Willingness to Ostracize for Norm Violations: Examining Ostracism as a Function of Attachment Using Sex-Norm Violations

by

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Abstract

The current study set out to examine the effect of attachment style on willingness to ostracize through ignoring and excluding behaviors. Place-attachment was also a construct of interest in how it affects willingness to ostracize. Participants were a nonrandom sample of individuals recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT) and were offered $1 compensation for completion of the survey consisting of a demographics questionnaire, as well as measures of: attachment style, place-attachment, attitudes toward the sex offender population, and willingness to ostracize via ignoring and excluding behaviors. Psychometric soundness was not established for the measures developed (Willingness to Ostracize for Sex Offenses Questionnaire) or adapted (Ostracism Experiences Scale–Revised) for this study. Therefore, two dimensions of the Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders Scale, Factors 1 and 2, were utilized during statistical analyses in lieu of the OES–R and WOSO, respectively. One significant finding specific to the hypotheses was produced; having young children increases a person's belief that sex offenders have the capacity to change. Other exploratory findings were revealed when examining demographic data in relation to the CATSO, such as significant correlations between attitudes toward the sex offender population and the variables of gender, marital status, and sexual identity. Implications for the original research questions pertaining to ostracism cannot be made, as psychometric soundness for the instruments intended to measure ignoring and excluding behaviors was not obtained. Therefore, it is recommended that future research focus

solely on qualitative studies to develop adequate tools of measurement before attempting to examine effects of ostracism across other domains of interest.

Dedication

In loving memory of my grandmother, whose kindness and unwavering empathy toward others have not only made me a better psychologist, but also a better person.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Persons who have internalized a safe and secure childhood will learn to navigate interpersonal dynamics in more flexible and adaptive ways, particularly during perceived threat (Ainsworth, 2014). A body of research stemming from the work of Bowlby, Adler, and Ainsworth called *Attachment Theory* has explained the nature of these interpersonal templates and how they translate into behavioral responses (Holmes, 2015). Within the spectrum of responses, ostracism falls on the extreme end of intensity yet it is commonly used to navigate conflict. Referred to by many as "social death" (Williams, 2007), ostracism occurs in response to norm violations as a form of punishment against, or protection from, social deviants. Ostracism is, therefore, a defense mechanism used to strip individuals of existential meaning by removing connections to their social environment (Williams & Zardo, 2005). Although ostracism has powerful implications for behavioral modification and preservation of social structure, consequences are devastating. Therefore, researchers have begun to explore ostracism, such as what factors contribute to the use of ostracism in lieu of other response styles (Forsdyke, 2005; Williams & Zadro, 2005).

Attachment Theory takes into consideration longstanding personality factors when predicting how persons will respond to perceived hurt, isolation, and threat, all of which can result from norm violations (Holmes, 2015). For example, two people at a social gathering may feel similarly threatened when an attractive friend enters the room wearing inappropriate attire, but will produce different behavioral responses. One person may cope with the norm violation

and initiate pleasant conversation, while the other may become defensive and ostracize the friend from all conversation that evening. Differing responses such as these can, in part, be explained by each person's attachment style. First mentioned in William's *Model of Ostracism* (1997), he and his colleague, Zadro (2001), revisited the notion that Attachment Theory can be used as a framework for understanding individual factors predisposing willingness to ostracize. Utilizing the coping-defending dynamic described above, these researchers indicated that insecurely attached individuals are more likely to respond to perceived threat through use of defense mechanisms, such as ostracism, than those who are securely attached. Said differently, those who have internalized a safe and secure childhood are less likely to use ostracism as a behavioral response to norm violations, unless the violation is severe (Williams & Zadro, 2001). The intention of this study was, therefore, to expand upon these preliminary findings and explore additional patterns of ostracism resulting from attachment styles.

Attachment Theory

According to Attachment Theory, the formative bonds that children have with caregivers tremendously affect their interpersonal relationships and self-identity throughout life (Chopik, Edelstein, & Fraley, 2013). For example, individuals who are raised by caretakers responsive to their needs, and who provide a balanced level of support and control, are more likely to develop higher levels of self-esteem, self-reliance, and adaptive interpersonal responsiveness (Holmes, 2015). When early childhood relationships are not conducive to such growth, individuals are more likely to develop maladaptive ways of interacting with themselves and others (Chopik, Edelstein, & Fraley, 2013). The attachment behavior system, therefore, serves as a bridge between human development, emotion regulation, and personality. How a person conceptualizes and responds to every situation is guided by this behavioral system (Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2010).

According to modern Attachment Theory, childhood attachment patterns often influence the development of adult attachment patterns categorized as: secure, preoccupied, dismissive-avoidant, and fearful-avoidant (Chopik, Edelstein, & Fraley, 2013). These categories are not discrete, but rather fall on a continuum across two dimensions of anxiety and avoidance. The latter three attachment styles are collectively called insecure attachment styles, named in an effort to describe their maladaptive qualities. Research indicates that securely attached individuals strive to accommodate both the needs of the self and others, while insecurely attached individuals meet personal needs through dependence on, or avoidance of, emotional closeness with others. Experiences of perceived threat, such as observing norm violations, amplify these interpersonal patterns (Holmes, 2015).

Place-Attachment

The basic premise of Attachment Theory is that people and their behaviors are greatly shaped by environmental influences. Although this theory focuses primarily on the influence of attachment figures, there are other environmental dimensions which affect how people navigate perceived threat. Named *place-attachment* by environmental psychologists, this concept is defined as the dynamic person-to-place bond that evolves through meaning, emotional connection, and understanding of one's environment (Brown & Perkins, 2012). Place-attachment can be influenced by a variety of factors, ranging from the physical geography of one's environment to its historical and cultural influences. Relationships, both familial and platonic, are also considered significant contributors of the person-to-place bond (Raymond et al., 2010). As such, it is important not to limit research on behavioral influences simply to those of attachment figures.

According to research on identity development, a person is comprised of the *material-self* (i.e., the physical body), the *inner-self* (i.e., personal thoughts and beliefs), and the *social-self* (i.e., how one generally relates to, and feels connected with, others), as described by Tajadura-Jiménez and Tsakiris (2014) as well as Blader and Tyler (2009). Some literature has also included a fourth identity called the *societal*-self (i.e., how people relate to, and feel connected with, their community), as described by Brewer and Gardner (1996). More recently, literature has broadened the definition of the societal-self to include not only a person's attachment to socio-cultural aspects of their community, but also to the biophysical dimensions of their environment (e.g., the location and the setting of the community), such that both *meaning* (e.g., thoughts, feelings, memories, and interpretations evoked by the environment) and *preference* (degree of favoring the environment) are reflected in the person-environment relationship. Now referred to as *place-attachment* (Raymond, Brown, & Weber, 2010), this facet of identity plays an important role in how individuals respond to norm violations within their environment.

According to Raymond and colleagues (2010), place-attachment is multi-dimensional and includes the following five factors: *place-identity* (the degree to which people define who they are based on symbolic connections to their environment), *place-dependence* (the degree to which the environment is functional and satisfies the needs and wants of the individual), *nature bonding* (the degree to which people feel connected to some part of the non-human natural environment based on shared history, interests, or concerns), *family bonding* (the degree to which people feel connected to their environment based on family relationships), and *friend-bonding* (the degree to which people feel connected to their environment based on platonic relationships). In reviewing these dimensions, it is clear how individual and communal aspects of identity are

interconnected, as well as how disruptions in the environment can threaten self-definition (Brown & Perkins, 2012).

Place-attachment serves an important function in how people respond to perceived threat, such as norm violations. According to Brown and Perkins (2012), those with a stronger sense of connection to their environment are more likely to protect and adhere to norms. Norms serve as the infrastructure of society and help direct behavior in an effort to promote efficiency and safety within the community. Furthermore, being part of a well-functioning society is highly important for self-survival. Therefore, those who have a higher place-attachment demonstrate more defenses in response to norm violations than those who have low place-attachment; however, the degree of defenses used still maintains a relationship across level of norm violation severity congruent with interpersonal style (Brauer & Chekroun, 2005). Remember, use of defenses is not considered pathological, but rather serves an important function in self-survival. Only when defense mechanisms pervasively transcend all interpersonal functioning does it become maladaptive (Chopik, Edelstein, & Fraley, 2013).

Based on the fact that both place-attachment and general attachment (yielded from Attachment Theory) play a role in conceptualizing how individuals respond to perceived threat, it is surprising that little research has linked these two constructs. A lack of corroboration, such as this, may reflect a uniqueness within these constructs regarding how they independently influence response to perceived threat. Therefore, the current study hypothesized that place-attachment is an independent factor influencing defensive responding to norm violations, such as through willingness to ostracize. Differences in the role of place-attachment were expected to be more apparent when the severity of a norm violation was low, as previous research has found that when the severity of a norm violation is high, individuals have a tendency to utilize defenses

more readily because the threat is unambiguously high (Brown & Perkins, 2012); instead, greater variance in behavioral responses is usually observed when the severity of a norm violation is low, as individual factors play a role in how threatening the norm violation is perceived (2012).

Ostracism

Ostracism is a complex and multi-dimensional construct that encompasses a wide variety of behaviors. According to Williams and Zadro (2005), there are three core modalities of ostracism: physical, social, and cyber ostracism. The first of these, *physical ostracism*, refers to an individual being exiled or physically removed from the presence of others. In children, physical ostracism can be seen in the form of time-outs, whereupon a child is removed from peers and placed in a secluded area for a period of time. In adults, ostracism is demonstrated in the form of exile, banishment, and solitary confinement (Williams & Govan, 2005). An example of this would be persons who are shunned from their family after disclosing their sexual identity.

The second category is *social ostracism,* which refers to individuals who are excluded from social situations even though they remain in the presence of their peers (Williams & Govan, 2005). Most commonly this can be seen within relational disputes, whereupon an individual gives his or her partner the "silent treatment" as a form of punishment. However, social ostracism can be seen across all social settings, such as in the classroom, workplace, church, and military institutions (Williams & Zardo, 2005). It is also frequently seen in mistreatment of minorities (Williams & Carter-Sowell, 2009).

Lastly, *cyber ostracism* is used to describe exclusion demonstrated via technology, such as through emails, chat rooms, text messaging, and interactive computer games (Heeren, Peschard, & Philippot, 2012). The term can also be generalized to other forms of non-face-to-face modes of communication, such as phone calls and mail (Williams & Zardo, 2005). In

addition to modality, research has shown that the act of ostracism is multidimensional and can be expressed through specific types of behaviors (Crick et al., 2009; Gilman, 2013; Rubin, Coplan, & Bowker, 2009). These will be described next.

Dimensions of Ostracism

As described by Williams (2007), the definition of *ostracism* includes three distinct components: ignoring, excluding, and rejecting, which theoretically can occur in isolation or combination. More contemporary research, however, utilizes a two-dimensional model of ostracism, whereupon incidents can be classified as *ignoring* (also termed socially neglected) or *excluding* (also termed socially rejected) behaviors (Crick et al., 2009; Gilman, 2013; Rubin, Coplan, & Bowker, 2009). These will constitute the two dependent variables in the present study. Regarding the first of these, *ignoring* can be defined as the deliberate act of disregarding or refusing to acknowledge another person. Examples include the use of silent treatment, being shunned, not considering the person during important decisions, and refusing to look at a person when in the same room (Deater-Deckard, 2001). Conversely, *excluding* is the intentional process of denying a person's access to various rights, opportunities, and resources made available to other members within the group; it creates a social rupture for the individual, isolating him or her from relationships and institutions (Crick et al., 2009). Examples include: limitations in education and employment opportunities, denial of visitation rights to certain public places, and restrictions in housing. At their bare essence, both ignoring and excluding prevent a person from participating in normatively prescribed activities of their environment; however, *excluding* removes a person's access to the social environment whereas *ignoring* maintains the person's access to the social environment, but the person is treated as invisible (or non-existent) by the

ostracizer. Although both can occur within the same situation, they have separate functions (Deater-Deckard, 2001).

Returning to the premise of ostracism being a behavioral response to perceived threat, a hypothesis can be made about what factors predispose an individual to gravitate toward one form of ostracism over another (e.g., ignoring or excluding). According to the literature, ostracism is spurred by an array of factors that encompass situational, environmental, and individual circumstances. For example, research has studied *situational factors* behind ostracism, such as for punishment (Williams & Zadro, 2005). Research on *environmental influences* has included social or authoritative pressure to ostracize minority populations, such as those exiled from a community (Forsdyke, 2005). However, there has been little research on *individual factors* that guide one's tendency to ostracize across situations (Williams & Zadro, 2005). Swearer-Napolitano (2011) described a significant body of research dedicated to individual factors predisposing adolescent social aggression and social exclusion, such as having interpersonal deficits resulting from maladaptive family patterns (e.g., minimal family cohesion, abuse, neglect, and authoritarian parenting with little warmth or support), yet little research has focused specifically on ostracism.

Although ostracism is similar to other constructs, such as social aggression and social exclusion, there are important differences. *Social aggression* refers to behaviors intended to harm another's social status or self-esteem, behaviors of which may be verbal or nonverbal (Underwood, 2003). This construct is intended to encompass more active forms of behaviors, such as excluding or defamation. Conversely, *social exclusion* refers to behaviors of isolating the target from a given network, but the target is not necessarily ignored (Williams, Forgas, & von Hippel, 2005). *Ostracism* encompasses both of these constructs and goes one step further by

including acts of ignoring where the target is treated as if he or she is invisible or non-existent (Von Angelika Dierolf, 2010). Examples could include banishing the target from a community and behaving as though the target does not exist, as well as pretending that the target is invisible if present in the same environment. Therefore, although the three constructs are similar, ostracism warrants an independent analysis. As such, the intent of this study was to expand upon the current understanding of how individual factors, such as attachment style and place-attachment, contribute to one's willingness to ostracize across a spectrum of norm violations.

Consequences of Ostracism

In many cultures around the world, ostracism is considered the most extreme form of punishment (Williams, 2007). Although there are other modalities of punishment, ostracism has certain advantages. It is stealthy and can be denied in many instances, more so than retaliation or abuse. In the case of a romantic spat, persons can impose "the silent treatment" on their spouse while in public, which is far less likely to be observed than verbal or physical assaults (Williams & Zardo, 2005). Furthermore, ostracism reinforces behavioral conformity, as it is frequently coupled with an array of negative consequences. For example, neurobiological mechanisms can interpret social injury as physical pain, such as the right ventrolateral prefrontal cortex (rVLPFC) which regulates an emotional interpretation of ostracizing behaviors detected by the dorsal anterior cingulate cortex (dACC) once experienced within an environment (Kawamoto et al., 2012). When this occurs, the following consequences can be observed: emotional and physical decline, aggression, abnormal sleep patterns, weakened immune system, and increased risk of death (Bernstein & Claypool, 2012; Dewall et al., 2011; Lieberman & Eisenberger, 2005). Long-term ostracism is even more detrimental, resulting in complications such as: chronic

emotional disturbances, migraines, heart palpitations, increased asthma attacks, and suicidality (Williams & Zardo, 2005).

Current Study

The first intention of this study was to establish the psychometric properties of two measures created and adapted by the primary investigator. Without psychometric soundness, findings yielded from these measures were limited. The first of these instruments was the Willingness to Ostracize for Sex Offenses Questionnaire (WOSO) intended to measure ostracizing behaviors (specifically conceptualized by this author as *excluding behaviors*) in response to sex-norm violations of varying degrees of severity. Some preliminary support of content validity for the WOSO as a measure of general ostracism for sex offenders was obtained through feedback of subject matter experts via two content validity analyses conducted during the developmental process. The second measure was the Ostracism Experiences Scale–Revised (OES–R), modified for this study to examine *ignoring behaviors* of those willing to ostracize individuals convicted of misdemeanor and felony sex offenses. Cronbach's alpha of 0.7 was used as a coefficient of internal consistency for the two instruments. In an effort to establish content validity of the WOSO and OES–R, the Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders (CATSO) scale was selected for statistical comparison.

Although not a perfect representation, the CATSO has two dimensions closely related to excluding and ignoring behaviors produced in response to sex-norm violations. More specifically, CATSO Factor 1 measures a person's belief that sex offenders tend to isolate themselves socially, which was used in this study to test convergent validity of the OES–R (ignoring behaviors). CATSO Factor 2 measures a person's belief that sex offenders have the capacity to change, which was used in this study to test convergent validity of the WOSO

(excluding behaviors). To establish divergent validity, a correlational analysis was conducted between the WOSO and CATSO Factor 1, as well as between the OES–R and CATSO Factor 2. It was expected that the WOSO and OES–R would measure separate constructs, indicated by a weak correlation with the unintended CATSO factor. It was also planned to utilize CATSO Factors 1 and 2 in lieu of the OES–R and WOSO, respectively, if psychometric properties could not be established. Therefore, the primary investigator of this study was confident that findings could, nonetheless, be yielded from the data regardless of the outcome.

If convergent and divergent validity were established, the current study planned to examine the effect of attachment style (predictor variable) on willingness to ostracize through ignoring and excluding behaviors (2 outcome variables). Three levels of attachment style (secure, preoccupied, and dismissive-avoidant) were utilized. A variety of sex offenses were chosen to represent a spectrum of norm violations of varying degrees of severity (categorized as low, moderate, and high for sex-offenses listed on the WOSO; categorized as misdemeanor and felony for sex-offenses listed on the OES–R). In this quasi-experimental design, degrees of severity served as the experimental variable and willingness to ostracize served as a repeated measures variable across severity levels.

Based on research indicating that attachment style guides one's tendency to cope with or defend against perceived threat (Chopik, Edelstein, & Fraley, 2013), it was hypothesized that the degree of willingness to ostracize in securely attached persons would be congruent with the level of offense severity, whereas insecurely attached persons were expected to ostracize at a consistently higher or lower level than those securely attached, depending on the nature of their attachment difficulties. Reflecting the unique attachment behavioral systems of the two insecure attachment styles utilized in this study, dismissively-avoidant individuals were hypothesized to

demonstrate a higher level of ignoring and a lower level of excluding than other attachment styles regardless of norm violation severity. Preoccupied attached individuals were hypothesized to demonstrate a lower level of ignoring and a higher level of excluding than other attachment styles regardless of norm violation severity. In both insecure attachment styles a defensive response was anticipated, but differences in how the response manifests were expected to occur across the two dimensions of ignoring and excluding.

In addition to the above hypotheses, this study anticipated that place-attachment would independently influence willingness to ostracize. As such, the construct was viewed as an independent variable and explored in a separate analysis regarding its influence on a person's willingness to ostracize. An effect was hypothesized to be more apparent when severity of norm violations was low. As such, hypotheses were only made regarding willingness to ostracize via ignoring and excluding behaviors for low (WOSO)/misdemeanor (OES–R) and high (WOSO)/felony (OES–R) sex offenses. It was expected that place-attachment (predictor variable) would affect willingness to ostracize via excluding and ignoring behaviors (outcome variables) for low (WOSO)/misdemeanor (OES–R) sex-norm violations.

Lastly, this study explored various relationships between demographic variables of participants and their willingness to ostracize for sex-norm violations. Similar to the above hypotheses, effects were hypothesized to be more apparent when severity of norm violations was low. As such, hypotheses were only made regarding willingness to ostracize via ignoring and excluding behaviors for low (WOSO)/misdemeanor (OES–R) and high (WOSO)/felony (OES–R) sex offenses. Although there were twenty-seven demographic questions, four specific hypotheses were made prior to data collection. The first of these pertained to socioeconomic status (SES), defined by the American Psychological Association (2015) as a combination of

education, income, and occupation. According to Akers and Sellers (2012), those from lower SES backgrounds can become desensitized to acts of violence. It was, therefore, hypothesized that participants in the current study with a lower SES would demonstrate lower willingness to ostracize than those from higher SES. Secondly, research indicates that those who work with or for sex offenders have a greater propensity to empathize with the behaviors of this population (Ward & Durrant, 2013). As such, it was hypothesized that those who work with or for sex offenders would demonstrate a lower willingness to ostracize this population than those who do not work with or for sex offenders, assuming there was a sufficient number of participants in the sample to examine this.

Thirdly, research indicates that community notifications of sex offenders increase anxiety in parents (Levenson, 2003) due to the fact that parents demonstrate a higher distrust of strangers and risk factors that may endanger their children (Eibach & Mock, 2011). It was, therefore, hypothesized that participants with children under the age of 18 would demonstrate higher levels of willingness to ostracize than those without children, assuming there was a sufficient number of participants in the sample to examine this. Fourthly, research indicates that survivors of sexual assault are more hyper-vigilant of potential danger (MacIntosh & Johnson, 2008). As such, it was hypothesized that survivors of sexual assault would be more apt to ostracize the sex offender population than that those who have not incurred a sexual assault, assuming there was a sufficient number of participants in the sample to examine this.

Research Hypotheses

The following research aims and hypotheses were posited:

Hypothesis #1: The Willingness to Ostracize for Sex Offenses (WOSO) questionnaire was expected to demonstrate internal consistency, thereby providing evidence of adequate reliability.

Hypothesis #2: The Ostracism Experiences Scale–Revised (OES–R) was expected to demonstrate internal consistency, thereby providing evidence of adequate reliability.

Hypothesis #3: Evidence for adequate validity for the WOSO and OES–R was expected to be established utilizing the Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders (CATSO) questionnaire in the following three ways:

1) The WOSO was expected to produce a weak correlation with the OES–R, thereby providing evidence of discriminant validity between the measures.
2) The WOSO was expected to correlate with CATSO Factor 2, and the OES–R to correlate with CATSO Factor 1, thereby providing evidence of convergent validity for their respective constructs.
3) The WOSO was expected to have a weak correlation with CATSO Factor 1, and the OES–R was expected to have a weak correlation with CATSO Factor 2, thereby providing evidence of discriminant validity of their respective constructs.

***Hypothesis #4*:** The pattern of ostracizing via *excluding behaviors* (as measured by the WOSO) across sex offenses was expected to differ as a function of attachment style (preoccupied, dismissive-avoidant, and secure) in three respects:

1) When presented with low, moderate, and high sex-norm violations, those displaying a preoccupied attachment to others were expected to have a higher *willingness to exclude* than those displaying a secure or dismissive-avoidant attachment to others.

2) When presented with low, moderate, and high sex-norm violations, those displaying a dismissive-avoidant attachment to others were expected to have a lower *willingness to exclude* than those displaying a secure or preoccupied attachment to others.
3) When presented with low, moderate, and high sex-norm violations, those displaying a secure attachment to others were expected to display a *willingness to exclude* congruent with the severity of sex-norm violation more than those displaying a preoccupied (higher overall willingness) or dismissive-avoidant (lower overall willingness) attachment to others.

***Hypothesis #5*:** The pattern of ostracizing via *ignoring behaviors* (as measured by the OES–R) across sex offenses was expected to differ as a function of attachment style (secure, preoccupied, and dismissive-avoidant) in three respects:

1) When presented with low (misdemeanor) and high (felony) sex-norm violations, those displaying a preoccupied attachment to others were expected to have a lower *willingness to ignore* than those displaying a secure and dismissive-avoidant attachment to others.
2) When presented with low (misdemeanor) and high (felony) sex-norm violations, those displaying a dismissive-avoidant attachment to others were expected to have a higher *willingness to ignore* than those displaying a secure and preoccupied attachment to others.
3) When presented with low (misdemeanor) and high (felony) sex-norm violations, those displaying a secure attachment to others were expected to display a *willingness to ignore* congruent with the severity of sex-norm violation more than those

displaying a dismissive-avoidant (higher overall willingness) or preoccupied (lower overall willingness) attachment to others.

***Hypothesis #6*:** For low (misdemeanor) severity sex offenses (as measured by the OES–R), those displaying a high place-attachment were expected to demonstrate a higher willingness to ostracize through ignoring behaviors than those displaying lower place-attachment.

***Hypothesis #7*:** For low severity sex offenses (as measured by the WOSO), those displaying a high place-attachment were expected to demonstrate a higher willingness to ostracize through excluding behaviors than those displaying lower place-attachment.

***Hypothesis #8*:** For low (misdemeanor) severity sex offenses (as measured by the OES–R), those displaying a lower SES were expected to demonstrate a lower willingness to ostracize through ignoring behaviors than those displaying higher SES.

***Hypothesis #9*:** For low (misdemeanor) severity sex offenses (as measured by the WOSO), those displaying a lower SES were expected to demonstrate a lower willingness to ostracize through excluding behaviors than those displaying higher SES.

***Hypothesis #10*:** For low (misdemeanor) severity sex offenses (as measured by the OES–R), those who work with or for sex offenders were expected to demonstrate a lower willingness to ostracize through ignoring behaviors than those who do not work with or for sex offenders.

***Hypothesis #11*:** For low (misdemeanor) severity sex offenses (as measured by the WOSO), those who work with or for sex offenders were expected to demonstrate a lower willingness to ostracize through excluding behaviors than those who do not work with or for sex offenders.

***Hypothesis #12*:** For low (misdemeanor) severity sex offenses (as measured by the OES–R), those with children under the age of 18 were expected to demonstrate a higher willingness to ostracize through ignoring behaviors than those who do not have children under the age of 18.

***Hypothesis #13*:** For low (misdemeanor) severity sex offenses (as measured by the WOSO), those with children under the age of 18 were expected to demonstrate a higher willingness to ostracize through excluding behaviors than those who do not have children under the age of 18.

***Hypothesis #14*:** For low (misdemeanor) severity sex offenses (as measured by the OES–R), those who are survivors of sexual assault were expected to demonstrate a higher willingness to ostracize through ignoring behaviors than those who have not incurred sexual assault.

***Hypothesis #15*:** For low (misdemeanor) severity sex offenses (as measured by the WOSO), those who are survivors of sexual assault were expected to demonstrate a higher willingness to ostracize through excluding behaviors than those who have not incurred sexual assault.

Operationalization of Variables

Variables included in the hypotheses above are: measures used to validate the WOSO and OES–R, willingness to ostracize via excluding behaviors, willingness to ostracize via ignoring behaviors, severity of sex-norm violation, adult attachment style, place-attachment and participant demographics. Each of these will now be operationalized.

Measure Used to Validate the WOSO and OES–R

The *Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders (CATSO) scale* was developed by Church et al. (2008) in an effort to determine how the level of knowledge about the sex offender population can influence emotional reactions and firmly held attitudes. As such, it was believed to be a good comparative measure for the WOSO and OES–R when attempting to obtain convergent validity. Specifically, Factor 1 and Factor 2 contain the most relevant items to ostracism. Table 1 and Table 2 can be referenced for items that exist within these dimensions.

Willingness to Ostracize Through Excluding Behaviors

Willingness to ostracize through excluding behaviors is defined as the deliberate actions of denying a person's access to various rights, opportunities, and resources made available to others (Van Beest & Williams, 2006). This variable was intended to be measured through the Willingness to Ostracize for Sex Offenses (WOSO) Questionnaire created for the purpose of this study. On the WOSO, willingness to ostracize through excluding behaviors was intended to be measured on three occasions: after exposure to each level of sex-norm violation severity (low, moderate, and high).

Willingness to Ostracize Through Ignoring Behaviors

Willingness to ostracize through ignoring behaviors is defined as the deliberate action of disregarding or refusing to acknowledge another person in an effort to make the target feel invisible (Van Beest & Williams, 2006). This variable was intended to be measured through the ignoring dimension of the Ostracism Experiences Scale–Revised (OES–R), modified for the purpose of this study. On the OES–R, willingness to ostracize through ignoring behaviors was intended to be measured on two occasions: after exposure to each of the extreme levels of sex-norm violation severity (misdemeanor and felony).

Severity of Sex-Norm Violation

Severity of sex-norm violation is defined as the degree of sexual offense against chastity, common decency, morals, and the like that is inimical to public decency and safety (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2015). Severity of sex-norm violation was measured at the nominal level. Due to the fact that the classification of sexual offenses differs by jurisdiction within the United States, a classification system was created for purposes of this study. This classification system is depicted in Table 3 for the WOSO and in Table 4 for the OES–R. It should be noted that the term "contact" within this classification system refers to gestures including physically touching, meeting, communicating, or having any relationship with another person.

Using the parameters listed in Table 3 for the WOSO, a list of sex offenses was reviewed and three were chosen for each classification, creating a total list of nine sex offenses to be used in this study. Sex offenses in the *Low Severity* category are masturbating in public, indecent exposure, and voyeurism. Sex offenses in the *Moderate Severity* category are stalking, frotteurism, and statutory rape. Sex offenses in the *High Severity* category are rape, sex trafficking, and child sexual abuse. Sex offenses on the WOSO were viewed independently by respondents, but scored collectively as one of three severity classifications by the primary investigator. On the OES–R, however, individual sex offenses were not provided to respondents; only the general classifications of misdemeanor and felony offenses were shown.

Adult Attachment Style

Attachment style is defined as the individual differences across the dimensions of anxiety and avoidance, as well as by the way that adults navigate interpersonal relationships and regulate their responses to perceived threat. This attachment behavioral system develops over time by

means of continued experiences with one's environment, such as the level of predictability and availability of relationships and resources (Holmes, 2015).

For the purpose of this study, only three attachment styles were analyzed (preoccupied, dismissive-avoidant, and secure). The term "others" was utilized as the attachment figure of interest, measuring how one generally relates to and feels connected with others. Additionally, attachment style was measured discretely rather than continuously by categorizing individuals based on their scores yielded from the Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R).

Place-Attachment

Defined as the emotional bond between person and place, *place-attachment* is highly influenced by an individual's interpretation of personal experiences within the environment (Scannell & Gifford, 2010). For the current study, place-attachment was utilized as an independent variable measured by the Place Attachment Inventory (PAI) developed by Raymond, Brown, and Weber (2010).

Participant Demographics

Defined by the American Psychological Association (2009) as the accurate and comprehensive description of one's research sample, *participant demographics* is a requirement for all manuscripts considered for publication. For the current study, twenty-seven demographic variables were measured through the Demographics Questionnaire created by the primary investigator. Hypotheses, however, were only made prior to data collection for the following four demographic variables: socioeconomic status (SES), working with or for the sex offender population, having children under the age of 18, and being the survivor of sexual assault.

Relevance of Dissertation

Like all constructs in social psychology, gaining a stronger understanding of how interpersonal characteristics influence navigation of norm violations within society can have important implications for understanding human behavior. Utilizing Attachment Theory as a lens within the current study, differences in willingness to ostracize across attachment styles (preoccupied, dismissive-avoidant, and secure) when exposed to varying severities of sex-norm violations (low, moderate, and high) were explored. It was hypothesized that a person displays a similar interpersonal dynamic with society as he or she displays with other individuals. As such, ways of responding to conflict within society (e.g., norm violations, such as criminal behavior) were expected to be similar to the manner in which a person responds to interpersonal conflict with others. Literature on ostracism lends evidence to this belief, as ostracism is observed at macro and micro levels in response to norm violations (e.g., silent treatment toward a spouse; community exiling a member for breaking a law).

Moving beyond relational patterns, this study also has implications for the field of ostracism. Ostracism is an umbrella construct that touches on a form of rejection experienced by all persons to varying degrees, whether they are the recipient or imposer. Although counseling is typically not sought because clients are overtly aware of their ostracizing behaviors toward others, many clients do attend therapy because they are coping with a loved one who has been convicted of a sex offense and are unaware of how personal actions (ignoring and excluding behaviors) can be deleterious to their loved one's recovery. Information yielded from this dissertation can, therefore, assist counselors in understanding the interpersonal dynamic between their client and his or her loved one, in turn breaking down harmful ostracizing behaviors. On a broader level, school counselors can also use this information to understand peer ostracism for

norm violations that can result in severe and long-term consequences if ostracism persists. Due to the multifaceted nature of this study, there are many implications that can be derived. As mentioned, however, this study is classified as exploratory and findings should, therefore, be viewed in that context.

Chapter 1 Tables

Table 1

Social Isolation Dimension of the Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders Scale

Variables
• Sex offenders have difficulty making friends even if they try real hard
• Most sex offenders do not have close friends
• Most sex offenders keep to themselves
• Sex offenders prefer to stay home alone rather than be around lots of people
• Most sex offenders are unmarried men

Table 2

Capacity to Change Dimension of the Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders Scale

Variables
• Convicted sex offenders should never be released from prison
• Sex offenders should wear tracking devices so their location can be pinpointed at any time
• People who commit sex offenses should lose their civil rights (e.g., voting and privacy)
• Trying to rehabilitate a sex offender is a waste of time
• With support and therapy, someone who committed a sexual offense can learn to change their behavior

Table 3

Definitions of Severity Classifications for the Willingness to Ostracize for Sex Offenses Questionnaire

Variables
• Low Severity: no contact, but with non-consenting people • Moderate Severity: non-violent contact involving either: (1) Non-consensual contact (2) Wanted contact with individuals who cannot provide consent (e.g., minors or vulnerable adults) • High Severity: non-consensual contact that is violent or penetrative

Table 4

Definitions of Severity Classifications for the Ostracism Experiences Scale–Revised

Variables
• Misdemeanor sex offense: an unwanted sexual act without contact or violence (e.g., sex in public), OR a wanted sexual act with a person who cannot legally give consent (e.g., vulnerable adult or minor) • Felony sex offense: unwanted sexual act with contact that involves force, violence, or penetration (e.g., rape)

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Humans have a basic and profound need to be connected with others. Such connections not only facilitate survival, but also provide existential meaning and order (Van Orden et al., 2008). Endeavoring to explain human behavior under this premise, Neo-Analytic theorists migrated away from the pleasure-seeking drives of traditional Psychoanalysis toward social and cultural interconnectedness. Theories included in this movement are Ego Psychology, Psychosocial Development Theory, Object Relations Theory, and Self-Psychology, all of which exemplify the existence of *the ego* (Larsen & Buss, 2008). The ego is commonly defined as a governing body existing within each person that serves to mediate one's internal and external world (Christian, 2011). Development of the ego occurs across one's lifespan in response to environmental and interpersonal circumstances, the foundation of which begins in early childhood. In other words, people are dynamically molded by their environment, which in turn influences their thoughts, affect, and behavior (Belsky & Pluess, 2009). This is of particular importance in how individuals generally perceive and interact with their environment, as well as in how they respond to threat when it does occur. As such, each person's ego is uniquely equipped with its own navigational capacities shaped over time by biopsychosocial influences (Holmes, 2015).

Normal ego development allows for adaptive functioning that encompasses both a healthy reliance on oneself and others. Individuals, in turn, feel more secure in their personal and social identity, forming a perception of a less threatening environment. When perceived

threat occurs, the ego employs both coping skills and defense mechanisms to ameliorate internal and external consequences (Bauer, 2008). Those with a more resilient ego will draw more readily from their reserve of coping skills to traverse difficult situations (Jespersen, Kroger, & Martinussen, 2013), whereas those with a poorly developed ego will rely on defense mechanisms to survive emotionally and physically (Bauer, 2008). Ostracism is one such example of a defensive mechanism (Stout & Dasgupta, 2011). Although defenses are shared human behaviors, overuse is maladaptive and results from a poorly developed ego (Jespersen, Kroger, & Martinussen, 2013).

Spawning out of the Neo-Analytic movement, Attachment Theory was founded in an effort to focus more deeply on how individuals respond to perceived threat (Holmes, 2015). In the decades of research that followed, psychologists discovered the importance of internal working models, or *attachment styles,* in predicting behavioral responses. Whereas Neo-Analytic theorists more broadly described the influences of environmental factors on ego strength, Attachment theorists were able to identify specific interpersonal patterns shaped by attachment figures that can be used in predicting and explaining behavior (Brandon et al., 2009). These attachment styles are formed in early childhood and are reflective of the dynamic that an individual had with his or her primary caregivers. For example, those raised in a safe and supportive environment by attachment figures responsive to their needs are likely to develop a secure attachment. When this occurs, securely-attached individuals will draw from their resources and adaptively cope during difficult situations. However, those who were raised in a threatening environment with neglectful, controlling, or abusive caregivers will likely develop an insecure attachment style, characterized by frequent use of defense mechanisms for self-protection (Holmes, 2015).

Similar to the driving tenets of Neo-Analytic and Attachment Theory, the field of environmental psychology was created in an effort to study the complex interplay between individuals and their surroundings. Moving beyond the sociocultural aspects of a person's surroundings, these psychologists broadened the construct of "environment" to also include the biophysical environment. According to this theory, how a person perceives oneself in the context of his or her environment plays a significant role in behavior. This person-environment relationship was coined *place-attachment* and influences how people respond to perceived threat (Raymond, Brown, & Weber, 2010).

The intention of this study was to use the theoretical foundations of Attachment Theory and Environmental Psychology as a platform to examine the effects of *attachment style* and *place-attachment* on behavioral responses to perceived threat. Utilizing a stratification of norm violations (low, moderate, and high for the Willingness to Ostracize Sex Offenders Questionnaire; misdemeanor and felony for the Ostracism Experiences Scale-Revised) to represent varying degrees of threat severity, this study sought to explore how individuals of differing attachment styles respond to norm violations within their community, as well as how place-attachment affects willingness to ostracize. Ostracizing behaviors (ignoring and excluding) were used to measure defensive responses, and sex offenses were used to measure varying degrees of norm violations.

Neo-Analytic Theories that Influenced Attachment Theory

Neo-Analytic theorists defined their movement as refocusing on an individual's sense of self (Larsen & Buss, 2008). The following theories are some of the major contributors to Neo-Analytic Psychology, and serve as the foundation for development of Attachment Theory.

Ego Psychology

Developed by Anna Freud, Heinz Hartmann, and David Rapaport (Christian, 2011), this theory posits that the ego is the biologically based governing body of the mind that assists persons in adapting to their dynamic internal and external worlds. The ego serves to organize and make sense of these environments, cohesively bonding them together along with memories from the past, information from the present, and ideas of the future. It is what gives each person his or her identity (Schamess & Shilkret, 2008). According to Ego Psychologists, infants are born into this world with the potential to have a "goodness of fit" with an average expectable environment (Kilborne, 2008). Maladaptive development of the ego occurs when there is a misfit between the needs and capacities of an individual, the environmental conditions, and the availability of resources. Such incongruences catalyze ego deficits that manifest in how persons perceive and respond to themselves, the environment, and others (Schamess & Shilkret, 2008).

The ego is responsible for protecting the individual against harm by employing defenses and coping mechanisms when threat is perceived (Schamess & Shilkret, 2008). Those who have experienced goodness of fit with their environment will more adaptively cope when faced with threat. Conversely, those who have experienced a misfit will be more inclined to maladaptively employ defenses (Kilborne, 2008). How a person perceives oneself in relation to the environment is not a fixed perspective, but rather a lifelong and dynamic learning process of coping with, protecting against, and adapting to the world (Schamess & Shilkret, 2008). The following are common defenses utilized in Ego Psychology, all of which are carried over from traditional Freudian Psychoanalysis (Kilborne, 2008).

- *Denial:* believing that something is false when it is actually true
- *Displacement:* redirecting emotions to another target

- *Intellectualization:* taking an objective viewpoint rather than exposing vulnerabilities
- *Projection:* attributing personal thoughts and feelings onto others that are unacceptable
- *Rationalization:* falsely justifying a situation or behavior
- *Reaction Formation*: overacting in the opposite way to fear
- *Regression:* acting as a child in a situation
- *Repression:* pushing negative thoughts or memories into the subconscious
- *Sublimation:* redirecting socially unacceptable urges into acceptable behaviors

Psychosocial Development Theory

Founded by Erik Erikson, Psychosocial Development theorists posit that the ego develops during a progression through a hierarchy of social conflicts, each of which must be successfully resolved before a person can move on to the next stage of development (Dunkel & Sefcek, 2009). These social conflicts collectively include establishing trust in others, developing a social identity, and preparing the next generation for the future (Schachter, 2005). Extending upon the notion of an adaptive ego, Erikson believed that personality development occurs in response to one's environment over the entire lifespan. However, he posited that the ego develops in a specific chronological order where each phase builds upon the previous. Although development occurs across the lifespan, Erikson felt that the greatest period of identity development occurs during adolescent years (Dunkel & Sefcek, 2009).

When a conflict is not resolved, individuals are observed to display developmentally inappropriate behaviors in comparison to peers their age, which Erikson conceptualizes as psychopathology (Schachter, 2005). Furthermore, the ego can be weakened by social trauma or physical illness, both of which can also result in the use of defenses for self-protection. When

conflicts are resolved in succession, however, the outcome is an autonomous self that possesses an integrated set of skills and abilities (Dunkel & Sefcek, 2009). These skills and abilities can then be called upon when navigating internal and external circumstances (Schachter, 2005). Below are the eight stages of psychosocial development and their corresponding conflict (Dunkel & Sefcek, 2009):

- *Trust vs. Mistrust:* infants develop a sense of trust when caregivers provide reliable care and affection; a lack of this will lead to mistrust
- *Autonomy vs. Shame:* children develop a sense of personal control and independence; success leads to feelings of autonomy, while failure results in shame
- *Initiative vs. Guilt:* children begin asserting control and power over their environment; success leads to a sense of purpose, while failure results in guilt over others' disapproval
- *Industry vs. Inferiority:* children need to cope with new social and academic demands; success leads to a sense of competence, while failure results in feelings of inferiority
- *Identity vs. Role Confusion:* teenagers need to develop a sense of self and personal identity; success leads to fidelity, while failure leads to a weak sense of self
- *Intimacy vs. Isolation:* young adults need to form intimacy with others; success leads to strong relationships, while failure results in loneliness and isolation
- *Generativity vs. Stagnation:* adults need to create or nurture things that will outlast them; success leads to feelings of usefulness and accomplishment, while failure results in feeling as though they are shallowly involved in the world

- *Ego Integrity vs. Despair:* older adults need to reminisce and feel a sense of fulfillment; success leads to feelings of wisdom, while failure results in regret, bitterness, and despair

Self-Psychology

First developed by Heinz Kohut, Self-Psychology emphasizes the role of several basic needs that must exist for healthy development of one's ego (Ornstein, 2015). For example, strong self-esteem, also referred to as *healthy narcissism*, develops through empathic responsiveness from others. This includes not only formative caregivers, but also those who constitute a person's social environment. Healthy narcissism is the act of acknowledging personal skills and talents, and using them in an active progression toward goals and ideals. Conversely, unhealthy narcissism is attempting to superficially bolster self-esteem in the presence of others to protect personal vulnerabilities (Cramer & Jones, 2008). When the ego is underdeveloped due to non-empathetic responses from others, unhealthy narcissism is more likely to develop. Other basic needs that foster identity development include serving as a role model, possessing a role model, and feeling a likeness to others. Humans have a desire to participate in a reciprocal belongingness; when this is achieved, the ego is strengthened. Conversely, the ego is weakened and defenses are employed when this does not occur (Ornstein, 2015).

Object Relations Theory

Founded by Margaret Mahler and Donald Winnicott, Object Relations Theory posits that the ways in which adults relate to others and to their environment are shaped by experiences in early childhood. For example, a child who endures abuse or neglect will likely expect similar behavior from others in their adult years (Flanagan, 2008). The trademark of Object Relations

Theory is that early childhood experiences are encoded in a person's subconscious as images (*objects*), which serve as templates to evaluate and respond to future situations (Michels, 2013). Object Relations Theory puts a significant emphasis on formative caregivers, stating that internalized objects are primarily based on these caregivers. Experiences in late childhood and adulthood can reshape these patterns, but the influence of formative caregivers will always remain strong throughout one's life (Greenberg, 2013).

Another important construct of Object Relations Theory is the development of cognitive flexibility. Infants have a limited capacity to comprehend their world. Therefore, objects are viewed in isolation and are dichotomously labeled as either "good" or "bad" (Flanagan, 2008). The most common example is of a mother's breast, whereupon infants view the breast as either good or bad dependent upon whether they are consistently fed. As infants progress in their development, they will later comprehend the breast as being part of a larger object: the mother. Similar to how infants will dichotomously label the breast as good or bad, so will children label the mother as good or bad depending upon whether their needs are met (Greenberg, 2013). When raised in an adequately facilitative environment, children will mature to the point where they can internalize the gestalt of their mother, comprehending her as a whole object that includes both good and bad characteristics. The adaptive individual will learn to tolerate ambiguity in the context of holism (Michels, 2013). Pathology develops, however, when persons are unable to view objects as whole entities comprised of good and bad, and instead vacillate between idealizing and despising objects depending upon the situation. This not only facilitates mood lability, but also an unstable self-concept that demands a higher use of defense mechanisms in order to survive (Flanagan, 2008).

Attachment Theory

The Neo-Analytic movement encompassed a broader understanding of identity formation within the context of social and environmental influences. Although ego development is believed to occur across the lifespan, Neo-Analytic theorists posit that the foundation for how persons conceptualize their environment is laid in early childhood (Larsen & Buss, 2008). At the tail end of this movement was Object Relations Theory, which focused more on how formative caregivers in particular shape interpersonal templates used to navigate future situations (Flanagan, 2008). Influenced by these theories, two researchers named John Bowlby and Mary Ainsworth furthered the exploration of internal working models, such as the ways in which they influence responses to perceived threat (Brandon et al., 2009).

Attachment Theory is not a general theory of relationships, but rather a model describing interpersonal dynamics. In this regard, Attachment Theory explores the causal relationship between early childhood experiences and subsequent use of coping skills or defense mechanisms during perceived threat (Grossmann, Grossmann & Waters, 2006). Similar to Neo-Analytic theorists, Attachment Theorists believe that those who have been raised in less favorable conditions will be more likely to employ defenses rather than coping skills. Expanding upon this view, Attachment Theory broadened the understanding of basic unconscious defenses outlined by Freud to encompass more complex interpersonal responses (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2009). As such, it is most fitting to use Attachment Theory as a lens to examine willingness to ostracize, as ostracism is a complex interpersonal response to perceived threat.

History of Attachment Theory

The original theory of attachment was developed in 1969 by British Psychoanalyst John Bowlby who explored infant anxiety during periods of separation from caregivers, as expressed

through acts of crying, clinging, and actively searching for caregivers (Brandon et al., 2009). In his research, Bowlby also drew from observations of several mammal species displaying similar behaviors. Utilizing these ethological findings, Bowlby took an evolutionary perspective and proposed that such behaviors serve an important biological function. When needs are not met, infants produce *attachment behaviors* to alert their caregivers (Holmes, 2015; Landa & Duschinsky, 2013). This dynamic can be conceptualized in tandem with Darwin's Theory of Evolution, as those who maintain close proximity to attachment figures through use of attachment behaviors are more apt to survive. This survival-inspired dynamic was named the *attachment behavioral system* and became a fundamental principle in Attachment Theory. According to Mikulincer and Shaver (2009), the attachment behavioral system forms in early childhood and matures over the lifespan to become a bridge between emotion regulation and personality.

Although Bowlby was credited with the origin of Attachment Theory, much of the theory was created through the work of Mary Ainsworth, an American-Canadian developmental psychologist (Brandon et al., 2009). Drawing from a more scientific base, she was able to empirically test the tenets of Attachment Theory in Scotland and Uganda. For example, Ainsworth developed her well-known procedure called the *Stranger Situation Protocol*, which was used to study separation and reunion behavior in infants and toddlers. This procedure consisted of parents creating stress on the child by temporarily leaving the room, which activated attachment thoughts and corresponding behaviors. Behaviors were recorded behind a one-way mirror (Ainsworth, 2014). Utilizing these findings, she expanded the theory to include three observed attachment styles that categorically describe the relationship between infants and their

mother: secure, anxious-avoidant, and anxious-resistant. This research first appeared in a 1967 book titled *Infancy in Uganda*.

More specifically, Ainsworth found that if children believe their attachment figure to be usually responsive and attainable, they feel secure, loved, and confident. In turn, these children are more willing to explore the environment and interact with others. Conversely, if children believe their attachment figure to be usually irresponsive and unattainable, they become highly anxious and exhibit previously defined attachment behaviors in an effort to restore the connection (Ainsworth, 2014). By age three or four, physical separation is not as much of a threat as it was when children were infants because they are more self-sufficient. However, signs of abandonment, emotional absence, and breakdowns in communication are still perceived as threatening and result in similar behavioral responses (Kobak & Madsen, 2008). Ainsworth successfully demonstrated that those who are securely attached to caregivers are able to draw upon coping skills to navigate changes in the environment more than those who are insecurely attached to their caregivers (Ainsworth, 2014).

Attachment Theory swept into the United States within a matter of years, challenging the predominant theory of Behaviorism (Brandon et al., 2009). Shortly after, a researcher at Berkeley named Mary Main added a fourth attachment style to the model called *disorganized/ disoriented*. This attachment style was named in an effort to mirror fluctuating attachment behaviors of children in response to perceived threat, typically resulting from an unpredictable or abusive environment (Solomon, 1986). The four attachment patterns created by Bowlby, Ainsworth, and Main still remain in use today.

Child Attachment Styles

Described below are the four child attachment styles along with current research findings that reflect how they commonly manifest in adult behavior. It should be noted that *Childhood* Attachment Theory is a body of research independent of *Adult* Attachment Theory, which was developed later in history. Although there is a strong correlation between child and adult attachment patterns, one does not always result in the other (Chopik, Edelstein, & Fraley, 2013). This chapter will first review the childhood attachment patterns stemming from Bowlby, Ainsworth, and Main, followed by a description of Adult Attachment Patterns.

A *secure attachment style* is established when the attachment figure responds appropriately, promptly, and consistently to a child's needs. The child, in turn, utilizes the security of the caregiver to go out and explore the environment. When the caregiver is absent, the child initially objects but will eventually return to a state of comfort and continue exploring the environment (Holmes, 2015). As adults, these individuals view their life holistically, valuing both positive and negative experiences. Their self-concept is perceived in a similar vein, whereupon they have acceptance for their positive and negative characteristics, believing that they are capable individuals worthy of love (Chotai, Jonasson, Hägglöf, & Adolfsson, 2005).

The next three attachment styles are considered to be *insecure* and correlate with parenting styles that do not foster an appropriate level of support and discipline. The first of these is the *anxious-avoidant attachment style*, which develops when a limited attachment bond has been formed between a caregiver and child. This occurs when the attachment figure does not respond appropriately, promptly, or consistently to a child's needs. In fact, the caregiver disapproves of crying and advocates for independence. The child, in turn, will show little interest in playing or exploring the environment. When the caregiver exits the room, the child

shows little anxiety; similarly, the child shows no relief when the caregiver returns (Chotai, Jonasson, Hägglöf, & Adolfsson, 2005). Avoidant individuals suppress their attachment system, causing them to experience a generalized discomfort with intimacy. Ultimately this results in avoidance of closeness with others (Carvallo & Gabriel, 2006). As adults, these individuals attempt to project a positive self-concept in an effort to prevent others from seeing their vulnerabilities. As such, they appear somewhat distant, removed, and dismissive (Chotai, Jonasson, Hägglöf, & Adolfsson, 2005).

An *anxious-resistant attachment style* develops when there is an inconsistent attachment bond between a caregiver and a child. The attachment figure responds appropriately and promptly, but does so inconsistently. Parental responses are considered somewhat neglectful and the child is unable to utilize the security of the caregiver to go out and explore the environment (Brown & Whiteside, 2008). The child, therefore, seeks closeness to the caregiver before a separation event takes place, as neglectful behaviors are anticipated. When the caregiver leaves the room, the child reacts with anger and is reluctant to be soothed by the caregiver upon return (Ainsworth et al., 2014). As adults, these individuals have a tendency to be highly dependent upon the approval of others, simultaneously fearing rejection and abandonment. They often view themselves in a negative light while viewing others positively. Furthermore, these persons can become easily emotional, angry, and distressed (Chotai, Jonasson, Hägglöf, & Adolfsson, 2005).

A *disorganized/disoriented attachment style* typically develops when children come from homes of varying abuse. Caregivers usually are frightening to the child, do not competently show affect, and can be intrusive, withdrawn, or confused. Children, in turn, display conflicting attachment behaviors that notably lack coping skills (Madigan, Moran, & Pederson, 2006). For

example, Mary Main's famous observation was of a child approaching the caregiver, but with his or her back turned to the adult rather than facing forward. When children do not have a model to work from, the actions of others and the environment become frighteningly unpredictable. Therefore, these persons have difficulty finding trust in others and develop a highly unstable self-concept (Madigan et al., 2006). As adults, they vacillate between avoidance and ambivalence, demonstrating a propensity toward extreme mood lability (Chotai, Jonasson, Hägglöf, & Adolfsson, 2005).

History and Theoretical Underpinnings of Adult Attachment

Although the primary focus of early Attachment Theory researchers was to understand the parent-child relationship (Chopik, Edelstein, & Fraley, 2013), Bowlby believed that these interpersonal templates characterize human experience "from the cradle to the grave" (p. 171). As such, researchers in the mid-1980s began to explore the causal effect that childhood attachment styles have on persons in their adult years. Hazan and Shaver are the most notable researchers of this time. They discovered that the emotional bond between two romantic partners stems from the same attachment behavioral system existing between a parent and child; relationships function most optimally when independence and intimacy are balanced (Crowell, Fraley, & Shaver, 2008). If the attachment between two partners is weak, feelings of inadequacy and lack of intimacy will be experienced. Conversely, if the attachment is too strong, issues of co-dependency arise. As such, a healthy and balanced romantic attachment produces the most functional relationship (Slade, 2009).

Although this research focused primarily on the attachment styles within the context of romantic relationships, findings yielded from Hazan and Shaver had strong implications for contemporary Adult Attachment Theory (Slade, 2009). First, if romantic relationships can be

conceptualized as attachment bonds, then adult attachment styles must exist and guide interpersonal functioning. For example, if a person is anxiously attached with their romantic partner, they are going to display similarly anxious expectations and responses to others outside of that relationship. Second, how people function within their relationships is expected to parallel past dynamics with formative caregivers (Slade, 2009). For example, a person who developed an ambivalent attachment style in childhood will likely be very dependent on the approval of his or her romantic partner while simultaneously fearing rejection and abandonment (Simpson & Rholes, 2004). Research by Fraley, Waller, and Brennan (2000) later indicated that adult attachment styles do not have to be conceptualized in relation to romantic partners, but can also reflect a general social attachment style to others in adult years.

Following the work of Hazan and Shaver, Kelly Brennan and colleagues (1998) created a questionnaire with attachment-related statements (e.g., "I believe others will be there for me when I need them.") to explore why adult attachment patterns are similar to those seen in childhood. In this process they found that two primary dimensions of anxiety and avoidance exist rather than four distinct attachment styles. Although the attachment styles remain, persons can fall somewhere on a continuum to account for individual differences, rather than be categorically placed in one of four quadrants. These findings were later replicated in childhood attachment styles. Although some researchers continue to utilize categorical classifications, more contemporary theorists view attachment styles across two dimensions (Ravitz et al., 2010). Furthermore, Brennan and colleagues (1998) found that there is a correlation between childhood attachment styles and adult attachment styles, demonstrating the longevity of these interpersonal patterns across the lifespan.

Adult Attachment Styles

Regardless of whether attachment theorists utilize a traditional or contemporary view, four attachment styles are believed to exist to one degree or another (Simpson & Rholes, 2004). Persons who score high on *attachment-related anxiety*, independent of their scores on attachment-related avoidance, are more apt to question the responsiveness of others and worry about their availability; conversely, those who score low feel more secure about other's responsiveness and worry less about their availability. Persons who score high on *attachment-related avoidance*, independent of their scores on attachment-related anxiety, are more likely to be self-reliant and unwilling to be transparent or emotionally invested in others; conversely, those who score low are more likely to be intimate and securely dependent upon others (Ainsworth et al., 2014). The interaction of attachment-related anxiety and avoidance are thought to produce the four attachment styles discussed below.

Securely attached adults are able to fluidly become emotionally close and reciprocally depend on others. For the most part, these individuals have a stable self-concept and find others and their environment to be relatively predictable. As such, their interpersonal relationships are warm and responsive, characterized by a positive view of others. Environments are generally not perceived as threatening. These persons often report relationship satisfaction and feel a comfortable balance between intimacy and independence (Shorey & Snyder, 2006).

Anxiously-preoccupied adults tend to over-invest emotionally in their relationships, which can be off-putting to others. These persons are uncomfortable being without close relationships, and are frequently concerned that others do not value them as much as they value others. As such, they seek approval and responsiveness, which can result in over-dependence on their interpersonal relationships. Commonly these adults have a negative self-concept and blame

themselves for the limited responsiveness of others. They are quick to demonstrate high levels of emotional expressiveness, worry, and impulsivity in their relationships (Shorey & Snyder, 2006).

Dismissively-avoidant adults have a tendency to avoid close emotional relationships, as they value independence and self-sufficiency. Their drive for independence stems from a discomfort with being vulnerable in the presence of others, as they have likely incurred many past experiences that were negative, resulting in an aversion to dependency. As such, they often deny the need to maintain close relationships and may consider intimacy to be unimportant. These individuals frequently have a more negative opinion of others than they do of themselves. This attachment style is often coupled with distancing from the source of rejection when faced with conflict (Shorey & Snyder, 2006).

Fearfully-avoidant adults are typically those who have a past marked by trauma, significant loss, neglect, or abuse. These persons can experience difficulty becoming emotionally close to others. Although they desire intimacy, they find it difficult to fully trust and depend on others for fear of being hurt. This internal conflict is amplified by a negative view of self and others, such as viewing oneself as unworthy of love, yet mistrusting the intentions of others. As such, these persons can be perceived as dismissive and seeking less intimacy than others (Shorey & Snyder, 2006).

As demonstrated in the Attachment Theory literature, attachment style affects how individuals attach to their current environment in that it influences how much they tend to view their environment as threatening. For example, persons who have developed a secure attachment are less likely to perceive others and their environment as threatening (Holmes, 2015); in turn, there is a decreased need to employ defense mechanisms. These individuals gravitate toward

utilizing coping skills during conflict, secondarily relying on defense mechanisms in a manner congruent with the situation and its severity. Conversely, adults who are insecurely attached will be less likely to utilize coping skills and more likely to rely on defense mechanisms (Calabrese, Farber, & Westen, 2005). What defense mechanisms are used, however, differs greatly depending upon the attachment style.

Dismissively-avoidant individuals will be more likely to use defenses allowing them to retreat from the perceived threat, whereas those who have a preoccupied attachment will be more likely to use defenses allowing them to confront threats with greater emotionality (Ainsworth et al., 2014). These patterns are analogous to the fight-or-flight responses activated in the amygdala during threat. Interestingly, Fraley and Shaver (as cited by Roisman and colleagues, 2007) found that although dismissive-avoidant individuals are able to minimize their emotional response to attachment-related thoughts, their physiological response nonetheless reflects heightened distress. As such, both populations experience similar distress in the face of perceived threat even though their defensive responses are vastly different.

Following the history of Attachment Theory and its predecessors, an in-depth analysis of place-attachment will now be presented. Similar to the effects of attachment style on behavioral responses during interpersonal conflict, the degree to which people are attached to their environment has been shown to influence how they navigate perceived threat (Raymond, Brown, & Weber, 2010).

Place Attachment

The birth of Environmental Psychology raised awareness for the biophysical components of the environment that affect behavior beyond sociocultural factors (Raymond, Brown, & Weber, 2010). These influences can include whether a person's needs are met by the

environment, whether he or she feels comfortable in the physical setting, and whether there is shared history, interest, or concern with fellow members of that environment. Collectively, these factors determine how bonded people are to their environment, which ultimately affects how they perceive situations and respond accordingly (Scannell & Gifford, 2010). This phenomenon is called *place-attachment*. Whereas Attachment Theory focuses its efforts on identifying interpersonal templates that predict and explain behavior, environmental psychologists consider the ecological domain (Raymond, Brown, & Weber, 2010).

Comprised of many large and broadly defined concepts, place-attachment researchers synthesized a tripartite model to organize the person-environment relationship. The first dimension of this model is called the *person-dimension* and refers to the meaning ascribed to the environment either by the individual or those sharing the environment (Scannell & Gifford, 2010). On an individual level, places often acquire meaning through personal experiences and meeting life milestones. On a communal level, places derive religious, historical, and other cultural meaning. Together, both the individual and the collective community reciprocally influence one another's place-attachment. As such, people experience a stronger attachment to places they can identify with and feel proud of (Brown & Perkins, 2012). An example of this would be college students who feel strongly connected with the culture and history of their university while simultaneously achieving academic success.

The second dimension of the tripartite model of place-attachment is the *psychological-dimension* (or process-dimension) and is comprised of affective, cognitive, and behavioral domains (Scannell & Gifford, 2010). Regarding the *affective* domain, positive emotions such as happiness and love serve to strengthen the bond between a person and place. *Cognition* accounts for the knowledge, memories, and meanings that an individual associates with places of

attachment. For example, people develop schemas that organize their beliefs and knowledge of places, as well as how they personally fit into each context, such as labeling oneself as a "small town person" or having preferences for certain types of houses. *Behavior* is the physical manifestation of place attachment, such as maintaining proximity to a place of attachment or conversely feeling homesick when away from a place of attachment (Brown & Perkins, 2012).

The third dimension of the tripartite model of place-attachment is the *place dimension*, which emphasizes the descriptive characteristics of the place. Those that inhabit the environment, such as friends, co-workers, family members, acquaintances, and others, play a significant role in how connected persons perceive themselves to be with their environment (Scannell & Gifford, 2010). Furthermore, both natural and built environments can affect the person-place bond. This includes whether resources are readily available, as well as how stressful the demands of the environment are to its inhabitants (Brown & Perkins, 2012).

In reviewing the tripartite model of place-attachment, the interconnectedness between a person and the environment is apparent. How bonded a person feels with his or her environment is, therefore, reciprocally influenced and plays a crucial role in the manifestation of behavior. Manzo and Perkins (2006) highlight the importance of this relationship, imploring that psychologists take an integrated approach when predicting and explaining human behavior. The feelings and experiences that people have toward their physical environment are as important as the sociopolitical context of the environment itself. Similarly, the interpersonal relationships people have with those inhabiting the environment also influence the person-environment bond. Higher levels of satisfaction across these dimensions increase one's place-attachment, which can ultimately influence their commitment to preserving the environment (Scannell & Gifford,

2010). For this reason, place-attachment is of particular importance with norm adherence and protection (Brown & Perkins, 2012).

Baumeister and Leary (1995) similarly describe how attachment influences belongingness. Those who develop a safe and supportive bond with their environment will feel a stronger sense of cohesion. Acceptance and belonging have many positive effects on an individual, such as creating structure and existential meaning, fostering self-esteem, and providing security (Van Ryzin, Gravely, & Roseth, 2009). On a grander scale, developing group membership also ensures survival. Not only do groups provide protection, but they also facilitate access to additional resources, shared tasks and information, and a mating sample (Levine & Kerr, 2007). Humans in particular are subject to an extended period of vulnerability in childhood and adolescence, requiring the attention of others who can provide basic needs such as food, clothing, and shelter. Therefore, seeking and maintaining group membership is of great importance and plays a large role in shaping behavior (DeWall et al., 2011). Superficial contact with others is not sufficient in fulfilling this need, as people have a desire to maintain stable and enduring interpersonal relationships. Loss of such connection can result in a variety of emotional disturbances, such as depression, anxiety, and aggression.

As such, those who develop stronger belongingness with their environment (e.g., develop a strong place-attachment) are more motivated to protect their environment against deviants and exclude those who do not display behavioral conformity (Brown & Perkins, 2012). Studies in Social Psychology have demonstrated that those who have a stronger sense of belonging will feel more inclined to *adhere* to and protect current norms (Turner et al., 1987) in an effort to preserve the functionality of the group and ultimately the self (Hornsey, 2008). Because norms exist to maintain the safety, functionality, and cohesiveness of the group, violation of norms are

perceived as a threat (Brauer & Chekroun, 2005). Therefore, in addition to attachment style, it was expected in the current study that place-attachment would influence responses to perceived threat in the form of ostracism.

Norm Violations

N*orms* are rules, values, and standards created by social groups that are expected to be upheld by the members. They provide the infrastructure for order in society, as well as a governing organization for smaller groups, such as family and friend networks. Without norms, there would be no predictability in social relationships and it would be insurmountably difficult to achieve understanding in relation to others (Brauer & Chekroun, 2005). Norms provide an efficient way of organizing and making sense of the world. This concept is culturally universal and evident even in isolated communities. Therefore, it is believed that the willingness to develop and adopt norms is innate (Sripada & Stich, 2005).

The process of agreeing and conforming to norms not only serves to maintain order and functionality of a group, but also allows for a sense of predictability (Thyne & Schroeder, 2012). For example, a traffic light does not hold any inherent meaning, but is accepted by society as a means of directing traffic. Without traffic lights, there would be no order to govern how people progress through intersections and the number of traffic accidents would increase exponentially. Therefore, norms also promote safety (Dallago et al., 2009), which again emphasizes the evolutionary motive of survival driving a need for belongingness. Norms are so fundamental to individual- and group-functionality that a rudimentary understanding exists even in the early stages of human life. According to Mikhail (2007), there is a reliable pattern of norm ontogenesis. As early as ages three to five, recognizable knowledge and awareness of basic

social rules can be seen. By age nine, more elaborate norms specific to one's culture are apparent, and continue to evolve throughout the lifetime.

Although conformity to norms is essential for the functionality of society, violations are nonetheless inevitable. Similar to what is deemed socially appropriate, deviant behavior must also be defined, as well as the corresponding punishment for such actions (Schultz et al., 2007). For example, poor table manners may only be sanctioned by a verbal reprimand, whereas murder may be punishable by death. It is important for these boundaries to be defined and agreed upon in order to avoid disruption of social order. When disruption occurs, predictability has been lost, which is not only confusing to society members, but also frightening, and in some cases may threaten survival of at least some members of the community (such as when people either violate traffic norms or norms associated with avoiding the execution of other humans outside of the context of war). It is understandable why norm conformity is not only prevalent, but also highly enforced. Violations of norms, therefore, are considered significant threats to society and to the individual members (Schultz et al., 2007).

Ostracism as a Defense

Ostracism can be thought of as a defense mechanism specifically employed against the threat of norm violations (Rubin, Coplan, & Bowker, 2009). Crick et al. (2009) conceptualize ostracism as a method of responding to social threats within the environment. This construct is multi-dimensional and includes behaviors of *ignoring* and/or *excluding* (Crick et al., 2009; Gilman, 2013; Rubin, Coplan, & Bowker, 2009). *Ignoring* is defined as the deliberate act of disregarding, refusing to take notice of, or acknowledge another person, and can be demonstrated through examples of silent treatment, shunning, and looking away from the target (Deater-Deckard, 2001). *Social exclusion* is defined as the intentional process of denying a person's

access to various rights, opportunities, or resources, and can be demonstrated through examples of denying housing, education, and employment opportunities, as well as visitation rights to certain public places (Crick et al., 2009). At their bare essence, both ignoring and excluding prevent a person from participating in normatively prescribed activities of their environment; however, *excluding* removes a person's access to the social environment whereas *ignoring* maintains the person's access to the social environment, but treats the person as if he or she is invisible. Although both can occur within the same situation, they have separate functions (Deater-Deckard, 2001).

Frequently, both ignoring and excluding behaviors are observed when a person is targeted for ostracism, as ostracism is commonly a group effort. Furthermore, a person can display multiple ostracizing behaviors in response to one perceived threat. Therefore, within- and between-person effects can be observed. Although people can display a wide range of ostracizing behaviors, research demonstrates that individuals have a tendency to favor ignoring or excluding behaviors across situations, which correlate with interpersonal style (Gilman, 2013). For example, literature indicates that those with an avoidant attachment are more likely to retreat when faced with perceived threat, whereas those with preoccupied attachment are more likely to confront the threat. Differences in ignoring an excluding are also demonstrated in the effect that they have on the target. For example, chronic excluding behaviors typically result in physical or verbally aggressive personalities (Crick et al., 2009), whereas chronic ignoring behaviors typically result in anxious and socially inept personalities (Deater-Deckard, 2001).

Attachment Theorists have demonstrated that when faced with perceived threat, securely attached individuals typically will employ a balance of coping skills and defense mechanisms, whereas insecurely attached individuals will display more defense mechanisms in an effort to

protect oneself (Holmes, 2015). It was, therefore, hypothesized that in response to norm violations, willingness to ostracize would be more prevalent in insecurely attached individuals than securely attached individuals. Furthermore, research indicates that individuals with a preoccupied attachment style more often use active strategies to deal with conflict, thereby involving themselves in conflict (Holmes, 2015). As such, it was hypothesized that those who have a preoccupied attachment would demonstrate, and be more willing use, excluding acts of ostracism when confronted with norm violations. Conversely, Holmes (2015) goes on to say that individuals with dismissive-avoidant tendencies more often use passive strategies to deal with conflict, thereby removing themselves from the conflict. As such, it was hypothesized that dismissive-avoidant individuals would demonstrate, and be more willing use, ignoring acts of ostracism when confronted with norm violations.

Another factor to consider is that severe norm violations can result in greater perceived threat for all individuals regardless of attachment style (Rubin, Coplan, & Bowker, 2009). Therefore, it was hypothesized that securely attached individuals would increase their utilization of ostracism as the severity of norm violation increased. As previously indicated, use of defense mechanisms is only maladaptive if overused; some use of defense mechanisms is to be expected, as it serves an evolutionary function (Jespersen, Kroger, & Martinussen, 2013). Therefore, the extent to which a person relies upon ignoring or excluding behaviors as defense mechanisms was expected to be most pronounced at low degrees of norm violations where more variability exists in how individuals perceive and respond to threat.

In the current study design, individuals were instructed to endorse a level of willingness to ostracize in response to stimuli regarding potential norm violations. It was expected that responses would parallel genuine ostracism. However, self-appraisal of how people believe they

would act in hypothetical situations is not always accurate. For example, respondents may have underestimated how threatened they would feel or how strongly they would actually respond in a real-life situation. Conversely, some respondents may have overestimated how responsive they would be, ignoring any empathy and understanding that could surface during a real-life situation. As such, having measured willingness to ostracize, rather than actual ostracism in real-time, is considered to be a limitation of this study.

Utilizing Sex Offenses as Norm Violations

Anticipating that attachment style would have the greatest effect on the degree to which individuals ostracize others when norm violations were lower in severity, the investigator of this study felt that it was important to use a classification of norm violations spanning from low to high severity so hypotheses could be tested. In doing so, responses to norm violations could be compared to the degree of severity. One such classification of norm violations is that of sex offenses. Specifically, sexual offenses can be broken down into a classification of criminal activity ranging from indecent exposure to child sexual assault. According to forensics literature, persons who commit sex offenses face a variety of social consequences that are considered to be forms of ostracism (Levenson & Cotter, 2005). More than any other type of criminal activity, a charge for a sexual offense can be detrimental to future employment, jeopardize a family, and sabotage a person's reputation. Furthermore, the pejorative label "sex offender" socially marks a person with a scarlet letter, deeming them the lowest-regarded member of society (Wakefield, 2006). A high number of restrictions and obligations are faced after the sentence has been satisfied, and it has been argued by many that ostracism imposed on the sex offender population extends far beyond what is necessary to legally absolve these individuals of their crimes (Tewksbury, 2005). In the case of Megan's Law where community

members are notified of sex offenders living in their area, many believe that this requirement encroaches upon constitutional rights for privacy (Levenson & Cotter, 2005).

The intensity of ostracism experienced over prolonged periods by these individuals has led to many negative consequences, such as increased unemployment rates, increased financial difficulty, decreased education, and increased interpersonal disruption. Increased psychological distress is also common, such as learned helplessness and hopelessness, depression, anxiety, and high rates of suicide (Tewksbury, Jennings, & Zgoba, 2011). Members of the sex offender population frequently experience exclusion from family and friends, lowering their levels of resiliency (Levenson & Cotter, 2005). Studies have shown that rates of suicide in some subsets of the sex offender population are *230 times higher* than that of the general population (Hoffer et al., 2010).

As illustrated above, the effects of ostracism can be devastating. The intention of this dissertation is not to make a value judgment on whether ostracism is an appropriate response to norm violations, but rather to analyze differences across attachment styles. It is further evident that sexual offenses are considered reproachable norm violations that are punishable by ostracism. A spectrum of violations also exists under this umbrella classification, demonstrating the varying degrees of severity. Therefore, it is considered an adequate variable for measuring the relationship between attachment style and willingness to ostracize when faced with norm violations of varying degrees of severity.

The Present Study

The idea of *the self* extending beyond the bounds of an individual person to include internalized relational patterns is now a common trend in research (Calabrese, Farber, & Westen, 2005). Contributing to this position are the Neo-Analytic theories and Attachment Theory

(Tajfel, 1985), all of which have posited that persons are largely shaped by their environment. This is further evidenced by Environmental Psychologists indicating that place-attachment significantly influences a person's thoughts, emotions, and behaviors (Raymond, Brown, & Weber, 2010). Humans have an innate need to maintain positive self-esteem, and identifying with a group is one way to fulfill this need (Smart-Richman & Leary, 2009). Whether an individual develops a stronger self- or other-identity, however, is dependent upon a myriad of personal and environmental factors occurring across the lifespan (Calabrese, Farber, & Westen, 2005), the origins of which begin in early childhood.

Utilizing Attachment Theory as a lens to explain human behavior, this dissertation sought to explore whether there are differences in willingness to ostracize (defense mechanism) across attachment styles (secure, preoccupied, and dismissive-avoidant) when exposed to varying degrees of norm violation severity (low, moderate, and high for the WOSO; misdemeanor and felony for the OES–R). Literature has already established that adult attachment styles can predict how persons respond to interpersonal conflict (Holmes, 2015). What has not been established, however, is whether adult attachment styles can predict how persons respond to norm violations within their community, such as through ostracism. It was, therefore, hypothesized that higher patterns of ignoring and excluding would be observed in dismissively-avoidant and preoccupied individuals, respectively, than in those who are securely attached.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was four-fold. The first aim of this study was to establish the reliability and validity of measures that were altered or developed (Ostracism Experiences Scale-Revised (OES–R) and Willingness to Ostracize for Sex Offenses (WOSO) questionnaire, respectively) by the investigator of the current study, utilizing the Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders (CATSO) scale as a comparison measure. More specifically, convergent and divergent validity of the OES–R and WOSO were conducted using Factor 1 and 2 of the CATSO, which measure constructs related to ignoring (Factor 1) and excluding (Factor 2) behaviors targeted at those who have committed sex offenses. Failure to gather evidence supporting reliability and/or validity of the WOSO and OES–R would limit findings yielded from the data. In this scenario, it was planned that Factors 1 and 2 of the CATSO would be substituted for the OES–R and WOSO, respectively.

The second aim of this study was to examine differences in willingness to ostracize via *excluding behaviors* across three attachment styles (secure, preoccupied, and dismissive-avoidant) when exposed to three severities of norm violations (low, moderate, and high). Thirdly, differences in willingness to ostracize via *ignoring behaviors* across three attachment styles (secure, preoccupied, and dismissive-avoidant) were intended to be explored when exposed to two severities of norm violations (low and high for WOSO; misdemeanor and felony for OES–R). For both the second and third aim of this study, the classification of sexual offenses was selected as a stimulus to demonstrate a spectrum of violations ranging from minor to severe.

The fourth aim of this study was to examine place-attachment as a predictor variable with regards to how it affects willingness to ostracize for sex-norm violations; ignoring and excluding behaviors were intended to be observed separately. Significant differences in willingness to ostracize based on place-attachment were expected for low severity offenses.

In addition to the primary goals of this study, the primary investigator intended to examine relationships between specific demographic information and willingness to ostracize, such as socioeconomic status, previous work with the sex offender population, having children under the age of 18, and having been the victim of a sexual assault. Significant differences in willingness to ostracize based on these demographic variables were expected to occur only for low severity offenses. As such, hypotheses were only constructed for demographic variables affecting willingness to ostracize (ignoring and excluding) for low severity offenses.

The current study is classified as quasi-experimental, as participants were assigned to attachment style groups based on their responses to the Emotional Closeness in Relationships–Revised (ECR–R) questionnaire rather than through random assignment. Degree of severity was intended to serve as the experimental variable, and willingness to ostracize was intended to serve as a repeated within-subjects variable across severity levels. Hypotheses for this study will be reviewed next, followed by a description of the participants, measures, and procedures.

Research Hypotheses

The following research aims and hypotheses were posited:

Hypothesis #1: The Willingness to Ostracize for Sex Offenses (WOSO) questionnaire was expected to demonstrate internal consistency, thereby providing evidence of adequate reliability.

Hypothesis #2: The Ostracism Experiences Scale - Revised (OES–R) was expected to demonstrate internal consistency, thereby providing evidence of adequate reliability.

Hypothesis #3: Evidence for adequate validity for the WOSO and OES–R was expected to be established utilizing the Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders (CATSO) questionnaire in the following three ways:

1) The WOSO was expected to produce a weak correlation with the OES–R, thereby providing evidence of discriminant validity between the measures.
2) The WOSO was expected to correlate with CATSO Factor 2, and the OES–R to correlate with CATSO Factor 1, thereby providing evidence of convergent validity for their respective constructs.
3) The WOSO was expected to have a weak correlation with CATSO Factor 1, and the OES–R was expected to have a weak correlation with CATSO Factor 2, thereby providing evidence of discriminant validity of their respective constructs.

***Hypothesis #4*:** The pattern of ostracizing via *excluding behaviors* (as measured by the WOSO) across sex offenses was expected to differ as a function of attachment style (preoccupied, dismissive-avoidant, and secure) in three respects:

1) When presented with low, moderate, and high sex-norm violations, those displaying a preoccupied attachment to others were expected to have a higher *willingness to exclude* than those displaying a secure or dismissive-avoidant attachment to others.
2) When presented with low, moderate, and high sex-norm violations, those displaying a dismissive-avoidant attachment to others were expected to have a lower *willingness to exclude* than those displaying a secure or preoccupied attachment to others.

3) When presented with low, moderate, and high sex-norm violations, those displaying a secure attachment to others were expected to display a *willingness to exclude* congruent with the severity of sex-norm violation more than those displaying a preoccupied (higher overall willingness) or dismissive-avoidant (lower overall willingness) attachment to others.

***Hypothesis #5*:** The pattern of ostracizing via *ignoring behaviors* (as measured by the OES–R) across sex offenses was expected to differ as a function of attachment style (secure, preoccupied, and dismissive-avoidant) in three respects:

1) When presented with low (misdemeanor) and high (felony) sex-norm violations, those displaying a preoccupied attachment to others were expected to have a lower *willingness to ignore* than those displaying a secure and dismissive-avoidant attachment to others.
2) When presented with low (misdemeanor) and high (felony) sex-norm violations, those displaying a dismissive-avoidant attachment to others were expected to have a higher *willingness to ignore* than those displaying a secure and preoccupied attachment to others.
3) When presented with low (misdemeanor) and high (felony) sex-norm violations, those displaying a secure attachment to others were expected to display a *willingness to ignore* congruent with the severity of sex-norm violation more than those displaying a dismissive-avoidant (higher overall willingness) or preoccupied (lower overall willingness) attachment to others.

***Hypothesis #6*:** For low (misdemeanor) severity sex offenses (as measured by the OES–R), those displaying a high place-attachment were expected to demonstrate a higher willingness to ostracize through ignoring behaviors than those displaying lower place-attachment.

***Hypothesis #7*:** For low severity sex offenses (as measured by the WOSO), those displaying a high place-attachment were expected to demonstrate a higher willingness to ostracize through excluding behaviors than those displaying lower place-attachment.

***Hypothesis #8*:** For low (misdemeanor) severity sex offenses (as measured by the OES–R), those displaying a lower SES were expected to demonstrate a lower willingness to ostracize through ignoring behaviors than those displaying higher SES.

***Hypothesis #9*:** For low (misdemeanor) severity sex offenses (as measured by the WOSO), those displaying a lower SES were expected to demonstrate a lower willingness to ostracize through excluding behaviors than those displaying higher SES.

***Hypothesis #10*:** For low (misdemeanor) severity sex offenses (as measured by the OES–R), those who work with or for sex offenders were expected to demonstrate a lower willingness to ostracize through ignoring behaviors than those who do not work with or for sex offenders.

***Hypothesis #11*:** For low (misdemeanor) severity sex offenses (as measured by the WOSO), those who work with or for sex offenders were expected to demonstrate a lower willingness to ostracize through excluding behaviors than those who do not work with or for sex offenders.

***Hypothesis #12*:** For low (misdemeanor) severity sex offenses (as measured by the OES–R), those with children under the age of 18 were expected to demonstrate a higher

willingness to ostracize through ignoring behaviors than those who do not have children under the age of 18.

***Hypothesis #13*:** For low (misdemeanor) severity sex offenses (as measured by the WOSO), those with children under the age of 18 were expected to demonstrate a higher willingness to ostracize through excluding behaviors than those who do not have children under the age of 18.

***Hypothesis #14*:** For low (misdemeanor) severity sex offenses (as measured by the OES–R), those who are survivors of sexual assault were expected to demonstrate a higher willingness to ostracize through ignoring behaviors than those who have not incurred sexual assault.

***Hypothesis #15*:** For low (misdemeanor) severity sex offenses (as measured by the WOSO), those who are survivors of sexual assault were expected to demonstrate a higher willingness to ostracize through excluding behaviors than those who have not incurred sexual assault.

Participants

This study used a non-random sampling method for recruitment of 596 participants from Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT). AMT is a crowdsourcing internet marketplace that enables researchers to collect data from participants. Participants were required to use AMT accounts accessed within the United States to limit participation to only those individuals currently located within the country. Additionally, participants were required to be 18+ years of age. Participants with characteristics that could reasonably be expected to bias the analysis were excluded from participation. Specifically, individuals could not have had any prior sex offense conviction. Furthermore, they were required to be a current United States citizen and to have resided within

the United States continuously for a minimum of the past two consecutive years. Resulting statistics for responses to inclusion criteria items are listed in Table 5. In addition to the screening questions, nine attention checks were administered throughout the survey. Of the remaining 594 individuals who passed the inclusion criteria, an additional 42 participants were removed from the data set for failing one or more attention check items (Table 6). The 552 usable participants remaining, therefore, constitute the final data set.

Participants in the resulting sample mostly fell between the ages of 18 and 44. Participants predominantly self-identified as White, middle class, heterosexual/straight men (n = 255) and women (n = 331) with a minimum education level of a bachelor's degree. After removing individuals from the sample who were classified as having a disorganized attachment style, the general pattern of demographics of the sample remained unchanged. In addition, the subset of the sample used to capture individuals who more clearly fell within a particular attachment style (using sample statistics to identify individuals with more extreme scores on both dimensions) produced a similar pattern. Tables 7-9 can be referenced for participant demographic statistics.

Measures

Measure for Participant Background Information

Participants provided demographic information by responding to several questions on a demographic form created for this study (Appendix A). Questions pertained to age, sex, ethnicity, sexual orientation, marital status, native language, religion, number of children, income bracket, employment status, and highest level of education obtained. Participants also provided information about their place of residence, such as the geographic location,

neighborhood description, current and projected length of time residing in their neighborhood, and whether their home was rented or owned.

Additionally, participants responded to questions about their criminal history, as well as any experience that they or someone close to them had with being the victim of a violent crime (sexual and non-sexual). In an effort to gain knowledge about respondents' level of interaction with convicted sex offenders, or how politically involved they were with legislation surrounding the sex offender population, there were a variety of questions dedicated to this spectrum of behaviors. Lastly, questions pertaining to respondents' overall level of social involvement with others was included, as well as whether the survey was completed in a private or public setting. Given that responses to material in this study are highly susceptible to social influence, it was important to know whether there may have been any barriers to participants answering truthfully.

Measure for Willingness to Ostracize Via Excluding Behaviors for Sex Offenses

The Willingness to Ostracize for Sex Offenses (WOSO) questionnaire was created for purposes of this study (Appendix B) to measure public attitudes regarding social punishment for sex offenses. Two Content Validity Analyses (CVAs) were conducted for the following components of the WOSO: *social punishments*, *severity classification,* and *sex offenses*. Validity of content was determined by administering the WOSO to pre-selected subject matter experts (SMEs) in the fields of ostracism and treatment of sex offenders. Between both evaluations, approximately 200 individuals were contacted via email. A total of 11 individuals provided ratings in the first CVA and 10 provided ratings in the second CVA. The CVAs results were used to refine the measure for the three aforementioned components. An in-depth overview of the WOSO development and subsequent CVAs is provided in Appendices C-G.

The classification of sex offense severity was structured to include the following definitions: *low severity* (no contact but with non-consenting people), *moderate severity* (non-violent contact involving either: (1) non-consensual non-penetrative contact, or (2) wanted contact with individuals who cannot provide consent (e.g., minors or vulnerable adults), and *high severity* (non-consensual contact that is violent or penetrative). The term "contact" refers to gestures including: physically touching, meeting, communicating, or having any relationship with another person.

Using this classification system, nine sex offenses were chosen for the WOSO to reflect the spectrum of social norm violation existing within society (three offenses per *low, moderate,* and *high* severity group). What constitutes a sex offense, as well as its degree of severity, differs by culture and geographical region. Even in the United States there is no unified classification of sex offenses with standard punishment procedures; sentencing varies by jurisdiction. Because participants were recruited from across the United States, there was not a specific jurisdiction to reference when classifying sexual offenses in this study. Therefore, sex offenses for each classification were selected by the primary investigator of this study and refined by a panel of subject matter experts. Sex offenses chosen for the low severity category were: *masturbating in public, indecent exposure,* and *voyeurism*. Sex offenses chosen for the moderate severity category were*: stalking, frotteurism,* and *statutory rape.* Sex offenses chosen for the high severity category were: *rape, sex trafficking,* and *child sexual abuse.*

For each of the nine sex offenses, the WOSO required participants to indicate how likely they were at the time of testing to use four social punishments mirroring excluding behaviors commonly seen in society when individuals interact with the sex offender population post-incarceration. Respondents used a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from (1) *Strongly Disagree* to (5)

Strongly Agree to indicate their level of agreement with utilizing these social punishments for sex offenders convicted of crimes from each level of offense severity. As defined by Crick et al. (2009), *social exclusion* is the intentional process of denying a person's access to various rights, opportunities, and resources made available to other members within the group. Therefore, the following four social punishments were used.

1) ***Employment***: How willing are you to work in the same company (or if your company is large, work in the same department) as a *person convicted of the sex crime*? For example, how much would you try to avoid working with this person?
2) ***Residency***: How willing are you to be neighbors with a *person convicted of the sex crime*? For example, how much would you try to stop this person from living in your neighborhood?
3) ***Notification***: Sometimes, people receive notification of a sex offender moving into their neighborhood. How willing are you to share this information with others so they know to stay away from a *person convicted of the sex crime?* For example, how much would you try to keep others away from this person?
4) ***Children***: How willing are you to have your children go to a playground or school/daycare where a *person convicted of the sex crime* is allowed? For example, would you keep your kids away from areas where this person is allowed to go?

Scoring the WOSO is a two-step process. First, the nine sex-norm violation items were scored individually by averaging the ratings for their four social punishments (on the scale of 1 to 7). This produced a score for each of the nine items ranging from 1 to 7. Secondly, the severity subscales (low, moderate, and high) were calculated by averaging the scores of their respective items (offenses). As outlined above, there were three offenses for each level of

severity on the WOSO. The subscale severity scores were intended to reflect willingness to ostracize for the level of severity represented by the target sex-norm offense items.

Measure for Willingness to Ostracize Via Ignoring Behaviors for Sex-Norm Violations

The Ostracism Experience Scale for Adolescents (OES-A) was adapted for this study to examine ignoring behaviors. Although the OES-A contains both ignoring and excluding items, only items on the ignoring dimension were utilized in this study. The OES-A was developed by Gilman et al. (2013) to assess an adolescent's personal experience of ostracism. For purposes of this study, items were revised to reflect an adult's willingness to ostracize, via ignoring behaviors, convicted sex offenders (Appendix H). Adequate construct validity for the OES-A was demonstrated through exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses, bivariate correlations, and hierarchical regression. Sound psychometric properties for the OES-A were also obtained. For example, internal reliability was found to be at Cronbach's .93 for both the ignoring and excluding dimensions. Significant convergent validity was also found via associations between the OES-A scales and various self- and peer-reports of being excluded and rejected. Discriminant validity was demonstrated by non-significant findings with variables that are theoretically irrelevant (e.g., no correlations were above .10). Findings supported a two-correlated factor model, with items distinctly loading on either the Exclusion or Ignoring domain scales, making the dimensions distinct (Gilman et al., 2013).

There are eleven items in the OES-A; six items comprise the *Excluding* scale and five items comprise the *Ignoring* scale. As mentioned, only items on the Ignoring scale were utilized in this study. Responses for the OES-A are based on a five-point Likert-scale ranging from (1) *Strongly Disagree* to (5) *Strongly Agree*, rating how accurate the statement is for respondents. Item responses are averaged to create scale scores. A five-point Likert-scale ranging from (1)

Strongly Disagree to (5) *Strongly Agree* was maintained in the revised version of the OES-A (OES–R) for the current study. As such, mean scores for the OES–R range from 1-5, where high scores on the individual factors represent a strong willingness to ostracize in that domain.

In addition to omitting all excluding items, several changes were made to the OES-A for purposes of this study. The first of these changes was in the item content. For example, items were rephrased to reflect a person's willingness to ostracize convicted sex offenders. Furthermore, some words were altered in an effort to make the scenarios more realistic for adult interactions. Another change to the OES-A was the context in which items were presented. On the OES-A, participants were simply instructed to respond to the eleven items on a Likert scale, indicating how much they agreed or disagreed with each statement. On the OES–R, however, two sections were created to evaluate respondents' willingness to interact with convicted sex offenders. The first section pertained to misdemeanor sex offenses and the second section pertained to felony sex offenses. Both sections displayed the same list of statements comprised of the five OES–R items. Participants were instructed to respond to items on a Likert scale for each section, indicating how much they agreed or disagreed with each statement.

Whereas the WOSO was intended to look at individual sex offenses across three levels of severity, the OES–R was intended to simply look at misdemeanor and felony classifications. This was done in an effort to reduce redundancy and response fatigue. Measuring willingness to ostracize across misdemeanor and felony charges was intended to provide an opportunity to examine convergent validity across two of the three levels of sex offense severity on the WOSO (low and high).

Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders (CATSO) Scale

The *Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders* (CATSO) scale was developed by Church et al. (2008) in an effort to determine how level of knowledge about the sex offender population influences emotional reactions and firmly held attitudes. Items were generated based on a review of the literature and consultation with subject matter experts. A finalized list of one hundred one items were administered in a pilot study, later refined and reduced to eighteen items based on respondent feedback and exploratory factor analyses. The finalized CATSO exhibits adequate fit according to guidelines determined by Schumacker and Lomax (2004), as well as adequate internal consistency. As indicated by Church et al. (2008), alpha estimates for the CATSO, as well as each of the four subscales, are as follows: Social Isolation (0.80); Capacity to Change (0.80); Severity/Dangerousness (0.70); Deviancy (0.43); and Total CATSO (0.74).

There are eighteen items in the CATSO; five items comprise the social isolation scale (Factor 1), five items comprise the capacity to change scale (Factor 2), five items comprise the severity/dangerousness scale (Factor 3), and three comprise the deviancy scale (Factor 4). Only the ten items included in Factor 1 and 2 were administered in this study, however, as these items were believed to be the most representative of ignoring and excluding behaviors, respectively. As described by Church et al. (2008), responses to CATSO items are based on a five-point Likert-scale ranging from (1) *Strongly Disagree* to (5) *Strongly Agree*, rating how accurate the statement is for respondents. Of the CATSO items used in this study, only *Item 1* was reverse scored. To obtain scale scores, the mean was simply calculated based on the individual item score within each scale. Mean scores ranged from 1–5, where high scores on Factor 1 represent beliefs in which sex offenders are considered to be loners, and high scores on Factor 2 represent beliefs in which sex offenders are unlikely to change.

Because the CATSO was developed for the purpose of determining how level of knowledge about the sex offender population can influence emotional reactions and firmly held attitudes, it was believed to be a good comparative measure for the WOSO and OES–R when attempting to obtain evidence in support of their convergent and divergent validity. Specifically, CATSO Factor 1 was believed to contain the most relevant items regarding ignoring behaviors, and CATSO Factor 2 was believed to contain the most relevant items regarding excluding behaviors.

Measure for Attachment-Related Anxiety and Avoidance

The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R) Questionnaire, the most widely acclaimed measure in the field of Attachment Theory research, was utilized in this study. This instrument was developed by Brennan, Clark, and Shaver (1998) and revised by Fraley, Waller, and Brennan (2000). Although the ECR-R was originally developed for purposes of assessing adult romantic attachments, Fraley et al. (2000) permits item modification to measure alternative attachment bonds. For example, use of the word "others" has occurred across many other studies in an effort to measure general attachment style, rather than an attachment to a specific person (e.g., romantic partner, parent, etc.). Therefore, the term "others" was used in the ECR-R items for this study.

The ECR-R is a multi-item inventory promoting contemporary models of attachment, where dimensions of attachment-related anxiety and avoidance are analyzed independently to account for individual differences. In an effort to develop this measure, the authors first completed an Item Response Theory (IRT) analysis of four attachment inventories that use multi-item self-report: Brennan et al.'s *Experiences in Close Relationships (ECR)* scale, Collins and Read's *Adult Attachment Scale*, Griffin and Bartholomew's *Relationship Styles*

Questionnaire, and Simpson's *(unnamed) attachment scale* (Ravitz et al., 2010). Of these measures, the ECR exhibited the best psychometric properties, such as a higher degree of measurement precision and adequate representation of the trait continuum with equal levels of fidelity. Therefore, the ECR was selected. Following this selection, the authors conducted a second IRT analysis to select items on the ECR with the best psychometric properties. In doing so, Fraley, Waller, and Brennan (2000) were able to increase measurement precision by 50% to 100%, thus creating the ECR-R. Furthermore, they reported internal consistency of .90 or higher for the two ECR-R scales.

There are thirty-six items in the ECR-R; eighteen items comprise the attachment-related anxiety scale and eighteen items comprise the attachment-related avoidance scale. As described previously by Fraley, Waller, and Brennan (2000), respondents rate how accurate each of the thirty-six items are for them personally. Responses are scored based on a five-point Likert-scale ranging from (1) *Strongly Disagree* to (5) *Strongly Agree*. Items 9, 11, 20, 26–31, and 33–36 are reverse scored. Scale scores for attachment-related anxiety and attachment-related avoidance are computed by averaging scores for each dimension's respective questions. Mean scores for each dimension range from 1–5, where 1 represents low attachment-related avoidance/anxiety and 5 represents high attachment-related avoidance/anxiety.

Although Fraley, Waller, and Brennan (2000) recommend that scores for attachment-related anxiety and attachment-related avoidance be examined independently to account for individual differences within each dimension, instructions for the ECR-R are flexible and suggest that dimension scores can be used jointly (i.e., as coordinates plotted on a graph such as that in *Figure 1*) to categorize respondents into attachment styles. Using this procedure, the three attachment style groups utilized in this study were established (secure, preoccupied, and

dismissive-avoidant). Those indicating fearful-avoidant attachment characteristics were omitted from analysis, as this style of attachment is notoriously correlated with unpredictable behavior.

Despite the many benefits coupled with utilizing a dimensional model of attachment, Fraley and Shaver (1999) have highlighted a number of unresolved issues specific to assessing individual differences when utilizing the attachment-related avoidance/anxiety interaction. For example, adopting a continuum-based model complicates measuring complex interactions with attachment, such as those proposed in this study. Therefore, a categorical variable for attachment style was established, intending to result in the use of a 3 x 3 Mixed ANOVA in this study that would assess whether attachment style and severity of sex-norm violations affect willingness to ostracize. Such limitations are not specific to ECR-R, the most widely used questionnaire in contemporary Adult Attachment Theory research, but rather are present in all Attachment Theory measures that attempt to account for individual differences (Fraley & Shaver, 1999). Thus, selecting another measure would not solve this issue.

In an effort to minimize consequences of not utilizing a dimensional model, the current study categorized attachment styles from the ECR-R scores using the following two solutions: ***Solution #1:*** Participants were assigned to groups based on the sample median of each dimension (attachment-related anxiety and attachment-related avoidance), ensuring an equivalent number of people in each group. As previously mentioned, those in the fearful-avoidant group were omitted from the analysis (i.e., 25% of the respondents). Based on this information, 138 participants were placed in each of the three remaining attachment style groups, for a total of 414 participants. Compared to Solution #2, a statistical effect was anticipated to be less likely for Solution #1 because the inclusion of participants scoring near the median of the attachment dimensions (i.e., having relatively ambiguous attachment styles) could confound the analysis by

minimizing differences in dependent variables between groups. This information is depicted in *Table 10* and *Table 11*.

Solution #2: The mean score and standard deviation for each dimension (e.g., attachment-related anxiety and attachment-related avoidance) was calculated. "Extremes" for both dimensions was designated (i.e., cutoffs) as one standard deviation above and below the mean. For this analysis, attachment style groups only included those who had scores falling in the extremes on *both* dimensions. Those categorized as fearful-avoidant were not included in the analysis. Based on this information, 8 participants were classified as *preoccupied*, 16 participants were classified as *secure*, and 6 participants were classified as *dismissive-avoidant*. This information is depicted in Table 10 and Table 12. Compared to Solution #1, the advantage of Solution #2 is that results were less influenced by participants having ambiguous scores, as they were omitted from the analysis. Solution #2 was also less affected by measurement error. Thus, compared to Solution #1, a statistical effect using Solution #2 was anticipated. Limitations within this solution exist, however. For example, Solution #2 relied on the total sample mean and standard deviation for categorization, which likewise was prone to sampling issues. Additionally, the analysis omitted a significant portion of the dataset, which may have also influenced the results. Therefore, the consistency of results using solutions #1 and #2 were an important consideration when interpreting the findings.

To minimize influence of these limitations, the proposed study employed both solutions. As such, prior estimates for the sample size accounted for the frequency of the attachment styles, as well as for the frequency of participants expected to score at the extremes of both dimensions. Findings from Konrath et al. (2014) suggest that preoccupied and dismissive-avoidance attachment styles yield frequencies of approximately 16%, while the secure attachment style

yields a frequency of approximately 41%. Frequencies of participants expected to score at the extremes of both dimensions were based on the mean, standard deviation, and frequency distribution of a 17,531-person sample provided by Chris Fraley who longitudinally collected this data over many years. These frequencies were used in the current study to derive sample size estimates a priori via power analyses (described in the Procedure section).

Measure for Place-Attachment

Another novel feature of this study is that it intended to examine the effect of place-attachment on willingness to ostracize for sex-norm violations. The Place Attachment Inventory (PAI), created by Raymond and colleagues (2010), was selected to measure place-attachment across the dimensions of place-identity, nature-bonding, place-dependence, family-bonding, and friend-bonding in this study. Although the PAI was developed for purposes of measuring place-attachment in select regions of southern Australia, permission was granted by the authors to utilize the phrase "my town/city" in lieu of "the Adelaide and Mount Lofty Ranges." This change made the PAI applicable to all respondents in the current study.

During measure development of the PAI, Raymond et al. (2010) first consolidated disparate models of place-attachment in an effort to operationalize dimensions that would be accounted for in their measure. This included the *two-dimensional model of place-attachment* comprised of place-identity and place-dependence (Williams et al.,1992) and the *three-pole model of place-attachment* comprised of the self, others, and the environment (Gustafson, 2001), as well additional research that included the community (Brehm, Eisenhauer, & Krannich, 2006), natural environment (Brehm, Eisenhauer, & Krannich, 2006; Scannell & Gifford, 2010), and civic environment (Scannell & Gifford, 2010). How the natural and social setting supports an individual's self-identity and functional goals was chosen as the main focus (Davenport et al.,

2010; Sampson & Goodrich, 2009). From this research, Raymond et al. (2010) extracted four dimensions of place-attachment (place-identity, place-dependence, nature-bonding, and social-bonding).

Utilizing the four dimensions of place-attachment, Raymond et al. (2010) created a twenty-nine item measure. Items specific to place-identity and place-dependence were taken from the work of Williams et al. (1992), Williams and Roggenbuck (1989), and Williams and Vaske (2003). Items specific to nature-bonding were taken from descriptors of affiliation and connectedness with nature developed by Schultz (2001), as well as Kals et al. (1999). Items specific to social-bonding were taken from measures proposed by Kyle et al. (2005), as well as from interviews conducted in the Eyre Peninsula region by Raymond (2009). Additional items specific to nature-bonding and social-bonding were created by a panel of subject matter experts. The twenty-nine item scale was then mailed to 1300 rural landholders who live in the Adelaide and Mount Lofty Ranges region of South Australia, and psychometric properties were then examined using principal component and reliability analyses.

After revising the scale to include five dimensions of place-attachment, where social-bonding was dissected into family-bonding and friend-bonding, the construct and convergent validity were tested across all Northern and Yorke landholders. Lastly, the goodness-of-fit for this conceptual model of place-attachment was tested against the South Australian Murray-Darling Basin. Principle Component Analysis studies revealed that this five-dimensional model explained a greater amount of variance in overall place attachment than prior measures (2010). Adequate reliabilities were demonstrated for each of the five scales (Place Identity = .87; Nature Bonding = .81; Place Dependence = .81; Family Bonding = .72, and Friend Bonding .83) and an overall reliability of .85.

There are nineteen items in the PAI; seven items comprise the place-identity scale, four comprise the nature-bonding scale, four comprise the place-dependence scale, three comprise the family-bonding scale, and three comprise the friend-bonding scale. As described by Raymond et al. (2010), respondents rate the personal accuracy of the nineteen statements, responses of which are then scored based on a five-point Likert-scale ranging from (1) *Strongly Disagree* to (5) *Strongly Agree*. Scores on all PAI items are added together to produce a total score ranging from 1–95, where 1 represents low place-attachment and 95 represents high place-attachment. Although scales can be analyzed separately, all items on the PAI were utilized in this study to assess overall place-attachment.

Procedures

Power Analysis

To estimate sample sizes needed for the most restrictive categorization of participants into attachment types, an a priori power analysis (effect size = 0.25±1.2, power = 0.9) was performed in G*Power 3.1.9.2 indicating a need for 15 participants per group. To facilitate the power analysis, values including estimates for mean, standard deviation, and frequencies of participants having extreme scores were calculated from 17,531-person ECR-R dataset provided by Chris Fraley. Estimates of sample sizes for each attachment style per solution are provided in Table 6, as well as the total number of estimated participants for each solution.

Data Collection

The protocol was approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Auburn University prior to recruitment of participants. The study was then advertised as a job in Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT) with information regarding inclusion criteria listed as worker requirements (i.e., workers were informed that the job was to participate in the current study;

eligibility criteria were then provided). Participants saw the study posted as a job in AMT and were informed that completion of the job (i.e., participation in the study) would result in $1.00 payment (i.e., compensation for participation will be $1.00).

AMT workers who were interested in participating read the Information Letter (Appendix I) that briefly outlined the study, as well as information about the risks, compensation, and contact information for the author. Once consent to participate was given, participants followed a link to the study in Qualtrics, an online survey software tool. Once in Qualtrics, participants were instructed to click on a button located at the bottom of the Information Letter that took them to a demographics page, which first established that participants met the inclusion criteria (Appendix J). Participants who did not meet the inclusion criteria were sent to a screen explaining that they did not qualify for participation in the study. Participants who met the inclusion criteria were then presented with a demographics questionnaire, followed by additional questionnaires assessing the main study variables. The order of questionnaires was randomized in an effort to minimize order effects. Similarly, the order of items within each questionnaire was also randomized. It should be noted that randomizing the order of questionnaires, as well as the order of questions within the questionnaires, may have changed the psychometrics of established measures in potentially unknown ways.

There was a two-hour time limit for responding to items, and participants were not allowed to exit the study or complete it at a later time. Following administration of the questionnaires, participants were awarded a code to type into AMT for obtainment of compensation. Participants who provided valid code types in AMT were approved for compensation.

Statistical Analysis

Initial analyses conducted in this study tested the psychometric properties of the measures created (WOSO) and modified (OES–R) by the primary investigator. Internal consistency was measured by determining the strength of correlation between items within each instrument, such that correlations above a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.7 or higher would provide evidence for reliability. The WOSO and OES–R were also compared to the CATSO in an effort to establish validity. This was a three step process. First, the strength of relationship between the WOSO and OES–R was examined to determine whether the two instruments measure similar or different constructs. A weak correlation was expected, which would have provided evidence for divergent validity. Secondly, in an effort to demonstrate convergent validity, correlational analyses were conducted to assess the strength of relationship between the OES–R and CATSO Factor 1, as well as between the WOSO and CATSO Factor 2. Strong correlations were expected, which would have provided evidence that the OES–R measures ignoring behaviors and the WOSO measures excluding behaviors. Thirdly, in another effort to demonstrate divergent validity, correlational analyses were conducted to assess the strength of relationship between the OES–R and CATSO Factor 2, as well as between the WOSO and CATSO Factor 1. Weak correlations were expected, which would have provided evidence that the OES–R and WOSO do not have significant overlap with related constructs.

If adequate reliability and validity were, in fact, produced for the OES–R and WOSO, the plan was to first conduct a 3 (type of attachment style) x 3 (level of sex-norm violation) Mixed ANOVA to test for differences in *willingness to exclude* others as a function of two predictor variables (attachment style and severity of norm violation). Secondly, a 3 (type of attachment style) x 2 (level of sex-norm violation) ANOVA would be used to test for differences in

willingness to ignore others as a function of two predictor variables (attachment style and severity of norm violation). In both of these analyses, if a main effect existed for attachment style or severity of sex norm violation, a post hoc analysis would be conducted to identify which means were significantly different from the others in how they influenced willingness to ignore/exclude. Furthermore, the interaction between attachment style and severity of sex-norm violation would have been analyzed for both analyses. Next, a series of simple correlations would test the hypothesis regarding the relationships between place-attachment and willingness to ostracize via excluding and ignoring behaviors across low and high severity and misdemeanor and felony sex-norm violations, respectively. A coefficient of 0.7 would be used as the cutoff for both of these correlations. Due to the large number of analyses, a Bonferroni's correction would be applied and an adjusted alpha level of 0.05 divided by the number of comparisons would be used to determine if the F-value results indicate statistical significance. Lastly, relationships between demographic information and CATSO Factors 1 and 2 would be examined in regression analyses.

If, however, adequate reliability and validity were not established for the OES–R and WOSO, a contingency plan would be employed so that the inadequate measures would not be used in this study. As described in Chapter 4, psychometric properties were not established and the contingency plan was, in fact, utilized. In this situation, the CATSO replaced the inadequate measures, as the constructs represented in Factor 1 and Factor 2 were believed to sufficiently represent ignoring and excluding behaviors, respectively. Attachment style scores were subjected to a one-way analysis of variance to test for differences across CATSO Factors 1 and 2. A main effect did not exist; therefore, a post hoc analysis was not conducted to identify which means were significantly different from the others in how they influenced willingness to ignore

(as measured by CATSO Factor 1) or exclude (as measured by CATSO Factor 2). Additionally, the contingency plan included Pearson correlations that were conducted to examine the relationship between place-attachment and CATSO Factor 1, as well as between place-attachment and CATSO Factor 2. A coefficient of 0.7 was used as the cutoff for both of the above analyses. A main effect did not exist for either analysis; therefore, post hoc analyses were not conducted. If statistically significant F values were, however, observed, a Bonferroni's correction would have been applied with an adjusted alpha level of 0.05 divided by the number of comparisons to accommodate the large number of variables. Lastly, relationships between demographic information and CATSO Factors 1 and 2 were examined in bivariate analyses, t-test, and ANOVAs to determine if any significant correlations exist.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine whether there are differences in willingness to ostracize for ignoring and excluding behaviors across attachment styles (secure, preoccupied, and dismissive-avoidant) when exposed to varying severities of sex-norm violations (low, moderate, and high for the WOSO; misdemeanor and felony for the OES–R). It was also anticipated that place-attachment would be analyzed as an independent variable when exploring the effect that it has on willingness to ostracize via ignoring and excluding behaviors. In an effort to do this, reliability and validity needed to first be established for measures that were created (WOSO) and adapted (OES–R) by the primary investigator. Since adequate psychometric properties were not established, a contingency plan was instead utilized which employed CATSO Factors 1 and 2 in lieu of these measures to examine community attitudes toward a sex offender's tendency to isolate socially, as well as capacity to change.

Attachment style scores were subjected to a one-way analysis of variance to test for differences across CATSO Factors 1 and 2. Pearson correlations were conducted to examine the relationship between place-attachment and CATSO Factor 1, as well as between place-attachment and CATSO Factor 2. A coefficient of 0.7 was used as the cutoff for both of these correlations with the expectation that a Bonferroni's correction would be applied with an adjusted alpha level of 0.05 divided by the number of comparisons if any F values indicated statistical significance. Lastly, relationships between demographic information and CATSO Factors 1 and 2 were examined in bivariate analyses, t-tests, and ANOVAS to determine if any significant correlations exist.

Participants were a nonrandom sample of individuals who were at least 18 years of age, were not previously convicted of a sex offense, were citizens of the United States, and have resided in the country for at least the past two consecutive years. These individuals were recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT) and were offered $1 compensation for completion of the survey. Once data was collected, two sets of analyses were conducted in an effort to group participants based on their attachment style. In the first analysis, a median split was used to categorize all individuals into one of four attachment styles (Solution #1). In the second, only individuals who fell above or below one standard deviation from the mean for *both* attachment-related dimensions were included in the analysis (Solution #2). In both analyses, those falling in the fearful-avoidant attachment style were omitted. A total of 596 participants were recruited from AMT, 522 of which constitute the final data set, as they met the inclusion criteria and passed the attention checks.

Chapter 3 Tables

Table 5

Number of Participant Responses for Each Inclusion Criteria Item

Inclusion Criteria Questions	Yes	No	Number of Participants Who Failed Inclusion Criteria
Have you been convicted of one or more sex offenses?	0	596	0
Are you 18 years of age or older?	596	0	0
Do you currently live in the United States	595	1	1
Are you currently a US citizen?	595	1	1
Have you always been a US citizen?	578	18	--
Since you answered "no" for question #5, have you lived in the US for the last 2 consecutive years?	18	0	0
Total Number of Participants Removed from Data: 2			

Table 6

Number of Failed Responses for Each Attention Check Item

Attention Check Item Number	Number of Participants Who Failed This Item
Item 1	2
Item 2	1
Item 3	4
Item 4	4
Item 5	2
Item 6	4
Item 7	4
Item 8	7
Item 9	7

Note. Table 2 Number of Failed Responses for Each Attention Check Item.

Table 7

Percentages and Frequencies; Demographic Variables, All Respondents

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Age Category of Respondent		
18-24	73	13.0%
25-34	236	42.1%
35-44	125	22.3%
45-54	63	11.2%
55-64	49	8.7%
65-74	14	2.5%
75 and older	1	0.2%
Race/ethnicity of Respondent		
White	433	77.2%
African-American/Black	42	7.5%
Hispanic/Latino	7	1.2%
Asian/Pacific Islander	37	6.6%
Other	7	1.2%
Gender of Respondent		
Female	314	56.0%
Male	244	43.5%
Transgender	3	0.5%

(table continues)

Table 7 (continued)

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Sexual Orientation		
Straight	486	86.6%
Gay	10	1.8%
Lesbian	11	2.0%
Bisexual	45	8.0%
Pansexual	6	1.1%
Other	3	0.5%
Marital Status		
Single (never married)	266	48.0%
Married (or domestic partnership)	230	41.0%
Widowed	6	1.1%
Divorced	53	9.4%
Separated	6	1.1%
N	561	100.0%

Table 8

Percentages and Frequencies; Demographic Variables for the Full Sample of Dismissive, Secure and Preoccupied Attachment Styles

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Age Category of Respondent		
18-24	41	9.4%
25-34	181	41.6%
35-44	104	23.9%
45-54	50	11.5%
55-64	44	10.1%
65-74	14	3.2%
75 and older	1	0.2%
Race/Ethnicity of Respondent		
White	382	77.2%
African-American/Black	37	7.5%
Hispanic/Latino	6	1.2%
Asian/Pacific Islander	33	6.6%
Other	6	1.2%
Gender of Respondent		
Female	278	56.0%
Male	215	43.5%
Transgender	3	0.1%

(table continues)

Table 8 (continued)

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Sexual Orientation		
Straight	429	86.6%
Gay	9	1.8%
Lesbian	9	2.0%
Bisexual	40	8.0%
Pansexual	5	1.1%
Other	3	0.1%
Marital Status		
Single (never married)	266	48.0%
Married (or domestic partnership)	230	41.0%
N	496	100.0%

Table 9

Percentages and Frequencies; Demographic Variables, Solution 2

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Age Category of Respondent		
18-24	37	8.6%
25-34	181	42.0%
35-44	104	24.1%
45-54	50	11.6%
55-64	46	10.7%
65-74	14	2.5%
75 and older	1	0.2%
Race/Ethnicity of Respondent		
White	335	77.7%
African-American/Black	35	8.1%
Hispanic/Latino	24	5.6%
Asian/Pacific Islander	26	6.0%
Other	7	1.6%
Gender of Respondent		
Female	241	55.0%
Male	187	43.4%
Transgender	3	0.7%

(table continues)

Table 9 (continued)

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Sexual Orientation		
Straight	381	86.4%
Gay	7	1.6%
Lesbian	6	1.4%
Bisexual	31	7.2%
Pansexual	3	0.7%
Other	3	0.7%
Marital Status		
Single (never married)	185	42.9%
Married (or domestic partnership)	193	44.8%
Widowed	5	1.2%
Divorced	44	10.2%
Separated	4	0.9%
N	431	100.0%

Table 10

Means and Standard Deviations; Full Sample Focal Variables for Dismissive, Secure, and Preoccupied Attachment Styles

Variable	Mean	Std. Dev.
Factor 1: Social Isolation	13.19	3.62
Factor 2: Capacity to Change	12.09	4.07
Income	6.10	2.09
Work with Sex Offenders	3.03	1.19
Sex Offender Victim	0.17	0.38
Children Under 18	1.00	0.00
Solution 1		
Dismissive	0.33	0.47
Secure	0.37	0.48
Preoccupied	0.30	0.46
Solution 2		
Dismissive	0.38	0.49
Secure	0.32	0.47
Preoccupied	0.29	0.46

Table 11

Means and Standard Deviations; Focal Variables, Solution 1

Variable	Mean	Std. Dev.
Factor 1: Social Isolation	13.19	3.67
Factor 2: Capacity to Change	12.16	4.13
Income	6.18	2.06
Work with Sex Offenders	0.18	0.13
Sex Offender Victim	0.17	0.37
Children Under 18	0.39	0.49
Solution 1		
Dismissive	0.23	0.47
Secure	0.27	0.49
Preoccupied	0.20	0.46

Table 12

Means and Standard Deviations; Focal Variables, Solution 2

Variable	Mean	Std. Dev.
Factor 1: Social Isolation	13.22	3.65
Factor 2: Capacity to Change	12.15	4.09
Income	6.18	2.04
Work with Sex Offenders	0.02	0.14
Sex Offender Victim	0.17	0.37
Children Under 18	0.38	0.48
Solution 2		
Dismissive	0.27	0.45
Secure	0.42	0.50
Preoccupied	0.25	0.43

Chapter 3 Figure

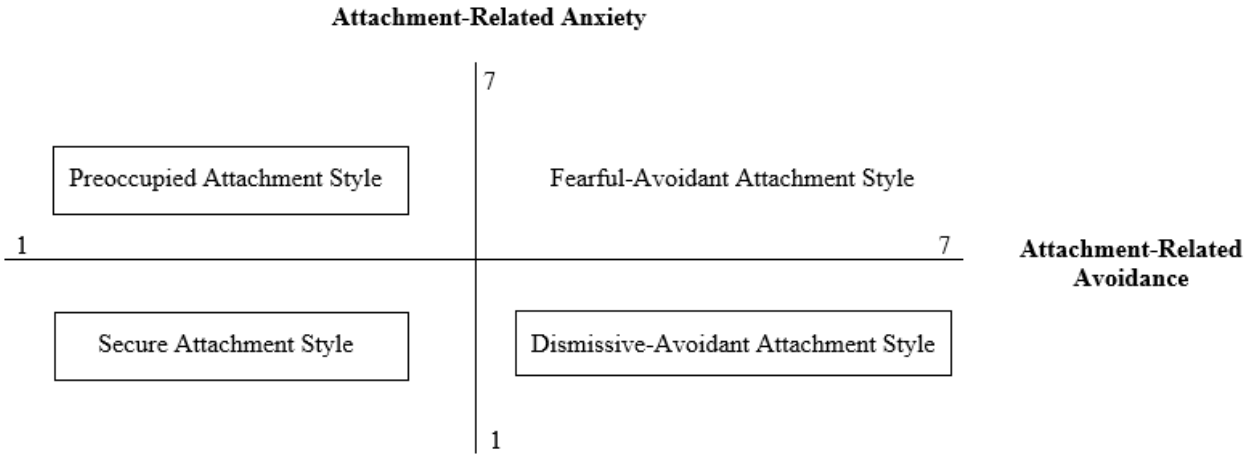

Figure 1. Attachment-Related Dimensions and the Three Attachment Styles Selected for This Study

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

This chapter presents the data analysis results for the current study. Implications of these findings are addressed in Chapter 5.

Psychometric Reliability and Validity

Results confirmed high reliability for the Willingness to Ostracize for Sex Offenses (WOSO) questionnaire subscales: low severity ($\alpha = 0.959$), moderate severity ($\alpha = 0.955$), and high severity ($\alpha = 0.971$). Results also confirmed high reliability for the Ostracism Experiences Scale-Revised (OES–R) questionnaire subscales: misdemeanor offense ($\alpha = 0.920$) and felony offense ($\alpha = 0.964$). Adequate reliability for the entire Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders (CATSO) questionnaire was also reconfirmed ($\alpha = 0.7$), as well the reliability for the CATSO dimensions utilized in this study: Factor 1 ($\alpha=0.758$) and Factor 2 ($\alpha = 0.845$). Although CATSO Factor 2 initially produced only moderate reliability ($\alpha = 0.497$), the Cronbach's Alpha dramatically increased ($\alpha = 0.845$) following removal of the item "With support and therapy, someone who committed a sexual offense can learn to change their behavior." These results are listed in Tables 13-15 and 17.

Results did not provide evidence for discriminant validity between the WOSO and OES–R ($0.18 < r < 0.40$, $p < .05$). For example, the WOSO Low Severity scale was moderately correlated with both the OES–R Misdemeanor scale ($r = .40$, $p < .01$) and the OES–R Felony scale ($r = .36$, $p < .01$). Similarly, the WOSO Moderate Severity scale was moderately correlated with both the OES–R Misdemeanor scale ($r = .34$, $p < .01$) and the OES–R Felony

scale ($r = .32$, $p < .01$). Results indicated weak correlations between the WOSO High Severity and both the OES–R Misdemeanor scale ($r = .18$, $p < .01$) and Felony scale ($r = .24$, $p < .01$); however, true discriminant validity should demonstrate a correlation of $r < .10$. Therefore, adequate discriminant validity could not be ascertained for any level of severity. Statistics from tests for evaluation of discriminant validity are provided in Table 16.

Adequate convergent validity also could not be determined for the OES–R or WOSO when compared to the CATSO. Results instead indicated weak, near-zero, correlations between the OES–R Misdemeanor scale and CATSO Factor 1 ($r = .10$, $p < .05$) and between the OES–R Felony scale and CATSO Factor 1 ($r = .10$, $p < .05$). These statistics are listed in Table 17. Results indicated moderate correlations between CATSO Factor 2 and all three of the WOSO severity scales: Low Severity ($r = .52$, $p < .01$), Moderate Severity ($r = .49$, $p < .01$), and High Severity ($r = .36$, $p < .01$). These statistics are listed in Tables 16-18. Statistics examining non-matched CATSO factors are referenced in the discriminant validity section above. Despite the intent to measure distinct constructs, the two measures of ostracism were more related (approximately 14–25% of the shared variance between the measures) than the measures with criterions theorized to measure the same construct. This resulted in a failure to find support for the validity of the measures. In addition, both instruments were similar in the extent to which they measured the factors reflected within the CATSO, in that they were both unrelated or weakly related to Factor 1 and were moderately related to Factor 2. Such findings may indicate that both instruments measure an individual's opinion regarding whether sex offenders have the capacity to change (original intention of CATSO Factor 2).

Despite having produced high reliability, neither the WOSO nor the OES–R yielded adequate convergent or divergent validity when correlated with one another and with the

CATSO (i.e., $r < 0.7$). As such, CATSO Factors 1 and 2 replaced the OES–R and WOSO, respectively, in all further analyses.

CATSO Factors 1 and 2 as a Function of Attachment Style

Attachment style scores were subjected to a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to test for differences across CATSO Factors 1 and 2. Separate analyses were conducted for Solution #1 and Solution #2, as described in Chapter 3. For Solution #1, participants were assigned to groups based on the sample median of each dimension (attachment-related anxiety and attachment-related avoidance), ensuring an equivalent number of people in each group. Those in the fearful-avoidant group were omitted from the analysis (i.e., 25% of the respondents). Solution #1 means and standard deviations for CATSO Factor 1 (belief that sex offenders have the tendency to isolate) are presented in Table 20. A one-way between-subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of each Solution #1 attachment style on CATSO Factor 1 for type of attachment style; dismissive-avoidant, secure, and preoccupied. ANOVA results indicated that there were not significant differences for the Dismissive-Avoidant attachment style, [$F(18,374) = .462$, $p = 0.960$], Secure attachment style, [$F(18,374) = .657$; $p = .836$], or Preoccupied Attachment Style [$F(18,374) = 0.87$, $p = 0.381$]. Solution #1 means and standard deviations for CATSO Factor 2 (belief that sex offenders have the capacity to change) are presented in Table 21. A one-way between-subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of each Solution #1 attachment style on CATSO Factor 2 for type of attachment style; dismissive-avoidant, secure, and preoccupied. ANOVA results did not revealed significant differences for the Dismissive-Avoidant attachment style [$F(18,374) = 0.893$, $p = .963$], Secure attachment style [$F(18,374) = 1.10$, $p = .836$], or Preoccupied Attachment Style [$F(18,374) =$

0.87, p = .380]. Because the F-values were non-significant for each of the attachment styles, further analyses were not conducted.

For Solution #2, the mean score and standard deviation for each dimension (e.g., attachment-related anxiety and attachment-related avoidance) were calculated. "Extremes" for both dimensions were designated (i.e., cutoffs) as one standard deviation above and below the mean. For this analysis, attachment style groups only included those who had scores falling in the extremes on both dimensions. Those categorized as fearful-avoidant were not included in the analysis. Solution #2 means and standard deviations for CATSO Factor 1 are presented in Table 22. ANOVA results did not revealed significant differences for the Dismissive-Avoidant attachment style [F(1,28) = 1.40, p = .123], Secure attachment style [F(1,28) = 0.77, p = .746], or Preoccupied Attachment Style [F(1,28) = 0.78, p = .731]. Solution #2 means and standard deviations for CATSO Factor 2 are presented in Table 23. Because the F-values were non-significant for each of the attachment styles, further analyses were not conducted. ANOVA results did not revealed significant differences for the Dismissive-Avoidant attachment style [F(1,28) = 0.60, p= .887], Secure attachment style [F(1,28) = 0.66, p = .830], or Preoccupied Attachment Style [F(1,28) = 1.04, p =.415].

Place-Attachment and CATSO Factors 1 and 2

Pearson Correlations were conducted to examine the relationship between place-attachment and CATSO Factor 1, as well as between place-attachment and CATSO Factor 2. Results indicated that place-attachment was a weak predictor for CATSO Factor 1 (r = 0.132, p < .01, as well as for CATSO Factor 2 (r = 0.138, p < .01). These statistics are listed in Tables 24 and 25.

Exploratory Analysis: Demographic Variables with CATSO Factors 1 and 2

Prior to data collection, four demographic variables were selected and hypotheses were created regarding how they influence ostracizing behaviors based on previous research. These four demographic variables were originally planned to be examined with the OES–R and WOSO, and are as follows: socioeconomic status, previous work with the sex offender population, having children under the age of 18, and being the survivor of sexual assault. Given that the OES–R and WOSO failed to meet tests of validity, these four demographic variables were instead examined with CATSO Factors 1 and 2.

All sociodemographic data were classified as nominal and analyzed utilizing either t-tests or ANOVAs depending upon whether the variable had 2 or 3+ categories. Bivariate relationships between demographic variables (e.g. whether a person: has children under the age of 18, has worked with the sex offender population, and/or is a survivor of past sexual abuse) and CATSO Factors 1 and 2 were examined using t-test (Ritchey, 2008). Given that the majority of participants self-identify as low (n = 129) and middle (n = 428) socioeconomic statuses, the *socioeconomic status* variable was analyzed as binomial (low and middle-high). When comparing those from a self-identified low socioeconomic background to those from a self-identified middle-high socioeconomic background, results indicated non-significance for both Factor 1 Social Isolation (t = -.017, p > .05) and Factor 2 Capacity to Change (t = .064, p > .05). These results are reported in Table 26. When comparing those who have worked with the sex offender population to those who have not, results indicated non-significance for both Factor 1 Social Isolation (t = -0.86, p > .05) and Factor 2 Capacity to Change (t = -0.80, p > .05). These results are reported in Table 27. When comparing those who have incurred sexual abuse to those

who have not, results indicated non-significance for both Factor 1 Social Isolation (t = 1.48, p > .05) and Factor 2 Capacity to Change (t = -1.38, p > .05). These results are reported in Table 28.

When comparing those who have children under the age of 18 to those who do not, results indicated significance for Factor 2 Capacity to Change (t = -2.22, p < .05), but insignificance for Factor 1 Social Isolation (t = -0.20, p > .05). It is the case that those with children under the age of 18 have a greater number of negative capacity to change attitudes (M = 13.11) compared to those who do not have children under the age of 18 (M = 11.65). These results are reported in Table 27. Additional analyses were conducted to determine whether there were gender differences in those with children under the age of 18 and their attitudes toward sex offenders' capacity to change. Results indicate that both female (t = -2.471, p < .05) and male (t = 2.533, p < 0.5) parents were significantly correlated with negative attitudes toward sex offenders' capacity to change. It is the case that females with children under the age of 18 (M =13.427) exhibit more negative attitudes toward sex offenders' capacity to change than females *without* children under the age of 18 (M = 12.316). Similarly, it is also the case that males with children under the age of 18 (M = 12.471) exhibit more negative attitudes toward sex offenders' capacity to change than males *without* children under the age of 18 (M = 11.080). When comparing males and females, there is not a statistically significant difference in their degree of negative attitudes toward sex offenders' capacity to change (t = 1.677, p > .05). However, when examining parents with children *above* the age of 18, there is a statistically significant difference between males and females (t = -2.930, p < .05), such that females (M = 13.427) have more negative attitudes toward sex offenders' capacity to change than males (M = 12.471).

Bivariate relationships between marital status and CATSO Factors 1 and 2 were also explored. Additionally, due to limited usable data from those who reported their gender as

transgender (n = 4) and other (n = 0), the *gender* variable in these analyses was classified as having 2 categories (male and female). T-test results indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between men and women on Factor 1 (Social Isolation) attitudes toward sex offenders ($t = 3.26$, $p < .001$). It is the case that men have a greater number of negative social isolation attitudes ($M = 14.09$) compared to women ($M = 13.05$). However, when examining attitudes between men and women regarding the capacity of sex offenders to change (CATSO Factor 2), while also statistically significant ($t = -3.83$, $p < .001$), women demonstrated more negative beliefs regarding sex offenders have the capacity to change ($M = 12.79$) compared to men ($M = 11.50$). These statistics are all reported in Table 30. When examining the differences between single and married individuals, results indicate that there is a statistically significant difference for both Factor 1 Social Isolation ($t = -2.35$, $p < .05$) and Factor 2 Capacity to Change ($t = 3.03$, $p < .01$). Those who are single have slightly more negative attitudes regarding the belief that sex offenders socially isolation ($M = 13.87$) compared to those who are married ($M = 13.13$). Those who are married have more negative attitudes toward sex offenders' capacity to change ($M = 12.68$) compared to those who are single ($M = 11.66$). These results are reported in Table 30.

Nominal sociodemographic data that was classified as having 3+ categories (e.g., sexual orientation) was then examined using an ANOVA. Results indicated that there was only statistically significant difference for Factor 2 Capacity to Change among the sexual orientations [$F(5, 554) = 2.42$, $p < .05$]. As such, Tukey's HSD is an appropriate post-hoc procedure. Results of the Tukey's HSD tests reveals that self-identified Lesbians have the most negative attitudes towards sex offenders' capacity to change ($M = 13.82$) compared to those who self-

identified as straight (M = 12.33), gay (M = 9.40), bisexual (M = 11.31), pansexual (M = 9.67), or other sexual orientation (M = 11.33). These statistics are reported in Table 32.

Summary

The first aim of data analysis was to establish psychometric soundness of the measures adapted and created for purposes of this study. Results indicated high reliability for the Ostracism Experiences Scale – Revised (OES–R) and the Willingness to Ostracize Sex Offenders Questionnaire (WOSO). In an effort to establish validity for these measures, the Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders (CATSO) scale was selected as a criterion measure, as two of its dimensions were believed to measure constructs similar those of the OES–R (CATSO Factor 1) and WOSO (CATSO Factor 2). Results, however, did not produce the expected relationships, thereby lacking support for the validity of the two measures. As such, CATSO Factors 1 and 2 were used in lieu of the OES–R and WOSO for all further analyses.

An ANOVA was used to test for differences in CATSO Factors 1 and 2 as a function of attachment style. There were no significant differences between group means for any of the attachment styles on either CATSO Factor 1 or Factor 2. Correlation analyses indicated that place-attachment was not related to a person's belief that sex offenders tend to isolate themselves (CATSO Factor 1), as well as the belief that sex offenders have the capacity to change (CATSO Factor 2).

In addition to the above analyses, various relationships between demographic information of participants and CATSO Factor 1 and 2 were explored. Results indicated several significant findings:

(1) Those who have children under the age of 18 in comparison to those who do not reported more negative attitudes regarding the capacity of sex offenders to change;

(2) Men in comparison to women reported more negative attitudes about sex offenders socially isolating;

(3) Women in comparison to men reported more negative beliefs about sex offenders' capacity to change;

(4) Those who are single in comparison to those who are married reported slightly more negative attitudes regarding the belief that sex offenders socially isolate;

(5) Those who are married in comparison to those who are single reported more negative attitudes toward sex offenders' capacity to change; and

(6) Of the listed sexual orientations, self-identified lesbians reported the greatest negative attitudes toward sex offenders' capacity to change in comparison to those who self-identify as straight, bisexual, pansexual, or other.

Chapter 4 Tables

Table 13

Internal Consistency Values (Cronbach α) of the Measures and Individual Scales

Measure	Scale	α
Willingness to Ostracize for Sex Offenses Questionnaire (Low Severity)	Public Masturbation	0.921
	Indecent Exposure	0.911
	Voyeurism	0.918
	Low Severity Scale Total	*0.959*
Willingness to Ostracize for Sex Offenses Questionnaire (Moderate Severity)	Frotteurism	0.919
	Statutory Rape	0.935
	Stalking	0.94
	Moderate Severity Scale Total	*0.955*
Willingness to Ostracize for Sex Offenses Questionnaire (High Severity)	Rape	0.936
	Child Sex Abuse	0.927
	Sex Trafficking	0.95
	High Severity Scale Total	*0.971*
Ostracism Experiences Scale–Revised	Misdemeanor Scale	0.92
	Felony Scale	0.964
Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders Questionnaire	Factor 1 Scale	0.758
	Factor 2 Scale	0.497
	Factor 2 Scale (w/o support & therapy variable)	0.845
	Full Scale Total	*0.72*

Table 14

Item-Total Statistics for Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offender Scale Factor 1 (Cronbach α)

Question	Scale Mean	Scale Variance	Item-Total Correlation
Most sex offenders do not have close friends	10.89	9.339	.579
Sex offenders prefer to stay home alone rather than be around lots of people.	10.77	9.438	.598
Sex offenders have difficulty making friends even if they try really hard.	10.59	8.900	.594
Most sex offenders are unmarried men	10.94	10.931	.323
Most sex offenders keep to themselves	10.73	9.624	.608

Table 15

Item-Total Statistics for Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offender Scale Factor 2 (Cronbach α)

Question	Scale Mean	Scale Variance	Item-Total Correlation
Convicted sex offenders should never be released from prison	12.59	6.435	.655
Sex offenders should wear tracking devise so their location can be pinpointed at any time.	11.97	6.515	.651
People who commit sex offenders should lose their civil rights (e.g., voting and privacy).	12.02	6.339	.657
Trying to rehabilitate a sex offender is a waste of time.	12.67	7.591	.429
With support and therapy, someone who committed a sexual offense can learn to change their behavior.	12.18	16.131	-.601

Table 16

Pearson Correlation Results, Willingness to Ostracize for Sex Offenses Questionnaire and Ostracism Experiences Scale–Revised

Measure	Misdemeanor	Felony
1. Low Severity Scale	0.40**	0.36**
2. Moderate Severity Scale	0.34**	0.32**
3. High Severity Scale	0.18**	0.24**

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .01, *** = p < .001, two-tailed tests. n = 552.

Table 17

Item-Total Statistics for Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders Scale Factor 2 (Cronbach α) with Item Deleted

Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Convicted sex offenders should never be released from prison	12.59	6.435	0.655	0.148
Sex offenders should wear tracking devices so their location can be pinpointed at any time.	11.97	6.515	0.651	0.156
People who commit sex offenses should lose their civil rights (e.g., voting and privacy).	12.02	6.339	0.657	0.140
Trying to rehabilitate a sex offender is a waste of time.	12.67	7.591	0.429	0.329
With support and therapy, someone who committee a sexual offense can learn to change their behavior.	12.18	16.131	-0.601	0.845

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .01, *** = p < .001. n = 552.

Table 18

Pearson Correlation Results, Ostracism Experiences Scale–Revised and Community Attitudes toward Sex Offenders Scale Factors 1 & 2

Measure	Factor 1	Factor 2
1. Misdemeanor	0.10*	0.53**
2. Felony	0.10*	0.50**

Note: *= p < .05, ** = p < .01, *** = p < .001, two-tailed tests. n=552.

Table 19

Pearson Correlation Results, Willingness to Ostracize for Sex Offenses Questionnaire and Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders Scale Factors 1 & 2

Measure	Factor 1	Factor 2
1. Low Severity Scale	0.08	0.52**
2. Moderate Severity Scale	0.07	0.49**
3. High Severity Scale	-0.01	0.36**

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .01, *** = p < .001, two-tailed tests. n = 552.

Table 20

One-Way Analysis of Variance for Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders Questionnaire Factor 1 with Type of Attachment; Solution #1

Attachment Style	M	SD	F	df	p
Dismissive	0.33	0.47	0.462	18, 374	0.960
Secure	0.37	0.48	0.657	18, 374	0.836
Preoccupied	0.30	0.46	0.870	18, 374	0.381

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .01, *** = p < .001. N = 393.

Table 21

One-Way Analysis of Variance for Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders Questionnaire Factor 2 with Type of Attachment; Solution #1

Attachment Style	M	SD	F	df	p
Dismissive	0.33	0.47	0.893	18, 374	0.963
Secure	0.37	0.48	1.100	18, 374	0.836
Preoccupied	0.30	0.46	0.870	18, 374	0.380

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .01, *** = p < .001. N = 393.

Table 22

One-Way Analysis of Variance for Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders Questionnaire Factor 1 with Type of Attachment; Solution #2

Attachment Style	M	SD	F	df	p
Dismissive	0.01	0.12	1.40	1, 28	0.123
Secure	0.04	0.19	0.77	1, 28	0.746
Preoccupied	0.19	0.13	0.78	1, 28	0.731

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .01, *** = p < .001. N = 431.

Table 23

One-Way Analysis of Variance for Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders Questionnaire Factor 2 with Type of Attachment; Solution #2

Attachment Style	M	SD	F	df	p
Dismissive	0.01	0.12	0.60	1, 28	0.887
Secure	0.04	0.19	0.66	1, 28	0.830
Preoccupied	0.19	0.13	1.04	1, 28	0.415

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .01, *** = p < .001. N = 431.

Table 24

Pearson Correlation Results; Placement Attachment Inventory and Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders Questionnaire Factor 1

Measure	Factor 1	Factor 2
1. Place Attachment (PAI) scale	1.0	0.132**
2. Factor 1	0.132**	1.0

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .01, *** = p < .001, two-tailed tests. n=561.

Table 25

Pearson Correlation Results, Placement Attachment Inventory and Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders Scale Factor 2

Measure	Factor 1	Factor 2
1. Place Attachment Inventory	1.0	0.138**
2. Factor 2	0.138**	1.0

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .01, *** = p < .001, two-tailed tests. n=561.

Table 26

Bivariate Correlations for Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders Questionnaire Factors 1 and 2 with Socioeconomic Status

Variable	1	2	3
1. Factor 1	--	.132**	-.017
2. Factor 2	.132**	--	.064
3. Socioeconomic Status	-.017	.064	--

Note. * p < .05, ** p < .01

Table 27

Independent Sample t-Test for Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders Questionnaire Factors 1 and 2; Comparison of Those Who Have and Have Not Worked with Sex Offenders

	Work with Sex Offenders		No Work with Sex Offenders			
Variable	M	SD	M	SD	t	p
Factor 1: Social Isolation	14.50	5.66	13.47	3.74	-0.86	.389
Factor 2: Capacity to Change	13.20	4.69	12.17	4.00	-0.80	.423

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .01, *** = p < .001, two-tailed tests.

Table 28

Independent Sample t-Test for Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders Questionnaire Factors 1 and 2; Comparison of Those Who Have and Have Not Experienced Sexual Abuse

	History of Past Sexual Abuse		No History of Past Sexual Abuse			
Variable	M	SD	M	SD	t	p
Factor 1: Social Isolation	12.98	3.70	13.59	3.78	1.48	
Factor 2: Capacity to Change	12.69	4.29	12.08	3.94	-1.38	

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .01, *** = p < .001, two-tailed tests.

Table 29

Independent Sample t-Test for Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders Questionnaire Factors 1 and 2; Comparison of Those with and without Children Under the Age of 18

	Those with Children Under 18		Those without Children Under 18			
Variable	M	SD	M	SD	t	p
Factor 1: Social Isolation	13.53	3.81	13.47	3.75	-0.20	.884
Factor 2: Capacity to Change	13.11	3.88	11.65	3.99	-2.22	***

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .01, *** = p < .001, two-tailed tests.

Table 30

Independent Sample t-Test for Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders Factors 1 and 2; Comparison of Males and Females

	Male		Female			
Variable	M	SD	M	SD	t	p
Factor 1: Social Isolation	14.09	3.87	13.05	3.61	3.26	***
Factor 2: Capacity to Change	11.5	3.89	12.79	3.99	-3.83	***

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .01, *** = p < .001, two-tailed tests.

Table 31

Independent Sample t-Test for Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders Questionnaire Factors 1 and 2; Comparison of Single and Married Individuals

	Single		Married			
Variable	M	SD	M	SD	t	p
Factor 1: Social Isolation	13.87	3.86	13.13	3.68	-2.35	*
Factor 2: Capacity to Change	11.66	3.85	12.68	4.09	3.03	**

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .01, *** = p < .001, two-tailed tests.

Table 32

One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of Sexual Orientation on Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders Questionnaire Factor 1 and Factor 2

	Straight		Gay		Lesbian		Bisexual		Pansexual		Other			
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F	df
Factor 1: Social Isolation	13.47	3.70	13.80	4.37	12.36	4.11	13.73	4.24	13.67	5.35	13.33	4.73	0.250	5, 554
Factor 2: Capacity to Change	12.33	3.87	9.40	4.50	13.82	4.96	11.31	4.34	9.67	5.16	11.33	5.86	2.42*	5, 554

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .01, *** = p < .001.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

The current study set out to examine the effect of attachment style on willingness to ostracize through ignoring and excluding behaviors. Place-attachment was also a construct of interest in how it affects willingness to ostracize. Before hypotheses pertaining to these variables could be explored, however, psychometric soundness of measures proposed for use in this study were tested. These measures included the Willingness to Ostracize Sex Offenders (WOSO) questionnaire and the Ostracism Experiences Scale–Revised (OES–R). In an effort to establish validity of the WOSO and OES–R, the Community Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders (CATSO) scale was selected for statistical comparison. Although not a perfect representation, the CATSO has two dimensions believed to be closely related to excluding and ignoring behaviors of ostracism targeted at the sex offender population. More specifically, CATSO Factor 1 was believed to measure properties similar to ignoring behaviors and CATSO Factor 2 was believed to measure properties similar to excluding behaviors. An interpretation of the findings will be provided next, followed by limitations and recommendations for future studies.

Findings and Interpretations

The following sections present the findings and interpretations of data reported in Chapter 4. For organizational purposes, a format similar to Chapter 4 will be followed.

Psychometric Properties of the Measures

Establishing psychometric soundness requires adequate reliability and validity. Results confirmed high reliability for the WOSO and OES–R. Additionally, adequate reliability for the

CATSO was reconfirmed for the full measure, as well as for the two subscales utilized in this study (Factors 1 and 2). Consistent with the reported reliability of the Ostracism Experiences Scale for Adolescents (Gilman et al., 2013), the modified version of this measure (OES–R) produced a remarkably similar reliability coefficient. Additionally, results in this study indicated a reliability coefficient similar to that of Church et al. (2008) for CATSO Factor 1. Contradictory to the findings of Church et al. (2008), CATSO Factor 2 yielded only moderate reliability; however, reliability dramatically improved for CATSO Factor 2 once the item "With support and therapy, someone who committed a sexual offense can learn to change their behavior" was removed. A reliability coefficient similar to that of Church et al. (2008) was then yielded. Despite proper reverse scoring, responses on this item were opposite of what would be expected based on the findings of Church et al. (2008). One explanation for the unreliability of this item is that it is the only item within CATSO Factors 1 and 2 that requires reverse scoring and is, therefore, subject to the consequences of response directionality.

Validity was then assessed once reliability was established for all three measures. First, in an effort to provide evidence for the WOSO and OES–R measuring distinct constructs, the strength of relationship was calculated between measures with the expectation that a weak correlation would occur. Results, however, did not lend evidence for discriminant validity; thereby questioning the two-dimensional model of ostracism; it may be the case that ignoring and excluding are more similar than distinct constructs within ostracism. Furthermore, a linear gradient of correlation existed between the WOSO and OES–R based on level of severity. For example, the WOSO Low Severity Scale was somewhat correlated with the OES–R Misdemeanor Scale and the OES–R Felony Scale. The WOSO Moderate Severity Scale was also somewhat correlated with the OES–R Misdemeanor Scale and the OES–R Felony Scale.

However, the WOSO High Severity Scale demonstrated only a low correlation with the OES–R Misdemeanor Scale and the OES–R Felony Scale. These findings can be explained by the fact that individuals become more reactionary with increasing norm violation severity, thereby more readily demonstrating behaviors that are consistent with those intended to be measured by the OES–R and WOSO. However, the latter findings still do not meet criteria for true discriminant validity (e.g., $r < .01$).

In an effort to test whether the created and adapted measures adequately assess their intended constructs, the strength of relationship was then tested between OES–R and its comparison measure (CATSO Factor 1), as well as between the WOSO and its comparison measure (CATSO Factor 2). Results from the convergent validity analyses, however, indicated very weak correlations for the OES–R Misdemeanor and Felony scales when compared to CATSO Factor 1. Therefore, evidence for convergent validity specific to the OES–R was not found, as it appears to measure a construct very different than that of CATSO Factor 1. Other results from convergent validity analyses did reflect moderate correlations for the WOSO Low, Moderate, and High Severity scales when compared to CATSO Factor 2, thereby indicating that the WOSO measures a construct somewhat similar to CATSO Factor 2, but not adequately so. In sum, adequate evidence for discriminant and convergent validity was not found for the OES–R or WOSO when examined in correlational analyses with CATSO Factors 1 and 2.

The most realistic explanation for low validity of the OES–R and WOSO is inadequate measure development. Although content validity analyses were conducted by subject matter experts prior to the experiment, a preliminary qualitative study should have been conducted to more effectively create instruments measuring the constructs of ostracism (e.g., ignoring and excluding behaviors) before such constructs were tested against other variables of interest (e.g.

attachment style and place-attachment). Without adequate measures, it is impossible to know whether a relationship exists between ostracizing behaviors and the other variables of interest.

Relatedly, although CATSO Factors 1 and 2 were selected as instruments by the primary investigator to measure constructs similar to those of ignoring and excluding behaviors – not only as comparative instruments, but also as backup instruments to measure ostracizing behaviors in the event that psychometric soundness could not be obtained for the OES–R and the WOSO – it may be the case that CATSO Factors 1 and 2 constructs validated by the original authors are less similar to ignoring and excluding behaviors than assumed by the primary investigator. The CATSO was originally developed for the purpose of determining how emotional reactions and firmly held attitudes are influenced by the level of knowledge one has regarding the sex offender population (Church et al., 2008). When examining subscales within the measure, items within CATSO Factor 1 (e.g., belief that sex offenders have a tendency to isolate) and Factor 2 (e.g., belief that sex offenders should be punished for their actions) originally appeared to capture constructs similar enough to those of ignoring and excluding behaviors; furthermore, other comparative measures could not be located by the primary investigator which tapped into similar construct domains. As such, CATSO Factors 1 and 2 were selected by the primary investigator for the current study. Church et al. (2008) expressed similar frustration with the deficiency of measures regarding citizen's responses to the sex offender population. As such, it may be the case that CATSO Factors 1 and 2 did not serve as adequate comparison measures for ostracizing behaviors targeted at the sex offender population.

Another possibility for inadequate validity of the WOSO and OES–R is the infrequent distinction between excluding and ignoring behaviors of ostracism within the literature. Although contemporary research utilizes a two-dimensional model of ostracism (Crick et al.,

2009; Gilman et al., 2013; Rubin, Coplan, & Bowker, 2009) where behaviors are classified as either ignoring or excluding, Gilman et al. (2013) described a significant lack of instruments measuring these behaviors separately. While the Ostracism Experiences Scale for Adolescents (OES–A) does, in fact, contain both dimensions of ostracizing behaviors (ignoring and excluding), items within the OES–A excluding dimension are not generalizable to all situations, such as known ostracizing behaviors targeted at the sex offender population. Therefore, the excluding dimension of the OES–A could not be utilized in this study. Such paucity of instruments may simply reflect the nascence of the two-dimensional model of ostracism; however, it is also very possible that a lack of validated instruments reveals an inability of researchers to substantiate claims of separate constructs. At their bare essence, both ignoring and excluding prevent a person from participating in normatively prescribed activities within their environment. Although they have separate functions – *excluding* removes a person's access to the social environment, whereas *ignoring* treats a person as invisible (or non-existent) while maintaining the person's access to the social environment (Deater-Deckard, 2001) – both typically occur within the same situation. As such, separating these constructs into independent measures (OES–R and WOSO) may have been too polarizing, thereby skewing results.

Due to the fact that adequate validity could not be obtained for the created and adapted measures, CATSO Factor 1 and Factor 2 replaced the OES–R and WOSO in all further analyses conducted within this study. Based on the aforementioned logic, it is questionable as to whether the CATSO Factors 1 and 2 measure constructs similar enough to ignoring and excluding behaviors; therefore, the remaining sections of this chapter will interpret findings based on the original constructs of the CATSO, rather than those intended by the current primary investigator. As such, CATSO Factor 1 (Social Isolation) will represent the belief that sex offenders have a

tendency to isolate themselves from others and CATSO Factor 2 (Capacity to Change) will represent the belief that sex offenders have the capacity to change. Low scores on both CATSO factors represent fewer negative attitudes toward the sex offender population, whereas high scores represent more negative attitudes toward the sex offender population. Interpretation of findings is as follows.

Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders as a Function of Attachment Style

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to test for differences in whether the belief that sex offenders tend to socially isolate themselves is a function of attachment style. In this analysis, CATSO Factor 1 was utilized as a measure for attitudes toward the sex offender population and the *Emotional Closeness in Relationships–Revised* (ECR–R) questionnaire was utilized as a measure for determining attachment style. Results indicated no statistically significant differences between group means for any of the attachment styles. This was consistent across Solution #1 and #2.

Another one-way ANOVA was conducted to test for differences in whether the belief that sex offenders have the capacity to change is a function of attachment style. In this analysis, CATSO Factor 2 was utilized as a measure for attitudes toward the sex offender population and the ECR–R was utilized as a measure for determining attachment style. Results indicated no statistically significant differences between group means for any of the attachment styles. This was consistent across Solution #1 and #2.

Based on the fundamental tenets of Attachment Theory, the formative bonds that children have with caregivers tremendously affect their interpersonal relationships and self-identity throughout life (Chopik, Edelstein, & Fraley, 2013). How a person conceptualizes and responds to every situation is guided by this behavioral system (Brumbaugh & Fraley, 2010). As such,

obtaining insignificant findings regarding attitudes toward the sex offender population as a function of attachment style is surprising. If a person's attachment style guides how they conceptualize a situation, it should also influence how a person conceptualizes their beliefs about the sex offender population, a group of individuals deemed dangerous by society. One possibility for these insignificant findings is that the term "sex offender" used in the CATSO may have been interpreted in a general sense, thereby lacking any indication of the offense severity. As such, a higher level of threat may have been perceived by participants (Schultz, 2014) regardless of the attachment style, thereby influencing results.

Relationship between Place-Attachment and Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders

Pearson correlations were conducted between place-attachment and attitudes toward the sex offender population. In the first analysis, the Place Attachment Inventory (PAI) was utilized as a measure for place-attachment and CATSO Factor 1 was utilized as a measure of the belief that sex offenders tend to isolate themselves socially. In the second analysis, the PAI was again utilized as a measure for place-attachment and CATSO Factor 2 was utilized as a measure of the belief that sex offenders have the capacity to change. In both analyses, place-attachment was a weak predictor for attitudes toward the sex offender population. Despite hypotheses of place-attachment demonstrating a positive relationship with attitudes toward the sex offender population (e.g., high place-attachment being correlated with more negative attitudes toward the sex offender population), the two constructs were not significantly related.

According to Place-Attachment Theory, the feelings and experiences that people have toward their physical environment are as important as the sociopolitical context of the environment itself (Brown & Perkins, 2012). Similarly, the interpersonal relationships people have with those inhabiting the environment also influence the person-environment bond. Higher

levels of satisfaction across these dimensions increase one's place-attachment, which can influence their commitment to preserving the environment (Scannell & Gifford, 2010). For this reason, it is surprising that individuals who have a higher level of place-attachment are not more likely to believe that sex offenders tend to isolate themselves socially, as it is less threatening to believe that sex offenders are isolated from the environment one feels connected to.

In hindsight, it is not surprising to observe a lack of relationship between place-attachment and the belief that sex offenders have the capacity to change. Many of the questions in CATSO Factor 2 are related to enforcing punishments for norm violations in order to remedy future infractions. Described in Miller and Hoelter's (2007) research published by the National Council on Institutions and Alternatives (NCIA) indicate that sex offenders are believed by the general public to have the highest level of recidivism. Said differently, there is little hope for successful rehabilitation and change of behavior. Therefore, the lack of relationship between place-attachment and the belief that sex offenders can change makes sense in that it suggests a sense of hopelessness in the effectiveness of social punishments against the sex offender population.

Exploratory Analysis of Demographic Information and Attitudes Toward Sex Offenders

Findings for this section will be reported in the order of hypotheses given in Chapter 1 and 3. Results indicate that there is not a significant relationship between participants from a self-identified lower SES in comparison to participants from a self-identified medium to high SES and their attitudes toward the sex offender population. This is true for the belief that sex offenders having a tendency to isolate socially, as well as the belief that sex offenders have the capacity to change. These results are surprising, as studies have shown that individuals from lower SES backgrounds can become desensitized to acts of violence (Akers & Sellers, 2012),

which the author of the current study believed would affect attitudes. However, according to Wakefield (2006) sex offenders are often considered to be the most vilified criminals of the offender population. Therefore, it may be the case that regardless of desensitization to criminal acts, individuals from lower SES backgrounds may maintain their beliefs and attitudes toward the sex offender population.

Results also indicate that there is not a significant relationship between those who have and those who have not worked with the sex offender population regarding their propensity toward negative attitudes. This is true for the belief that sex offenders have a tendency to isolate socially, as well as the belief that sex offenders have the capacity to change. These results are surprising, as studies have shown that those who work with sex offenders have a greater propensity to empathize with this population (Ward & Durrant, 2013), which the author of the current study believed would affect attitudes. However, according to Wastell, Cairns, and Haywood (2009) a common guideline for working with the sex offender population is encouraging "victim empathy" to reduce recidivism rates. Therefore, it may be the case that those who work with sex offenders differ from others in that they have a greater biopsychosocial understanding of sexual offending, but maintain negative attitudes toward sexual offenders comparable to those of the general population due to the fact that they are trained to focus on victim empathy.

Results also indicated that having children under the age of 18 is associated with more negative attitudes regarding sex offenders' capacity to change (CATSO Factor 2), but is not associated with attitudes regarding sex offenders' tendency to isolate. Research indicates that parents demonstrate heightened protection of their children from risk factors that may cause endangerment (Eibach & Mock, 2011). As such, it is understandable why having children under

the age of 18 is significantly correlated with CATSO Factor 2, as items capture a strong desire to punish sex offenders, a population viewed as a threat to many parents.

Results also indicate that experiences of sexual assault do not predict attitudes toward the sex offender population. This is true for beliefs about sex offenders having a tendency to isolate themselves socially, as well as beliefs about sex offenders having the capacity to change. Weihe and Giacomazzi (2013) found similar findings in their study, concluding that although female victims of sexual assault may doubt the ability of sex offenders to change, they maintain hope that rehabilitation may be effective for decreasing recidivism rates. As such, current findings in this study regarding a lack of correlation between past sexual assault and attitudes toward the sex offender population are consistent with those in the literature.

In addition to hypothesis-specific findings, additional exploratory data was yielded within this study, results of which are as follows. First, men in comparison to women have more negative beliefs about the tendency of sex offenders to socially isolate. This finding is not surprising, as a significant body of research has demonstrated gender differences in social isolation, particularly in how individuals respond behaviorally when faced with difficulty (Vandervoort, 2000). Therefore, it would seem appropriate that men maintain a belief system that sex offenders socially isolate post-incarceration.

The second exploratory finding is that women in comparison to men have more negative attitudes toward sex offenders' capacity to change. Research has demonstrated time and again that women are far more vulnerable to sexual assault (Luce, Schrager, & Gilchrist, 2010), which can easily justify why women have less faith in sex offenders' capacity to change their behaviors. However, research on gender differences in emotional empathy must also be considered. According to Goleman (2011), women on average have a greater capacity for

emotional empathy than men. According to research in the field of neuroscience, one important brain region that facilitates empathy is the insula, a structure responsible for translating how the body perceives another's emotions (e.g., seeing their body language, hearing their speech) into a comprehensive, within-context understanding of that person's experience; in turn, the brain is able to mimic what others are feeling (Singer, Critchley, & Preuschoff, 2009). This function of adopting emotions occurs for both women and men; however, gender differences manifest in how long the brain maintains emotional empathy. For men, emotional empathy tends to last for shorter durations than for women. Although this serves to insulate men against distress, the capacity for women to extend feelings of emotional empathy facilitates nurture and support. Such differences in biobehavioral bases of affiliation are termed "Tend-and-Befriend" responses (Taylor, 2006). In the context of this research, it would seem fathomable for women to empathize with sex offenders' emotional distress, especially when directions within the questionnaires overview adverse effects of ostracism, in turn facilitating belief in their potential for behavioral change. Because the data instead reveal more negative attitudes toward capacity to change, it is likely the case that self-preservation (e.g., suspicion of future behaviors) trumps empathy.

The third exploratory finding is that those who are single in comparison to those who are married have slightly more negative attitudes regarding the belief that sex offenders socially isolate. This finding is not surprising, as it may be the case that respondents were projecting their own level of isolation. Research has demonstrated that being single is one of the most significant contributors to social isolation (Pantell, 2013). Given the fact that single respondents in comparison to married respondents had more negative attitudes toward sex offenders isolating

themselves socially, it may be the case that participants were answering based on their personal level of social isolation.

The fourth exploratory finding is that those who are married in comparison to those who are single have more negative attitudes toward sex offenders' capacity to change. Interestingly, this is similar to the finding that having children under the age of 18 is correlated with more negative attitudes toward sex offenders' capacity to change. Given that there is a significant overlap in this study's sample with being married and having children under the age of 18, it is difficult to decipher whether each variable independently contributes to more negative attitudes regarding sex offenders' capacity to change or whether there is a compound effect.

The fifth exploratory finding is that self-identified lesbians have the highest number of negative attitudes toward sex offenders' capacity to change in comparison to all other sexual orientations (e.g., straight, bisexual, pansexual, or other). An extensive literature review failed to produce any research on lesbian attitudes toward constructs other than LGBTQ-related issues. As such, there is significant gap in scientific literature that requires attention. Without any foundational knowledge, it is impossible to theorize possible explanations for this study's findings regarding lesbian attitudes toward the sex offender population.

Limitations of this Study

Despite the careful preparedness of this research study, there are still many limitations and shortcomings that must be addressed. Most importantly, there is a shortage of research on the subject matter in which this study was constructed, thereby requiring methodological innovation and validation. Although substantial effort was put forth during the developmental phase to ensure adequate psychometric properties of the WOSO and OES–R, such as conducting content validity analyses based on the input of subject matter experts, validity could not be

confirmed during data analysis. However, even if validity had been confirmed during data analysis, interpretation of results may have resulted in a type of research bias called surrogate error due to the closed-ended questions within this exploratory study. In hindsight, the dissertation would have been better suited as a qualitative study focusing solely on the development of an ostracism measure targeted at the sex offender population, rather than attempting to also measure how attachment theory and place-attachment influence willingness to ostracize the sex offender population.

It is also important to highlight that item wording of the OES–R and WOSO may have minimized emotional discomfort for participants, thereby decreasing participants' ability to accurately interpret how strongly they would have acted in situations if given the opportunity to ostracize sex offenders. For example, both instruments utilize either the definitions of individual sex offenses or the general classifications of sex offenses, rather than creating live situations. Research has repeatedly demonstrated that humans are poor predictors of how they would actually respond in situations (Danner, Aarts, & Vries, 2008). Furthermore, what individuals imagine when they read a particular offense cannot be controlled (e.g., for some, human trafficking may call to mind television shows or other accounts with which they are familiar, while for others, human trafficking may be more of an intellectual construct). Therefore, not having captured ostracism of real sex offenders is a limitation of this study.

Another limitation is the use of the ECR–R in this study when classifying attachment styles. Fraley, Waller, and Brennan (2000) recommend that scores for attachment-related anxiety and avoidance be examined independently to account for individual differences within each dimension. Adopting a continuum-based model, however, complicates measuring complex interactions with attachment, such as those proposed in this study. Therefore, a categorical

variable for attachment style was established. Two solutions were proposed, both of which yielded insignificant findings. Although an adequate sample size was reached for Solution #1 (a minimum of 24 participants for each attachment style and 96 total participants for the entire sample), an inadequate number of participants were collected for Solution #2. A power analysis utilizing the frequencies from Konrath et al. (2014) and a 17,531-person sample of ECR–R data provided by Chris Fraley projected the following number of minimum required participants for Solution #2: 18 secure-attachment, 15 preoccupied-attachment, and 17 dismissive-avoidant-attachment. Instead, the actual number of participants were 16 secure-attachment, 8 preoccupied-attachment, and 6 dismissive-avoidant-attachment. Based on the number of participants in the current sample pool, it is projected that approximately 1,656 participants (three times the number of current participants) would be needed to meet the minimum number estimated in the power analysis for Solution #2. Due to budgetary restrictions, this could not be accomplished. As such, a low sample size was a limitation of this study, which may have affected the distribution of responses intended by the authors of the ECR–R based on their sample.

The recruitment of participants through Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT) resulted in another limitation of the study pertaining to the sample. Although AMT has become a common mode of data collection in modern-day research, response times were surprisingly fast for the number of items administered in this study. However, there were very few individuals who failed the attention checks. Despite these promising results, it is possible that participants learned to look for attention checks and quickly acquire a general understanding of response directionality to guide rapid responding. This notion is evidenced by surprisingly low reliability for the CATSO Factor 2 item, “With support and therapy, someone who committed a sexual

offense can learn to change their behavior," which is the only item within the CATSO scale that is reverse scored. In addition, response directionality has implications for the WOSO and OES–R because both measures were structured so that none of the items required reverse scoring. As such, individuals who did not read items closely and instead repeatedly selected similar responses would have artificially inflated the reliability of these measures.

Recommendations for Future Research

In consideration of the above limitations, the following recommendations are made. First, an exploratory study focusing solely on the ostracism of sex offenders is recommended. For example, an observational study could be conducted where investigators observe subjects and measure their levels of ostracism when interacting in a room where a confederate assumes the role of a sex offender. This type of research could draw a conclusion by comparing subjects against a control group where there is not a confederate present. Additionally, a qualitative study could be conducted to gain an understanding of underlying reasons, opinions, and motivations for ostracism of the sex offender population. This type of study would provide insights into the construct and help develop hypotheses for future quantitative research. Data collection methods could include utilizing unstructured or semi-structured techniques, such as focus groups and individual interviews. Although time consuming and expensive, longitudinal studies could also be conducted that would examine ostracizing patterns across the lifespan to better resolve whether experiences (e.g., having children, being a victim of a violent crime, etc.) influence willingness to ostracize.

Secondly, it is possible that ostracizing behaviors are influenced by the presence of others. For example, a person may be more or less willing to ostracize a sex offender based on the ostracizing behaviors of others who are present in a group. Therefore, it is recommended that

future research explores how social constructs such as *groupthink* and social conformity affect levels of ostracism. Groupthink is a phenomenon that occurs when the desire for harmony or conformity in a group of people results in collective decision-making outcomes/behaviors that overpower the opinions of individual members. Those who do not conform are considered outgroup members and face consequences by those who do conform (in-group members), such as ostracism (Baron, 2005). As such, it would be interesting to observe how one's ostracism toward a member of the sex offender population differs one-on-one compared to interactions taking place in a group setting.

Tangentially related, it may also be of interest to examine whether patterns of ostracizing *within* the sex offender population differ on an individual versus group basis. It may be the case that when in pairs, sex offenders may demonstrate more empathy toward one another, but in turn demonstrate ostracizing behaviors toward other sex offenders when in a group comprised of multiple types of sex offenders. This is of particular importance within the context of a prison setting. In a captivating article overviewing the keynote address at the 12th International Qualitative Health Research Conference, Waldram (2007) discusses the hierarchy of inmates, roles of which are many times dictated by the offense type and/or severity. One example could be those convicted of rape looking down on those convicted of child sexual assault, resulting in many sex offenders attempting to conceal their criminal charges for self-preservation. Therefore, studies examining the role of ostracism within the sex offender population, particularly within a prison setting, would be aligned with research already alluding to the strong presence of ostracism.

Although findings within the current study are few, the preliminary data and literature review can serve as a platform for future research. For example, results indicate that having

children under the age of 18 is correlated with beliefs regarding punishment of the sex offender population. Although these results are not surprising given that parents demonstrate heightened protection of their children from risk factors that may cause endangerment (Eibach & Mock, 2011), it is surprising that there is no relationship between participants who have incurred sexual assault and their attitudes toward the sex offender population. Similar findings were reported by Weihe and Giacomazzi (2013), who also utilized the CATSO in their study. As such, it is interesting that attitudes toward the sex offender population are more strongly influenced by participants' protection of their children from potential harm than by their own sexual trauma. It is possible that these findings can be conceptualized from an evolutionary perspective with the premise that parents have a vested interest in the survival of their children to continue the family lineage. However, does this drive exceed self-preservation? Can one extrapolate this stance to other criminal populations?

Another area for future research is to utilize constructs that have preexisting theoretical relationships within the literature. Although it is novel to link attachment theory, place-attachment, and ostracism together in one study, doing so while simultaneously utilizing new measures made the study too convoluted for any usable data to be yielded. Therefore, it is highly recommended that qualitative studies first focus on adequate measure development, then subsequent studies can examine ostracism with one novel variable at a time. For example, one study could explore whether people feel personally threatened by sex offenders of varying levels of offense severity. Another study could assess differences in responding based upon whether a threatening situation arises beyond having knowledge of being in the presence of a sex offender. Do responses differ if a person is in a new environment (e.g., the lab) versus a familiar environment (e.g., own neighborhood)?

Although there are several limitations to this study, it has providing promising directions for future research. Beginning stages for examining willingness to ostracize the sex offender population has occurred for the first time within the literature. Additionally, this study has highlighted significant relationships between certain demographic variables and attitudes toward the sex offender population. Therefore, despite limitations, endeavors of this study were nonetheless worthwhile.

Summary

The current study began with the intention of examining ostracizing behaviors targeted at the sex offender population when offense severity was considered. Little attention in the research has been given to *individual factors* predisposing willingness to ostracize, such as attachment style and place-attachment. An even smaller subset of the literature describes ostracizing behaviors targeted at the sex offender population. Furthermore, there appears to be no instruments measuring willingness to ostracize others regardless of the perceived threat. Utilizing Attachment Theory as a lens to explain human behavior, this dissertation sought to explore whether there are differences in willingness to ostracize across attachment styles (secure, preoccupied, and dismissive-avoidant) when exposed to varying degrees of sex offense severity. Place-attachment was also explored as a variable influencing willingness to ostracize.

Results collected from an adult convenience sample in the U.S. supported reliability for the OES–R and the WOSO; however, evidence of validity was not yielded. As such, CATSO Factors 1 and 2 were utilized in lieu of the OES–R and WOSO, respectively. Due to a lack of evidence supporting the notion that CATSO Factor 1 represents ignoring behaviors and CATSO Factor 2 represents excluding behaviors, the CATSO dimensions were interpreted based on their original intention; attitudes toward the sex offender population. Utilizing the CATSO, one

significant finding specific to the hypotheses was yielded: having children under the age of 18 is correlated with the belief that sex offenders have the capacity to change. Additionally, significant exploratory relationships between other demographic variables (e.g., gender, marital status, sexual-identity) and attitudes toward the sex offender population were observed. Discussion of the limitations focused on the exploratory nature of this study, followed by recommendations on how future research could be conducted more effectively through qualitative methods.

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APPENDIX A

Demographics Form

1) **What is your age?**

___ 17 or younger
___ 18–24 years old
___ 25–34 years old
___ 35–44 years old
___ 45–54 years old
___ 55–64 years old
___ 65–74 years old
___ 75+ years

2) **What is your sex?**

___ Male
___ Female
___ Transgender
___ Other

3) **What is your ethnicity?**

___ White
___ Hispanic or Latino
___ Black or African American
___ Native American or American Indian
___ Asian / Pacific Islander
___ Other

4) **What is your sexual orientation?**

___ Straight
___ Gay
___ Lesbian
___ Bi-sexual
___ Pansexual
___ Other

5) What is your marital status?

___ Single (never married)
___ Married (or domestic partnership)
___ Widowed
___ Divorced
___ Separated

6) What is your highest level of education (if currently enrolled, last level completed)?

___ Kindergarten to 8th grade
___ Some high school, no diploma
___ High school graduate, diploma or the equivalent (for example: GED)
___ Some college credit, no degree
___ Trade/technical/vocational training
___ Associate's degree
___ Bachelor's degree
___ Master's degree
___ Doctorate degree

7) **What is your employment status?** *(check all that apply)*

___ Employed for wages
    ___ Full time?
    ___ Part time?
___ Self-employed
    ___ Full time?
    ___ Part time?
___ Unemployed
___ Homemaker
___ Student
    ___ Full time?
    ___ Part time?
___ Military
___ Retired
___ Unable to work

8) What is your geographic location?

Region 1: Northeast

___ Division 1: Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont
___ Division 2: New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania

Region 2: Midwest

___ Division 3: Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin
___ Division 4: Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota

Region 3: South

___ Division 5: Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, Washington D.C., and West Virginia
___ Division 6: Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Tennessee
___ Division 7: Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas

Region 4: West

___ Division 8: Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Utah, and Wyoming
___ Division 9: Pacific Alaska, California, Hawaii, Oregon, and Washington

9) Which description best fits the neighborhood in which you live?

___ Low income or socioeconomic status (SES)
___ Medium income or socioeconomic status (SES)
___ High income or socioeconomic status (SES)

10) Do you rent or own your place of residence?

___ Rent
___ Own

11) How long have you lived in your current neighborhood?

___ Less than 1 year
___ 1–3 years
___ 4–6 years
___ 7–10 years
___ 11–15 years
___ 16–20 years
___ 21+ years

12) How much longer are you planning on living in your current neighborhood?

___ Less than 6 months
___ 6 months to 1 year
___ 2–5 years
___ 6–10 years
___ More than 10 years

13) Please indicate the number of children you have in each age group:

Infant/baby: ___
Preschool: ___
Elementary: ___
Middle school: ___
High school: ___
Adult: ___

14) In the past week have you participated in activities outside of family and work (e.g., going to church, spending time with friends, etc.)?

___ Yes
___ No

15) What is your *total* combined family income for the past year (includes wages, rent from investment properties, social security, disability benefits, child support, etc.)?

___ Less than $5,000
___ $5,000 – $11,999
___ $12,000 – $15,999
___ $16,000 – $24,999
___ $25,000 – $34,999
___ $35,000 – $49,999
___ $50,000 – $74,999
___ $75,000 – $99,999
___ $100,000 – $125,000
___ $125,000 – $150,000
___ $151,000+

16) Do you consider yourself to be religious or spiritual?

___ Yes
___ No

If you answered yes, what is your religion and how religious/spiritual do you believe yourself to be on a scale ranging from 1–7 (1 = not very; 7 = very)?)

___ Buddhist
___ Catholic
___ Christian (non-denominational)
___ Hindu
___ Jehovah's Witness
___ Jewish
___ Protestant
___ Orthodox Christian
___ Mormon
___ Muslim
___ Spiritual
___ Other

17) Is English your first language?

___ Yes
___ No

If you answered no, please provide the following information:

Age at which you became conversational in English: ____

18) Have you ever been convicted of a crime?

___ Yes
___ No

If you answered yes, have you ever been convicted of a felony charge?

___ Yes
___ No

19) Do you know of anyone who has been convicted of a sexual offense?

___ Yes
___ No

If yes, please provide the following information:

Number of people you know convicted of a sex offense: ___
Specify the capacity in which you know the person/people *(check all that apply):*

___ Friend
___ Family member
___ Romantic partner
___ Co-worker
___ Neighbor
___ Acquaintance
___ Other

20) Do you work/volunteer with the sex offender population?

___ Yes
___ No

21) Have you ever advocated for legislation of sex offenders (for or against)?

___ Yes
Please describe: _____
___ No

22) What is your involvement with the criminal justice system?

___ None
___ Employment
Please describe: _____
___ Volunteer
Please describe: _____

23) Did you vote in the last election cycle?

___ Yes
___ No

24) Have you ever been the victim of non-consensual sexual contact?

___ Yes
___ No

25) Have any of your close friends or family ever been the victim of non-consensual sexual contact?

___ Yes
___ No

26) Have you ever been the victim of a violent crime?

___Yes
___ No

27) Are you responding to these questions in a private setting (e.g., your home) or in a public setting where your answers are visible to others around you (e.g., coffee house or library)?

___ Private
___ Public

APPENDIX B

The Willingness to Ostracize for Sex Offenses Questionnaire

Please read the following:

People convicted of a sex offense receive ***legal punishments*** such as jail or prison time. They are also monitored through parole after completing their jail or prison sentence. Because convicted sex offenders are often seen as the worst kind of criminal, they also face many social consequences. For example, they have problems finding housing, being hired for a job, and going to public places (e.g., schools, playgrounds, and toy isles in stores). Convicted sex offenders often are avoided by family, friends, neighbors, and community members. In the case of felony charges, convicted sex offenders must list their name, address, and nature of their crime in the sex offender registry. Because this personal information is available to the public, some felony sex offenders have been assaulted and harassed.

The above examples are called ***social consequences***. Social consequences can include being ignored and excluded for not fitting social standards. These social consequences may lead to unemployment, financial difficulties, and relationship problems for convicted sex offenders. Sometimes they may also lead to exclusion from family and friends. This can mean that convicted sex offenders have no close relationships. For these reasons, increased emotional problems such as depression and suicide can occur. Therefore, social consequences serve as a powerful type of punishment for convicted sex offenders.

Instructions:

Below are 9 sex crimes and their definitions. You will be asked several questions about your feelings toward people who were convicted of these crimes. Please picture a 30-year-old male who is a first time sex offender of your same race or ethnicity, and who can afford to live in your neighborhood. Prison or jail time has already been completed. The same set of questions will be asked for each crime. You will be asked how willing you are to exclude a person who committed each crime in four different social situations. If one situation is not applicable to you (e.g., you are *not* employed or do *not* have children), please imagine yourself in that role.

5) ***Employment***: How willing are you to work in the same company (or if your company is large, work in the same department) as a *person convicted of the sex crime*? For example, how much would you try to avoid working with this person?
6) ***Residency***: How willing are you to be neighbors with a *person convicted of the sex crime*? For example, how much would you try to stop this person from living in your neighborhood?
7) ***Notification***: Sometimes, people receive notification of a sex offender moving into their neighborhood. How willing are you to share this information with others so they know to stay away from a *person convicted of the sex crime?* For example, how much would you try to keep others away from this person?

8) ***Children***: How willing are you to have your children go to a playground or school/daycare where a *person convicted of the sex crime* is allowed? For example, would you keep your kids away from areas where this person is allowed to go?

WOSO Items:

1) **Frotteurism:** achieving sexual stimulation or orgasm by touching and rubbing against a person without that person's consent (usually in a public place)

How willing are you to exclude a person convicted of frotteurism from . . .	*Not at all Willing*						*Extremely Willing*
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
. . . working in your company (or department)?							
. . . living in your neighborhood?							
. . . places where your children visit?							
. . . interacting with others by warning them about his criminal history and sharing his personal information?							

2) Public Masturbation: the public stimulation of one's own genitals for sexual gratification

How willing are you to exclude a person convicted of public masturbation from . . .	*Not at all Willing*						*Extremely Willing*
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
. . . working in your company (or department)?							
Pick "Not at all willing" for this item							
. . . living in your neighborhood?							
. . . places where your children visit?							
. . . interacting with others by warning them about his criminal history and sharing his personal information?							

3) Rape: unlawful sexual intercourse or any other sexual penetration of the vagina, anus, or mouth of another person, with or without force, by a sex organ, other body part, or foreign object, without the consent of the victim

How willing are you to exclude a person <u>convicted of rape</u> from . . .	*Not at all Willing*						*Extremely Willing*
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*
. . . working in your company (or department)?							
. . . living in your neighborhood?							
. . . places where your children visit?							
. . . interacting with others by warning them about his criminal history and sharing his personal information?							

4) Stalking: the act of repeatedly following and harassing another person

How willing are you to exclude a person <u>convicted of stalking</u> from . . .	Not at all Willing						Extremely Willing
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
. . . working in your company (or department)?							
. . . living in your neighborhood?							
Pick "Not at all willing" for this item							
. . . places where your children visit?							
. . . interacting with others by warning them about his criminal history and sharing his personal information?							

5) Child Sexual Abuse: a range of indecent or sexual activities between an adult and a child, usually under the age of 14

How willing are you to exclude a person <u>convicted of child sexual abuse</u> from . . .	Not at all Willing						Extremely Willing
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
. . . working in your company (or department)?							
. . . living in your neighborhood?							
. . . places where your children visit?							
. . . interacting with others by warning them about his criminal history and sharing his personal information?							

6) Indecent Exposure: the act of intentionally showing one's sexual organs in public

How willing are you to exclude a person convicted of indecent exposure from . . .	Not at all Willing						Extremely Willing
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
. . . working in your company (or department)?							
. . . living in your neighborhood?							
. . . places where your children visit?							
. . . interacting with others by warning them about his criminal history and sharing his personal information?							

7) Sex Trafficking: the illegal movement of people for the purposes of commercial sexual exploitation

How willing are you to exclude a person convicted of sex trafficking from . . .	Not at all Willing						Extremely Willing
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
. . . working in your company (or department)?							
Pick "Not at all willing" for this item							
. . . living in your neighborhood?							
. . . places where your children visit?							
. . . interacting with others by warning them about his criminal history and sharing his personal information?							

8) Voyeurism: spying on people engaged in intimate behaviors, such as undressing, sexual activity, or other actions usually considered private in nature; this may involve photography or video surveillance for personal use.

How willing are you to exclude a person convicted of voyeurism from . . .	Not at all Willing						Extremely Willing
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
. . . working in your company (or department)?							
. . . living in your neighborhood?							
. . . places where your children visit?							
. . . interacting with others by warning them about his criminal history and sharing his personal information?							

9) Statutory Rape: an adult who sexually penetrates a person who, under the law, is incapable of consenting to sex (e.g., minors, and physically and mentally incapacitated persons)

How willing are you to exclude a person convicted of statutory rape from . . .	Not at all Willing						Extremely Willing
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
. . . working in your company (or department)?							
. . . living in your neighborhood?							
. . . places where your children visit?							
. . . interacting with others by warning them about his criminal history and sharing his personal information?							

APPENDIX C

Step by Step Analysis of the WOSO Development

STEP ONE:

Literature was reviewed in an effort to develop the WOSO items. Original items included excluding and ignoring items. Items are as follows:

- Employment restrictions
- Residency restrictions
- Separation from one's children
- Restriction from places with children
- Travel restrictions
- Sex offender registration (available to the community)
- Notification of neighbors
- Social harassment
- Exclusion from family
- Exclusion from friends

Literature was also reviewed in an effort to develop the WOSO severity classifications. Original classifications are as follows:

- ***Low:*** No intended victim
- ***Moderate:*** Non-consenting victim; no penetration or intention of penetration
- ***High:*** Non-consenting victim; with penetration or intention of penetration (in the case of human trafficking for sexual purposes)

STEP TWO:

A first version of the WOSO was drafted as follows:

Instructions: Below is a list of *social punishments* that can be incurred by those who commit sex offenses. This list is not exhaustive, but rather contains commonly observed social punishments for sex offenders after they return to the community following incarceration.

- Employment restrictions
- Residency restrictions
- Separation from one's children
- Restricted from places with children
- Travel restrictions
- Sex offender registration (available to community members)

- Notification of neighbors
- Social harassment
- Exclusion from family
- Exclusion from friends

Below is a list of sex crimes and their definitions. For each crime, please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with the use of each social punishment for that crime. Scoring will be on a scale ranging from 1 to 7 (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree). Remember, social punishments occur after offenders have returned to the community following their incarceration. The crimes should be considered in isolation, rather than in the context of the offender (prior convictions, sex, age, race, religion, sexual identity, employment).

1) **Frotteurism:** achieving sexual stimulation or orgasm by touching and rubbing against a person without that person's consent (usually in a public place)
2) **Urinating in Public:** urinating in a public place other than a restroom
3) **Rape:** unlawful sexual intercourse or any other sexual penetration of the vagina, anus, or mouth of another person, with or without force, by a sex organ, other body part, or foreign object, without the consent of the victim
4) **Exhibitionism:** exposing one's genitals to a stranger without touching the other person; in some cases, the exhibitionist masturbates during the exposure
5) **Child Sexual Abuse/Molestation:** a range of indecent or sexual activities between an adult and a child, usually under the age of 14
6) **Streaking:** the act of running naked through a public place as a prank, an act of protest, or in response to social pressure
7) **Human Trafficking for Sexual Purposes:** the illegal movement of people for the purposes of commercial sexual exploitation
8) **Voyeurism:** spying on people engaged in intimate behaviors, such as undressing, sexual activity, or other actions usually considered private in nature; this may involve photography or video surveillance
9) **Sex in Public:** performance of a sexual behavior that occurs either in a public place (e.g., park, car, public bathroom) or in a private place observable by the public (e.g., backyard, bedroom with the curtains open

STEP THREE:

Subject matter experts (SMEs) were selected based on publications they have contributed to either of these fields or whether their website indicated that ostracism or treatment of sex offenders is an area that they specialize in. Publications were generated from Google Scholar. Treatment providers were selected by conducting a search of sex offender treatment providers. Referrals for treatment providers were also given to the author from professional contacts. Approximately two hundred individuals were contacted via email (for both the first and second content validity analysis). These individuals were informed that they were selected to participate in the content validity analysis of the WOSO Questionnaire, as they are considered experts in the field of ostracism or treatment of sex offenders. Emails also included a brief description of the study, as well as a link to the WOSO Questionnaire with questions needed to evaluate offenses, punishments, and instructions using CVA in Qualtrics.

STEP FOUR:

Subject matter experts (SMEs) who chose to participate were asked to rate whether each social punishment is essential for measurement of sex offender ostracism, as well as whether each sex offense is essential for its respective severity of norm violation. SMEs were also given an opportunity to recommend changes and suggest additional items. Once in Qualitrics, SMEs were provided with the following directions:

> *This survey is designed to assess content validity for the Willingness to Ostracize for Sex Offenses questionnaire (WOSO) created by Meghan Lee. Given that the WOSO Questionnaire was created for purposes of Ms. Lee's dissertation, a Content Validity Analysis (CVA) will be conducted in an effort to demonstrate adequate content validity. This will be determined by administering the WOSO Questionnaire to 10 subject matter experts (SME) in the fields of ostracism and treatment of sex offenders, measuring the degree to which items in the WOSO represent social punishment used in response to sex offenses. As such, YOU were pre-selected by Ms. Lee as one subject matter expert.*
>
> *You will be asked to rate whether or not each social punishment is essential for the measurement of ostracism for sex offenses, as well as whether or not each sex offense is essential for its respective severity of norm violation. You will also be given the opportunity to recommend changes and additional items. Below is the questionnaire that you will be evaluating.*
>
> ***The Willingness to Ostracize for Sex Offenses (WOSO) Questionnaire***
>
> ***Instructions:*** *Below is a list of social punishments that can be incurred by those who commit sex offenses. This list is not exhaustive, but rather contains commonly observed social punishments for sex offenders after they return to the community following incarceration.*
>
> - *Employment restrictions*
> - *Residency restrictions*
> - *Separation from one's children*
> - *Restricted from places with children*
> - *Travel restrictions*
> - *Sex offender registration (available to community members)*
> - *Notification of neighbors*
> - *Social harassment*
> - *Exclusion from family*
> - *Exclusion from friends*
>
> *Below is a list of sex crimes and their definitions. For each crime, please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with the use of each social punishment for that crime. Scoring will be on a scale ranging from 1 to 7 (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree). Remember, social punishments occur after offenders have returned to the community following their incarceration. The crimes should be considered in isolation, rather than in the context of the offender (prior convictions, sex, age, race, religion, sexual identity, employment).*

1) ***Frotteurism:*** *achieving sexual stimulation or orgasm by touching and rubbing against a person without that person's consent (usually in a public place)*
2) ***Urinating in Public:*** *urinating in a public place other than a restroom*
3) ***Rape:*** *unlawful sexual intercourse or any other sexual penetration of the vagina, anus, or mouth of another person, with or without force, by a sex organ, other body part, or foreign object, without the consent of the victim*
4) ***Exhibitionism:*** *exposing one's genitals to a stranger without touching the other person; in some cases, the exhibitionist masturbates during the exposure*
5) ***Child Sexual Abuse/Molestation:*** *a range of indecent or sexual activities between an adult and a child, usually under the age of 14*
6) ***Streaking:*** *the act of running naked through a public place as a prank, an act of protest, or in response to social pressure*
7) ***Human Trafficking for Sexual Purposes:*** *the illegal movement of people for the purposes of commercial sexual exploitation*
8) ***Voyeurism:*** *spying on people engaged in intimate behaviors, such as undressing, sexual activity, or other actions usually considered private in nature; this may involve photography or video surveillance*
9) ***Sex in Public:*** *performance of a sexual behavior that occurs either in a public place (e.g., park, car, public bathroom) or in a private place observable by the public (e.g., backyard, bedroom with the curtains open*

Subject matter experts were then provided with the following questions:

Please rate whether the following social punishments are essential or not for the WOSO:

	Yes, the item is essential	No, the item is not essential
Employment Restrictions	○	○
Residency Restrictions	○	○
Separation from One's Children	○	○
Restriction from Places with Children	○	○
Travel Restrictions	○	○
Sex Offender Registration (available to community members)	○	○
Notification of Neighbors	○	○
Social Harrassment	○	○
Exclusion from Family	○	○
Exclusion from Friends	○	○

Do you recommend changes to any of the above items? If so, please write your feedback in the space below. Please clearly indicate which item(s) you are referring to.

Because Amazon Mechanical Turk will be utilized, participants will be recruited from across the United States. As such, there is no specific jurisdiction to reference when classifying sexual offenses in this study. Therefore, the following classification for low, moderate, and high categories of severity was created by Ms. Lee:

- ***Low:*** No intended victim
- ***Moderate:*** Non-consenting victim; no penetration or intention of penetration
- ***High:*** Non-consenting victim; with penetration or intention of penetration (in the case of human trafficking for sexual purposes)

Using these parameters, a list of sex offenses was reviewed and three were chosen for each classification, creating a total list of nine sex offenses that will be used in this study.

- ***Low Severity*:** streaking, public urination, and sex in public without the intention of being seen by others
- ***Moderate Severity*:** exhibitionism, voyeurism, and frotteurism
- ***High Severity*:** rape, human trafficking, and child molestation

Please rate whether the following sex offenses for the Low Severity classification are essential or not for the WOSO:

	Yes, the item is essential	No, the item is not essential
Streaking: the act of running naked through a public place as a prank, an act of protest, or in response to social pressure	○	○
Urinating in Public: urinating in a public place other than a rest room	○	○
Sex in Public: performance of a sexual behavior that occurs either in a public place (e.g., park, car, public bathroom) or in a private place observable by the public (e.g., backyard, bedroom with the curtains open	○	○

Do you recommend changes to any of the above items? If so, please write your feedback in the space below. Please clearly indicate which item(s) you are referring to.

Please rate whether the following classifications of sex offenses are essential or not for the WOSO:

	Yes, the classification is essential	No, the classification is not essential
Low: No intended victim	○	○
Moderate: Non-consenting victim; no penetration or intention of penetration	○	○
High: Non-consenting victim; with penetration or intention of penetration (in the case of human trafficking for sexual purposes)	○	○

Do you recommend changes to any of the above items? If so, please write your feedback in the space below. Please clearly indicate which item(s) you are referring to.

Please rate whether the following sex offenses for the Moderate Severity classification are essential or not for the WOSO:

	Yes, the item is essential	No, the item is not essential
Exhibitionism: exposing one's genitals to a stranger without touching the other person; in some cases, the exhibitionist masturbates during the exposure	○	○
Frotteurism: achieving sexual stimulation or orgasm by touching and rubbing against a person without that person's consent (usually in a public place)	○	○
Voyeurism: spying on people engaged in intimate behaviors, such as undressing, sexual activity, or other actions usually considered private in nature; this may involve photography or video surveillance	○	○

Do you recommend changes to any of the above items? If so, please write your feedback in the space below. Please clearly indicate which item(s) you are referring to.

Please rate whether the following sex offenses for the High Severity classification are essential or not for the WOSO:

	Yes, the item is essential	No, the item is not essential
Rape: unlawful sexual intercourse or any other sexual penetration of the vagina, anus, or mouth of another person, with or without force, by a sex organ, other body part, or foreign object, without the consent of the victim	○	○
Human Trafficking for Sexual Purposes: the illegal movement of people for the purposes of commercial sexual exploitation	○	○
Child Sexual Abuse/Molestation: a range of indecent or sexual activities between an adult and a child, usually under the age of 14	○	○

Do you recommend changes to any of the above items? If so, please write your feedback in the space below. Please clearly indicate which item(s) you are referring to.

Please any comments/suggestions about the instructions of the WOSO:

Please provide any additional comments/suggestions about the WOSO. This includes additional item recommendations:

Responses were anonymously coded in Qualtrics and later analyzed in Excel. Eleven SMEs responded to the first CVA request.

STEP FIVE:

Content validity estimates were obtained in two ways: through expert judge agreement using a Table of Specifications and by calculating Lawshe's Content Validity Ratio, a formula to quantify consensus among experts regarding the content of an instrument. The generally acceptable estimate with expert judges' agreement is .8 (Lawshe, 1975). Using this acceptable estimate, *only one SME disagreement is allowed* for each item on the WOSO Questionnaire based on the total number of respondents obtained for each CVA. Regarding Lawshe's content validity ratio, when all experts say the description is appropriate, the computed CVR is 1. The formula is as follows:

$$CVR = \frac{n_e - N/2}{N/2}$$

Where:

n_e= the number of experts who agreed on the relevance of the item, behavior, or question

N= total members of the panel of expert judges.

For each of the two CVAs, SME responses were coded into the Tables of Specification (Appendix D-E). Additional comments provided by the SMEs are listed in Appendices F and G. Averages were calculated and Lawshe's content validity ratio test was performed for each question. Results from the first CVA indicated that the nine item survey (with ten different response options each) produced mixed results. For example, only five social punishments depicted a better than chance agreement of essentiality

Question	**Content Validity**	**Adequate Content Validity?**
Employment Restrictions	0.82	Yes
Residency Restrictions	0.82	Yes
Separation from One's Children	0.6	No
Restriction from Places with Children	0.82	Yes
Travel Restrictions	0.4	No
Sex Offender Registration (available to the community)	0.82	Yes
Notification of Neighbors	0.8	Yes
Social Harassment	-0.2	No
Exclusion from Family	0	No
Exclusion from Friends	0	No

Original WOSO Content Validity for Social Punishments

When analyzing the three severity classifications in the original WOSO, one category *did not* obtain better than chance agreement of essentiality

Question	Content Validity	Adequate Content Validity?
*Low (*no intended victim)	0.09	No
*Moderate (*non-consenting victim; no penetration or intention of penetration)	0.82	Yes
*High (*non-consenting victim; with penetration or intention of penetration (in the case of human trafficking for sexual purposes)	1	Yes

Original WOSO Content Validity for Classification Categories

When analyzing the nine sex offenses categorized by severity grouping in the original WOSO, three sex offenses *did not* obtain better than chance agreement of essentiality

Question	Content Validity	Adequate Content Validity?
(Low) Streaking	0.09	No
(Low) Urinating in Public	0.45	No
(Low) Sex in Public	0.64	No
(Moderate) Exhibitionism	0.82	Yes
(Moderate) Frotteurism	0.82	Yes
(Moderate) Voyeurism	0.82	Yes
(High) Rape	1	Yes
(High) Human Trafficking	1	Yes
(High) Child Sexual Abuse	1	Yes

Original WOSO Content Validity for Sex Offenses

STEP SIX:

Utilizing the above data, as well as suggestions provided by the SMEs, a revised WOSO was created. Removing the five social punishments without adequate content validity, the five remaining social punishments were maintained: *employment restrictions, residency restrictions, restrictions from places with children, sex offender registration (available to the community),* and *notification of neighbors*. The primary investigator further decided to remove *sex offender registry* from the list of social punishments, as this is believed to be a legal punishment more so than a social punishment.

In regards to the classification of sex offense severity, it was restructured to include the following definitions: *low severity* (no contact but with non-consenting people), *moderate severity* (non-violent contact involving either: (1) non-consensual non-penetrative contact or (2) wanted contact with individuals who cannot provide consent (e.g., minors or vulnerable adults)), and *high severity* (non-consensual contact that is violent or penetrative). Using this new

classification system, revisions were made to the nine sex offenses. Sex offenses in the low severity category are: *masturbating in public, indecent exposure,* and *voyeurism*. Sex offenses in the moderate severity category are*: stalking, frotteurism,* and *statutory rape.* Sex offenses in the high severity category are: *rape, sex trafficking,* and *child sexual abuse.*

STEP SEVEN:

A second CVA was conducted by requesting that subject matter experts review the revised WOSO Questionnaire. The same subject matter experts were first invited to participate. Then, additional subject matter experts in the field of ostracism or treatment of sex offenders were contacted via email (same procedure delineated above for the first content validity analysis). In total, 10 subject matter experts completed the second content validity analysis questionnaire. Instructions provided to subject matter experts is as follows:

> *This survey is designed to assess content validity for The Willingness to Ostracize for Sex Offenses questionnaire (WOSO) created by Meghan Lee. Given that the WOSO Questionnaire was created for purposes of Ms. Lee's dissertation, a Content Validity Analysis (CVA) will be conducted in an effort to demonstrate adequate content validity. This will be determined by administering the WOSO Questionnaire to 10 subject matter experts (SME) in the fields of ostracism and treatment of sex offenders, measuring the degree to which items in the WOSO represent social punishment used in response to adult sex offenses. As such, YOU were pre-selected by Ms. Lee as one of the subject matter experts.*
>
> *You will be asked to rate whether or not each social punishment is essential for the measurement of ostracism for adult sex offenses, as well as whether or not each adult sex offense is essential for its respective severity of norm violation. You will also be given the opportunity to recommend changes and additional items. Below is the questionnaire that you will be evaluating.*

The Willingness to Ostracize for Sex Offenses (WOSO) Questionnaire

Instructions: Below is a list of social punishments that can be incurred by adults who commit sex offenses. This list is not exhaustive, but rather contains commonly observed social punishments for adult sex offenders after they return to the community following incarceration.

1) *Employment restrictions:* Sex offenders face limited job opportunities, as many companies will not hire individuals previously convicted of a sex offense for liability reasons. For example, if an employee commits a sex offense on the job, that company can be held liable for negligent hiring or negligent retention of a person who is a known risk.
2) *Residency restrictions:* Many times sex offenders are prohibited from living within a certain distance from schools or other organizations that where children frequent. Depending upon the nature of their crime, some sex offenders are not allowed to live within a certain distance of a child. Additionally, many neighborhoods do not allow sex offenders to reside within their boundaries.

3) *Restricted from places with children:* Some sex offenders are not allowed to visit places where children frequent (e.g., school, daycare, and playgrounds). This can also include certain areas within a business establishment (e.g., toy isle).
4) *Sex offender registration (available to community members):* The sex offender registry is a system that allows government authorities to keep track of the residence and activities of sex offenders, including those who have completed their criminal sentences. Registration is accompanied by residential address notification requirements. The information in the registry is made available to the general public via a website or other means.
5) *Notification of neighbors:* Some companies provide a service where individuals can be notified when a sex offender has moved into their neighborhood. This notification will provide the sex offender's name, as well as his or her address.

Below is a list of sex crimes and their definitions. For each crime, please indicate on a scale from 1 to 7 (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree) how strongly you agree or disagree with the use of each social punishment for that crime. Remember, social punishments occur after adult offenders have returned to the community following incarceration. Sex crimes should be considered in isolation, rather than in the context of the offender (e.g., prior convictions, sex, age, race, religion, sexual identity, and employment).

1) *Frotteurism*: achieving sexual stimulation or orgasm by touching and rubbing against a person without that person's consent (usually in a public place)
2) *Public Masturbation*: the public stimulation of one's own genitals for sexual gratification
3) *Rape*: unlawful sexual intercourse or any other sexual penetration of the vagina, anus, or mouth of another person, with or without force, by a sex organ, other body part, or foreign object, without the consent of the victim
4) *Stalking*: the act of repeatedly following and harassing another person
5) *Child Sexual Abuse*: a range of indecent or sexual activities between an adult and a child, usually under the age of 14
6) *Indecent Exposure*: the act of intentionally showing one's sexual organs in public
7) *Sex Trafficking*: the illegal movement of people for the purposes of commercial sexual exploitation
8) *Voyeurism*: spying on people engaged in intimate behaviors, such as undressing, sexual activity, or other actions usually considered private in nature; this may involve photography or video surveillance for private use
9) *Statutory Rape*: an adult who sexually penetrates a person who, under the law, is incapable of consenting to sex (e.g., minors, and physically and mentally incapacitated persons)

Please rate whether the following classifications of sex offenses are essential or not for the WOSO:

	Yes, the classification is essential	No, the classification is not essential
Low: no contact but with non-consenting people	○	○
Moderate: non-violent, but involves unwanted contact or wanted contact with an individual who cannot consent	○	○
High: unwanted contact that is violent or penetrative and unwanted	○	○

Do you recommend changes to any of the above items? If so, please write your feedback in the space below. Please clearly indicate which item(s) you are referring to.

Because Amazon Mechanical Turk will be utilized, participants will be recruited from across the United States. As such, there is no specific jurisdiction to reference when classifying sexual offenses in this study. Therefore, the following classification for low, moderate, and high categories of severity was created by Ms. Lee:

- ***Low Severity***: no contact but with non-consenting people
- ***Moderate Severity***: non-violent, but involves unwanted contact or wanted contact with an individual who cannot consent
- ***High Severity***: unwanted contact that is violent or penetrative and unwanted

Using these parameters, a list of sex offenses was reviewed and three were chosen for each classification, creating a total list of nine sex offenses that will be used in this study.

- ***Low Severity***: public masturbation, indecent exposure, voyeurism
- ***Moderate Severity***: statutory rape, frotteurism, stalking
- ***High Severity***: rape, sex trafficking, and child molestation

Subject matter experts were then asked the following questions:

Please rate whether the following sex offenses for the Low Severity classification are essential or not for the WOSO:

	Yes, the item is essential	No, the item is not essential
Public Masturbation: the public stimulation of one's own genitals for sexual gratification	○	○
Voyeurism: spying on people engaged in intimate behaviors, such as undressing, sexual activity, or other actions usually considered private in nature; this may involve photography or video surveillance	○	○
Indecent Exposure: the act of intentionally showing one's sexual organs in public	○	○

Do you recommend changes to any of the above items? If so, please write your feedback in the space below. Please clearly indicate which item(s) you are referring to.

Please rate whether the following sex offenses for the Moderate Severity classification are essential or not for the WOSO:

	Yes, the item is essential	No, the item is not essential
Stalking: the act of repeatedly following and harassing another person	○	○
Frotteurism: achieving sexual stimulation or orgasm by touching and rubbing against a person without that person's consent (usually in a public place)	○	○
Statutory Rape: an adult who sexually penetrates a person who, under the law, is incapable of consenting to sex (e.g., minors, and physically and mentally incapacitated persons)	○	○

Do you recommend changes to any of the above items? If so, please write your feedback in the space below. Please clearly indicate which item(s) you are referring to.

Please rate whether the following sex offenses for the High Severity classification are essential or not for the WOSO:

	Yes, the item is essential	No, the item is not essential
Rape: unlawful sexual intercourse or any other sexual penetration of the vagina, anus, or mouth of another person, with or without force, by a sex organ, other body part, or foreign object, without the consent of the victim	○	○
Sex Trafficking: the illegal movement of people for the purposes of commercial sexual exploitation	○	○
Child Sexual Abuse: a range of indecent or sexual activities between an adult and a child, usually under the age of 14	○	○

Do you recommend changes to any of the above items? If so, please write your feedback in the space below. Please clearly indicate which item(s) you are referring to.

Please any comments/suggestions about the instructions of the WOSO:

Please provide any additional comments/suggestions about the WOSO. This includes additional item recommendations:

Responses were anonymously coded in Qualtrics and later analyzed in Excel. Ten subject matter experts responded to the second CVA request.

STEP NINE:

Results from the second CVA indicated that the nine item survey (with four different response options each) produced adequate content validity. For example, all four social punishments depicted a better than chance agreement of essentiality.

Question	Content Validity	Adequate Content Validity?
Employment Restrictions	1	Yes
Residency Restrictions	1	Yes
Restriction from Places with Children	1	Yes
Notification of Neighbors	1	Yes

Original WOSO Content Validity for Social Punishments

When analyzing the three severity classifications in the original WOSO, all categories obtained a better than chance agreement of essentiality.

Question	Content Validity	Adequate Content Validity?
Low Severity (no contact but with non-consenting people)	1	Yes
Moderate Severity (non-violent contact) involving either: (1) non-consensual contact or (2) wanted contact with individuals who cannot provide consent (e.g., minors or vulnerable adults))	0.8	Yes
High Severity (non-consensual contact that is violent or penetrative)	1	Yes

Original WOSO Content Validity for Classification Categories

When analyzing the nine sex offenses categorized by severity grouping in the original WOSO, all sex offenses obtain better than chance agreement of essentiality.

Question	Content Validity	Adequate Content Validity?
(Low) Masturbating in Public	0.8	Yes
(Low) Indecent Exposure	0.8	Yes
(Low) Voyeurism	1	Yes
(Moderate) Stalking	0.8	Yes
(Moderate) Frotteurism	1	Yes
(Moderate) Statutory Rape	0.8	Yes
(High) Rape	1	Yes
(High) Sex Trafficking	1	Yes
(High) Child Sexual Abuse	1	Yes

Original WOSO Content Validity for Sex Offenses

STEP TEN:

Following the editing process from the second CVA administrations, the primary investigator adapted the wording of the WOSO instructions and items to better convey that the social punishments provided for each offense are forms of exclusion. Furthermore, the overall language of the WOSO was edited so that the level of readability could accommodate a wider range of reading abilities. The resulting questionnaire is the one utilized in this study.

APPENDIX D

Table of Specifications (Original WOSO Questionnaire)

Table of Specifications for *Social Punishments*

Respondent	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9	Q10
1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1
2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
4	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
5	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0
6	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
7	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1
8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
9	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
10	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1
11	1	1	--	1	--	1	--	--	--	--
n_e	*10*	*10*	*8*	*10*	*7*	*10*	*9*	*4*	*5*	*5*
N	*11*	*11*	*10*	*11*	*10*	*11*	*10*	*10*	*10*	*10*
CVR	**0.82**	**0.82**	**0.6**	**0.82**	**0.4**	**0.82**	**0.8**	**-0.2**	**0**	**0**

Question	Adequate Content Validity?
Q1: Employment Restrictions	Yes
Q2: Residency Restrictions	Yes
Q3: Separation from One's Children	No
Q4: Restriction from Places with Children	Yes
Q5: Travel Restrictions	No
Q6: Sex Offender Registration (available to the community)	Yes
Q7: Notification of Neighbors	Yes
Q8: Social Harassment	No
Q9: Exclusion from Family	No
Q10: Exclusion from Friends	No

Social Punishments that will Remain in the WOSO
Employment Restrictions
Residency Restrictions
Restriction from Places with Children
Sex Offender Registration (available to the community)
Notification of Neighbors

Table of Specifications for the *Classification of Sex Offenses*

Respondent	Q1	Q2	Q3
1	1	1	1
2	1	1	1
3	1	1	1
4	0	1	1
5	0	1	1
6	0	1	1
7	1	1	1
8	1	1	1
9	1	1	1
10	0	0	1
11	0	1	1
n_e	*6*	*10*	*11*
N	*11*	*11*	*11*
CVR	**0.09**	**0.82**	**1**

Question	Adequate Content Validity?
*Q1: Low (*no intended victim)	No
*Q2: Moderate (*non-consenting victim; no penetration or intention of penetration)	Yes
*Q3: High (*non-consenting victim; with penetration or intention of penetration (in the case of human trafficking for sexual purposes))	Yes

Table of Specifications for the *Low Severity Sex Offenses*

Respondent	Q1	Q2	Q3
1	1	1	1
2	1	1	1
3	1	1	1
4	0	0	0
5	0	0	1
6	0	1	1
7	1	1	1
8	1	1	1
9	1	1	1
10	0	0	0
11	0	1	1
n_e	*6*	*8*	*9*
N	*11*	*11*	*11*
CVR	**0.09**	**0.45**	**0.64**

Question	Adequate Content Validity?
Q1: Streaking	No
Q2: Urinating in Public	No
Q3: Sex in Public	No

Table of Specifications for the *Moderate Severity Sex Offenses*

Respondent	Q1	Q2	Q3
1	1	1	1
2	1	1	1
3	1	1	1
4	0	0	1
5	1	1	1
6	1	1	1
7	1	1	1
8	1	1	1
9	1	1	1
10	1	1	1
11	1	1	1
n_e	*10*	*10*	*10*
N	*11*	*11*	*11*
CVR	**0.82**	**0.82**	**0.82**

Question	Adequate Content Validity?
Q1: Exhibitionism	Yes
Q2: Frotteurism	Yes
Q3: Voyeurism	Yes

Table of Specifications for the *High Severity Sex Offenses*

Respondent	Q1	Q2	Q3
1	1	1	1
2	1	1	1
3	1	1	1
4	1	1	1
5	1	1	1
6	1	1	1
7	1	1	1
8	1	1	1
9	1	1	1
10	1	1	1
11	1	1	1
n_e	*11*	*11*	*11*
N	*11*	*11*	*11*
CVR	**1**	**1**	**1**

Question	Adequate Content Validity?
Q1: Rape	Yes
Q2: Human Trafficking	Yes
Q3: Child Sexual Abuse/Molestation	Yes

APPENDIX E

Table of Specifications (Revised WOSO Questionnaire)

Table of Specifications for *Social Punishments*

Respondent	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5
1	1	1	1	1	1
2	1	1	1	1	1
3	1	1	1	1	1
4	1	1	1	1	1
5	1	1	1	1	1
6	1	1	1	1	1
7	1	1	1	1	1
8	1	1	1	1	1
9	1	1	1	1	1
10	1	1	1	1	1
n_e	10	10	10	10	10
N	10	10	10	10	10
CVR	1	1	1	1	1

Question	Adequate Content Validity?
Q1: Employment Restrictions	Yes
Q2: Residency Restrictions	Yes
Q3: Restriction from Places with Children	Yes
Q4: Sex Offender Registration (available to the community)	Yes
Q5: Notification of Neighbors	Yes

Social Punishments that were Retained in the WOSO
Employment Restrictions
Residency Restrictions
Restriction from Places with Children
Sex Offender Registration (available to the community)
Notification of Neighbors

Table of Specifications for the *Classification of Sex Offenses*

Respondent	Q1	Q2	Q3
1	1	1	1
2	1	1	1
3	1	1	1
4	1	1	1
5	1	1	1
6	1	1	1
7	1	1	1
8	1	1	1
9	1	1	1
10	1	0	1
n_e	10	9	10
N	10	10	10
CVR	1	0.8	1

Question	Adequate Content Validity?
Q1: Low (no contact but with non-consenting people)	Yes
Q2: Moderate (non-violent, but involves unwanted contact or wanted contact with an individual who cannot consent)	Yes
Q3: High (unwanted contact that is violent or penetrative and unwanted)	Yes

Classification of Sex Offenses that were Retained in the WOSO
Low (no contact but with non-consenting people)
Moderate (non-violent, but involves unwanted contact or wanted contact with an individual who cannot consent)
High (unwanted contact that is violent or penetrative and unwanted)

Table of Specifications for the *Low Severity Sex Offenses*

Respondent	Q1	Q2	Q3
1	1	1	1
2	1	1	1
3	1	1	1
4	1	1	1
5	1	1	1
6	0	1	1
7	1	1	1
8	1	0	1
9	1	1	1
10	1	1	1
11	1	1	1
n_e	9	9	10
N	10	10	10
CVR	0.8	0.8	1

Question	Adequate Content Validity?
Q1: Public Masturbation	Yes
Q2: Indecent Exposure	Yes
Q3: Voyeurism	Yes

Low Severity Sex Offenses that were Retained in the WOSO
Public Masturbation
Indecent Exposure
Voyeurism

Table of Specifications for the *Moderate Severity Sex Offenses*

Respondent	Q1	Q2	Q3
1	1	1	1
2	1	1	1
3	1	1	1
4	1	1	1
5	1	1	1
6	1	1	1
7	1	1	0
8	1	1	1
9	1	1	1
10	0	1	1
11	1	1	1
n_e	9	10	9
N	10	10	10
CVR	0.8	1	0.8

Question	Adequate Content Validity?
Q1: Statutory Rape	Yes
Q2: Frotteurism	Yes
Q3: Stalking	Yes

Moderate Severity Sex Offenses that were Retained in the WOSO
Statutory Rape
Frotteurism
Stalking

Table of Specifications for the *High Severity Sex Offenses*

Respondent	Q1	Q2	Q3
1	1	1	1
2	1	1	1
3	1	1	1
4	1	1	1
5	1	1	1
6	1	1	1
7	1	1	1
8	1	1	1
9	1	1	1
10	1	1	1
11	1	1	1
n_e	10	10	10
N	10	10	10
CVR	1	1	1

Question	Adequate Content Validity?
Q1: Rape	Yes
Q2: Sex Trafficking	Yes
Q3: Child Sexual Assault	Yes

High Severity Sex Offenses that were Retained in the WOSO
Rape
Sex Trafficking
Child Sexual Assault

APPENDIX F

Subject Matter Expert Comments (Original WOSO Questionnaire)

Comments Regarding the List of Social Punishments

- I would provide definitions or examples of each of the social punishments. Many people in the lay public do not understand what certain ones entail (e.g., travel restrictions may impact family vacations, going to parks, etc.). Also, I don't know if "social punishments" is the right phrase. Please explain further.
- I only recommend changes on all of these based on if the victim was a minor.

Comments Regarding the Classifications of Sex Offenses

- Your focus on penetration seems arbitrary. Clearly human trafficking does not always involve penetration. This makes me think that your theoretical definition of severity needs some work.

Comments Regarding the Moderate Severity Sex-Norm Violation

- The key element here seems to be a lack of consent.
- Photography for public display (Internet) should be a different category than for private use only.
- Maybe include fondling, as it is a common offense. That might rate as moderate per your criteria.

Comments Regarding the Instructions of the WOSO

- Maybe you should ask respondents whether these punishments should be appropriate options as punishments. The idea is that for some examples of the behavior in question, it might be appropriate to exercise such a punishment, but not for other examples.
- Clear
- The instructions appear to be self-explanatory
- Looks good
- Again, as previously stated, provide definitions of those "social punishments" they are clearer to the reader--they can appropriate judge these consequences.
- I have trouble with urinating in public classified as a sex crime. In and of itself, it actually is not a sex crime.

Additional Comments/Suggestions about the WOSO

- Interestingly, respondents would probably have (or some still do) endorsed ostracism for homosexuality and other forms of sexuality. If so, then what are you really measuring?
- Seems sufficient

- In my opinion, all sex crimes should be looked on a case by case basis. It is my understanding that the state that I work in does not provide Treatment for adults whereas we do for children. However, I do feel as though some of the restrictions for children need to be revisited.

APPENDIX G

Subject Matter Expert Comments (Revised WOSO Questionnaire)

Comments Regarding the List of Social Punishments

- I feel that the offenses should be looked at separately. Not as a whole. Some offenses should require these sanctions.

Comments Regarding the Classifications of Sex Offenses

- You used the term "consent" in the first three classifications but not the third. Maybe include "consent" in the terminology for the third classification.
- Wording is somewhat confusing. Also, make it clear what you mean by "contact" (physical, etc.).
- Level of consent seems to be implied in the third option (High), however is not stated.
- Moderate classification is confusing

Comments Regarding the Low Severity Sex-Norm Violation

- Public Masturbation may be considered a classification of Indecent Exposure
- State whether surveillance is for personal or commercial use.

Comments Regarding the Moderate Severity Sex-Norm Violation

- I think Statutory Rape should be included in the High Severity classification.
- Not sure about stalking

Comments Regarding the Instructions of the WOSO

- Instructions were straightforward
- I am not sure if it is a willingness to ostracize or is it a duty to warn and protect
- Possibly shorten the social punishment definitions
- Define "social punishment”

Additional Comments/Suggestions about the WOSO

- The statutory rape offense is a sticky offense for me. And I am referencing the act with minors. I am not so sure if someone should be labeled a sex offender if the "victim" clearly identified themselves as older than what they truly are.

APPENDIX H

Current Study Ostracism Experience Scale–Revised (OES–R)

Instructions:

Below are 2 sections each of which contains a list of statements regarding your willingness to ignore a convicted sex offender. You will be asked to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement. In the first section, the offender has committed a *misdemeanor sex offense.* In the second section, the offender has committed a *felony sex offense.* Please picture a 30-year-old male who is a first time sex offender of your same race or ethnicity, and who can afford to live in your neighborhood. Prison or jail time has already been completed.

Definitions:

Please use the following definitions and examples when responding to items.

- ***Misdemeanor sex offense:*** an unwanted sexual act without contact or violence (e.g., sex in public), OR a wanted sexual act with a person who cannot legally give consent (e.g., minor)
- ***Felony sex offense****:* unwanted sexual act with contact that involves force, violence, or penetration (e.g., rape)

OES Items:

SECTION ONE: For each item, please indicate on a scale from 1 to 7 (1 = *Strongly Disagree*; 7 = *Strongly Agree*) how much you agree or disagree with each statement about how willing you would be to ignore a person who committed a ***misdemeanor sexual offense*** if given the chance.

	Strongly Disagree 1	2	3	4	*Strongly Agree* 5
. . . . treat the *sex offender* as if he/she is invisible					
. . . . look through the *sex offender* as if he/she does not exist					
. . . . ignore greetings from the *sex offender* when we are walking by one another					
Pick "Strongly Agree" for this item					
. . . . ignore the *sex offender* during conversation					
. . . . ignore the *sex offender* entirely					

SECTION TWO: For each item, please indicate on a scale from 1 to 7 (1 = *Strongly Disagree*; 7 = *Strongly Agree*) how much you agree or disagree with each statement about how willing you would be to ignore a person who committed a ***felony sexual offense*** if given the chance.

	Strongly Disagree 1	2	3	4	*Strongly Agree* 5
. . . . treat the *sex offender* as if he/she is invisible					
. . . . look through the *sex offender* as if he/she does not exist					
. . . . ignore greetings from the *sex offender* when we are walking by one another					
. . . . ignore the *sex offender* during conversation					
. . . . ignore the *sex offender* entirely					

APPENDIX I

Information Letter

INFORMATION LETTER

You are invited to participate in a research study that will examine *social punishments for sex offenses*. Those who are convicted of misdemeanor and felony sex offenses will incur legal and social consequences, both of which result in many personal, financial, and emotional effects. This study will look only at the social consequences, such as the willingness of people to exclude and ignore convicted sex offenders for their actions. The study is being conducted by Meghan Lee, BS under the direction of Annette Kluck, PhD in the Auburn University Department of Counseling Psychology. You were selected as a possible participant because you are age 18 or older, have not been previously convicted of a sex offense, and are currently a United States citizen. If you are a *non-native* United States citizen, you were selected as a possible participant because you have lived in the United States for a minimum of the past 2 consecutive years.

What will be involved if you participate? Your participation is completely voluntary. If you decide to participate in this research study, you will be asked to complete an online survey. Your total time commitment will be approximately 25 minutes.

Are there any risks or discomforts? There are no known risks. Discomfort will vary given that content includes mention of sexual offenses. However, this study does not involve crude details. Only general descriptions will be specified, to which you will be asked to provide your opinion on the subject matter.

Are there any benefits to yourself or others? There are no direct benefits for your participation.

Will you receive compensation for participating? Compensation for this study will be $1 provided through Amazon Mechanical Turk within 3 days of completing the survey. Circumstances in which compensation will not be provided are as follows:

- ***You fail the attention checks:*** Throughout the study there are questions that will ask you to select a particular response that will allow researchers to check whether you are paying attention to the items in which you are responding. Failure to select the appropriate response for these items will result in your data being excluded from data analysis and you will not be compensated for your time.

- ***You do not meet the inclusion criteria:*** 5 criteria are required for you to participate in this study. If you do not meet these criteria, your data will be excluded from data analysis and you will not be compensated for your time. These criteria include:
    1. *You have not been convicted of a sex offense.*
    2. *You are 18 years of age or older.*
    3. *You currently live in the United States of America.*
    4. *You currently are a citizen of the United States of America.*
    5. *You have lived in the United States of America for the past 2 consecutive years.*
- ***Failure in the software beyond your control:*** This includes any disruption in the Amazon Mechanical Turk website or device used to respond to testing items (e.g., computer, iPad, and phone) that would stop you from completing the survey.

Are there any costs? There are no costs to participating in this study.

If you change your mind about participating, you can withdraw at any time by closing your browser window. Once you have submitted your anonymous data, it cannot be withdrawn since it will be unidentifiable. Your decision about whether or not to participate or to stop participating will not jeopardize your future relations with Amazon Mechanical Turk, Auburn University, or any of the researchers dedicated to this project.

Any data obtained in connection with this study will remain anonymous. In an effort to respect your privacy, all responses will be converted into numeric data for statistical analysis at a later date. As such, your name will never be associated with your responses.

If you have questions about this study, please contact Meghan Lee at mtl0012@auburn.edu or Dr. Annett Kluck at ask0002@auburn.edu. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Auburn University Office of Human Subjects Research at hsubjec@auburn.edu or the Institutional Review Board at IRBChair@auburn.edu or by phone (334) 844-5966.

Information collected through your participation may be published in a professional journal, and/or presented at a professional meeting.

HAVING READ THE INFORMATION ABOVE, YOU MUST DECIDE IF YOU WANT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS RESEARCH PROJECT. IF YOU DECIDE TO PARTICIPATE, PLEASE CLICK ON THE LINK BELOW.

YOU MAY PRINT A COPY OF THIS LETTER TO KEEP.

_____

Investigator (Meghan Lee) Date

_____

Co-Investigator (Dr. Annette Kluck) Date

The Auburn University Institutional Review Board has approved this document for use from _____ to _____ Protocol #_____

LINK TO SURVEY

APPENDIX J

Participant Screening Questions

1) **Have you been convicted of one or more sex offenses?**
   ___Yes
   ___ No

2) **Are you 18 years of age or older?**
   ___Yes
   ___ No

3) **Do you currently live in the United States?**
   ___Yes
   ___ No

4) **Are you currently a US citizen?**
   ___Yes
   ___ No

5) **Have you always been a US citizen (e.g., never held citizenship in another country)?**
   ___Yes
   ___ No

   If you answered "no" for question #5, have you lived in the United States for the last 2 consecutive years?
   ___Yes
   ___ No