

A FEAR APPEAL APPROACH TO  
WEB-BASED SEXUAL OFFENDER  
COMMUNITY NOTIFICATION

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By  
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## ABSTRACT

Community notification aims to warn the public when reintegrating sexual offenders represent a significant risk to public safety. However, anxiety and powerlessness are often unintentional side-effects of notification. Fear appeals are persuasive messages that arouse fear of a threat and may include recommended actions for avoiding the threat. This research applied a fear appeal theory, the Extended Parallel Processing Model (EPPM), to community notification web pages. Study 1, a systematic review of existing community notification web pages, informed the development of a “traditional” web page vignette for Study 2. Study 2 compared the traditional web page format to a “high efficacy” web page intervention, which comprised educational information on avoiding sexual victimization. The EPPM predicted positive correlations between fear and perceived threat (hypothesis 1), fear and behavioural intentions (hypothesis 2), and perceived efficacy and intentions to adopt victimization prevention behaviours (hypothesis 4) as well as negative correlations between perceived efficacy and maladaptive fear control responses (hypothesis 3). The intervention group was predicted to have higher perceived threat, higher perceived efficacy, be less likely to adopt fear control responses, and more likely to endorse behavioural intentions than the control group (hypothesis 5). Female participants were hypothesized to have higher fear, perceived threat, fear control responses, and behavioural intentions and lower perceived efficacy than male participants (hypothesis 6). The results provide preliminary support for the EPPM’s ability to explain reactions to receiving a community notification. Hypotheses 1, 2, and 4 were fully supported and hypothesis 6 was partially supported as females displayed higher fear, perceived threat, and behavioural intentions; however, the intervention was ineffective in producing differences between the intervention and control groups (hypothesis 5). Exploratory regression analyses found gender, education level, previous victimization, parental status, and locus of control were related to the EPPM’s variables. Future research should examine the impact of different educational materials and delivery systems (such as interpersonal sources, media, and web-based multi-media) to further examine the application of the EPPM to web-based sexual offender community notification and determine whether it is possible to increase adaptive responses to receiving a community notification by providing educational information.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AFOIPPA	Alberta Freedom of Information and Protection of Privacy Act
ARQCS	An Act Respecting the Québec Correctional System
CCRA	Corrections and Conditional Release Act
CL	Christopher's Law
COSA	Circles of Support and Accountability program
CSC	Correctional Service of Canada
EPPM	Extended Parallel Process Model
LOC	Locus of Control
NAIPPA	Nunavut Access to Information and Protection of Privacy Act
NLAIPPA	Newfoundland and Labrador Access to Information and Protection of Privacy Act
NSFOIPPA	Nova Scotia Freedom of Information and Protection of Privacy Act
NWTAIPPA	Northwest Territories' Access to Information and Protection of Privacy Act
PFOIPPA	Prince Edward Island Freedom of Information and Protection of Privacy Act
PPIA	Protection of Personal Information Act
PSA	Police Services Act
SOIRA	Sexual Offender Information Registration Act
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
YAIPPA	Yukon Access to Information and Protection of Privacy Act

## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

In Canada, sex offenders found guilty in adult court are regularly sentenced to incarceration (Statistics Canada, 2003); however, due to the nature of sentencing in Canada, the majority of offenders will return to the community after serving their sentence. Over the last two decades, increasing concern about sexual offenders has led to the enactment of legislation requiring that the public be notified when a sexual offender is released into the community. The public and media are becoming increasingly concerned with the presence of sexual offenders in the community (Brannon, Levenson, Fortney, & Baker, 2007; Craun & Theriot, 2008; Fortney, Levenson, Brannon, & Baker, 2007; Katz-Schiavone & Jeglic, 2009; Lave, 2011; Romer, Jamieson, & Aday, 2003) and oftentimes offenders released into the community are met with hostility (Zevitz & Farkas, 2000). As media coverage and misconceptions about sex offenders fuel public fear, residents may be unsure as to how to protect themselves and their families from this salient threat (Surette, 1994; Zevitz, 2003). It is important to ensure community members are provided with appropriate information to reduce the likelihood that residents will react to a sex offender's release with a sense of fear, powerlessness, and other maladaptive emotional responses (Winick, 1998; Zevitz & Farkas).

### **1.1 Community Notification Legislation**

The basic premise of community notification is that by informing members of the public of the presence of sexual offenders in their communities, community members will take measures to protect themselves against those sexual offenders—although what types of protective measures should be taken are unclear (Beck, Clingermayer, Ramsey, & Travis, 2004; Veysey, Zgoba, & Dalessandro, 2008). Community notification legislation in North America has resulted from several high profile cases in which children were abducted, sexually assaulted, and killed. The community notification movement began in the United States with the sexual murder of seven-year Megan Kanka by Jesse Timmendequas in New Jersey in July of 1994 (Schopf, 1996; Veysey et al., 2008) and has spread to other Western countries including Canada and the United Kingdom (West, 2000). Timmendequas was a repeat sexual offender who lived across the street from Megan and whose presence was not known to Megan's parents (Petrosino & Petrosino, 1999). Megan's mother, Maureen Kanka, felt that if she had been informed about Timmendequas' presence in the neighbourhood, she would have taken appropriate steps to

prevent her daughter from approaching his house (Cohen & Jeglic, 2007; Levenson & D'Amora, 2007; Meloy, Miller, & Curtis, 2008; Winick, 1998).

While the *Jacob Wetterling Crimes Against Children and Sexually Violent Offender Registration Act* (JWA), which required all American states to implement sexual offender registries or be faced with funding cuts (JWA, 1994; Petrunik, 2003), had been enacted in 1994, there was no legislation requiring the police to notify community members and organisations of a sexual offender's release. Kanka lobbied to enact legislation in New Jersey requiring residents to be notified when a sex offender is released into their community (Petrosino & Petrosino, 1999). In 1995, Congressman Dick Zimmer (NJ-Rep) sponsored *Megan's Law*, a federal statute which would require all American states to enact community notification procedures (Welchans, 2005). *Megan's Law*, North America's first community notification legislation, was passed in 1996 as an amendment to the *Jacob Wetterling Act*. The amendment changed the language of the statute from "local law enforcement agencies 'may' disclose relevant information as needed to protect the public" to "local law enforcement agencies 'shall' release relevant information that is necessary to protect the public" (Koenig, 1998, p. 729). Subsequent legislation, the *Adam Walsh Child Protection and Safety Act* (AWA), enacted in 2006, establishes a national registry in the United States and required that all states participate in the national registry by 2009 or lose 10 percent of their federal justice funding (AWA, 2006; Freeman & Sandler, 2010; Lave, 2011).

In Canada, the implementation of sex offender registries and community notification laws has been slower and more cautious than in the United States (Petrunik, 2003). Sexual offender registration in Canada was precipitated by the abduction and murder of Christopher Stephenson in 1988. The perpetrator, Joseph Fredericks, was a repeat offender who was on mandatory supervision following his release from prison three months earlier (Petrunik, 2003). Fredericks committed the offence shortly after changing his address and his parole officer was unaware of the location of his new residence (Petrunik, 2003). In the United States, the federal government passed sexual offender registry legislation within a year of the precipitating offence and passed community notification legislation within two years (Petrunik, 2003). By contrast, in Canada, a sex offender registry was created twelve years after the death of Christopher Stephenson, and then only in the province of Ontario (Petrunik, 2003). The federal legislation mandating the creation of a national sex offender registry, the *Sexual Offender Information Registration Act* (SOIRA), was passed in 2004. The sex offender registry is to be managed by the Royal

Canadian Mounted Police (SOIRA, 2004). However, unlike in the United States, the information collected under the SOIRA is not to be shared with the general public (SOIRA).

Canada currently does not have federal community notification legislation. However, information-sharing among organisations responsible for supervising offenders is legislated under Section 25 of the *Corrections and Conditional Release Act* (CCRA, 1992). Section 25(1) outlines the Correctional Service of Canada's (CSC) duty to provide information pertinent to releasing or supervising offenders to the national and provincial parole boards, provincial governments, police, and "any body authorized by the Service to supervise offenders" (CCRA). In addition, Sections 25(2) and 25(3) require CSC to notify the police and share appropriate information when an offender is to be released for unescorted temporary absences, parole, and statutory releases or when CSC believes an offender whose release is impending due to sentence expiration may be dangerous to a specific person or the general public (CCRA).

While no federal legislation has been enacted mandating community notification in Canada, legislation exists in every province and territory that allows the disclosure of information about offenders to the public. However, information tends to be disclosed to the public only under exceptional circumstances (Petrunik, 2003). Ontario's sex offender registry legislation, *Christopher's Law* (CL, 2000), permits information-sharing only for the purposes of updating an offender's registry information. However, an amendment to the *Police Services Act* (PSA, 2005) allows law enforcement organisations to disclose information about offenders who pose a significant risk to the public (CL; Ministry of Community Safety and Correctional Services, 2004; PSA, 2005). In Québec, *An Act Respecting the Québec Correctional System* allows the provincial correctional system to disclose information to victims or other persons when there is "reasonable cause to believe that the offender's release may compromise the safety of that person" (ARQCS, 2004); however, there is no allowance for more widespread public disclosure.

Several provinces do not have notification-specific legislation; however, in many cases, provincial and territorial privacy legislation may allow the release of information about sex offenders. In Alberta, community notification is regulated under the *Freedom of Information and Protection of Privacy Act* (AFOIPPA, 2000). Under the *AFOIPPA*, information must be disclosed when it concerns "a risk of significant harm to the environment or to the health or safety of the public" (AFOIPPA). Alberta also operates a community notification website

containing press releases about released high risk offenders (Alberta Solicitor General and Public Safety, 2007).

In the Atlantic provinces, Newfoundland and Labrador's privacy legislation, the *Access to Information and Protection of Privacy Act*, requires information to be disclosed to the public or a group of people when it relates to "a risk of significant harm to the environment or to the health or safety of the public or a group of people" and the disclosure is "clearly in the public interest" (NLAIPPA, 2002). Prince Edward Island and Nova Scotia both have privacy legislation entitled the *Freedom of Information and Protection of Privacy Act* which use similar wording to Newfoundland and Labrador's *NLAIPPA* legislation (NSFOIPPA, 1993; PFOIPPA, 2005). New Brunswick's legislation, the *Protection of Personal Information Act*, allows for the disclosure of personal information without the person's consent to protect "the health, safety or security of the public or of an individual" (PIIA, 1998).

The territories also have applicable privacy legislation. In the Yukon, the *Access to Information and Protection of Privacy Act* allows personal information to be disclosed to the public or group of people if there are "reasonable grounds to believe that the information would reveal the existence of a serious environmental, health, or safety hazard to the public or group of people" (YAIPPA, 2002). Similarly, the Northwest Territories' privacy legislation, the *Access to Information and Protection of Privacy Act*, allows the disclosure of personal information in cases where "the disclosure is likely to promote public health and safety" (NWTAIPPA, 1996). The territory of Nunavut has adopted the same privacy legislation as the Northwest Territories (NAIPPA, 1996).

Other provinces have implemented committees to review the files of soon-to-be-released offenders and provide recommendations to law enforcement regarding whether notification is appropriate. In British Columbia, the Attorney General implemented the *Notification Policy to Protect Children from Sexual Abuse* in 1994 (British Columbia Civil Liberties Association, 1999; John Howard Society of Alberta, 1997). The policy was enacted to allow information-sharing between the agencies responsible for recommending notification (British Columbia Civil Liberties Association, 1999). The High Risk Offender Community Advisory Program was created in support of this function and includes a committee which reviews the files of released offenders and determines whether notification is advisable (British Columbia Civil Liberties Association, 1999). The committee comprises representatives from CSC, British Columbia



Corrections, the Royal Canadian Mounted Police, municipal police, the Attorney General's Public Safety and Regulatory Branch, and the Criminal Justice Branch (Crown Prosecution and Victim Services; British Columbia Civil Liberties Association, 1999).

The province of Saskatchewan has a *Sex Offender Registry Act* (2001) which allows law enforcement to access the registry and use the information for "crime prevention or law enforcement purposes." In addition, Saskatchewan has a body that reviews the files of offenders who are reintegrating into the community (Corrections, Public Safety and Policing [CPSP], 2007; Lieb, Quinsey, & Berliner, 1998). The Public Disclosure Committee operates under the Ministry of Corrections, Public Safety and Policing and provides municipal police with recommendations regarding the release of information about both sexual and non-sexual offenders who pose a serious threat to public safety (CPSP, 2007; Lieb et al., 1998).

The Manitoba *Correctional Services Act* (1998) allows the commissioner of provincial corrections to disclose information to appropriate law enforcement officials when there are reasonable grounds to indicate that a released offender poses a threat to any person. The Manitoba Community Notification Advisory Committee is comprised of representatives from municipal, provincial, and federal justice agencies (John Howard Society of Alberta, 1997; Lieb et al., 1998). The committee reviews offender files and provides recommendations regarding public notification (John Howard Society of Alberta; Lieb et al., 1998). Manitoba Justice also currently houses a community notification website that includes press releases on high sex risk offenders (Manitoba Justice, 2007).

### **1.1.1 Types of Community Notification**

Until the *Adam Walsh Act*, community notification laws in the United States did not specify the means by which law enforcement officials must notify the public about released sex offenders, which has resulted in wide variability in approaches to disclosure (AWA, 2006; Finn, 1997; Freeman & Sandler, 2010; Heberton & Thomas, 1997). Generally, police use four methods to disclose information about sex offenders to the community (Freeman & Sandler, 2010; Heberton & Thomas, 1997). In most American states, a three-tier system has been adopted whereby the offender's risk of re-offending is assessed and the extent of disclosure is tailored to reflect the offender's risk level (Ackerman, Harris, Levenson, & Zgoba, 2011; Cohen & Jeglic, 2007; Winick, 1998) although, with the enactment of the *Adam Walsh Act*, all American states must now classify offenders according to their conviction and sentence length

(AWA; Freeman & Sandler, 2010). Typically, police notify community agencies, schools, businesses, and neighbours living within a specified radius to the offender, depending on the offender's risk level (Hebenton & Thomas, 1997; Matson & Lieb, 1996a). Level I offenders are the lowest risk and their information is typically shared only with law enforcement agencies (Matson & Lieb, 1996a; Schram & Milloy, 1995). Level II represents a moderate risk group whose information is shared with law enforcement, schools, neighbours, and community agencies within a specified radius of the offender's residence (Matson & Lieb, 1996a; Schram & Milloy, 1995). Finally, Level III offenders are at the highest risk of re-offending and are subject to broad dissemination of information, typically in the form of press releases or flyers (Matson & Lieb, 1996a; Schram & Milloy, 1995).

The second type of community notification is one in which state legislation specifies which types of offender will be subject to notification as well as the level of dissemination and the disclosure method to be used for each offender type (Hebenton & Thomas, 1997). In this case, law enforcement officials have no discretion to tailor the disclosure approach to individual offenders' unique circumstances.

The third method places responsibility on offenders to personally disclose their offence to the public (Rudin, 1996). For example, in Louisiana, offenders are responsible for notifying all residents within a mile radius of their residence by mailing a notice containing their name, address, and the nature of their criminal offence (Matson & Lieb, 1996b; Rudin, 1996). In addition, the offender must publish a notice in the local newspaper (Matson & Lieb, 1996b; Rudin, 1996).

Finally, all American states and some Canadian provinces have adopted a passive notification system in which members of the public are responsible for contacting the police or visiting a registry website to determine whether any sexual offenders reside in their neighbourhood (Matson & Lieb, 1996a; Winick, 1998). All states currently have a publicly accessible website from which any member of the public may search for offenders registered in their community using a name, address, or zip code (Federal Bureau of Investigation, n.d.). Typically, notification web pages report the offender's name, description or photo, the offender's residential and/or work address, a description of their crime(s), and the age of the victim(s) (Matson & Lieb, 1996a, 1996b).

### **1.1.2 Criticisms of Community Notification Legislation**

#### **1.1.2.1 Reliance on community members to act as natural guardians**

*Megan's Law* aims to manage released offenders' risk in order to reduce sexual victimization and improve public safety. The law's basic premise is to provide parents and community organisations with information about sex offenders released into their neighbourhoods (Sample, Evans, & Anderson, 2011; Sample & Kadleck, 2008; Simon, 1998; Sperber, Lowenkamp, Carter, & Allman, 2010; Winick, 1998). Proponents argue that *Megan's Law* ultimately empowers parents to protect their children by providing information about sexual offenders (Beck & Travis, 2004a; Cohen & Jeglic, 2007; Craun, 2010; Freeman-Longo, 1996; Letourneau, Levenson, Bandyopadhyay, Sinha, & Armstrong, 2010; Levenson & D'Amora, 2007; Phillips, 1998; Sample et al., 2011; Sample & Kadleck, 2008; Winick, 1998). It is hoped that this information leads to reductions in sexual victimization and improvements in public safety by promoting community surveillance, reducing the ease with which offenders gain access to victims, and increasing the community's reporting of high risk behaviours (Beck & Travis, 2004a, 2004c; Freeman-Longo, 1996; Sample et al., 2011). Thus, due to their awareness of the sex offender's presence, members of the public are able to take measures to protect their children and themselves and contact the police when they feel the offender is in danger of re-offending (Freeman-Longo, 1996; Simon, 1998). However, the legislation has been increasingly criticized by researchers as its implementation was primarily the result of public pressure on the justice system to manage the perceived escalation of sex offending and has not been implemented based on empirical research or best practices in risk management (Brannon et al., 2007; Fortney et al., 2007; Chaffin, 2008; Edwards & Hensley, 2001; Freeman-Longo, 1996; Katz-Schiavone & Jeglic, 2009; Katz-Schiavone, Levenson, & Ackerman, 2008; Lave, 2011; Levenson, Brannon, Fortney, & Baker, 2007; Sample et al., 2011; Tewksbury, 2007; West, 2000).

On the surface, the reasoning behind community notification may appear similar to a restorative justice approach in which increasing community involvement and having community members act as informal agents of control is believed to effect behavioural change in the offender (Wilson, Pichea, & Prinzo, 2005; Young, Taxman, & Byrne, 2002). At the core of this restorative justice approach is the philosophy that community members acting as natural guardians are able to effect greater and longer-lasting behavioural changes than formal agents of control (Young et al., 2002). The restorative justice model relies on community members

recognising the signs of a relapse and responding appropriately to manage the offender's risk (Travis, 2000; Wilson, Huculak, & McWhinnie, 2002; Wilson et al., 2005). Because the natural guardians are familiar with the offender's behaviour and are more capable of effectively monitoring the offender than formal agents of control, they are better equipped to respond to the offender's behaviour (Wilson et al., 2005; Young et al., 2002). An example of this approach is the Circles of Support and Accountability program (COSA), a promising initiative that was implemented in a Mennonite community in Ontario, Canada (Wilson et al., 2002; Wilson et al., 2005). Volunteer community members involved with COSA help high risk sex offenders to reintegrate into the community by teaching important life skills and monitoring the offender for signs of relapse (Wilson et al., 2002; Wilson et al., 2005).

Despite the superficial similarities, community notification differs from restorative justice reintegrative approaches in several important ways. For example, COSA volunteers are trained to recognise signs that the offender may relapse and work closely with the justice system to monitor the offender (Wilson et al., 2002; Wilson et al., 2005). In comparison, community members receiving a notification may not receive the information necessary to accurately identify signs that an offender may relapse (Finn, 1997; Heberton & Thomas, 1997). In addition, COSA volunteers actively provide the sex offender with a social support system rather than serving only a monitoring function as is the case in community notification (Wilson et al., 2002; Wilson et al., 2005). Finally, individuals involved with COSA choose to bring the sex offender into their lives, whereas in normal reintegration situations, the sex offender's neighbours do not choose to have the offender released into their neighbourhood (Wilson et al., 2002; Wilson et al., 2005).

#### **1.1.2.2 Difficulties reintegrating into the community**

Negative reactions to the placement of sex offenders in a neighbourhood range from hostility to vigilantism and may hinder sex offenders' reintegration (Center for Sex Offender Management [CSOM], 2001; Levenson & Cotter, 2005; Prentky, 1996; Tewksbury, 2007; Tewksbury & Lees, 2006). Hence, community notification laws likely do not serve a reintegrative function but rather may stigmatise the offender and lead to the offender being ostracised from the community (Edwards & Hensley, 2001; Freeman-Longo, 1996; Robbers, 2009). Zevitz and Farkas (2000) interviewed 30 offenders in Wisconsin and found that 77 percent felt ostracised, 57 percent had lost employment, and 83 percent had been evicted from

their residence due to community notification laws. A thematic analysis of interviews with 22 registered sexual offenders conducted by Tewksbury and Lees (2006) revealed difficulties with gaining and maintaining employment; experiencing rejection from family, friends, and co-workers; and being harassed. Participants also communicated that their status as a registered sexual offender led to them being stigmatized. Levenson and Cotter (2005) surveyed 183 sex offenders participating in outpatient counselling in Florida and found 20 percent moved when their landlord learned of their status as a sex offender and 15 percent moved when a neighbour complained of their presence in the community. In addition, 27 percent had lost employment after their employer or a co-worker discovered their status as a sex offender, 67 percent felt shame and embarrassment which stopped them from engaging in activities, 64 percent felt alone and isolated, and 52 percent had lost close relationships as a result of notification. Robbers (2009) interviewed 153 registered sexual offenders in Virginia and found a wide variety of negative effects related to registration and community notification including experiencing threats or harassment from neighbours (22%), loss of residence (27%), loss of job (49%), being underemployed (90%), and feelings of isolation (88%), hopelessness (87%), shame (83%), and suicidal thoughts (27%).

In some cases, the stigmatisation of a sex offender may extend to the offender's family, friends, and employers (Edwards & Hensley, 2001). Publicly identifying an offender has the potential to stigmatise the offender's victims, particularly in highly publicised cases or in cases of incest (Freeman-Longo, 1996). Freeman-Longo discusses anecdotal accounts of incest victims refraining from reporting their victimization for fear of being identified. In their interviews with 30 offenders in Wisconsin, Zevitz and Farkas (2000) found that 67 percent of offenders reported notifying the community of their presence in the neighbourhood had resulted in emotional harm to members of their family. Levenson and Cotter's (2005) survey in Florida found that 19 percent of offenders subject to notification reported the person they lived with had been threatened, harassed, assaulted, injured, or experienced property damage.

In extreme cases, negative community reactions to the presence of sex offenders in the community take the form of harassment or vigilantism (Freeman-Longo, 1996). Zevitz and Farkas (2000) found a total of 77 percent of respondents reported being threatened or harassed and three percent had been the victim of a vigilante attack. Levenson and Cotter's (2005) survey found that 33 percent of respondents reported being threatened or harassed by neighbours and

five percent were physically assaulted or injured during a vigilante attack. When Brannon et al. (2007) compared the experiences of 125 sexual offenders to awareness of 193 members of the public, they found approximately half of sexual offenders in their sample experienced vigilantism including threats and property damage, with approximately 13 percent of those offenders experiencing extreme vigilantism in the form of physical violence; awareness of any form of vigilantism among the public was much lower at 10 percent. Finally, Mercado and Cotter (2005) surveyed 138 sexual offenders residing in the community and found 52 percent had lost jobs, 48 percent reported being physically threatened or harassed, and 11 percent reported being physically assaulted since being released.

In several cases, non-offenders have fallen victim to vigilante attacks intended for the sex offender. For example, in September 2007, Melissa Chandler, the wife of a man convicted of possessing child pornography was killed in a house fire in Huntsville, Tennessee (Mansfield, 2007). The fire was allegedly set by two men who were attempting to scare Chandler's husband away (Mansfield, 2007). In the United Kingdom in 2002, two men were sentenced to life in prison for murdering Alf Wilkins, a man who had been cleared of being a suspected child molester (Wainwright, 2002; Wood, 2002). In one high profile case, a Canadian man, Stephen Marshall, used the state of Maine's sex offender registry website to look up nearly three dozen offenders. Marshall tracked down and killed two men, one of whom was on the registry website for statutorily raping his girlfriend two weeks before she reached the age of consent ("Changes to registry," 2006).

#### **1.1.2.3 Offender relapse and recidivism**

Due to stigmatisation and harassment associated with community notification, many researchers have hypothesized that community notification may be associated with increases in recidivism (Edwards & Hensley, 2001; Prentky, 1996). Studies that have examined the impact of community notification laws on offenders have found offenders generally feel more motivated not to re-offend as a result of community notification. Elbogen, Patry and Scalora (2003) surveyed 40 offenders undergoing treatment in a forensic treatment facility. While the majority of offenders felt *Megan's Law* was unfair, most respondents felt the law acted as a strong incentive to avoid recidivating. In their survey of sex offenders, Levenson and Cotter (2005) found 66 percent of respondents were more motivated to not re-offend as a result of *Megan's*

*Law*. In addition, 36 percent reported greater motivation to manage their risk factors due to the increased surveillance within the community.

However, while community notification may increase offenders' motivation to not re-offend, the laws may exacerbate factors associated with relapse among sex offenders (Duwe, Donnay, & Tewksbury, 2008; Edwards & Hensley, 2001; Prentky, 1996). The process of re-entering the community is stressful and increased stress is associated with an increased risk to re-offend and loss of treatment gains in sex offenders (Freeman-Longo, 1996; Marshall, Eccles, & Barbaree, 1993). As discussed above, community notification has been found to negatively impact offenders' abilities to maintain employment (Levenson & Cotter, 2005; Zevitz & Farkas, 2000), which has been identified as a dynamic risk factor for sexual offenders (Hanson & Harris, 1998). In addition, Levenson and Cotter found 71 percent of respondents felt *Megan's Law* interfered with treatment by increasing their stress and 49 percent felt "no one believes I can change so why try?"

While the effectiveness of community notification to reduce sex offender recidivism has been questioned by researchers, few studies have examined the law's impact on recidivism. While results have been mixed, the majority of studies examining the outcomes of registration and community notification laws have found little impact on recidivism. The most common form of outcome study has used pre-post quasi-experimental designs comparing sexual offenders subject to registration and/or community notification to pre-registration samples comprising offenders who likely would have been subject to notification.

Schram and Milloy (1995) used survival analysis to estimate and compare the recidivism rates of 125 Level III sex offenders in Washington State to a matched comparison group of 90 offenders who were released prior to the law's implementation. During the 54 month follow up period, offenders who were subject to community notification were arrested significantly more quickly than the comparison group. However, there was a non-significant difference in the general recidivism rate. Specifically, 57 percent of offenders in the notification group were estimated to re-offend compared to 47 percent of the comparison group offenders. In addition, the difference in the sexual recidivism rate was also non-significant (19 percent in the notification group compared to 22 percent for the comparison group). The authors concluded that community notification may have resulted in offenders being re-arrested more quickly but there was a negligible effect on recidivism rates.

Adkins, Hugg, and Stageberg (2000) examined whether being required to register affected recidivism in a sample of 233 sexual offenders in Iowa (compared to a pre-registry sample of 201 offenders). No significant differences were found in all types of recidivism over a mean follow-up time of 4.3 years. Sexual recidivism for the registry and pre-registry samples was 3 percent and 3.5 percent, respectively. The general recidivism rate was 24.5 percent for the registry sample and 33.3 percent for the pre-registry sample.

Sandler, Freeman, and Socia (2008) used a time-series analysis to examine sexual re-arrest rates in the 10 years prior to and 11 years following the implementation of New York State's *Sexual Offender Registration Act*. No significant differences were found in re-offence rates of rapists, child molesters, first-time sexual offenders, and recidivist sexual offenders although significant reductions in the robbery rate (contrary to state-wide trends) were found; importantly, 95 percent of re-arrests for sexual offences were committed by first-time sexual offenders, a group that community notification is unlikely to impact.

Zgoba, Witt, Dalessandro, and Veysey (2008) and Veysey et al. (2008) conducted trend analyses examining sexual offending in the 10 years preceding and following implementation of New Jersey's *Megan's Law*. They found no significant differences in sexual re-arrests prior to (10.0%) and following (7.6%) the implementation of *Megan's Law* and no effect on time to re-arrest. Reductions in sexual crime rates began before *Megan's Law* was implemented and took place within a general state-wide crime reduction trend. There was a significantly steeper decline in sexual recidivism rate following the implementation of *Megan's Law* although Veysey et al. note that the "change point" in the trends occurred prior to the implementation of *Megan's Law*. When the state-level data were disaggregated to the county-level, the trends in only 9 of the 21 counties followed trends similar to the state-level trends. The authors conclude factors other than *Megan's Law* may have been responsible for the findings.

Two studies using a pre-post design have found significant impacts on sexual offending related to registration and community notification. Barnoski (2005) examined re-conviction for any, violent, and sexual felony offences in 8,359 sexual offenders released in Washington State prior to and following the implementation of registration and community notification. After controlling for decreasing crime trends, non-significant differences were found in overall felony recidivism; however, significant differences were found in both violent offending and sexual



offending (the sexual offence rate was 7% prior to and 2% following the implementation of the law).

Duwe and Donnay (2008) compared the recidivism rates of 155 level three sexual offenders subject to broad community notification released in Minnesota between 1997 and 2002 and two control groups: a pre-notification group of 125 sexual offenders (matched for risk) released in the seven years prior to the implementation of the law and a non-notification group of 155 level one and two sexual offenders who were released between 1997 and 2002 but not subject to broad community notification. After a three-year follow-up, the notification group had a sexual reconviction rate of 3.2 percent, compared to 32.8 percent for the pre-notification group and 9.6 percent for the non-notification group. The general reconviction rate was 14.8 percent for the notification group, 54.4 percent for the pre-notification group, and 20.8 percent for the non-notification group. Cox regression analyses found community notification to be related to a significantly reduced risk of timing in the notification group compared to both control groups for sexual re-offending but not general re-offending. However, it is important to note that the vast majority of level three offenders in Minnesota are released into intensive supervision. As a result, it was not possible to attribute decreases in recidivism solely to community notification and the authors did not control for community-based treatment.

The few studies that have compared offenders subject to community notification with those released concurrently but not subject to notification have found non-significant differences in recidivism. Zevitz (2006) compared the recidivism rate of 47 offenders subject to extensive notification with a matched sample of 166 offenders subject to limited notification in Wisconsin. No significant differences were found between the groups' re-arrest rates, with 19 percent of the extensive notification group being re-arrested compared to 12 percent of the limited notification group. There were also no re-arrests for predator, stranger-type sexual offences during the follow-up period, suggesting notification did not accomplish its intended objective. Letourneau and Armstrong (2008) compared 111 registered juvenile sexual offenders with a matched sample of 111 non-registered youth. The average follow-up period was 4.3 years. The sexual recidivism rates were too low (2 re-offences) to conduct between-group analyses; however, registered youth were more likely to have a reconviction for non-person offences but not more likely to have a reconviction for non-sexual person offences. Freeman (2009) compared 10,592 level three offenders (subject to notification) with 6,573 level one and two offenders (not subject

to notification) and found no significant differences up to five years following release (5.2% vs. 4.4% for the notification and non-notification groups, respectively) although level three offenders were re-arrested more quickly than offenders in levels one or two.

Finally, retrospective studies using registration status to predict re-offending have not been supportive of these laws' effectiveness. Petrosino and Petrosino (1999) conducted a retroactive study in which they estimated the number of offences that could have been prevented by community notification under *Megan's Law* (i.e., predatory offences committed against strangers). The sample comprised 136 sexual psychopaths who were clinically diagnosed as habitual or compulsive offenders and being held indeterminately in a maximum security institution in Massachusetts. The authors assumed that each of the offenders in the sample would have been classified as the most serious type of offender (Level III) under the Massachusetts community notification system. They found that 33 percent of offenders who would have been required to register committed 12 predatory offences against strangers upon their release. Subsequent analyses determined the likelihood that a potential victim would have received a notification based on the geographic location of the victim's residence. The authors concluded that, of the 12 re-offences, there was a "good" probability four victims would have received a notification and there was a "poor" to "moderate" probability two victims would have received a notification. However, the authors assumed that each participant was compliant with the sex offender registry and police would have notified the community in all cases. Thus, the study overestimated the law's potential. In addition, the authors note the ability of community notification to prevent future victimizations is dependent on the efficacy of the type of notification used as well as on the future victim receiving the notification and adopting appropriate behaviours to avoid being victimised.

Prescott and Rockoff (2008, cited with permission) developed mathematical models to test the influence of sexual offender registration and notification laws on sexual recidivism using data for 15 states from the National Incidence-Based Reporting System. The implementation of broad notification was associated with increased recidivism in registered offenders and sexual recidivism was positively correlated with the number of sexual offenders subject to broad community notification. Their models found that introducing broad notification did not decrease stranger-type sexual offending but did reduce first-time sex offences 12 percent, suggesting a deterrent effect.

Freeman and Sandler (2010) examined whether retrospectively classifying offenders according to crime of conviction and sentence length according to the requirements of the *Adam Walsh Act* predicted sexual offending in 17,165 registered sex offenders in New York State. Tier 1 offenders (considered to be “lowest” risk according to the legislation) were arrested for both sexual and non-sexual offences more quickly and at a higher rate than Tier 2 and Tier 3 (“higher” risk) offenders, suggesting the new classification system will be ineffective at accurately assigning offenders according to risk.

Letourneau et al. (2010) used Cox relative risk modelling to determine whether registration status predicted recidivism in 6,064 male offenders in South Carolina over an 8.4-year follow-up. Registration status did not predict recidivism (neither charges nor convictions).

Sperber et al. (2010) examined the relationship between actuarially assessed risk and registration and notification status in 210 sexual offenders in Ohio. They found no significant relationship between the actuarially predicted probability of re-offence and notification assignment. In addition, every offender assessed as highest risk on the STATIC-99 and LSI-R were assigned the lowest level of registration and notification. Many variables shown to predict sexual recidivism (such as male victims) were not predictive of notification assignment.

### **1.1.3 Opportunities for Public Education**

The goal of community notification is to reduce offenders’ opportunities to re-offend by providing residents with information that will allow them to take precautionary measures to safeguard against sexual victimization (Brannon et al., 2007; CSOM, 2001; Fortney et al., 2007; Katz-Schiavone & Jeglic, 2009; Katz-Schiavone et al., 2008; Levenson et al., 2007; Mears, Mancini, Gertz, & Bratton, 2008; Sample & Kadleck, 2008; Zevitz & Farkas, 2000). Some types of community notification, such as face-to-face disclosure at community meetings or door-to-door contact, are viewed by parole and probation officers as a means of educating the public (Hebenton & Thomas, 1997). These methods of dissemination allow officers to describe the sex offender’s risk management plan as well as the nature of sexual abuse and offending (Hebenton & Thomas, 1997).

Accordingly, providing educational information on sexual abuse during community notification has been recommended in previous community notification research. Zevitz and Farkas (2000) recommended that information on sexual abuse, including its incidence, grooming techniques used by sex offenders to gain access to victims, symptoms of sexual abuse, and

protective strategies be provided at community notification meetings and in informational materials. Finn (1997) recommended that community notification not only advise residents when a sex offender is released into their neighbourhood, but also educate the community about sexual offending. The recommended information includes describing the offender's *modus operandi* (or pattern of offending behaviour) as well as the typical sexual offender's offence patterns. Finn also recommended informing community members about the incidence of stranger offences relative to the incidence of offences where the offender is known to the victim.

Very little research has been conducted to examine whether and how informational materials have a positive impact on notified residents, although informational materials have been found to be useful for notified residents. In an examination of the usefulness of the information and materials provided to individuals attending community notification meetings, Zevitz and Farkas (2000) found 92 percent of respondents rated the information in the meeting as very or moderately helpful. In addition, 89 percent of respondents felt the handout materials distributed at the meetings were helpful. The authors recommended information and materials in community notification meetings should be prepared in a way that is informative but does not arouse undue alarm.

### **1.2 Public Reactions to Receiving a Community Notification**

Ideally, community notification provides members of the public with a measure of control over what is perceived to be a prominent and significant threat to their wellbeing (Beck & Travis, 2004a; Winick, 1998). However, feelings of insecurity, powerlessness, anxiety, and fear are often unintentional side-effects of notification (Beck & Travis; Zevitz, 2003; Winick, 1998).

Ferraro (1995) distinguishes between affective and cognitive crime perceptions. The affective component comprises *fear of victimization* and the cognitive component includes judgments and perceptions of *risk of victimization* (Ferraro, 1995). Authors have also distinguished between two different levels of reference (Beck & Travis, 2004a, 2006b; Beck et al., 2004). The first level, *altruistic*, refers to fear that others will be victimised or a perception that others are at risk of victimization (Beck et al., 2004; Ferraro, 1995). The second level refers to *personal* fear (i.e., of self-victimization) or risk perceptions (Beck et al., 2004; Ferraro, 1995). Previous research into the effects of community notification on community members have focused on three dependent variables: fear of victimization, perceived risk of victimization, and

behavioural changes (or intentions). However, only some studies have distinguished between personal or altruistic fear of victimization and risk perceptions.

### **1.2.1 Fear of Victimization**

Zevitz (2003), Phillips (1998), and Zevitz and Farkas (2000) have reported residents tend to report experiencing increased levels of fear following notification, but these studies did not distinguish between the fear of self- or other-victimization and did not use a control group. Zevitz conducted an in-person survey of 147 residents in a neighbourhood in Racine, Wisconsin who had received notification of the placement of a high profile offender in their neighbourhood. Zevitz reported that notified residents experienced fear, anger, a sense of loss, and a distrust of the government.

Phillips (1998) conducted a telephone survey of approximately 400 residents in Washington State. While approximately 60 percent of respondents felt community notification makes sex offenders less likely to re-offend, Phillips notes that notification increased fear in some respondent groups. More than 80 percent of females reported being at least somewhat fearful after learning of the sex offender's presence in their neighbourhood; however, this effect was not seen in males. In addition, 78 percent of individuals aged 30 to 40 years and 53 percent of respondents aged 51 to 65 years were fearful after being notified.

Zevitz and Farkas (2000) distributed a questionnaire to attendees ( $N = 704$ ) at 22 community notification meetings in Wisconsin. The manner in which individuals attending the community meetings found out about the meeting was significantly related to their level of concern about the sex offender's presence in their community. Individuals who found out about the meeting via an official source, such as a press release, official flyer, or contact with law enforcement or elected representatives, were significantly less concerned than individuals who found out through a friend, neighbour, or community member. After attending the community notification meeting, 38 percent of respondents were more concerned whereas 35 percent were less concerned.

Kernsmith, Craun, and Foster (2009) examined differences in level of fear of different types of sexual offenders (incest, statutory rape, juvenile, spousal rape, pedophile, date rape, and an offence committed 10 years earlier) in a sample of 733 Michigan residents. They found that, while all types of sexual offenders elicited fear from participants, fear was related to the victim's

age, with the greatest amount of fear being toward pedophiles and incest offenders. Level of fear was positively correlated with support for registration.

Finally, one study has examined the effect of different types of community notification on fear of victimization. Beck and Travis (2006b) compared 87 notified and 149 non-notified respondents in the state of Ohio and 109 notified and 115 non-notified residents in the state of Kentucky. Ohio has adopted a proactive notification approach in which law enforcement officials send a written notification to residents of the school district into which the offender is to be released. In comparison, Kentucky uses a passive notification procedure, requiring residents to take the initiative to search the registry website to determine if a sex offender resides near their residence. The authors found that the means by which the respondent was notified was unrelated to fear of victimization. Notification was also unrelated to fear of personal victimization or altruistic fear of victimization. In addition, fear of victimization was greater in respondents who were younger, non-Caucasian, and female.

Two studies have examined altruistic and personal fear of victimization in notified and non-notified residents. Beck and Travis (2004a) conducted a survey of 97 Ohio residents who received a sex offender notification and 139 residents who should not have received a notification. In their survey, they distinguished between personal and altruistic fear of victimization for five types of crime (sexual assault and four types of non-sexual crime). While notification was a significant predictor of personal fear of victimization, the strongest predictors were being female and having a lower education. Notification did not significantly predict respondents' overall level of altruistic fear although female and younger respondents reported higher levels of overall altruistic fear. While the authors did not find an effect of notification for overall altruistic fear of crime, notification did have a significant effect on altruistic fear of sexual assault.

Beck et al. (2004) conducted a survey of Ohio residents who should have received a notification ( $n = 97$ ) and should not have received a notification ( $n = 139$ ). While they found that receiving a notification that a sex offender was released into one's neighbourhood did not significantly affect fear, fear of personal victimization was significantly related to gender. Altruistic fear of victimization was related to the respondent's gender, the number of adults and children living in the respondent's residence, perceived altruistic risk of victimization, and the adoption of altruistic-protective behaviour.

### 1.2.2 Perceived Risk of Victimization

When processing information about threats, individuals perform cognitive as well as affective appraisals (Ferraro, 1995; Jackson, 2006). *Risk perception* refers to cognitive appraisals that individuals use to determine the relevance of the threat to themselves or others by assessing the extent to which they or others are at risk of being victimised, the seriousness of the consequences of being victimised, and the extent to which the individual perceives s/he has control over the threat (Ferraro, 1995; Jackson, 2006).

To date, two studies have examined the effect of community notification on perceived risk of victimization. Beck et al.'s (2004) survey of notified and non-notified Ohio residents found notification was the strongest predictor of perceived risk of personal victimization. Females, respondents who had lower levels of education, and those who reported being more fearful were more likely to perceive higher risk of personal victimization. Being female and receiving a notification were also significant predictors of respondents' perceived altruistic risk of victimization.

Beck and Travis's (2006b) comparison of the notification procedures used in Ohio and Kentucky found that receiving a notification was a significant predictor of perceived altruistic risk of victimization but was not correlated with perceived risk of personal victimization. Moreover, higher perceived risk of personal victimization was related to being female and having a lower level of education. Having lower levels of education was associated with perceived altruistic risk of victimization. Beck and Travis also found respondents who perceived their risk of personal victimization to be high were significantly more likely to report being fearful.

However, some prior research has confirmed that members of the general public endorse misperceptions and myths about sexual offenders, suggesting risk perceptions may not be accurate. For example, Craun and Theriot (2008) found that participants who were aware of a sexual offender residing in their neighbourhood were more likely to worry about "stranger danger" than a control group who lived at least one mile away from a registered sexual offender. Thirty percent of their sample ( $N = 631$ ) expressed concern about a stranger abusing a child whereas 56 percent were equally worried about a stranger and someone they knew abusing a child. Having children, being aware of a registered sexual offender, being married, having greater fear of crime, and not being personally victimized significantly predicted misperceptions.

Fortney et al.'s (2007) survey of 192 community members and 125 sexual offenders in the community found the public significantly overestimated sexual recidivism rates, with the public estimating 74 percent of offenders recidivated (compared to published figures of 14%). The public also overestimated rates at which strangers victimized children (49% compared to the published rate of 27%).

### **1.2.3 Protective Behaviour**

Perceived risk of victimization and increased fear of victimization have also been associated with the adoption of behavioural changes. *Protective behaviour* refers to changes made in one's lifestyle due to perceived risk of victimization in one's daily activities (Ferraro, 1995). There are two types of protective behaviours. First, *avoidance behaviours* include avoiding situations where one might be at risk of being victimized (Ferraro, 1995). Ferraro operationalised avoidance behaviours as avoiding unsafe areas during the day or at night and changing or limiting daily activities because of crime. *Defensive behaviour* is the second type of protective behaviour and includes such behaviours as installing locks or alarm systems, buying a watchdog, or learning self-defence (Ferraro, 1995).

Studies that have examined the relationship between community notification and protective behaviour have generally found that notification is associated with the adoption of protective behaviours. Beck and Travis (2004b) examined Ohio residents' adoption of protective behaviour after receiving a notification. Residents who received a notification ( $N = 87$ ) were more likely to engage in defensive behaviours and other-protective behaviours than residents who had not received a notification ( $N = 149$ ). Notified residents were also significantly more likely to report suspicious activity and reported being more vigilant about criminal activity. Being female and reporting prior victimization (self and other) were significant predictors of self- and other-protective behaviour.

Beck and Travis's (2006a) survey examining the effect of state-level variation in community notification processes found that type of notification did not correlate with the self-reported adoption of protective behaviour. The presence of a sex offender in one's neighbourhood, having more than one resident in a household, and increased altruistic risk perception were the strongest predictors of the adoption of protective behaviours. In addition, Beck and Travis found protective behaviour was associated with being notified, non-Caucasian, not living alone, and perceiving risk of personal victimization to be high. Receiving a



notification, living with another person(s), and perceived altruistic-risk were associated with adopting altruistic-protective behaviours.

Finally, Beck et al.'s (2004) survey found notification did not affect the adoption of self-protective behaviour but did affect altruistic-protective behaviour. The adoption of protective behaviour was most likely in respondents with a household member who had been previously victimised and who perceived a higher risk of self-victimization. The adoption of self-protective behaviour was also related to fear of personal victimization. The adoption of altruistic-protective behaviour was predicted by receiving a notification, having more than one adult or child in a household, and having a household member who had been previously victimized. The strongest predictor of altruistic-protective behaviour was altruistic-perceived risk.

#### **1.2.4 Locus of Control**

The construct of *locus of control* (LOC) is concerned with whether an individual perceives receiving a reinforcer as contingent upon his/her behaviour (Rotter, 1966). According to social learning theory, in cases where individuals perceive their behaviour causes an outcome, they will begin to expect that the behaviour will be followed by that outcome in the future (Rotter, 1966, 1974). In contrast, when an outcome is perceived not to be contingent upon a particular behaviour, the individual's expectancy will not increase as much as when the outcome is perceived as contingent (Rotter, 1966, 1974). Individuals who have an *internal* LOC tend to perceive events as contingent upon their own behaviour or upon their stable personality characteristics (Rotter, 1966, 1974). Individuals with an *external* LOC tend to perceive that events are due to chance, luck, or are under the control of powerful others; in this case, there is a lower likelihood that preceding behaviour will recur (Rotter, 1966, 1974).

In a review of studies examining internal or external control of reinforcement, Rotter (1966) stated individuals with a strong internal LOC have a tendency to be more aware of environmental cues that provide information about useful future behaviour, take steps to improve their current environmental situation, and place a greater value on skill. Ferraro (1995) and Jackson (2006) note when an individual is engaged in determining the relevance of a threat, s/he appraises the extent to which s/he has control over the threat. This suggests a link between LOC, fear of victimization, risk perceptions, and the adoption of protective behaviours.

However, the relationship between LOC and fear of crime has not been found consistently in the literature. For example, in a survey of 300 Ghanaian immigrants in

Washington, D.C., Ackah (2000) found while individuals with an internal LOC reported less fear of crime than respondents with an external LOC, the correlations were non-significant and close to zero in magnitude. Other researchers have found LOC to be associated with fear of crime, particularly in elderly populations. For example, Golant (1984) examined the relationship between LOC and night time activity in 400 people 60 years or older in Illinois. Increased night time activity was associated with an internal LOC and higher educational attainment. In their report on the results of the 1983 Vancouver Urban Survey ( $N = 489$ ), Sacco and Glackman (1987) found an external LOC accounted for variance in worrying about crime over and above the effect of age, sex, and socioeconomic status. Normoyle and Lavrakas (1984) conducted telephone interviews with 81 Caucasian female volunteers aged 60 years or older in Chicago. Regression analyses found highly significant relationships between fear of crime and perceived predictability as well as fear of crime and perceived control.

Research examining the relationship between LOC and behavioural changes adopted in response to receiving a notification has also found inconsistent results. In a study examining the relationship between LOC and behavioural changes adopted in response to community notification, Caputo and Brodsky (2004) conducted a telephone survey of 250 Alabama residents to examine factors related to fear of crime and two types of coping behaviours: *emotion-focused coping*, an external orientation to regulating distress and *problem-focused coping*, an internal orientation for managing distress-producing events that tends to be used more when events are perceived to be within the person's control to change. Consistent with previous notification research, they found females, parents, and married respondents were more likely to perceive the community notification as more important to them. In addition, individuals who felt notification was more important were more likely to adopt coping behaviours. Finally, participants who were more fearful used both problem-focused and emotion-focused coping responses although a situational LOC did not moderate the relationship between fear and coping style.

Finally, Brockway and Heath (1998) examined the impact of an experimental intervention examining the relationship between perceived control and rape controllability in 161 female undergraduates. The authors found participants who received a message depicting rape as a random event reported significantly more personal risk and fear than in a condition depicting rape as under personal control. Women receiving the "rape as random" message were also more fearful for the safety of women in general.

### 1.3 Fear Appeal Theory

A *fear appeal* is defined as a persuasive message that arouses fear of a threat and usually includes a recommended action for avoiding the threat (Witte & Allen, 2000). Fear appeal messages typically use vivid, gruesome language and images to arouse fearful audience reactions (Witte, 1992). Fear appeals are typically used for public health and safety advertisements and campaigns (Witte & Allen, 2000). For example, a health campaign designed to reduce the incidence of Human Papillomavirus (HPV) may communicate the dangers of contracting HPV, which arouses fear of and increases perceptions that the individual is at risk of contracting HPV (Witte, Berkowitz, Cameron, & McKeon, 1998). Fear appeals may also provide recommended actions (in this case to adopt safe sex practices) to instruct individuals on how to avoid the threat (Witte et al., 1998).

Essentially, the efficacy of community notification relies on individuals receiving a notification to recognise when they (or a family member) are at risk and take appropriate action including protective behaviour and contacting law enforcement when they fear a relapse has occurred or is imminent. Accordingly, community notification may be conceptualised as a type of fear appeal that aims to increase the public's fear of victimisation and perceived risk of victimisation from sex offenders with the intention of persuading the public to take protective action. The educational information recommended by the community notification literature parallels the "recommended actions" found in many fear appeal messages.

Because community notification was the result of public pressure rather than being developed through theory and research, community notification research currently lacks a theory accounting for how community notification messages should produce behavioural changes in the general population. Fear appeal research has many parallels with the fear of crime research discussed previously. The fear of crime literature proposes individuals perceive threats as personally relevant, which is subsequently associated with an increase in fear and the adoption of protective behaviours (Jackson, 2006; Lerner & Keltner, 2001). Similarly, fear appeal research has identified three important dependent variables for persuading individuals to change their behaviour: level of fear, perceived threat, and behavioural intentions/change (Witte & Allen, 2000). Fear appeal research has also adopted a fourth dependent variable, *perceived efficacy*, defined as the degree to which individuals feel capable of performing the action recommended by the fear appeal message (Rogers, 1975; Witte & Allen, 2000).

Typically, fear appeal researchers manipulate the strength of the fear appeal by changing the information in a communication to arouse high and low levels of fear although they may include several different fear appeal strengths (e.g., strong, medium, and low fear; Witte, 1992; Witte & Allen, 2000). In high fear conditions, the severe consequences of a threat are communicated to respondents in order to convince them that the threat poses a significant risk (Witte, 1992). Accordingly, fear appeal research also examines the impact of the strength of the fear appeal on the participants' attitudes and behavioural intentions (Witte & Allen, 2000). In order for a fear appeal to be effective, individuals receiving a fear appeal message must adopt the action recommended by the fear appeal. As a result, research generally includes a determination of whether respondents' attitudes and behavioural intentions correspond with the fear appeal message's recommendations.

### 1.3.1 Meta-Analytic Findings

Level of fear experienced has been found in meta-analyses to be positively related to the strength of the fear appeal such that the stronger the fear appeal, the greater the fear experienced (Witte & Allen, 2000). Witte and Allen's meta-analysis found a significant correlation between the strength of the fear appeal and the level of fear ( $r = .30$ ,  $k = 51$ ). Previous meta-analyses have found effect sizes of similar magnitudes ( $r = .34$  and  $.36$ ; Boster & Mongeau, 1984, as cited in Witte & Allen, 2000; Mongeau, 1998).

Rogers (1975) identified *perceived threat* and *perceived efficacy* as key independent variables related to whether respondents would adopt the response recommended by the fear appeal message. Specifically, in order to effect attitude and behaviour changes, fear arousing messages must convince perceivers they are seriously threatened (perceived threat) and are capable of effectively avoiding the threat (perceived efficacy; Rogers, 1975). Perceived threat is a cognitive dimension comprised of two constructs: *perceived susceptibility* to the threat and *perceived severity* of the threat (Witte & Allen, 2000). Witte and Allen (2000) found fear appeal strength was significantly related to both susceptibility to a threat ( $r = .30$ ,  $k = 29$ ) and threat severity ( $r = .44$ ,  $k = 33$ ).

Perceived efficacy also includes two dimensions (Witte & Allen, 2000). First, *perceived self-efficacy* refers to the perceiver's beliefs in his/her ability to successfully carry out the recommended response (Witte & Allen, 2000). Second, *perceived response efficacy* refers to the perceiver's beliefs about whether the recommended response will be effective in avoiding the

threat (Witte & Allen, 2000). Witte and Allen found that stronger efficacy messages were related to stronger perceptions of response efficacy ( $r = .36, k = 24$ ) and self-efficacy ( $r = .36, k = 17$ ).

Meta-analyses of fear appeal research have found a consistent, significant relationship between fear appeal messages and changes in participants' attitudes. Witte and Allen (2000) found correlations between .12 and .15 between attitude change and the manipulation of fear ( $r = .15, k = 34$ ), severity ( $r = .15, k = 14$ ), susceptibility ( $r = .12, k = 11$ ), response efficacy ( $r = .14, k = 11$ ), or self-efficacy ( $r = .12, k = 8$ ) in fear appeal messages. While the correlations were significant, the authors report smaller correlations than those found in previous meta-analyses, which found correlations of .20 and .21 between fear appeal messages and attitude change (Boster & Mongeau, 1984, as cited in Witte & Allen, 2000; Mongeau, 1998).

Fear appeal messages have also been found to be significantly related to behavioural intentions and behaviour change. Witte and Allen (2000) found correlations between .13 and .17 between behavioural intentions and the manipulation of fear ( $r = .13, k = 43$ ), severity ( $r = .14, k = 26$ ), susceptibility ( $r = .17, k = 27$ ), response efficacy ( $r = .17, k = 24$ ), or self-efficacy ( $r = .17, k = 21$ ) in fear appeal messages. They also found correlations of similar magnitude between behaviour change and fear appeal messages, with fear ( $r = .16, k = 28$ ), severity ( $r = .13, k = 16$ ), susceptibility ( $r = .14, k = 11$ ), response efficacy ( $r = .13, k = 12$ ), or self-efficacy ( $r = .13, k = 11$ ) all being significantly correlated. These correlations are of similar magnitudes to previous meta-analytic findings ( $r = .10$  and  $.17$ ; Boster & Mongeau, 1984, as cited in Witte & Allen, 2000; Mongeau, 1998).

### **1.3.2 The Extended Parallel Process Model**

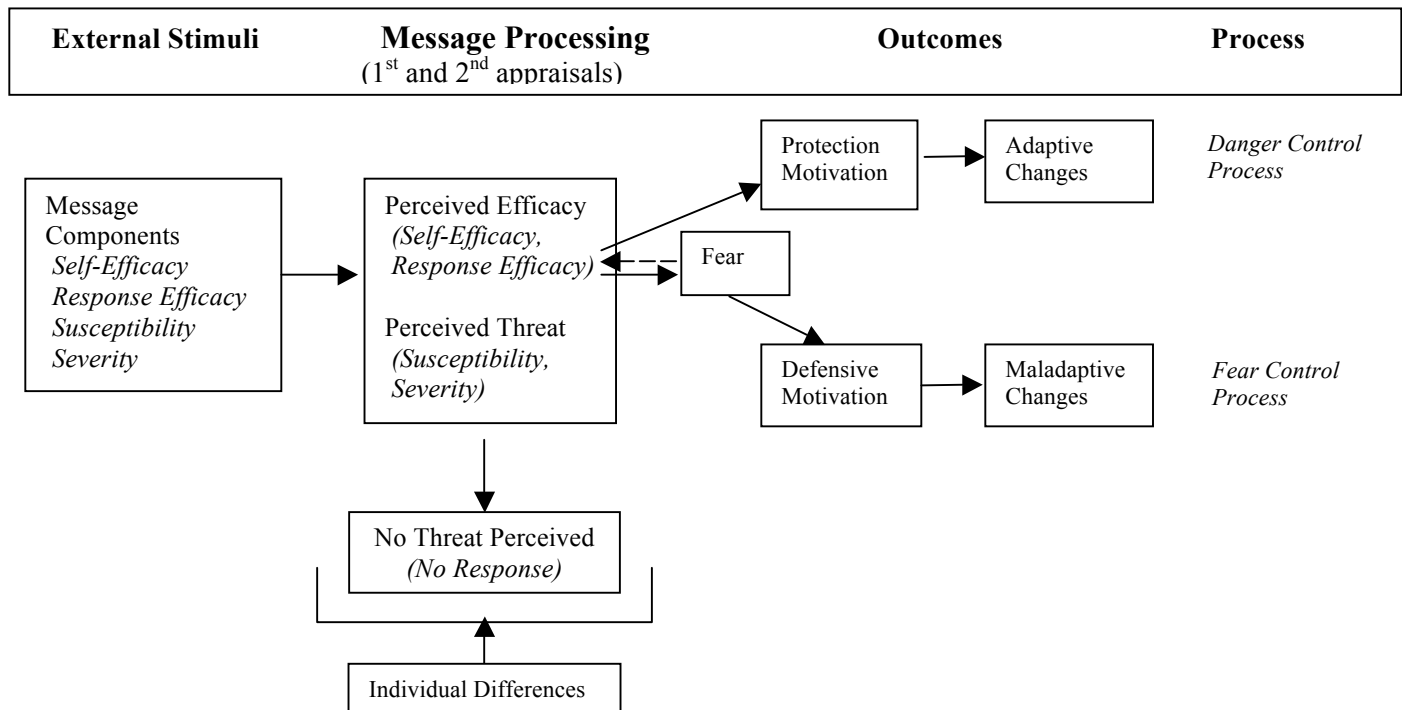
Fear appeal theory finds its roots in a drive reduction theory, Hovland, Janis, and Kelly's (1953) fear-as-acquired-drive model. The fear-as-acquired-drive model emphasized affective components and proposed that once individuals learn to fear a threat, they are motivated to reduce their fear. Individuals will adopt a recommended action for avoiding the threat and if that action is effective in reducing the fear state, that behaviour will be reinforced. Drive reduction theory was rejected as their primary prediction, that moderate amounts of fear arousal would produce the greatest effect, was not supported. In the 1970s, fear appeal theory began emphasizing cognitive components in responding, with Leventhal's (1970) parallel-response model, which stated that fear appeals activated two parallel processes, danger control and fear

control responses. Leventhal, however, failed to state under which conditions the two processes would be activated and the theory was deemed to be untestable due to lack of specificity. Finally, subjective expected utility models were proposed in the 1970s. Subjective expected utility models identified the components (specifically perceived threat and perceived efficacy) of fear appeal messages but were highly cognitive in nature, with fear being accorded a minor role (Beck & Frankel, 1981; Mongeau, 1998; Rogers, 1975; Witte & Allen, 2000).

The most recent fear appeal theory, the Extended Parallel Process Model (EPPM; Witte, 1992; Witte & Allen, 2000), incorporates elements of previous fear appeal theories (particularly the parallel processing components of Leventhal's theory and the dependent variables of subjective utility models) to describe the means by which fear appeal messages are processed. While other fear appeal theories refer to similar variables to explain responses to fear appeal messages, the EPPM has accorded a greater role to the experience of fear than other theories (Witte & Allen, 2000). Thus, it represents an appropriate fit for research investigating community notification messages and corresponds well with the fear of crime literature.

The EPPM states that a fear appeal message activates two cognitive appraisal processes (Witte, 1992). First, the relevance of the threat is assessed (Witte, 1992). If a threat is irrelevant to the individual, s/he will ignore the fear appeal message; however, if the individual feels s/he is at moderate to high risk from the threat, fear will be aroused and will motivate the individual to reduce his/her fear (Witte, 1992). The second appraisal evaluates the efficacy of the recommended response (Witte, 1992). If perceived threat and response efficacy are high, the individual becomes motivated to control the danger from the threat and is likely to adopt *danger control responses* (Witte, 1992). These responses are adaptive strategies for averting the threat, which involve carrying out the recommended response (Witte, 1992). If the individual perceives the recommended response as ineffective or experiences low self-efficacy, s/he will work to reduce his/her fear through *fear control responses* such as denial, avoidance, or reactance (Witte, 1992; Witte & Allen, 2000). Finally, if the message does not provide information about response efficacy, perceived efficacy will be determined by the individual's prior beliefs and past experiences for dealing with the threat (Witte & Allen, 2000). Thus, according to the EPPM, perceived threat affects the intensity of the individual's reaction to the fear appeal whereas perceived efficacy determines whether the individual will react with danger control or fear control responses (Witte, 1992). Figure 1-1 describes the Extended Parallel Processing Model.

Figure 1-1. The Extended Parallel Process Model



(Adapted from Witte, 1992)

#### 1.4 Overview of Research and Hypotheses

Research examining community members' responses to community notification has been atheoretical to date. The current research conceptualised community notification as a type of fear appeal and explored the appropriateness of the EPPM as a theoretical framework for community notification.

The EPPM suggests that by focusing only on alerting residents to the threat a sexual offender poses, the traditional community notification paradigm is most likely to result in maladaptive fear control responses. Moreover, the EPPM suggests that a community notification is more likely to result in a danger control response when two types of information are included. First, a community notification should increase perceived threat by convincing residents that they (or a family member) are at risk from a released sexual offender. Second, as recommended by both the EPPM and the community notification literature, information on sexual offending and recommendations for avoiding sexual victimization should be provided to increase residents'

perceived efficacy, decreasing the likelihood that notified residents would adopt fear control responses and increasing the likelihood that danger control responses will be adopted.

Because there is a dearth of literature examining fear of crime, risk perceptions, and the adoption of protective behaviours related to receiving a notification via a community notification web page and a preliminary examination of community notification websites indicated that notification websites typically do not include educational information on sexual offending, the current research was designed to determine whether providing educational information on community notification web pages impacts viewers' fear of victimization, risk perceptions, perceived efficacy, and behavioural intentions.

Accordingly, the current research comprised two studies. The first study, a systematic review of a sample of community notification web pages from Canada and the United States, was conducted to determine the typical format and content of community notification web pages. The systematic review informed the development of a hypothetical community notification web page vignette for the second study, which compared two community notification web page formats. The control group viewed the "traditional" web page vignette, which was formatted according to the findings from the first study. A second, "high efficacy" web page vignette was viewed by the intervention group and included the web page vignette alongside educational information on preventing sexual victimization.

The EPPM predicts that, overall (1) higher levels of fear will be associated with greater perceived threat; (2) increased levels of fear will be associated with greater intended behavioural changes (danger control responses); (3) lower perceived efficacy will be associated with increased adoption of fear control responses; (4) higher perceived efficacy will be associated with greater likelihood of adopting danger control responses; and (5) the intervention group will have higher perceived threat, higher perceived efficacy, be less likely to adopt fear control responses, and be more likely to adopt danger control responses than the control group. Based on the community notification literature, female participants are hypothesized (6) to have higher levels of fear, higher perceived threat, lower perceived efficacy, increased fear control responses, and increased danger control responses overall compared to male participants.

While the community notification literature has identified parenthood, previous victimisation, educational attainment, and locus of control as potential important individual difference variables, the EPPM does not specify how individual difference variables should be



related to the dependent variables. Accordingly, a series of exploratory regression analyses were conducted to examine the relationship between the individual difference variables identified in the notification literature and the EPPM's dependent variables.

## CHAPTER 2: SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

A systematic review of community notification web page content was conducted to determine characteristics that were representative of notification web pages to develop the vignette for the principal study.

### 2.1 Units of Study and Procedure

Data were collected from 14 randomly selected North American community notification websites between October and November 2009. Because of *Megan's Law* requirements, all American states had notification websites available. American websites ( $k = 7$ ) were stratified according to the 2000 United States Census geographic regions (US Census Bureau, 2001) and political orientation based on electoral college results from the 2008 election (Federal Election Commission, 2009). One state of each political orientation in each census region was then randomly selected using a random number generator in Microsoft Excel. See Table 2-1 for a breakdown of the American subsample by census geographic region and political orientation.

Table 2-1. Systematic review American subsample by census region and political orientation

Census Region	Political Orientation	State	Capital City	Department Hosting Website
West	Democrat	Colorado	Denver	Colorado Bureau of Investigation
	Republican	Wyoming	Cheyenne	Office of the Attorney General, Division of Criminal Investigation
Northeast*	Democrat	Maine	Augusta	Department of Public Safety, Maine State Police
Midwest	Democrat	Iowa	Des Moines	Iowa Sex Offender Registry
	Republican	North Dakota	Bismarck	State of North Dakota, Office of Attorney General
South	Democrat	Maryland	Annapolis	Sex Offender Compliance and Enforcement in Maryland
	Republican	Kentucky	Frankfort	Kentucky State Police

\*There were no Republican states in the Northeast Census Region in the 2008 federal election

At the time of data collection, not all Canadian provinces had notification websites and there was no centralized sex offender registry website as is the case of the United States. Due to the reduced number of Canadian notification websites available, the sample (Table 2-2) comprised all available community notification websites from large Canadian cities ( $k = 7$ ). The

websites were located through provincial and territorial justice-related ministry and municipal police websites.

Table 2-2. Systematic review Canadian subsample

Province	City	Department Hosting Website
British Columbia	Vancouver	Vancouver Police Department
Alberta	Edmonton	Government of Alberta, Alberta Solicitor General and Public Security
	Calgary	Government of Alberta, Alberta Solicitor General and Public Security
Saskatchewan	Regina	Government of Saskatchewan, Ministry of Corrections, Public Safety and Policing
	Saskatoon	Saskatoon Police Service
Manitoba	Not specified	Government of Manitoba, Manitoba Justice
Nova Scotia	Halifax	Halifax Police Department

### 2.1.1 Procedure

Websites from the United States and Canada differed in their search functionality. American community notification websites were essentially searchable online sexual offender registries whereas Canadian community notification websites acted primarily as public safety advisories for high risk offenders. Thus, the data collection procedure differed between the two countries.

All American sites were accessed through the Federal Bureau of Investigation's (FBI) National Sex Offender Public Website (FBI, n.d.). After accessing the sexual offender registry's home page, the researcher coded the page's characteristics and conducted a search for offenders by entering the state's capital city as the search criterion. The researcher then accessed the offender list page that listed all offenders meeting the search criteria. Offenders were randomly selected using a random number generator in Microsoft Excel. Once the offender was selected, the researcher accessed the offender's registry page and coded the characteristics of the registry page.

Canadian websites were hosted either by provincial or territorial justice-related ministries or by municipal police departments. In cases where the community notification website was hosted by a provincial or territorial justice-related ministry, the researcher coded the community

notification home page's characteristics, randomly selected an offender living in each of the province's principal cities, and coded the public safety notice's characteristics. In cases where municipal police hosted the community notification website, the researcher coded the characteristics of the home page, randomly selected an offender, and coded the characteristics of the public safety notice.

It should be noted that the Province of Manitoba's sexual offender notification website was only accessible by Manitoba residents. As a result, the data for Manitoba were collected by a research assistant who was a Manitoba resident. To ensure the Manitoba data were collected in a manner consistent with the researcher, the researcher trained the research assistant to code the Systematic Review Coding Form (see Appendix A). The researcher and research assistant then collected data for all other Canadian cases and reasons for coding differences between the two raters were determined and resolved. The Manitoba data were then collected by the research assistant. Inter-rater agreement between the two raters was very high at 91.6%.

The coding sheet data were entered into a Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) database. Frequency distributions were calculated for each variable to identify the web pages' most common characteristics.

## **2.2 Materials**

The Systematic Review Coding Form was developed to code the characteristics of the community notification web pages that were reviewed.

### **2.2.1 Main Search Page Features**

The review coded for the inclusion of content such as an outline of the registry's purpose and applicable legislation as well as the inclusion of educational information about sex offenders and how they tend to gain access to victims. The presence of disclaimers including that the web page is not a "wanted" bulletin, not all convicted sex offenders are on the site, information may be inaccurate, and registry information is not to be used for illegal activities were coded.

### **2.2.2 Search Features**

Various search functions were identified. Basic search features included the ability to search by proximity to a specific address or the offender's name. Advanced search feature availability, such as ability to search by alias, age, weight, and vehicle description were coded.

### **2.2.3 Demographic and Vehicle Information**

The provision of offenders' demographic information such as the presence of a photograph, name, alias, gender, and date of birth/age were coded. Vehicle characteristics, including year, model, colour, and licence place of the offender's vehicle, was also examined.

### **2.2.4 Address and Supervision Information**

The review coded address information such as whether the web page reported the offender's residential address as well as name and address of offender's place of employment and/or schooling. Supervision information such as whether the offender was currently supervised, parole officer contact information, whether the offender was compliant with the registry, date of registration, and date of release was also reviewed.

### **2.2.5 Risk-Relevant Information**

Risk-relevant information including the lowest level of risk reported by the website, offender classifications (e.g., sexual predator, high risk offender) assigned, and risk assessment information were coded. Criminal history information including name of offence, description of offence, sentence length, conviction date, conditions imposed on the offender, and previous offences was coded. Victim characteristics (e.g., gender, age, relationship to perpetrator) and description of grooming behaviours were also coded.

### **2.2.6 Additional Website Features**

Additional website features such as mapping features and contact numbers to correct registry information were coded.

## **2.3 Results**

### **2.3.1 Main Search Page Features**

Main search pages most consistently included a description of the website's purpose (n = 12) and disclaimers (n = 12). The most common disclaimers were that the website's information may not be accurate (n = 10) and that individuals accessing the site should not use the information for illegal activities such as vigilantism (n = 12). Half (n = 7) of the sites clarified that not all convicted sex offenders were included on the website. None of the sites reviewed specified that notice on the website was not a "wanted" bulletin (n = 0) and only four specified that additional verification would be required to ensure any offender found on the website was in fact residing in the searcher's community. Half of the sites (n = 7) included descriptions of legislation applicable to sexual offender notification.

Several features were largely absent from the sites reviewed. The majority of sites did not include a list of “registrable” offences (n = 4), consequences of not registering (n = 4), or a photograph of well-known victims such as Megan Kanka or Christopher Stephenson (n = 1). In addition, most websites did not include facts sheets or educational information on sexual offenders and avoiding victimization (n = 10). Finally, five sites required users to click a “conditions of use button” guaranteeing that users would not use the information in the website for illegal purposes.

Table 2-3 outlines the presence of the main search page features for all sites reviewed, with “yes” indicating the presence of the feature and “no” indicating the absence of the feature.

Table 2-3. Main search page features for all websites reviewed

Main Search Page Features	Yes n (%)	No n (%)
Purpose Outlined	12 (85.7)	2 (14.3)
Description of Applicable Legislation	7 (50.0)	7 (50.0)
Photograph of Well-Known Victims	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Registerable Offences	4 (28.6)	10 (71.4)
Consequences of Not Registering	4 (28.6)	10 (71.4)
Fact Sheet	4 (28.6)	10 (71.4)
Any Disclaimers	12 (85.7)	2 (14.3)
Legal and Illegal Uses	12 (85.7)	2 (14.3)
Information Accuracy	10 (71.4)	4 (28.6)
Not All Sex Offenders on Website	7 (50.0)	7 (50.0)
Cannot Ensure Offender’s Identity	4 (28.6)	10 (71.4)
Not "Wanted" Bulletin	0 (0.0)	14 (100.0)
Conditions of Use Button	5 (35.7)	9 (64.3)

As shown in Table 2-4, when sites were analyzed by country, several commonalities between the Canadian and American websites were evident. Both countries consistently included a description of the website’s purpose (n = 7 of American and n = 5 of Canadian sites) and disclaimers (n = 7 of American and n = 5 of Canadian sites). Most sites in both countries did not include a photograph of well-known victims. Approximately half of the Canadian (n = 3)

and American (n = 4) sites included information on legislation applicable to sexual offender notification.

There were several differences between the two countries. First, American sites tended to contain more disclaimers than Canadian sites. American websites commonly included disclaimers that the site may not include information on all sexual offenders (n = 5), may not provide accurate information on all offenders (n = 7), and that individuals accessing the site should not use the information for illegal activities such as vigilantism (n = 7). Canadian websites typically included only a disclaimer that individuals accessing the site should not use the information for illegal activities (n = 5) although three of the Canadian sites contained a disclaimer about the potential inaccuracy of information.

Second, Canadian sites did not to include information on registerable offences (n = 0) or the consequences of not registering (n = 0) whereas approximately half of the American sites contained this information (n = 4 and n = 4, respectively). In addition, the majority of Canadian sites did not include a fact sheet (n = 1) whereas approximately half of American sites included a fact sheet (n = 3).

Finally, two Canadian sites reviewed did not include a “conditions of use button” and three American sites included this feature.

Table 2-4. Main search page features by country

Main Search Page Features	United States		Canada	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)
Purpose Outlined	7 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	5 (71.4)	2 (28.6)
Description of Applicable Legislation	4 (57.1)	3 (42.9)	3 (42.9)	4 (57.1)
Photograph of Well-Known Victims	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Registerable Offences	4 (57.1)	3 (42.9)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Consequences of Not Registering	4 (57.1)	3 (42.9)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Fact Sheet	3 (42.9)	4 (57.1)	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)
Any Disclaimers	7 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	5 (71.4)	2 (28.6)
Legal and Illegal Uses	7 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	5 (71.4)	2 (28.6)
Information Accuracy	7 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (42.9)	4 (57.1)
Not All Sex Offenders on Website	5 (71.4)	2 (28.6)	2 (28.6)	5 (71.4)
Cannot Ensure Offender's Identity	2 (28.6)	5 (71.4)	2 (28.6)	5 (71.4)
Not "Wanted" Bulletin	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Conditions of Use Button	3 (42.9)	4 (57.1)	2 (28.6)	5 (71.4)

### 2.3.2 Search Features

The notification websites reviewed contained a variety of search functions. Because search fields on websites often include “required” fields, the presence or absence of various characteristics as well as whether the characteristic was a “required” search field was recorded.

#### 2.3.2.1 Basic search features

Data on two basic search functions were collected. First, the presence of search fields for the offender's full name (where both given and family name were required for the search) or partial name (where only part of the offender's name was required) was collected. Second, the ability to search by full street address or partial address information (where only a zip or postal code or city was required) was collected.

As shown in Table 2-5, none of the Canadian notification sites reviewed provided name or address search fields whereas all American sites reviewed provided search functionality. None of the websites required a complete name or address to perform a search; however, partial



offender name (n = 3) and address (n = 4) was required to perform a search for some American websites.

Table 2-5. Basic search features for all websites reviewed and by country

Search Features	United States n (%)	Canada n (%)	All Websites n (%)
<b>Offender Name Search Field</b>			
Available, Full Information Required	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Available, Partial Information Required	3 (42.9)	0 (0.0)	3 (21.4)
Available, Not Required	4 (57.1)	0 (0.0)	4 (28.6)
Not Included	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)	7 (50.0)
<b>Address Search Field</b>			
Available, Full Information Required	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Available, Partial Information Required	4 (57.1)	0 (0.0)	4 (28.6)
Available, Not Required	3 (42.9)	0 (0.0)	3 (21.4)
Not Included	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)	7 (50.0)

### 2.3.2.2 Advanced search options

Information on advanced search functions was also collected. Table 2-6 shows that none of the websites reviewed provided users with the ability to search by alias or shortened forms of the offender's name. Only one website allowed users to search for physical descriptors such as age, weight, height, sex, race, eye colour, or hair colour. None of the websites reviewed allowed users to search by vehicle descriptor or licence plate. Other search fields recorded were conviction count (n = 1), victim gender (n = 1), whether the offender was employed at a post-secondary institution (n = 1), and whether the offender was not a state or provincial resident (n = 1). In addition, one website provided users with an interactive map indicating the location of sexual offenders identified by the search. None of the websites reviewed provided a juvenile registry search function. None of the advanced search fields were required.

Table 2-6. Advanced search features for all websites reviewed

Advanced Search Features	Available, Required n (%)	Available, Not Required n (%)	Not Available n (%)
Alias	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	14 (100.0)
Physical Descriptors			
Age	0 (0.0)	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Weight	0 (0.0)	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Height	0 (0.0)	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Sex	0 (0.0)	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Race	0 (0.0)	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Eye Colour	0 (0.0)	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Hair Colour	0 (0.0)	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Vehicle Descriptors			
Vehicle Description	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	14 (100.0)
Vehicle Licence Plate	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	14 (100.0)
Other Search Features			
Conviction count	0 (0.0)	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Victim gender	0 (0.0)	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Employed at post-secondary institution	0 (0.0)	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Registrant not a state/ province resident	0 (0.0)	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Map	0 (0.0)	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
	Available	Not Available	Not Specified
	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)
Juvenile registry	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	14 (100.0)

As illustrated in Table 2-7, advanced search options were only available in the United States. One state (Iowa) provided users with physical descriptor search fields. Two states (Iowa and Maryland) provided “other” search options including conviction count, victim gender, whether the offender was employed at a post-secondary institution, whether the offender was not a state or provincial resident, and an interactive map.

Table 2-7. Advanced search features by country

Advanced Search Features	United States			Canada		
	Available, Required	Available, Not Required	Not Available	Available, Required	Available, Not Required	Not Available
	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)
Alias	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Physical Descriptors						
Age	0 (0.0)	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Weight	0 (0.0)	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Height	0 (0.0)	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Sex	0 (0.0)	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Race	0 (0.0)	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Eye Colour	0 (0.0)	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Hair Colour	0 (0.0)	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Vehicle Descriptors						
Vehicle Description	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Licence Plate	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Other Search Features						
Conviction count	0 (0.0)	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Victim gender	0 (0.0)	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Employed at post- secondary institution	0 (0.0)	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Registrant not state/ province resident	0 (0.0)	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Map	0 (0.0)	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
	Available	Not Available	Not Specified	Available	Not Available	Not Specified
	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)
Juvenile registry	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)

### 2.3.2.3 Total number of search results

As shown in Table 2-8, the majority of American websites (n = 6) reviewed provided a total number of sexual offenders meeting the search criteria entered by the user. The total number of search results was not provided in any of the Canadian websites reviewed (n = 0).

Table 2-8. Total number of search results provided

Provided	United States	Canada	All Websites
	n (%)	n (%)	N (%)
Yes	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	6 (42.9)
No	1 (14.3)	7 (100.0)	8 (57.1)

### 2.3.3 Demographic and Vehicle Information

The majority of notification web pages commonly provided the offender's name (n = 14), sex (n = 12), date of birth (n = 11), height (n = 11), weight (n = 11), photograph (n = 11), race (n = 9), eye colour (n = 9), and hair colour (n = 9). Most websites did not report age (n = 4), alias (n = 3), or identifying marks (n = 3). Only one of the sites reviewed provided a vehicle description including year, make, model, colour, licensing state/province, and license plate number. See Table 2-9 for the demographic and vehicle information provided in all websites reviewed.

Table 2-9. Demographic and vehicle information for all websites reviewed

Information Provided	Provided n (%)	Not Provided n (%)
<hr/> Demographic Information		
Name	14 (100.0)	0 (0.0)
Sex	12 (85.7)	2 (14.3)
Date of Birth	11 (78.6)	3 (21.4)
Height	11 (78.6)	3 (21.4)
Weight	11 (78.6)	3 (21.4)
Photograph	11 (78.6)	3 (21.4)
Race	9 (64.3)	5 (35.7)
Eye Colour	9 (64.3)	5 (35.7)
Hair Colour	8 (57.1)	6 (42.9)
Age	4 (28.6)	10 (71.4)
Aliases	3 (21.4)	11 (78.6)
Identifying Marks	3 (21.4)	11 (78.6)
<hr/> Vehicle Information		
Year	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Make	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Model	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Colour	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Licensing State/Province	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
License Plate Number	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)

As illustrated in Table 2-10, the majority of websites in both countries reported name (n = 7 for American, n = 7 for Canadian), sex (n = 5 for American, n = 7 for Canadian), height (n = 5 for American, n = 6 for Canadian), and weight (n = 5 for American, n = 6 for Canadian). Both countries infrequently provided information on identifying marks (n = 2 for American, n = 1 for Canadian).

There were some differences in the demographic and vehicle information reported in the United States and Canada. The majority of American sites reviewed provided a photograph (n = 7), date of birth (n = 7), race (n = 5), eye colour (n = 5), and hair colour (n = 5), while approximately half of Canadian sites reviewed provided a photograph (n = 4), date of birth (n = 4), race (n = 4), eye colour (n = 4), and hair colour (n = 3). It was more common for American sites to report offender alias (n = 3) than Canadian sites (n = 0) while Canadian sites more commonly provided information on the offender's age (n = 3 compared to n = 1 for American sites).

Table 2-10. Demographic and vehicle information by country

Information Provided	United States		Canada	
	Provided n (%)	Not Provided n (%)	Provided n (%)	Not Provided n (%)
Demographic Information				
Name	7 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)	0 (0.0)
Photograph	7 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	4 (57.1)	3 (42.9)
Date of Birth	7 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	4 (57.1)	3 (42.9)
Sex	5 (71.4)	2 (28.6)	7 (100.0)	0 (0.0)
Height	5 (71.4)	2 (28.6)	6 (85.7)	1 (14.3)
Weight	5 (71.4)	2 (28.6)	6 (85.7)	1 (14.3)
Race	5 (71.4)	2 (28.6)	4 (57.1)	3 (42.9)
Eye Colour	5 (71.4)	2 (28.6)	4 (57.1)	3 (42.9)
Hair Colour	5 (71.4)	2 (28.6)	3 (42.9)	4 (57.1)
Aliases	3 (42.9)	4 (57.1)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Identifying Marks	2 (28.6)	5 (71.4)	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)
Age	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	3 (42.9)	4 (57.1)
Vehicle Information				
Year	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Make	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Model	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Colour	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Licensing State/ Province	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
License Plate Number	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)

### 2.3.4 Address and Supervision Information

The review coded address information such as whether the web page reported the offender's residential address, additional address information (offenders' employer and/or school), and supervision information.

As shown in Table 2-11, sites from the United States most commonly reported the offender's complete residential address (n = 6) whereas Canadian sites most commonly included only the offender's city of residence (n = 6). One Canadian site provided only the offender's province of residence.

Table 2-11. Offender's home address for all websites reviewed and by country

Country	United States	Canada	All Websites
	n (%)	n (%)	N (%)
Complete Street Address	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	6 (42.9)
City Only	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	7 (50.0)
Province/State Only	0 (0.0)	1 (14.3)	1 (7.1)

Employer and school addresses and supervision information were not reported in most cases reviewed. Half of the sites reviewed provided information on whether the offender was currently incarcerated (n = 7) and the local police's phone number (n = 7). The majority of sites did not provide information on whether the offender was currently supervised (n = 3), local police address (n = 3), the date the residence was last verified (n = 2), offender's release date (n = 1), employer's name (n = 1), employer's complete address (n = 1), parole officer contact information (n = 1), school name (n = 0), and school address (n = 0). See Table 2-12 for the additional address and supervision information provided in all websites reviewed.



Table 2-12. Additional address and supervision information for all websites reviewed

Information Provided	Provided n (%)	Not Provided n (%)
<b>Additional Address Information</b>		
Employer Name	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Employer Address	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
School Name	0 (0.0)	14 (100.0)
School Address	0 (0.0)	14 (100.0)
<b>Supervision Information</b>		
Currently Incarcerated	7 (50.0)	7 (50.0)
Local Police Phone Number	7 (50.0)	7 (50.0)
Currently Supervised	3 (21.4)	11 (78.6)
Local Police Address	3 (21.4)	11 (78.6)
Date Residence Last Verified	2 (14.3)	12 (85.7)
Release Date	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Parole Officer Contact Information	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
<b>Registry-relevant Information</b>		
Compliant with Registry	4 (28.6)	10 (71.4)
Date Registered	3 (21.4)	11 (78.6)

Table 2-13 shows additional address and supervision information by country. Only one American state reported the offender's employer name and address whereas no Canadian provinces reported this information.

The United States and Canada differed in whether they provided information on the local police's phone number ( $n = 2$  for American,  $n = 5$  for Canadian) and whether the offender was currently incarcerated ( $n = 1$  for American,  $n = 6$  for Canadian). Both countries typically did not report local police address, date residence was last verified, whether the offender was currently supervised, employer name, employer address, parole officer contact information, release date, or offender's school address.

Table 2-13. Additional address and supervision information by country

Information Provided	United States		Canada	
	Provided n (%)	Not Provided n (%)	Provided n (%)	Not Provided n (%)
Additional Address Information				
Employer Name	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Employer Address	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
School Name	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
School Address	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Supervision information				
Local Police Phone Number	2 (28.6)	5 (71.4)	5 (71.4)	2 (28.6)
Local Police Address	2 (28.6)	5 (71.4)	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)
Date Residence Last Verified	2 (28.6)	5 (71.4)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Currently Supervised	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	2 (28.6)	5 (71.4)
Currently Incarcerated	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	6 (85.7)	1 (14.3)
Parole Officer Contact Info	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Release Date	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)
Registry-Relevant Information				
Compliant with Registry	4 (57.1)	3 (42.9)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Date Registered	3 (42.9)	4 (57.1)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)

### 2.3.5 Risk-Relevant Information

As shown in Table 2-14, the majority of websites provided the complete name of the offender's conviction. One American website provided an abbreviated conviction name and two Canadian websites did not provide a conviction name.

Table 2-14. Name of conviction for all websites reviewed and by country

Completeness of Conviction Name	United States	Canada	All Websites
	n (%)	n (%)	N (%)
Complete	6 (85.7)	5 (71.4)	11 (78.6)
Abbreviated	1 (14.3)	0 (0.0)	1 (7.1)
Not Provided	0 (0.0)	2 (28.6)	2 (14.3)

As shown in Table 2-15, the most common criminal history information provided were groups at risk from the offender (n = 12; e.g., children, adult females) and whether the offender was a repeat offender (n = 8). Most of the websites did not provide information on conditions or restrictions imposed on the offender (n = 5), statute number (n = 4), conviction date (n = 4), place of conviction (n = 4), victim gender (n = 4), victim age (n = 3), disposition (n = 3), stranger victim(s) (n = 2), or offence description (n = 2), grooming behaviours (n = 1), number of prior victims (n = 1), or whether the offender was convicted of crimes in another state (n = 1). In addition, the majority of websites reviewed did not state whether a risk assessment instrument was used to determine the offender's risk (n = 13) or define the offender's risk level (n = 11).

Table 2-15. Criminal history information for all websites reviewed

Information Provided	Provided n (%)	Not Provided n (%)
<b>Conviction Information</b>		
Groups at risk	12 (85.7)	2 (14.3)
Repeat Offender	8 (57.1)	6 (42.9)
Conditions/Restrictions	5 (35.7)	9 (64.3)
Statute Number	4 (28.6)	10 (71.4)
Conviction Date	4 (28.6)	10 (71.4)
Place of Conviction	4 (28.6)	10 (71.4)
Victim Gender	4 (28.6)	10 (71.4)
Victim Age	3 (21.4)	11 (78.6)
Disposition	3 (21.4)	11 (78.6)
Stranger Victim	2 (14.3)	12 (85.7)
Description of Offence	2 (14.3)	12 (85.7)
Grooming Behaviours	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Number of Prior Victims	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Convicted of Crimes in Another State	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
<b>Risk Assessment Information</b>		
Description of Risk Level	3 (21.4)	11 (78.6)
Risk Assessment Used	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)

The majority of websites from the United States and Canada provided similar information. Most of the websites reviewed provided information on groups at risk (n = 5 for American, n = 7 for Canadian websites) and whether the offender was a repeat offender (n = 4 for American, n = 4 for Canadian websites). The majority of websites did not provide information on victim gender (n = 2 for American, n = 2 for Canadian websites), offence description (n = 2 for American, n = 0 for Canadian), disposition (n = 1 for American, n = 2 for Canadian), number of prior victims (n = 1 for American, n = 0 for Canadian), whether the offender was convicted of crimes in another state (n = 1 for American, n = 0 for Canadian), whether the offender had stranger victims (n = 0 for American, n = 2 for Canadian), or grooming behaviours (n = 0 for American, n = 1 for Canadian). In addition, most websites did not provide information on

whether a risk assessment was used (n = 1 for American, n = 0 for Canadian) or a description of offender risk classifications assigned (n = 3 for American, n = 0 for Canadian).

There were several differences in the information provided on websites from the United States and Canada. Approximately half of American websites provided a statute number (n = 4), conviction date (n = 4), place of conviction (n = 4), or victim age (n = 3) whereas this information was not provided by the Canadian websites reviewed. None of the American sites reviewed provided information on conditions or restrictions imposed on the offender whereas the majority of Canadian sites (n = 5) provided this information. See Table 2-16 for a breakdown (by country) of criminal history information provided in the websites reviewed.

Table 2-16. Criminal history information by country

Information Provided	United States		Canada	
	Provided n (%)	Not Provided n (%)	Provided n (%)	Not Provided n (%)
<b>Conviction Information</b>				
Groups at risk	5 (71.4)	2 (28.6)	7 (100.0)	0 (0.0)
Repeat Offender	4 (57.1)	3 (42.9)	4 (57.1)	3 (42.9)
Statute Number	4 (57.1)	3 (42.9)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Conviction Date	4 (57.1)	3 (42.9)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Place of Conviction	4 (57.1)	3 (42.9)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Victim Age	3 (42.9)	4 (57.1)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Victim Gender	2 (28.6)	5 (71.4)	2 (28.6)	5 (71.4)
Description of Offence	2 (28.6)	5 (71.4)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Disposition	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	2 (28.6)	5 (71.4)
Number of Prior Victims	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Convicted of Crimes in Another State	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Conditions/ Restrictions	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)	5 (71.4)	2 (28.6)
Stranger Victim	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)	2 (28.6)	5 (71.4)
Grooming Behaviours	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)
<b>Risk Assessment Information</b>				
Description of Risk Level	3 (42.9)	4 (57.1)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Risk Assessment Used	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)

As shown in Table 2-17, approximately half of the websites reviewed included only high risk offenders (n = 7) or did not indicate whether a risk assessment was used to determine whether a notification would be issued for an offender (n = 6). While most Canadian websites included only high risk offenders (n = 6), most American websites did not indicate whether a risk assessment was used to determine whether a notification would be issued for an offender (n = 5).

Table 2-17. Lowest offender risk level for all websites reviewed and by country

Registry Risk Levels	United States	Canada	All Websites
	n (%)	n (%)	N (%)
High Risk	1 (14.3)	5 (71.4)	7 (50.0)
No Risk Assessment Indicated	6 (85.7)	1 (14.3)	6 (42.9)
Low Risk	0 (0.0)	1 (14.3)	1 (7.1)
Intermediate Risk	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)

Half of the websites reviewed assigned at least one classification to offenders (Table 2-18). The most common classifications were “high risk offender” (n = 4) and “sexually violent predator” (n = 3). Other classifications were “sex offender” (n = 2), “child sex offender” (n = 1), “sexually violent offender” (n = 1), “offender” (n = 1), and “multiple offender” (n = 1).

Table 2-18. Offender classifications used in registry for all websites reviewed

Classification Used	Yes	No
	n (%)	n (%)
Any Offender Classification Assigned	7 (50.0)	7 (50.0)
High Risk Offender	4 (28.6)	10 (71.4)
Sexually Violent Predator	3 (21.4)	11 (78.6)
Sex Offender	2 (14.3)	12 (85.7)
Child Sex Offender	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Sexually Violent Offender	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Offender	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Multiple Offender	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Child Kidnapper	0 (0.0)	14 (100.0)
Sexually Dangerous	0 (0.0)	14 (100.0)

For both countries, approximately half of the websites reviewed assigned offenders with at least one classification (n = 3 for American, n = 4 for Canadian); however, there were differences in which classifications were used by each country (Table 2-19). The most common classification in the United States was “sexually violent predator” (n = 3) whereas the most common classification in Canada was “high risk offender” (n = 4).

A wider variety of classifications were used in the United States than in Canada. In Canada, “high risk offender” (n = 4) and “sex offender” (n = 2) were the only classifications used whereas classifications used in the United States were “child sex offender” (n = 1), “sexually violent offender” (n = 1), “offender” (n = 1), and “multiple offender” (n = 1).

Table 2-19. Offender classifications used in registry by country

Classification Used	United States		Canada	
	Yes n (%)	No n (%)	Yes n (%)	No n (%)
Offender Classification Assigned	3 (42.9)	4 (57.1)	4 (57.1)	3 (42.9)
Sexually Violent Predator	3 (42.9)	4 (57.1)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Child Sex Offender	1 (14.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Sexually Violent Offender	1 (14.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Offender	1 (14.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Multiple Offender	1 (14.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Child Kidnapper	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
High Risk Offender	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)	4 (57.1)	3 (42.9)
Sex Offender	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)	2 (28.6)	5 (71.4)
Sexually Dangerous	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)

### 2.3.6 Additional Website Features

Several additional website features were found. The most common feature was a printer-friendly format (n = 6). Four (n = 4) websites provided a phone number to contact regarding updating incorrect information. Finally, four (n = 4) websites included a feature that provided the location of the residences of any sex offenders meeting specific search criteria (such as postal code or name) on a map. Of the websites that included a map feature, three (n = 3) mapped the

location of multiple sex offenders when searching for one specific offender, two (n = 2) mapped the location of sex offenders who were outside of a geographic search area, one (n = 1) mapped according to victim type, one (n = 1) mapped the location of schools, one (n = 1) mapped libraries, one (n = 1) mapped churches, and one (n = 1) mapped shopping centres. See Table 2-20 for a description of the additional website features for all of the websites reviewed.

Table 2-20. Additional website features for all websites reviewed

Additional Features	Provided n (%)	Not Provided n (%)
Printer-Friendly Format	6 (42.9)	8 (57.1)
Contact Number to Correct Information	4 (28.6)	10 (71.4)
Map	4 (28.6)	10 (71.4)
Multiple Sex Offenders	3 (21.4)	11 (78.6)
Offenders Outside Search Area Identified	2 (14.3)	12 (85.7)
Victim Type	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Schools	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Libraries	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Churches	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Shopping Centres	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
Daycares	0 (0.0)	14 (100.0)
Parks	0 (0.0)	14 (100.0)

As shown in Table 2-21, most American websites (n = 2) did not provide a printer-friendly format while four (n = 4) Canadian websites did include this feature. Three American websites provided a contact number to correct information while the majority of Canadian websites (n = 1) did not. Finally, no Canadian websites provided mapping whereas four American websites provided mapping (a logical finding as no Canadian sites provided offender's addresses).



Table 2-21. Additional website features by country

Additional Features	United States		Canada	
	Provided n (%)	Not Provided n (%)	Provided n (%)	Not Provided n (%)
Printer-Friendly Format	2 (28.6)	5 (71.4)	4 (57.1)	3 (42.9)
Contact Number to Correct Information	3 (42.9)	4 (57.1)	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)
Map	4 (57.1)	3 (42.9)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Multiple Sex Offenders	3 (42.9)	4 (57.1)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Offenders Outside Search Area Identified	2 (28.6)	5 (71.4)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Victim Type	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Schools	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Libraries	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Churches	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Shopping Centres	1 (14.3)	6 (85.7)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Daycares	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)
Parks	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100.0)

## 2.4 Discussion

Study 1 was designed to provide information on common community notification web page characteristics to inform the development of the web page vignette for Study 2. Levenson et al. (2007) state that information included in notification messages should enhance public safety. The systematic review highlighted that notification web pages typically do not include actuarial risk-relevant information that would be helpful in determining released offenders' risk of re-offending. Moreover, the majority of websites included in the systematic review did not provide information on any conditions or restrictions that may have been imposed on the offender during his release, nor a description of any grooming behaviours known to be employed by the offender. Because public monitoring is a key foundation upon which community notification policy has been built (Beck & Travis, 2004a; Freeman-Longo, 1996; Simon, 1998), information on conditions and grooming behaviours could be particularly helpful in aiding community members to know which behaviours may signal risk of re-offending in released sexual offenders.

A large body of literature has identified variables related to offenders' likelihood of re-offending (Hanson & Harris, 1998; Hanson & Morton-Bourgon, 2005). Several of these variables—particularly criminal history information—have the potential to be easily incorporated into community notifications. The STATIC-99, a well-validated actuarial risk assessment instrument comprises 10 items that include the offender's age; historical conviction information including number of prior non-sexual violent offences, sexual offences, and non-contact sexual offences; number of prior sentencing dates; previous victim characteristics including unrelated, stranger, and male victims; and whether the offender has cohabitated for at least two years (Hanson & Thornton, 1999; Harris, Phenix, Hanson, & Thornton, 2003).

STATIC-99 variables could be easily incorporated into community notification notices; however, the only risk-relevant information that was commonly reported in the websites reviewed in this study was the offender's age and whether he was a repeat offender. Number of victims and previous victim characteristics such as victim gender, age, or whether the victim was a stranger were not typically included in the websites reviewed although most websites did report groups who were at risk from the offender (this finding was recently supported in a review of notification websites conducted by Ackerman et al., 2011 to develop a national profile of a registered sex offender).

Because the systematic review found that the modal characteristics of the web pages reviewed did not provide adequate risk-relevant information, it was decided that the web page vignette developed for the study should be based on those websites reviewed that did contain risk-relevant information.

The current legislation in the United States and Canada was intended to allow for broad public notification in the case of high risk offenders that pose a risk to the general public (Hebenton & Thomas, 1997; Winick, 1998). As such, it should be less likely for an incest offender to be subject to broad public notification such as a web page. In addition, one of the most commonly cited goals of community notification is to empower parents to protect their children from sex offenders (Winick, 1998); thus, the vignette developed for the principal study depicted an extrafamilial child molester rather than a rapist.

Table 2-22 illustrates the 10 STATIC-99 risk factors, a description of the corresponding offender characteristic in the web page vignette, and the score assigned to the offender based on the STATIC-99 scoring criteria. As shown, the risk score of the hypothetical offender described

in the web page vignette was an extrafamilial child molester who was under 25 years of age, had four prior sexual offence convictions, one prior non-contact sexual offence conviction, and had offended against male, stranger victims. Possible scores on the STATIC-99 range between 0 and 12, with a low score indicating a low risk of re-offending (Hanson & Thornton, 1999; Harris et al., 2003). Offenders with scores of 6 or greater fall under the high risk category (Hanson & Thornton, 1999; Harris et al., 2003). The risk score for the offender described in the vignette for Study 2 was eight, which represents a high risk offender.

Table 2-22. STATIC-99 risk factors and Study 2 web page vignette characteristics

Risk Factor	Web page Vignette Characteristic	Risk Level
Young	23 years	1
Ever lived with	-	0
Any index non-sexual violence	-	0
Any prior non-sexual violence	-	0
Prior sex offences	4 prior convictions	3
Prior sentencing dates	-	0
Any convictions for non-contact sexual offences	Possession of child pornography	1
Any unrelated victims	Stranger male victim	1
Any stranger victims	Stranger male victim	1
Any male victims	Stranger male victim	1
Total STATIC-99 Risk Score		8

## CHAPTER 3: PRINCIPAL STUDY

### 3.1 Participants

A total of 271 participants were recruited over the internet via advertisements on the University of Saskatchewan's Personalized Access to Web Services (PAWS) bulletin tool, Facebook, and online classifieds including kijiji.com, craigslist.ca, and thestarphoenix.com. Three participants were excluded from the study due to large amounts (>90%) of missing data. The final sample comprised 269 participants, with 134 participants in the control group and 135 participants in the intervention group.

### 3.2 Materials

The online survey included a knowledge of crime questionnaire (Appendix B), a web page vignette depicting a high risk child molester viewed by both control and intervention groups (Appendix C), an intervention pamphlet with educational information on sexual offenders viewed only by the intervention group (Appendix D), and an adapted form of the Extended Parallel Processing Model questionnaire, Levenson's (1974) Locus of Control scale, and a series of demographic items (Appendix E).

#### 3.2.1 Knowledge of Crime Questionnaire

All participants completed a 12 item questionnaire that examined their level of knowledge of crime and sexual offending. The first three items asked respondents to rate their knowledge of crime, child sexual abuse, and sexual offending on a scale of 1 ("not at all" knowledgeable) to 7 ("Extremely" knowledgeable). The remaining items comprised a multiple choice knowledge test, with content drawn from Statistics Canada's *Crime Statistics in Canada* Report (Dauvergne, 2008). Because the intervention pamphlet included some of the answers to the Knowledge of Crime Questionnaire, this questionnaire was the first administered to participants. The percentage of correct answers for each respondent was summed and used for analyses. See Table 3-1.

Table 3-1. Knowledge of crime subscale information

Subscale	Number of Items	Max. Possible Score
Self-Rated Knowledge	3	21
Knowledge Test	9	9 (or 100%)

### **3.2.2 Web Page Vignettes**

The vignette depicted a high risk extrafamilial child molester developed using the results of Study 1 and the STATIC-99 (Hanson & Thornton, 1999), a validated actuarial risk assessment measure for predicting the likelihood of sexual re-offending. Two vignettes were developed; one depicting a high-risk offender with a STATIC-99 score of six and one depicting a high-high-risk offender with a STATIC-99 score of eight. A pilot study was conducted with three participants who completed questionnaires to respond to both the high-risk and high-high-risk offender vignettes to determine whether ceiling effects existed for any dependent variables for either vignette. Scores on the dependent variables were approximately equal for each vignette in the pilot test and it was determined that a ceiling effect did not exist. In light of these results, the researcher opted to use the high-high-risk hypothetical offender profile for the web page vignette to more accurately represent the ideal notification scenario, where only the highest risk offenders would be subject to notification.

The control group viewed the “traditional” web page vignette that contained only the web page vignette and the intervention group viewed a “high efficacy” web page vignette that contained both the traditional web page vignette and a pamphlet of information on sexual offending designed to inform respondents about avoiding sexual victimization. The information for the pamphlet was taken from the Government of Saskatchewan’s Ministry of Corrections, Public Safety, and Policing’s community notification website (CPSP, 2009).

### **3.2.3 Extended Parallel Processing Model Questionnaire**

Witte’s (1998) Extended Parallel Processing Model Questionnaire requires recommended actions specific to the fear appeal under investigation to be entered by the researcher. A total of 30 possible behavioural responses that could be adopted to avoid general and sexual victimization were taken from the Fear of Crime Questionnaire (Ferraro, 1995) and the CPSP pamphlet (CPSP, 2009). Of those items, 20 were recommendations to assist adults in avoiding victimization (personal) and 10 behaviours were recommendations to assist parents in preventing their children from being victimized (altruistic). Nine general crime avoidance behaviours were taken from Ferraro; these behaviours would not aid in avoiding the more typical forms of sexual victimization (in which an offender is known to and grooms his victim, using minimal amounts of force) and included actions such as buying a watchdog, installing extra locks on windows or doors, and keeping a weapon in one’s home. Eleven behaviours comprised recommendations to

avoid sexual victimization and included self-protective behaviours taken directly from the CPSP pamphlet such as making eye contact with others, carrying a cell phone, and fighting one's attacker and tips on protecting one's children including watching for grooming techniques, speaking with your child about being victimized by someone he or she knows, and monitoring their online activity. Additional behavioural items included teaching children about good and bad touches and avoiding the hypothetical offender's house.

Witte and Morrison (2000) reported on the psychometric properties of the EPPM questionnaire. Reliability for the different scales and sub-scales was reported as acceptable (coefficient alphas between 0.51 and 0.88). Internal consistencies for the scales and sub-scales in the current study were considerably higher than those reported in Witte and Morrison, with coefficient alphas ranging from 0.77 and 0.95. Confirmatory factor analysis reported in Witte and Morrison supported that the susceptibility, severity, response efficacy, and self-efficacy sub-scales were unidimensional although the authors did not report the factor loadings. Also, the risk susceptibility and severity sub-scales were found to combine into the perceived threat scale and the response efficacy and self-efficacy sub-scales combined into the perceived efficacy scale to form single constructs in an acceptable manner.

#### **3.2.3.1 Level of fear**

The *fear* scale was taken from Witte (1998) and comprised six items where participants rated adjectives describing how the notice made them feel (frightened, tense, nervous, anxious, uncomfortable, and nauseous) on a scale of 1 to 7 where 1 meant "not at all" and 7 meant "very much" fearful. A total score, with a possible range from 6 to 42 points, was calculated for this scale.

#### **3.2.3.2 Perceived threat**

Twelve items from Witte (1998) were rated on a 7-point agreement scale where 1 meant "strongly disagree" and 7 meant "strongly agree." The first six items examined participants' perceived *personal susceptibility* and *altruistic susceptibility* to the hypothetical offender by asking about the risk, likelihood, or possibility that they or children in their neighbourhood would be attacked by the offender.

Another six items examined the severity of the risk that the hypothetical offender posed to themselves or children in their neighbourhood. The severity items asked whether the

offender's presence was a severe problem, severe threat, or significant issue for the respondent (*personal risk severity*) or neighbourhood children (*altruistic risk severity*).

The personal and altruistic susceptibility sub-scores both ranged from 3 to 21 points. The personal risk severity and altruistic risk severity sub-scores both ranged from 3 to 21 points. Total scores for *personal perceived threat* and *altruistic perceived threat* were calculated by adding the appropriate susceptibility and severity sub-scores. Each ranged from 6 to 42 points.

Because part of the pamphlet's message was to communicate the improbability of "stranger danger," two additional perceived threat sub-scales comprising three items each asked all participants to rate the likelihood that they (personal) or children in their neighbourhood (altruistic) would be sexually assaulted by someone known to them to determine whether the intervention impacted perceived susceptibility to known offenders. The personal and altruistic susceptibility sub-scores for the "known offender" subscale ranged from 3 to 21 points each.

Participants also ranked the severity of 10 different offences including conning, breaking and entering, assault, sexual assault, and murder (Ferraro, 1995). Responses to this portion acted as a validity check to ensure that participants' perceptions of crime severity were consistent with those found in previous fear of crime literature.

### **3.2.3.3 Perceived efficacy**

Respondents rated perceived efficacy related to the 30 protective behaviours on a 7-point scale where 1 meant "strongly disagree" and 7 meant "strongly agree". This scale included sub-scales for *self-efficacy*, which was based participant ratings of the *ease* of carrying out the responses and their *ability* to carry out the responses and *response efficacy*, in which participants' rated their perception of the effectiveness of the response in avoiding sexual victimization.

Subscale scores for *altruistic self-efficacy (ease)*, *self-efficacy (ability)*, and *response efficacy* ranged from 10 to 70 points. Subscale scores for *personal self-efficacy (ease)*, *self-efficacy (ability)*, and *response efficacy* were calculated; scores for each subscale ranged from 20 to 140 points. Additional sub-scales for perceived efficacy related to self-protective behavioural responses for avoiding sexual victimization and general crime avoidance behaviours (that were

not included in the intervention brochure) were calculated.<sup>1</sup> The *sexual victimization self-protective behaviours* perceived efficacy scale score ranged from 33 to 231 points and the *general crime self-protective behaviours* perceived efficacy scale ranged from 27 to 190 points. The total *altruistic perceived efficacy* scale score ranged from 30 to 210. Total *personal perceived efficacy* scale scores, with a possible range from 60 to 420 points, were calculated by summing the self-efficacy (ease), self-efficacy (ability), and response efficacy subscale scores.

#### **3.2.3.4 Responses to threat**

Danger control and fear control responses to threat were rated on a 7-point agreement scale where 1 meant “strongly disagree” and 7 meant “strongly agree.” *Fear control responses* were examined by 16 items taken from Witte (1998). Three possible fear control responses were examined. *Defensive avoidance* was examined by asking participants if they avoided thinking about themselves (or their children) being sexually assaulted, avoided thinking about the threat the offender posed to themselves (or their children), and whether they instinctively wanted to protect themselves (or their children) from the offender upon reading the notice. Possible sub-scores ranged from 3 to 21 points for the altruistic and self-protective sub-scales. *Perceived manipulation* was examined by asking participants whether they felt the notice was manipulative, tried to manipulate them, was misleading, and was exploitative (possible scores ranged from 4 to 28 points). *Message derogation* was examined by asking participants to rate whether they thought the notice was exaggerated, distorted, overblown, overstated, downplayed, or understated (with possible scores ranging between 6 and 42 points). *Altruistic fear control response* and *personal fear control response* scale scores ranged from 13 to 91.

*Danger control responses* were examined via intentions to adopt the 30 victimization avoidance behaviours. A scale score was calculated for *altruistic danger control responses* (ranging from 10 to 70 points) as was a scale score for *personal danger control responses* (ranging from 20 to 140 points). Sub-scales for *sexual victimization* and *general crime* self-protective danger control responses were calculated and ranged from 11 to 77 points and 9 to 63 points, respectively.

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<sup>1</sup> Please note that the survey did not include general crime avoidance behavioural items for altruistic-protective behaviours



### 3.2.3.5 Current behaviours

Respondents' *current behaviours* were examined via ratings of 28 behavioural responses. Participants indicated whether they currently performed the behaviours a 7-point agreement scale where 1 meant "strongly disagree" and 7 meant "strongly agree." Because the scenario was hypothetical and this scale examined current behaviour, the two hypothetical items related to whether the respondent would avoid the offender's house or would teach their children to avoid the offender's house were not included in this section. Total scores for *current altruistic-protective behaviours* ranged from 9 to 63 points and total scores for *current self-protective behaviours* performed ranged from 19 to 133 points. Sub-scales for *sexual victimization* and *general crime* self-protective behaviour were also calculated for this scale, with possible ranges of 10 to 70 points and 9 to 63 points, respectively.

### 3.2.3.6 Attitudes toward behavioural recommendations

Participants' *attitudes* towards the behavioural responses were assessed by asking participants to provide dichotomous ratings of whether each behavior was *good-bad*, *undesirable-desirable*, and *favourable-unfavourable*. Positive ratings were assigned a 1 and negative ratings were assigned a 0, leading to an attitude sub-score ranging from 0 to 4 for each of the behavioural responses. A total attitude score for *self-protective* and *altruistic-protective behaviours* was calculated by summing the sub-scores for each behavioural response, resulting in a possible range of 0 to 80 points for self-protective behaviours and 0 to 40 points for altruistic-protective behaviours. Sub-scales for attitudes towards *sexual victimization* and *general crime* avoidance behaviours were also calculated, ranging from 0 to 44 points and 0 to 36 points, respectively.

### 3.2.3.7 Confound checks

Six items, rated on a 7-point agreement scale where 1 meant "strongly disagree" and 7 meant "strongly agree," assessed whether respondents felt the notice was accurate, objective, clearly written, understandable, educational, and of good quality.

### 3.2.3.8 Summary of EPPM questionnaire scales and sub-scales

Table 3-2 provides a breakdown of the number of items and maximum possible scores for all of the EPPM scales and sub-scales.

Table 3-2. EPPM questionnaire scale and subscale information

EPPM Scale	Subscale	Altruistic		Personal	
		Number of Items	Max. Possible Score	Number of Items	Max. Possible Score
Fear		6	42	6	42
Perceived Threat	Susceptibility	3	21	3	21
	Severity	3	21	3	21
	Total Perceived Threat	6	42	6	42
Perceived Efficacy	Self-Efficacy (Ability)	10	70	20	140
	Self-Efficacy (Ease)	10	70	20	140
	Response Efficacy	10	70	20	140
	Sexual Victimization			33	231
	General Crime			27	190
	Total Perceived Efficacy	30	210	60	420
Fear Control Responses	Defensive Avoidance	3	21	3	21
	Perceived Manipulation	4	28	4	28
	Message Derogation	6	42	6	42
	Total Fear Control	13	91	13	91
Danger Control Responses	Sexual Victimization			11	77
	General Crime			9	63
	Total Danger Control	10	70	20	240
Current Behaviours	Sexual Victimization			10	70
	General Crime			9	63
	Total Current Behaviours	9	63	19	133
Attitudes	Sexual Victimization			11	44
	General Crime			9	36
	Total Attitudes	10	40	30	80

### 3.2.4 Levenson's Locus of Control Scale

Levenson's Locus of Control Scale (LOC) comprises 24 items rated on a 6-point Likert-type scale and is made up of three sub-scales of eight items each: *belief in chance* (C), *control by powerful others* (P), and *personal control* over one's life (I; Levenson, 1974). To develop the

scale, the author adapted items from Rotter's (1966) Internal-External scale and wrote new items (it is not indicated how new items were derived). The internal consistencies for the sub-scales are acceptable (coefficient alpha for I, P, and C sub-scales = .64, .77 and .78, respectively). Factor analysis has supported the scale's factor structure. The items do not correlate highly with the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Levenson, 1974). See Table 3-3 for information on the Levenson Locus of Control questionnaire's subscales.

Table 3-3. LOC subscale information

LOC Subscale	Number of Items	Max. Possible Score
Belief in Chance	8	48
Control by Powerful Others	8	48
Personal Control	8	48

### 3.2.5 Demographics

Respondents answered several demographic questions including gender, age, political orientation, ethnicity, and province of residence (Table 3-4). In addition, respondents provided information on their household's composition including total number of residents, number of children, and number of co-resident children under and over the age of 18 years. Finally, respondents provided information about whether they, a friend, or a family member had previously been a victim of crime.

Table 3-4. Demographic characteristics and response options

Table 3-1. Demographic characteristics and response options		
Demographic Characteristic	Response Options	
Gender	Male/Female	
Age	Continuous variable	
Education	Less than high school	Bachelor's degree
	High school	Professional degree
	Some post-secondary	Master's degree
	College diploma	Doctoral degree
Political Orientation	Very liberal	Somewhat conservative
	Liberal	Conservative
	Somewhat liberal	Very conservative
Ethnicity	European/Caucasian	Middle Eastern
	First Nations	African
	Metis	Central American
	East Indian	South American
	Asian	Other
Province of Residence	Alberta	Nova Scotia
	British Columbia	Nunavut
	Manitoba	Ontario
	New Brunswick	Prince Edward Island
	Newfoundland and Labrador	Quebec
	Northwest Territories	Saskatchewan Yukon
Residential Composition		
Number of Residents in Household	Continuous variable	
Number of Children	Continuous variable	
Number of Co-Resident Children <18	Continuous variable	
Number of Co-Resident Children >18	Continuous variable	
Previous Victimization		
Self	Check all that apply (recoded to Yes/No)	
Friend		
Family		

### **3.3 Procedure**

#### **3.3.1 Recruitment**

It was important for the study's participants to be of a wider age range than is seen in a typical undergraduate population due to previous findings in the community notification literature regarding respondents who have children. In addition, because the research findings were to be generalised to a population with access to community notification web pages, it was desirable for the study's respondents to have access to the internet. Thus, participants were recruited over the internet for data collection via an online survey. A convenience sample was recruited over the internet via advertisements on the University of Saskatchewan's Personalized Access to Web Services (PAWS) bulletin tool, Facebook, and online classifieds including kijiji.com, craigslist.ca, and thestarphoenix.com.

The recruitment advertisement (Appendix F) provided participants with a description of the study and a link to the survey. Once participants accessed the survey, they self-assigned to the control or intervention group. On the opening page of the survey, a consent form (Appendix G) included a brief description of the study's purpose and procedure and outlined participants' rights to remain anonymous and withdraw from the study at any time. Participants were told that some of the information in the study may be distressing but were assured the information would be no more distressing than information provided in a typical newscast related to sexual offenders. Participants were required to indicate their consent prior to answering the survey questions.

Once inside the online survey, participants answered the knowledge of crime questionnaire, viewed the web page vignette (and the intervention pamphlet if they were in the intervention group), and answered the questionnaire items. Upon completing the survey, participants were provided with a debriefing sheet (Appendix H) providing greater detail regarding the purpose of the study, the potential impact of the results, and information about resources if participating in the study caused any distress.

#### **3.3.2 Analyses**

##### **3.3.2.1 Data cleaning**

The data were cleaned and checked according to procedures outlined in Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). First, the amount of missing data for each participant was determined; three

participants with more than 90% missing data were removed. Mean substitution was used to estimate missing values for the remaining participants with missing data.

### **3.3.2.2 Assumption checks**

Potential univariate outliers were identified by examining boxplots, histograms, and standardized scores for each variable. Cases were deleted if they were identified as an outlier on the boxplot, if the histogram indicated the case was widely separated from the distribution, and if the case's standardized score was  $\geq 3.00$ . While this criterion is conservative relative to Tabachnick and Fidell's recommendations, the researcher opted to use this strategy due to the planned multivariate analyses being sensitive to outliers. Twenty-two outliers with  $z \geq 3.29$  and 20 outliers with  $z \geq 3.00$  were deleted; one case with  $z \geq 3.00$  was retained as it was not identified as an outlier in the boxplot and inspection of the variable's histogram indicated the case was not separated from the distribution. Multivariate outliers for MANOVA and multiple regression analyses were identified by calculating Mahalanobis distances and comparing them to critical  $\chi^2$  using  $p = 0.001$  as the criterion for significance; significant multivariate outliers were excluded from analyses.

Normality was assessed for all analyses by calculating z-scores for skewness and kurtosis to determine if variable distributions were significantly skewed and/or kurtotic, using  $p = 0.001$  as the criterion for significance. Normal probability plots and histograms were also examined. Linearity and homoscedasticity between dependant variables were examined via bivariate scatterplots.

Homogeneity of variance for ANOVA analyses was determined via Levene's test using  $p > 0.05$  as the criterion for significance. Homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices for MANOVA was determined via Box's M using  $p > 0.05$  as the criterion for significance. Multicollinearity for MANOVA analyses was examined by determining whether Pearson's correlations between dependent variables were over .90 and whether the within cell correlation matrix determinants were  $< 0.0001$ . Multicollinearity for the multiple regression analyses was assessed by examining whether Condition Indexes were  $> 30$  and variance proportions were  $> 0.50$ .

### **3.3.2.3 Validity checks**

Several validity checks were performed. First, *t*-tests determined whether the groups differed in level of self-reported fear and perceived threat. A second check examined whether

there were differences in the intervention and control group's perceived risk susceptibility to a known and hypothetical offender. Finally, to examine whether participants' overall perceptions of crime severity were consistent with those found in fear of crime literature, mean and modal ranking of participants' ratings of the severity of 10 different offences including conning, breaking and entering, assault, sexual assault, and murder were calculated and the two groups compared using independent samples *t*-tests.

#### **3.3.2.4 Confound checks**

The first confound check determined whether there were any between-group differences in self-reported prior knowledge of child sexual abuse and sexual offending. In addition, independent samples *t*-tests were conducted to determine whether there were any differences between the control and intervention groups on the confound check items in the EPPM questionnaire.

#### **3.3.2.5 Primary analyses**

As a preliminary check to determine whether the relationships between the dependent variables were similar to what would be predicted by the EPPM, Pearson correlations between the indices for fear, perceived threat, perceived efficacy, and responses to threat were calculated.

To examine participants' ( $N = 263$ ) response to threats to self, a 2x2 between-subjects multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted with group (control and intervention) and gender (male and female) as independent variables and five dependent variables (fear, perceived threat, perceived efficacy, fear control responses, and danger control responses) using SPSS GLM and MANOVA. There were no multivariate outliers.

A series of exploratory MANOVA analyses were also conducted to examine between-groups differences in the sub-scales. Five 2x2 MANOVA analyses with group and gender entered as independent variables were conducted: (1) perceived threat to examine between-group differences in perceived susceptibility and severity; (2) perceived efficacy to examine between-group differences in self-efficacy (ability), self-efficacy (ease), and response efficacy (one multivariate outlier was excluded); (3) perceived efficacy to examine differences in the adoption of sexual victimization and general crime prevention behaviours (two multivariate outliers were excluded); (4) fear control responses to examine differences in defensive avoidance, perceived manipulation, and message derogation (one multivariate outlier was excluded); and (5) danger control responses to examine whether there were any differences in sexual victimization and

general crime prevention behaviours. An exploratory 2x2 ANOVA with group and gender as independent variables was also conducted to examine differences in parents' and non-parents' adoption of danger control responses.

Evaluation of the assumptions for MANOVA found the distribution for perceived threat was slightly significantly skewed ( $z = 3.61, p > 0.001$ ) but all other dependent variables did not have skewed distributions. Because attempts to improve the distribution via log transformation made all other dependent variables' distributions significantly skewed, analyses were conducted on untransformed variables. None of the dependent variables' distributions were significantly kurtotic. Box's M were all non-significant. None of the correlations between the dependent variables were over .90 and none of the within-cell correlation matrix determinants were  $<0.0001$ , suggesting multicollinearity was not a problem (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Due to possible violations of some assumptions including unequal numbers of participants in each cell of the design due to the small number of male participants, Pillai's Trace was used as the criterion. Post-hoc power analysis found the design was sufficient to find a medium effect size.

It was not possible to perform a MANOVA to investigate parents' responses to altruistic threats due to low power and the small number of male participants resulting in there being more dependant variables than cases in certain cells of the design (Tabachnick & Fiddell, 2007). A series of 2x2 between-subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to investigate parents' responses ( $n = 46$ ) to altruistic threats using group (control and intervention) and gender (male and female) as independent variables; however, due to low power and the small number of male participants, interpreting the results of this analysis was difficult (this analysis is reported in Appendix I). Five one-way ANOVAs were conducted to investigate the impact of the intervention on fear, perceived threat, perceived efficacy, fear control responses, and danger control responses. The assumptions of normality, linearity, and homogeneity of variance (non-significant Levene's tests) were satisfactorily met.

Finally, a series of five exploratory sequential multiple regression analyses were conducted to explore whether individual difference variables (parental status; educational attainment; previous self-victimisation; and chance, personal control, and powerful others locus of control) from the community notification literature would significantly contribute to variance in level of fear ( $N = 265$ ), perceived threat ( $N = 266$ ), perceived efficacy ( $N = 266$ ), fear control responses ( $N = 265$ ), and danger control responses ( $N = 264$ ) over and above group membership



and gender. Group and gender were entered into the regression equations in block one and parental status, education, previous self-victimization, and the three locus of control variables (chance, personal control, and powerful others) were entered into block two of each regression equation.

Assumptions for multiple regression were evaluated via procedures recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). The minimum required sample size for multiple regression was calculated using  $N = 50 + 8m$ , where  $m$  = the number of independent variables, which resulted in a minimum required sample size of 114. Due to an insufficient sample size for the altruistic variables, the regression analyses were only conducted to examine self-protective variables. Examination of residual plots and z-scores for skewness and kurtosis indicated that the perceived threat dependent variable was significantly skewed; perceived threat was log-transformed for the regression analyses. Outlier analyses revealed no univariate outliers and one multivariate outlier, which was excluded from all analyses. Inspection of the Condition Index and variance proportions for all five analyses revealed that multicollinearity may be an issue (Condition Index  $\approx 42$ , variance proportion = 0.99 for all five analyses); however, because the goal of the regression analyses was to determine which independent variables predicted variance in dependent variable scores, this violation was not serious (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

### **3.4 Results**

#### **3.4.1 Participant Descriptive Statistics**

Independent-samples  $t$ -tests and  $\chi^2$  tests (shown in Table 3-5) indicate the control and intervention groups did not differ significantly on any of the demographic variables. The mean age was 27.20 years,  $t(266) = 0.45$ ,  $p = 0.66$ , and a large majority of the sample was female (85% of participants),  $\chi^2 = 0.40$ ,  $p = .53$ . A total of 48 participants, 26 in the control group and 22 in the intervention group were parents ( $\chi^2 = 0.44$ ,  $p = 0.51$ ). The majority of the sample self-identified as being of Caucasian/European descent (84.0% of participants),  $\chi^2 = 4.32$ ,  $p = 0.83$ . The most commonly reported highest level of education was “some post-secondary” (40.9% of participants) and “bachelor’s degree” (31.6% of participants),  $\chi^2 = 4.52$ ,  $p = 0.72$ . The majority of participants were Saskatchewan residents (84.8% of participants). There was a greater proportion of participants from Alberta in the control group although the difference was not significant,  $\chi^2 = 12.65$ ,  $p = 0.08$ . The sample tended towards a liberal political orientation with 78.7 percent of the sample reporting being either “somewhat liberal,” “liberal,” or “very liberal.”

The most commonly reported political orientation was “liberal” (39.8% of participants),  $\chi^2 = 1.93, p = 0.86$ .

Table 3-5. Participant demographic characteristics

Demographic Variable	Control		Intervention		All Participants		<i>t</i> or $\chi^2$
	n	M (SD)	n	M (SD)	N	M (SD)	
Age (Years)	132	27.46 (10.19)	134	26.96 (8.29)	266	27.20 (9.27)	.45
	n	%	n	%	N	%	
Gender							
Male	18	13.5	22	16.3	40	14.9	.40
Female	115	86.5	113	83.7	228	84.8	
Parent (Yes)	26	19.4	22	16.3	48	17.8	.44
Highest Level of Education							
Less than High School	1	0.7	0	0.0	1	0.4	4.52
High School	5	3.7	8	5.9	13	4.8	
Some Post-Secondary	54	40.3	56	41.5	110	40.9	
College Diploma	15	11.2	9	6.7	24	8.9	
Bachelor's Degree	40	29.9	45	33.3	85	31.6	
Professional Degree	6	4.5	6	4.4	12	4.5	
Master's Degree	10	7.5	10	7.4	20	7.4	
Doctoral Degree	3	2.2	1	0.7	4	1.5	
Ethnicity							
European/Caucasian	117	87.3	109	82.0	226	84.0	4.32
Asian	4	3.0	3	2.3	7	2.6	
Métis	3	2.2	3	2.3	6	2.2	
East Indian	2	1.5	3	2.3	5	1.9	
Central American	1	0.7	3	2.3	4	1.5	
First Nations	1	0.7	1	0.8	2	0.7	
South American	1	0.7	1	0.8	2	0.7	
African	0	0.0	2	1.5	2	0.7	
Other	5	3.7	8	6.0	13	4.8	

Table 3-5 Continued. Participant demographic characteristics

Demographic Variable	Control		Intervention		All Participants		<i>t</i> or $\chi^2$
	n	M (SD)	n	M (SD)	N	M (SD)	
Province of Residence							
Saskatchewan	113	84.3	115	85.2	228	84.8	12.65
Alberta	16	11.9	7	5.2	23	8.6	
British Columbia	4	3.0	5	3.7	9	3.3	
Ontario	0	0.0	5	3.7	5	1.9	
Manitoba	1	0.7	0	0.0	1	0.4	
New Brunswick	0	0.0	1	0.7	1	0.4	
Quebec	0	0.0	1	0.7	1	0.4	
Yukon	0	0.0	1	0.7	1	0.4	
Political Orientation							
Very Liberal	20	15.0	23	17.2	43	16.0	1.93
Liberal	51	38.3	56	41.8	107	39.8	
Somewhat Liberal	30	22.6	30	22.4	60	22.3	
Somewhat Conservative	21	15.8	17	12.7	38	14.1	
Conservative	8	6.0	7	5.2	15	5.6	
Very Conservative	3	2.3	1	0.7	4	1.5	

On average, participants reported 2.69 individuals resided in their household,  $t(266) = -0.03$ ,  $p = .98$ . The mean number of children was 0.34,  $t(266) = 0.27$ ,  $p = 0.79$ , the mean number of co-residents who were children under 18 years of age was 0.36,  $t(260) = 0.38$ ,  $p = 0.71$ , and the mean number of co-residents who were children over 18 years of age was 0.84,  $t(259) = 0.56$ ,  $p = 0.58$ . Parents had a mean number of household residents of 3.00,  $t(46) = -1.81$ ,  $p = 0.08$ , a mean number of 1.90 children in their household,  $t(34.91) = -0.67$ ,  $p = 0.51$ , a mean number of co-resident children under 18 years of age of 1.11,  $t(45) = -0.75$ ,  $p = 0.46$ , and a mean number of co-resident children over 18 years of age of 0.58,  $t(43) = -0.60$ ,  $p = 0.55$ .

A total of 131 participants (48.7%) reported that they had previously been a victim of a crime and 166 and 191 participants (61.7% and 71.0%) reported that a family member and friend, respectively, had previously been a victim of a crime. There were no significant

differences between the intervention and control groups on previous victimization of self,  $\chi^2 = 0.45$ ,  $p = 0.50$ , family members,  $\chi^2 = 0.59$ ,  $p = 0.44$ , or friends,  $\chi^2 = 0.01$ ,  $p = 0.94$ .

The sample tended towards a “powerful others” LOC ( $M = 34.83$ ,  $SD = 4.84$ ) relative to “chance” ( $M = 20.04$ ,  $SD = 5.55$ ) and “personal control” ( $M = 20.67$ ,  $SD = 5.85$ ) LOC. The control and intervention groups did not differ on the “chance,”  $t(265) = -1.20$ ,  $p = 0.23$ , “powerful others,”  $t(265) = 0.78$ ,  $p = 0.44$ , and “personal control,”  $t(265) = -1.38$ ,  $p = 0.17$  subscale scores. Refer to Table 3-6.

Table 3-6. Participant demographic characteristics continued

Demographic Variable	Control		Intervention		All Participants		t or $\chi^2$
	n	M (SD)	n	M (SD)	N	M (SD)	
Residential Composition (All Participants)							
# people in residence	133	2.69 (1.37)	135	2.70 (1.22)	268	2.69 (1.29)	-.03
Total Children	133	0.35 (0.79)	135	0.33 (0.87)	268	0.34 (0.83)	.27
Co-Residents (<18 yrs)	128	0.38 (0.85)	134	0.34 (0.82)	262	0.36 (0.84)	.38
Co-Residents (>18 yrs)	128	0.88 (1.29)	133	0.80 (1.19)	261	0.84 (1.23)	.56
Residential Composition (Parents Only)							
# people in residence	26	2.73 (1.08)	22	3.32 (1.17)	48	3.00 (1.90)	-1.81
Total Children	26	1.81 (0.75)	22	2.00 (1.15)	48	1.90 (0.95)	-.67
Co-Residents (<18 yrs)	25	1.00 (1.04)	22	1.22 (1.02)	47	1.11 (1.03)	-.75
Co-Residents (>18 yrs)	24	0.50 (0.72)	21	0.67 (1.11)	45	0.58 (0.92)	-.60
	n	%	n	%	N	%	
Any Previous Victimization (Yes)							
Self	68	50.7	63	46.7	131	48.7	.45
Family	83	61.9	83	61.5	166	61.7	.01
Friend	98	73.1	93	68.9	191	71.0	.59

Table 3-6 Continued. Participant demographic characteristics continued

Demographic Variable	Control		Intervention		All Participants		t or $\chi^2$
	n	M (SD)	n	M (SD)	N	M (SD)	
Locus of Control							
Chance	134	19.63 (5.48)	133	20.44 (5.61)	267	20.04 (5.55)	-1.20
Powerful Others	134	35.06 (5.02)	133	34.60 (4.66)	267	34.83 (4.84)	.78
Personal Control	134	20.18 (5.42)	133	21.16 (6.24)	267	20.67 (5.85)	-1.38

Participants tended to have neutral attitudes toward the self-protective behavioural change options in the questionnaire, with the average subscale score being in the mid-range of possible scores on this subscale ( $M = 45.87$ ,  $SD = 8.80$ , with a possible maximum score of 80 points); attitudes toward the altruistic-protective behavioural change options were more positive ( $M = 28.74$ ,  $SD = 2.21$ , with a possible maximum score of 40 points). The two groups did not differ in their attitudes towards either the self-protective behaviours,  $t(266) = 0.88$ ,  $p = .38$ , or the altruistic-protective behaviours,  $t(40.92) = -1.61$ ,  $p = .11$ .

When asked about whether they currently performed any of the self-protective behaviours, participants' mean responses were in the mid-range ( $M = 86.05$ ,  $SD = 16.47$ , with a maximum possible score of 133); participants scored higher on their current performance of altruistic-protective behaviours ( $M = 54.85$ ,  $SD = 10.65$ , with a possible maximum score of 63 points). The control and intervention groups did not differ on their current self- or altruistic-protective behaviours,  $t(267) = 0.76$ ,  $p = 0.45$  and  $t(46) = 0.32$ ,  $p = .75$ , respectively. See Table 3-7.

Table 3-7. Mean scores on attitudes and current behaviour sub-scales

Demographic Variable	Control		Intervention		All Participants		<i>t</i> or $\chi^2$
	n	M (SD)	n	M (SD)	N	M (SD)	
Attitudes							
Self	133	46.3 (9.0)	135	45.4 (8.6)	268	45.87 (8.80)	.88
Altruistic	26	28.3 (2.6)	21	29.3 (1.5)	47	28.74 (2.21)	-1.61
Current Behaviour							
Self	134	86.81 (17.27)	135	85.29 (15.67)	269	86.05 (16.47)	.76
Altruistic	26	55.31 (10.42)	22	54.32 (11.13)	48	54.85 (10.65)	.32

Paired samples *t*-tests comparing individual current behaviours and intentions to adopt danger control responses indicate that participants in both groups had significantly higher danger control scores relative to current behaviours on the following items: “ask someone to walk with me when I am out,” “tell another person where I am when I am out,” “install extra locks on windows or doors,” and “carry something to defend myself.” Control group participants were significantly more likely to report they would “yell loudly if I was in trouble,” “fight if I was attacked,” and “learn more about self-defence” relative to their current behaviours. Finally, intervention group participants had increased intentions to “buy a watchdog” and “keep a weapon in my home for protection” as well as decreased intentions to “add outside lighting to my home” relative to their current level of reported behaviours. Table 3-8 shows the means, standard deviations, *t*-scores, and degrees of freedom for the significant questionnaire items (using  $\alpha = 0.0009$  to correct for Type I error).

Table 3-8. Significant paired samples t-tests between current behaviour and danger control response questionnaire items

Questionnaire Item	Control						Intervention					
	Current Behaviour		Danger Control		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Current Behaviour		Danger Control		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>
	N	M (SD)	N	M (SD)			N	M (SD)	N	M (SD)		
Ask someone to walk with me when I am out	134	3.68 (1.86)	134	4.44 (1.93)	4.76***	133	134	3.47 (2.00)	134	4.30 (2.06)	5.41***	133
Tell another person where I am when I am out	134	4.62 (1.94)	134	5.18 (1.77)	4.15***	133	134	4.34 (2.16)	134	4.84 (2.07)	3.52***	133
Yell loudly if I was in trouble	134	5.50 (1.61)	134	6.03 (1.38)	5.11***	133	134	5.85 (1.34)	134	6.21 (1.18)	2.85	133
Fight if I was attacked	134	5.48 (1.68)	134	5.93 (1.49)	3.99***	133	134	5.57 (1.59)	134	5.98 (1.37)	3.29	133
Install extra locks on windows or doors	134	3.22 (2.05)	134	3.96 (2.06)	4.09***	133	134	2.89 (2.09)	134	3.49 (1.97)	3.82***	133
Buy a watchdog	134	2.13 (2.11)	134	2.48 (1.87)	2.04	133	134	1.90 (1.85)	134	2.31 (1.80)	2.89***	133
Keep a weapon in my home for protection	134	2.33 (2.15)	134	2.71 (2.10)	2.52	133	134	1.91 (1.68)	134	2.47 (1.80)	4.26***	133
Add outside lighting to my home	134	4.74 (2.16)	134	4.15 (1.95)	-2.66	133	134	4.73 (2.16)	134	3.90 (2.00)	-4.63***	133
Learn more about self-defence	134	3.84 (1.79)	134	4.61 (1.73)	4.37***	133	134	4.08 (1.88)	134	4.31 (1.70)	1.23	133
Carry something to defend myself	134	2.22 (1.84)	134	3.54 (2.11)	7.97***	133	134	2.12 (1.69)	134	3.19 (2.04)	6.74***	133

\*\*\* $p < 0.0009$

### 3.4.2 Validity Checks

The EPPM predicts that the intervention would impact perceived efficacy, not level of fear. The first manipulation check determined whether the intervention group had a higher level of self-reported fear and perceived efficacy than the control group. The mean level of self-rated fear was 25.35 ( $SD = 8.44$ ) and 25.44 ( $SD = 7.81$ ) for the control and intervention groups, respectively. A ceiling effect for fear was not found as the possible maximum score for fear was 42 points. An independent samples  $t$ -test to determine whether the control group had a higher level of fear than the intervention group was non-significant,  $t(266) = -0.18, p = 0.86$ .

Independent samples  $t$ -tests comparing the intervention and control groups' mean scores for altruistic and personal perceived efficacy found no significant difference between the two groups,  $t(46) = -0.72, p = 0.48$  and  $t(266) = 0.05, p = 0.96$ , respectively, suggesting the intervention was ineffective at increasing perceived efficacy in the intervention group. The mean altruistic perceived efficacy scores for both control ( $M = 191.04, SD = 21.62$ ) and intervention groups ( $M = 195.14, SD = 16.93$ ) were both high as the maximum possible score for this scale was 210. Personal perceived efficacy scores were more moderate for both the control ( $M = 322.30, SD = 49.73$ ) and intervention groups ( $M = 321.99, SD = 46.84$ ) as the possible maximum score was 420. See Table 3-9.

Table 3-9. Validity check for level of fear and perceived efficacy

Variable	Control		Intervention		All Participants		$t$
	n	M (SD)	n	M (SD)	N	M (SD)	
Self-Rated Fear	134	25.25 (9.04)	134	25.44 (7.81)	268	25.35 (8.44)	-.18
Perceived Efficacy							
Altruistic	26	191.04 (21.62)	22	195.14 (16.93)	48	192.92 (19.52)	-.72
Personal	134	322.30 (49.73)	134	321.99 (46.84)	268	322.15 (48.22)	.05

Independent samples  $t$ -tests to examine perceived risk susceptibility to a known offender (see Table 3-10) revealed no between-group differences for altruistic risk,  $t(266) = -0.20, p = 0.84$ , or personal risk,  $t(266) = -0.91, p = 0.36$ , suggesting the intervention pamphlet was ineffective at increasing intervention group participants' awareness of the unlikelihood of



“stranger danger.” Paired samples *t*-tests found no differences in altruistic susceptibility between the known and hypothetical offenders,  $t(265) = -0.06, p = 0.96$ , which indicates a general lack of awareness of stranger danger among participants.

Paired samples *t*-tests indicate that, regardless of group, altruistic risk susceptibility ratings were significantly higher than personal risk susceptibility ratings for both known offenders,  $t(267) = -14.96, p < 0.001$ , and the hypothetical offender,  $t(263) = -29.81, p < 0.001$ , suggesting both groups felt child molesters (including the hypothetical offender depicted in the notice) were less likely to victimize adults.

Table 3-10. Validity check for risk susceptibility

Variable	Control		Intervention		All Participants		<i>t</i>
	n	M (SD)	n	M (SD)	N	M (SD)	
Known Offender							
Altruistic	134	14.22 (3.66)	134	14.31 (3.90)	268	14.26 (3.78)	-.20
Personal	134	10.18 (4.68)	134	10.70 (4.60)	268	10.44 (4.64)	-.91
Altruistic-Personal							-14.96***
Hypothetical Offender							
Altruistic	133	14.16 (4.18)	133	14.32 (3.93)	264	14.24 (4.05)	-.32
Personal	131	5.92 (3.36)	133	6.38 (3.60)	264	6.15 (3.48)	-1.09
Altruistic-Personal							-29.81***

\*\*\* $p < 0.001$

To examine whether participants’ overall perceptions of crime severity were consistent with those found in fear of crime literature, a modal ranking of participants’ ratings of the severity of 10 different offences was calculated. The severity rankings were consistent with prior literature as well as within the entire sample with the exception of a tied ranking of 9 for “being cheated, conned, or swindled out of your money” and “having your property damaged by vandals” in the control group. Refer to Table 3-11.

Table 3-11. Crime severity rankings

Crime	Control		Intervention		All Participants	
	n	Mode	n	Mode	N	Mode
Being murdered	129	1.00	130	1.00	259	1.00
Being sexually assaulted or raped	122	2.00	128	2.00	250	2.00
Being attacked by someone with a weapon	133	3.00	132	3.00	265	3.00
Having someone break into your home while you are there	126	4.00	125	4.00	251	4.00
Being robbed or mugged on the street	133	5.00	133	5.00	266	5.00
Having someone break into your home while you are away	126	6.00	133	6.00	259	6.00
Having your car stolen	127	7.00	130	7.00	257	7.00
Being cheated, conned, or swindled out of your money	126	9.00	129	8.00	255	8.00
Having your property damaged by vandals	134	9.00	133	9.00	267	9.00
Begging or panhandling	132	10.00	131	10.00	263	10.00

### 3.4.3 Confound Checks

The first confound check examined whether there were differences between the intervention and control group's self-reported knowledge of child sexual abuse and sexual offending prior to viewing the web page vignette (Table 3-12). The mean self-rated knowledge subscale scores for the control and intervention groups indicates that, overall, participants lacked confidence in their knowledge of sexual assault and abuse (the total possible score was 21 points). Performance on the knowledge test confirms participants had relatively low knowledge, with both groups achieving an average of 40% correct. Independent-samples *t*-tests found no significant differences in participants' ratings of their knowledge,  $t(265) = 0.05$ ,  $p = 0.96$ , or on the knowledge test score,  $t(259.13) = 1.12$ ,  $p = 0.27$ . Participants with liberal political orientations had significantly higher knowledge test scores than participants with centrist and conservative political orientations,  $F(2, 262) = 8.95$ ,  $p < .0001$ . There was no correlation between self-rated knowledge and the knowledge test score ( $r = -0.01$ ,  $p = 0.85$ ).

Table 3-12. Knowledge of crime

Knowledge of Crime	Control		Intervention		<i>t</i>
	n	M (SD)	N	M (SD)	
Self-Rated Knowledge	132	10.9 (3.3)	135	10.4 (3.9)	1.12
Knowledge Test Score	133	3.9 (1.4)	134	3.9 (1.5)	.05

Independent samples *t*-tests were conducted to determine whether there were any differences between the control and intervention groups on the confound check items from the EPPM questionnaire (see Table 3-13). The intervention group was significantly more likely to indicate that the web page vignette taught them a lot about sexual offending,  $t(256.48) = -4.41, p < 0.001$ , contained good quality information,  $t(266) = -2.95, p < 0.001$ , and was helpful for learning how to avoid being sexually victimized,  $t(266) = -9.67, p < 0.0001$  (critical  $\alpha = 0.007$ ). There were no significant differences in participants' perceptions of the vignette's accuracy,  $t(266) = -1.84, p = 0.07$ , objectivity,  $t(266) = 0.71, p = 0.48$ , clarity,  $t(265) = 0.02, p = 0.98$ , and understandability,  $t(266) = 0.49, p = 0.62$ .

Table 3-13. EPPM confound check items

Confound Check Item	Control		Intervention		<i>t</i>
	n	M (SD)	n	M (SD)	
This notice was an accurate description of a sexual offender	133	4.83 (1.28)	135	5.11 (1.25)	-1.84
This notice was an objective description of a sexual offender	134	5.08 (1.45)	134	4.96 (1.48)	.71
This notice was clearly written	134	5.55 (1.13)	133	5.55 (1.21)	.02
I understood this notice	133	6.00 (1.00)	135	5.94 (0.97)	.49
I learned a lot about sexual offending from this notice	133	2.65 (1.48)	135	3.55 (1.82)	-4.41****
The quality of the information in this notice was good	134	4.26 (1.54)	134	4.79 (1.39)	-2.95***
The information in this notice was helpful for learning how to avoid sexual victimization	134	2.47 (1.63)	134	4.51 (1.81)	-9.67****

\*\*\* $p < 0.001$ , \*\*\*\* $p < 0.0001$

### 3.4.5 Primary Analyses

#### 3.4.5.1 Hypotheses 1 to 4: Pattern of relationships among variables

Hypotheses 1 to 4 were that, overall (1) higher levels of fear would be associated with greater perceived threat; (2) increased levels of fear would be associated with greater intended behavioural changes (danger control responses); (3) lower perceived efficacy would be associated with increased fear control responses; and (4) higher perceived efficacy would be associated with greater likelihood of adopting danger control responses.

To determine whether the relationships between the dependent variables were consistent with what would be predicted by the EPPM, Pearson correlations between the indices for fear, perceived threat, perceived efficacy, and responses to threat were calculated. The pattern of correlations (shown in Table 3-14) for self-protective behaviours for the entire sample was relatively consistent with the EPPM, which predicts positive correlations between fear and perceived threat,  $r = 0.65$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $N = 268$ , fear and danger control responses,  $r = 0.41$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $N = 266$ , and perceived efficacy and danger control responses,  $r = 0.63$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $N = 266$ . The EPPM also predicts negative correlations between perceived threat and fear control responses,  $r = -0.22$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $N = 268$ , perceived efficacy and fear control responses,  $r = -0.10$ ,  $p = 0.10$ ,  $N = 267$ , and fear control responses and danger control responses,  $r = -0.25$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $N = 266$ ; the correlation between perceived efficacy and fear control responses was not significant. A predicted positive correlation between fear and fear control responses was not found,  $r = -0.19$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $N = 267$ .

Table 3-14. Correlations for perceived threats to self (entire sample)

Dependent Variable	1	2	3	4	5
1. Fear					
2. Perceived Threat	.65***				
3. Perceived Efficacy	.12	.20***			
4. Fear Control Responses	-.19**	-.22***	-.10		
5. Danger Control Responses	.41***	.45***	.63***	-.25***	

\* $p < 0.05$ . \*\* $p < 0.01$ . \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

The magnitudes and patterns of the correlations for the control group were consistent with the correlations found for the entire sample. However, this pattern differed for the intervention group, primarily in the magnitude of the correlations between fear and fear control responses, which approached zero and was non-significant,  $r = -0.05$ ,  $p = 0.56$ ,  $n = 133$ . See Table 3-15. Please note that the correlations for the control group are in the upper diagonal and the correlations for the intervention group are in the lower diagonal.

Table 3-15. Correlations for perceived threats to self (by group)

Dependent Variable	1	2	3	4	5
1. Fear		.70***	.10	-.29***	.50***
2. Perceived Threat	.58***		.19*	-.22**	.47***
3. Perceived Efficacy	.14	.21*		-.08	.64***
4. Fear Control Responses	-.05	-.23**	-.12		
5. Danger Control Responses	.29***	.42***	.61***	-.29***	-.21*

\* $p < 0.05$ . \*\* $p < 0.01$ . \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

The pattern of correlations found for altruistic protective behaviours for the entire sample (see Table 3-16) was consistent with the correlations found for self-protective behaviours despite the small sample size. The predicted positive correlations were found between fear and perceived threat,  $r = 0.35$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ,  $N = 48$ , fear and danger control responses,  $r = 0.30$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ,  $N = 48$ , and perceived efficacy and danger control responses,  $r = 0.42$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $N = 48$ . The predicted negative correlations between perceived threat and fear control responses,  $r = -0.47$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $N = 46$ , perceived efficacy and fear control responses,  $r = -0.16$ ,  $p = 0.29$ ,  $N = 46$ , and fear control responses and danger control responses,  $r = -0.28$ ,  $p = 0.06$ ,  $N = 46$ , were also found although the correlations between perceived efficacy and fear control responses and fear control and danger control responses were not significant. The predicted positive correlation between fear and fear control responses was non-significant,  $r = -0.21$ ,  $p = 0.15$ ,  $N = 46$ .

Table 3-16. Correlations for perceived altruistic threats (entire sample)

Dependent Variable	1	2	3	4	5
1. Fear					
2. Perceived Threat	.35*				
3. Perceived Efficacy	.06	-.01			
4. Fear Control Responses	-.21	-.47***	-.16		
5. Danger Control Responses	.30*	.19	.42**	-.28	

\* $p < 0.05$ . \*\* $p < 0.01$ . \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

The pattern of correlations for both the control and intervention group (refer to Table 3-17) was relatively consistent with the pattern found for the entire sample; however, the predicted positive correlation between fear and fear control responses that was not found in any of the other correlation matrices was found for the intervention group (given the small sample size, it is difficult to draw conclusions about the meaning of this correlation). Note that the correlations for the control group are in the upper diagonal and the correlations for the intervention group are in the lower diagonal.

Table 3-17. Correlations for perceived altruistic threats (by group)

Dependent Variable	1	2	3	4	5
1. Fear		0.48*	0.14	-0.47*	0.31
2. Perceived Threat	0.18		0.10	-0.47*	0.07
3. Perceived Efficacy	-0.12	-0.18		-0.30	0.48*
4. Fear Control Responses	0.24	-0.49*	0.10		-0.28
5. Danger Control Responses	0.31	0.35	0.35	-0.29	

\* $p < 0.05$

### 3.4.5.2 Hypotheses 5 and 6: Fear control and danger control responses for threats to self

Hypotheses 5 and 6 were: (5) the intervention group would have higher perceived threat, higher perceived efficacy, be less likely to adopt fear control responses, and be more likely to adopt danger control responses than the control group and (6) female participants would have higher levels of fear, higher perceived threat, lower perceived efficacy, increased fear control responses, and increased danger control responses overall compared to male participants.

As illustrated in Table 3-18, a 2 x 2 between-subjects MANOVA conducted to examine between group differences in threats to self revealed non-significant main effect for group,  $F(5, 255) = 1.36, p = 0.48$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.02$ , and a non-significant interaction between group and gender,  $F(5, 255) = 1.68, p = 0.14$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.03$ , suggesting the intervention was ineffective at producing changes in perceived efficacy, fear control responses, and danger control responses. A significant main effect was found for gender,  $F(5, 255) = 2.94, p < 0.05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.05$ , although this effect explained small amounts of variance.

Table 3-18. MANOVA for threats to self scales

Effect	$df_1$	$df_2$	Pillai's Trace	$F$	Partial $\eta^2$	Observed Power
Group	5	255	.02	.91	.02	.32
Gender	5	255	.05	2.94*	.05	.85
Group by Gender Interaction	5	255	.03	1.68	.03	.58

\* $p < 0.05$

Subsequent ANOVAs (see Table 3-19) to investigate differences in specific dependent variables indicate a non-hypothesized significant main effect for group for fear,  $F(1, 259) = 3.84, p < 0.05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.02$ , although the effect size was small. A significant non-hypothesized group by gender interaction was also found for fear,  $F(1, 259) = 5.89, p < 0.05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.02$ .

There was no main effect of gender for perceived efficacy,  $F(1, 259) = 0.02, p = 0.90$  partial  $\eta^2 = 0.00$ ; however, a main effect of gender was found for fear,  $F(1, 259) = 5.00, p < 0.05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.02$ , perceived threat,  $F(1, 259) = 4.04, p < 0.05$  partial  $\eta^2 = 0.02$ , fear control responses,  $F(1, 259) = 5.88, p < 0.05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.02$ , and danger control responses,  $F(1, 259) = 6.11, p < .05$  partial  $\eta^2 = 0.02$  although effect sizes were small.

Table 3-19. ANOVAs for individual threats to self scales

Effect	Dependent Variable	$df_1$	$df_2$	Univariate $F$	Partial $\eta^2$
Group	Fear	1	259	3.84*	.02
	Perceived Threat	1	259	.84	.00
	Perceived Efficacy	1	259	.32	.00
	Fear Control Responses	1	259	.06	.00
	Danger Control Responses	1	259	.03	.00
Gender	Fear	1	259	5.00*	.02
	Perceived Threat	1	259	4.04*	.02
	Perceived Efficacy	1	259	.02	.00
	Fear Control Responses	1	259	5.88*	.02
	Danger Control Responses	1	259	6.11*	.02
Group by Gender Interaction	Fear	1	259	5.89*	.02
	Perceived Threat	1	259	.40	.00
	Perceived Efficacy	1	259	.56	.00
	Fear Control Responses	1	259	.08	.00
	Danger Control Responses	1	259	.38	.00

\* $p < 0.05$ 

The results do not support hypothesis 5. Overall, the intervention group ( $M = 25.52$ ,  $SD = 7.73$ ) was more likely to have a higher score for fear than the control group ( $M = 25.23$ ,  $SD = 9.07$ ), which suggests the intervention increased fear slightly overall. Examination of the variable means reveals that overall, participants scored in the mid-ranges for level of fear ( $M = 25.37$ ,  $SD = 8.42$ , out of a possible maximum of 42). No between-group differences were found in perceived threat, perceived efficacy, fear control responses, or danger control responses. Participants scored in the mid-ranges for perceived threat ( $M = 16.38$ ,  $SD = 7.10$ , out of a possible maximum of 42). Total perceived efficacy in the sample was high ( $M = 322.06$ ,  $SD = 48.33$ , out of a possible maximum of 420), indicating that participants felt the behavioural responses in the questionnaire were within their ability to perform and would be effective in avoiding victimization. The hypothesized group main effect for fear control responses was not found. Overall, participants' endorsements of fear control responses scored in the scale mid-range ( $M = 41.83$ ,  $SD = 11.19$ , with a possible maximum score of 91). Finally, the intervention



group did not have higher intentions to adopt danger control responses relative to the control group. Intentions to adopt danger control responses also scored in the low mid-range on average ( $M = 97.37$ ,  $SD = 21.65$ , with a maximum possible score of 240).

Hypothesis 6 was largely supported. As hypothesized, females were overall more likely to have higher scores for fear ( $M = 25.82$ ,  $SD = 8.26$ ) than males ( $M = 22.72$ ,  $SD = 9.00$ ). Females in the intervention group were more likely to have lower scores for fear ( $M = 25.47$ ,  $SD = 7.76$ ) than females in the control group ( $M = 26.15$ ,  $SD = 8.73$ ), indicating the intervention may have decreased fear in female participants. The opposite effect was seen in male participants: male participants in the control group had lower fear scores ( $M = 19.35$ ,  $SD = 9.26$ ) than the intervention group ( $M = 25.75$ ,  $SD = 7.79$ ). Females were also more likely to have higher scores for perceived threat ( $M = 16.73$ ,  $SD = 7.17$ ) than males ( $M = 14.29$ ,  $SD = 6.33$ ). Contrary to hypothesis 6, male participants in both groups were more likely to adopt fear control responses ( $M = 45.06$ ,  $SD = 11.21$ ) than women ( $M = 41.14$ ,  $SD = 11.07$ ). As hypothesized, female participants in both groups were also more likely to adopt danger control responses ( $M = 97.37$ ,  $SD = 21.65$ ) than males ( $M = 89.43$ ,  $SD = 19.68$ ). Refer to Table 3-20.

Table 3-20. Mean scores for threats to self scales

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Control		Intervention		Total	
		n	M (SD)	n	M (SD)	N	M (SD)
Fear	Male	18	19.35 (9.26)	20	25.75 (7.79)	38	22.72 (9.00)
	Female	115	26.15 (8.73)	110	25.47 (7.76)	225	25.82 (8.26)
	Total	133	25.23 (9.07)	130	25.52 (7.73)	263	25.37 (8.42)
Perceived Threat	Male	18	13.28 (5.19)	20	15.20 (7.22)	38	14.29 (6.33)
	Female	115	16.56 (7.77)	110	16.92 (6.53)	225	16.73 (7.17)
	Total	133	16.11 (7.54)	130	16.65 (6.64)	263	16.38 (7.10)
Perceived Efficacy	Male	18	328.61 (52.87)	20	317.40 (61.48)	38	322.71 (57.08)
	Female	115	321.18 (49.59)	110	322.76 (43.99)	225	321.95 (46.84)
	Total	133	322.18 (49.90)	130	321.93 (46.86)	263	322.06 (48.33)
Fear Control Responses	Male	18	46.39 (10.97)	20	45.38 (11.68)	38	45.86 (11.21)
	Female	115	41.10 (11.65)	110	41.19 (10.48)	225	41.14 (11.07)
	Total	133	41.82 (11.66)	130	41.83 (10.73)	263	41.83 (11.19)
Danger Control Responses	Male	18	87.89 (15.66)	20	90.83 (23.03)	38	89.43 (19.68)
	Female	115	99.54 (23.60)	110	97.85 (19.65)	225	98.71 (21.72)
	Total	133	97.97 (22.99)	130	96.77 (20.27)	263	97.37 (21.65)

### 3.4.5.3 Exploratory analyses for threats to self

Additional MANOVA analyses were conducted to examine differences in specific sub-scales. The omnibus MANOVA found gender differences in perceived threat, with female participants having higher perceived threat than males. A 2x2 MANOVA performed on the log-transformed perceived threat sub-scales—perceived susceptibility and perceived severity—found a significant main effect for gender,  $F(2, 258) = 3.79, p < 0.05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.03$ . The main effect for group,  $F(2, 258) = 0.67, p = 0.51$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.01$ , and the group by gender interaction,  $F(2, 258) = 0.15, p = 0.86$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.00$ , were non-significant. See Table 3-21.

Table 3-21. MANOVA for perceived threats to self sub-scales

Effect	$df_1$	$df_2$	Pillai's Trace	$F$	Partial $\eta^2$	Observed Power
Group	2	258	.01	.67	.01	.16
Gender	2	258	.03	3.79*	.03	.69
Group by Gender Interaction	2	258	.00	.15	.00	.07

\* $p < 0.05$ 

Univariate tests (refer to Table 3-22) indicate that the main effect of gender was due to between-group differences only in the risk susceptibility subscale,  $F(1, 259) = 7.51, p < 0.01$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.03$ . All other effects were non-significant.

Table 3-22. ANOVAs for perceived threats to self sub-scales

Effect	Dependent Variable	$df_1$	$df_2$	Univariate $F$	Partial $\eta^2$
Group	Risk Susceptibility	1	259	1.28	.01
	Risk Severity	1	259	.54	.00
Gender	Risk Susceptibility	1	259	7.51**	.03
	Risk Severity	1	259	2.11	.01
Group by Gender Interaction	Risk Susceptibility	1	259	.19	.00
	Risk Severity	1	259	.01	.00

\*\* $p < 0.01$

Females were more likely than males (see Table 3-23) to indicate they were susceptible to being victimized by the hypothetical offender ( $M = 6.36$ ,  $SD = 3.49$  and  $M = 5.00$ ,  $SD = 3.06$ , respectively).

Table 3-23. Untransformed mean scores for perceived threats to self sub-scales\*

Subscale	Independent Variable	Control		Intervention		Total	
		n	M (SD)	n	M (SD)	N	M (SD)
Risk Susceptibility	Male	18	4.33 (1.94)	22	5.55 (3.69)	40	5.00 (3.06)
	Female	112	6.16 (3.49)	111	6.55 (3.57)	223	6.35 (3.53)
	Total	130	5.91 (3.37)	133	6.38 (3.60)	263	6.15 (3.49)
Risk Severity	Male	18	8.94 (4.72)	22	9.27 (4.57)	40	9.13 (4.58)
	Female	112	10.04 (4.89)	111	10.39 (4.40)	223	10.21 (4.64)
	Total	130	9.88 (4.86)	133	10.20 (4.43)	263	10.05 (4.64)

\*Note: Analyses were conducted on log-transformed scores; the untransformed means are presented for ease of interpretation

While there were no group or gender differences found in perceived efficacy in the omnibus MANOVA, a more detailed examination of between-subjects differences in perceived efficacy conducted via a 2x2 MANOVA on the self-efficacy (ability), self-efficacy (ease), and response efficacy sub-scales found a main effect of gender,  $F(3, 257) = 5.43$ ,  $p < 0.01$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.06$ . The main effect for group trended towards significance,  $F(3, 257) = 2.31$ ,  $p = 0.08$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.03$ ; the interaction term was non-significant,  $F(3, 257) = 0.65$ ,  $p = 0.59$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.01$ . See Table 3-24.

Table 3-24. MANOVA for perceived efficacy sub-scales

Effect	$df_1$	$df_2$	Pillai's Trace	$F$	Partial $\eta^2$	Observed Power
Group	3	257	.026	2.31	.03	.58
Gender	3	257	.060	5.43**	.06	.94
Group by Gender Interaction	3	257	.007	.65	.01	.19

\*\* $p < 0.01$

As shown in Table 3-25, univariate tests were non-significant although both main effects trended towards significance on the self-efficacy (ability) subscale, main effect for group  $F(1, 259) = 2.79, p = 0.10$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.01$ , and main effect for gender  $F(1, 259) = 2.96, p = 0.09$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.01$ .

Table 3-25. ANOVAs for perceived efficacy sub-scales

Effect	Dependent Variable	$df_1$	$df_2$	Univariate $F$	Partial $\eta^2$
Group	Self-Efficacy (Ability)	1	259	2.79	.01
	Self-Efficacy (Ease)	1	259	.02	.00
	Response Efficacy	1	259	.05	.00
Gender	Self-Efficacy (Ability)	1	259	2.96	.01
	Self-Efficacy (Ease)	1	259	1.42	.01
	Response Efficacy	1	259	.05	.00
Group by Gender Interaction	Self-Efficacy (Ability)	1	259	1.41	.01
	Self-Efficacy (Ease)	1	259	.15	.00
	Response Efficacy	1	259	.12	.00

Examination of the group means (see Table 3-26) suggests the control group may have felt more able to perform the behavioural recommendations on average than the intervention group ( $M = 110.56, SD = 16.83$  and  $M = 108.07, SD = 16.64$ , respectively), which is contrary to what might be expected given that the intervention was intended to increase perceived efficacy. Overall, females as a group indicated they were more able to perform the behavioural recommendations than males ( $M = 110.07, SD = 16.00$  and  $M = 104.82, SD = 20.36$ , respectively).

Table 3-26. Mean scores for perceived efficacy sub-scales

Subscale	Independent Variable	Control		Intervention		Total	
		n	M (SD)	n	M (SD)	N	M (SD)
Self-Efficacy (Ability)	Male	18	109.22 (19.04)	20	100.86 (21.16)	38	104.82 (20.36)
	Female	113	110.78 (16.54)	112	109.36 (15.48)	225	110.07 (16.00)
	Total	131	110.56 (16.83)	132	108.07 (16.64)	263	109.31 (16.75)
Self-Efficacy (Ease)	Male	18	108.56 (18.83)	20	107.69 (25.07)	38	108.10 (22.04)
	Female	113	103.17 (19.74)	112	104.95 (17.99)	225	104.06 (18.87)
	Total	131	103.91 (19.63)	132	105.37 (19.14)	263	104.64 (19.36)
Response Efficacy	Male	18	110.83 (22.45)	20	108.85 (23.19)	38	109.79 (22.56)
	Female	113	108.85 (19.18)	112	109.26 (18.73)	225	109.05 (18.91)
	Total	131	109.13 (19.58)	132	109.19 (19.37)	263	109.16 (19.44)

A 2x2 MANOVA (see Table 3-27) conducted to examine if there were group or gender differences in participants' mean ratings of self-efficacy and response efficacy related to sexual victimization and general crime prevention behaviours found main effects for group,  $F(6, 252) = 2.45, p < 0.05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.06$ , and gender,  $F(6, 252) = 3.28, p < 0.01$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.07$ . The interaction was non-significant,  $F(6, 252) = 0.97, p = 0.45$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.02$ . Effect sizes were small.

Table 3-27. MANOVA for perceived efficacy sub-scales – sexual victimization and general crime prevention behaviours

Effect	$df_1$	$df_2$	Pillai's Trace	$F$	Partial $\eta^2$	Observed Power
Group	6	252	.06	2.45*	.06	.82
Gender	6	252	.07	3.28**	.07	.93
Group by Gender Interaction	6	252	.02	.97	.02	.38

\* $p < 0.05$ . \*\* $p < 0.01$

Univariate tests (see Table 3-28) indicate the main effect for group was due to group differences in ratings of ability to perform general crime prevention behaviours,  $F(1, 257) = 4.39, p < 0.05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.02$ , whereas the main effect for gender was due to differences in ability to perform sexual victimization prevention behaviours,  $F(1, 257) = 4.55, p < 0.05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.02$ .

Table 3-28. ANOVAs for perceived efficacy sub-scales – sexual victimization and general crime prevention

Effect	Subscale		$df_1$	$df_2$	Univariate $F$	Partial $\eta^2$
Group	Sexual Victimization	Self-Efficacy (Ability)	1	257	.27	.00
		Self-Efficacy (Ease)	1	257	.09	.00
		Response Efficacy	1	257	.03	.00
	General Crime Prevention	Self-Efficacy (Ability)	1	257	4.39*	.02
		Self-Efficacy (Ease)	1	257	.00	.00
		Response Efficacy	1	257	1.04	.00
	Sexual Victimization	Self-Efficacy (Ability)	1	257	4.55*	.02
		Self-Efficacy (Ease)	1	257	.38	.00
		Response Efficacy	1	257	.45	.00
Gender	Sexual Victimization	Self-Efficacy (Ability)	1	257	.70	.00
		Self-Efficacy (Ease)	1	257	1.02	.00
		Response Efficacy	1	257	.30	.00
	General Crime Prevention	Self-Efficacy (Ability)	1	257	.92	.00
		Self-Efficacy (Ease)	1	257	.01	.00
		Response Efficacy	1	257	.53	.00
	Sexual Victimization	Self-Efficacy (Ability)	1	257	.95	.00
		Self-Efficacy (Ease)	1	257	1.40	.01
		Response Efficacy	1	257	.14	.00
Group by Gender Interaction	Sexual Victimization	Self-Efficacy (Ability)	1	257	.70	.00
		Self-Efficacy (Ease)	1	257	1.02	.00
		Response Efficacy	1	257	.30	.00
	General Crime Prevention	Self-Efficacy (Ability)	1	257	.92	.00
		Self-Efficacy (Ease)	1	257	.01	.00
		Response Efficacy	1	257	.53	.00
	Sexual Victimization	Self-Efficacy (Ability)	1	257	.95	.00
		Self-Efficacy (Ease)	1	257	1.40	.01
		Response Efficacy	1	257	.14	.00

\* $p < 0.05$

Inspection of the mean control and intervention group scores for the self-efficacy (ability) subscale (shown in Table 3-29) suggest the control group ( $M = 45.41$ ,  $SD = 9.94$ ) was more likely to report being able to perform general crime prevention behaviours than the intervention group ( $M = 43.02$ ,  $SD = 9.08$ ). Females as a group had higher scores than males on ability to perform sexual victimization behaviours ( $M = 65.96$ ,  $SD = 8.15$  and  $M = 62.79$ ,  $SD = 9.06$ , respectively).

Table 3-29. Mean scores for perceived efficacy sub-scales – sexual victimization and general crime prevention

Subscale		IV	Control		Intervention		Total	
			n	M (SD)	n	M (SD)	N	M (SD)
Sexual Victimi- zation	Self- Efficacy (Ability)	Male	18	63.83 (8.94)	20	61.86 (9.29)	38	62.79 (9.06)
		Female	112	65.73 (7.85)	111	66.19 (8.47)	223	65.96 (8.15)
		Total	130	65.46 (8.00)	131	65.53 (8.71)	261	65.50 (8.35)
	Self- Efficacy (Ease)	Male	18	65.61 (10.11)	20	63.34 (11.75)	38	64.42 (10.92)
		Female	112	62.78 (9.84)	111	64.03 (9.52)	223	63.40 (9.68)
		Total	130	63.18 (9.89)	131	63.92 (9.84)	261	63.55 (9.85)
	Response Efficacy	Male	18	62.67 (12.24)	20	61.30 (12.63)	38	61.95 (12.30)
		Female	112	62.90 (10.30)	111	63.58 (10.34)	223	63.24 (10.30)
		Total	130	62.87 (10.54)	131	63.23 (10.70)	261	63.05 (10.60)
General Crime Preven- tion	Self- Efficacy (Ability)	Male	18	45.39 (11.56)	20	40.28 (11.34)	38	42.70 (11.59)
		Female	112	45.41 (9.71)	111	43.52 (8.57)	223	44.47 (9.19)
		Total	130	45.41 (9.94)	131	43.02 (9.08)	261	44.21 (9.57)
	Self- Efficacy (Ease)	Male	18	42.94 (10.55)	20	43.20 (12.93)	38	43.08 (11.71)
		Female	112	40.85 (10.75)	111	40.83 (10.27)	223	40.84 (10.49)
		Total	130	41.14 (10.71)	131	41.19 (10.70)	261	41.17 (10.68)
	Response Efficacy	Male	18	48.16 (11.85)	20	45.00 (10.80)	38	46.50 (11.27)
		Female	112	46.16 (10.42)	111	45.63 (9.82)	223	45.90 (10.11)
		Total	130	46.44 (10.60)	131	45.54 (9.94)	261	45.98 (10.27)



Contrary to hypothesis 6, males had higher scores on fear control responses than females overall (Table 3-30). Detailed examination of the fear control sub-scales defensive avoidance, perceived manipulation, and message derogation also found a main effect for gender,  $F(3, 258) = 3.93, p < 0.01$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.04$ . The main effect of group,  $F(3, 258) = 0.75, p = 0.52$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.01$ , and interaction,  $F(3, 258) = 1.35, p = 0.26$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.02$ , were non-significant.

Table 3-30. MANOVA for fear control response sub-scales

Effect	$df_1$	$df_2$	Pillai's Trace	$F$	Partial $\eta^2$	Observed Power
Group	3	258	.01	.75	.01	.21
Gender	3	258	.04	3.93**	.04	.83
Group by Gender Interaction	3	258	.02	1.35	.02	.36

\*\* $p < 0.01$

Results of the univariate tests (Table 3-31) indicate the main effect of gender was significant for all three sub-scales: defensive avoidance,  $F(1, 259) = 5.67, p < 0.05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.02$ , perceived manipulation,  $F(1, 259) = 6.35, p < 0.05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.02$ , and message derogation,  $F(1, 259) = 5.90, p < 0.05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.02$ . No other effects were significant.

Table 3-31. ANOVAs for fear control response sub-scales

Effect	Dependent Variable	$df_1$	$df_2$	Univariate $F$	Partial $\eta^2$
Group	Defensive Avoidance	1	259	.08	.00
	Perceived Manipulation	1	259	.12	.00
	Message Derogation	1	259	.61	.00
Gender	Defensive Avoidance	1	259	5.67*	.02
	Perceived Manipulation	1	259	6.35*	.02
	Message Derogation	1	259	5.90*	.02
Group by Gender Interaction	Defensive Avoidance	1	259	.04	.00
	Perceived Manipulation	1	259	.14	.00
	Message Derogation	1	259	1.30	.01

\* $p < 0.05$

Overall, males had higher mean scores than females on defensive avoidance ( $M = 12.92$ ,  $SD = 3.37$  vs.  $M = 11.54$ ,  $SD = 3.26$ ), perceived manipulation ( $M = 12.62$ ,  $SD = 6.11$  vs.  $M = 10.21$ ,  $SD = 5.22$ ), and message derogation ( $M = 21.25$ ,  $SD = 6.08$  vs.  $M = 19.01$ ,  $SD = 5.44$ ). See Table 3-32.

Table 3-32. Mean scores for fear control response sub-scales

Subscale	Independent Variable	Control		Intervention		Total	
		n	M (SD)	n	M (SD)	N	M (SD)
Defensive Avoidance	Male	17	12.76 (3.25)	22	13.05 (3.53)	39	12.92 (3.37)
	Female	113	11.51 (3.35)	112	11.56 (3.18)	225	11.54 (3.26)
	Total	130	11.68 (3.35)	134	11.81 (3.27)	264	11.74 (3.31)
Perceived Manipulation	Male	17	12.24 (5.61)	22	12.91 (6.59)	39	12.62 (6.11)
	Female	113	10.22 (5.18)	112	10.20 (5.28)	225	10.21 (5.22)
	Total	130	10.48 (5.26)	134	10.64 (5.58)	264	10.56 (5.42)
Message Derogation	Male	17	22.29 (4.67)	22	20.43 (6.98)	39	21.25 (6.08)
	Female	113	18.83 (5.58)	112	19.19 (5.32)	225	19.01 (5.44)
	Total	130	19.29 (5.58)	134	19.39 (5.61)	264	19.34 (5.58)

The omnibus MANOVA found a main effect for gender but not for group for danger control responses. A final 2x2 MANOVA (Table 3-33) exploring intentions to adopt sexual victimization and general crime prevention behaviours found a significant main effect for gender,  $F(2, 260) = 6.23$ ,  $p < 0.01$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.05$ , but no main effect for group,  $F(2, 260) = 1.53$ ,  $p = 0.22$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.01$ , or interaction,  $F(2, 260) = 0.42$ ,  $p = 0.66$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.00$ .

Table 3-33. MANOVA for danger control response sub-scales – sexual victimization and general crime prevention

Effect	$df_1$	$df_2$	Pillai's Trace	$F$	Partial $\eta^2$	Observed Power
Group	2	260	.01	1.53	.01	.32
Gender	2	260	.05	6.23**	.05	.89
Group by Gender Interaction	2	260	.00	.42	.00	.12

\*\* $p < 0.01$

Univariate tests (Table 3-34) exploring differences in intentions to adopt sexual victimization and general crime prevention behaviours found the main effect for gender was due to a highly significant difference in intentions to adopt sexual victimization prevention behaviours,  $F(1, 259) = 10.96, p < 0.001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.01$ . A gender difference in intentions to adopt general crime prevention behaviours trended towards significance,  $F(1, 259) = 2.74, p = 0.10$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.01$ . The main effect for group and group by gender interactions were non-significant. As shown in Table 3-35, female participants ( $M = 60.60, SD = 11.97$ ) were more likely to indicate they would adopt sexual victimization prevention behaviours than male participants ( $M = 53.88, SD = 10.81$ ).

Table 3-34. ANOVAs for danger control response sub-scales – sexual victimization and general crime prevention

Effect	Dependent Variable	$df_1$	$df_2$	Univariate $F$	Partial $\eta^2$
Group	Sexual Victimization	1	259	.22	.00
	General Crime Prevention	1	259	.58	.00
Gender	Sexual Victimization	1	259	10.96***	.04
	General Crime Prevention	1	259	2.74	.01
Group by Gender Interaction	Sexual Victimization	1	259	.61	.00
	General Crime Prevention	1	259	.07	.00

\*\*\* $p < 0.001$

Table 3-35. Mean scores for danger control response sub-scales – sexual victimization and general crime prevention

Subscale	Independent Variable	Control		Intervention		Total	
		n	M (SD)	n	M (SD)	N	M (SD)
Sexual Victimization	Male	18	52.50 (8.99)	21	55.07 (12.25)	39	53.88 (10.81)
	Female	114	60.91 (12.91)	112	60.29 (10.97)	226	60.60 (11.97)
	Total	132	59.76 (12.76)	133	59.46 (11.29)	265	59.61 (12.02)
General Crime Prevention	Male	18	35.39 (9.91)	21	34.43 (12.29)	39	34.87 (11.12)
	Female	114	39.07 (11.61)	112	37.10 (10.32)	226	38.09 (11.01)
	Total	132	38.56 (11.43)	133	36.68 (10.65)	265	37.62 (11.07)

A 2 x 2 ANOVA (see Table 3-36) examining whether there were differences in group and parents' intentions to adopt danger control responses found a significant main effect for parental status,  $F(1, 263) = 15.56, p < 0.0001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.05$ . Parents were more likely than non-parents to report an intention to adopt danger control responses (Table 3-37).

Table 3-36. ANOVA for parents' danger control responses

Effect	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	Partial $\eta^2$	Observed Power
Group	1	.00	.00	.05
Parental Status	1	14.56***	.05	.97
Group by Parental Status Interaction	1	.41	.00	.10

\*\*\*  
 $p < .0001$

Table 3-37. Means and standard deviations for parents' danger control responses

	Control		Intervention		Total	
	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )
Parent	26	106.57 (23.72)	22	108.76 (23.38)	48	107.57 (23.34)
Non-Parent	108	95.78 (22.34)	111	93.64 (18.98)	219	94.70 (20.69)
Total	134	97.88 (22.93)	133	96.14 (20.47)	267	97.01 (21.71)

#### 3.4.5.4 Hypotheses 5 and 6: Fear control and danger control responses to altruistic threats

A series of 2 x 2 between-subjects ANOVAs examined whether the control and intervention groups differed in their responses to altruistic threats. Because of small numbers of male participants and low power, it was difficult to interpret the results of this analysis in relation to Hypothesis 6. The results of this analysis are reported in Appendix I. Detailed subscale analyses were conducted but are not reported as all but one effect (a main effect of gender for perceived manipulation fear control responses in which males had higher scores than females overall) were non-significant. See Appendix J for the tables reporting the results of this set of analyses.

Table 3-38 shows the results of five one-way ANOVAs conducted to examine between-group differences in scores on each of the altruistic threat dependent variable scale. The results do not support Hypothesis 5, that the intervention group would have greater perceived threat,

greater perceived efficacy, lower adoption of fear control responses, and higher intentions to adopt danger control responses. All effects were non-significant, with  $F$ -values ranging between .05 and .68,  $p > .05$ . Mean scores for the control and intervention groups for each of the scales are shown in Table 3-39.

Table 3-38. ANOVAs for altruistic threat scales

Dependent Variable	Source	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>
Fear	Between Groups	1	69.16	.68
	Within Groups	46	102.12	
Perceived Threat	Between Groups	1	22.50	.26
	Within Groups	46	86.03	
perceived Efficacy	Between Groups	1	200.03	.52
	Within Groups	46	384.83	
Fear Control	Between Groups	1	5.98	.05
	Within Groups	44	123.36	
Danger Control	Between Groups	1	5.43	.08
	Within Groups	46	71.63	

Table 3-39. Altruistic threat scale means and standard deviations

	Control		Intervention		Total	
	N	M (SD)	N	M (SD)	N	M (SD)
Fear	26	25.00 (10.87)	22	27.41 (9.11)	48	26.10 (10.07)
Perceived Threat	26	30.19 (9.38)	22	28.82 (9.15)	48	29.56 (9.20)
Perceived Efficacy	26	191.04 (21.62)	22	195.14 (16.93)	48	192.92 (19.52)
Fear Control	25	38.91 (11.96)	21	38.19 (9.98)	46	38.58 (10.99)
Danger Control	26	64.54 (8.66)	22	63.86 (8.22)	48	64.23 (8.38)

### 3.4.5.5 Exploratory analyses to identify important independent variables

Sequential multiple regression to determine if parental status, education, self-victimization and chance, powerful others, and personal control locus of control (block 2) contributed to variance in level of fear over and above group and gender (block 1) was conducted.

As shown in Table 3-40, the correlations between level of fear and the independent variables were small although significant relationships were found between gender,  $r = 0.15$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $N = 265$ , education,  $r = -0.14$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ,  $N = 265$ , and powerful others locus of control,  $r = -0.11$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ,  $N = 265$ . Females and individuals with lower education were more likely to have higher levels of fear and participants with greater powerful others orientations were more likely to have reduced levels of fear.

Table 3-40. Correlation Matrix for Sequential Regression of IVs on Level of Fear

Independent Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Fear									
2. Group Number	.01								
3. Gender	.15**	-.04							
4. Parental Status	-.05	.05	.05						
5. Education	-.14*	-.02	-.01	-.09					
6. Self-Victimization	-.05	-.04	-.11*	-.02	-.01				
7. Chance LOC	.04	.08	-.05	.11*	-.08	-.03			
8. Power. Other LOC	-.11*	-.06	-.16**	-.06	.08	.06	-.23***		
9. Pers. Control LOC	.05	.09	-.04	.16**	.00	-.02	.56***	-.18**	

\* $p < 0.05$ . \*\* $p < 0.01$ . \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

Table 3-41 shows  $R$ ,  $R^2$ , and adjusted  $R^2$  for both blocks.  $R$  was significantly different from zero after the first step of the sequential regression but not the second. With group and gender entered into the equation in step 1,  $R^2 = 0.02$  was significant,  $F_{\text{inc}}(2, 256) = 3.19$ ,  $p < 0.05$  and after step two of the regression,  $R^2 = 0.06$  was marginally significant,  $F_{\text{inc}}(8, 256) = 1.97$ ,  $p =$

0.05. Adjusted  $R^2 = 0.03$ , indicating that very little of the variability in fear was explained by the individual difference variables entered into the regression equation.

Table 3-41. Level of Fear Sequential Regression Model Summary Statistics

Model	$R$	$R^2$	$R^2_{Adj}$	SEE	$R^2$ Change	$F$ Change	$df_1$	$df_2$	Sig. $F$ Change
1	.15	.02	.02	8.37	.02	3.19*	2	262	.04
2	.24	.06	.03	8.32	.03	1.55	6	256	.16

\* $p < 0.05$

In the full model, shown in Table 3-42, the unstandardized and standardized regression coefficients for gender were significant,  $B = 3.39$  with 95% confidence limits from 0.50 to 6.28, and  $\beta = 0.14$ ,  $t(256) = 2.31$ ,  $p < 0.05$ . Education was also significant,  $B = -0.82$  with confidence limits from -1.54 to -0.11, and  $\beta = -0.14$ ,  $t(256) = -2.27$ ,  $p < 0.05$ . The semi-partial correlation for gender was  $sr = 0.14$  in the full model, indicating gender contributed 14% of the variance in  $R^2$  in the model after controlling for all other independent variables. Education had a semi-partial correlation of  $sr = -0.14$ . Being female and having a lower education significantly predicted higher levels of fear.

Table 3-42. Sequential Regression of IVs on Level of Fear

Block		<i>B</i>	SE	$\beta$	95% CI for <i>B</i>		<i>sr</i>
					Lower	Upper	
1	Intercept	18.17	3.18		11.92	24.42	
	Group Number	.30	1.03	.02	-1.73	2.33	.02
	Gender	3.63*	1.44	.15	.79	6.46	.15
2	Intercept	28.96	6.75		15.66	42.26	
	Group Number	.15	1.03	.01	-1.88	2.18	.01
	Gender	3.39*	1.47	.14	.50	6.28	.14
	Parental Status	-1.89	1.37	-.09	-4.58	.80	-.08
	Education	-.82*	.36	-.14	-1.54	-.11	-.14
	Self-Victimization	-.59	1.03	-.03	-2.63	1.44	-.04
	Chance LOC	-.01	.11	-.01	-.23	.21	-.01
	Power. Other LOC	-.13	.11	-.07	-.35	.10	-.07
	Pers. Control LOC	.08	.11	.05	-.13	.28	.04

\* $p < 0.05$



Correlations between the log of perceived threat and gender,  $r = 0.12$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ,  $N = 266$ , and education,  $r = -0.23$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $N = 266$ , were significant. Being female and having a lower education were associated with increases in the log of perceived threat. Refer to Table 3-43.

Table 3-43. Correlation Matrix for Sequential Regression of IVs on Log(Perceived Threat)

Independent Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Log(Perc. Threat)									
2. Group Number	.05								
3. Gender	0.12*	-.04							
4. Parental Status	-.03	.05	.05						
5. Education	-0.23***	-.01	-.01	-.09					
6. Self-Victimization	-.01	-.05	-.11*	-.02	-.02				
7. Chance LOC	.06	.07	-.05	0.11*	-.08	-.03			
8. Power. Other LOC	-.09	-.06	-0.15**	-.05	.09	.05	-.23***		
9. Pers. Control LOC	.07	.09	-.05	0.16**	.00	-.02	0.56***	-.19***	

\* $p < 0.05$ . \*\* $p < 0.01$ . \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

$R$  was significantly different from zero after the second step of the regression but only marginally significant after the first step. In the first step,  $R^2 = 0.02$ ,  $F_{\text{inc}}(2, 257) = 2.50$ ,  $p = 0.08$ , was non-significant but was significant after the second step,  $R^2 = 0.08$ ,  $F_{\text{inc}}(8, 257) = 2.84$ ,  $p < 0.01$ , indicating the variables in block two significantly contributed to explaining variance in the log of perceived threat over and above the variables in block one. Adjusted  $R^2 = 0.05$  in the final model, indicating a small amount of variance in perceived threat was explained by the independent variables. See Table 3-44.

Table 3-44. Log(Perceived Threat) Sequential Regression Model Summary Statistics

Model	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> <sub>Adj</sub>	SEE	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> Change	<i>F</i> Change	<i>df</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>df</i> <sub>2</sub>	Sig. <i>F</i> Change
1	.14	.02	.01	.20	.02	2.50	2	263	.08
2	.29	.08	.05	.20	.06	2.92**	6	257	.01

\*\**p* < 0.01

As shown in Table 3-45, gender was significant,  $B = 0.07$  with 95% confidence limits from 0.00 to 1.14, and  $\beta = 0.13$ ,  $t(257) = 2.08$ ,  $p < 0.05$  and a semi-partial correlation of  $sr = 0.12$ . The regression coefficients for education were highly significant,  $B = -0.03$  with confidence limits from -0.05 to -0.02, and  $\beta = -0.23$ ,  $t(257) = -3.79$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . The semi-partial correlation for education was  $sr = -0.23$ , indicating that nearly a quarter of the variance in  $R^2$  for the log of perceived threat was accounted for by education. Increases in the log of perceived threat were significantly predicted by being female and having a lower education.

Table 3-45. Sequential Regression of IVs on Log(Perceived Threat)

Block		<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	95% CI for <i>B</i>		<i>sr</i>
					Lower	Upper	
1	Intercept	1.00	.08		.85	1.15	
	Group Number	.02	.03	.06	-.03	.07	.06
	Gender	.07*	.03	.13	.00	.14	.13
2	Intercept	1.21	.16		.90	1.52	
	Group Number	.02	.02	.05	-.03	.07	.05
	Gender	.07*	.03	.13	.00	.14	.12
	Parental Status	-.04	.03	-.07	-.10	.03	-.07
	Education	-.03***	.01	-.23	-.05	-.02	-.23
	Self-Victimization	.001	.02	.001	-.05	.05	.001
	Chance LOC	.000	.003	-.001	-.01	.01	-.001
	Power. Other LOC	-.001	.003	-.04	-.01	.004	-.03
	Pers. Control LOC	.003	.002	.08	-.002	.007	.06

\**p* < 0.05. \*\*\**p* < 0.001

Perceived efficacy was significantly correlated with parental status (participants with children had greater perceived efficacy),  $r = -0.26, p < 0.001, N = 266$ , and all three locus of control variables. Having a lower belief in chance,  $r = -0.18, p < 0.01, N = 266$ , a greater powerful others orientation,  $r = 0.21, p < 0.001, N = 266$ , and a lower personal control orientation,  $r = -0.25, p < .001, N = 266$ , was associated with greater perceived efficacy. See Table 3-46.

Table 3-46. Correlation Matrix for Sequential Regression of IVs on Perceived Efficacy

Independent Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Perceived Efficacy									
2. Group Number	-.01								
3. Gender	.01	-.04							
4. Parental Status	-0.26***	.05	.05						
5. Education	-.07	-.01	-.01	-.09					
6. Self-Victimization	-.05	-.05	-.11*	-.02	-.02				
7. Chance LOC	-0.18**	.07	-.05	0.11*	-.08	-.03			
8. Power. Other LOC	0.21***	-.06	-.15**	-.05	.09	.05	-0.23***		
9. Pers. Control LOC	-0.25***	.09	-.05	0.16**	.00	-.02	0.56***	-0.19***	

\* $p < 0.05$ . \*\* $p < 0.01$ . \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

$R$  was significant after the second step of the regression but not in the first step.  $R^2 = 0.00, F_{\text{inc}}(2, 257) = 0.02, p = 0.98$ , was non-significant in the first step, but was highly significant,  $R^2 = 0.16, F_{\text{inc}}(8, 257) = 5.91, p < 0.001$  after the second step, indicating the independent variables in block two significantly contributed to variance in perceived efficacy over and above the variables in block one. The adjusted  $R^2 = 0.13$  was the largest of all the regression analyses; however, the multiple correlation was small in magnitude. Refer to Table 3-47.

Table 3-47. Perceived Efficacy Sequential Regression Model Summary Statistics

Model	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> <sub>Adj</sub>	SEE	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> Change	<i>F</i> Change	<i>df</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>df</i> <sub>2</sub>	Sig. <i>F</i> Change
1	.01	.00	-.01	48.51	.00	.02	2	263	.98
2	.39	.16	.13	45.10	.16	7.88***	6	257	.00

\*\*\**p* < 0.001

In contrast with the other regression analyses, gender was non-significant in step one,  $B = 1.62$  with 95% confidence limits from -14.78 to 18.02, and  $\beta = 8.33$ ,  $t(257) = 0.20$ ,  $p = 0.85$  and a semi-partial correlation of  $sr = 0.01$ . The regression coefficients for parental status were highly significant,  $B = -29.50$  with confidence limits from -44.05 to -14.94, and  $\beta = -0.23$ ,  $t(257) = -3.99$ ,  $p < 0.001$  and a semi-partial correlation of  $sr = -0.23$ , indicating that nearly a quarter of the variance in  $R^2$  for the log of perceived efficacy was accounted for by parental status. Two locus of control variables had significant regression coefficients. Powerful others locus of control had unstandardized and standardized regression coefficients of  $B = 1.82$  (95% confidence limits from 0.63 to 3.01) and  $\beta = 0.18$ ,  $t(257) = 3.01$ ,  $p < 0.01$  and the regression coefficients for personal control locus of control were  $B = -1.28$  (95% confidence limits from -2.40 to -0.17), and  $\beta = -0.16$ ,  $t(257) = -2.26$ ,  $p < 0.05$ . The semi-partial correlations for powerful others and personal control locus of control were  $sr = 0.17$  and  $sr = -0.13$ , respectively. Being a parent, having a greater powerful others orientation, and a lower personal control orientation significantly predicted higher perceived efficacy scores. See Table 3-48.

Table 3-48. Sequential Regression of IVs on Perceived Efficacy

Model		<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	95% CI for <i>B</i>		<i>sr</i>
					Lower	Upper	
1	Intercept	319.60	18.37		283.43	355.77	
	Group Number	-.45	5.95	-.005	-12.17	11.28	-.01
	Gender	1.62	8.33	.01	-14.78	18.02	.01
2	Intercept	350.41	36.51		278.52	422.29	
	Group Number	2.88	5.57	.03	-8.10	13.85	.03
	Gender	4.84	7.94	.04	-10.80	20.47	.04
	Parental Status	-29.50***	7.39	-.23	-44.05	-14.95	-.23
	Education	-3.69	1.97	-.11	-7.57	.19	-.11
	Self-Victimization	-6.57	5.58	-.07	-17.56	4.43	-.07
	Chance LOC	-.30	.61	-.04	-1.50	.89	-.03
	Power. Other LOC	1.82**	.61	.18	.63	3.01	.17
	Pers. Control LOC	-1.28*	.57	-.16	-2.40	-.17	-.13

\* $p < 0.05$ . \*\* $p < 0.01$ . \*\*\* $p < 0.001$ 

Correlations (shown in Table 3-49) of the independent variables with fear control responses were significant for gender,  $r = -0.14$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $N = 265$ , chance locus of control,  $r = 0.21$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $N = 265$ , and personal control locus of control,  $r = 0.14$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ,  $N = 265$ , with male participants, participants with greater chance locus of control, and participants with greater personal control locus of control having greater fear control response scores.

Table 3-49. Correlation Matrix for Sequential Regression of IVs on Fear Control Responses

Independent Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Fear Control Resp.									
2. Group Number	-.00								
3. Gender	-.14**	-.03							
4. Parental Status	.01	.05	.06						
5. Education	.05	-.01	-.02	-.09					
6. Self-Victimization	.01	-.05	-.11*	-.02	-.01				
7. Chance LOC	.21***	.07	-.05	.11*	-.08	-.03			
8. Power. Other LOC	.01	-.06	-.15**	-.06	.09	.05	-.23***		
9. Pers. Control LOC	.14*	.09	-.05	.16**	.00	-.02	.56***	-.19***	

\* $p < 0.05$ . \*\* $p < 0.01$ . \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

$R$  was marginally significant in both steps of the regression (see Table 3-50). Multiple correlations were small in both steps,  $R^2 = 0.02$ ,  $F_{\text{inc}}(2, 256) = 2.70$ ,  $p = 0.07$ , after the first step and  $R^2 = 0.07$ ,  $F_{\text{inc}}(8, 256) = 2.28$ ,  $p = 0.05$ , after the second step. Adjusted  $R^2 = 0.04$  for the full model was very small in magnitude.

Table 3-50. Fear Control Responses Sequential Regression Model Summary Statistics

Model	$R$	$R^2$	$R^2_{\text{Adj}}$	SEE	$R^2$ Change	$F$ Change	$df_1$	$df_2$	Sig. $F$ Change
1	.14	.02	.01	11.10	.02	2.70	2	262	.07
2	.26	.07	.04	10.96	.05	2.12	6	256	.05

Table 3-51 shows that gender was significant,  $B = -3.96$  with 95% confidence limits from -7.79 to -0.13, and  $\beta = -0.13$ ,  $t(256) = -2.03$ ,  $p < 0.05$ . The regression coefficients for chance locus of control were also significant,  $B = 0.40$  with confidence limits from 0.11 to 0.67, and  $\beta = 0.03$ ,  $t(256) = 2.69$ ,  $p < 0.01$ . The semi-partial correlations for gender and chance locus of control were  $sr = -0.12$  and  $sr = 0.16$ , respectively. Being male and having a greater chance locus of control significantly explained variance in the adoption of fear control responses.

Table 3-51. Sequential Regression of IVs on Fear Control Responses

Model		<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	95% CI for <i>B</i>		<i>sr</i>
					Lower	Upper	
1	Intercept	50.30	4.23		41.98	58.62	
	Group Number	-.15	1.36	-.007	-2.83	2.54	-.01
	Gender	-4.47*	1.93	-.14	-8.26	-.68	-.14
2	Intercept	36.39	8.87		18.92	53.85	
	Group Number	-.47	1.36	-.02	-3.14	2.20	-.02
	Gender	-3.96*	1.95	-.13	-7.79	-.13	-.12
	Parental Status	-.01	1.80	.00	-3.54	3.53	.00
	Education	.46	.48	.06	-.49	1.40	.06
	Self-Victimization	-.08	1.36	-.003	-2.75	2.60	-.003
	Chance LOC	.40**	.15	.20	.11	.67	.16
	Power. Other LOC	.07	.15	.03	-.22	.36	.03
	Pers. Control LOC	.05	.14	.03	-.22	.33	.02

\* $p < 0.05$ . \*\* $p < 0.01$ 

As shown in Table 3-52, there were significant correlations between danger control responses and gender,  $r = 0.16$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ,  $N = 264$ , parental status,  $r = -0.21$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $N = 264$ , self-victimization,  $r = -0.13$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ,  $N = 264$ , and personal control locus of control,  $r = -0.12$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ,  $N = 264$ . Being female, having children, not having been a previous victim of a crime, and having a lower personal control locus of control were associated with increased danger control responses.

Table 3-52. Correlation Matrix for Sequential Regression of IVs on Danger Control Responses

Independent Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Danger Control Resp.									
2. Group Number	-.05								
3. Gender	.16**	-.04							
4. Parental Status	-.21***	.05	.06						
5. Education	-.08	-.01	-.01	-.09					
6. Self-Victimization	-.13*	-.05	-.11*	-.02	-.02				
7. Chance LOC	-.08	.07	-.07	.11*	-.08	-.02			
8. Power. Other LOC	.07	-.06	-.16**	-.06	.09	.06	-.24***		
9. Pers. Control LOC	-.12*	.07	-.05	.15**	.01	-.01	.56***	-.21***	

\* $p < 0.05$ . \*\* $p < 0.01$ . \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

$R$  was significant in steps one and two of the regression. The multiple correlations were small in both steps,  $R^2 = 0.03$ ,  $F_{\text{inc}}(2, 255) = 3.60$ ,  $p < 0.05$  in step one, but larger in step two,  $R^2 = 0.11$ ,  $F_{\text{inc}}(8, 255) = 4.04$ ,  $p < 0.001$  after the second step, indicating the second block of IVs contributed significantly to predicting variance in danger control responses. Adjusted  $R^2 = 0.09$  for the full model and was very small in magnitude. See Table 3-53.

Table 3-53. Danger Control Responses Sequential Regression Model Summary Statistics

Model	$R$	$R^2$	$R^2_{\text{Adj}}$	SEE	$R^2$ Change	$F$ Change	$df_1$	$df_2$	Sig. $F$ Change
1	.16	.03	.02	21.41	.03	3.60*	2	261	.03
2	.34	.11	.09	20.69	.09	4.10***	6	255	.00

\* $p < 0.05$ . \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

In this model (Table 3-54), the regression coefficients for gender were significant,  $B = 10.19$  with 95% confidence limits from 2.92 to 17.46, and  $\beta = 0.17$ ,  $t(255) = 2.76$ ,  $p < 0.01$ , as were the coefficients for parental status,  $B = -12.43$  with confidence limits from -19.11 to -5.75, and  $\beta = 0.22$ ,  $t(255) = -3.67$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , and self-victimization,  $B = -5.39$  with 95% confidence limits from -10.44 and -0.33, and  $\beta = -0.13$ ,  $t(255) = -2.10$ ,  $p < 0.05$ . Semi-partial correlations were  $sr = 0.16$  for gender,  $sr = -0.22$  for parental status, and  $sr = -0.12$  for self-victimization.



Being female, having children, and not having been a previous victim of a crime contributed significantly to predicting increased danger control responding.

Table 3-54. Sequential Regression of IVs on Danger Control Responses

Model		<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	95% CI for <i>B</i>		<i>sr</i>
					Lower	Upper	
1	Intercept	81.85	8.16		65.78	97.93	
	Group Number	-1.73	2.64	-.04	-6.93	3.46	-.04
	Gender	9.57*	3.72	.16	2.25	16.89	.16
2	Intercept	102.70	17.02		69.18	136.23	
	Group Number	-1.16	2.56	-.03	-6.21	3.89	-.03
	Gender	10.19**	3.69	.17	2.92	17.46	.16
	Parental Status	-12.43***	3.39	-.22	-19.11	-5.75	-.22
	Education	-1.61	.91	-.11	-3.40	.18	-.11
	Self-Victimization	-5.39*	2.57	-.13	-10.44	-.33	-.12
	Chance LOC	.002	.28	.00	-.55	.55	.00
	Power. Others LOC	.39	.28	.09	-.16	.94	.08
	Pers. Control LOC	-.22	.27	-.06	-.75	.31	-.05

\* $p < 0.05$ . \*\* $p < 0.01$ . \*\*\* $p < 0.001$

## CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION

Despite limited support from outcome studies to demonstrate its effectiveness in reducing recidivism, community notification continues to enjoy a high level of public support (Katz-Schiavone & Jeglic, 2009; Lieb, 2008; Salerno, Najdowski, Stevenson, Wiley, Bottoms, Vaca Jr., & Pimentel, 2010; Sample, Evans, & Anderson, 2011; Sample & Kadleck, 2008). Because the high level of support for such laws is likely to continue, it is important for researchers to educate the public, media, and policy-makers to ensure policies and resource allocations are based on empirical data, rather than being implemented as an emotional response to rare cases sensationalized by the media (Fortney et al., 2007; Lave, 2011; Levenson & D'Amora, 2007; Mears et al., 2008; Sample, Evans, & Anderson). Evidence-based decision-making is particularly important in the case of sexual offender community notification as notification may hinder offenders' abilities to successfully reintegrate (CSOM, 2001).

Because community notification legislation arose primarily due to public demand for authorities to respond to rare child sexual murders rather than recommendations from researchers, the community notification field of research has remained largely atheoretical. This research project investigated whether web-based sexual offender community notification can be considered to be a form of fear appeal as described by the Extended Parallel Processing Model (Witte, 1992). Specifically, the research examined differences in responses related to receiving a traditional community notification message that depicted a hypothetical high risk extra-familial child molester compared to a high-efficacy community notification message that provided tips on avoiding sexual victimization in conjunction with the traditional community notification message. In addition to examining whether the pattern of correlations found between dependent variables was consistent with predictions made by the EPPM, the research examined between-group and gender differences in level of fear, perceived threat, perceived efficacy, danger control responses, and fear control responses. Finally, exploratory analyses examined the relationship between individual difference variables—gender, parental status, education, previous self-victimization, and locus of control—and the dependent variables, which begins providing insight into how individual characteristics relate to the theoretical components of the EPPM while acting as a validity check to determine whether the current study may also be situated within the community notification field.

## **4.1 Summary of Results**

### **4.1.1 Hypotheses 1 to 4: Pattern of Relationships Among Variables**

A series of correlational analyses examined whether the pattern of correlations among dependent variables was consistent with EPPM predictions. Specifically, hypotheses 1 to 4 were that, overall (1) higher levels of fear would be associated with greater perceived threat; (2) increased levels of fear would be associated with greater intentions to adopt danger control responses; (3) lower perceived efficacy would be associated with increased fear control responses; and (4) higher perceived efficacy would be associated with greater intentions to adopt danger control responses for both threats to self and altruistic threats.

The pattern of correlations for self-protective behaviours supported hypotheses 1, 2, and 4. The predicted positive correlations between fear and perceived threat, fear and danger control responses, and perceived efficacy and danger control responses were found for the entire sample as well as the intervention and control groups. In addition, the magnitudes of the correlations were relatively large (ranging between .29 and .70) and significant. Hypothesis 3 was not supported; while the predicted negative correlation between perceived efficacy and fear control responses was found, the magnitude of the correlations was small (approximately -.10) and non-significant. While not explicitly hypothesized in the principal study, additional relationships consistent with the EPPM, including negative correlations between perceived threat and fear control responses as well as fear control responses and danger control responses were also found, lending support for the EPPM as a theoretical framework for community notification, although an expected positive correlation between fear and fear control responses was not found.

The pattern of correlations found for altruistic protective behaviours for the entire sample and the intervention group supported hypotheses 1 to 4, although the magnitude and direction of the correlations for the control group was less consistent than those for the entire sample and intervention group. The correlations for altruistic protective behaviours tended to be smaller in magnitude and non-significant (likely due to the smaller sample size for this series of analyses) relative to self-protective behaviours, making it difficult to draw strong conclusions. Hypotheses 1, 2, and 4 were supported by predicted positive correlations between fear and perceived threat, fear and danger control responses, and perceived efficacy and danger control responses, although the correlation between fear and perceived threat in the control group was smaller than those for the entire sample and intervention group. For hypothesis 3, the predicted negative correlation

between perceived threat and fear control responses was found for the entire sample and intervention group but not for the control group.

Overall, the results of the correlational analysis for both self-protective and altruistic protective behaviours lend preliminary support for the EPPM as an appropriate theoretical framework for explaining reactions to receiving a community notification.

#### **4.1.2 Hypothesis 5: The Intervention Group will have Higher Perceived Threat, Higher Perceived Efficacy, Lower Adoption of Fear Control Responses, and Higher Adoption of Danger Control than the Control Group**

The EPPM predicted that providing educational information on sexual offending would increase the intervention group's perceived efficacy to perform the self-protective behaviours recommended in the pamphlet, resulting in reduced maladaptive fear control responses and increased adaptive danger control responses. This prediction corresponds with recommendations made by community notification researchers to educate the public to increase awareness and understanding of the nature of sexual abuse, which may help to decrease residents' feelings of helplessness and increase the adoption of appropriate protective behaviours in response to receiving a notification (Brannon et al., 2007; Kernsmith et al., 2009; Mears et al., 2008; Sample, Evans, & Anderson, 2011; Zevitz & Farkas, 2000).

The results did not support hypothesis 5. MANOVA analyses examining between-group differences in threats to self found no differences between the intervention and control groups in perceived threat, perceived efficacy, fear control responses, and danger control responses. Moreover, an unhypothesized between-group difference was found in level of fear, with the intervention group showing higher levels of fear than the control group, suggesting the intervention may have unintentionally increased fear in the intervention group and not perceived efficacy as hypothesized.

MANOVAs examining between-group differences in the questionnaire's sub-scales found a significant difference in the perceived efficacy sub-scales, with the control group scoring higher than the intervention group on their self-efficacy related to their ability to perform all behavioural options and general crime prevention behaviours, although these differences were non-significant in univariate tests. It is possible the intervention decreased the likelihood that intervention group members felt able to perform the general crime prevention behavioural options, resulting in decreased general crime prevention behaviour scores relative to the control

group; however, why the intervention did not increase perceived efficacy to perform sexual victimization prevention behaviours in the intervention group is unclear. Mean response efficacy ratings for the sexual victimization and general crime prevention behaviours were high for both the intervention and control groups, indicating that both groups thought the general crime prevention behaviours would be effective in preventing sexual victimization. Importantly, both groups had higher mean scores for the sexual victimization prevention behaviours than the general crime prevention behaviours, suggesting there was a recognition within both groups that the sexual victimization prevention behaviours were the more effective behavioural strategy to adopt in light of a sexual offender moving into one's neighbourhood.

Detailed *t*-tests contrasting participants' current performance of the self-protective behavioural options with intended behavioural changes were inconsistent with the hypotheses. The control group indicated greater intentions to adopt several individual sexual victimization prevention behaviours relative to the intervention group (4 sexual victimization prevention behaviours in the control group compared to 2 in the intervention group) and the intervention group indicated greater intentions to adopt general crime prevention behaviours than the control group (5 general crime prevention behaviours in the intervention group compared to 3 in the control group).

Hypothesis 5 was also not supported for responses to altruistic threats, with ANOVAs finding no group differences in perceived threat, perceived efficacy, fear control responses, and danger control responses. The risk susceptibility validity check suggested that participants perceived an extra-familial child molester (both a known and the hypothetical offender) posed a greater risk to children than adults. It is possible that the small sample size for parents resulted in a lack of power that contributed to the null findings.

There are several possible reasons that the intervention was ineffective in producing changes in perceived efficacy and danger control responses. The current research used educational material available on a community notification website (hosted by the Government of Saskatchewan) at the time the research was conducted. However, the intervention pamphlet was quite short and included only "tips" on avoiding sexual victimization. While the pamphlet *did* include information on "stranger danger" and grooming behaviours (Brannon et al., 2007; Fortney et al., 2007; Katz-Schiavone & Jeglic, 2009; Kernsmith et al., 2009; Levenson & D'Amora, 2007), the intervention did not include more detailed information on sexual offender

recidivism rates, treatment efficacy, the criminal justice system, the heterogeneity of sexual offenders, cognitive distortions used by sexual offenders, and signs and symptoms of sexual abuse and assault (CSOM, 2001; Fuselier, Durham, & Wurtele, 2002; Levenson et al., 2007; Levenson & D'Amora; Sample, Evans, & Anderson, 2011; Sanghara & Wilson, 2006; West, 2000). However, the systematic review conducted in the first study found that, of the 14 websites reviewed, only four websites had “frequently asked questions” or “tips” sections at the time of data collection. Moreover, only two of those four websites included information that could be useful for preventing sexual victimization. As a result, while the pamphlet’s quality could have been improved by including more detailed information, the current study may in fact have represented an improvement over the information typically available to individuals accessing community notification websites at the time of data collection.

Public education has been identified by researchers as important for combating stereotypes that characterize offenders as “dirty old men,” violent, mentally ill, compulsive, and predatory strangers (Ackerman et al., 2011; Chaffin, 2008; Fuselier et al., 2002; Quinn, Forsyth, & Mullen-Quinn, 2004; Sample & Kadleck, 2008; Sanghara & Wilson, 2006; Weekes, Pelletier, & Beaudette, 1995). Prior research has found that laypersons are uninformed about sexual offending. Laypersons have been found to overestimate recidivism rates; underestimate treatment efficacy; and overestimate the prevalence of child abuse, stranger danger, and use of force to gain victim compliance (Craun & Theriot, 2008; Fortney et al., 2007; Fuselier et al., 2002; Katz-Schiavone et al., 2008; Levenson et al., 2007), suggesting a general lack of knowledge of sexual offending—a finding that was confirmed by the poor performance on the objective knowledge test in the current study, indicating participants in this study were ill-informed about sexual offending. Misperceptions and stereotypes about sexual offenders are thought to arise in part from media portrayals that focus disproportionate attention on extremely rare child abduction and sexually motivated homicide cases, which may lead to the general public being unaware of more typical sexual offences in which abusers are known to their victims and force is rarely used (Fortney et al., 2007; Katz-Schiavone & Jeglic, 2009; Katz-Schiavone et al.; Levenson & D'Amora, 2007; Meloy et al., 2008; Roberts & Doob, 1990; Stalans, 1993; West, 2000). In conjunction with biased reporting by the media, community notification itself may exacerbate negative stereotypes about sexual offenders (Brannon et al., 2007). Examinations of punishment preferences, perceptions of judicial leniency, and support

for sexual offender registries suggest that when people think about crimes they do tend to rely on crime stereotypes learned from the media (Roberts & Doob, 1990; Salerno et al., 2010; Stalans & Seidman-Diamond, 1990). Because media attention tends to focus on violent and severe crimes, recall tends to be biased towards these more salient cases, resulting in support for harsher laws and punishments. Biased recall of severe cases is particularly problematic as individuals who use severe prototypes are more likely to support harsher laws and punishments than individuals who have more realistic prototypes (Roberts & Doob, 1990; Salerno et al., 2010; Stalans, 1993).

There is some evidence to suggest that public education can improve attitudes towards the criminal justice system (Roberts & Doob, 1990; Stalans, 1993; Stalans & Seidman-Diamond, 1990; Tanasichuk, 2010), particularly when participants are actively engaged in learning and discussion (Tanasichuk, 2010). Public education can be effective in reducing biased recall of stereotypes by providing participants with specific, detailed crime scenarios that depict less harmful, more typical offences (Roberts & Doob, 1990; Stalans, 1993; Stalans & Seidman-Diamond, 1990). However, some researchers suggest that exposure to information and instruction may have an insufficient impact on stereotyping, identifying interpersonal sources as important for reducing the impact of media-driven stereotypes (Levenson, Fortney, & Baker, 2010; Smith, 1991; Stalans, 1993). Research has found that groups with more experience with sexual offenders such as forensic treatment professionals, sexual offenders, and victims of sexual abuse have more positive and realistic attitudes towards sexual offenders than laypersons (Ferguson & Ireland, 2006; Fortney et al., 2007; Fuselier et al., 2002; Nelson, Herlihy, & Oescher, 2002). Studies examining support for sexual offender policies have found that treatment professionals and family law attorneys working with sexual offenders are less supportive of harsh sexual offender laws than treatment professionals working with victims, lay people, and prosecutors (Levenson et al., 2010; Salerno et al., 2010; Stalans, 1993). These results have led some researchers to suggest that intergroup contact may alleviate stereotyping (Ferguson & Ireland, 2006; Fortney et al., 2007; Gaertner et al., 1999; Levenson et al., 2010; Sanghara & Wilson, 2006; Stalans, 1993) and help individuals separate the offender from his offending behaviour (Lea, Auburn, & Kibblewhite, 1999; Nelson et al., 2002).

Because intergroup contact with sexual offenders is unlikely to be an effective and desirable option for reducing negative reactions in the general public, there is a large role for media to educate the public about sexual offending and victimization and change common

misperceptions about sexual offending (Brannon et al., 2007; Levenson et al., 2007; Sample, Evans, & Anderson, 2011). Opportunities for public education are also available via the justice websites through which the public accesses web-based notifications. With video hosting and other multi-media becoming increasingly common on websites, interactive educational tools are becoming increasingly common on the internet. Employing tools such as these on justice websites may engage the public more actively and interpersonally than merely providing a text-based brochure.

#### **4.1.3 Hypothesis 6: Female participants will have Higher Levels of Fear, Higher Perceived Threat, Lower Perceived Efficacy, Higher Adoption of Fear Control Responses, and Higher Adoption of Danger Control Responses than Male Participants**

Gender emerged from the community notification literature as being a significant individual difference variable (Beck et al., 2004; Beck & Travis, 2004a, 2006b; Kernsmith et al., 2009; Phillips, 1998). Accordingly, hypothesis 6 made several gender-related predictions based on the community notification literature and EPPM.

Three parts of hypothesis 6 were confirmed for threats to self (it was not possible to conduct this series of analyses on altruistic threat variables due to the small number of male participants in the altruistic threats subsample). First, female participants overall showed significantly higher levels of fear, which is consistent with the community notification literature; however, there was also an unhypothesized gender by group interaction that suggested the intervention decreased fear in female participants and increased fear in male participants. Second, female participants had higher perceived threat overall than male participants and detailed subscale analyses revealed that females specifically had greater risk susceptibility than males. Third, female participants had higher intentions to adoption danger control responses, with exploratory subscale analyses indicating females were significantly more likely to intend to adopt sexual victimization prevention behaviours.

Contrary to the predictions made by hypothesis 6, there were no gender differences in perceived efficacy. However, detailed subscale analyses examining gender differences in self-efficacy (ease), self-efficacy (able), and response efficacy showed a significant effect suggesting that females had a greater perceived ability to perform danger control responses and sexual victimization prevention responses compared to males (although univariate tests were non-significant). In addition, while hypothesis 6 predicted males would have greater perceived



efficacy and lower fear control responses as suggested by the community notification literature, males endorsed fear control responses (on the overall scale and all three sub-scales) significantly more than female participants.

The findings are generally consistent with community notification literature and are consistent with EPPM predictions when placed in the context of stereotyping and lack of knowledge about sexual offending. In general, gender differences related to the fear, perceived threat, and danger control response variables may reflect females' greater overall risk of being sexually victimized relative to males. Beck and Travis (2004a) found that receiving a notification increased personal fear of victimization but not altruistic fear of victimization and the results of the principal study suggest female participants may have generalized being at risk of sexual assault to their risk from child molesters (despite the low actuarial likelihood of adult females being victimized by a child molester), perhaps due to the common perception that sexual offenders are indiscriminate and homogeneous (Ackerman et al., 2011). This stereotype is one of the reasons attributed to the enactment of community notification legislation such as *Megan's Law* (Ackerman et al., 2011; Levenson & D'Amora, 2007; Meloy et al., 2008; Sample & Bray, 2006; Sample & Kadleck, 2008; West, 2000). Because female participants were expected to have greater adoption of maladaptive fear control responses due to findings in the community notification literature that females are more likely to report feeling fearful when receiving a notification (Beck et al., 2004; Beck & Travis, 2004a, 2006; Phillips, 1998), female participants were expected to have lower perceived efficacy related to performing the behavioural options. However, females were found to have greater perceived efficacy than male participants and detailed subscale analyses found female participants had a greater perceived ability to adopt the behavioural options than male participants. While the results related to perceived efficacy were inconsistent with what might be expected from the community notification literature, the results are consistent with the EPPM when one considers that greater perceived efficacy was predicted and found to be positively correlated with the intention to adopt danger control responses and females were more likely to indicate they would adopt danger control responses.

Finally, the findings related to gender and fear control responses are logical when one considers the nature of fear control responding. While adult males are at lower risk of being sexually victimized, the reality of an adult male being sexually victimized is likely to be extremely threatening, which may have resulted in males endorsing items asking whether the

notice made them avoid thinking about the threat, was manipulative and misleading, or was exaggerated and overblown.

#### **4.1.4 Exploratory Analyses**

Because the EPPM does not specify how individual difference variables impact responses in a community notification context, a series of five sequential multiple regressions examined the relationship between several individual difference variables and the study's dependent variables for personal threats.

Level of fear and perceived threat were significantly related to being female and having a lower level of education. Danger control responding was related to being female, being a parent, and previously being a victim of a crime. These findings are relatively consistent with previous community notification research, which has found fear and perceived threat to be related to gender and level of education (Beck et al., 2004; Beck & Travis, 2004a, 2006b; Kernsmith et al., 2009; Phillips, 1998) and adoption of self-protective behaviour to be related to being female and prior victimization (Beck & Travis, 2004b, 2006b). The findings related to gender are consistent with the MANOVA analyses discussed above; level of education may be due to individuals with lower education being less informed about sexual offending and crime trends and thus more likely to endorse stereotypes about sexual offenders. The consistency between the current research and prior research in terms of behavioural changes is encouraging, as much of the previous research has examined self-reported behavioural changes in a real-world setting whereas the current research examined behavioural intentions related to a hypothetical scenario.

Perceived efficacy and fear control responding are not part of the current community notification research paradigm. In the current study, perceived efficacy was related to being a parent, having a greater powerful others locus of control, and having a lower personal control locus of control. Fear control responding was related to being male and having a higher chance locus of control. Because individuals with external LOC are less likely to view themselves as having control over events (Rotter, 1966, 1974), the finding that having greater perceived efficacy was related to having an external LOC and not an internal LOC is counter-intuitive; however, the relationship between maladaptive fear control responding and having an external LOC is consistent with what one would expect as fear control responding results from the individual having no perceived control over a threat.

## **4.2 Limitations**

There were several limitations to the current study. The sample was quite homogeneous, which limits external validity. On average, the sample comprised Saskatchewan residents and was quite young (under 30 years of age), female, Caucasian, and liberal in political orientation, which limited the researcher's ability to do analyses to explore individual difference variables. In addition, few of the participants were parents (likely reflecting the young age of the sample). The primary recruitment method was through the website at the University of Saskatchewan and the sample's homogeneity is reflective of that population.

The questionnaire was also quite long, taking on average 32 minutes to complete. As a result, participant fatigue may have affected responding. In addition, participants who completed the survey may have been highly motivated to complete the survey, which also affects the generalizability of the results to the general population.

One of the greatest limitations of this study was the quality of the information in the pamphlet. While the pamphlet was representative of or superior to information available on the community notification websites reviewed in Study 1, the pamphlet lacked information that may have had a greater impact on behavioural intentions in the intervention group.

Finally, the study was based on a hypothetical scenario as it was not possible to conduct the research in a real-life context. Meta-analyses on the attitude-behaviour link has found that behavioural intentions are relatively good predictors of behaviour change, with strong correlations and medium effect sizes typically being found (Kim & Hunter, 1993; Sutton, 1998; Webb & Sheeran, 2006). The exploratory research did find similar relationships between danger control responses and demographic variables to those found in real-world community notification studies. However, it is possible that intentions in the case of the current study would not be sufficient to cause behaviour (Sutton, 1998) in a real-world notification situation.

## **4.3 Directions for Future Research**

Community notification research is quite new, particularly in a Canadian context. The current research suggests that the EPPM may be an appropriate theoretical framework for community notification; however, there remain a large number of avenues for future exploration. Future research should use structural equation modelling to further the exploration of the EPPM's application to community notification. Structural equation modelling would provide valuable information on the fit of the EPPM model to the data collected and the relationships

between variables; in addition, structural equation modelling would help identify possible revisions to the EPPM that could account for the non-hypothesized results found here.

Despite several findings to support the EPPM as a theoretical framework for community notification, the EPPM's key prediction, that the intervention pamphlet would increase perceived efficacy and impact the intention to adopt danger control responses, was not supported. As outlined above, stereotyping and availability biases related to media portrayals may reduce the impact of an intervention as brief as an educational pamphlet. Future research should examine whether providing different content including better quality information on sexual offending and sexual abuse and assault would have a greater impact on behavioural intentions. It is also possible that modifying the content of the notification notice itself would have an impact on behavioural intentions. In addition, methods of delivery of educational information could be investigated including educational multi-media presentations hosted on websites.

While the exploratory analyses in the principal study were consistent with prior research, the homogeneity of the sample restricted the number of individual difference variables that could be examined. Community notification research has also found higher levels of fear to be related to participant age and being non-Caucasian (Beck & Travis, 2006b; Kernsmith et al., 2009; Phillips, 1998). In addition, being non-Caucasian and not living alone has been found by prior research to be related to the adoption of behavioural changes (Beck & Travis, 2006b). The current research also represented a preliminary exploration into the relationship between political orientation and reactions to receiving a web-based community notification; future research could examine this relationship more thoroughly. Finally, due to the small number of parents available, altruistic threats were not thoroughly examined in this research. Future research should examine these variables in relation to the EPPM theoretical framework.

The current research investigated the public's adoption of protective behaviours as a result of receiving a notification. The current project found no differences in the control and intervention groups' adoption of general crime prevention and sexual victimization prevention behaviours. Currently, little is known about the public's perceptions of the efficacy of crime prevention behaviours. The results suggest that participants perceived general crime prevention behaviours to be as effective as sexual victimization prevention behaviours. Future research

should explore perceptions of the efficacy of crime prevention and avoidance behaviours in greater depth.

Future investigations should also examine whether fear appeal theory applies to the adoption of monitoring behaviours in response to receiving a notification as the literature on surveillance and monitoring behaviours is sparse. Because community notification also has the goal of increasing the public's ability to monitor sexual offenders (Beck & Travis, 2004c), adding surveillance behaviours to the protective behavioural options in the questionnaire would further investigation into the EPPM as a theoretical framework for sexual offender community notification.

#### **4.4 Implications and Conclusions**

One of the greatest strengths of the current research was its internal validity. The control and intervention groups did not differ on any of the demographic characteristics, nor did they differ in their level of knowledge of sexual offending prior to viewing the intervention pamphlet. In addition, many of the results were consistent with the community notification literature, suggesting that, despite the fear appeal focus of the current research, the research may also be situated within the community notification literature.

This research contributed to the community notification literature in several ways. The current research was the first to conceptualize web-based sexual offender community notification as a form of fear appeal. Preliminary results suggest that the Extended Parallel Processing Model may indeed be an appropriate theoretical framework that could assist researchers by providing greater insight into public reactions to receiving community notifications and help inform the development of future legislation and related policies (Kernsmith et al., 2009).

The research also extended the range of behavioural options from Ferraro's (1995) general crime prevention behaviours (that are currently the focus of most community notification research) to also include sexual victimization prevention behaviours, which provides greater insight into the types of behavioural changes that result from receiving a notification.

Previous community notification research has recommended that residents receiving a community notification notice be provided with information to increase their awareness and understanding of the nature of sexual abuse. While the pamphlet was ineffective at producing changes in intentions to adopt appropriate danger control responses, members of the intervention group were significantly more likely to indicate that the pamphlet "taught them a lot," "had good

quality information,” and was “helpful for learning how to prevent being sexually victimized,” which suggests that despite the lack of behavioural intention changes, participants responded more positively to the community notification notice relative to the control group. Because of these findings and recommendations from researchers, justice departments housing notification websites should consider including pamphlets in conjunction with notices.

Future research applying the EPPM to community notification could develop educational tools, to be administered alongside notification web pages, that are effective in increasing perceived efficacy, reducing fear control responding, and increasing danger control responding. If the EPPM is confirmed as an appropriate theoretical approach that allows us to explain and predict residents’ responses to receiving a notification, including educational tools on notification websites represents a simple to administer and inexpensive intervention which could reduce residents’ negative reactions and improve public safety by reducing public anxiety, improving reintegration, and restricting offenders’ opportunities to access victims and could become part of a larger strategy to reduce sexual victimization.

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**APPENDIX A: SYSTEMATIC REVIEW CODING FORM**

<b>State/Province</b>		
<b>City</b>		
<b>Main Search Page Features</b>	<b>Code</b>	<b>Category Codes</b>
Purpose of registry/notification outlined	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
Description of applicable legislation provided	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
Photograph of well-known victims (e.g., Megan Kanka, Jacob Wetterling, Christopher Stephenson)	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
List of “Registerable” Offences provided	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
Consequences of failure to register outlined	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
Sex offender fact sheet provided	_____	1 = Yes, link to fact sheet provided 2 = Yes, visitors must navigate to fact sheet 0 = Not provided
Description of information included in fact sheet		
Specifies that not a “wanted” bulletin	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
Disclaimers	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
Not all convicted sex offenders are on the site	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
Not possible to ensure correct identity	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
Information may not be accurate	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
Legal and illegal uses	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
Agree to conditions of use button/link	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
<b>Search Features</b>	<b>Code</b>	<b>Category Codes</b>
Name	_____	1 = Included, whole name required 2 = Included, not required 3 = Included, partial name required 0 = Not included
Alias	_____	1 = Included, required 2 = Included, not required 0 = Not included

Search Features Continued	Code	Category Codes
Age	_____	1 = Included, required 2 = Included, not required 0 = Not included
Weight	_____	1 = Included, required 2 = Included, not required 0 = Not included
Height	_____	1 = Included, required 2 = Included, not required 0 = Not included
Sex	_____	1 = Included, required 2 = Included, not required 0 = Not included
Race	_____	1 = Included, required 2 = Included, not required 0 = Not included
Eye Colour	_____	1 = Included, required 2 = Included, not required 0 = Not included
Hair Colour	_____	1 = Included, required 2 = Included, not required 0 = Not included
Address	_____	1 = Included, complete address required 2 = Included, not required 3 = Included, partial address required 0 = Not included
Vehicle Description	_____	1 = Included, required 2 = Included, not required 0 = Not included
Vehicle Licence Plate	_____	1 = Included, required 2 = Included, not required 0 = Not included
Total number of sex offenders result provided	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
Juvenile registry available?	_____	1 = Yes, 2 = Not specified, 0 = No
Additional search features (describe):	_____	

Demographic Information	Code	Category Codes
Photograph	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Name	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Aliases	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Sex	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Date of birth	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Age	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Race	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Hair colour	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Eye colour	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Height	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Weight	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Identifying marks	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Compliant/Absconder	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Date registered	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Date offender released	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Lowest risk level included in registry	_____	1 = Level 1 (Low Risk) 2 = Level 2 (Intermediate Risk) 3 = Level 3 (High Risk) 0 = No risk assessment used
Description of risk level	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Risk assessment instrument used:		
Offender classification used in registry	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
Child Kidnapper	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
Sexually Violent Predator	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
High Risk Offender	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
Sex Offender	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
Sexually Dangerous	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
Other (specify):	_____	

Address and Supervision Information	Code	Category Codes
Street address	_____	1 = Complete Street Address 2 = City Only 3 = State/Province Only 4 = Zip/Postal Code Only
Date residence last verified	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Currently supervised?	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Currently incarcerated?	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Employer name	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Employer address	_____	1 = Complete Street Address 2 = City Only 3 = State/Province Only 4 = Zip/Postal Code Only
School address	_____	1 = Complete Street Address 2 = City Only 3 = State/Province Only 4 = Zip/Postal Code Only
Parole officer contact information	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Local police phone number (including 911)	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Local police address	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Vehicle Information	Code	Category Codes
Year	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Make	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Model	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Colour	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Licensing State/Province	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Licence Plate Number	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Criminal History Information	Code	Category Codes
Offence name	_____	1 = Complete 2 = Abbreviated 0 = Not Provided
Description of offence	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Disposition	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided

<b>Conviction Information Continued</b>	<b>Code</b>	<b>Category Codes</b>
Statute number	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Conviction date	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Place of conviction	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Victim gender	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Victim age (if “child”, place under “Groups at risk”)	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Stranger victim?	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Grooming behaviours/Method of accessing victims	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
# prior victims	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Conditions/Restrictions	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Convicted of crimes in another state	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Repeat offender?	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Groups at risk (specifically outlined or “child”)	_____	1 = Provided 2 = Included in sentence but not specifically cautioned 0 = Not Provided
<b>Additional Website Features</b>	<b>Code</b>	<b>Category Codes</b>
Map	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Daycares identified	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
Children’s schools identified	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
Children’s parks identified	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
Multiple sex offenders identified	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
Sex offenders outside map area identified	_____	1 = Yes, 0 = No
Other features 1 (specify):	_____	
Other features 2 (specify):	_____	
Other features 3 (specify):	_____	
Other features 4 (specify):	_____	
Contact number to correct information	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided
Printer-friendly format	_____	1 = Provided, 0 = Not Provided

## APPENDIX B: KNOWLEDGE OF CRIME QUESTIONNAIRE

On a scale of 1 to 7, where 1 means “not at all” and 7 means “extremely,” please rate how knowledgeable you are of:

	Not at All						Extremely
1. Crime	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Child sexual abuse	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Sexual offending	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4. What was the violent crime rate in Canada in 2007?
  - ☐ 530 crimes per 100,000 population
  - ☐ 930 crimes per 100,000 population\*
  - ☐ 1530 crimes per 100,000 population
  - ☐ 3030 crimes per 100,000 population
5. In 2007, what percentage of robberies in Canada was committed with a weapon?
  - ☐ 20%
  - ☐ 40%\*
  - ☐ 60%
  - ☐ 80%
6. What percentage of all reported crimes in Canada was violent in 2007?
  - ☐ 3%
  - ☐ 13%\*
  - ☐ 23%
  - ☐ 33%
7. Excluding traffic violations, crime rates in Canada have been decreasing since the 1990s.
  - ☐ True\*
  - ☐ False
8. What was the homicide rate per 100,000 people in Canada in 2007?
  - ☐ 1.8\*
  - ☐ 3.8
  - ☐ 5.8
  - ☐ 8.8



9. In 2007, what was the rate of aggravated sexual assault per 100,000 people in Canada?
- ☐ 0\*
  - ☐ 10
  - ☐ 20
  - ☐ 30
10. At what age can someone in Canada consent to sexual activity with an individual who is less than 2 years older than themselves?
- ☐ 10 to 11 years
  - ☐ 12 to 13 years\*
  - ☐ 14 to 15 years
  - ☐ 16 years or older
11. Approximately what percentage of children in Canada is sexually abused by strangers?
- ☐ 10%\*
  - ☐ 20%
  - ☐ 30%
  - ☐ 40%
12. Most sexual assault victims know their attacker.
- ☐ True\*
  - ☐ False

## APPENDIX C: COMMUNITY NOTIFICATION WEB PAGE VIGNETTE

### **Public Safety Notice**

The police, under the authority of the Public Disclosure Act, are warning the Saskatoon and area public of the presence of a sexual offender residing in the Saskatoon area.

Mr. John Smith, DOB: 1986-01-01, has a history of committing violent sexual offences against young males who were previously unknown to him. He was released to the Saskatoon area after serving a sentence for Sexual Interference and Possession of Child Pornography. Mr. Smith has previous convictions for sexual offences against four victims. In his previous offence(s), his victims have been under 18 years of age.

Mr. Smith is described as a Caucasian male, 5'9" (175 cm) and 190 lbs in weight, with brown hair and eyes.



Mr. Smith is subject to National Parole Board supervision conditions that require he refrain from having contact with any children under 18 years of age, avoid frequenting areas where children under 18 years of age are likely to be present (including but not limited to public parks, daycares, and schools), and abstain from the use of alcohol. He is also required to follow a treatment program to address his sexual offending and stress management.

Any member of the public who has questions or concerns is encouraged to contact the police service at 123-4567. Anyone who wishes to report an incident where Mr. Smith was in violation of the aforementioned conditions should call the police service at 123-4567 or Crime Stoppers at 765-4321.

This information is intended to raise community awareness about the presence of this offender so that residents may take legitimate protective measures. It is not provided so that citizens may engage in vigilantism or any other form of unreasonable conduct directed towards this individual.

## APPENDIX D: INTERVENTION PAMPHLET

### Important Statistics and Tips on How to Protect Yourself and Your Children

#### Important Statistics

- The majority of women who have been raped know their assailant;
- Approximately 60% of boys and 80% of girls who are sexually victimized are abused by someone known to the child or the child's family;
- Most sex offenders groom their victims prior to any sexual abuse; and,
- Many pedophiles seek out mothers of single parent families for the purpose of victimizing their children.

#### Tips on How to Protect Yourself

- Walk with your head up. Know who and what surrounds you, both behind and in front of you.
- Make eye contact with others. It lets them know that you know they are there.
- Ask someone to walk with you and avoid walking in deserted places alone.
- Do not walk by yourself and with your headphones on.
- Park in well-lit places.
- Have your keys ready in hand so you can get into your house or vehicle quickly.
- Lock your door when you enter your house or car.
- Always tell someone where you are.
- If you have a cell phone, carry it with you.
- If you are in trouble, yell loudly to attract attention.
- Fight off your attacker as they may not expect resistance.

#### Tips on How to Protect Your Children

- Watch out for "grooming techniques" such as offering free babysitting, transportation, money, gifts, etc. Sex offenders are masters of manipulation and while they are grooming the child, they are also grooming the parent.
- In a team or group setting, be suspicious of someone who is focused on providing only your child with that "special attention".
- Ask yourself, "why is this person volunteering to baby-sit my child, or take them camping, or on an outing alone?"
- Ask yourself, "where did my child get this money or expensive gift?" "Who gave it to them and why?"
- Parents should be concerned about the adult who relates better with children than he or she does with adults. Especially if that adult has toys and video games at his or her home but they have no children of their own.
- Don't just talk to your kids about stranger danger. A child is many more times likely to be victimized by someone they know than by a stranger.
- The single most effective means of protecting your child is communicating with them. They have to feel comfortable discussing sensitive matters with you. If they don't feel they can talk to you about their true feelings or that they will be "put down" for it, then you can't expect they will tell you when they are put in an uncomfortable situation by a child molester.

- Cybertip.ca handles tips from individuals reporting the online sexual exploitation of children through child pornography, luring, children who are prostituted, and child sex-tourism. If a parent or child comes across information about the online sexual exploitation of a child the parent or child fills out an online report form. The form is reviewed by a trained analyst who then forwards the report, if appropriate, to the proper law enforcement jurisdiction. The site also provides the public with information and other resources to help Canadians keep themselves and their families safe while on the Internet.

Source: The Government of Saskatchewan's Ministry of Corrections, Public Safety and Policing.

## APPENDIX E: SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

### Instructions

As a participant, you will first view a public safety notice depicting a fictional sexual offender. When you are viewing the notice, please imagine that you are receiving the notice because the offender is moving within **one mile (1.6 kilometres)** of your home.

After viewing the notice, you will be asked to complete a survey about how you would react if the sexual offender depicted in the notice was being released within one mile (1.6 kilometers) of your home.

### Section 1: Extended Parallel Processing Model Questionnaire

Please answer the following questions with the notice you just read in mind.

Please imagine you received the notice about Mr Smith because he was moving within one mile (16 kilometers) of your home

Please respond to each of the following statements by selecting a number on the 7-point scale 7 means “very much,” 4 means “neutral,” and 1 means “not at all”

[Fear]

1. How much did this notice make you feel:

	Not at All						Very Much
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
frightened?							
tense?							
nervous?							
anxious?							
uncomfortable?							
nauseous?							

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by selecting a number 7 means “strongly agree,” 4 means “neutral,” and 1 means “strongly disagree”

[Susceptibility]

2. I am at risk of being sexually assaulted by:

Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Mr Smith

Someone  
known to me

3. Children in my neighbourhood are at risk of being sexually assaulted by:

Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Mr Smith

Someone  
known to  
them

4. It is likely that I will be sexually assaulted by:

Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Mr Smith

Someone  
known to me

5. It is likely that children in my neighbourhood will be sexually assaulted by:

Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Mr Smith

Someone  
known to them

6. It is possible that I will be sexually assaulted by:

Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Mr Smith

Someone  
known to me

7. It is possible that children in my neighbourhood will be sexually assaulted by:

Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Mr Smith

Someone  
known to them

[Severity]

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by selecting a number 7 means “strongly agree,” 4 means “neutral,” and 1 means “strongly disagree”

8. I believe that Mr Smith’s presence in my neighbourhood is:

<b>Strongly Disagree</b>		<b>Neutral</b>				<b>Strongly Agree</b>	
<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	
a severe problem for me							
a serious threat to my safety							
a significant issue for me							
a severe problem for children in my neighbourhood							
a serious threat to children in my neighbourhood							
a significant issue for children in my neighbourhood							



9. Please rank the following crimes from most serious to least serious (where 1 is the “most serious” and 10 is the “least serious”):

- \_\_\_\_\_ Begging or panhandling
- \_\_\_\_\_ Being cheated, conned, or swindled out of your money
- \_\_\_\_\_ Having someone break into your home while you are away
- \_\_\_\_\_ Having someone break into your home while you are there
- \_\_\_\_\_ Being sexually assaulted or raped
- \_\_\_\_\_ Being murdered
- \_\_\_\_\_ Being attacked by someone with a weapon
- \_\_\_\_\_ Having your car stolen
- \_\_\_\_\_ Being robbed or mugged on the street
- \_\_\_\_\_ Having your the property damaged by vandals

10. Do you have children?

- \_\_\_\_\_ Yes (Skip Pattern)
- \_\_\_\_\_ No

[Self-Efficacy]

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by selecting a number 7 means “strongly agree,” 4 means “neutral,” and 1 means “strongly disagree”

11. I am able to:

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>			<b>Neutral</b>			<b>Strongly Agree</b>	
	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	
avoid going near Mr Smith’s house								
be aware of my surroundings when I am out								
make eye contact with others when I am out								
ask someone to walk with me when I am out								
avoid unsafe areas during the day								

	Strongly Disagree		Neutral				Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
avoid unsafe areas during the night							
<b>NOT</b> listen to headphones when I am walking outside							
park in well-lit places							
have my keys in hand so I can get into my house or car quickly							
lock my door when I enter my house or car							
tell another person where I am when I am out							
yell loudly if I am in trouble							
fight if I am attacked							
install extra locks on windows or doors							
buy a watchdog							
keep a weapon in my home for protection							
add outside lighting to my home							
learn more about self-defence							
start carrying something to defend myself							
carry a cell phone with me when I am out							

12. I am able to:

*[Dependency (Ask if “Yes” to Q10)]*

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>			<b>Neutral</b>			<b>Strongly Agree</b>
	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>
teach my child(ren) to avoid strangers							
teach my child(ren) the proper names and functions of all parts of their bodies, including the genitals							
teach my child(ren) about good and bad touches							
teach my child(ren) not to go near Mr Smith’s house							
watch for “grooming techniques” such as free babysitting, transportation, money, and gifts							
watch for adults who relate better with children than with adults							
notice when someone pays "special attention" to my child in group or team settings							
notice if my child has received gifts from an unknown source							
speak with my child about being victimized by someone they know							
monitor my child's online activity							

13. It is easy for me to:

	Strongly Disagree		Neutral		Strongly Agree		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
avoid going near Mr Smith's house							
be aware of my surroundings when I am out							
make eye contact with others when I am out							
ask someone to walk with me when I am out							
avoid unsafe areas during the day							
avoid unsafe areas during the night							
<b><u>NOT</u></b> listen to headphones when I am walking outside							
park in well-lit places							
have my keys in hand so I can get into my house or car quickly							
lock my door when I enter my house or car							
tell another person where I am when I am out							
yell loudly if I am in trouble							
fight if I am attacked							
install extra locks on windows or doors							
buy a watchdog							

	Strongly Disagree		Neutral			Strongly Agree	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
keep a weapon in my home for protection							
add outside lighting to my home							
learn more about self-defence							
start carrying something to defend myself							
carry a cell phone with me when I am out							

14. It is easy for me to:

*[Dependency (Ask if “Yes” to Q10)]*

	Strongly Disagree		Neutral			Strongly Agree	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
teach my child(ren) to avoid strangers							
teach my child(ren) the proper names and functions of all parts of their bodies, including the genitals							
teach my child(ren) about good and bad touches							
teach my child(ren) not to go near Mr Smith’s house							
watch for “grooming techniques” such as free babysitting, transportation, money, and gifts							

	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
watch for adults who relate better with children than with adults							
notice when someone pays "special attention" to my child in group or team settings							
notice if my child has received gifts from an unknown source							
speak with my child about being victimized by someone they know							
monitor my child's online activity							

[Response Efficacy]

15. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree that each of the following statements is an effective way to avoid being sexually victimized by Mr. Smith.

	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
avoiding Mr Smith's house							
being aware of my surroundings when I am out							
making eye contact with others when I am out							
asking someone to walk with me when I am out							

	Strongly Disagree		Neutral			Strongly Agree	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
avoiding unsafe areas during the day							
avoiding unsafe areas during the night							
<b><u>NOT</u></b> listening to headphones when I am walking outside							
parking in well-lit places							
having my keys in hand so I can get into my house or car quickly							
locking my door when I enter my house or car							
telling another person where I am when I am out							
yelling loudly if I am in trouble							
fighting if I am attacked							
installing extra locks on windows or doors							
buying a watchdog							
keeping a weapon in my home for protection							
adding outside lighting to my home							
learning more about self-defence							

	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

carrying something to  
defend myself

carrying a cell phone  
with me when I am out

16. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree that each of the following statements is an effective way to prevent your children from being sexually victimized by Mr. Smith.

[Dependency (Ask if “Yes” to Q10)]

	Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

teaching my child(ren) to  
avoid strangers

teaching my child(ren) the  
proper names and functions  
of all parts of their bodies,  
including the genitals

teaching my child(ren)  
about good and bad touches

teaching my child(ren) not  
to go near Mr Smith’s house

watching for “grooming  
techniques” such as free  
babysitting, transportation,  
money, and gifts

watching for adults who  
relate better with children  
than with adults



	Strongly Disagree		Neutral			Strongly Agree	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
noticing when someone pays "special attention" to my child in group or team settings							
noticing if my child has received gifts from an unknown source							
speaking with my child about being victimized by someone they know							
monitoring my child's online activity							

[Attitudes}

\*Reverse scored

17. Below are sets of word pairs. For each pair, please place a check in the column that best describes how you personally feel about each behaviour.

	Good	Bad*
avoiding Mr Smith's house		
being aware of my surroundings when I am out		
making eye contact with others when I am out		
asking someone to walk with me when I am out		
avoiding unsafe areas during the day		
avoiding unsafe areas during the night		
<b><u>NOT</u></b> listening to headphones when I am walking outside		
parking in well-lit places		
having my keys in hand so I can get into my house or car quickly		

	Good	Bad*
locking my door when I enter my house or car		
telling another person where I am when I am out		
yelling loudly if I am in trouble		
fighting if I am attacked		
installing extra locks on windows or doors		
buying a watchdog		
keeping a weapon in my home for protection		
adding outside lighting to my home		
learning more about self-defence		
carrying something to defend myself		
carrying a cell phone with me when I am out		

18. Below are sets of word pairs. For each pair, please place a check in the column that best describes how you personally feel about each behaviour.

[Dependency (Ask if “Yes” to Q10)]

	Good	Bad*
teaching my child(ren) to avoid strangers		
teaching my child(ren) the proper names and functions of all parts of their bodies, including the genitals		
teaching my child(ren) about good and bad touches		
teaching my child(ren) not to go near Mr Smith’s house		
watching for “grooming techniques” such as free babysitting, transportation, money, and gifts		
watching for adults who relate better with children than with adults		
noticing when someone pays "special attention" to my child in group or team settings		

	Good	Bad*
noticing if my child has received gifts from an unknown source		
speaking with my child about being victimized by someone they know		
monitoring my child's online activity		

19. Below are sets of word pairs. For each pair, please place a check in the column that best describes how you personally feel about each behaviour.

	Undesirable	Desirable
avoiding Mr Smith's house		
being aware of my surroundings when I am out		
making eye contact with others when I am out		
asking someone to walk with me when I am out		
avoiding unsafe areas during the day		
avoiding unsafe areas during the night		
<b><u>NOT</u></b> listening to headphones when I am walking outside		
parking in well-lit places		
having my keys in hand so I can get into my house or car quickly		
locking my door when I enter my house or car		
telling another person where I am when I am out		
yelling loudly if I am in trouble		
fighting if I am attacked		
installing extra locks on windows or doors		
buying a watchdog		
keeping a weapon in my home for protection		
adding outside lighting to my home		

	Undesirable	Desirable
learning more about self-defence		
carrying something to defend myself		
carrying a cell phone with me when I am out		

20. Below are sets of word pairs. For each pair, please place a check in the column that best describes how you personally feel about each behaviour.

[Dependency (Ask if “Yes” to Q10)]

	Undesirable	Desirable
teaching my child(ren) to avoid strangers		
teaching my child(ren) the proper names and functions of all parts of their bodies, including the genitals		
teaching my child(ren) about good and bad touches		
teaching my child(ren) not to go near Mr Smith’s house		
watching for “grooming techniques” such as free babysitting, transportation, money, and gifts		
watching for adults who relate better with children than with adults		
noticing when someone pays "special attention" to my child in group or team settings		
noticing if my child has received gifts from an unknown source		
speaking with my child about being victimized by someone they know		
monitoring my child's online activity		

21. Below are sets of word pairs. For each pair, please place a check in the column that best describes how you personally feel about each behaviour.

	Favourable	Unfavourable*
avoiding Mr Smith's house		
being aware of my surroundings when I am out		
making eye contact with others when I am out		
asking someone to walk with me when I am out		
avoiding unsafe areas during the day		
avoiding unsafe areas during the night		
<b>NOT</b> listening to headphones when I am walking outside		
parking in well-lit places		
having my keys in hand so I can get into my house or car quickly		
locking my door when I enter my house or car		
telling another person where I am when I am out		
yelling loudly if I am in trouble		
fighting if I am attacked		
installing extra locks on windows or doors		
buying a watchdog		
keeping a weapon in my home for protection		
adding outside lighting to my home		
learning more about self-defence		
carrying something to defend myself		
carrying a cell phone with me when I am out		

[Dependency (Ask if “Yes” to Q10)]

Please answer the following questions on the 7-point scale

[Dependency (Ask if “Yes” to Q10)]

25. When I read the notice, my instinct was to:

1                      2                      3                      4

Want to Protect

Myself from  
Mr Smith

5                      6                      7

Not Want to Protect

Myself from  
Mr Smith

26. When I read the notice, my instinct was to:

1                      2                      3                      4

Want to Protect

Myself from  
Mr Smith

5                      6                      7

Not Want to Protect

Myself from  
Mr Smith

[Dependency (Ask if “Yes” to Q10)]

27. When I read the notice, my instinct was to:

1                      2                      3                      4

Want to Think

about being  
Sexually Assaulted

5                      6                      7

Not Want to Think

about being Sexually  
Assaulted

28. When I read the notice, my instinct was to:

1                      2                      3                      4

Want to Think

about My Children  
being Sexually Assaulted

5                      6                      7

Not Want to Think

about My Children being  
Sexually Assaulted

[Dependency (Ask if “Yes” to Q10)]

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by selecting a number 7 means “strongly agree,” 4 means “neutral,” and 1 means “strongly disagree”

[Fear Control Responses – Perceived Manipulation]

29. This notice:

Strongly Disagree			Neutral			Strongly Agree	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
was manipulative							
was misleading							
tried to manipulate me							
was exploitative							

[Fear Control Responses – Message Derogation]

Strongly Disagree		Neutral				Strongly Agree	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
was exaggerated							
was distorted							
was overblown							
was overstated							
was downplayed							
was understated							

[Danger Control Responses]

30. Please imagine you received the notice about Mr. Smith because he was moving within one mile of your home. Please indicate if you would do any of the following:

Strongly Disagree		Neutral				Strongly Agree	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
avoid going near Mr Smith's house							
be aware of my surroundings when I am out							
make eye contact with others when I am out							
ask someone to walk with me when I am out							
avoid unsafe areas during the day							
avoid unsafe areas during the night							



	Strongly Disagree		Neutral			Strongly Agree	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<b><u>NOT</u></b> listen to headphones when I am walking outside							
park in well-lit places							
have my keys in hand so I can get into my house or car quickly							
lock my door when I enter my house or car							
tell another person where I am when I am out							
yell loudly if I am in trouble							
fight if I am attacked							
install extra locks on windows or doors							
buy a watchdog							
keep a weapon in my home for protection							
add outside lighting to my home							
learn more about self- defence							
start carrying something to defend myself							
carry a cell phone with me when I am out							

31. Please imagine you received the notice about Mr. Smith because he was moving within one mile of your home. Please indicate if you would do any of the following:

[Dependency (Ask if “Yes” to Q10)]

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>		<b>Neutral</b>			<b>Strongly Agree</b>	
	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>
teach my child(ren) to avoid strangers							
teach my child(ren) the proper names and functions of all parts of their bodies, including the genitals							
teach my child(ren) about good and bad touches							
teach my child(ren) not to go near Mr Smith’s house							
watch for “grooming techniques” such as free babysitting, transportation, money, and gifts							
watch for adults who relate better with children than with adults							
notice when someone pays "special attention" to my child in group or team settings							
notice if my child has received gifts from an unknown source							

	Strongly Disagree		Neutral			Strongly Agree	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<div> <div> speak with my child about being victimized by someone they know </div> </div>							
<div> <div>monitor my child's online activity</div> </div>							

[Current Behaviour]

32. Please indicate your current behaviour.

I currently:

	Strongly Disagree		Neutral			Strongly Agree	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<div> <div>make sure I am aware of my surroundings when I am out</div> </div>							
<div> <div>make eye contact with others when I am out</div> </div>							
<div> <div>walk with me when I am out</div> </div>							
<div> <div>avoid unsafe areas during the day</div> </div>							
<div> <div>avoid unsafe areas during the night</div> </div>							
<div> <div>do <b>NOT</b> listen to headphones when I am walking outside</div> </div>							
<div> <div>park in well-lit places</div> </div>							

	Strongly Disagree		Neutral				Strongly Agree	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
keep my keys in hand so I can get into my house or car quickly								
lock my door when I enter my house or car								
tell another person where I am when I am out								
yell loudly if I am in trouble								
fight when attacked								
have extra locks on windows or doors								
have a watchdog								
keep a weapon in my home for protection								
have outside lighting on my home								
am knowledgeable of self-defence								
carry something to defend myself								
carry a cell phone with me when I am out								

33. Please indicate your current behaviour.

I currently:

[Dependency (Ask if “Yes” to Q10)]

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>			<b>Neutral</b>			<b>Strongly Agree</b>	
	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	
teach my child(ren) to avoid strangers								
teach my child(ren) the proper names and functions of all parts of their bodies, including the genitals								
teach my child(ren) about good and bad touches								
teach my child(ren) not to go near Mr Smith’s house								
watch for “grooming techniques” such as free babysitting, transportation, money, and gifts								
watch for adults who relate better with children than with adults								
notice when someone pays "special attention" to my child in group or team settings								
notice if my child has received gifts from an unknown source								
speak with my child about being victimized by someone they know								

Strongly Disagree		Neutral				Strongly Agree	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

monitor my child's online activity

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by selecting a number 7 means “strongly agree,” 4 means “neutral,” and 1 means “strongly disagree”

[Confound Checks]

Strongly Disagree		Neutral				Strongly Agree	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

This notice was an accurate description of a sexual offender

This notice was an objective description of a sexual offender

This notice was clearly written

I understood this notice

I learned a lot about sexual offending from this notice

The quality of the information in this notice was good

The information in this notice was helpful for learning how to avoid sexual victimization

## Section 2: Levenson's Locus of Control Scale

This section is designed to determine your locus of control, or where you assign responsibility for things that happen in your life. There are no right or wrong answers. Circle the number that most accurately describes your feeling about each statement.

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree	
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Whether or not I get to be a leader depends mostly on my ability						
To a great extent my life is controlled by accidental happenings						
I feel like what happens in my life is mostly determined by powerful people						
Whether or not I get into a car accident depends mostly on how good a driver I am						
When I make plans, I am almost certain to make them work						
Often there is no chance of protecting my personal interest from bad luck happenings						
When I get what I want, it's usually because I'm lucky						
Although I might have good ability, I will not be given leadership responsibility without appealing to those in positions of power						
How many friends I have depends on how nice of a person I am						
I have often found that what is going to happen will happen						

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree	
	1	2	3	4	5	6
My life is chiefly controlled by powerful others						
Whether or not I get into a car accident is mostly a matter of luck						
People like myself have very little chance of protecting our personal interests when they conflict with those of strong pressure groups						
It's not always wise for me to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune						
Getting what I want requires pleasing those people above me						
Whether or not I get to be a leader depends on whether I'm lucky enough to be in the right place at the right time						
If important people were to decide they didn't like me, I probably wouldn't make many friends						
I can pretty much determine what will happen in my life						
I am usually able to protect my personal interests						
Whether or not I get into a car accident depends mostly on the other driver						
When I get what I want, it's usually because I worked hard for it						



	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree	
	1	2	3	4	5	6
In order to have my plans work, I make sure that they fit in with the desires of people who have power over me						
My life is determined by my own actions						
It's chiefly a matter of fate whether or not I have a few friends or many friends						

### Section 3: Demographics

34. What is your gender?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

35. What is your age in years? *(Please enter a number)* \_\_\_\_\_

36. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- ☐ Less than high school
- ☐ High school
- ☐ Some post-secondary
- ☐ College diploma
- ☐ Bachelor's degree
- ☐ Professional degree
- ☐ Master's degree
- ☐ Doctoral degree

37. By your own definition, do you consider yourself to be (select one):

- ☐ Very liberal
- ☐ Liberal
- ☐ Somewhat liberal
- ☐ Somewhat conservative
- ☐ Conservative
- ☐ Very conservative

38. With which of the following ethnic groups do you most self-identify?

- ☐ European/Caucasian descent
- ☐ First Nations
- ☐ Métis
- ☐ East Indian
- ☐ Asian
- ☐ Middle Eastern
- ☐ African
- ☐ Central American
- ☐ South American
- ☐ Other

39. In which province/state do you live? \_\_\_\_\_

40. Please answer the following questions about the composition of your residence: (*Please enter a number*)

How many people live in your residence? \_\_\_\_\_

How many children do you have? \_\_\_\_\_

How many of your co-residents are children are under 18? \_\_\_\_\_

How many of your co-residents are children are over 18? \_\_\_\_\_

41. So far as you are aware, have any of the following people previously been a victim of a crime? (*Check all that apply*)

- ☐ Yourself
- ☐ A friend of yours
- ☐ A family member

## APPENDIX F: RECRUITMENT NOTICE

It is becoming increasingly common for the justice system to notify the public when a sexual offender is being released into the community. One of the ways the justice system notifies community members is through web page notices.

You are invited to participate in a study examining peoples' reactions to a sexual offender being released to the community from prison. You will be asked to view a web page notification depicting a fictional sexual offender. After viewing the web page, you will be asked to answer a survey about your reactions. This research will improve our understanding of how members of the community react to offenders being released into their neighbourhoods.

The survey should take no more than 30 to 45 minutes to complete. Participants will have the opportunity to enter into a draw for \$150 (cash).

If you are interested in learning more about this study or have any questions, please contact Nicola Chopin at [nicola.chopin@usask.ca](mailto:nicola.chopin@usask.ca) or 966-2120.

The proposed research project was reviewed and approved on ethical grounds by the University of Saskatchewan's Behavioural Research Ethics Board on December 18, 2009.

## APPENDIX G: CONSENT FORM

You are invited to participate in a research project entitled “A Fear Appeal Approach to Community Notification Web pages: An Examination of Fear of Victimization, Perceived Threat of Victimization, Response Efficacy, and Protective Behaviours”. Please read this form carefully.

### **Researcher(s):**

Student Researcher: Nicola Chopin  
Department of Psychology, University of Saskatchewan  
Phone: 966-2120  
Email: nicola.chopin@usask.ca

Supervisor: J. Stephen Wormith  
Department of Psychology, University of Saskatchewan  
Phone: 966-6818  
Email: s.wormith@usask.ca

**Purpose and Procedure:** It is becoming increasingly common for the justice system to notify the public when a sexual offender is released into their neighbourhood. One of the ways the justice system notifies community members is through web page notices; however, there has been very little research examining community members’ reactions to receiving a web page notice.

As a participant, you will view a web page notification depicting a fictional sexual offender. After viewing the web page, you will be asked to answer a survey about how you would react if the sexual offender in the web page was being released within one mile (1.6 kilometers) of your home. The survey questionnaire should take no more than 30 to 45 minutes to complete. You will be provided with the opportunity to enter into a draw for \$150 (cash).

**Potential Benefits:** While you may not personally benefit from participating in this study, there may be several benefits to the community. This study will improve our understanding of how people react to the information in web page notices and will help develop tools for community members’ to cope with the release of offenders into the community.

**Potential Risks:** Because you will be viewing a notification web page depicting a fictional sexual offender, you may find some of the information related to the offender’s criminal history distressing. However, this offence information is summarized in about the same level of detail as you would see in a typical news report or press release related to sexual offending. The web page should not be more distressing than you would encounter in a typical day. While we designed the information in the study to be no more distressing than might be encountered during a newscast or press release, if participating in this study causes you distress, please contact Nicola Chopin at the contact information above or Student Counselling Services at 966-4920.

**Storage of Data:** The research data will be securely stored in marked containers in the researcher's laboratory in the University of Saskatchewan's Arts building for five years from the completion of the study. The box(es) containing the data will be marked with the study's name and type of data contained within the box. The data will be stored in a locked location that is not accessible by the general public.

**Confidentiality:** Your participation is anonymous and confidential. Although the data from this research project will be published and presented at conferences, the data will be reported in aggregate form, so that it will not be possible to identify individuals. Please do not put your name or other identifying information in the online questionnaire's fields.

**Right to Withdraw:** Your participation is voluntary and you only have to answer questions that you are comfortable with. There is no guarantee that you will personally benefit from your involvement. You may withdraw from the research project for any reason, at any time, without penalty of any sort. If you are a student, withdrawing from the study will not affect your grades or research credit.

**Questions:** If you have any questions concerning the research project, please feel free to ask at any point by calling Nicola Chopin or Steve Wormith at the contact information above. You are also free to contact the researchers at the numbers provided if you have questions. This research project has been approved on ethical grounds by the University of Saskatchewan Behavioural Research Ethics Board on December 18, 2009. Any questions regarding your rights as a participant may be addressed to that committee through the Ethics Office (966-2084). Out of town participants may call collect.

**Follow-Up or Debriefing:** After you complete the survey or in the event you withdraw from the study, your web browser will link to a debriefing sheet providing more information on the study's background and purpose. If you wish to receive a summary of the research results, please submit your request to Nicola Chopin or Steve Wormith at the contact information above.

**Consent to Participate:** Completion of the online survey questionnaire will constitute consent to participate and permission for the researcher to use the data gathered in the manner described above. If you would like a copy of the consent form, please print a copy for your records before proceeding to the questionnaire.

## APPENDIX H: DEBRIEFING FORM

Thank you for participating in this study. Please be assured that your responses to the survey questionnaire are anonymous. The participant identification number you were assigned will be used to identify your responses in the database and will not be connected with your name in any way.

It is becoming more common for the police to notify the public when a high risk sexual offender is released. Public reactions to receiving a notification are not well understood although it has been found that common reactions include feelings of fear and powerlessness. This study was designed to determine if providing individuals receiving notifications with strategies to protect themselves and their families from sexual offenders reduces these feelings of fear and powerlessness.

While we designed the information in the study to be no more distressing than might be encountered during a newscast or press release, if participating in this study has caused distress, please contact Nicola Chopin at 966-2120 or Student Counselling Services at 966-4920.

If you would like to receive a summary of the results for this study, please contact Nicola Chopin at [nicola.chopin@usask.ca](mailto:nicola.chopin@usask.ca) or 966-2120 or Dr. J. Stephen Wormith at [s.wormith@usask.ca](mailto:s.wormith@usask.ca) or (306) 966-6818.

Thank you very much.

# APPENDIX I: RESULTS OF 2 X 2 ANOVA ANALYSIS FOR FEAR CONTROL AND DANGER CONTROL RESPONSES TO ALTRUISTIC THREATS

A series of 2 x 2 between-subjects ANOVAs examined whether the control and intervention groups differed in their responses to altruistic threats. Detailed subscale analyses were conducted but are not reported as all but one effect (a main effect of gender for perceived manipulation fear control responses in which males had higher scores than females overall) was non-significant.

The group main effect was non-significant, indicating that overall the intervention did not impact altruistic perceived threat, perceived efficacy, fear control responses, or danger control responses as hypothesized, although power was quite low. A significant main effect was seen for gender and fear control responses,  $F(1, 42) = 5.46, p < 0.05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.12$ , as hypothesized but hypothesized gender differences in fear, perceived threat, perceived efficacy, and danger control responses were not found. A significant non-hypothesized interaction for fear was found,  $F(1, 42) = 4.55, p < 0.05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.10$ . Effect sizes were the largest seen in the study but were still small. See Table I-1.

Table I-1. ANOVAs for altruistic threat dependent variable scales

Source of Variance	Dependent Variable	Univariate $F$	$df_1$	$df_2$	Partial partial $\eta^2$	Observed Power
Group	Fear	2.82	1	42	.06	.37
	Perceived Threat	.01	1	42	.00	.05
	Perceived Efficacy	.92	1	42	.02	.16
	Fear Control Responses	.53	1	42	.01	.11
	Danger Control Responses	.04	1	42	.00	.05
Gender	Fear	1.62	1	42	.04	.24
	Perceived Threat	1.27	1	42	.03	.20
	Perceived Efficacy	.80	1	42	.02	.14
	Fear Control Responses	5.46*	1	42	.12	.63
	Danger Control Responses	.53	1	42	.01	.11
Group by Gender Interaction	Fear	4.55*	1	42	.10	.55
	Perceived Threat	.44	1	42	.01	.10
	Perceived Efficacy	.40	1	42	.01	.10
	Fear Control Responses	.52	1	42	.01	.11
	Danger Control Responses	.73	1	42	.02	.13

\* $p < 0.05$

The mean self-reported fear score for male intervention group participants ( $M = 30.00$ ,  $SD = 8.49$ ) was approximately double that of the control group ( $M = 14.86$ ,  $SD = 7.38$ ), however as this mean was calculated from such a small sample size, it is not possible to interpret the results. The mean fear score was higher for female control group participants ( $M = 28.39$ ,  $SD = 9.71$ ) than female intervention group participants ( $M = 26.58$ ,  $SD = 9.22$ ). This pattern was also similar to the results of the threats to self analysis, although it is difficult to draw conclusions related to these findings given the small sample size. Examination of the cell means indicates that overall, males were much more likely to adopt fear control responses ( $M = 45.78$ ,  $SD = 9.23$ ) than females ( $M = 36.83$ ,  $SD = 10.77$ ), which is consistent with the results of the analysis examining threats to self but contrary to predictions.

Table I-2. Mean scores for altruistic threat dependent variable scales

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Control		Intervention		Total	
		n	M (SD)	n	M (SD)	N	M (SD)
Fear	Male	7	14.86 (7.38)	2	30.00 (8.49)	9	18.22 (9.72)
	Female	18	28.39 (9.71)	19	26.58 (9.22)	37	27.46 (9.37)
	Total	25	24.60 (10.90)	21	26.90 (9.01)	46	25.65 (10.04)
Perceived Threat	Male	7	25.14 (10.54)	2	27.50 (9.19)	9	25.67 (9.75)
	Female	18	32.33 (8.61)	19	29.37 (9.44)	37	30.81 (9.05)
	Total	25	30.32 (9.55)	21	29.19 (9.21)	46	29.80 (9.31)
Perceived Efficacy	Male	7	192.57 (23.39)	2	206.50 (4.95)	9	195.67 (21.24)
	Female	18	190.28 (22.19)	19	193.16 (17.38)	37	191.76 (19.64)
	Total	25	190.92 (22.06)	21	194.43 (17.01)	46	192.52 (19.78)
Fear Control Responses	Male	7	44.29 (10.09)	2	51.00 (.00)	9	45.78 (9.23)
	Female	18	36.83 (12.23)	19	36.84 (9.52)	37	36.83 (10.77)
	Total	25	38.91 (11.96)	21	38.19 (9.98)	46	38.58 (10.99)
Danger Control Responses	Male	7	60.14 (12.54)	2	64.00 (8.49)	9	61.00 (11.39)
	Female	18	66.00 (6.59)	19	63.53 (8.53)	37	64.73 (7.64)
	Total	25	64.36 (8.79)	21	63.57 (8.31)	46	64.00 (8.49)



## APPENDIX J: RESULTS OF 2X2 ANOVA EXPLORATORY SUBSCALE ANALYSIS FOR ALTRUISTIC THREATS

Table H-1 shows the results of 2 x 2 ANOVAs examining group and gender differences in each EPPM subscale for altruistic threats. Only one significant effect—a main effect of gender for perceived manipulation fear control responses,  $F(1, 42) = 5.41, p < 0.05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.13$ —was found. Due to low power and the small number of participants, it is not possible to draw conclusions about the results.

Table H-1. ANOVAs for altruistic threat sub-scales

Effect	Dependent Variable	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	Partial $\eta^2$	Observed Power
Group	Risk Susceptibility	1	.03	.00	.05
	Risk Severity	1	.00	.00	.05
	Self-Efficacy (Able)	1	1.17	.03	.19
	Self-Efficacy (Easy)	1	1.43	.03	.22
	Response Efficacy	1	.19	.00	.07
	Fear Control (Defensive Avoidance)	1	.00	.00	.05
	Fear Control (Perceived Manipulation)	1	.88	.02	.15
	Fear Control (Message Derogation)	1	.12	.00	.06
Gender	Risk Susceptibility	1	.75	.02	.14
	Risk Severity	1	1.05	.02	.17
	Self-Efficacy (Able)	1	.17	.00	.07
	Self-Efficacy (Easy)	1	.70	.02	.13
	Response Efficacy	1	.48	.01	.10
	Fear Control (Defensive Avoidance)	1	.02	.00	.05
	Fear Control (Perceived Manipulation)	1	6.41*	.13	.70
	Fear Control (Message Derogation)	1	2.61	.06	.35
Group by Gender Interaction	Risk Susceptibility	1	.30	.01	.08
	Risk Severity	1	.56	.01	.11
	Self-Efficacy (Able)	1	2.00	.05	.28
	Self-Efficacy (Easy)	1	.30	.01	.08
	Response Efficacy	1	.04	.00	.05
	Fear Control (Defensive Avoidance)	1	.09	.00	.06
	Fear Control (Perceived Manipulation)	1	2.62	.06	.35
	Fear Control (Message Derogation)	1	.09	.00	.06

\* $p < 0.05$

As shown in Table H-2, male participants had higher scores on the perceived manipulation fear control response subscale than female participants overall.

Table H-2. Mean scores for altruistic threat sub-scales

Dependent Variable	IV	Control		Intervention		Total	
	Gender	n	M (SD)	n	M (SD)	N	M (SD)
Risk Susceptibility	Male	7	11.71 (4.99)	2	12.50 (3.54)	9	11.89 (4.51)
	Female	19	14.68 (4.38)	18	13.17 (5.34)	37	13.95 (4.86)
	Total	26	13.88 (4.65)	20	13.10 (5.12)	46	13.54 (4.82)
Risk Severity	Male	7	13.43 (5.97)	2	15.00 (5.66)	9	13.78 (5.59)
	Female	19	17.37 (4.40)	18	15.61 (5.49)	37	16.51 (4.97)
	Total	26	16.31 (5.07)	20	15.55 (5.36)	46	15.98 (5.15)
Self-Efficacy (Able)	Male	7	63.86 (7.34)	2	70.00 (.00)	9	65.22 (6.91)
	Female	19	66.32 (5.93)	18	65.50 (4.85)	37	65.92 (5.37)
	Total	26	65.65 (6.28)	20	65.95 (4.80)	46	65.78 (5.62)
Self-Efficacy (Easy)	Male	7	63.14 (9.99)	2	70.00 (.00)	9	64.67 (9.17)
	Female	19	62.00 (10.47)	18	64.56 (7.25)	37	63.24 (9.02)
	Total	26	62.31 (10.16)	20	65.10 (7.06)	46	63.52 (8.96)
Response Efficacy	Male	7	65.57 (8.90)	2	66.50 (4.95)	9	65.78 (7.92)
	Female	19	62.16 (9.95)	18	64.56 (7.80)	37	63.32 (8.93)
	Total	26	63.08 (9.62)	20	64.75 (7.49)	46	63.80 (8.71)
Fear Control (Defensive Avoidance)	Male	7	9.71 (5.50)	2	9.00 (.00)	9	9.56 (4.77)
	Female	19	9.37 (4.61)	18	9.83 (3.99)	37	9.59 (4.27)
	Total	26	9.46 (4.75)	20	9.75 (3.78)	46	9.59 (4.31)
Fear Control (Perceived Manipulation)	Male	7	12.29 (4.79)	2	18.00 (.00)	9	13.56 (4.85)
	Female	19	10.24 (5.68)	18	8.72 (4.85)	37	9.50 (5.27)
	Total	26	10.79 (5.44)	20	9.65 (5.40)	46	10.30 (5.39)
Fear Control (Message Derogation)	Male	7	22.29 (3.40)	2	24.00 (.00)	9	22.67 (3.04)
	Female	19	18.80 (7.46)	18	18.89 (5.50)	37	18.84 (6.49)
	Total	26	19.74 (6.73)	20	19.40 (5.43)	46	19.59 (6.14)