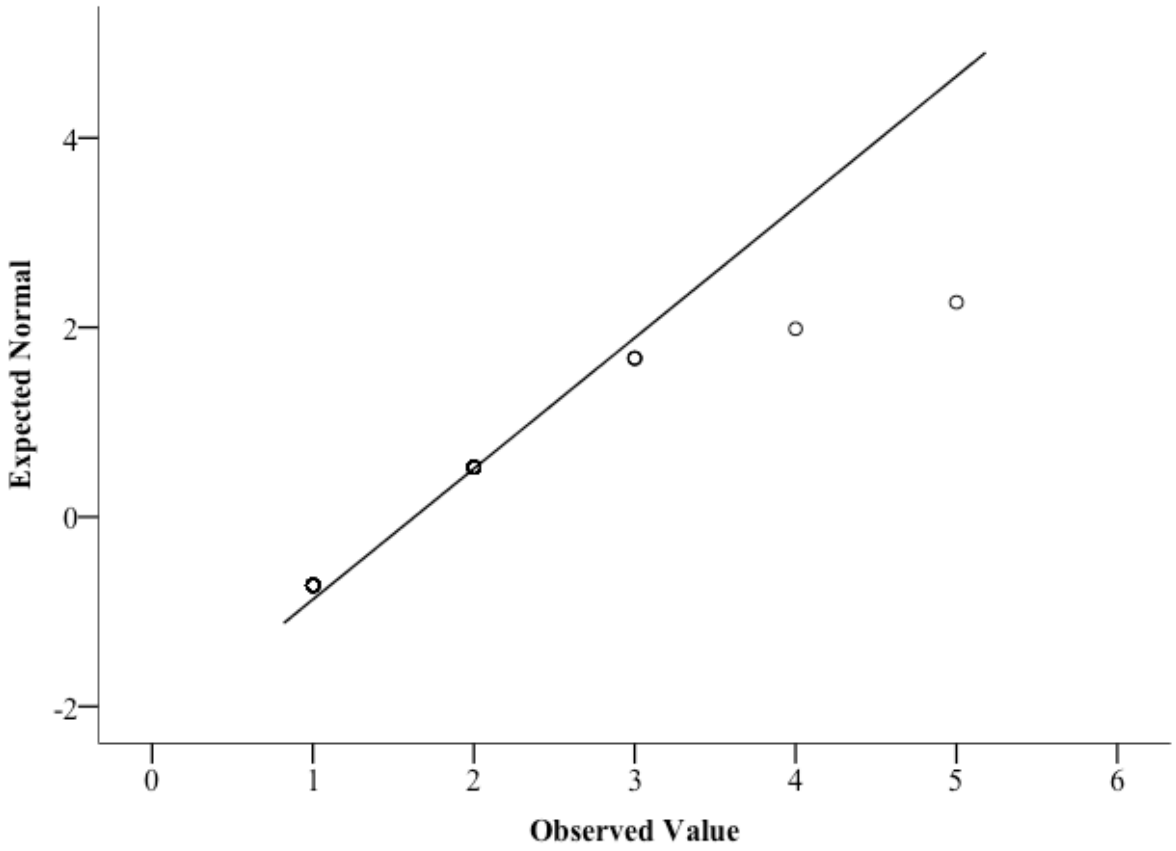


Figure 15. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Agreement for Female Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

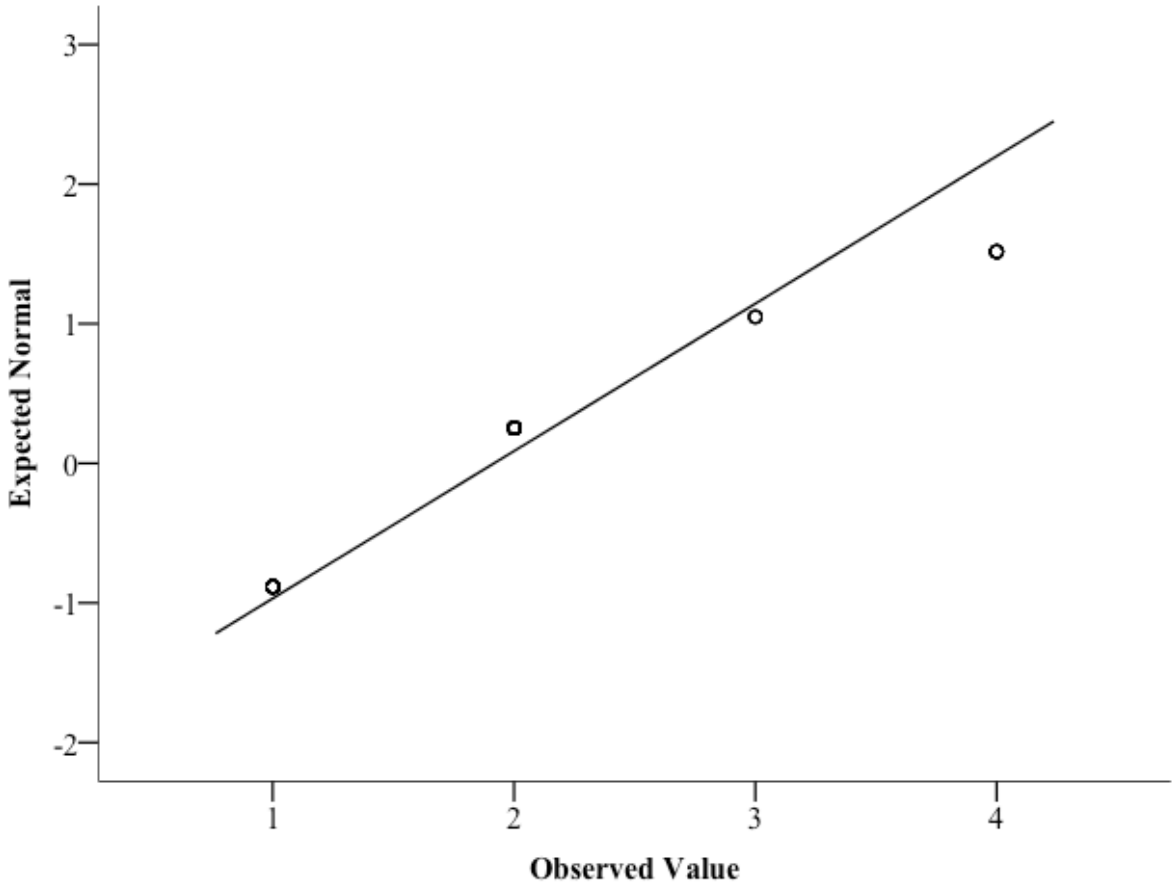


Figure 16. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Interest for Female Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

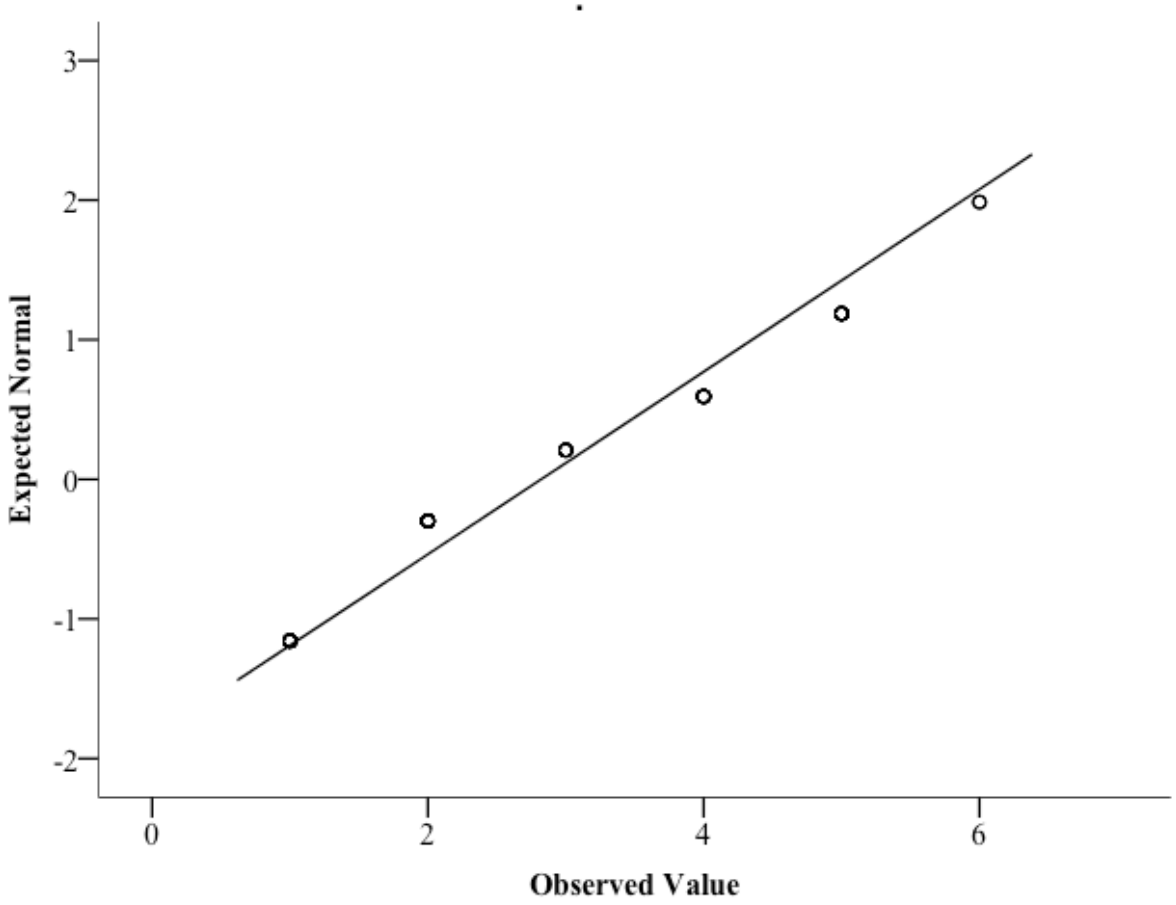


Figure 17. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Provocativeness for Female Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

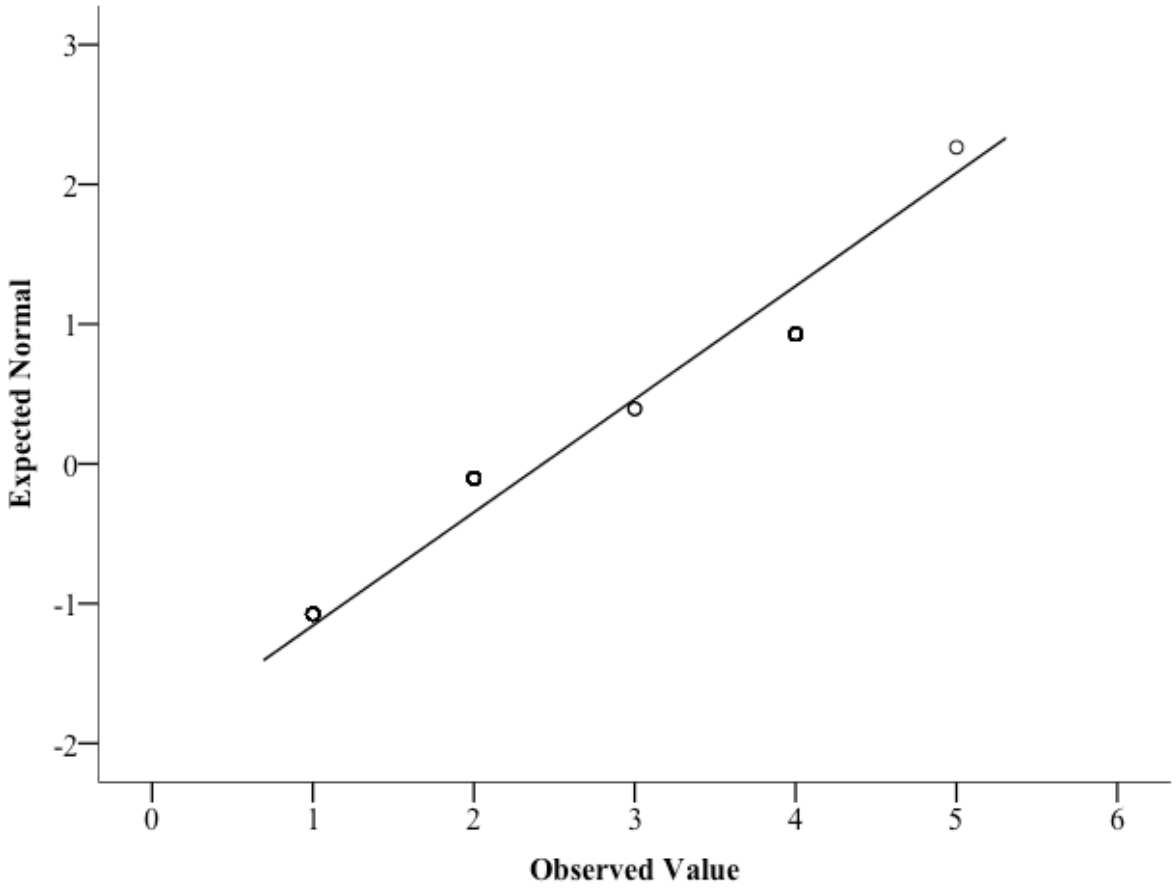


Figure 18. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Lying for Female Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

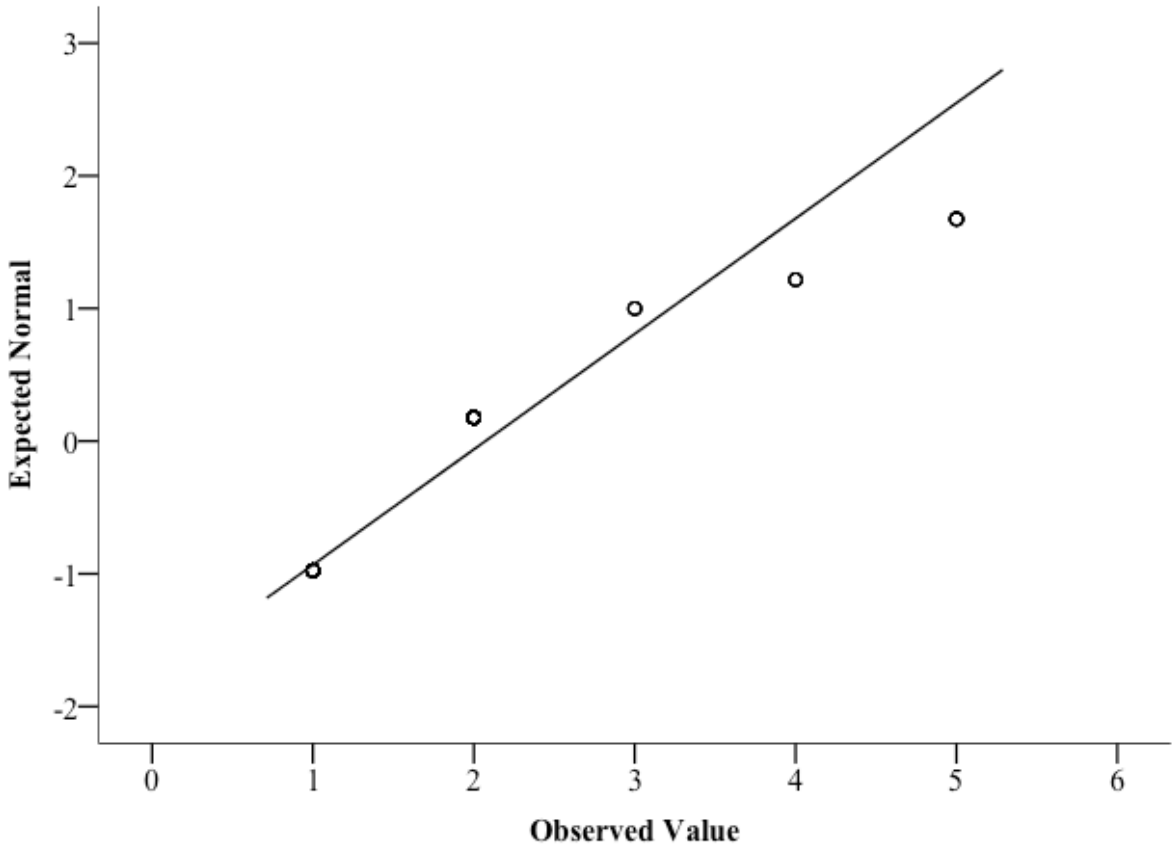


Figure 19. Normal Q-Q Plot of Perpetrator Reasonableness for Female Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

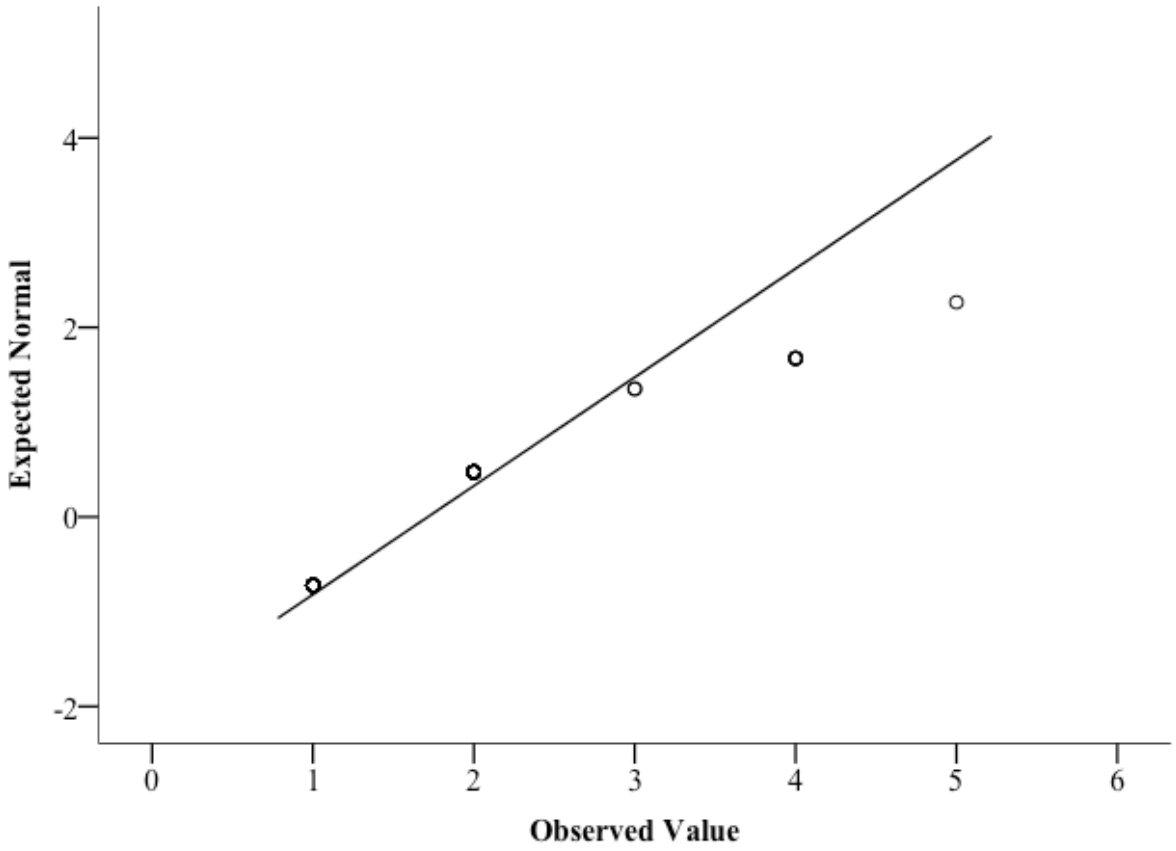


Figure 20. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Unreasonableness for Female Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

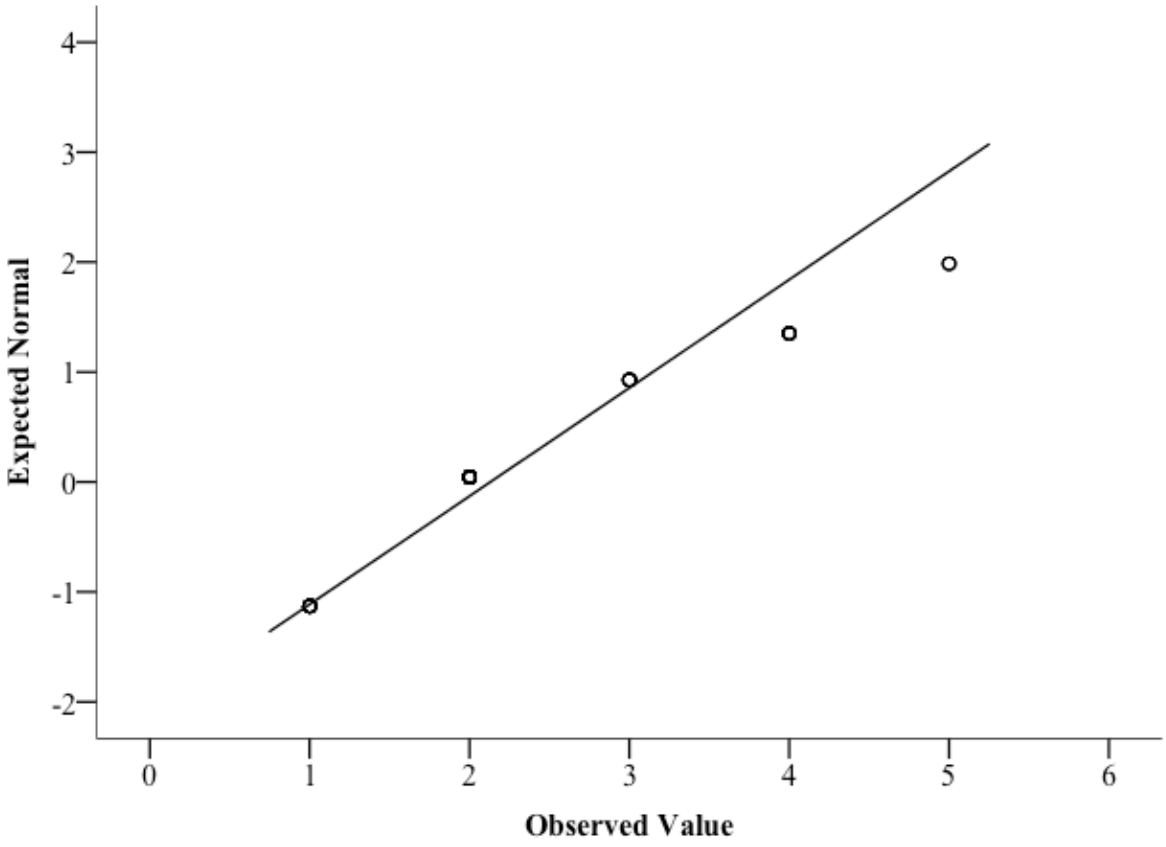


Figure 21. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Credibility for Male Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

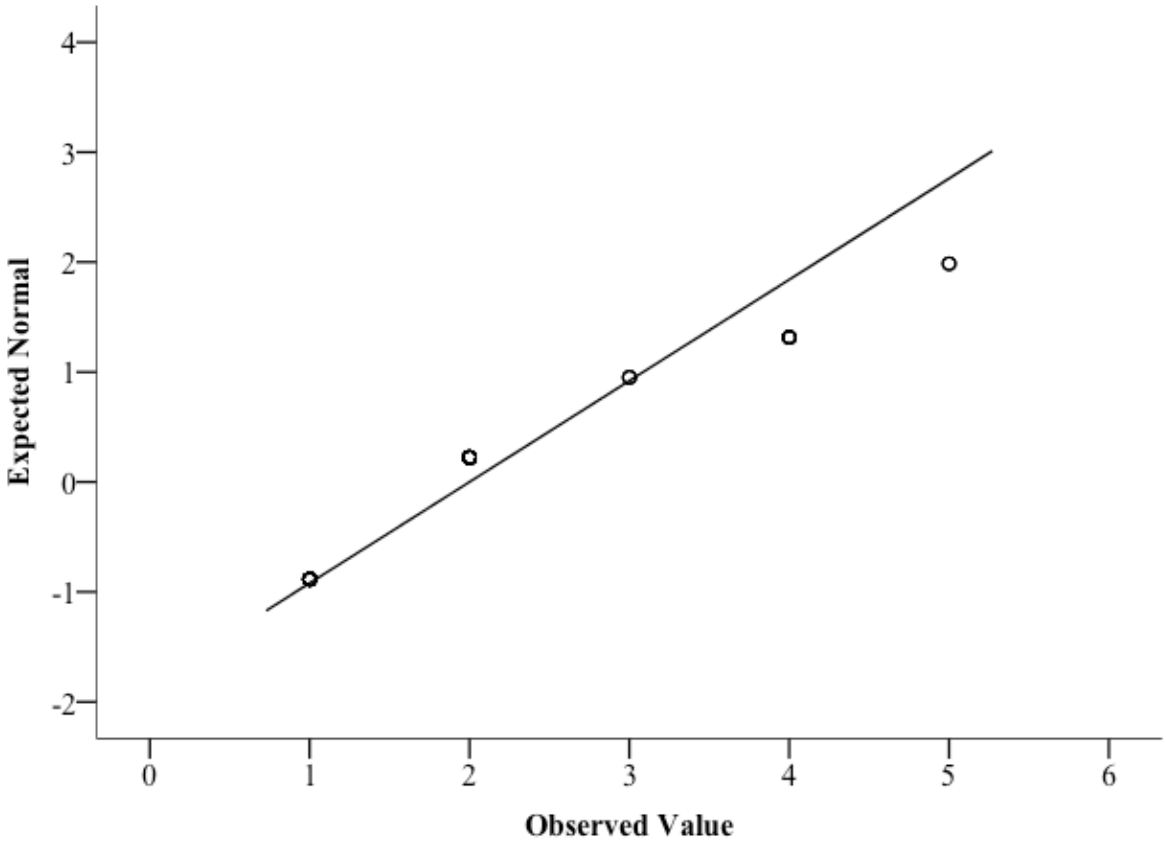


Figure 22. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Blame for Male Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

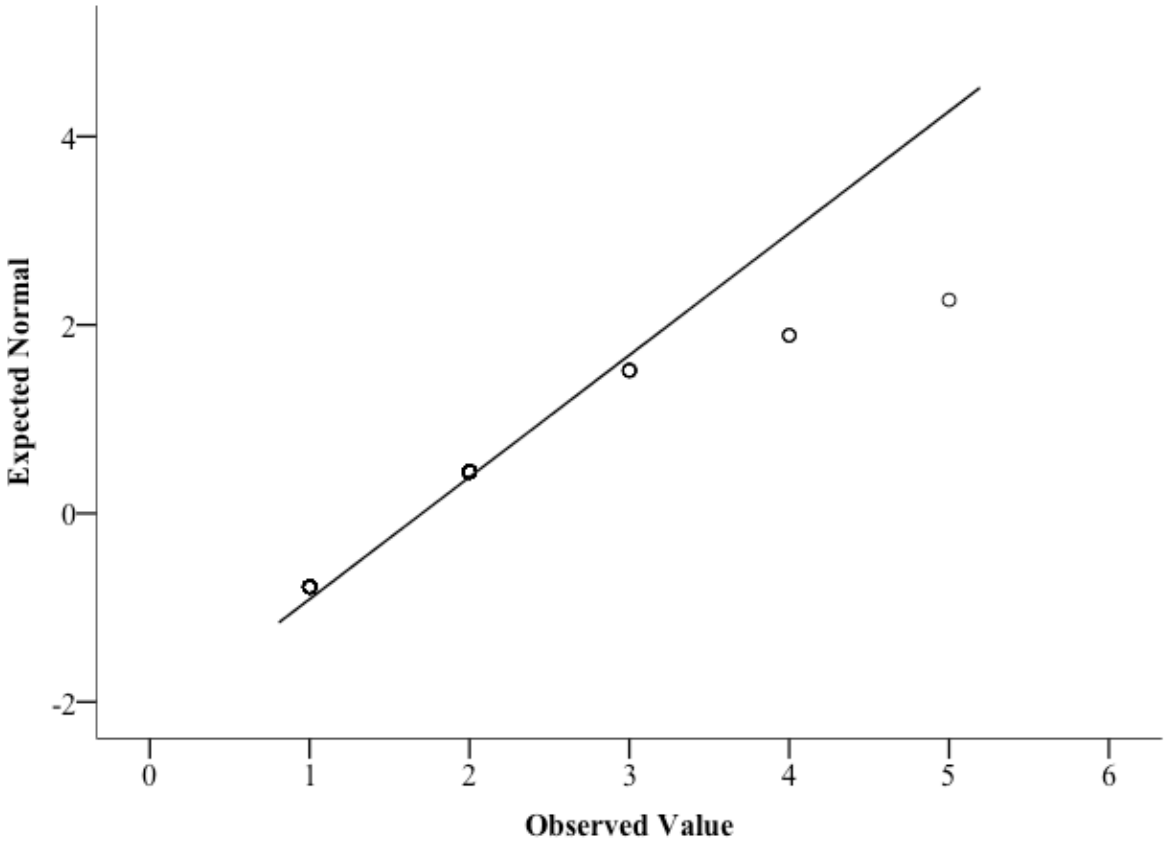


Figure 23. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Agreement for Male Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

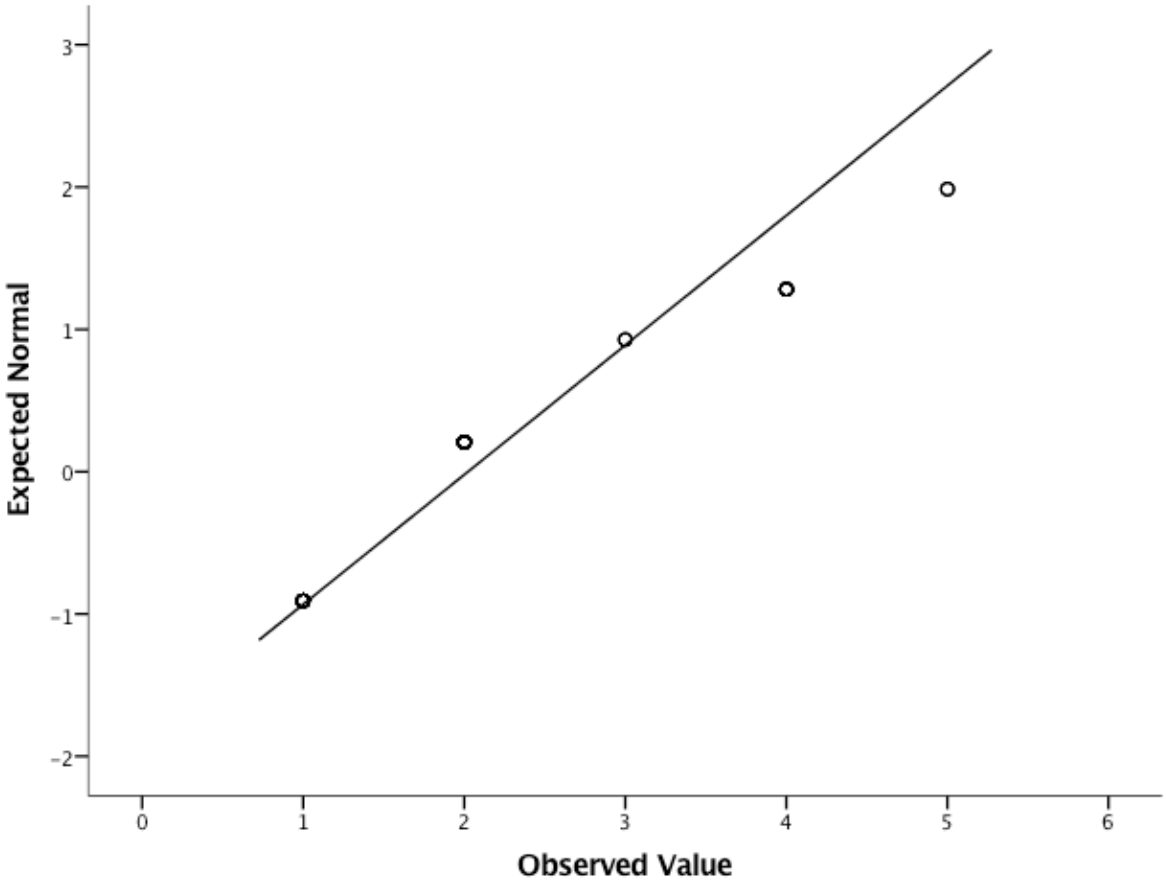


Figure 24. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Interest for Male Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

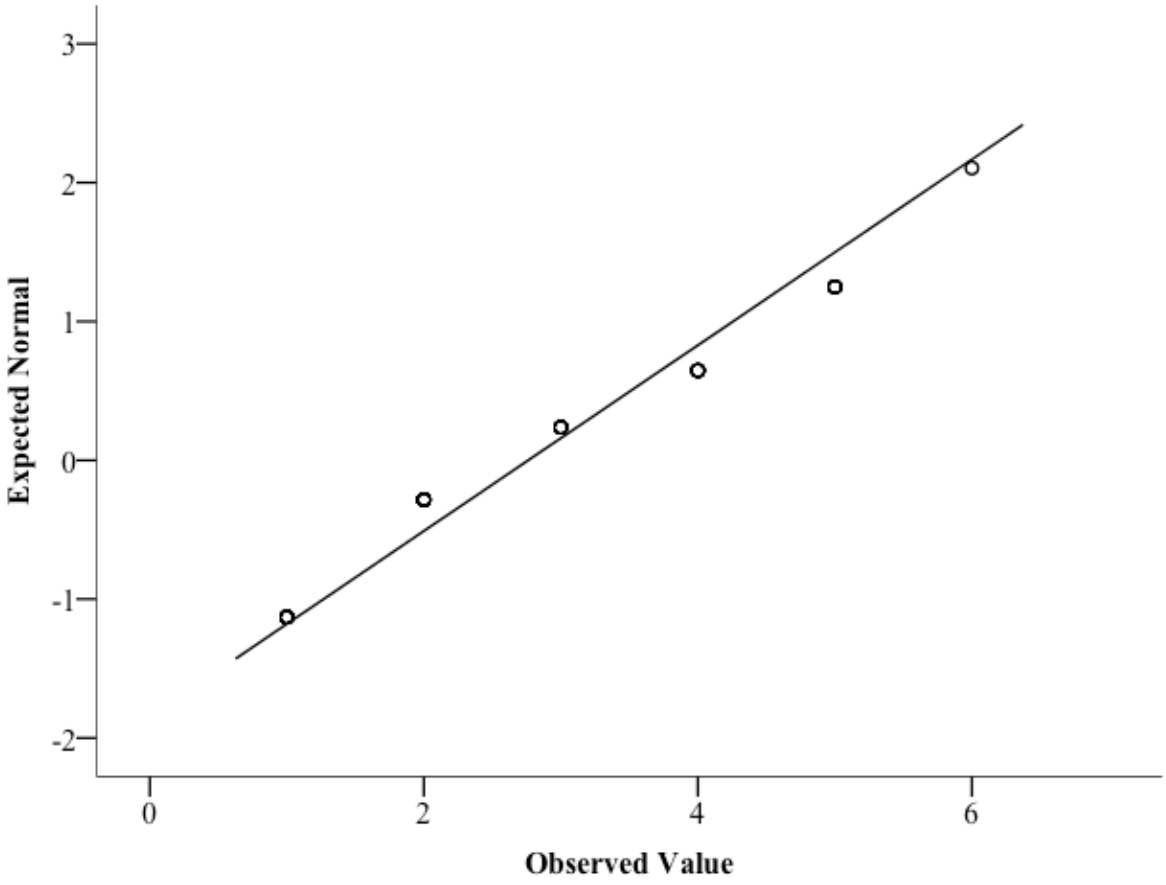


Figure 25. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Provocativeness for Male Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

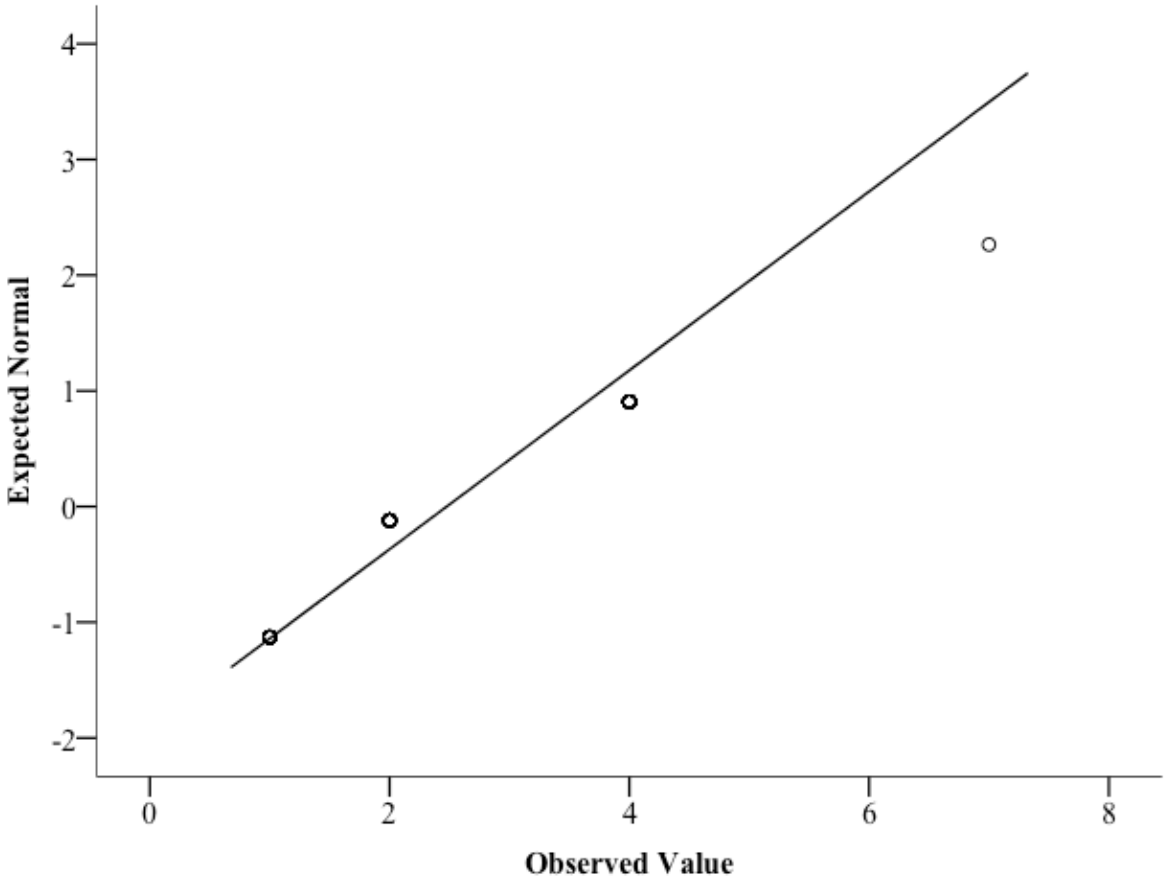


Figure 26. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Lying for Male Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

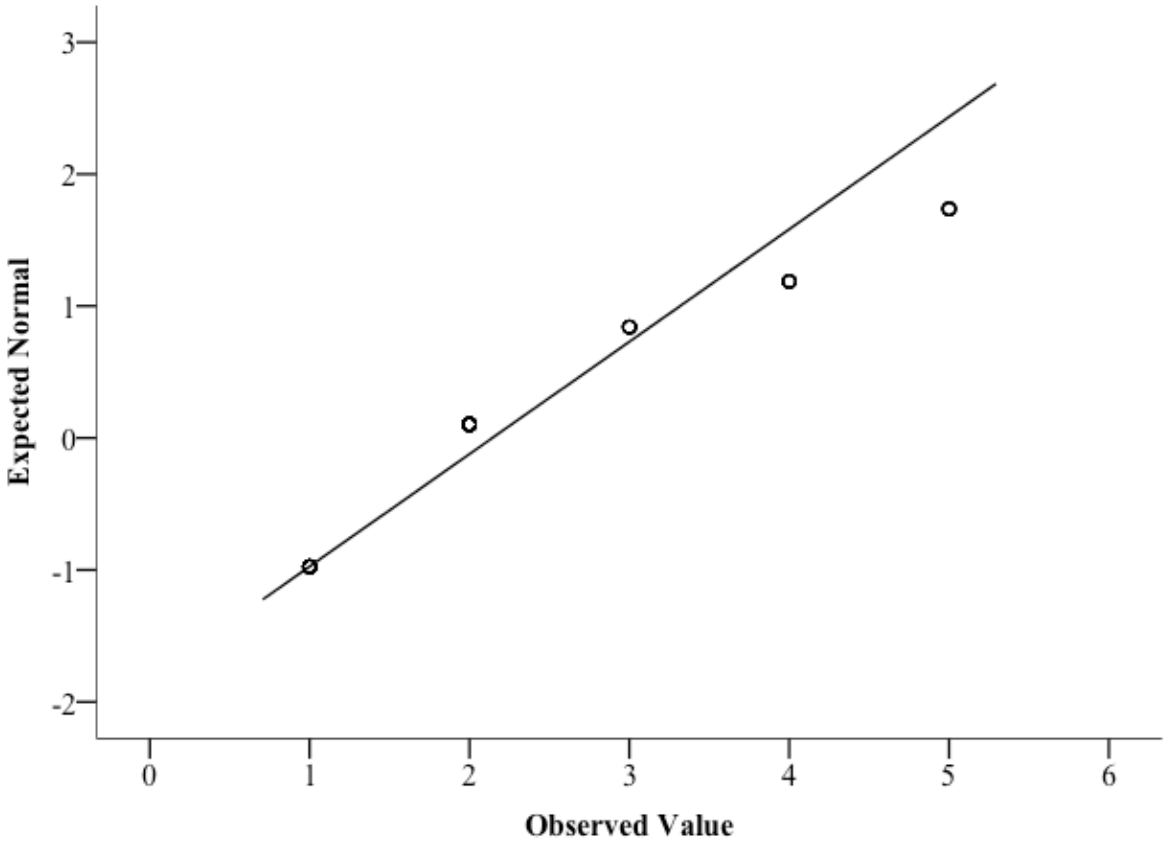


Figure 27. Normal Q-Q Plot of Perpetrator Reasonableness for Male Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

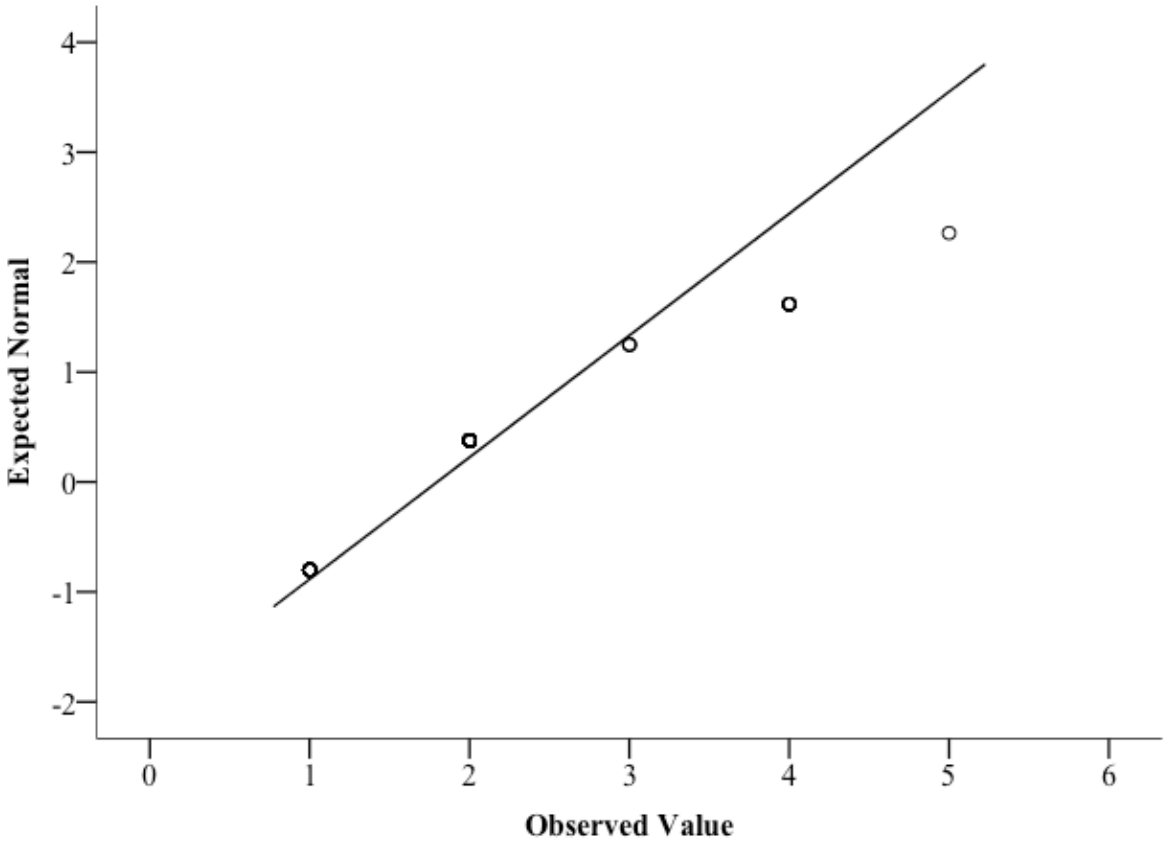


Figure 28. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Unreasonableness for Male Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

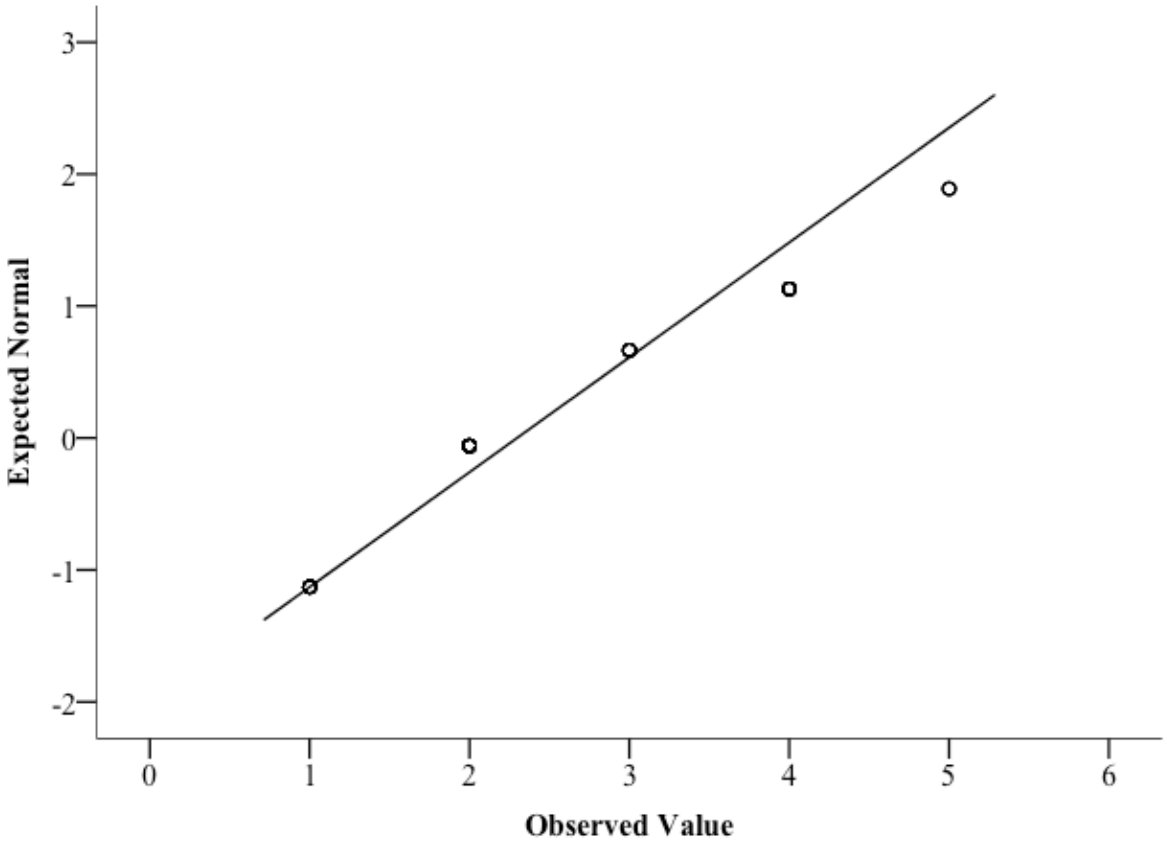


Figure 29. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Credibility for Sexual Assault By Penetration

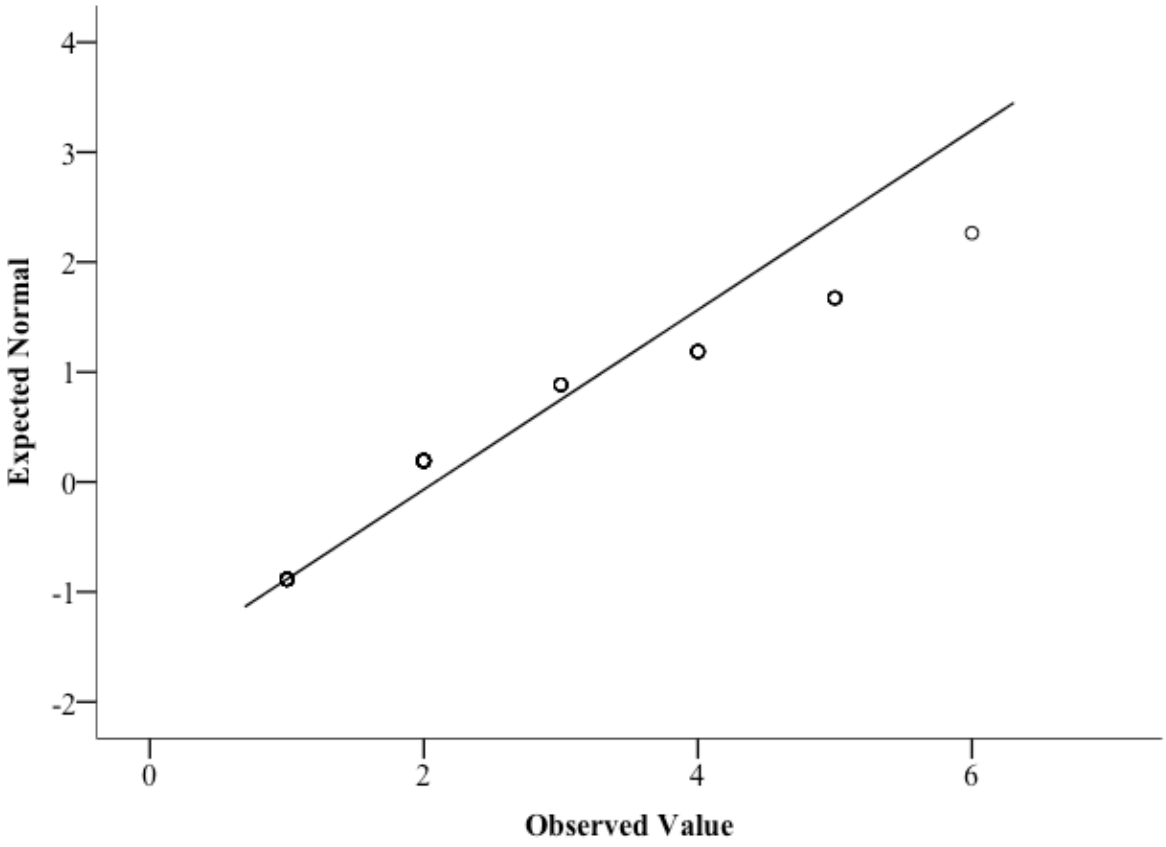


Figure 30. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Blame for Sexual Assault By Penetration

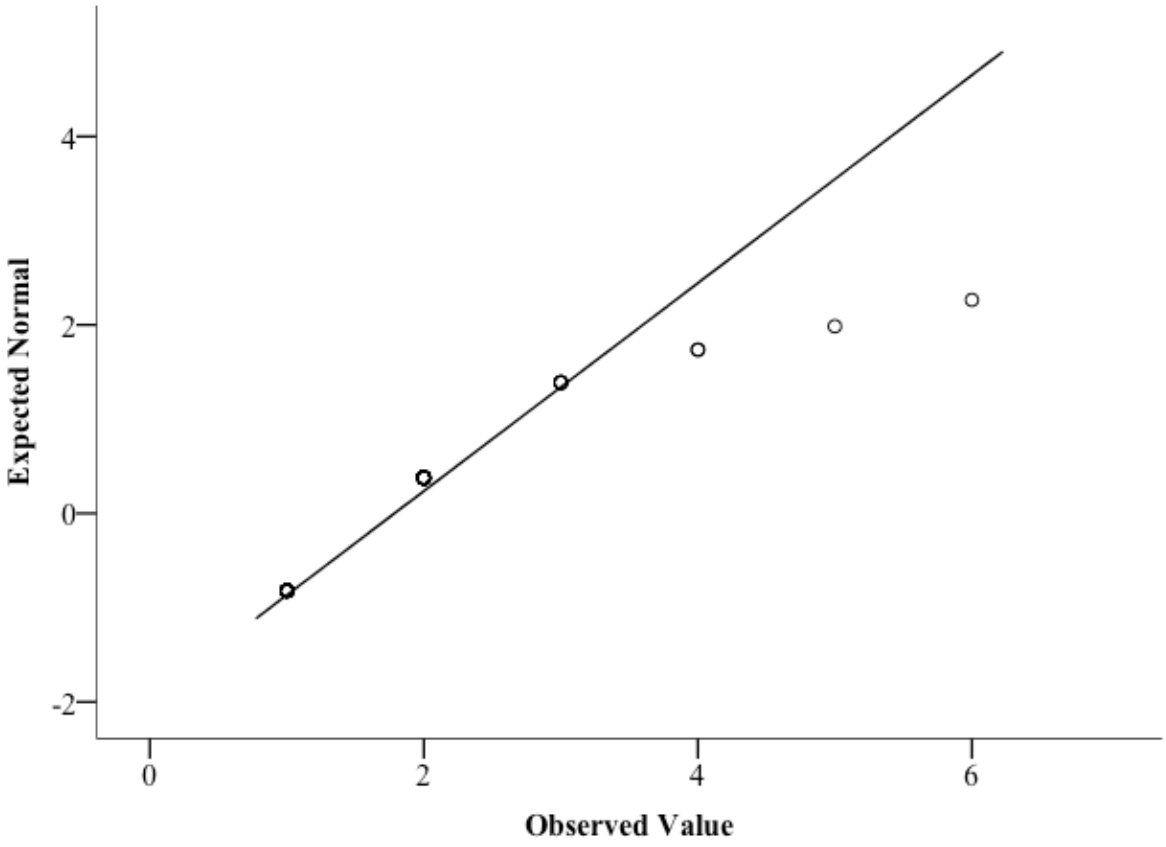


Figure 31. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Agreement for Sexual Assault By Penetration

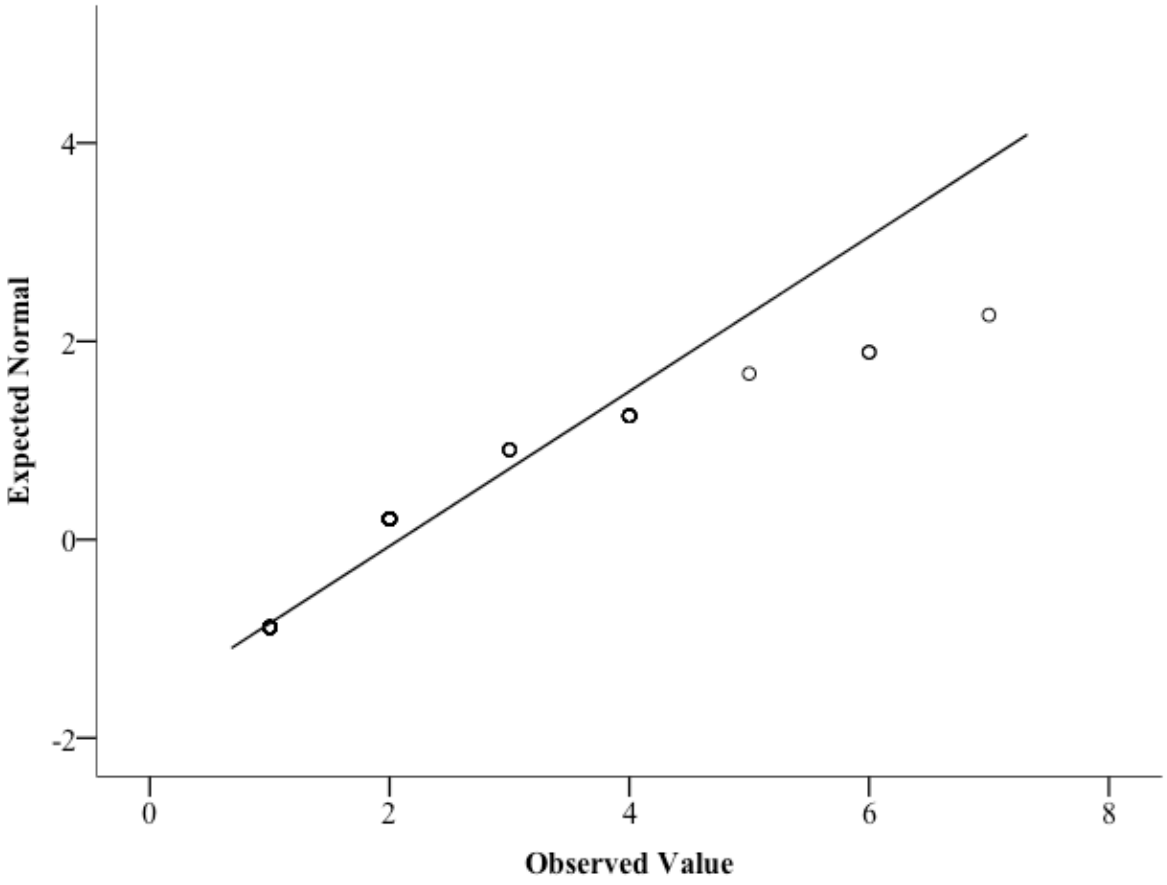


Figure 32. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Interest for Sexual Assault By Penetration

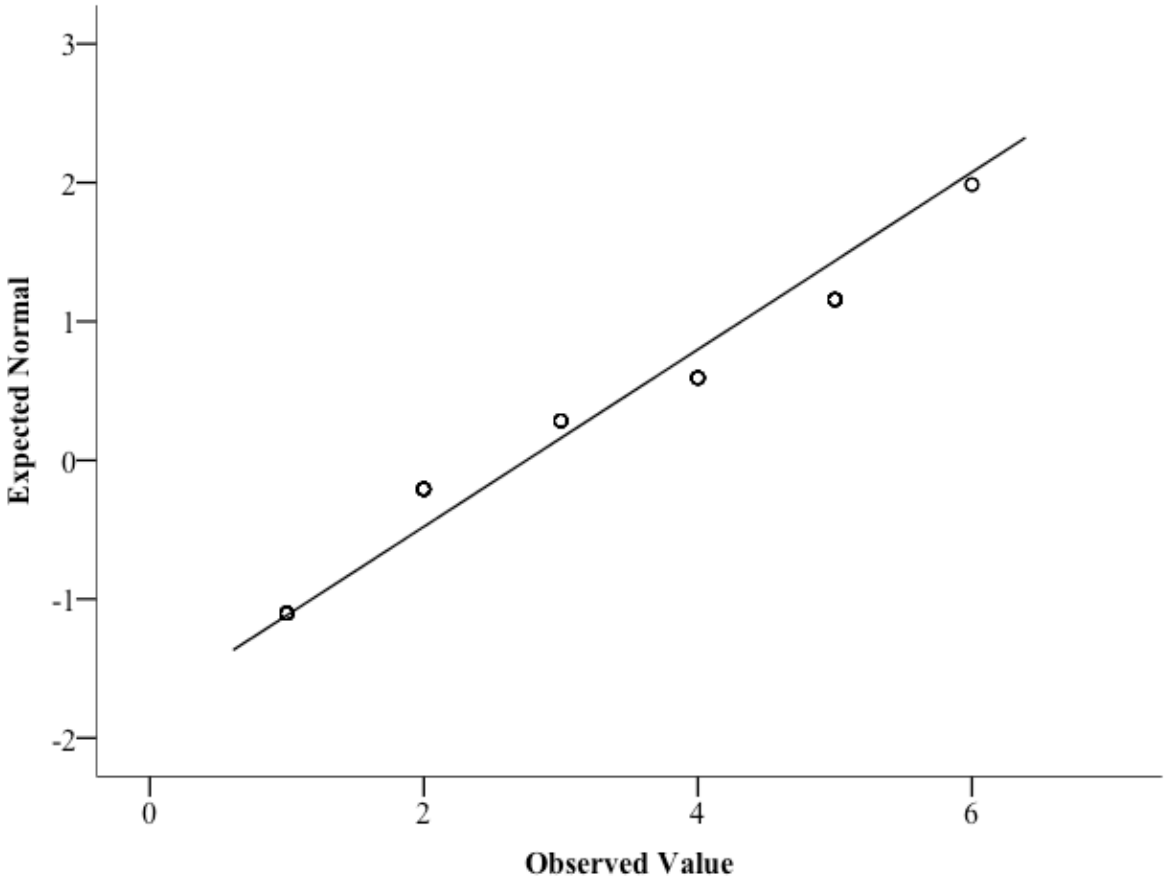


Figure 33. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Provocativeness for Sexual Assault By Penetration

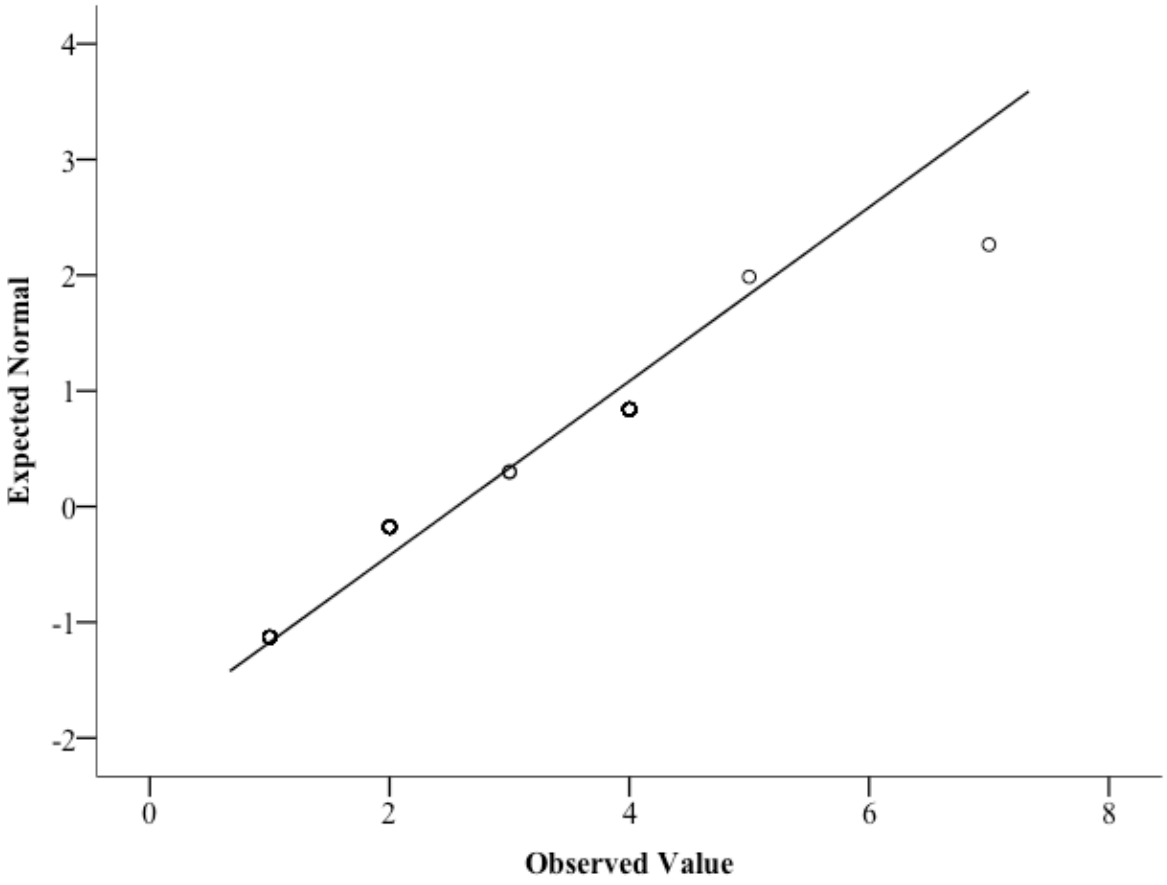


Figure 34. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Lying for Sexual Assault By Penetration

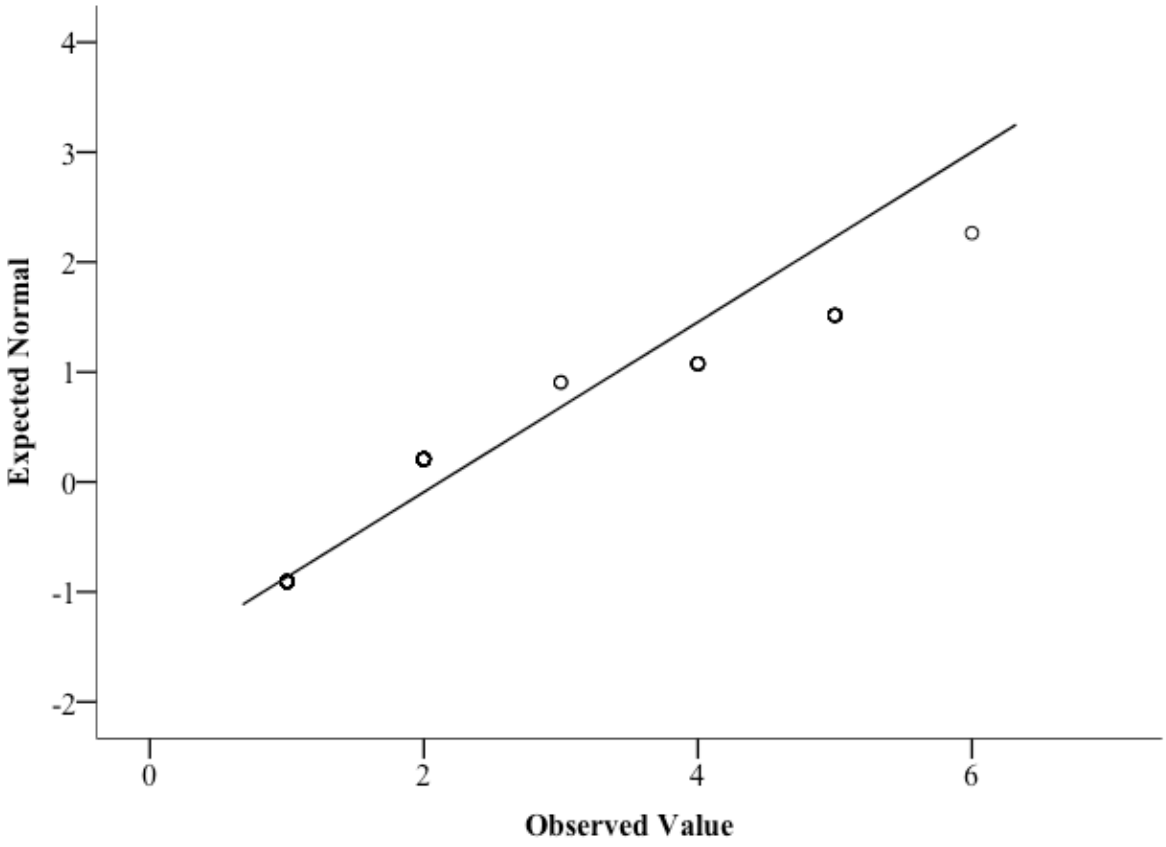


Figure 35. Normal Q-Q Plot of Perpetrator Reasonableness for Sexual Assault By Penetration

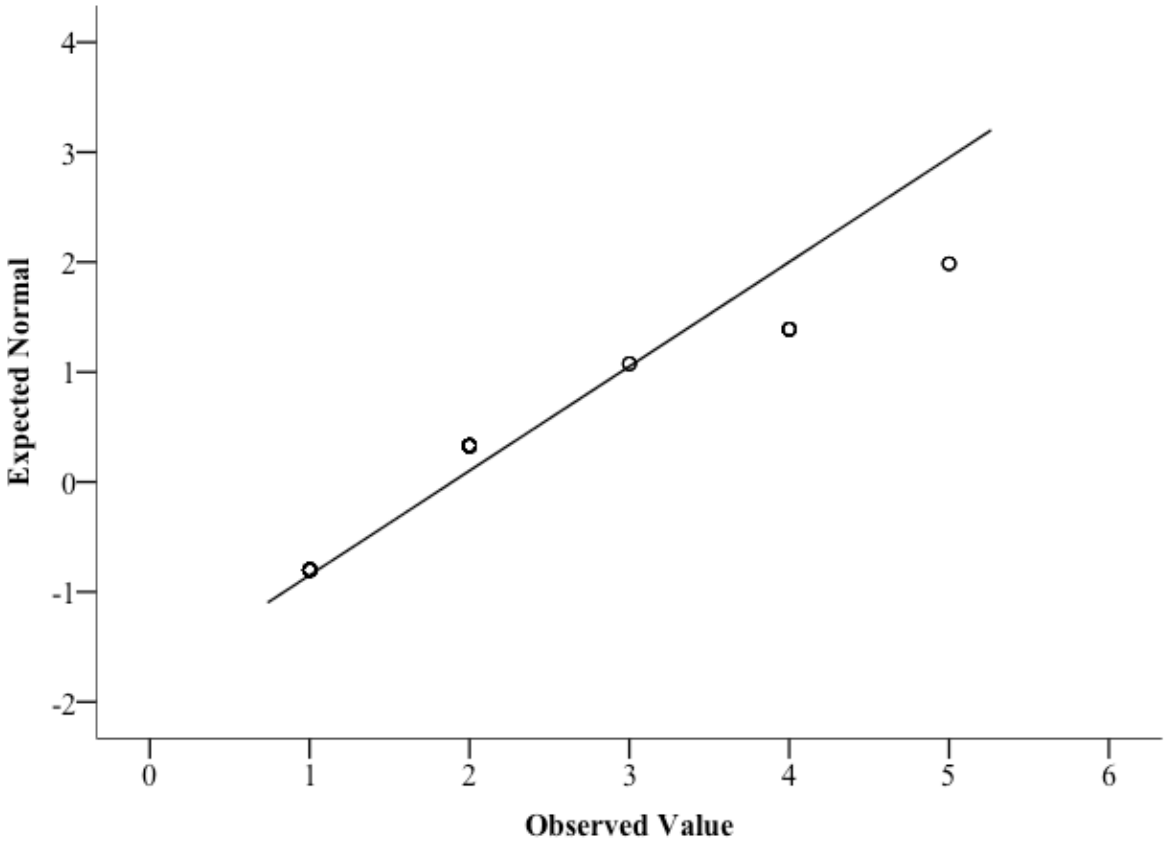


Figure 36. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Unreasonableness for Sexual Assault By Penetration

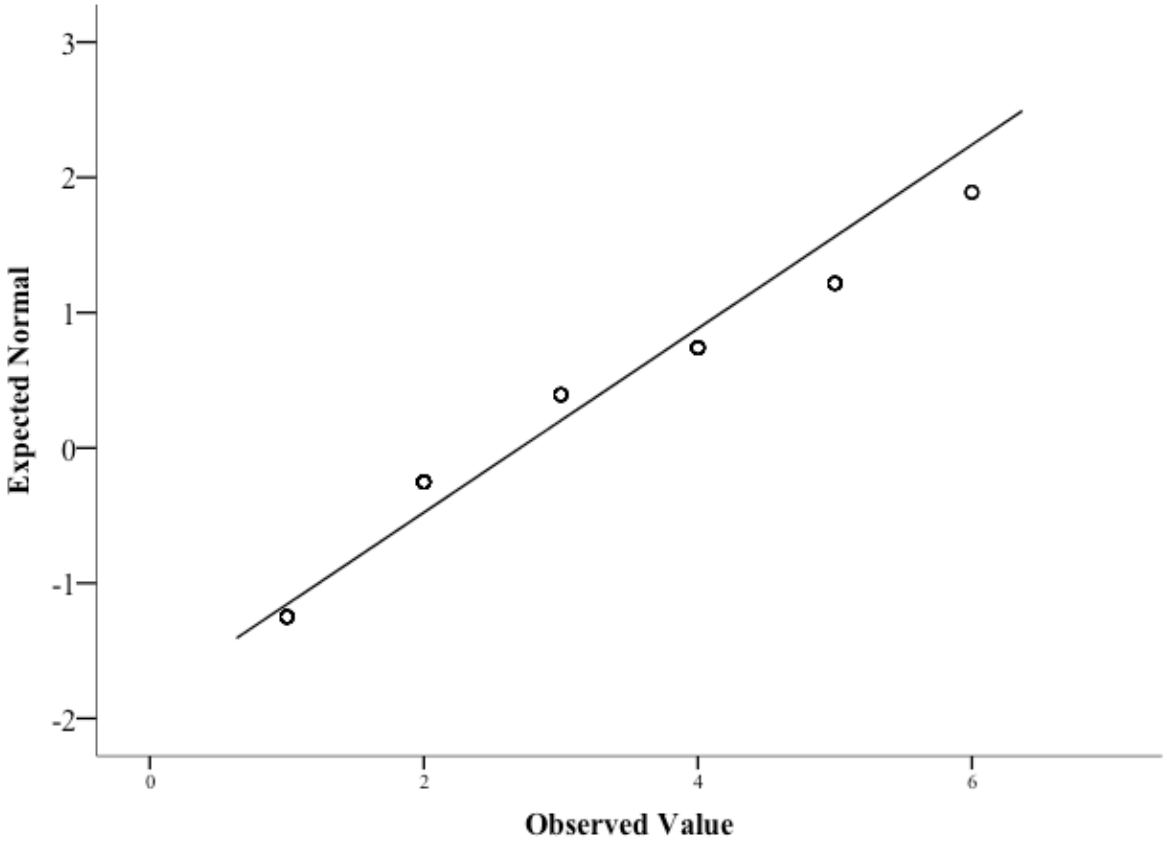


Figure 37. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Credibility for Sexual Activity Without Consent

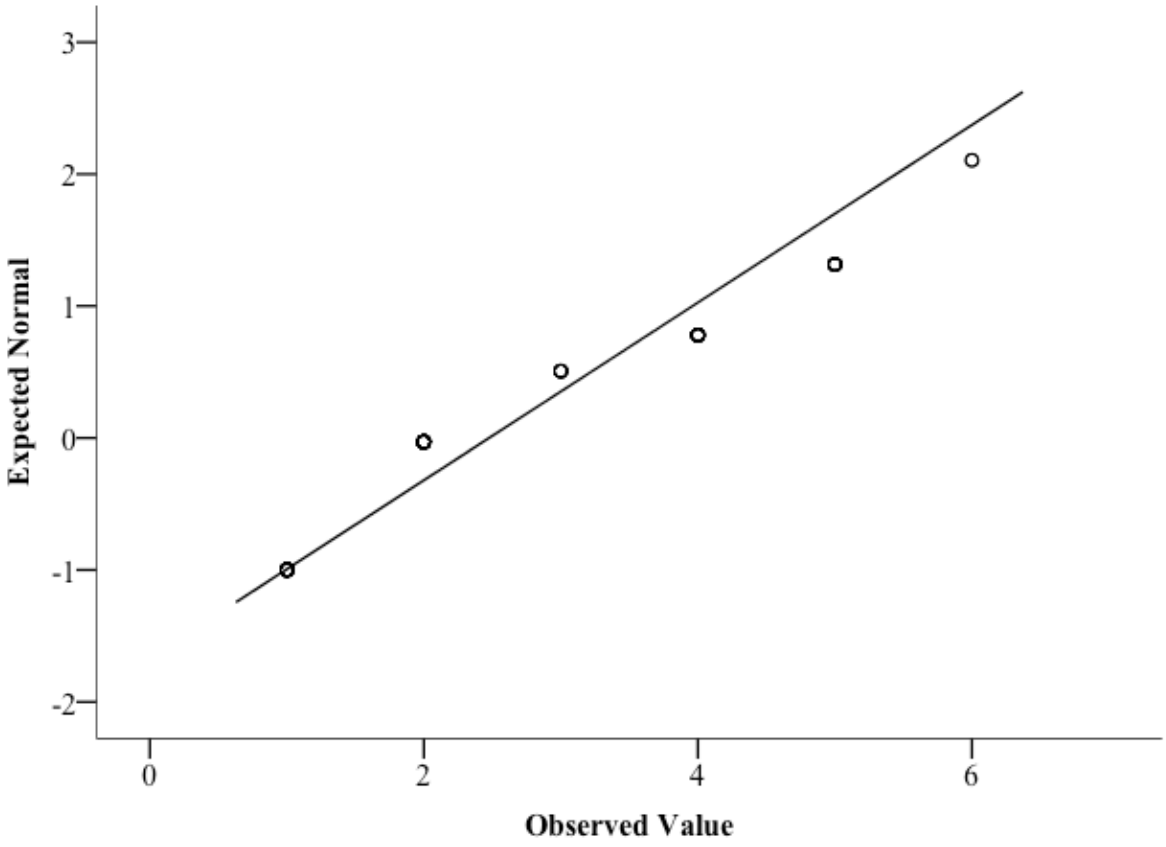


Figure 38. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Blame for Sexual Activity Without Consent

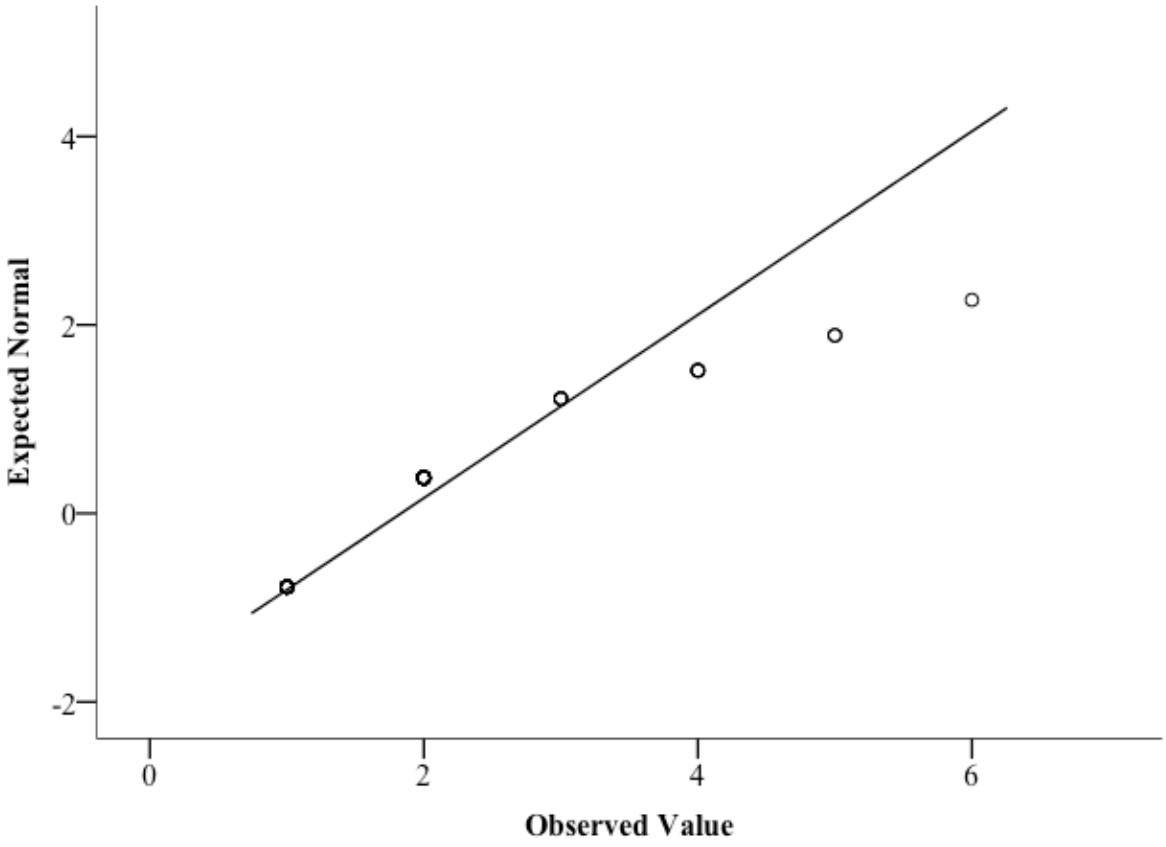


Figure 39. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Agreement for Sexual Activity Without Consent

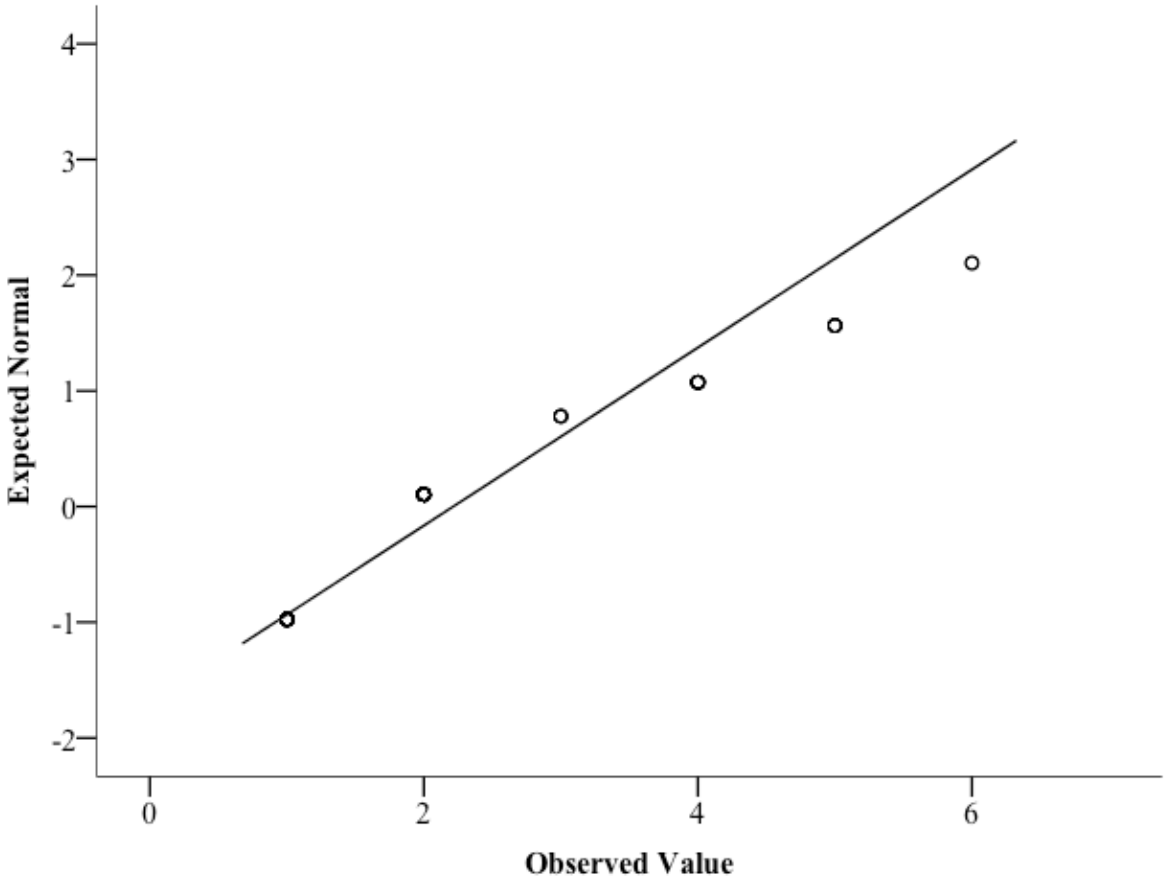


Figure 40. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Interest for Sexual Activity Without Consent

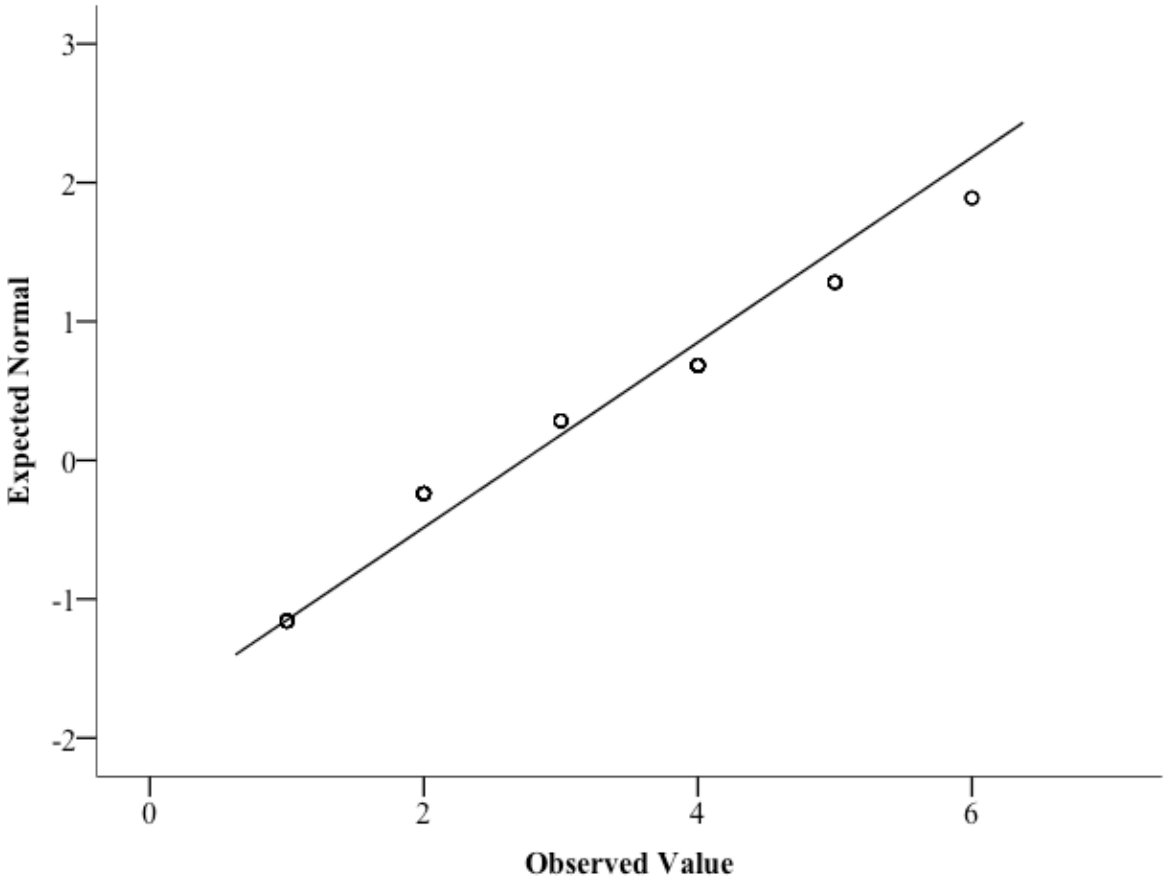


Figure 41. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Provocativeness for Sexual Activity Without Consent

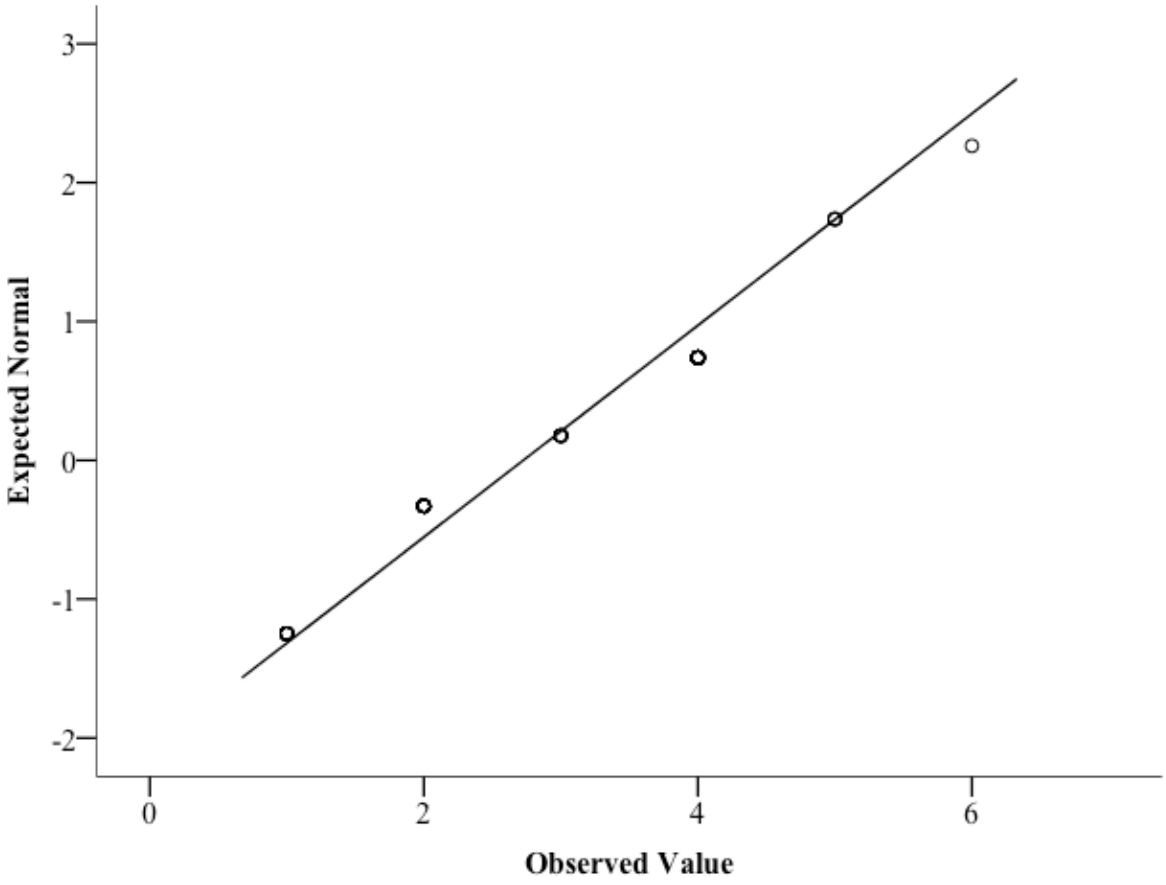


Figure 42. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Lying for Sexual Activity Without Consent

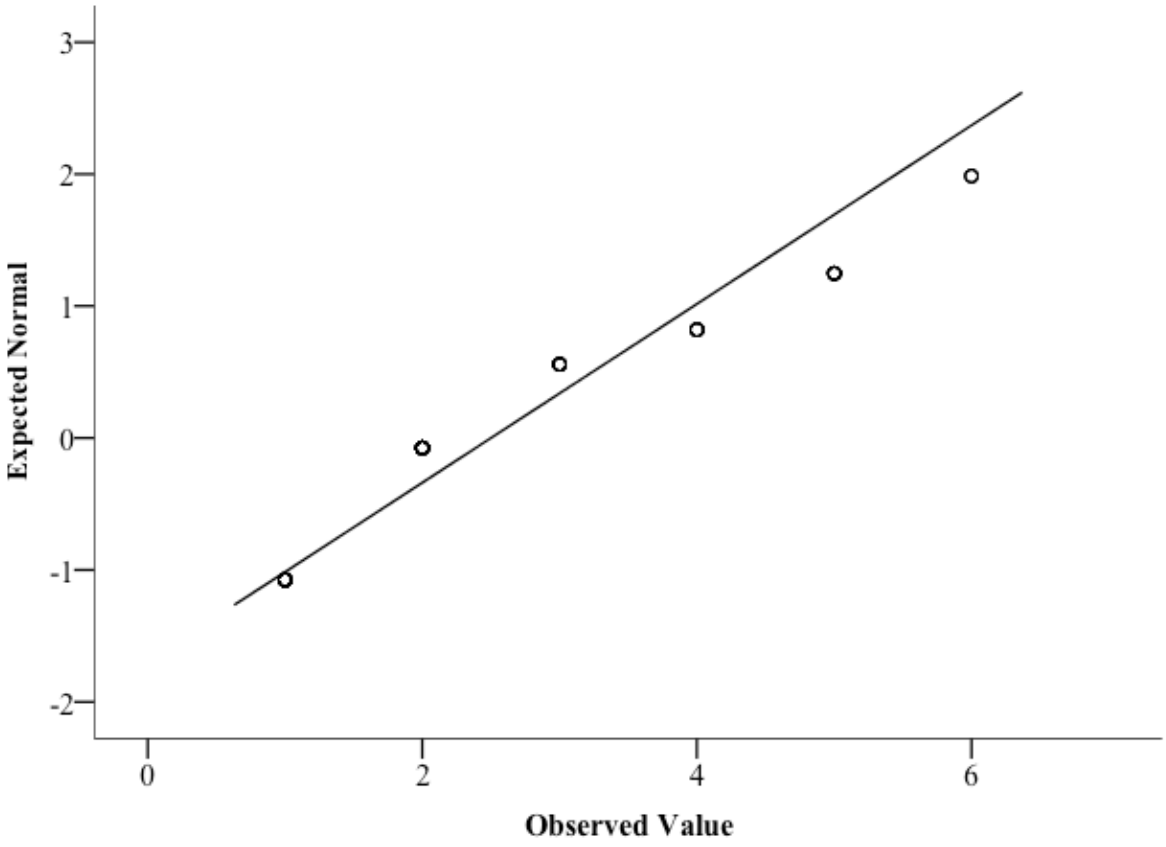


Figure 43. Normal Q-Q Plot of Perpetrator Reasonableness Sexual Activity Without Consent

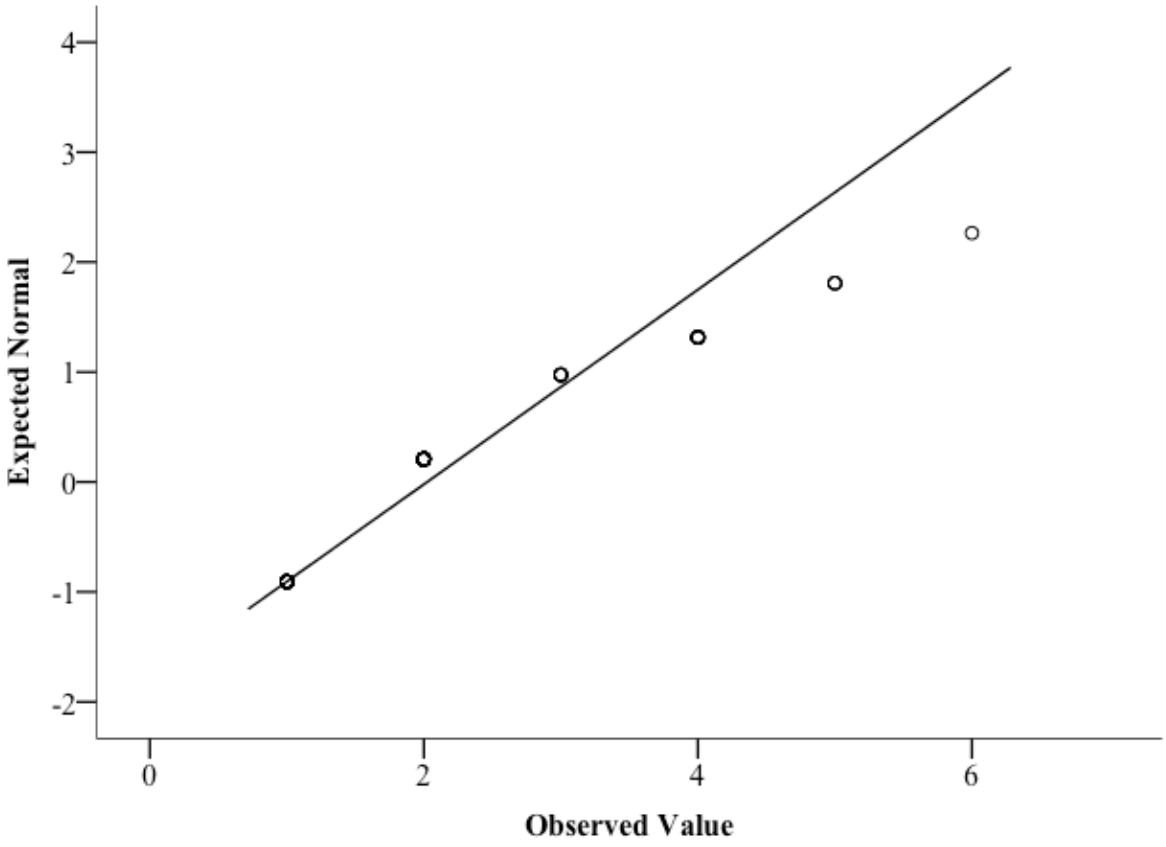


Figure 44. Normal Q-Q Plot of Victim Unreasonableness for Sexual Activity Without Consent

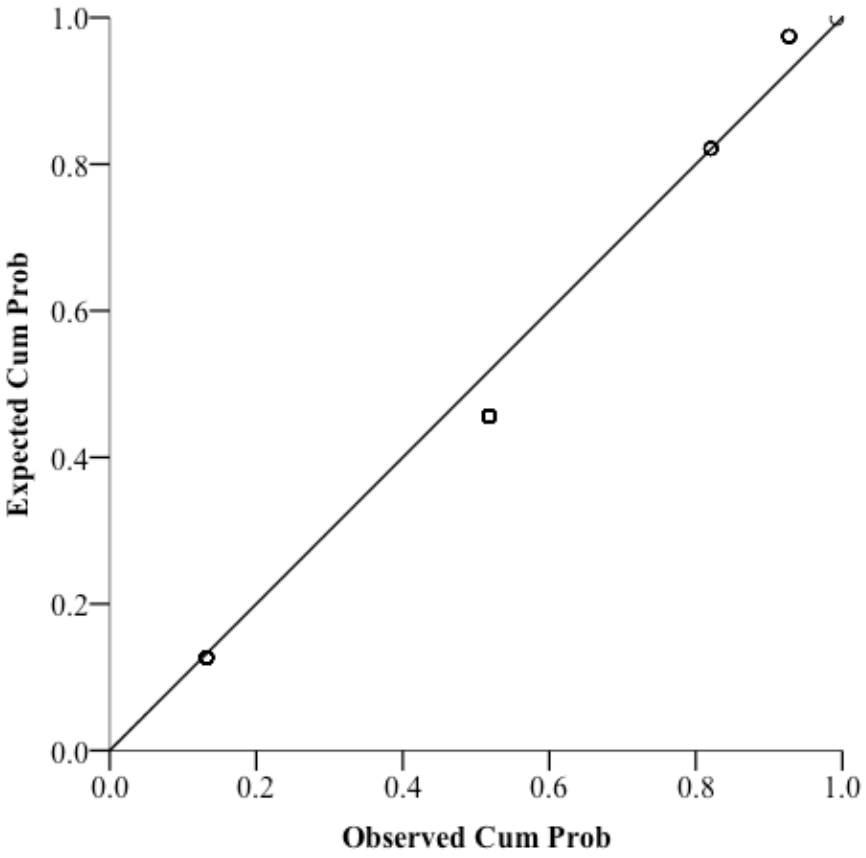


Figure 45. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Credibility for Female Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

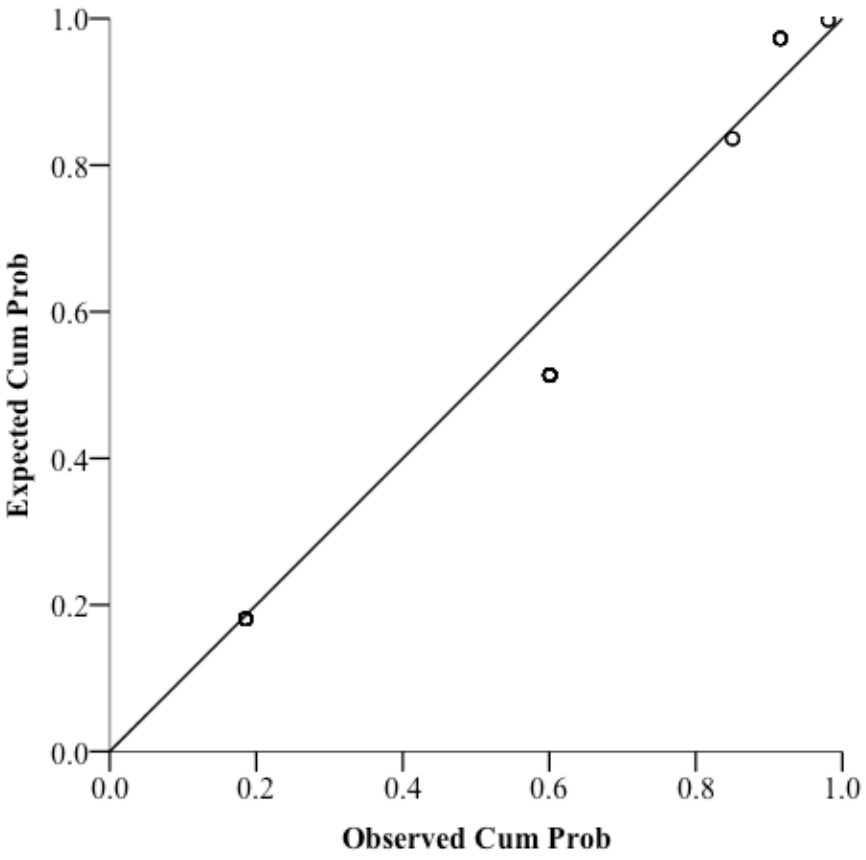


Figure 46. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Blame for Female Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

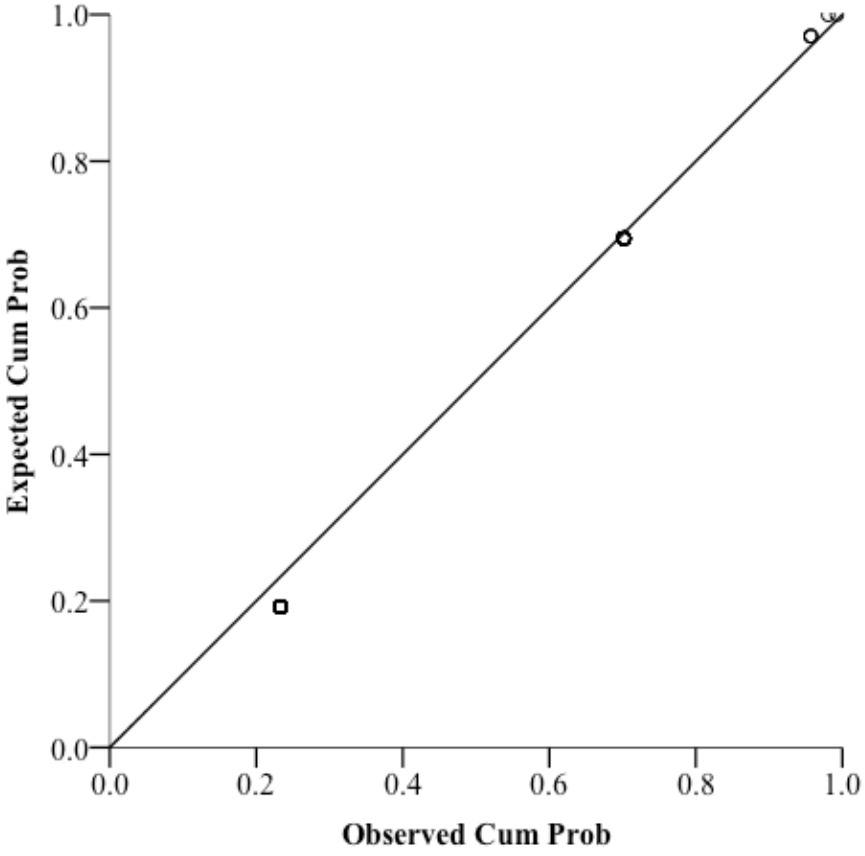


Figure 47. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Agreement for Female Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

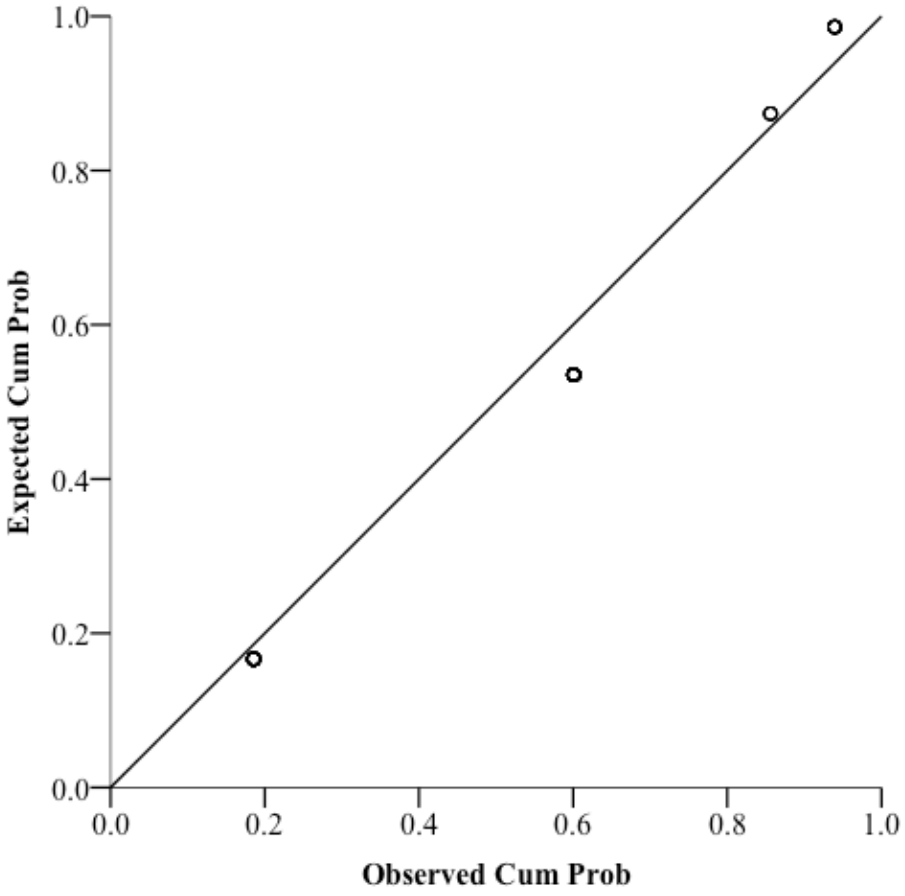


Figure 48. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Interest for Female Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

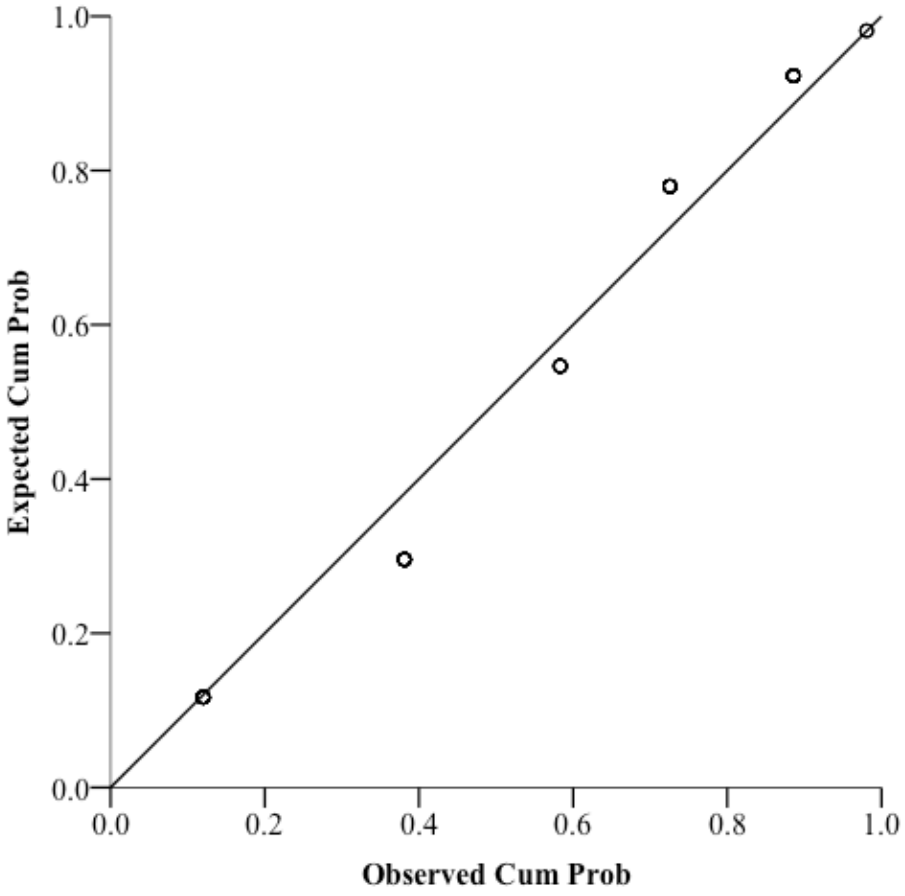


Figure 49. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Provocativeness for Female Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

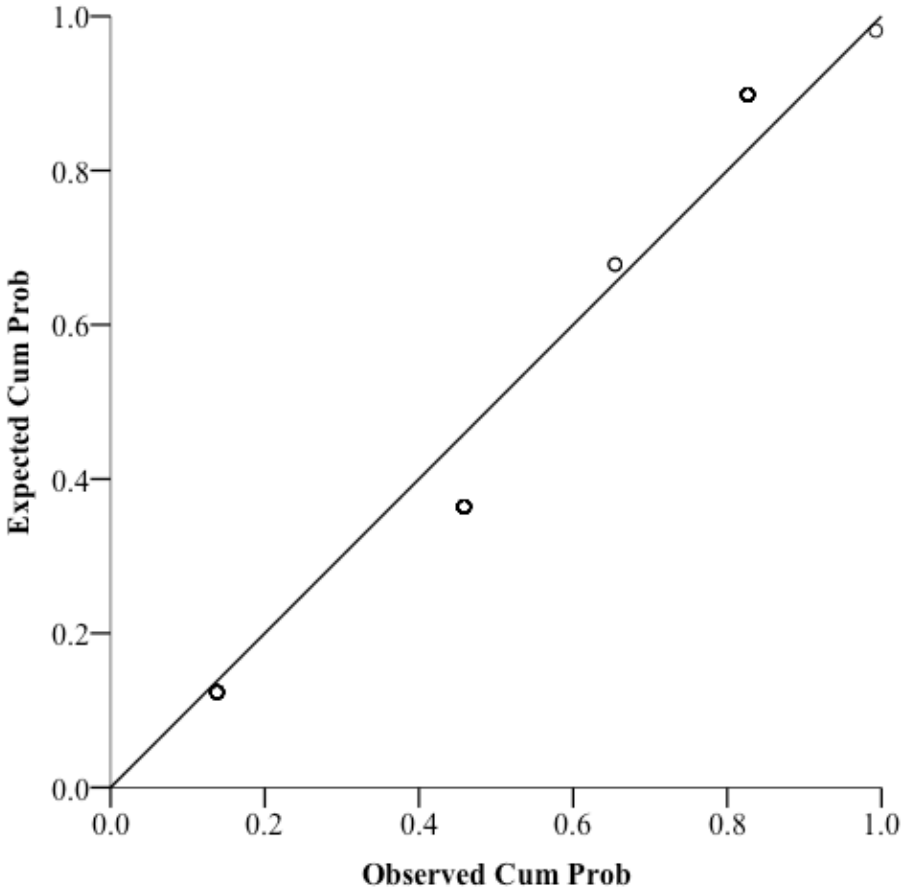


Figure 50. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Lying for Female Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

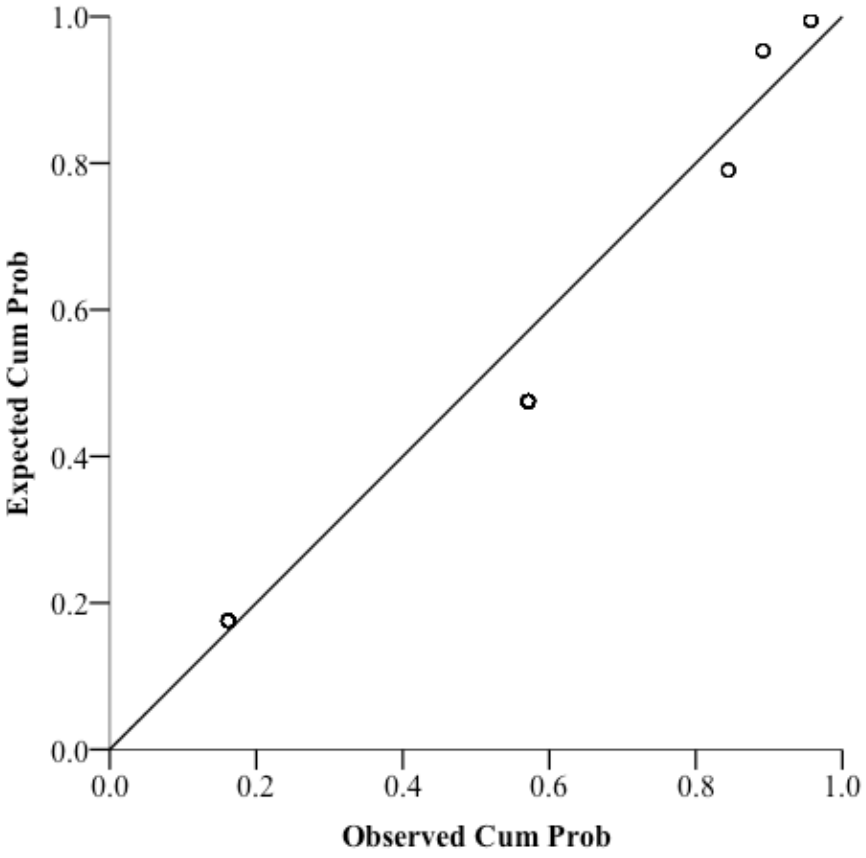


Figure 51. Normal P-P Plot of Perpetrator Reasonableness for Female Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

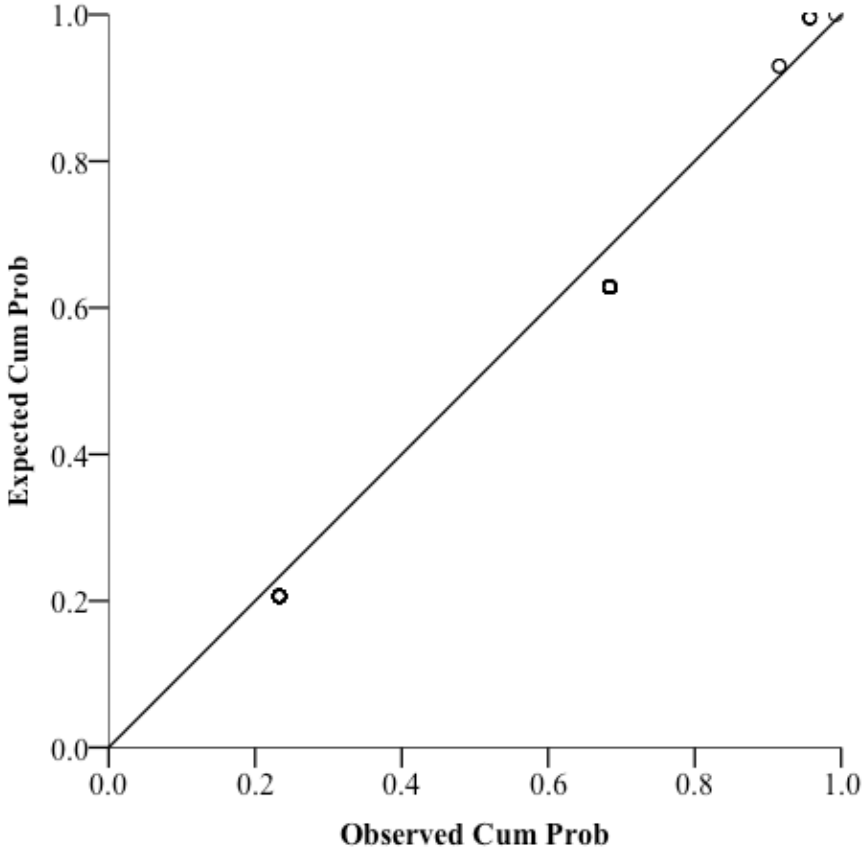


Figure 52. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Unreasonableness for Female Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

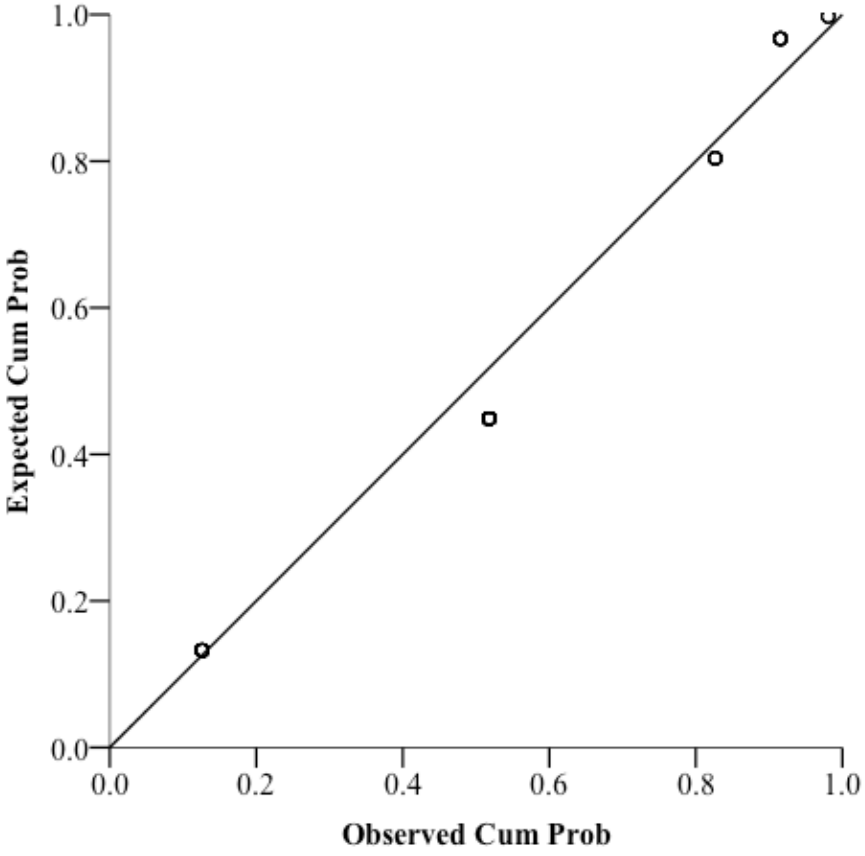


Figure 53. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Credibility for Male Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

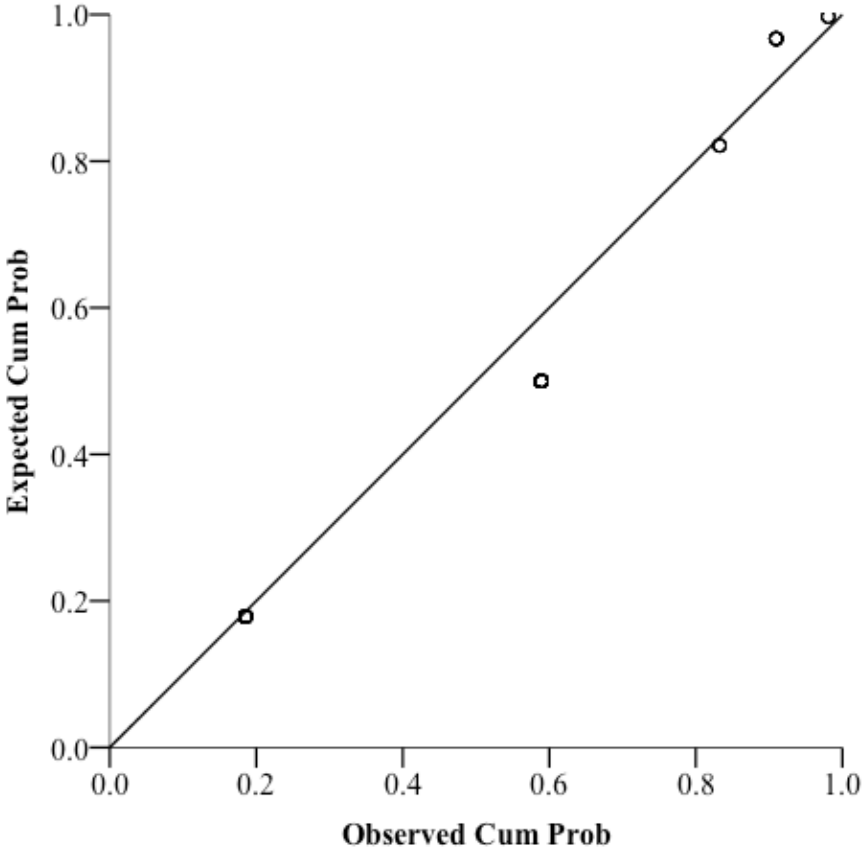


Figure 54. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Blame for Male Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

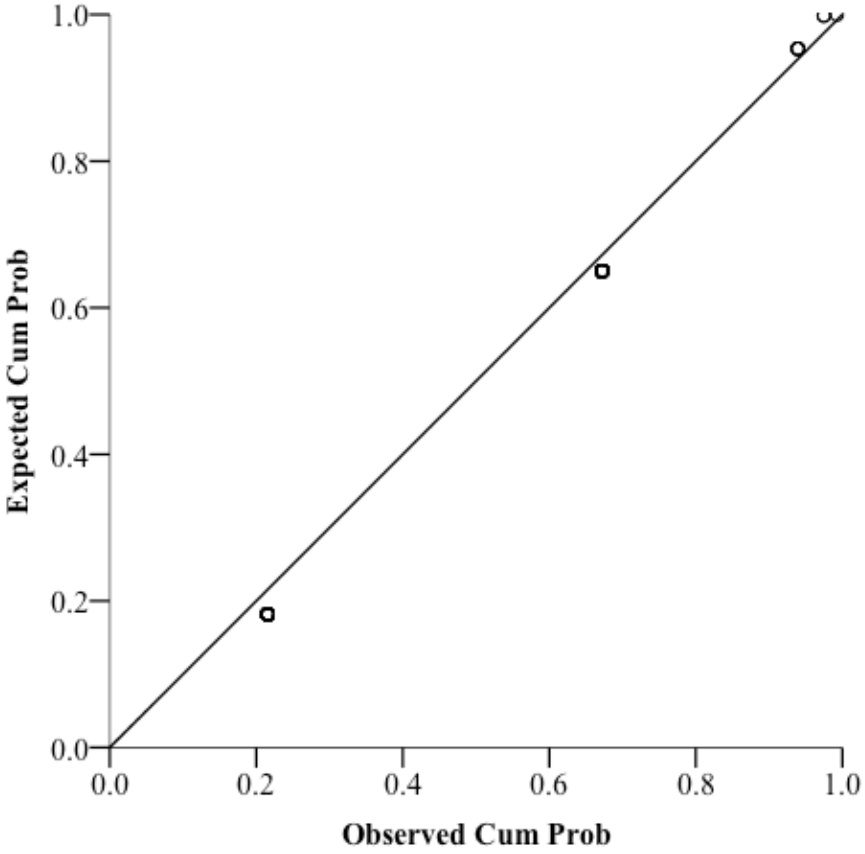


Figure 55. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Agreement for Male Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

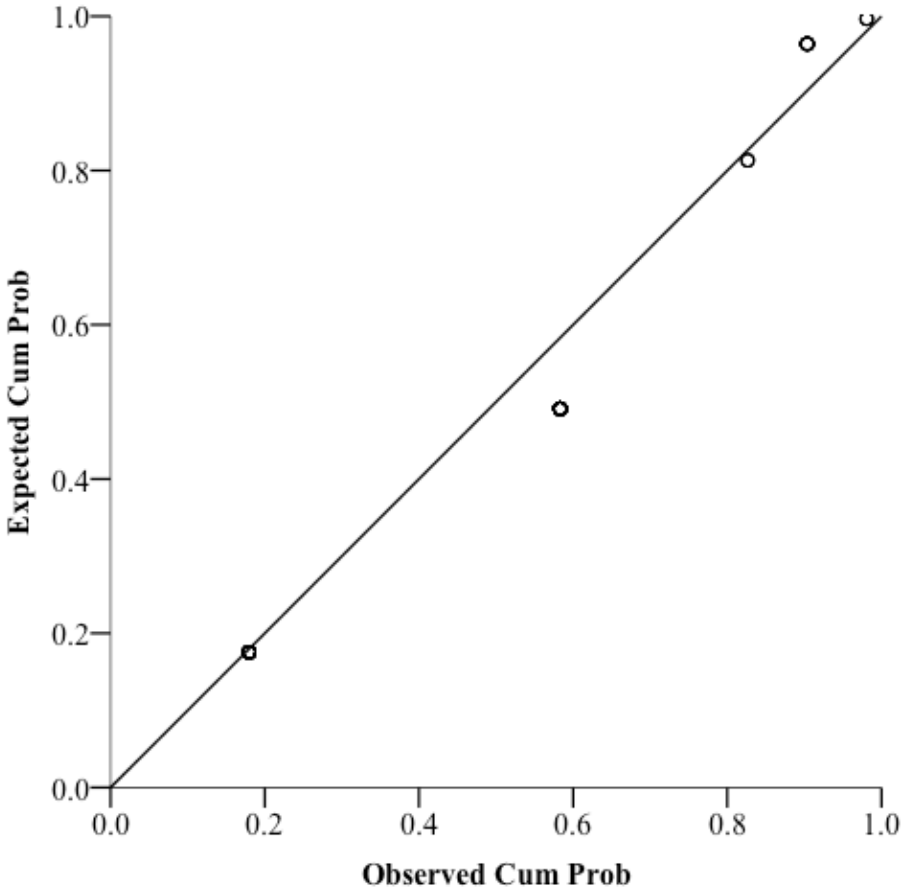


Figure 56. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Interest for Male Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

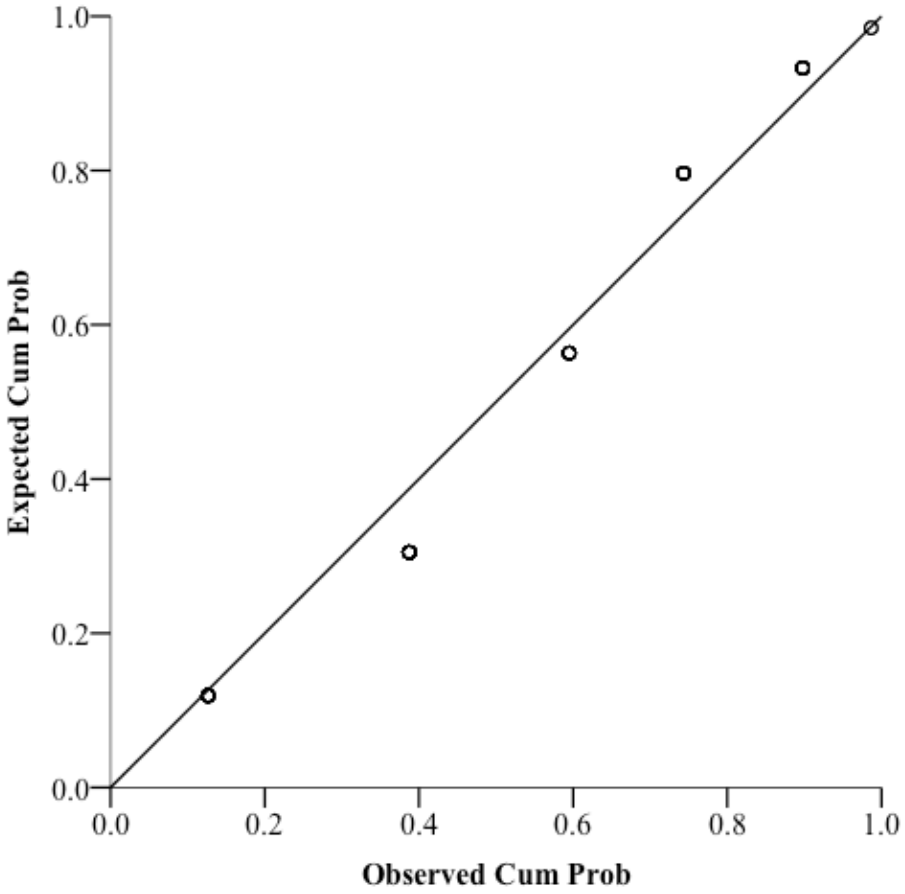


Figure 57. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Provocativeness for Male Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

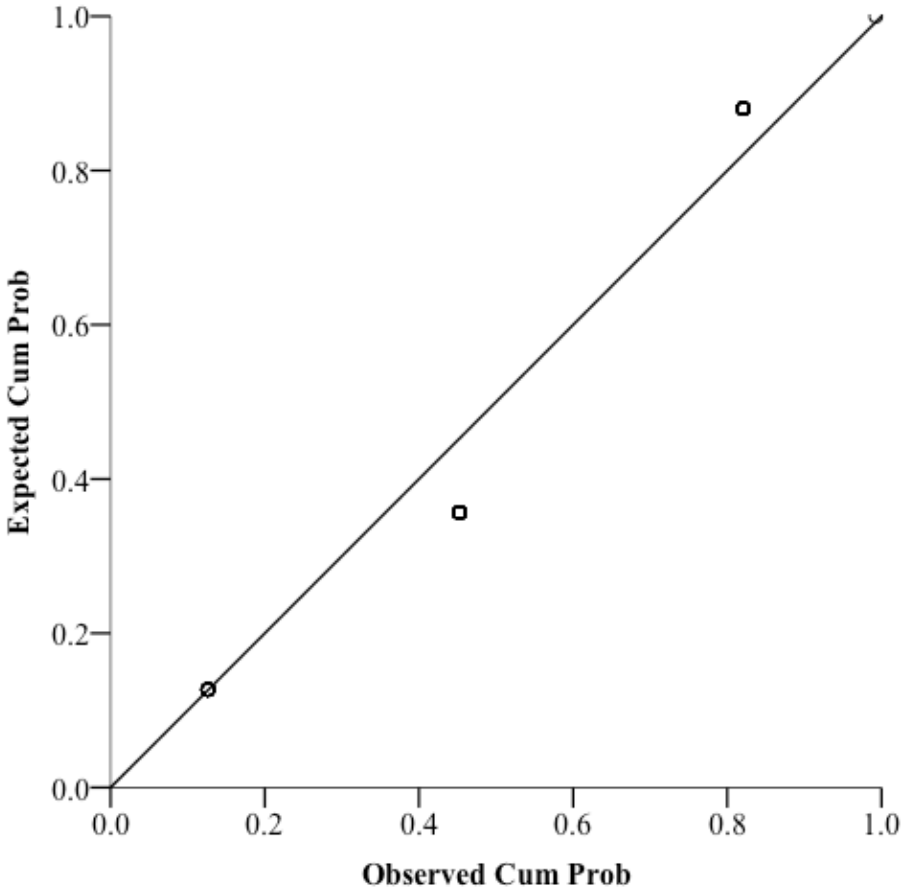


Figure 58. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Lying for Male Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

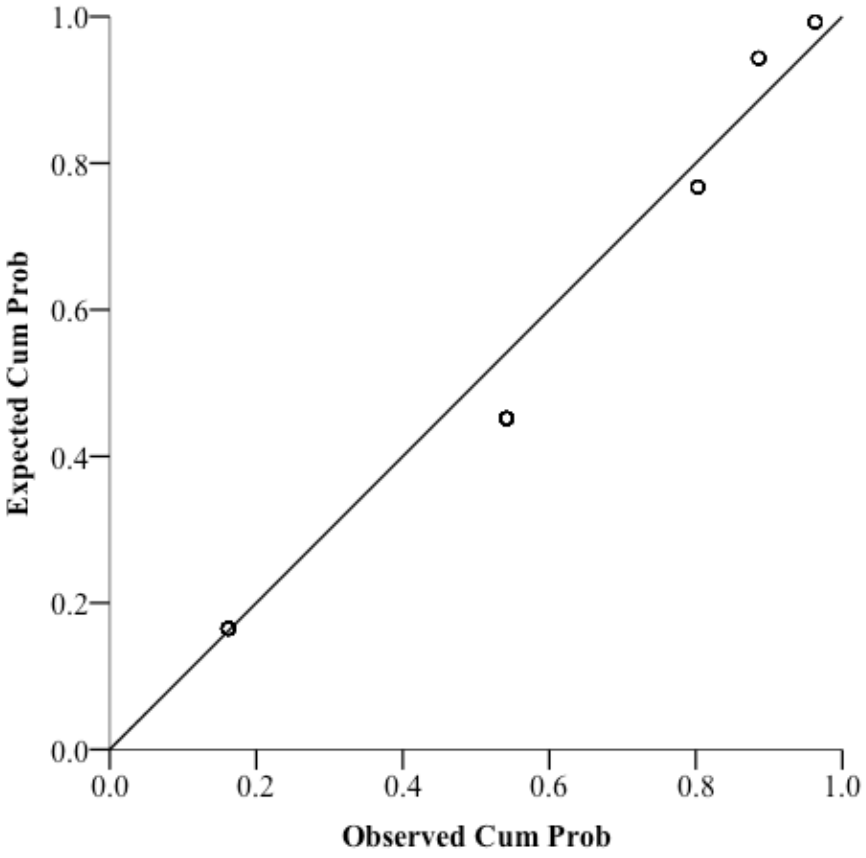


Figure 59. Normal P-P Plot of Perpetrator Reasonableness for Male Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

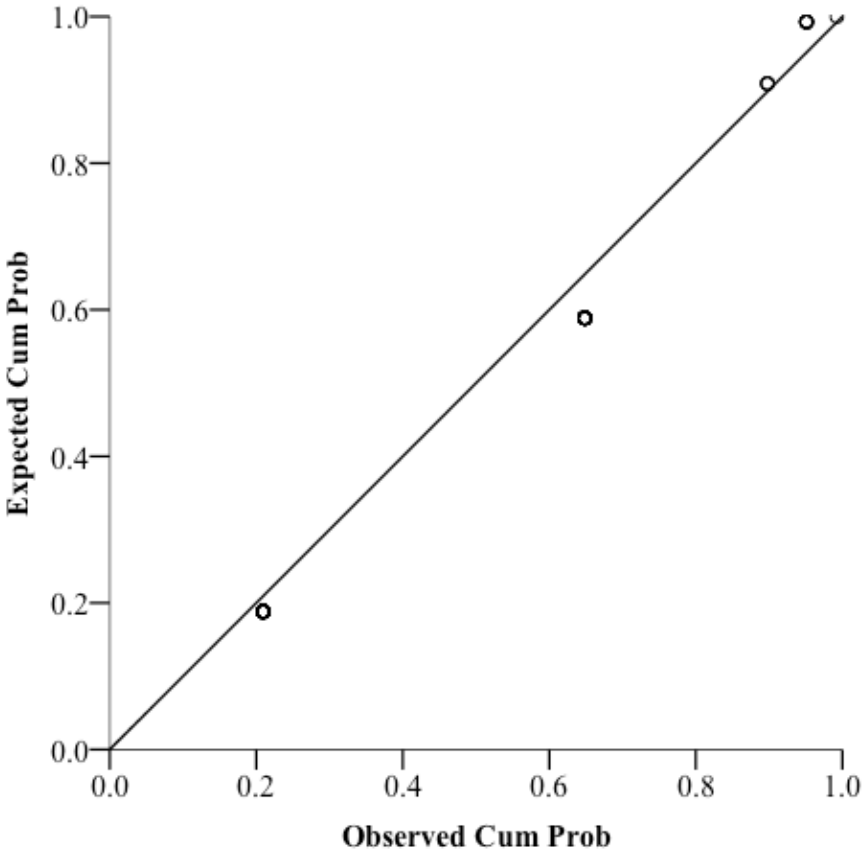


Figure 60. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Unreasonableness for Male Victim Male Perpetrator Rape

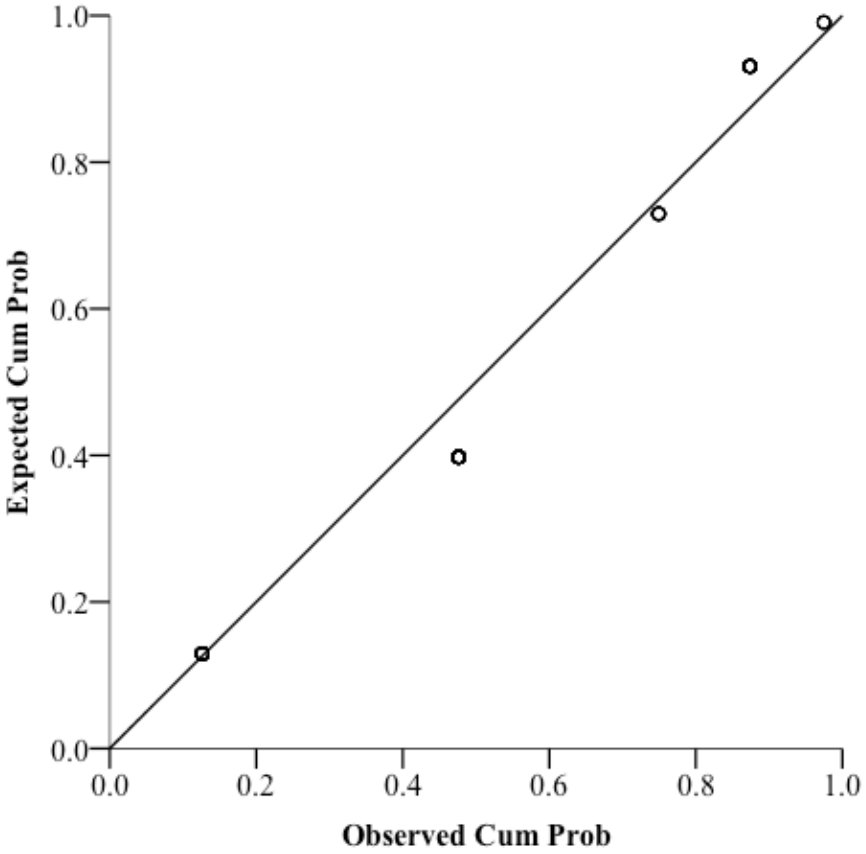


Figure 61. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Credibility for Sexual Assault by Penetration

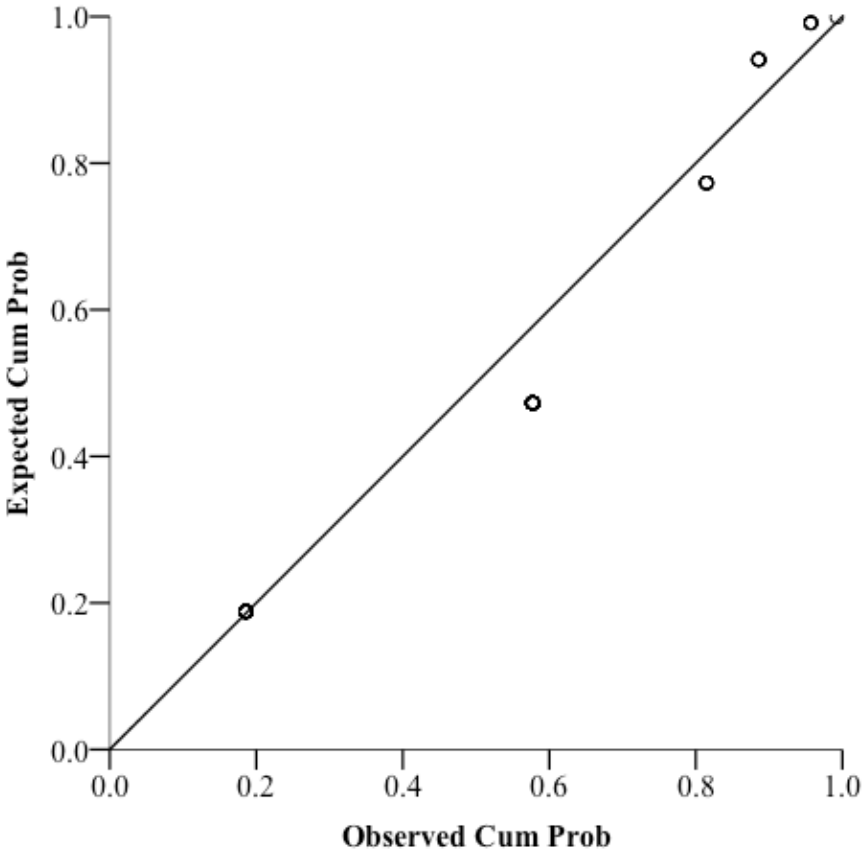


Figure 62. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Blame for Sexual Assault by Penetration

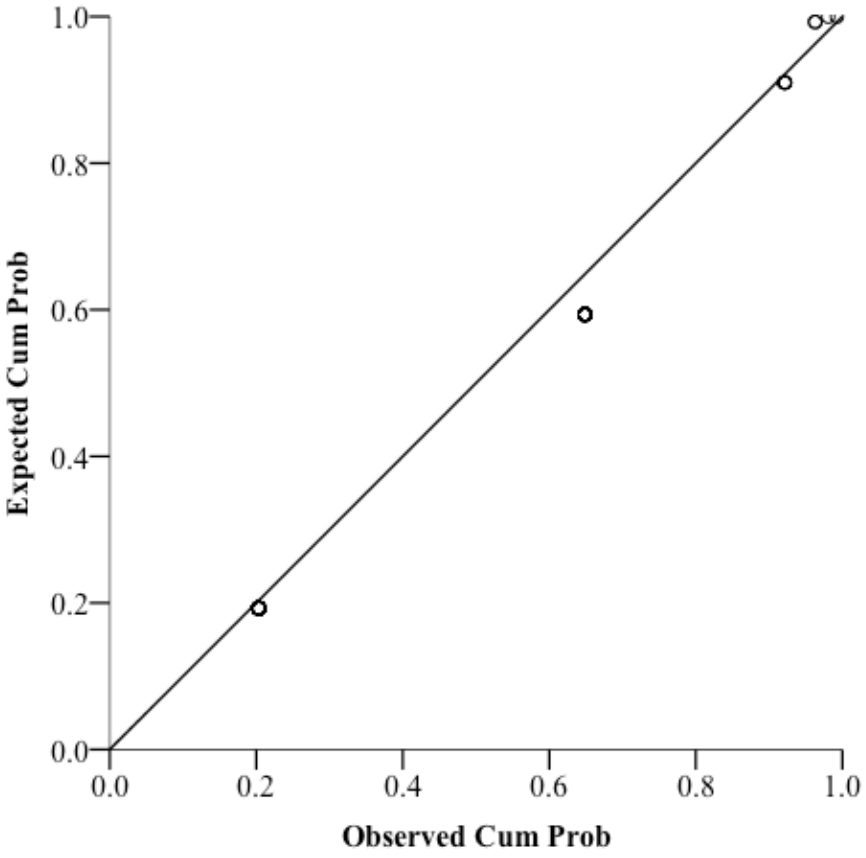


Figure 63. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Agreement for Sexual Assault by Penetration

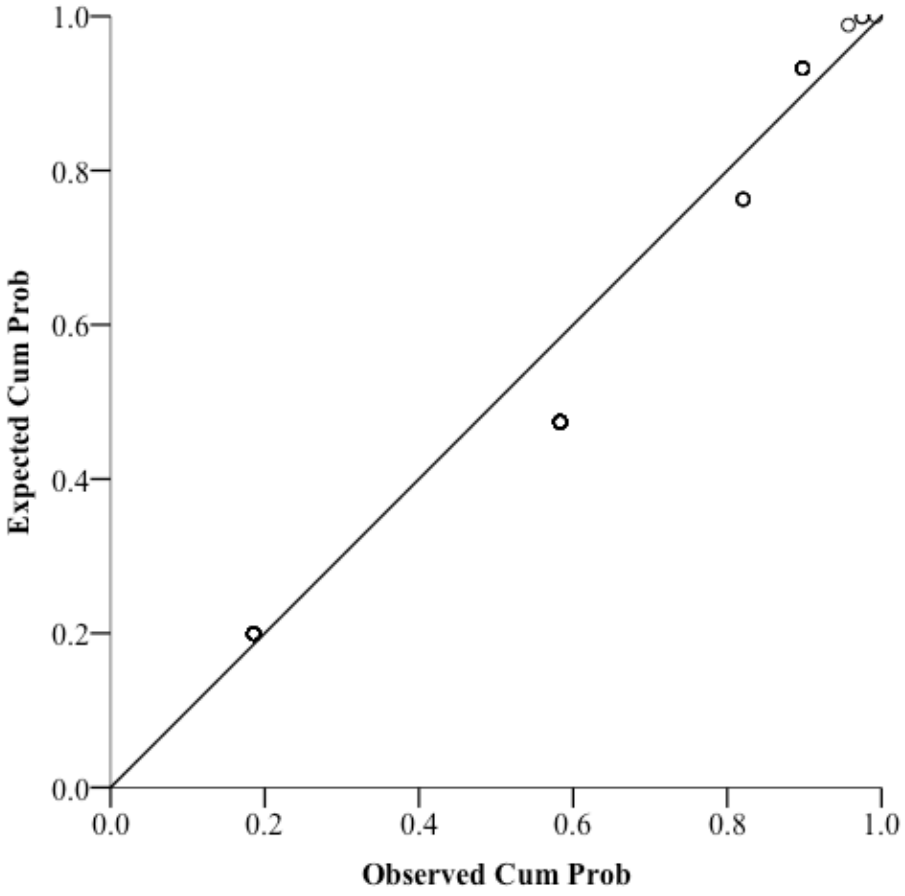


Figure 64. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Interest for Sexual Assault by Penetration

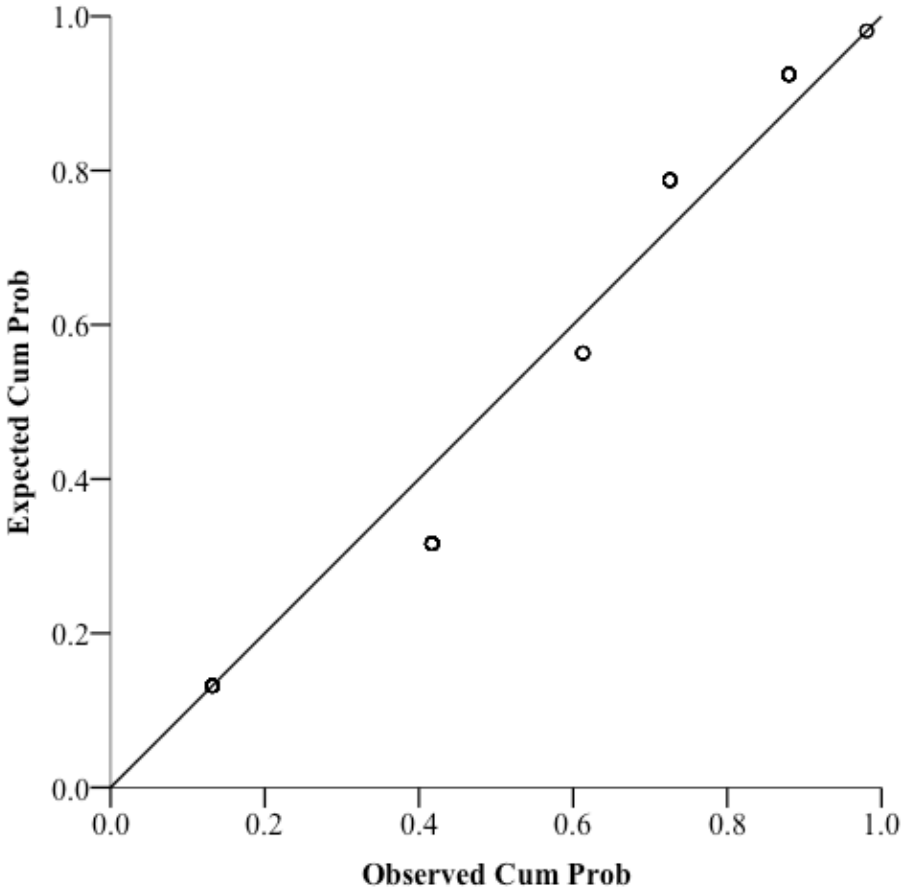


Figure 65. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Provocativeness for Sexual Assault by Penetration

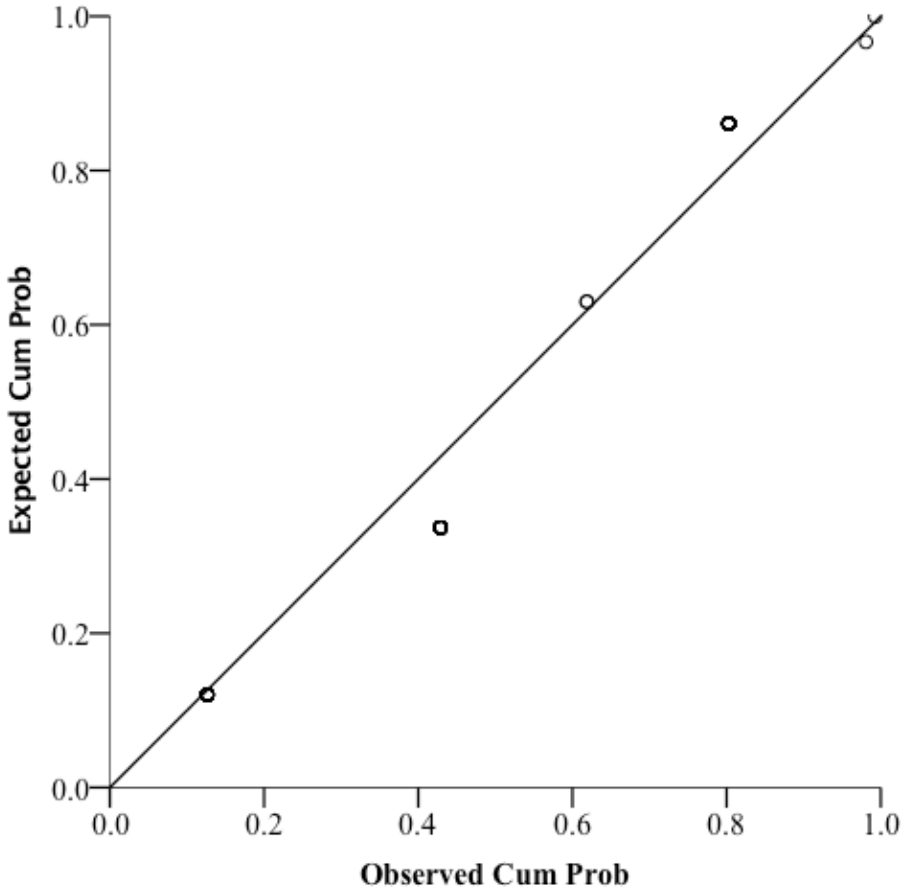


Figure 66. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Lying for Sexual Assault by Penetration

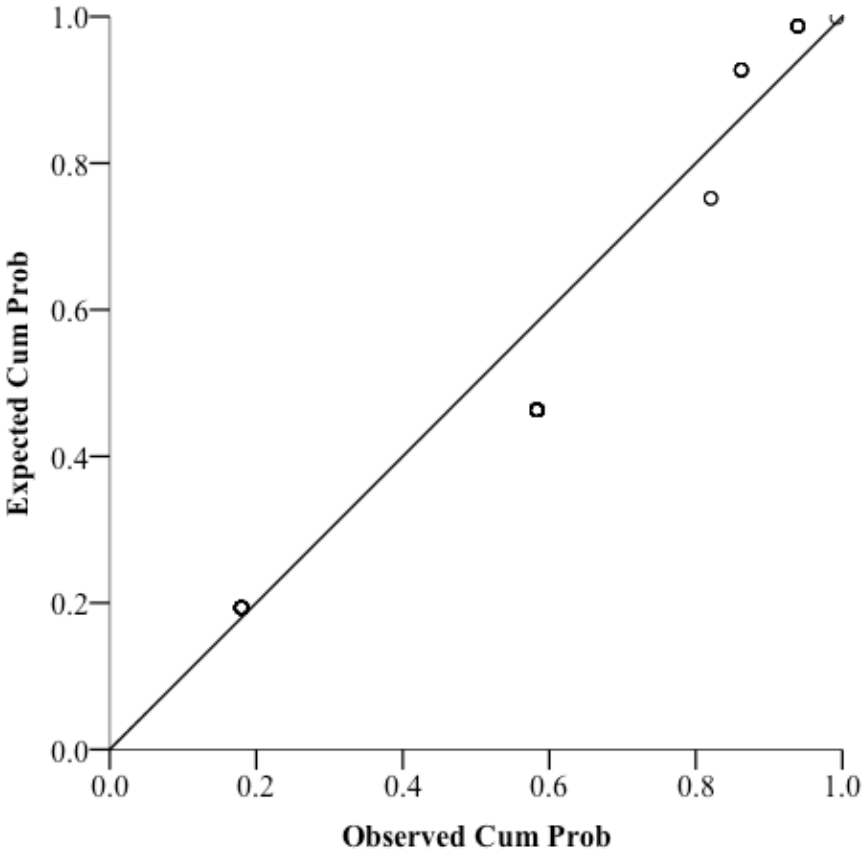


Figure 67. Normal P-P Plot of Perpetrator Reasonableness for Sexual Assault by Penetration

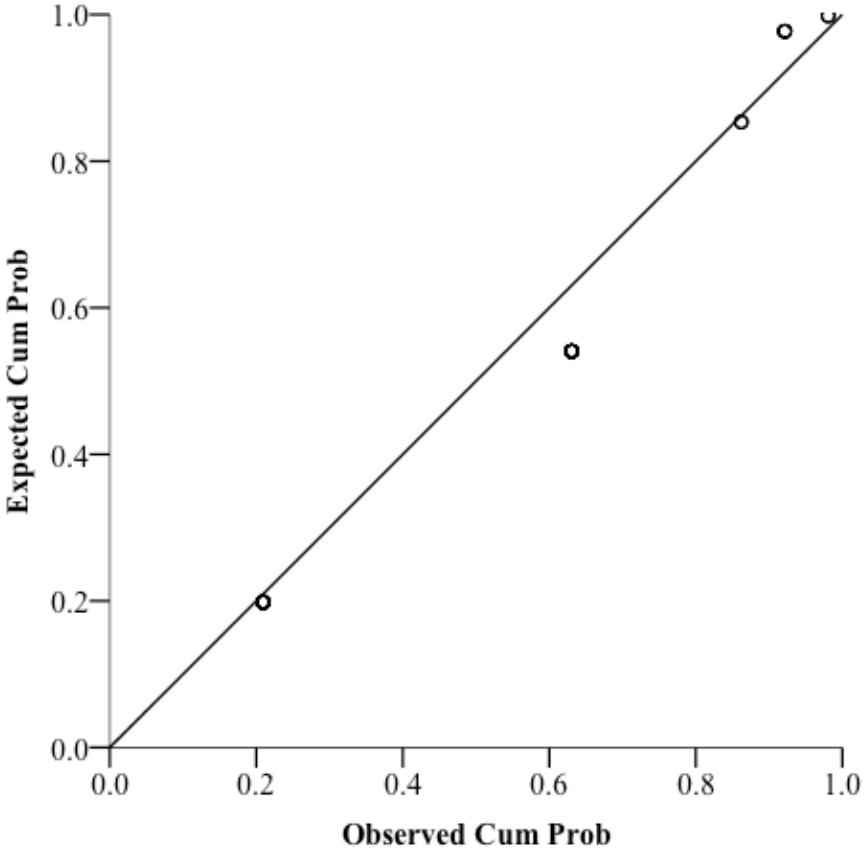


Figure 68 Normal P-P Plot of Victim Unreasonableness for Sexual Assault by Penetration

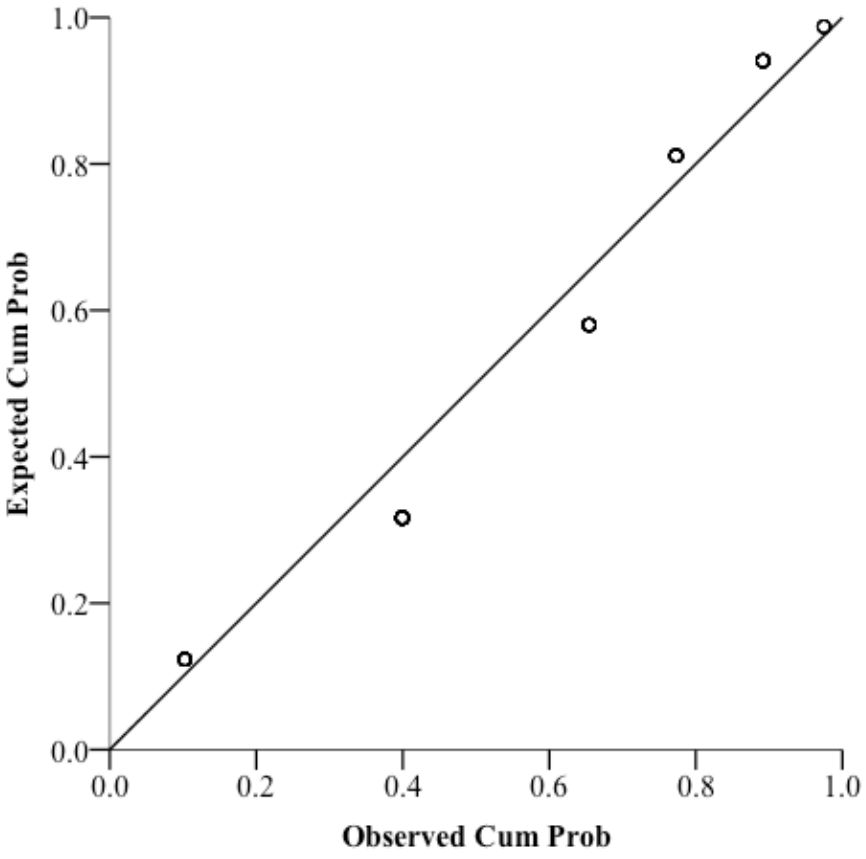


Figure 69. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Credibility for Sexual Activity Without Consent

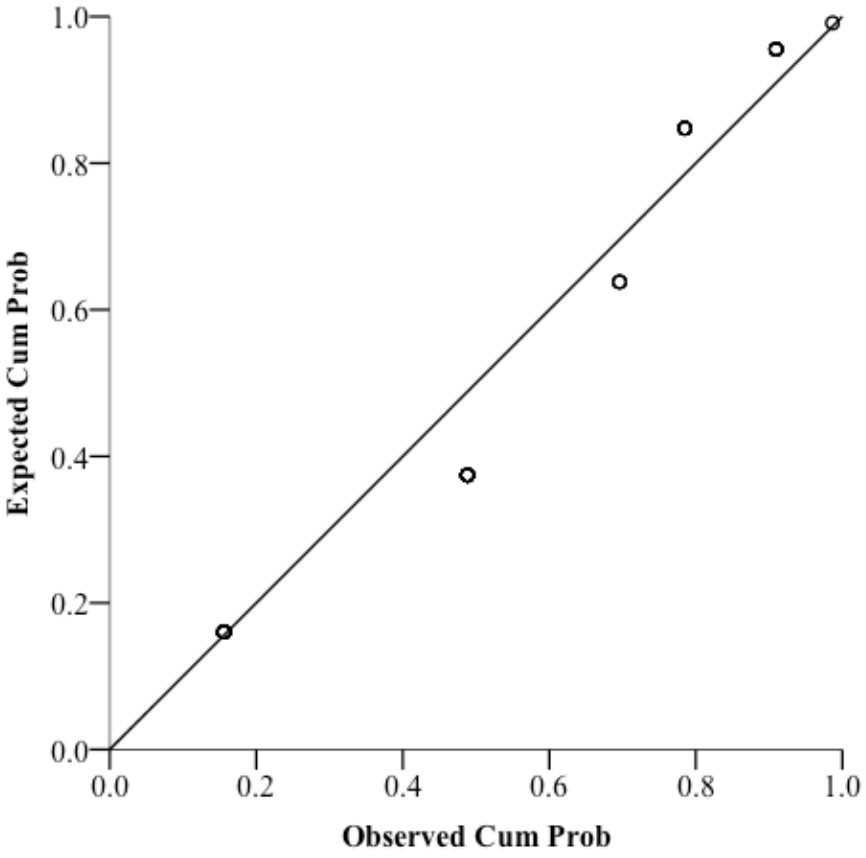


Figure 70. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Blame for Sexual Activity Without Consent

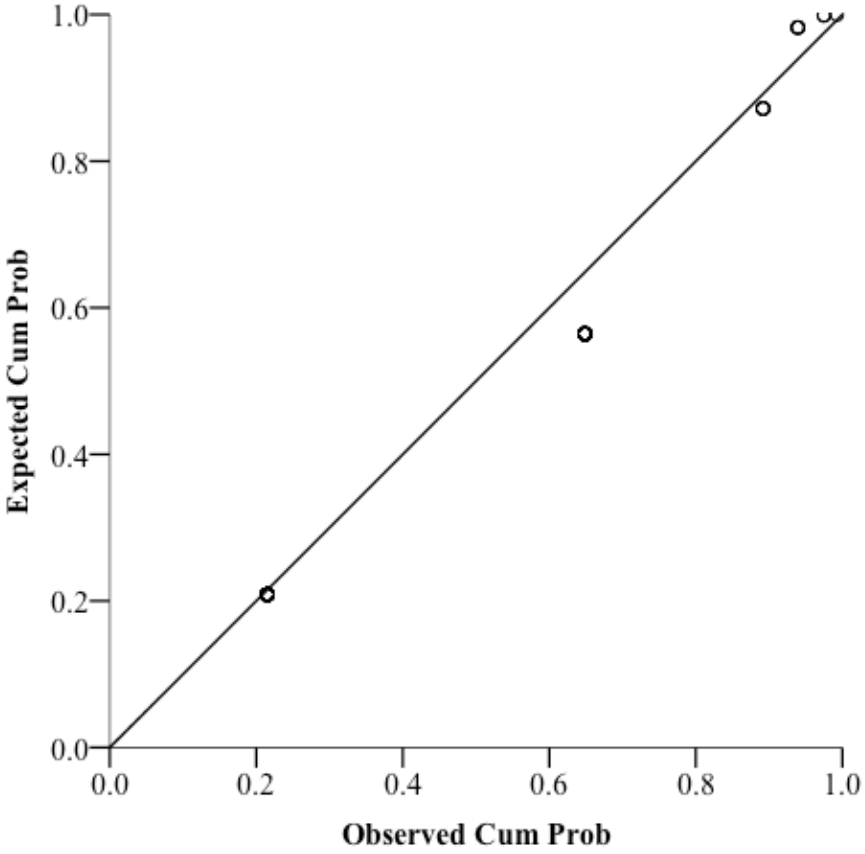


Figure 71. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Agreement for Sexual Activity Without Consent

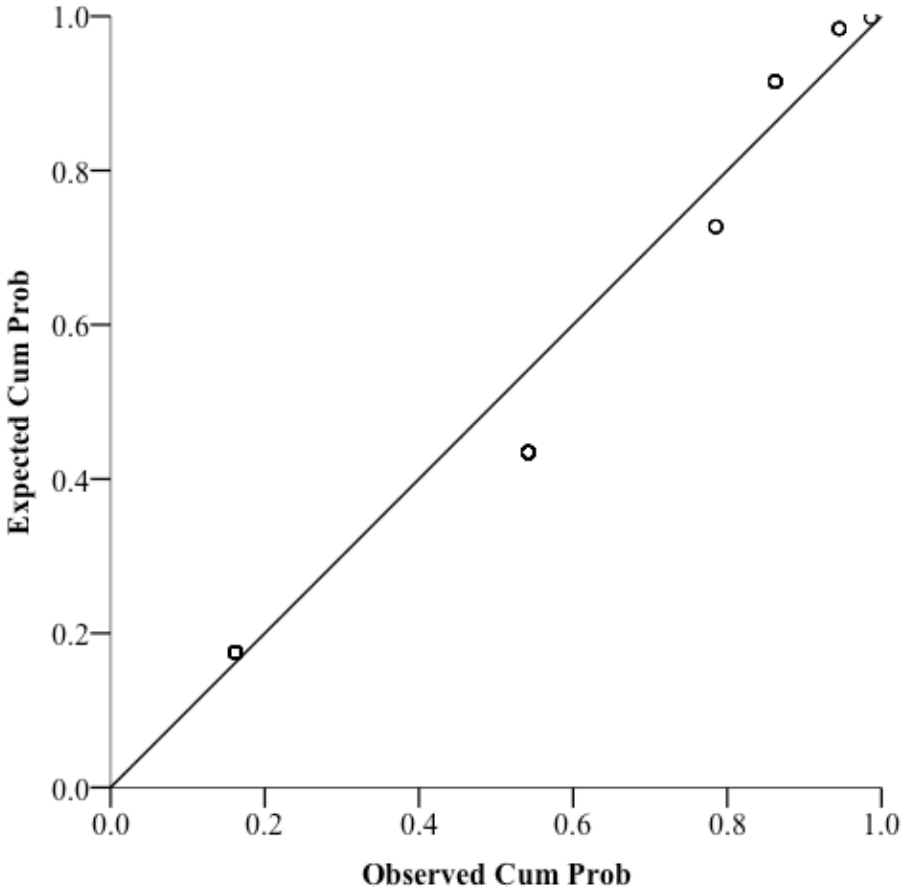


Figure 72. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Interest for Sexual Activity Without Consent

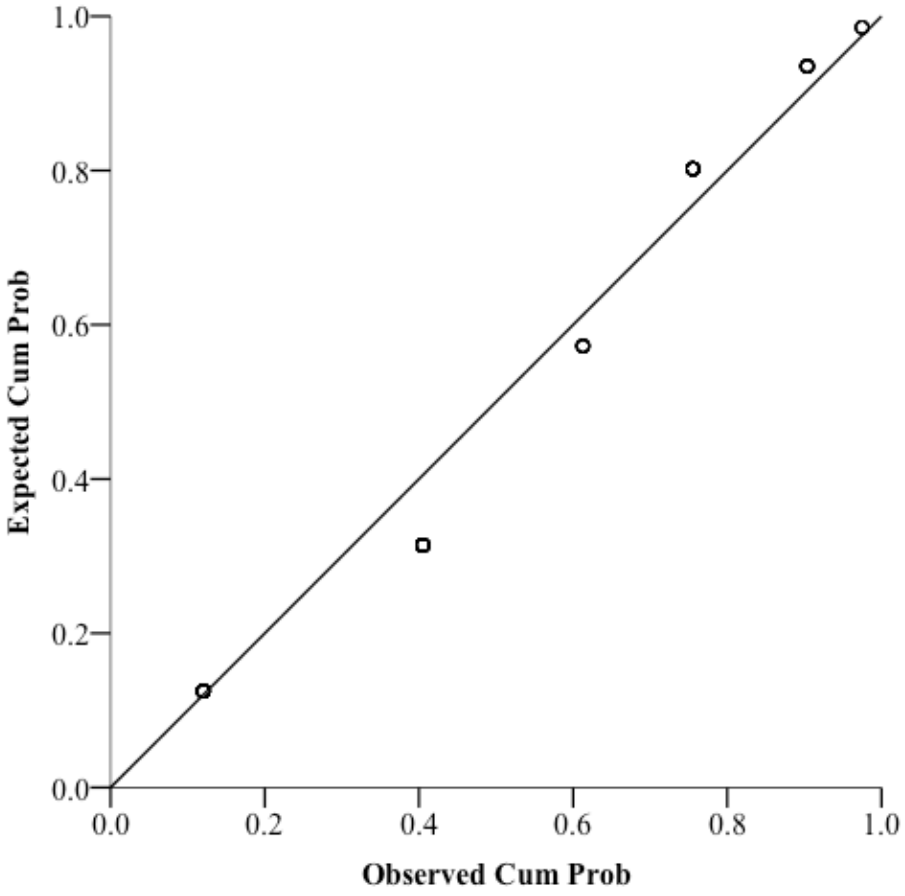


Figure 73. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Provocativeness for Sexual Activity Without Consent

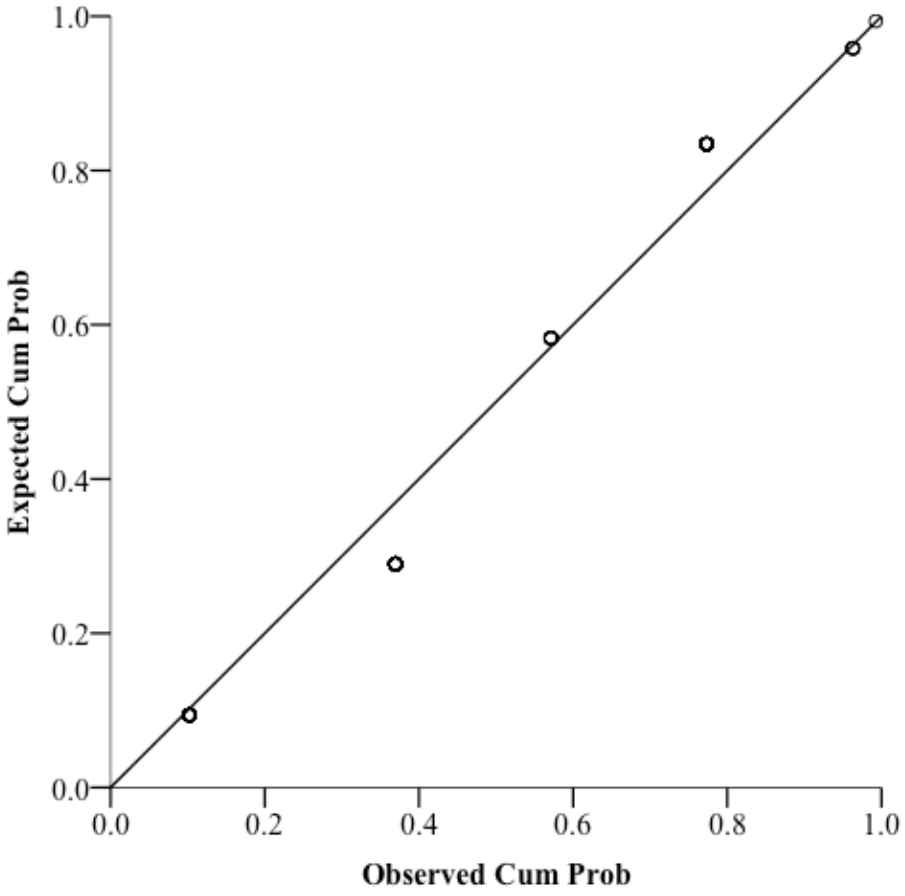


Figure 74. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Lying for Sexual Activity Without Consent

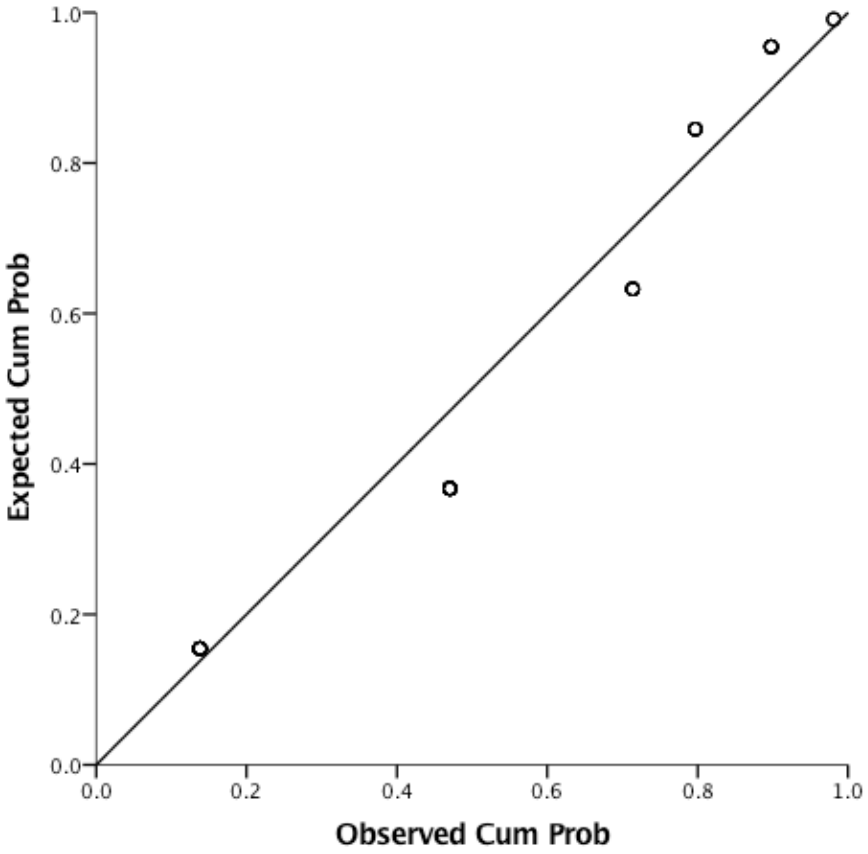


Figure 75. Normal P-P Plot of Perpetrator Reasonableness for Sexual Activity Without Consent

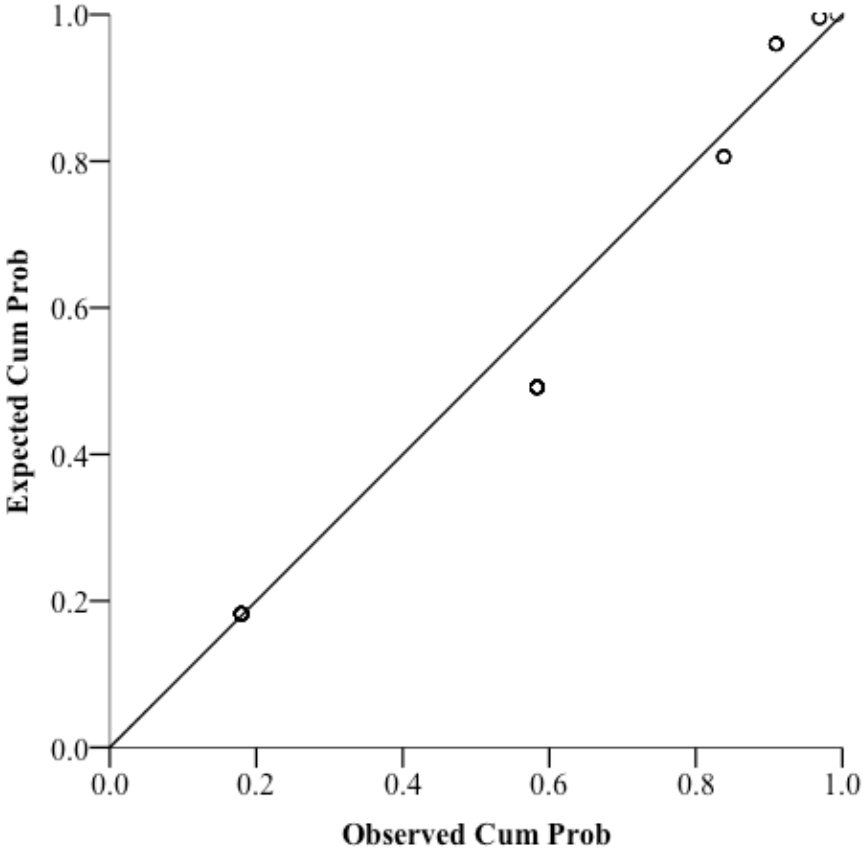


Figure 76. Normal P-P Plot of Victim Unreasonableness for Sexual Activity Without Consent

Appendix P

Table 40. Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for the Effect of Gender on Average Perception Over Vignette

Table 40.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for the Effect of Gender on Average Perception Over Vignette

Measure	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F (1,81)	p-value	Partial Eta Squared
Credibility	0.013	0.01	0.00	0.954	0.00
Blame	14.06	14.06	3.14	0.08	0.04
Victim agreement	3.28	3.278	1.42	0.236	0.02
Victim interest	0.36	0.36	0.12	0.744	0.00
Victim sexual provocativeness	25.29	25.29	3.25	0.075	0.04
Victim lying	1.36	1.36	0.23	0.63	0.00
Perpetrator reasonableness	1.13	1.13	0.24	0.627	0.00
Victim unreasonableness	0.09	0.09	0.03	0.864	0.00

Note: Effect of Gender on average perception across vignette

Appendix Q

Table 41. Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for the Effect of Hours of Training on Average Perception Over Vignette

Table 41.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for the Effect of Hours of Training on Sexual Attack on Average Perception Over Vignette

Measure	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F (1,80)	p-value	Partial Eta Squared
Credibility	1.12	1.12	0.28	0.600	0.00
Blame	0.57	0.57	0.12	0.729	0.00
Victim agreement	2.41	2.41	1.04	0.310	0.01
Victim interest	4.62	4.62	1.40	0.241	0.02
Victim sexual provocativeness	0.50	0.50	0.06	0.806	0.00
Victim lying	9.10	9.10	1.57	0.214	0.02
Perpetrator reasonableness	1.78	1.78	0.37	0.544	0.01
Victim unreasonableness	8.51	8.51	2.72	0.103	0.03

Note: Effect of Hours of training on Sexual Attack on average perception over all vignettes

Appendix R

Table 42. Test of Between-Subjects Effects for the Education on Average Perception Over Vignette

Table 42.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for the Effect of Education on Average Perception Over Vignette

Measure	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F (1,82)	p-value	Partial Eta Squared
Credibility	15.98	7.99	2.07	0.133	0.05
Blame	1.49	0.75	0.16	0.854	0.00
Victim agreement	0.67	0.34	0.14	0.867	0.00
Victim interest	0.29	0.15	0.04	0.958	0.00
Victim sexual provocativeness	2.36	1.18	0.14	0.866	0.00
Victim lying	1.22	0.61	0.10	0.902	0.00
Perpetrator reasonableness	5.54	2.77	0.82	0.61	0.01
Victim unreasonableness	2.71	1.36	0.24	0.656	0.01

Note: Effect of Education on average perception across vignette

Appendix S

Table 43. Test of Between-Subjects Effects for the Religion on Average Perception Over Vignette

Table 43.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for the Effect of Religion on Average Perception Over Vignette

Measure	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F (1,80)	p-value	Partial Eta Squared
Credibility	1.21	1.21	0.30	0.584	0.00
Blame	3.77	3.77	0.80	0.373	0.01
Victim agreement	0.41	0.41	0.17	0.68	0.00
Victim interest	0.17	0.17	0.05	0.823	0.00
Victim sexual provocativeness	6.83	6.83	0.84	0.363	0.01
Victim lying	5.12	5.12	0.88	0.351	0.01
Perpetrator reasonableness	2.08	2.08	0.43	0.515	0.01
Victim unreasonableness	3.04	3.04	0.94	0.335	0.01

Note: Effect of Sexual Orientation (Heterosexual/Non-Heterosexual) on average perception across vignette

Appendix T

Table 44. Mixed MANOVA Results for the Effect of Police Personnel Personal Characteristics on Perceptions Across Vignettes

Table 44.

Mixed MANOVA Results for the Effect of Police Personnel Personal Characteristics on Perceptions Across Vignettes

	Wilks' Lambda	**F**	**Hypothesis df**	**Error df**	**Sig.**	**Partial Eta Squared**
Between-Subjects						
Intercept	0.19	34.02	8	62	0	0.81
Gender	0.84	1.53	8	62	0.165	0.17
Sexual Orientation	0.90	0.88	8	62	0.539	0.10
Marital Status	0.76	0.75	24	180.42	0.791	0.09
Education	0.78	1.00	16	124	0.457	0.12
Religion status	0.85	1.41	8	62	0.209	0.15
Age	0.97	0.22	8	62	0.985	0.03
Within-Subjects						
Vignette	0.60	1.26	24	46	0.245	0.40
Vignette * Gender	0.64	1.07	24	46	0.416	0.36
Vignette * Sexual Orientation	0.62	1.16	24	46	0.326	0.38
Vignette * Marital Status	0.32	0.89	72	138.33	0.712	0.32
Vignette * Education	0.42	1.05	48	92	0.407	0.36
Vignette * Religion status	0.60	1.30	24	46	0.219	0.40
Vignette * Age	0.54	1.60	24	46	0.084	0.46

Appendix U

Table 45. Mixed MANOVA Results for the Effect of Police Personnel Professional Characteristics on Perceptions Across Vignettes

Table 45.

Mixed MANOVA Results for the Effect of Police Personnel Professional Characteristics on Perceptions Across Vignettes

	Wilks' Lambda	**F**	**Hypothesis df**	**Error df**	**Sig.**	**Partial Eta Squared**
Between-Subjects						
Intercept	0.06	114.22	8	57	0	0.94
Education	0.75	1.12	16	114	0.346	0.14
Rank	0.83	,684	16	114	0.804	0.09
Role	0.74	2.49	8	57	0.022	0.26
Hours of training	0.87	1.11	8	57	0.371	0.14
Years of Experience	0.91	0.72	8	57	0.671	0.09
Within-Subjects						
Vignette	0.61	1.11	24	41	0.376	0.39
Vignette * Education	0.37	1.09	48	82	0.365	0.39
Vignette * Rank	0.36	1.16	48	82	0.277	0.40
Vignette * Role	0.77	0.52	24	41	0.955	0.23
Vignette * Hours of training	0.67	0.85	24	41	0.665	0.33
Vignette * Years of Experience	0.60	1.16	24	41	0.332	0.40

Appendix V

Table 46. Post Hoc Tests for the Effect of Role on the Perception: Pairwise Comparisons: Serious Crime VS Other

Table 46.

Post Hoc Tests for the Effect of Role on the Perception: Pairwise Comparisons: Serious Crime VS Other

Measure	**Mean Difference**	**Std. Error**	**p-value**	**95% Confidence Interval for Difference**	
				Lower Bound	**Upper Bound**
Credibility	-0.05	0.30	0.863	-0.65	0.55
Blame	-0.19	0.33	0.559	-0.85	0.46
Victim agreement	0.05	0.24	0.847	-0.43	0.52
Victim interest	0.48	0.27	0.078	-0.05	1.01
Victim sexual provocativeness	-0.40	0.43	0.358	-1.27	0.46
Victim lying	-0.11	0.36	0.758	-0.83	0.61
Perpetrator reasonableness	0.15	0.32	0.648	-0.49	0.79
Victim unreasonableness	0.38	0.26	0.148	-0.14	0.91

Note. Based on estimated marginal means, Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni

Appendix W

Table 47. Test of Between-Subjects Effects for the Role on Average Perception Over Vignette

Table 47.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for the effect of Role on Average Perception Over Vignette

Measure	Type III Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F (1,64)	p-value	Partial Eta Squared
Credibility	0.13	0.13	0.03	0.863	0.00
Blame	1.80	1.80	0.35	0.559	0.01
Victim agreement	0.10	0.10	0.04	0.847	0.00
Victim interest	11.03	11.03	3.22	0.078	0.05
Victim sexual provocativeness	7.71	7.71	0.86	0.358	0.01
Victim lying	0.60	0.60	0.10	0.758	0.00
Perpetrator reasonableness	1.04	1.04	0.21	0.648	0.00
Victim unreasonableness	6.99	6.99	2.14	0.148	0.03

Note. Effect of Hours of Role (Serious Crime/ Other) on average perception across vignette