

School of Psychology

**Exploring Relationships between the Endorsement of Stalking Attitudes
and Executive Functioning, Impulsiveness, and Perfectionism**

Isabella Stephanie Branson

This thesis is presented for the Degree of

Master of Philosophy (Psychology)

of

Curtin University

October 2018

Declaration

To the best of my knowledge and belief this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgment has been made. This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university.

The research presented and reported in this thesis was conducted in accordance with the National Health and Medical Research Council National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007) – updated March 2014. The proposed research study received human research ethics approval from the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee (EC00262), Approval Number HRE2017-0063.

Signature: Isabella Stephanie Mary, Branson

Date: 23/10/2018

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank my supervisors, Dr. Lorraine Sheridan, and Associate Professor Andrea Loftus for providing invaluable hours of feedback, and encouragement before, and throughout the duration of my Masters. Their kind words, and advice has been indispensable in the completion of my Masters. I would also like to thank my parents for their sacrifice, and providing me with the means to live in, and study in a different country. It has not been an easy road, but I am glad that I can make my mother, and father proud. Without my parents, I would not be where I am, or done what I have. I would also like to thank my close friends who have been there for me whilst I participate in this academic adventure. Lastly, I would like to thank the exceptional staff of Curtin University, specifically, members of the psychology faculty, the graduate research school, Curtin's ethics committee, and the finance department for Curtin University for guiding me through this process, and for their patience.

Abstract

Partners/ex-partners perform approximately half of all stalking incidences, and cause significant distress to their victims. While partner/ex-partner stalkers include both men and women, research suggests that men and women hold different attitudes towards stalking behaviour. Men are more likely to minimise distress caused by stalking behaviour, view stalking behaviour as a valid courtship strategy, and blame the victim for any distress experienced. To date, few studies have directly examined and compared psychological correlates of male, and female partner/ex-partner stalkers. No research has directly examined the relationships between partner/ex-partner stalking and executive functioning, impulsivity, and perfectionism. Relevant but limited research in the field of domestic violence, which is strongly associated with stalking, indicates that perpetrators of domestic violence may have poorer performance in executive functioning, higher levels of impulsivity, and higher levels of perfectionism compared to non-perpetrators of domestic violence. The present study seeks to inform the current literature of unexamined psychological correlates (i.e., executive functioning, impulsivity, and perfectionism) that may influence the development, or maintenance of gender-specific attitudes held by partner stalkers. The present study recruited 308 participants (92 males, 216 females) with a mean age of 23.48 years ($SD = 6.91$ years). Participants completed measures assessing the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes, planning as a subset executive function, impulsivity, and perfectionism. Results show that perfectionism, specifically other-orientated perfectionism, and socially prescribed perfectionism significantly correlated with, and significantly predicted the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes for women only. Impulsivity, specifically motor impulsivity, conversely, was significantly correlated with, and predicted the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes for men only. The results suggest that perfectionism and impulsivity may be unique predictors for the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes for females, and males, respectively. However, additional research is required to establish the generalisability of these findings.

Table of Contents

Acknowledgements	ii
Abstract	iii
Table of contents	iv
Chapter 1: Literature Review	1
Statement of Problem	1
Significance of Research	3
Introduction to Stalking	4
Stalking as a Gendered Crime	4
Relationship between Attitudes and Beliefs Regarding Perpetration of Crime	6
Introduction to Partner Stalking	7
Relationship between Partner Stalking and Domestic Violence	9
Motivators in Partner Stalking	18
Overview of Partner Stalking: Relationship to Domestic Violence, and Motivators	20
Executive Function, and Impulsivity in Domestic Violence	20
Domestic Violence and Perfectionism	28
Research Hypotheses	39
Chapter 2: Methods	41
Participant Demographics	41
Measures	41
Demographics Questionnaire	41
Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale	41
Stalking-Related Attitude Questionnaire	42

Barratt Impulsiveness Scale	42
Tower of London	43
Procedure	43
Data Analysis	44
Power Analysis, Sample Size, and Statistical Power	45
Assumption Testing	45
Chapter 3: Results	46
Independent Samples t-test for SRAQ, and SRAQ Subscales by Gender	46
Descriptive Statistics for the SRAQ, TOL, BIS, and TOL by Gender	46
Correlation Analysis	48
Predicting the Scores on the SRAQ using Path Analysis, by Gender	53
Chapter 4: Discussion	57
Scores on the SRAQ, and SRAQ Subscales by Gender	57
Correlation and Path Analysis of the SRAQ to TOL, BIS, and MPS Scores	58
 Planning and Problem-Solving and Stalking-Related Attitudes	58
 Impulsivity and Stalking-Related Attitudes	58
 Perfectionism and Stalking-Related Attitudes	59
General Discussion	61
Limitations	62
Implications	64
References	66
Appendixes	80

Chapter 1: Literature Review

Statement of Problem

Partner/ex-partner stalking usually begins while the intimate relationship between the victim and the stalker is intact and continues post-relationship (Logan & Walker, 2009). While stalking is generally associated with having control, or power over the victim, (Logan & Walker, 2009; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2007), partner stalking may have associations with other factors that differentiate partner stalking from acquaintance, or stranger stalking. Known differences between partner stalking and other forms of relational stalking (i.e., acquaintance, stranger) include the nature and quality of the relationship prior to the onset of partner stalking, the increased frequency and range of stalking tactics employed by partner stalkers, an increased risk of verbal threats and physical violence during partner stalking, and increased psychological distress in the victim (Churcher & Nescar, 2013; Logan & Walker, 2009). Within partner/ex-partner stalking scenarios, many partner/ex-partner stalkers will have engaged in acts of aggression (e.g., emotional abuse, controlling behaviour, sexual abuse) prior to the commencement of the partner stalking behaviour (Logan & Cole, 2011; Logan & Walker, 2009).

Partner/ex-partner stalkers may commence stalking due to a range of motives (i.e., expressive, instrumental, personalogical, or contextual motives; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2004) that interact to create complex situations. Expressive motives involve expressing the partner/ex-partner stalker's desires or feelings towards the victim (Spitzberg & Cupach, 2004). Instrumental motives involve the partner/ex-partner stalker having power over desired outcomes, or influence over people (Spitzberg & Cupach, 2004). Personalogical motives involve a combination of personality, mental functioning, and drug dependencies (Spitzberg & Cupach, 2004). Contextual motives involve situational circumstances related to the onset of stalking (e.g., appearance of a love rival, loss of employment; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2004). The variation between these motives is often accompanied by the situational antecedent of a real or perceived dissolution of the relationship. Studies have also suggested that the continuation of violence/aggression indicates that partner stalking may be an extension or variant of domestic violence (Ferreira & Matos, 2013), where the partner/ex-partner stalker may have multiple incentives to commence partner/ex-partner stalking. Some examples include the partner/ex-partner stalking desiring to continue being in close proximity to the

victim (McFarlane et al., 1999), inflict more aggression towards the victim (Norris et al, 2011), or to control the victim (Logan & Walker, 2009).

Studies examining risk factors in partner/ex-partner stalking cases have mainly focused on extrinsic motivators (e.g., Brewster, 2003; Burgess et al., 1997; Dennison, 2007; Logan & Cole, 2011; MacFarlane et al., 2002; Melton, 2007; Norris, Huss, & Palarea, 2011). Few studies have examined partner/ex-partner stalking in conjunction with intrinsic motivators (e.g., De Smet, Uziebilo, Loeys, Buysse, & Onraedt, 2015; Thompson, Dennison, & Stewart, 2013; Roberts, 2005). Extrinsic motivators are incentives that are received through an external source (e.g., monetary incentives, praise from another person, achievement of desired reaction/outcome; Cerasoli, Nicklin, & Ford, 2014). In contrast, intrinsic motivators are incentives driven by the fulfilment of the self (e.g., fulfilling a personal goal, enjoyment gained from performing the activity; Cerasoli et al., 2014). Individuals with intrinsic motivation would still be motivated to perform despite the removal or an external incentive (Cerasoli et al., 2014).

In the context of partner/ex-partner stalking, it can be inferred that extrinsic motivation involves the perceived incentives gained after performing a stalking-related behaviour towards the victim, or the victim's associates (e.g., an emotional reaction elicited by the victim, physical or verbal interaction with the victim). As such, expressive, instrumental, and contextual motives may be considered extrinsic motivations, as all three motives are driven by desire for an optimum condition. In the context of intrinsic motives for the partner/ex-partner stalker, the perceived incentive is derived from the self; feelings of fulfilment, or pleasure after performing a stalking-related behaviour towards the victim, or the victim's associates (e.g., surveillance of the victim). Additionally, perceived incentives gained from an external source (e.g., an emotional reaction elicited by the victim, interactions with the victim) would only act as additional incentives for partner/ex-partner stalkers with intrinsic motivations. As such, personal motives may be considered intrinsic, as these involve personal constructs that need to be fulfilled, and that tend to remain stable over time. It can be inferred then, that a partner/ex-partner stalker with an intrinsic motivation would not be deterred by the removal of an external motivator (e.g., emotional reaction elicited by the victim, physical or verbal interaction with the victim). Therefore, it is important to examine the intrinsic motivations associated with individuals who stalk their partners/ex-partners.

Those studies that have examined intrinsic motivations have tended to do so from the perspective of the victim, as opposed to the stalker's perspective (e.g., Ferreira & Matos,

2013; Logan, Shannon, & Cole, 2007). This may result in the incorrect reporting of actual partner/ex-partner stalker's motives. In lieu of examining convicted partner/ex-partner stalkers, the present research recruited participants who have been, or are currently in, a romantic relationship, and employed the Stalking Related Attitudes Questionnaire (SRAQ) to determine participants' attitudes towards stalking behaviour. Stalking has been described as a gendered crime, as the majority of perpetrators are men, and the majority of victims are women (e.g. Dunlap, Lynch, Jewell, Wasarhaley, & Golding, 2014; Lyndon et al., 2012). As such, this study will compare data between male and female participants. The current study examines three variables associated with intrinsic motivation, and corresponding to personalogical motives: (i) the individual's levels of executive functioning (specifically planning and problem-solving), (ii) impulsivity, and (iii) perfectionism. In short, this study will explore relationships between levels of planning, impulsivity, and perfectionism, and attitudes towards stalking. As few aspects of intrinsic motives have been explored in partner/ex-partner stalkers to date, no published, peer-reviewed articles could be located that have examined executive functioning, impulsivity, or perfectionism within partner/ex-partner stalkers. As a result, the literature review for this study will present the close link between partner/ex-partner stalking and domestic violence, discuss results found in the similar field of domestic violence, and review the implications of these results for understanding partner/ex-partner stalking.

Significance of Research

The search for relevant literature was conducted via Curtin University's online catalogue using the combinations of the following terms: stalk, stalker, stalking, intrusive behaviour; with the following terms: impulsivity, impulsiveness, executive function, frontal function, planning, and perfectionism. The findings of the present work will provide a basis for future studies on populations of potential and actual offenders. Stalkers, like the perpetrators of domestic violence, are a heterogeneous group (see e.g., Mullen, Pathé, Purcell, & Stuart, 1999). Specific variables are now being examined with a view to informing the development of risk assessment tools and how best to identify antecedents of partner/ex-partner stalking.

Introduction to Stalking

Stalking is a pervasive social issue affecting both men, and women (e.g. Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2017; Roberts, 2005). A recent report by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS, 2017) estimates that 7.8% of men, and 18.5% of women in Australia have

experienced stalking at least once during their lifetime. Stalking exposes an individual to a series of intentional, fear-invoking, malicious, and unwanted behaviour that persists over a period of time (Fox, Nobles, & Fisher, 2011; Smet et al., 2015). Stalking can lead to long-term effects on the victim's mental health (e.g., major depressive disorder, panic disorder, somatoform disorder), increased rates of substance dependency (Kuehner, Gass, & Dressing, 2007), reduced quality of life, emotional trauma (Korkodeilou, 2014), suicidal ideation (Churcher & Nesca, 2013), grievous injuries, or even death (Norris, Huss, & Palarea, 2011). The intrusive behaviours that comprise stalking exist on a continuum, ranging from everyday behaviours (e.g., telephoning a target) to life-threatening behaviours (e.g., physically harming a target; Cupach & Spitzberg, 2004). These intrusive behaviours may be performed directly towards the victim of stalking (e.g., following the victim), or towards the victim's friends, family, or acquaintances (e.g., threatening, physically harming, or interrogating the victim's associates). Intrusive behaviours directed towards the victim's associates often have different motives but are ultimately performed in order to threaten, harm, harass, isolate, or manipulate the victim (Churcher & Nesca, 2013; Douglas & Dutton, 2001; Miller, 2012). For example, threatening, interrogating, or physically harm the victim's associates may tarnish various relationships (e.g., work, social, familiar) further isolating the victim from informal support networks, intimidate the victim for the purposes of compliancy or coercion, terrorise the victim for revenge, or manipulate the victim into an intimate relationship (Miller, 2012).

Stalking as a Gendered Crime

Stalking is considered a gendered crime (e.g., Dunlap, Lynch, Jewell, Wasarhaley, & Golding, 2014; Lyndon et al., 2012) as empirical research has reliably demonstrated that a majority of victims are female, and a majority of perpetrators are male. A meta-analysis by Spitzberg (2002) examining the prevalence and perpetration of stalking by gender found that nearly 75% of stalking victims were females, and 79% of stalking perpetrators were male. A more recent meta-analysis by Spitzberg, Cupach, and Ciceraro (2010) examining the prevalence and perpetration of stalking by gender further estimates the lifetime risk of stalking as 29% for women, and 13% for men. The lifetime rate of perpetration was estimated as 12% for women, and 24% for men (Spitzberg et al., 2010). Studies of perceptions and attitudes towards stalking among both stalking victims and the general population suggest that there exist significant perceptual, and attitudinal differences by gender. Stalking is perceived as more serious, and as more dangerous when the stalker is male, and the victim is female (e.g., Scott, Rajakaruna, Sheridan, & Gavin, 2014). Females may view intrusive

behaviours as more serious, compared to males, due to the frequency, amount of distress, or fear associated with receiving unwanted courtship behaviours. Yanowitz (2006) suggests that women, compared to men, may receive unwanted attention more frequently and may associate such behaviours with a sense of wariness and unease that translates to harsher perceptions of intrusive behaviours. As a result, females, compared to males, seem to judge a greater range of intrusive behaviours as constituent of stalking (e.g., Chan & Sheridan, 2017), regardless of any prior experience of being stalked. Males however, differed in their perception of stalking attitudes based on their own experiences of being stalked. Yanowitz (2006) suggest that males who have experienced being stalked may be more understanding of the fear/distressed cause by intrusive behaviours, thus perceiving more intrusive behaviours as part of stalking. Males who have no experience being stalked may view the perpetration of intrusive behaviours as a part of courtship, and not as a part of stalking (McKeon, McEwan, & Luebbbers, 2014).

McKeon and colleagues (2014) examined gender differences in attitudes and beliefs concerning stalking in a sample of 280 uniformed police officers, and 244 members of the general community. Participants were asked to complete a 34-item questionnaire measuring stalking-related attitudes (SRAQ), and viewed one of six vignettes depicting various stalking scenarios. The measure of stalking-related attitudes used in McKeon and colleagues' (2014) study is similar to the stalking-related attitudes measure used in the current study. The measure of stalking-related attitudes used in McKeon et al. (2014) consisted of the 34-items with lower factor loadings. A comparison of the means between male and female participants, found that men and women had a statistically significant, moderate-sized difference in the scores of stalking-related attitudes. McKeon et al. (2014) found that men were more likely to dismiss, and downplay the severity of intrusive behaviours performed in stalking. Men were more likely to think that stalking is not serious, that stalking is a romantic gesture, and that stalking victims should be blamed for the continuation of stalking. Most notably, men and women significantly differed in their perceptions of stalking as romantic. McKeon et al. (2014) suggest that men may think that persistence, and the affection-directed nature of certain intrusive behaviours are normative, and a valid romantic approach to courtship. The misconception that stalking is romantic may be fuelled by the myth that stalking is always perpetrated by a stranger, and not an acquaintance, or partner/ex-partner (Yanowitz, 2006).

Relationship between Attitudes and Beliefs Regarding Perpetration of Crime

Various studies have examined the prevalence of stalking victimisation, the nature of stalking perpetration, and the perceptions, attitudes and beliefs of the general population and stalking victims concerning stalking. Few studies, however, have examined attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions among stalking perpetrators. This line of enquiry is important as attitudes towards stalking and stalking myth acceptance are thought to influence both perceptions and behaviour (Dunlap et al., 2014); such that individuals act and interpret experiences in accordance with their attitudes and beliefs (Kamphuis et al., 2005), or make decisions that are influenced by their attitudes and beliefs (Nabors, Dietz, & Jasinski, 2006). Certain belief systems derived from Axis I, or Axis II disorders have also been suggested to influence the distortion of reality in domestic violence perpetrators, who also participate in stalking activities (Burgess et al., 1997). An examination of stalking-related attitudes, and beliefs of stalking perpetrators and victims by Fox, Nobles, and Akers (2011) found that stalking perpetrators endorsed beliefs that were favourable towards stalking behaviours, and justified stalking in select situations. Stalking perpetrators were also more likely to associate with other individuals who perpetrated stalking, and condone stalking behaviours committed by associates. In light of these findings, Fox et al. (2011) suggest that attitudes, and behaviours towards stalking can be acquired, changed, or strengthened through interactions with different groups.

Previous studies that have examined crimes related to stalking (domestic violence, sexual offences) have shown associations between attitudes and beliefs concerning the criminal act and perpetration of the crime. Archer and Graham-Kevan (2003) examined the beliefs of partner-specific aggression, and the perpetration of domestic violence towards a partner. Two types of beliefs regarding partner-specific aggression were measured: instrumental and expressive. Instrumental aggression uses aggressive behaviour to influence or facilitate a situation to a desired effect (e.g., to teach a partner a lesson, assert a point), whereas expressive aggression uses aggressive behaviour to communicate negative feelings (e.g., acknowledgement that their partner hurt them, regulation of negative feelings). Participants who had indicated performing one or more physically aggressive behaviours towards a current partner/recent ex-partner completed measures recording severity of physical injuries caused towards the partner/ex-partner, types of beliefs held about physically aggressive behaviour, and levels of controlling behaviour.

Results showed that overall, individuals who had higher levels of instrumental beliefs were more likely to have committed physically violent behaviours towards their partner (i.e., thrown something, slapped, pushed, hit, kicked, and used a weapon on their partner), causing significant minor and severe injuries to their partner, and exhibited controlling behaviours. Individuals with higher levels of expressive beliefs were more likely to beat up their partners, but did not cause any significant injuries to their partner, and did not exhibit controlling behaviours. Additionally, regression analysis of the overall sample's instrumental beliefs significantly predicted the frequency of aggressive behaviours performed towards, and injuries inflicted on, a partner. The results of this study suggested that the types of beliefs held regarding aggressive behaviour influences the perpetration of aggressive behaviour. Beliefs with the intention to produce a desired effect in a partner/ex-partner seemed to illicit more physically aggressive behaviour. Having the desire to influence the outcome of events may explain the use of controlling behaviours towards a partner/ex-partner. Archer and Graham-Kevan (2003) suggested that physical aggression used towards a partner/ex-partner may be part of a cognitive framework that rationalises the use of physical violence as a valid problem-solving technique, or that instrumental beliefs may arise after performing physical violence as a form of justifying/legitimising the use of physical violence.

Introduction to Partner Stalking

Stalking is commonly stereotyped as pursuit by a stranger, but research indicates that an estimated 80% of stalking scenarios are perpetrated by people known to the victim (Logan & Walker, 2010; Smet et al., 2015). Specifically, an estimated 40% to 50% of all stalking incidences are perpetrated by an ex-partner (e.g. Davis, Ace, & Andra, 2000; Douglas & Dutton, 2001; Smet, Loeys, & Buysse, 2012). This group of individuals who perform intrusive behaviours (i.e., the continuum of behaviours recognised within the literature as constituent of stalking) specifically towards their partner/ex-partners are broadly known as 'partner stalkers'¹ (Logan & Walker, 2009).

Logan and Walker (2009) reviewed 144 studies on partner/ex-partner stalking to determine differences between partner/ex-partner stalkers, and other relational stalkers (i.e., stranger, acquaintance stalkers). Components that defined partner/ex-partner stalking, psychological distress caused by partner/ex-partner stalking, and the notion of

¹ Referred to as partner/ex-partner stalkers in this study

dominance/control in partner/ex-partner stalking were examined. The review yielded five key components that distinguish partner stalking from other forms of relational stalking: the nature and quality of the relationship prior to the onset of partner stalking, the increased frequency and range of stalking tactics during partner stalking, the increased risk of verbal threats and physical violence during partner stalking, the onset of stalking behaviour towards the victim, and the increased psychological distress in the victim.

Prior to the onset of partner stalking, the relationship between the partner stalker and the victim often exhibits aspects of domestic abuse. These aspects of domestic abuse can include psychological abuse, sexual assault, physical abuse, and domineering behaviours performed by the future partner stalker (Logan & Walker, 2009). Women who were stalked by abusive partners typically experienced more severe psychological abuse, verbal abuse, physical abuse, sexual assault, controlling behaviours, and bodily injuries while in the relationship, as compared to women who had abusive partners, but were not subsequently stalked (Logan & Walker, 2009). As a result, the authors deduced that the severity of abuse experienced while in the relationship correlated with the incidence, severity, and frequency of subsequent partner stalking behaviours (Logan & Walker, 2009).

Partner stalkers often employ an increased range of stalking tactics with a higher frequency compared to non-partner stalkers (Logan & Walker, 2009). Due to the prior relationship history with the victim, partner stalkers have more in-depth knowledge of the victim's private life, (e.g., weaknesses, fears, secrets) and are able to use this information to their advantage. Possession of this knowledge allows the partner stalker to have leverage over, torment, humiliate, or punish the victim, as part of the partner stalker's repertoire (e.g., using their children as a bargaining chip, using friends or family members to spy on, or locate the victim). The possession of intimate knowledge of the victim could also be used to increase the opportunities for access to, or increase the amount of contact between, the partner stalker and the victim (e.g., frequenting the victim's hangouts or workplace, using social events created by family/mutual friends to meet the victim).

Partner stalkers are often more violent and more persistent when compared to other subtypes of stalkers (Logan & Walker, 2009). Partner stalkers were found to use more approach tactics (e.g., physically harming the victim; unannounced visits to the victim's home or work place), threaten the victim and act on these threats, compared to non-partner stalkers (Logan & Walker, 2009). Partner stalkers may use more approach tactics due to their familiarity with the victim (Palarea, Zona, Lane, & Langhinrichsen-Rohlings, 1999). The use

of approach tactics places the partner stalking victim in close proximity to the partner stalker, and increases the risk of physical violence towards the victim (Kamphuis et al., 2005); resulting in possible partner homicide, attempted partner homicide, lethal violence, or attempted lethal violence (e.g., McFarlane et al., 1999).

The onset of partner stalking often occurs while the intimate relationship between the victim and the stalker is still intact. Logan and Walker's (2009) review of five studies (i.e., Brewster, 2003; Cole, Logan, Shannon, & Walker, 2006; Hackett, 2000; Melton, 2007; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998) found that 25% - 80% of women recruited in these studies reported that partner stalking occurred whilst in a relationship with the partner stalker; and continued post-relationship. Women surveyed in the studies believed that the partner stalking commenced due to jealousy, to ensure the continuation of the relationship, or to assert control over the victim.

Victims of partner stalkers tend to experience more psychological distress compared to victims of non-partner stalkers (Logan & Walker, 2009). The memories of abusive behaviours exhibited prior to partner stalking may evoke more fear within victims of partner stalking during stalking episodes. Victims of partner stalking report levels of fear that positively correlated with the amount of abuse that they have been exposed to. As a result, victims of partner stalking reported significantly increased negative affect (e.g., depressed mood, anxiety symptoms, fear, Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder), compared to victims of stalking without a history of partner violence.

Relationship between Partner Stalking and Domestic Violence

Domestic violence is a pattern of controlling or coercive aggression performed against a current or ex-intimate partner (Burgess et al., 1997; Fowler & Westen, 2011), with the intention of establishing dominance, control, or power over the victim (Carney & Barner, 2012; Manzingo, 2014). Like stalking perpetrators, domestic violence perpetrators perform these behaviours over a period of time, and can have long lasting adverse effects (e.g., depression, anxiety disorders, suicidal ideation; Buller, Devries, Howard, & Bacchus, 2014). Behaviours in domestic violence can be generally be categorised into physical (e.g., sexual coercion), psychological (e.g., emotional abuse), economical (e.g., preventing independent control of assets), and include a spectrum of other threatening, and intrusive behaviours (e.g., stalking, destruction of property, denial of freedom; Federal Register of Legislation, 1995). Similarly, partner/ex-partner stalking may include some acts of aggression present in

domestic violence situations (Douglas & Dutton, 2001; Norris et al., 2011). While both domestic violence, and partner/ex-partner stalking have some overlapping behaviours, research suggests that perpetrators of partner/ex-partner stalking performed more surveillance and unsolicited contact behaviours (Burgess et al., 1997; Ferreira & Matos, 2013), whereas domestic violence perpetrators performed more physical (e.g., punching, hitting with an object), and sexual abuse (Keeling & Fisher, 2015; Lepisto, Luukkaala, & Paavilainen, 2011) in addition to using some controlling acts, that are similar to the intrusive behaviours found in stalking (e.g., insistence in knowing the whereabouts of the victim, attempts to restrict victim's activities or contact with others; Causbrook, 2018). However, several inconsistencies surround legal and research definitions of domestic violence, and stalking; where definitions differ according to state laws, countries, (e.g., Australian Government Solicitor [AGS], 2009; Barocas, Emery, & Mills, 2016), stalker typologies (see Spitzberg & Cupach, 2007), measures used in research, and aims of the research (e.g., Stalking Behavior Checklist (Coleman, 1997); Stalking Behaviours Inventory – Version 2 (Grangeia, Matos, & Machado, 2008); Domestic Violence Questionnaire (Indu, Remadevi, Vidhukumar, Anilkumar, & Subha, 2011); Domestic Violence Health Care Provider Survey Scale (John & Lawoko, 2010); vignette studies; interviews). The complexity of standardising legal, and research definitions of stalking and domestic violence globally, has led to overlaps in areas of research pertaining to aggression against a current/ex-partner. To date, there are no standardised measures in research, nor legislation to globally distinctly epitomise nor differentiate domestic violence, and stalking.

The result of their dyadic nature has led a number of studies to identify links between domestic violence and partner/ex-partner stalking (e.g., Burgess et al., 1997; Douglas & Dutton, 2001; Roberts, 2005; Melton, 2007), with many studies suggesting that partner/ex-partner stalking is an extension of domestic violence; such that the risk of partner/ex-partner stalking is increased if the victim was in a relationship with an abusive partner (Ogilvie, 2000), that most partner/ex-partner stalkers were abusive prior to commencement of partner/ex-partner stalking, and that partner/ex-partner stalking usually commenced while the relationship was still intact (Carney & Barner, 2012; Churcher & Nesca, 2013; Logan & Walker, 2009). The suggestion that partner/ex-partner stalking is an extension of domestic violence, from a prior abusive relationship, may be a result of situational changes in the dyadic relationship (e.g., different living situations, presence of other people, intervention from other people), where the abuser may have lost the situational conditions needed to be abusive (e.g., immediate access to the victim, privacy, active restraining order). As such,

prior domestic violence perpetrators in unfavourable situational conditions may resort to performing more surveillance, or unsolicited communicative tactics to maintain control, dominance, or power over their victim.

Norris et al., (2011) investigated the severity and frequency of stalking-related behaviours performed during episodes of domestic violence in a sample of 120 known male domestic violence perpetrators. Participants were perpetrators of domestic violence receiving treatment from an intimate partner violence treatment programme at a local hospital. Participants first engaged in a semi-structured interview collecting information regarding participants' interpersonal relations, education, presence and nature of criminal history and substance abuse. Participants then completed a series of self-report measures to identify the range, severity, frequency, and impact (to the victim) of stalking tactics used, to identify the nature and severity of abuse, as well as negotiation tactics performed on a partner/ex-partner and towards third parties, to identify any presence of psychopathology, levels of depression, and levels and types of anger.

Of the sample of domestic violence perpetrators, 66.7% had indicated performing at least one stalking behaviour (e.g., "Visit her in person even if she did not want to see you"). Of the participants who had performed stalking behaviours, 26.7% had performed at least one intrusive behaviour without being in close physical proximity to the victim (i.e., distant contacts), 24% had performed at least one intrusive behaviour whilst being in direct contact to the victim (i.e., proximate contacts), 18% had performed at least one intrusive behaviour using threats directed at the victim, individuals associated with the victim, or the participant himself (i.e., threat behaviours), and 8% had performed at least one intrusive behaviour that harmed the victim, individuals associated with the victim, or the participant himself (i.e., harm behaviours). The most frequently self-reported intrusive behaviour performed by 44.2% of the sample was from the Distance Contacts subscale: "Talk with her on the phone or leave her phone messages when she did not want to hear from you". Other frequently performed intrusive behaviours included behaviours from the distance contacts, threat behaviours, and proximate contacts subscales. This indicates that only a small minority of the domestic violence perpetrators in this sample used harm behaviours, and that harm behaviours tactics were not used as frequently compared to other stalking tactics. More importantly, this indicates that domestic violence perpetrators use at least one stalking tactic whilst perpetrating domestic violence.

Overall, correlation analyses identified that as a group, domestic violence perpetrators who performed intrusive behaviours within stalking (i.e., using distance contacts, threat

behaviours, and proximate contacts, harm behaviours), as compared to domestic violence perpetrators who did not perform intrusive behaviours, were more likely to sexually abuse their partners, and psychologically abuse both their partners, and also third parties. However, behavioural differences were found between domestic violence perpetrators who used different stalking tactics (i.e., distance contacts, threat behaviours, proximate contacts, harm behaviours). Domestic violence perpetrators who performed intrusive behaviours using only threat behaviours were not likely to sexually abuse their partner/ex-partner. This may indicate that domestic violence perpetrators who use threats may be able to rely solely on communicative tactics to coerce a victim, such that their ability to coerce a victim did not need to surpass psychological abuse. Another difference was that domestic violence perpetrators who performed intrusive behaviours using harm tactics physically abused third parties, but not their partner/ex-partner. It may be suggested that domestic violence perpetrators who use harm tactics required an additional means of coercion towards others; where psychological and sexual abuse towards a partner/ex-partner was enough for coercion, relying on psychological abuse in isolation was not as efficient when coercing others. This may suggest that domestic violence perpetrators who used harm tactics may not be as communicative as domestic violence perpetrators who used threats, distance and proximate tactics; thus resorting to physical abuse towards others.

Norris et al. (2011) further separated participants into three different categories: participants who did not perform any stalking behaviours were classed as non-stalkers, participants who performed one or more items on the distant and proximate contact subscale (i.e., contact tactics) were classed as subclinical stalkers, and participants who performed one or more items on the threat and harm behaviour subscale (i.e., behaviour tactics) were classed as clinical stalkers. Mean scores for clinical stalkers on the types of stalking tactics (i.e., distant contact, proximate contact, threat behaviour, harm behaviour) performed significantly differed from scores for non-stalkers and subclinical stalkers on proximate contacts, threat behaviours, and harm behaviours, and significantly differed from non-stalkers only on distant contacts. Mean scores for subclinical stalkers significantly differed from those of non-stalkers only on distant contacts. The results indicate that clinical and subclinical stalkers performed intrusive behaviours with a similar frequency without being in close physical proximity to the victim (i.e., distance contact). However, when compared with subclinical stalkers, clinical stalkers used a larger range of stalking tactics with a higher frequency; performing more intrusive behaviours in close proximity to the victim, harming the victim, and threatening the victim.

On measures of abuse performed towards partners, mean scores for clinical and subclinical stalkers significantly differed from those of non-stalkers on the measure 'negotiation'. Only clinical stalkers significantly differed from non-stalkers on measures of psychological abuse. On measures of abuse performed towards third parties, mean scores for clinical stalkers significantly differed from those for subclinical and non-stalkers on the measure of psychological abuse. Subclinical stalkers significantly differed from non-stalkers on the measure of negotiation. Overall, the results suggested that when compared to non-stalkers, clinical stalkers more frequently psychologically abused both partners/ex-partners, and third parties. This is starkly different from scores for subclinical stalkers who did not differ from non-stalkers in levels of psychological abuse towards a partner, or third parties. As subclinical stalkers use more contact behaviours, it is likely that the lack of psychological abuse, and the use of negotiation tactics used by subclinical stalkers towards others may be a means of obtaining information about the victim from the victim's associates. Consistent with the type of intrusive behaviour performed by clinical stalkers (i.e., harm and threats), it is likely that the opposite is true of clinical stalkers; clinical stalkers may not engage in negotiation with others to obtain information about the victim, but rather psychologically abuse the victim's associates into providing information about the victim. However, both clinical and subclinical stalkers did not differ on negotiation behaviours towards their partner. The use of more negotiation tactics towards their partner/ex-partner by clinical and subclinical stalkers may be a result of more verbal conflict experienced by clinical and subclinical stalkers in their relationships. An increased frequency of verbal conflict would require further communicative processes to explain and resolve disagreements presented in their relationships.

Non-stalkers, subclinical stalkers, and clinical stalkers were compared also on measures of depression, types and levels of anger, Axis I and Axis II disorders², and substance dependency². Results indicate that mean scores for clinical stalkers were significantly different from those for subclinical and non-stalkers on measures of sadistic and anti-social disorders, and substance dependence. Mean scores for subclinical stalkers significantly differed from those for non-stalkers on measures of narcissistic disorder. Both clinical and subclinical stalkers significantly differed from non-stalkers on levels and types of anger. This indicates that the severity of stalking tactics used was associated with more violent/aggressive personality disorders, and more severe stalking tactics (i.e., harm and

² Criteria for Axis I disorders, Axis II disorders, and substance dependency were based on the DSM – IV

threat behaviours) were associated with substance dependency. This finding is important as the review of partner stalkers by Logan and Walker (2009) and the meta-analysis by Churcher and Nesca (2014) demonstrated that partner stalkers used threats as a form of violence or control towards their victims. The use of threats by partner stalkers could be an exhibition of psychological abuse found in this study.

Taken together, these findings indicate that a large majority of domestic violence perpetrators have participated in one or more intrusive behaviours seen in stalking; indicating that stalking behaviours may be part of the repertoire for domestic violence perpetrators. Findings also suggested that performance of stalking behaviour in a domestic violence sample was positively associated with more psychological and sexual abuse towards their current/ex-partners. That higher severity tactics and the larger range of stalking tactics employed by domestic violence perpetrators indicated more psychological abuse and negotiation tactics towards a current/ex-partner. Higher levels of abuse might be explained by the presence of personality disorders and substance dependency. Domestic violence perpetrators who used more threat and harm behaviours were found to be more anti-social and sadistic. Individuals with anti-social personality disorder are behaviourally impulsive, disregard interpersonal consequences, and have unruly behaviours that need to be enacted (Millon et al., 1997), whereas individuals with sadistic personality disorder may have hostile temperaments, volatile interpersonal communication, and may possess negative representations of others (Millon et al., 1997). The natures of anti-social and sadistic personality disorders are different, and severity and range of stalking tactics might be affected by personality disorders in different ways. Individuals with anti-social personality disorder might disregard/not consider the negative consequences of their impetuous actions on others, seeking to fulfil their desires via the most efficient means; thus participating in a range of stalking tactics with varying severities. Whereas individuals with sadistic personality disorder may perform stalking tactics as a form of domination/punishment towards individuals who are seen negatively by the perpetrator. In addition, substance dependency may exacerbate abuse by dysregulating inhibition to facilitate aggressive/violent thoughts and behaviours. Unlike psychological abuse, higher levels of negotiation tactics were found in both groups of current/ex-partner stalking domestic violence perpetrators, compared to non-stalkers. This indicated that both subclinical and clinical stalkers resolved disagreements via verbal discussion more often than non-stalkers. While higher levels of negotiation tactics would be an asset when presented in isolation, Norris et al. (2011) noted that the presence of

negotiation tactics and psychological abuse may indicate intimidating and controlling behaviours performed via non-physical tactics.³

Ferreira and Matos (2013) examined the relationship between post-relationship stalking, domestic violence experienced while in the relationship, victims' emotional reactions to the stalking experiences, and coping strategies employed by victims. Inclusion criteria included being female and having experienced stalked by a heterosexual ex-partner at some point during their lives. One hundred and seven female Portuguese speaking victims of ex-partner stalking were recruited. Participants completed measures identifying abusive emotional and physical behaviours suffered by and performed by the participant, identifying the frequency and severity of stalking behaviours suffered by the participant during the course of the relationship, and levels of distress in interpersonal and social relationships. Of the 107 participants who reported stalking experiences, 85% of participants also reported experiencing domestic abuse when the relationship was intact. Further analyses were conducted by separating participants into two groups: women who experienced domestic violence whilst in the relationship, and women who did not experience domestic violence whilst in the relationship. Results demonstrated that women who had experienced domestic violence had experienced a significantly higher number of stalking behaviours compared to women who had not experienced domestic violence whilst in the relationship.

To ascertain frequency and severity of experience of stalking behaviours, a stalking behaviour inventory was used to compare the results of the two groups of women who experienced domestic violence, and had not experienced domestic violence. The three subscales identified different types of stalking tactics: "courtship and approach" represented tactics used to communicate with or locate the victim with the intentions of expressing affection-related feelings, "harassment and invasion" represented tactics used to damage victim's property, violate the victim's privacy, and badger the victim and the victim's associates, "threats and violence" represented tactics used to intimidate, harm, or influence the victim and the victim's associates. While no significant difference was found between the two groups of women for courtship and approach tactics, there were significant differences between the groups in harassment and invasion, and threats and violence tactics. Ex-partner stalking victims who had experienced domestic violence reported a more intense stalking experience with a higher frequency of threats and violence, and harassment and invasion

³ Note that sadistic personality disorder no longer appears in the DSM and that Norris et al. (2001) were referring to sadistic personality disorder as it appeared in an appendix of the DSM – IV

stalking tactics performed towards them, being stalked for longer periods of time, and experiencing more diverse stalking behaviours compared to ex-partner stalking victims who had not experienced domestic violence in the relationship. These findings indicate that there is a relationship between domestic violence and stalking, whereby domestic violence precedes and intensifies partner stalking behaviour. In other words, prior experience of domestic violence while in a relationship, is a predictor of partner/ex-partner stalking.

A recent study by McEwan, Shea, Nazarewicz, and Senkans (2017) examined demographic variables, clinical, and behavioural factors that differed between participants who had, or had not performed acts of domestic violence whilst in a relationship. Participants were 115 male ex-partners who had been convicted of stalking, or who had engaged in intrusive behaviours performed towards the victim for a period of at least two weeks. The majority of participants were recruited from judicial services, and five participants were recruited via health practitioners and practitioners of law. A number of measures were completed using participant self-reports, and formal police records. In cases with discrepancies between self-reports and formal police records, information from formal police records took precedence over participant self-report. Index stalking and prior intimate partner abuse measured the start and end date of a stalking episode, and the presence of domestic violence. Prior offending assessed the stalker's criminal histories unrelated to stalking and domestic violence. Stalking behaviours engaged in during the index stalking episode measured the specific type (i.e., approach, communication, threats, violence), and intensity of stalking behaviours performed within a stalking episode. To measure the presence and nature of disorders, problematic psychological traits, and substance abuse, an assessing clinician conducted structured clinical interviews and recorded the presence of Cluster B disorders (i.e., borderline, antisocial, narcissistic, or histrionic personality disorders) from the DSM – 4 – TR, and Axis II disorders based on the DSM – 4 – TR.

Results found that in 33.1% of cases, domestic violence was perpetrated towards the victim prior to ex-partner stalking. However, in a large majority of cases, formal and self-reports were found to be incongruent; wherein formal records documented physical domestic violence but self-reports denied physical domestic violence, or self-reports admitted physical domestic violence but formal records were not documented. The presence of an unrelated criminal history, unrelated physical assault offences, and personality disorders was significantly associated with previously perpetrated physical domestic violence in the ex-partner stalker sample. That ex-partner stalkers who had previously engaged in domestic violence were more likely to display SCIDD – 2 personality disorders or characteristics;

specifically, a sense of entitlement in interpersonal relationships, emotional dysregulation, impulsiveness, anti-social and borderline traits. Results also found that the presence of unrelated physical offences and having shared children were risk factors in the perpetration of physical domestic violence.

The findings from McEwan et al. (2017) supported the findings from Norris et al. (2011) such that both studies found that individuals who were domestic violence perpetrators and who had stalked partners/ex-partners were associated with more violent and aggressive behaviour, compared to domestic violence perpetrators who do not stalk partners/ex-partners, and ex-partner stalkers who do not perpetrate domestic violence. Findings from McEwan et al. (2017) also support results from Norris et al. (2011) where domestic violence perpetrators who also stalked their current/ex-partners were more likely to have anti-social and sadistic personality disorder as compared to non-stalkers. Previous reviews have evaluated personality disorders and unrelated violent history as a risk factor in all relational stalking subtypes (i.e., stranger, acquaintance, partner stalking; see e.g., Churcher & Nesca, 2013; Rosenfeld, 2004) with non-significant results. However, these samples did not examine partner-stalkers who were known to have previously perpetrated domestic violence. This suggests that a presence of personality disorder, and a history of physical violence as a risk factor may be unique to partner/ex-partner stalking, as compared to stranger or acquaintance stalking. While having shared children has not been examined as a risk factor in previous reviews of relational stalking, findings from McEwan et al. (2017) supports findings from Logan and Walker's (2009) review of partner/ex-partner stalkers; where having shared children served to increase the range of stalking tactics used, and potentially increase the frequency of contact between the partner/ex-partner stalker and victim.

A meta-analysis by Churcher and Nesca (2013) further demonstrates that having a prior relationship with a stalker acts as a risk factor for violence in stalking scenarios. Churcher and Nesca (2013) examined eight risk factors (i.e., the presence of psychosis, presence of a personality disorder, presence of prior relationship, threats, substance abuse, criminal history, violence history, and stalker gender) that contributed to violence in acquaintance, stranger, and partner/ex-partner stalking. The risk factors examined by Churcher and Nesca (2013) were identified in previous stalking literature (e.g., Brewster, 2000; Pathé & Mullen, 1997; Wallace, Mullen, & Burgess, 2004), and a prior meta-analysis by Rosenfeld (2004). The sample ($N = 5114$) comprised 2995 stalkers (three studies included criminally convicted stalkers, eight studies included stalkers that were identified and

described by victims, and 13 studies included clinically identified stalkers), and 2119 victims of stalking (five studies included self-reported victims of stalking, two studies included clinically identified victims, and three studies included victims of stalking who reported stalking incidences to the police) from multiple countries (e.g., Australia, Belgium, Canada, USA).

All of the risk factors were found by Churcher and Nesca (2013) to be significant with various effect sizes. The presence of a prior intimate relationship was the primary predictor of violence in stalking, with a moderate correlation; demonstrating that stalkers that had a prior intimate relationship with their victim were more likely to commit violence toward their victim. However, the presence of a prior intimate relationship demonstrated heterogeneity; suggesting that there may also be other moderating factors involved that can help explain the violence in partner/ex-partner stalking. The results suggest that an unknown moderator/moderators exacerbates violence in stalking when stalkers have had a prior relationship with their victim. The unknown moderator of violence and presence of a prior relationship, and of violence and presence of threats could be, as suggested by Churcher and Nesca (2013), due to differences in data collection, or types of population (i.e., victims, stalkers). However, it could also be due to other correlates that have not been assessed by the meta-analysis, nor measured in the studies being reviewed.

In an earlier meta-analysis of violence in stalking, Rosenfeld (2004) discussed how demographic variables, and personal characteristics of stalkers (e.g., psychopathy, impulsivity) had not been extensively examined in the literature with regards to violence in stalking. This observation may be applicable to the heterogeneous variables found in Churcher and Nesca's (2013) meta-analysis; where the moderator may be an unmeasured/unreported/unexamined 1) demographic variable (e.g., socioeconomic status, level of education), 2) personal characteristic of the stalker (e.g., impulsive, neurotic, perfectionistic), 3) situational antecedents (e.g., saw victim talking to a perceived rival, prior history of domestic violence), or 4) motivation of the stalker (e.g., intrinsic, extrinsic motives) that exacerbates the violence exhibited by stalkers. Specifically, as partner stalkers have been shown to be more dangerous compared to non-partner stalkers (Logan & Walker, 2009; McEwan et al., 2017; Norris et al., 2011), identification of the moderator/moderators of violence in partner stalking is crucial to the exacerbation or alleviation of violence in partner stalking. The importance of considering other correlates in partner stalking (i.e., personal characteristics, situational antecedents, motivations of the stalker) is further discussed in a review by Spitzberg and Cupach (2007).

Motivators in Partner Stalking

Whilst it is suggested that stalking is principally associated with having power over the victim (see e.g., Logan & Walker, 2009; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2007, p. 58), there are other factors that may fuel partner stalking. It is posited that stalking is a result of situational antecedents, and involves aspects of the stalker's personality, complex intrinsic motives for the relationship, and mixed emotions towards the victim (Spitzberg & Cupach, 2004). Spitzberg and Cupach (2004) attempted to identify the motives of unwanted relational pursuit stalking using reductive interpretive coding. Reductive interpretive coding is the process of extracting pertinent information from large lists of items, with the intention to summarise the items into identifiable themes.

The authors reviewed 23 studies, in which victims of stalking (both self-reported victims and confirmed victims) stated perceived motives for their victimisation. Criminally convicted stalkers, and stalkers involved in clinical interventions were also interviewed or surveyed about their own motives. After the motives were examined for unifying themes, four major categories of motives were found: expressive, instrumental, personalogical, and contextual. Expressive motives are concerned with voicing the stalker's desires for the relationship, and his/her emotions towards the victim (e.g., feelings of anger, betrayal, desiring both reconciliation from, and revenge on the victim). Instrumental motives are concerned with the stalker's desired control or influence over the situation or the victim (e.g., wanting to control the victim/situation, wanting to intimidate the victim). Personalogical motives are concerned with features in character, mental or personality disorders, or dependencies that affect the stalker behaviourally or mentally (i.e., substance dependency, mental disabilities, criminal tendencies, or social deficits). Contextual motives are concerned with the triggers or circumstances that fuel the onset of the stalking episode (e.g., appearance of an intimate rival, termination of relationship, loss of employment).

To an extent, expressive, instrumental, and contextual motives can be considered extrinsic; both expressive and instrumental motives interact with the contextual motives to create the potential stalker's desires towards the potential victim and the situation (Spitzberg & Cupach, 2004). As these desires can be consciously assessed, it is reasonable to suggest that they can be consciously monitored and managed. While contextual motives may contain uncontrollable circumstances experienced by the potential stalker, contextual motives may also interact with expressive and instrumental motives to produce stressors to exacerbate the desire to stalk, or to trigger the onset of stalking. However, personalogical motives can be

considered as intrinsic as they represent the personality, or characteristics of the potential stalker; personal motives are independent of expressive, instrumental, or contextual motives, and tend to remain unchanged over time.

Spitzberg and Cupach (2004) suggested that potential stalkers that are obsessed with the potential victim may pursue with the intent of a relationship; should the process encounter difficulties, be rejected, or dissolve, the potential partner stalker may not be able to manage the negative affect (e.g., anger, grief, loneliness, rage) experienced, and blame the victim for this experience. The potential stalker may be motivated by one, or a combination of the four motivations (i.e., expressive, instrumental, personal, contextual). As a result, partner stalkers may fluctuate in how or what they feel towards the victim/situation based on the interaction of the four motivations. The inability to manage one's emotions, blaming the victim for the disruption or dissolution of the relationship, coupled with the motivations of the potential stalker, marks the onset of partner stalking (Spitzberg & Cupach, 2004). As most extrinsic motivations may be consciously monitored and managed, and contextual motives are largely uncontrollable by the potential partner stalker, it is important to then explore whether certain intrinsic traits are more likely to exacerbate the desire to stalk.

Overview of Partner Stalking: Relationship to Domestic Violence, and Motivators

Partner stalking usually begins while the intimate relationship between the victim and the stalker is intact and continues post-relationship (Logan & Walker, 2009). Within partner stalking scenarios, many partner stalkers have likely engaged in acts of aggression (e.g., emotional abuse, controlling behaviour) prior to the commencement of the partner stalking behaviour (Logan & Walker, 2009). Studies have suggested that the continuation of violence/aggression indicates that partner stalking may be an extension or variant of domestic violence (Ferreira & Matos, 2013), where the partner stalker may have multiple desires or motives to commence partner stalking (e.g., may desire to continue being in close proximity with the victim; McFarlane et al., 1999); inflict more aggression towards the victim (Norris et al, 2011); or to control the victim (Logan & Walker, 2009). The combination of complex motivations may lead the partner stalker to behave in an inappropriate manner towards the victim (Spitzberg & Cupach, 2004). Coupled with the known features of partner stalkers from Logan and Walker (2009; i.e., increased amounts of threats and persistence from the partner stalker, a wider range of tactics that can be employed by the stalker towards the victim, and greater levels of violence compared to other categories of stalkers) and the potential for

increased violence via a moderator (Churcher & Nescar, 2013) it can be concluded that partner stalkers are more dangerous than other types of stalkers.

To date, only determinants of stalking commonly associated with violence (e.g., substance abuse, mental illness), sociodemographic, interpersonal, cultural, societal factors, and situational antecedents of stalking have been examined (Cho, Hong, & Logan, 2012; Churcher & Nesca, 2013; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2004). There has yet to be any thorough examination of specific intrinsic factors (e.g., personality traits, mental functioning) that may be associated with partner/ex-partner stalking behaviour. As such, research on intrinsic factors in the closely related field of domestic violence may give insight into relationships between intrinsic factors and partner/ex-partner stalking; previous research suggests that executive function, impulsiveness, and perfectionism contribute to domestic violence.

Executive Function, and Impulsivity in Domestic Violence

Executive functioning and impulsivity are two distinct variables that are often measured within the same study (e.g., Cohen et al., 2003; Persampiere, Poole, & Murphy, 2014), but do not constitute nor measure equivalent variables (Bickel, Jarmolowicz, Mueller, Gatchalian, & McClure, 2012). Executive function is a set of cognitive skills that include the ability to plan and problem solve, and execute cognitive flexibility (Becerra-Garcia, 2015) whereas impulsiveness is spontaneous actions/reactions performed by an individual with little regard for the consequences for themselves or others (Braddock et al., 2011; Chamorro et al., 2012). Executive function deficits are suggested to interfere with the individual's ability to process and engage in solutions that require higher order processing (e.g., abstract thought and reasoning, memory recall, planning and problem-solving), social functioning, and disrupt the ability to process and assess emotions and facial expressions, leading to aggressive reactions in an uncertain situation (Corvo, 2014; Hoaken, Allaby, & Earle, 2007; Roca et al., 2010). In contrast, deficits in impulsivity often lead to sensation-seeking, reward-driven behaviours (i.e., higher sensitivity to rewards, lower sensitivity to negative consequences), behavioural disinhibition (i.e., unable to discontinue an action/reaction that has been initiated), lack of sustained attention on an appropriate task, and premature actions/reactions prior to evaluating and making decisions (Cohen et al., 2003; Bickel et al., 2012). As a result, individuals with higher levels of impulsiveness often engage in risk-taking behaviours and inappropriate behaviours (e.g., gambling, kleptomania, risky sexual behaviours) with negative undesirable consequences (Chamorro et al., 2012; Derefinko, DeWall, Metze, Walsh, & Lynam, 2011).

Executive function and impulsiveness have been examined within domestic violence perpetrator populations (Chan, Raine, Lee, 2008; Corvo, 2014). A study by Cohen, Rosenbaum, Kane, Warnken, and Benjamin (1999) examined neuropsychological impairments between a group of known domestic violence perpetrators, non-violent contented married men, and non-violent discontented married men. To ensure that participants could be separated into these three categories, participants first underwent a semi-structured interview measuring marital satisfaction, marital aggression, and presence of any Axis 1 DSM – 3 – R disorders. Participants were then separated into three groups based on the results of marital satisfaction and marital aggression: known domestic violence perpetrators ($N = 39$), non-violent contented married men ($N = 37$), and non-violent discontented married men ($N = 26$). Participants then completed a series of questionnaires to assess verbal reasoning and general intelligence, non-verbal intelligence and information processing ability, cognitive flexibility and problem-solving, visual information processing, vigilance and sustained attention, verbal working memory, verbal learning and recall, visual memory and recall, verbal and visual learning and recognition, and verbal fluency and control.

Using a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) and controlling for general intelligence, no significant differences were found on all measures between the non-violent contented married men, and the non-violent discontented married men. As such, the two groups were pooled and grouped as non-domestic violence perpetrators. Overall, significant differences were found between domestic violence perpetrators, and the non-domestic violence perpetrators in neuropsychological performance; indicating that domestic violence perpetrators in this sample had more cognitive and neuropsychological impairments compared to non-domestic violence perpetrators. Specifically, domestic violence perpetrators had poorer non-verbal intelligence and information processing ability, non-verbal learning and recall, visual memory and recall, verbal and visual learning and recognition, verbal reasoning and general intelligence, and cognitive flexibility and problem-solving. These results suggest that compared to non-domestic violence perpetrators, domestic violence perpetrators were more cognitively impaired on domains of working memory (including verbal-memory, non-verbal memory, visual-word retention and recall, visual-face retention and recall), learning ability (including problem-solving ability), cognitive flexibility (including abstract and verbal reasoning ability), sustained attention, and reinforcement behaviours. The cognitive impairment on multiple domains found in domestic violence perpetrators suggest that frontal lobe dysfunction may be a common occurrence in the

domestic violence perpetrators within this sample (Cohen et al., 1999). However, due to the small sample size, generalisability may not be implied to all domestic violence perpetrators.

While not all domestic violence perpetrators may have frontal lobe dysfunction, frontal lobe dysfunction may help explain why at least some domestic violence perpetrators are not able to regulate aggressive behaviours and emotions in a relationship situation. Furthermore, impairments in learning and retention of information may contribute to the inability to problem-solve a complex situation in a socially acceptable manner. Impairment in cognitive flexibility may also affect the ability of domestic violence perpetrators to adapt to new strategies or modify their behaviours/interactions in a conflict. The poor performance on verbal and visual learning and recognition also suggest that domestic violence perpetrators in this sample may have learning and memory deficits when faced with new verbal and/or visual information. Weak verbal skills could lead to domestic violence perpetrators misunderstanding a verbal conflict, or not being able to better express themselves to resolve a conflict. While conclusions concerning weak verbal skills were not implied from Cohen et al.'s (1999) study, extrapolation of previous research on domestic violence perpetrators, where domestic violence perpetrators psychologically abuse both partner/ex-partner and third parties (e.g., Norris et al., 2011) assist in supplementing the conclusion of increased violence due to verbal deficits. However, as this conclusion were not directly examined, future research on abuse performed by domestic violence perpetrators and behaviours exhibited when confronted with new information should be examined.

A follow-up study by Cohen et al. (2003) examined the relationship between the perpetration of domestic violence, impulsiveness, verbal deficits, and executive functioning. This study represented a continued investigation of the relationship between domestic violence perpetrators and executive functioning conducted by Cohen et al. (1999); in this study, the authors suggested that the findings concerning executive functioning and attention deficits from Cohen et al. (1999) might be impacted by impulsiveness. Domestic violence perpetrators were recruited from a group treatment programme at the University of Massachusetts Medical Centre, and the majority of controls were employees of hospitals. To qualify as a non-violent control, participants were pre-screened for no performance of aggressive and violent behaviour performed towards a partner. In total, 41 known male domestic violence perpetrators, and 20 non-violent male controls were recruited. All participants completed a medical history questionnaire, and various measures assessing different domains of executive function and impulsivity. Measures of executive functioning examined attention to detail, sustained attention, vigilance to stimuli, cognitive flexibility,

cognitive processing, general intelligence, planning, problem-solving, mental manipulation of information, processing speed and ability, synthesis of information, perceptual organization, sequencing, auditory processing, motor response via auditory stimulus, verbal fluency, verbal reasoning, verbal expression, verbal memory, verbal flexibility, word knowledge, response inhibition, visual information processing, visual reasoning, and visual-motor skills.

Experimental measures of impulsiveness examined were: response inhibition, behavioural disinhibition, lack of sustained attention and sensation-seeking behaviour.

A MANOVA was conducted on measures of executive function and impulsivity. Significant differences were found when comparing domestic violence perpetrators to nondomestic violence perpetrators in verbal concept formation, word knowledge, language development, verbal expression, cognitive flexibility and verbal fluency, processing speed and ability, and general intelligence. This finding is consistent with the findings of Cohen et al. (1999) where domestic violence perpetrators in the sample were found to have weak verbal skills. This indicated that when compared to non-domestic violence perpetrators, domestic violence perpetrators have a weaker verbal expressive ability, weaker verbal processing ability, weaker cognitive flexibility, and lower general intelligence; suggesting that when faced with a verbal conflict, domestic violence perpetrators may not be able to effectively and efficiently communicate to resolve disagreements as well as non-domestic violence perpetrators. Highly significant differences in cognitive flexibility and verbal fluency indicated that domestic violence perpetrators may be more likely to be impaired on verbal expression when there is a need for cognitive flexibility; suggesting that when compared to non-domestic violence perpetrators, domestic violence perpetrators were not able to quickly shift their attention to another stimuli while verbally expressing themselves. This may lead domestic violence perpetrators to fixate on certain negative issues in a verbal conflict (Chan, Raine, & Lee, 2010). The combination of weaker expressive verbal ability, verbal processing ability, and cognitive inflexibility may affect the ability of domestic violence perpetrators from resolving confrontational situations via verbal mediation, thus exacerbating negative social interaction, and impeding conflict resolution (Cohen, 2003). Weaker expressive verbal ability, verbal processing ability, and cognitive inflexibility may also be related to the severity of violent aggressive behaviour performed towards a partner/ex-partner. This observation was previously made regarding the engagement of physical abuse towards others by domestic violence perpetrators in Norris and colleagues' (2011) study, where domestic violence perpetrators who used harm behaviours may not be as verbally fluent as those who use other abuse tactics (i.e., contact and threat behaviours) may

choose to participate in more severe abuse tactics that do not require verbal engagement, or require an additional means of abuse to coerce the partner/ex-partner and others (i.e., physically harming an individual).

Significant differences were found in all experimental measures of impulsivity (i.e., response inhibition, behavioural disinhibition, sensation-seeking behaviour, and lack of sustained attention to tasks) when compared to non-domestic violence perpetrators. The findings from this study were consistent with the findings from McEwan et al. (2017) where domestic violence perpetrators were found to be more impulsive than non-domestic violence perpetrators. Increased impulsiveness in domestic violence perpetrators may explain violent/aggressive behaviours whilst in the relationship, and the continuation of violent/aggressive behaviour performed towards a partner/ex-partner post-relationship. Domestic violence perpetrators may desire the most efficient solution to resolve a perceived conflict/fault due to having reward/sensation-seeking attributes, as such, the most efficient method may not always be appropriate for the situation. Not fully evaluating the consequence of their actions/reactions performed towards a partner/ex-partner, a domestic violence perpetrator may engage in a tactic of abuse (i.e., physical, sexual, psychological abuse) to ascertain personal benefit.

A study by Persampiere, Poole, and Murphy (2014) examined the relationships between executive function, impulsivity, performed expression of anger, levels of abuse performed, and levels of cognitive distortions experienced in domestic violence perpetrators. Participants were 80 men recruited from counselling services in Baltimore, Maryland after committing domestic violence against a female partner. To assess executive functioning, participants completed measures assessing planning, problem-solving abilities, cognitive flexibility, verbal fluency, consistent inappropriate errors, and levels of reading. To assess impulsiveness, participants completed measures assessing response inhibition, and sustained attention. To assess anger and hostility, participants completed measures assessing anger reactivity, cognitive distortion and irrational beliefs regarding their partner/ex-partner in anger-induced episodes, levels of anger prior to anger episodes, and after anger episodes. To measure psychological and physical aggression, participants completed measures assessing violent behaviours performed towards a partner/ex-partner, dimensions of anger expression and experience, general hostility, and alcohol abuse.

Correlation analysis between all examined variables found several positive, significant correlations. Within executive functioning, consistently making inappropriate

decisions correlated to difficulty planning and problem-solving, response disinhibition, non-sustained attention, cognitive distortions, irrational beliefs, outward expression of anger, and general hostility. Difficulty planning and problem-solving was correlated to response disinhibition, non-sustained attention, cognitive distortions, irrational beliefs, and general hostility. Cognitive inflexibility and non-verbal fluency was correlated to response inhibition, sustained attention, and anger reactivity. Lower reading levels were correlated to response disinhibition, and non-sustained attention. For impulsiveness, response disinhibition and non-sustained attention positively and significantly correlated to planning and problem-solving abilities, cognitive inflexibility and non-verbal fluency, consistently inappropriate errors, irrational beliefs, and cognitive distortions. The results seem to indicate that there is a link between executive functioning, and impulsivity; that most domestic violence perpetrators appear to possess both lower executive functioning, and impulsivity that may lead to more aggression, and cognitive distortions or irrational beliefs.

The results indicated that cognitive distortions and irrational beliefs about their partner/ex-partner, and a general hostility in social situations in domestic violence perpetrators may contribute to inappropriate choices, poor planning, and problem-solving abilities. Additionally, results indicated that cognitive distortion and irrational beliefs about their partner/ex-partner may impact cognitive flexibility, verbal fluency, and response disinhibition in domestic violence perpetrators. Overall, the results for domestic violence perpetrators concerning executive function and impulsiveness suggested a deficit in processing relationship-related information; where domestic violence perpetrators participated in erroneous thinking that may exacerbate aggression towards partners/ex-partners (Persampiere et al., 2014).

A multiple regression analysis on all measures of executive functioning (controlling for impulsivity and covariates) on anger-reactivity, cognitive distortions, and irrational beliefs indicated that poorer performance of cognitive flexibility and verbal fluency significantly predicted higher levels of reactive anger; poorer performance on planning and problem-solving significantly predicted cognitive distortions, and irrational beliefs. The results of the multiple regression suggested that domestic violence perpetrators who are not able to quickly shift their attention to another stimuli while engaged in verbal communication may have a more aggressive exhibition of anger towards their partner/ex-partner, and may participate in erroneous thinking regarding their partner/ex-partner. While cognitive distortions and irrational beliefs were not examined in previous studies, impacts of deficits in verbal expression, planning/problem-solving, and attention shifts remain unchanged; impacts of

these variables may impede the resolution of verbal conflicts or disagreements. Domestic violence perpetrators may not be able to resolve novel conflicts via effective novel solutions, and may fixate on certain issues that are particularly negative. Additionally, domestic violence perpetrators may not be able to verbally expressive themselves fluently to convey potential resolutions. As a result, emotional grievances from unresolved conflicts may then lead domestic violence perpetrators to participate in erroneous thinking about their partner/ex-partner and their partner's intentions (e.g., "She always thinks of herself before me").

A multiple regression analysis on all measure of impulsivity (controlling for executive function and covariates) on anger-reactivity, cognitive distortions, and irrational beliefs indicated that response disinhibition and non-sustained attention significantly predicted cognitive distortions and irrational beliefs. While the role of impulsivity is not discussed in detail in the Persampiere and colleague's (2014) study, the inability to discontinue an initiated behaviour may apply to rumination of negative thoughts leading to cognitive distortions and irrational beliefs about their partner/ex-partner. Rumination is a thought process in which the individual repeatedly thinks about a particular event or experience, lamenting negative aspects of the event/experience (Basha, 2015; Sotelo & Babcock, 2013). Research in other fields of psychology have shown a link between rumination and erroneous thinking (e.g., Basha, 2015; Lucian, 2011; Lyubomirsky & Nolen-Hoeksema, 1995). Domestic violence perpetrators that initiate rumination about a negative experience with a partner/ex-partner may be unable to inhibit rumination, which may lead to erroneous thinking about their partner/ex-partner (e.g., "She wants to date everyone in town because she is talking about me to a friend behind my back"). Additionally, studies in other fields regarding impulsivity may provide an explanation for the types of behaviour shown in male domestic violence perpetrators with higher levels of impulsivity. Marazziti et al. (2009) examined the relationship between gender, impulsiveness, and serotonin (5-HT). Serotonin (5-HT) plays a crucial role in impulsivity, aggression, and self-harm. Participants were men and women from the general population ($N = 32$). Serotonin (5-HT) was found to present itself in different levels and types in men, compared to women. The authors found a positive relationship between the amount of serotonin and higher impulsiveness scores (measured via the BIS-11) only for men, even though women in Marazziti and colleagues' (2009) sample had higher overall impulsivity scores, and higher motor impulsiveness subscale scores (measured via the BIS-11). Results also showed that higher levels of serotonin increased motor impulsiveness in men, but not in women. The findings of this study suggests that serotonin, and consequently

impulsivity, may impact men's aggressive, and self-harm behaviours more than women; where motor impulsivity in men, specifically male domestic violence perpetrators, may contribute to hostility, acts of abuse, and intrusive behaviours towards partner/ex-partners.

A common theme in the results of prior studies examined have shown that domestic violence perpetrators differed from non-domestic violence perpetrators in measures of executive functioning and impulsiveness (Cohen et al., 2004; Persampiere et al., 2014). Deficits in executive functioning included poor verbal expression, poor cognitive flexibility, poor information processing, and poor planning and problem-solving abilities across all studies. Deficits in impulsiveness included poor response inhibition, and sensation seeking/reward-driven behaviour. Both deficits in executive functioning and impulsiveness may account for the propensity for violence and continuation of abuse towards a partner/ex-partner whilst in a relationship to post-relationship status. Noteworthy conclusions from the examination of prior studies were that domestic violence perpetrators were more likely to be impeded in resolving verbal conflict via novel resolutions and verbal mediation due to poor cognitive flexibility, poor verbal processing and expression (Norris et al., 2011; Persampiere et al., 2014). Weaker verbal expression among domestic violence perpetrators may explain the use of more severe abuse tactics towards a partner/ex-partner and others – higher severity of abuse may require less verbal expression, severity of abuse tactics may be related to sensation-seeking/reward-driven impulsive behaviours – immediate gratification of a desire disregarding the consequences of the action/reaction, deficits in executive functioning during partner/ex-partner conflicts may lead to dysregulation of emotional states where domestic violence perpetrators participate in erroneous thoughts of their partner/ex-partner's intentions, and that deficits in behaviour disinhibition may lead domestic violence perpetrators to ruminate about a negative experience with a partner/ex-partner, resulting in erroneous thoughts about the situation.

Domestic Violence and Perfectionism

Perfectionism is a personality trait that demands that the individual designates higher than usual standards and critical evaluations of one's actions (Frost, Marten, Lahart, & Rosenblate, 1990). Historically, commonly used perfectionism measures that demonstrated good reliability and validity, would measure different aspects of perfectionism, and would be subjected to how adaptive or maladaptive the traits was to the individual (Hill, Zrull, & Turlington, 1997; Kilbert, Langhinrichsen-Rohling, & Saito, 2005). Perfectionism scales like the Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (MPS; Hewitt & Flett, 1991) was one such

measure that aimed to measure three aspects to perfectionism: self-orientated, other-orientation, and socially prescribed perfectionism. Self-orientated perfectionists have unreasonably high expectations of themselves, and are hyper-critical of themselves if those expectations are not met. Other-orientated perfectionists have unreasonably high expectations of perfection in relation to other people, and are hyper-critical of people who do not meet the expectations set by the perfectionist. Socially prescribed perfectionists believe that people expect them to be perfect, and that people would be hyper-critical of them if they do not meet those expectations.

Recent studies using factor analyses on commonly used perfectionism scales (e.g., MPS) found that the subscales in perfectionism scales fall into two main factors: perfectionistic concerns, and perfectionistic strivings (Limburg, Watson, Hagger, & Egan, 2016). Based on results of factor analyses, the three subscales of the MPS (Hewitt & Flett, 1991) were separated into a two-factor approach to perfectionism. The socially prescribed subscale in the MPS would be measuring perfectionistic concerns, whereas self-orientated perfectionism, and other-orientated perfectionism would be measuring perfectionistic strivings (Limburg et al., 2016). Perfectionistic concerns reflect an individual's worries about their level of perfectionism (Stoeber & Gandreau, 2017). This includes worries over perceived/actual mistakes made, evaluations of their actions by someone else, and negative feelings towards perceived imperfections. Perfectionistic strivings reflect an individual's sought after level of perfectionism (Stoeber & Gandreau, 2017). This includes the individual's demand of acceptable standards for excellence, and their attempts to strive for perfectionism. Generally, perfectionistic concerns have been associated with negative performance, coping and outcomes (Smith et al., 2016).

As such, individuals with perfectionistic concerns are more likely to engage in rumination that triggers depressive consequences (Smith et al., 2016); where individuals with perfectionist strivings may feel that they are under constant pressure of disappointing other people. In interpersonal relationships, individuals with perfectionistic concerns may perceive negative interactions with others as an evaluation of their current level of achievement, and interpret the interaction as a threat to their self-worth (Rasquinha et al., 2014; Smith et al., 2016). Associations with perfectionistic strivings have mixed results with reports regarding performance, coping and outcomes (e.g., Limburg et al., 2017; Smith et al., 2016; Stoeber & Gandreau, 2017). A longitudinal meta-analysis by Smith et al. (2016) found that perfectionistic strivings were not protective factors against depressive triggers; where individuals with perfectionistic strivings have positive experiences only when expectations

relating to themselves are fulfilled. In interpersonal relationships, individuals with perfectionistic strivings may perceive negative interactions with others as a result of their perceived incapability (Smith et al., 2016). Unlike individuals with perfectionistic concerns (i.e., experience distress as a threat to self-worth), individuals with perfectionistic strivings would be more likely to conceal disappointment and depressive feelings, thus experiencing a lack of positive affect, and more depressive symptoms (Smith et al., 2016). The maladaptive perception of interpersonal interactions may distort interpersonal functioning (e.g., mistrust of others, cynicism, blaming others), interfering with the quality of relationships (Hill et al., 1997). While no available studies have directly examined perfectionism and domestic violence, previous research on perfectionism suggests that perfectionism negatively impacts dyadic relationships (i.e., Furman, Luo, & Pond, 2017; Hill et al., 1997; Stoeber, 2012).

A study by Hill and colleagues (1997) examined the relationship between the three dimensions of perfectionism (i.e., Self-Orientated, Other-Orientation, and Socially Prescribed Perfectionism) interpersonal characteristics, and interpersonal problems. The basis of this study was in response to Hewitt and Flett's (1991) earlier study, documenting that maladaptive forms of the three dimensions of perfectionism can be related to interpersonal and marital problems. Hill et al. (1997) recruited 357 Caucasian university undergraduates in exchange for course credit for their participation. Responses were separated by gender due to significant gender differences in scores.

For male participants, correlations between the self-descriptive characteristics and the three perfectionism subscales found that higher self-orientated perfectionism correlated with assertive, domineering, cocky, boastful, self-confident, ruthless, uncharitable and non-emphatic self-described characteristics. Higher other-orientated perfectionism correlated with assertive, domineering, cocky, boastful, self-confident, ruthless, uncharitable, and non-emphatic self-described characteristics. Higher socially prescribed perfectionism was correlated to cocky, boastful, ruthless, uncharitable, non-emphatic, distressful, and suspicious self-described characteristics. On the measure of interpersonal problems, men reported having low levels of distress in interpersonal relationships for self-orientated perfectionism, low levels of interpersonal distress for other-orientated perfectionism, and moderate interpersonal distress for socially-prescribed perfectionism. However, regression analyses on the self-report of distress for interpersonal problems, and endorsement of items that cause interpersonal distress indicate a considerable amount of variance was associated with negative interpersonal characteristics, and did not support the levels of interpersonal distress reported by male participants. Males with higher self-orientated perfectionism endorsed

interpersonal problems such as being manipulative and controlling, trying to change others, having distrust and being suspicious towards others, and having low empathy towards others. Males with higher other-orientated perfectionism endorsed interpersonal problems such as attention-seeking behaviour towards others, manipulative and controlling, being mistrustful and aggressive towards others, and having low empathy towards others. Males with socially prescribed perfectionism endorsed emotionally distancing techniques, being controlling and manipulative of others, being aggressive and distrustful, and had low empathy towards others.

For female participants, correlations between the self-descriptive characteristics and the three perfectionism subscales found that higher self-orientated perfectionism correlated with accommodating, kind, charitable, enthusiastic, cheerful, and outgoing self-described characteristics. Higher other-orientated perfectionism correlated with confident, calculative, boastful, and arrogant self-described characteristics. Higher socially prescribed perfectionism was negatively correlated to being non-assertive. On the measure of interpersonal problems, women reported having low levels of distress in interpersonal relationships for self-orientated perfectionism, low levels of interpersonal distress on other-orientated perfectionism, and high levels of interpersonal distress for socially-prescribed perfectionism. Regression analyses performed on data for females, compared to males, indicated a more accurate representation of self-report of distress for interpersonal problems, and endorsement of items that cause interpersonal distress. Females with higher self-orientated perfectionism endorsed interpersonal problems such as being overly caring, eager to please, and overly trusting. Females with higher other-orientated perfectionism endorsed interpersonal problems such as being controlling and manipulative towards others, distrustful and suspicious towards others, being aggressive, and having a low empathy towards others. Females with higher socially prescribed perfectionism endorsed interpersonal problems such as trying to change others, anxiety in social situations, over-generosity towards others, attention-seeking behaviours, an inability to be alone, difficulty expressing anger towards others, too eager to please others, controlling others, distrust of others, over permissiveness towards others, and having low empathy towards others.

The results of this study identified specific traits that affect interpersonal relationships based on the subscales of a perfectionism measure. Men and women who had higher self-orientated perfectionism, and socially prescribed perfectionism possessed different interpersonal characteristics, whereas men and women with higher other-orientated perfectionism possessed similar characteristics. The results for characteristics associated with self-orientated perfectionism suggest that men who score higher on the self-orientated

perfectionism subscale would create more social/emotional distance in an interpersonal relationship compared to women. The results for characteristics associated with other-orientated perfectionism suggest that both men and women with higher scores on the other-orientated subscale of perfectionism were equally domineering, distrustful, and vindictive, and would equally create social/emotional distance in interpersonal relationships. The results for characteristics associated with socially prescribed perfectionism suggest that women who score higher on socially prescribed perfectionism are more likely to create more social/emotional distance in an interpersonal relationship compared to men. Overall, men were suggested to have more aggressive negative interpersonal characteristics compared to women; women were suggested to have more negative overly nurturing interpersonal characteristics compared to men (Hill et al., 1997).

While low levels of interpersonal distress were indicated by both men and women on the self- and other-orientated perfectionism subscales, Hill and colleagues (1997) suggest that the negative interpersonal characteristics possessed by men and women on these subscales may lead these individuals to not have insight to the consequences of their personalities (Hill et al., 1997). As a result, negative interpersonal distress may be underreported by individuals who scored higher on self- and other-orientated perfectionism. Men and women who scored higher on socially-prescribed perfectionism reported moderate to high levels of interpersonal distress were suggested by the authors to engage in neurotic patterns of social interaction; leading these individuals to perceive personal acceptance through a critical and conditional fulfilling of perceived expectations. Other studies report similar results in the context of dyadic relationships (i.e., Furman, Luo, & Pond, 2017; Stoeber, 2012).

A study conducted by Stoeber (2012) examined the effects of partner-orientated and partner-prescribed perfectionism on the quality of students' relationships. Participants ($N = 116$) were 58 couples who were in a romantic relationship at the time (53 males, 63 females). Within each couple, at least one partner was a university student. To measure perfectionism in dyadic relationships, an adapted version of the MPS was used to specifically refer to a romantic partner. The name of the subscale was also changed from "other-orientated perfectionism" to "partner-orientated perfectionism", and "socially-prescribed perfectionism" to "partner-prescribed perfectionism". The mode of participants' responses remained the same. Only the partner-orientated perfectionism and partner-prescribed perfectionism subscales were used for this study. Participants were also assessed on measures of relationship satisfaction, and long-term commitment. All participants and their partners completed the three measures.

A multilevel regression analysis showed that higher levels of partner-orientated perfectionism significantly positively predicted the partner's levels of partner-prescribed perfectionism; such that one partner with higher partner-orientated perfectionism was associated with the other partner having higher partner-prescribed perfectionism. A multilevel regression analysis was conducted on partner-orientated perfectionism, partner-prescribed perfectionism, the participants' own ratings of relationship satisfaction, long term commitment, and partner-orientated perfectionism and partner-prescribed perfectionism to their partner's ratings of relationship satisfaction and long-term commitment. Results found that partner-orientated perfectionism and partner-prescribed perfectionism scores were significantly negatively correlated to the participant's own rating of relationship satisfaction; however, only partner-orientated perfectionism had a significant negative effect on the participant's own rating of long-term commitment. No significant relationships were found when the multilevel regression analysis was conducted on partner-orientated perfectionism and partner-prescribed perfectionism in relation to their partner's rating of the long-term commitment and relationships satisfaction.

The results indicate that higher levels of partner-orientated perfectionism in one partner, was positively correlated to higher levels of partner-prescribed perfectionism in the other partner. This relationship suggests that participants with higher partner-prescribed perfectionism may have been aware of their partner's expectations of perfection from them, and may attempt to meet that expectation. Results also suggest that participants with higher levels of partner-orientated perfectionism were less satisfied, and not as committed to the current relationship, compared to individuals with lower levels of partner-orientated perfectionism. Participants with higher levels of partner-prescribed perfectionism were only less satisfied, but committed to the current relationship. The findings from Stoeber (2012) seemed to support the findings from Hill et al. (1997) where individuals with higher other-orientated perfection (partner-orientated perfectionism in Stoeber, 2012), and individuals with higher socially-prescribed perfectionism (partner-prescribed perfectionism in Stoeber, 2012) reported negative personal distress in their relationships.

Furman, Luo, and Pond (2017a,b) used two related studies to explore the effects of partner-orientated and partner-prescribed perfectionism in dyadic relationships. In the first study, the authors investigated the perfectionist's attribution of blame, and cause of a hypothetical transgressions, and the ability to forgive a hypothetical transgression performed by a non-perfectionistic partner. Participants were only recruited if they were currently in a romantic relationship, not married, and not cohabitating with their current partner. In total,

137 participants (93 females, 44 males, mean age 19 years) were recruited. Participants were presented four hypothetical transgressions separately (e.g., “partner agreed to reserve a hotel for your graduation but there was no reservation when parents showed up”); the specific cause and blameworthiness within each hypothetical transgression was deliberately left ambiguous.

Using multileveled analyses, the results of the first study indicated that partner-orientated perfectionism, without controlling for other variables, inversely predicted the willingness to forgive their partners for hypothetical transgressions, but also significantly predicted the attribution of blame for the partner’s hypothetical transgressions. When controlling for gender, relationship commitment, and partner-prescribed perfectionism, partner-orientated perfectionism was found to inversely predict willingness to forgive. This indicates that the relationship between partner-orientated perfectionism, and the willingness to forgive was partially mediated by the attribution of blame for the partner’s hypothetical transgressions. Mediation pathways analyses indicated that each attribution of blame (i.e., partner’s actions were on purpose, partner’s behaviour was selfish, partner deserves to be blamed) had small significant effects. Partner-prescribed perfectionism did not have a significant relationship to willingness to forgive. Partner-prescribed perfectionism, without controlling for other variables, only significantly predicted one causal attribute of the perceived transgressional behaviour (i.e., “The reason for my partner’s behaviour is not likely to change”).

The results indicated that individuals who have higher expectations of their partner (i.e., partner-orientated perfectionism) were unlikely to forgive their partners for hypothetical transgressions, and were more likely to blame their partner for a hypothetical transgression, and interpret this behaviour as selfish and intentional. Individuals with higher partner-orientated perfectionism were likely more critical of their partners, and held more responsibility against their partner for their actions. Partner-prescribed perfectionism were likely to forgive their partners, and only significantly predicted that the transgressional behaviour is a result of the partner’s unchanging behaviour. This suggests that individuals with higher partner-prescribed perfectionism thought that their partner’s behaviour accounted for the transgression, but did not hold their partner responsible for the hypothetical transgression. A lack of blame attribution could explain why PPP did not predict willingness to forgive.

The second study by Furman et al. (2017b) investigated perfectionist’s attributions of blame and cause of a transgression, the willingness to forgive, and stay committed to the non-

perfectionist partner whilst experiencing actual conflict (during the course of their relationship). Perfectionistic participants were asked to write a narrative about a conflict that occurred due to the actions of their non-perfectionistic partner. A multiple linear regression (MLR) of willingness to forgive and partner-orientated perfectionism, willingness to forgive and partner-prescribed perfectionism, controlling for relationship commitment and sex, showed that partner-orientated perfectionism only marginally significantly, inversely predicted willingness to forgive ($p = .052$), and partner-prescribed perfectionism significantly inversely predicted willingness to forgive ($p < .01$). Sex and relationship commitment did not significantly predict willingness to forgive.

An MLR of the perfectionist's attribution of blame, and cause of a transgressions using sex, relationship commitment, partner-orientated perfectionism and partner-prescribed perfectionism as predictor variables showed that partner-orientated perfectionism predicted one aspect of causal attribution: globality (i.e., "The reason for my partner's behaviour is something that affects other areas of our relationship"); whereas partner-prescribed perfectionism predicted two aspects of causal attribution: globality (i.e., "The reason for my partner's behaviour is something that affects other areas of our relationship"), and stability (i.e., "The reason for my partner's behaviour is not likely to change"). As the authors reason that partner-orientated perfectionism marginally predicted willingness to forgive, mediation pathway analyses was conducted using willingness to forgive as a dependent variable, partner-orientated perfectionism as the independent variable, relationship attributions as the mediator, and sex, commitment, and partner-prescribed perfectionism as control variables. Analyses showed that partner-orientated perfectionism and the willingness to forgive was mediated by globality (i.e., "The reason for my partner's behaviour is something that affects other areas of our relationship") and selfish (i.e., "My partner's behaviour was motivated by selfish rather than unselfish concerns"), with a small effect size. Mediator pathway analysis was conducted with willingness to forgive as the dependent variable, partner-prescribed perfectionism as the independent variable, globality (i.e., "The reason for my partner's behaviour is something that affects other areas of our relationship") as the mediator, and sex, commitment, and partner-orientated perfectionism as control variables. Analyses showed that partner-prescribed perfectionism and the willingness to forgive was mediated by globality (i.e., "The reason for my partner's behaviour is something that affects other areas of our relationship").

Based on the marginally significant results of the MLR and the mediator pathways analyses, the results indicate that partner-orientated perfectionism were unlikely to forgive

their partners for an actual transgression, and believed the actual transgression caused by the partner affected other areas of the relationship, and that the reason for the conflict was selfish. Although Furman et al. (2017b) considered the results of the MLR of partner-orientated perfectionism and willingness to forgive as marginally significant, the result should be interpreted with caution as it did not reach the statistically significant threshold. However, the status of marginal significance could suggest that in actual transgressions, individuals with higher partner-orientated perfectionism may be more willing to forgive their partners, compared to hypothetical transgressions. The results of the second study by Furman et al. (2017b) indicate that individuals with higher partner-prescribed perfectionism were unlikely to forgive their partner for an actual transgression. The significant mediator (i.e., globality) suggested that individuals with higher partner-prescribed perfectionism believe the experienced conflict caused by the partner affected other areas of the relationship.

The results from the first and second studies by Furman et al. (2017a, b) showed both similarities and differences between hypothetical transgressions and actual experienced conflict in participants with higher partner-orientated perfectionism and partner-prescribed perfectionism. In both studies, participants with higher partner-orientated perfectionism were unlikely to forgive their partners for hypothetical transgressions, and an experienced conflict (marginally significant). However, the willingness to forgive seemed to be less prevalent in actual transgressions, compared to hypothetical transgressions. Additionally, participants with higher partner-orientated perfectionism differed on attributions of blame in hypothetical and actual transgressions. In both studies, participants with higher partner-prescribed perfectionism differed on the willingness to forgive their partners in actual transgressions, compared to hypothetical conflicts. However, in both hypothetical and actual transgressions, participants with higher partner-prescribed perfectionism did not attribute blame to their partner's transgressions. The differences in causal and blame attributions, and willingness to forgive between the hypothetical transgressions and experienced could be, as stated by Furman et al. (2017a), a result of having privy to contextual factors (e.g., their partner's circumstances, emotional states, events prior to the conflict). Hypothetical transgressions did not allow the perfectionist insight to contextual factors as they were deliberately kept ambiguous by the authors. The lack of contextual factors in hypothetical situations, and the differences in perfectionistic tendencies may have led the perfectionist to interpret transgression differently in each scenario.

The perfectionistic tendencies of partner-orientated perfectionists are such that there are critical standards and evaluations of the perfectionist's partner (Hewitt & Flett, 1991).

Having contextual information about an actual transgression would entail that the perfectionist and their partner are aware of the antecedents of the transgression, expressed themselves, and resolved the transgression. In the context of a partner-orientated perfectionist, a hypothetical situation would provide no means for an exemption from blame, and no indication of the partner's intentions. Based on the findings from Hill et al. (1997), both men and women with higher other-orientated perfectionism (partner-orientated perfectionism in Furman and colleagues' works) were distrustful, domineering, arrogant, and manipulative. Taken together, the findings from Hill et al. (1997) and Furman et al. (2017a,b) may suggest that partner-orientated perfectionists without knowledge of contextual factors may: 1) be suspicious that their partner's actions were intentional, or malicious, possibly due to their own manipulative characteristic; 2) find any fault in themselves, or the situation, possibly due to arrogant, domineering characteristics. Most importantly, their own expectations of their partner have not been met (regardless of the situation). This combination of expectations and characteristics may lead the individual with higher partner-orientated perfectionism to exhibit a more negative response towards their partner in hypothetical scenarios, leading to the unwillingness to forgive their partners in hypothetical transgressions.

In contrast, experienced conflicts placed the partner-orientated perfectionist in a position where contextual factors were known and possibly discussed with their partners. The knowledge and consideration of contextual factors in experienced conflict may have led the partner-orientated perfectionist to empathise in certain domains, with their partner's circumstances. As such, attribution of blame, intentionality, or selfishness was assigned to the partner, but the actions taken by the partner were still judged as having affected the overall relationship. The knowledge of contextual factors and not assigning blame to their partner for their transgression may explain why there was only a marginally significant result for partner-orientated perfectionism and the unwillingness to forgive. In actual transgressions, partner-orientated perfectionists seemed to continue exhibiting characteristics identified by Hill et al. (1997), where their arrogant and domineering characteristic may see the partner's failure to adhere to these expectations as affecting the overall quality of the relationship. The negative characteristics (Hill et al., 1997), and the manner in which an individual partner-orientated perfectionism processes partner-focused conflict (Furman et al., 2017b) may explain why individuals with higher partner-orientated perfectionism in Stoeber's (2012) study were more inclined to report less relationship satisfaction and less commitment to their current relationship.

Results from the first and second study by Furman et al. (2017a,b) indicated that individuals with higher partner prescribed perfectionism would be likely to forgive their partners in hypothetical transgression, reporting that the reason for their partner's behaviour was unlikely to change; but were unlikely to forgive their partners in an actual transgression as their partner's behaviour affected other areas of the relationship. However, participants with partner prescribed perfectionism in both hypothetical and experienced conflict did not hold their partner responsible for the transgression. The perfectionistic tendencies of partner prescribed perfectionists involves self-imposed, perceived expectations of the perfectionist's partner (Hewitt & Flett, 1991). As men and women both exhibited different characteristics in Hill and colleagues' (1997) findings, a plausible explanation between being willing to forgive in hypothetical transgressions, and being unwilling to forgive in actual transgressions may lie in the partner prescribed perfectionist's hypocritical reactions to their partner, contextual factors, and characteristic of the partner prescribed perfectionist (Hill et al., 1997).

The nature of partner prescribed perfectionists is such that there are no critical evaluations, or expectations of their partners. In hypothetical transgressions, partner prescribed perfectionists may lack the necessary contextual information to assess the transgression made by their partner, to gauge forgiveness. This may be an explanation as to why partner prescribed perfectionists reported that the reason for their partner's behaviour would remain unchanged. However, in an actual transgression, partner prescribed perfectionists have knowledge of contextual factors, and may have discussed these factors with their partner. Furman et al. (2017b) postulated that partner prescribed perfectionists may react negatively to their partner's actual transgression due to being dissatisfied, and displeased with the actions of their partner. Partner prescribed perfectionists perceive acceptance through a constant, critical, and conditional fulfilling of perceived expectations of their partner; essentially fulfilling all their perceived expectations for the relationship. As a result, a failure of their partner's adherence to maintain a good relationship (exhibited by reports of the partner's transgression impacting other areas of the relationship) may trigger feelings of injustice for their continued adherence to perceived expectations, or an anger response in the partner prescribed perfectionist (Furman et al., 2017b). The animosity felt by the partner prescribed perfectionist, may have led the partner prescribed perfectionist to be less forgiving of their partners in actual transgressions.

General findings on socially-prescribed perfectionists from Hill et al. (1997) seemed to partially support the findings of Furman et al. (2017a,b); where socially-prescribed perfectionists (partner prescribed perfectionists in Furman et al., 2017a,b) were generally

manipulative, suspicious, aggressive, and low-empathy, and female partner prescribed perfectionists were specifically reported to be permissive, attention-seeking, over-generous, gullible, and unable to spend time alone. In actual transgressions, partner prescribed perfectionists seemed to have an unspoken desire for their partner's maintenance of a good relationship (possibly due to the manipulative characteristic). When the desire was not met, the partner prescribed perfectionist may become aggressive (displeasure and dissatisfaction) and lack empathy for the partner's circumstances (being unlikely to forgive their partners).

The findings from Furman et al. (2017a,b) seemed to support the findings from Stoeber (2012) where individuals with higher partner prescribed perfectionism only reported dissatisfaction (i.e., causal attributions) with the relationship but were still committed to the relationship (i.e., no attributions of blame).

Recent studies have shown that perfectionism can be measured using the two factor approach of perfectionistic concerns and perfectionist strivings. Perfectionism, its individual three components (i.e., self-orientated, other-orientated, socially-prescribed), perfectionistic concerns, and perfectionistic strivings have not been associated with stalking, partner/ex-partner stalking, nor domestic violence. However, the key findings from Hill et al. (1997), Stoeber (2012) and Furman et al. (2017a,b) showed that perfectionism may be associated with negative characteristics that can create interpersonal distress, exacerbate social distances, elevate personal distress, negatively affect the perceived satisfaction and commitment to relationships, affect the manner of, and actual resolutions of conflict in relationships. The current study seeks to explore the plausibility that perfectionism affects stalking attitudes in dyadic relationships.

Research Hypotheses

This study examines the relationships between executive functioning (specifically planning and problem-solving abilities), impulsivity, perfectionism, and the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes between men, and women. Previous research has demonstrated that men and women differ in their endorsement of stalking-related attitudes (McKeon et al., 2014). This study explores the different attitudes endorsed by males and females on each subscale of the Stalking-Related Attitudes Questionnaire (SRAQ). Although this is an exploratory study, a number of tentative predictions can be made. As executive function has a demonstrated role in domestic violence behaviours, it is predicted that executive functioning, specifically planning and problem-solving abilities, will also significantly predict the endorsement of stalking related attitudes towards a current/ex-partner for both men and

women. As impulsiveness has been demonstrated to contribute to domestic violence behaviours, it is predicted that impulsivity will account for a portion of the variance in the endorsement of stalking related attitudes towards a current/ex-partner for both men and women. The contribution of perfectionism to domestic violence and stalking is unclear; hence this study will provide an exploratory examination of the role of perfectionism in the endorsement of stalking related attitudes towards a current/ex-partner for both men and women. Based on the predictions from the literature review, the following hypotheses were examined to understand the relationships between executive functioning (specifically planning and problem-solving abilities), impulsivity, perfectionism, and the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes between men, and women:

Hypothesis 1. Men and women would have statistically significant differences in scores on the Stalking-Related Attitudes Questionnaire, and on the subscales of the Stalking Related Attitudes Questionnaire.

Hypothesis 2. There will be a statistically significant negative relationship between the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes, and executive functioning (specifically planning and problem-solving) for both men and women.

Hypothesis 3. There will be a statistically significant positive relationship between the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes and impulsivity for both men and women.

Hypothesis 4. There will be a statistically significant positive relationship between the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes and perfectionism for both men and women.

Hypothesis 5. A percentage of variance in the results of the Stalking-Related Attitudes Questionnaire will be predicted by executive functioning (planning and problem-solving), followed by impulsivity, then perfectionism for both genders.

Chapter 2: Methods

Participant Demographics

A total of 365 participants were recruited for the study. Eighty-four participants did not complete one or more measures and were excluded from data analysis. The final number of participants included in the data analysis was 281. Participants were 211 students from Curtin University, and 70 participants were from the general population. No statically significant differences were found between the students and the general population on the measure of stalking-related attitudes⁴. As such, participants were combined into one group. Of the sample, 197 (70.1%) were female, and 82 (29.9%) were male. Participants' age ranged from 18 to 62, with a mean of 23.45 years ($SD = 7.04$). A majority of participants were born in Australia ($N = 197, 60.5%$), with the remaining participants originating from 21 different countries (i.e., Azerbaijan, Brunei, China, Colombia, England, Hong Kong, India, Indonesia, Italy, Malaysia, New Zealand, Peru, Romania, Russia, Singapore, Somalia, Sudan, Turkey, United States of America, Vietnam, and Zimbabwe. Of the participants, five (1.8%) had been convicted of a non-motor related offence. All participants had been, or were in a relationship.

Measures

Measures are presented in order of administration. All measures were completed online, at a pace determined by the participant. The testing session lasted approximately 80 minutes (See Appendix A).

Demographics Questionnaire The demographics questionnaire is a 10-item questionnaire asking for socio-demographic information such as age, gender, length of relationship, and country of birth (See Appendix B).

Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (MPS) The MPS is a 45-item, self-report measure of perfectionism (Hewitt & Flett, 1991; See Appendix C). The MPS has three subscales (i.e., self-orientated, other-orientated, and socially-prescribed perfectionism), comprising 15-items in each subscale. Questions include "I never felt like I could meet my parents' expectations" and "I have extremely high goals". Participants respond using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree). All three subscales can be summed to calculate a total score, or can be reported individually. Total scores range from 45 – 315, self-orientated, other-orientated, and socially prescribed perfectionism subscales scores range from 15 – 10. Higher total/subscale scores are indicative of higher perfectionism. The MPS showed good internal consistency of $\alpha = .89$ for self-

⁴ Dependent variable of the current study.

orientated perfectionism, $\alpha = .79$ for other-orientated perfectionism, and $\alpha = .86$ for socially-prescribed perfectionism in a non-clinical population (Hewitt & Flett, 2014). For this study, the MPS had good internal validity at $\alpha = .88$, $\alpha = .88$ for self-orientated perfectionism subscale, $\alpha = .72$ for other-orientated perfectionism subscale, and $\alpha = .79$ for socially prescribed perfectionism subscale.

Stalking-Related Attitude Questionnaire (SRAQ) The SRAQ is a 19 item, self-report measure of an individual's attitudes towards stalking statements (Kamphuis et al., 2005). The SRAQ has three subscales comprising six items in 'stalking is flattering', seven items in 'blaming the victim', and six items in 'stalking is a nuisance' (see Appendix D). Questions include "Some people actually want to be 'stalked'; they see it as a compliment" and "Stranger 'stalking' is the only 'real' stalking". Participants respond using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (absolutely untrue) to 7 (absolutely true). All three subscales can be summed to calculate a total score, or can be reported individually. Total scores range from 19 – 133, the stalking is flattery subscale scores range from 6 – 42, blaming the victim subscale scores range from 7 – 49, and stalking is a nuisance subscale scores range from 6 – 42. Higher total/subscale scores are indicative of more endorsements of stalking-related attitudes. The 19-item SRAQ has demonstrated good internal consistencies of $\alpha = .74$ for 'stalking is a nuisance', $\alpha = .78$ for 'blaming the victim', and $\alpha = .80$ for 'stalking is flattery'. The SRAQ used in the current study has been modified to be gender neutral, as suggested by McKeon, McEwan, and Luebbbers (2014). The word "Women" or "Woman" in the current SRAQ was replaced with "People" and "Person"; the word "Man" used in the context of a desiring a relationship was replaced with "the pursuer". The word "his," "he", was replaced with "their", "they". The word "ex-boyfriend" was replaced with "ex-partner". The internal validity for the SRAQ in this study was $\alpha = .93$, $\alpha = .86$ for the stalking is a nuisance subscale, $\alpha = .81$ for the blaming the victim subscale, and $\alpha = .81$ for the stalking is flattering subscale.

The Barratt Impulsiveness Scale (BIS-11) The BIS-11 is a 30-item self-report questionnaire measuring impulsiveness (Patton, Stanford, & Barratt, 1995). The BIS-11 has three subscales comprising eight items in attentional impulsiveness, eleven items in motor impulsiveness, and eleven items in non-planning impulsiveness (See Appendix E). An example question from attentional impulsiveness would be "I am restless at the theatre or lectures". An example question from the motor impulsiveness subscale would be "I do things without thinking". An example question from the non-planning impulsiveness subscale would be "I say things without thinking". Participants respond using a 4 point Likert scale ranging

from 1 (never/rarely) to 4 (almost always/always). Subscales can be reported individually or summed as a total score. Total scores range from 30 – 120, attentional impulsiveness subscale scores range from 8 – 32, and motor impulsiveness and non-planning impulsiveness subscale scores range from 11 – 44. Higher total/subscale scores are indicative of higher levels of impulsiveness. The BIS-11 has demonstrated good internal consistency ranging from $\alpha = .79$ to $.83$ (Patton, Stanford, & Barratt, 1995). For this study, the BIS had reasonable internal validity (Taber, 2017) of $\alpha = .79$, $\alpha = .65$ for attentional impulsiveness, $\alpha = .67$ for motor impulsiveness, and $\alpha = .66$ for non-planning impulsiveness.

The Tower of London (TOL) The TOL measures an individual's ability to plan and problem solve (Shallice, 1982). Planning and problem-solving are an aspect of executive functioning. This is a computerised task requiring participants to arrange three coloured balls on towers, to match a configuration of coloured balls displayed on the top of the screen (See Figure 1). Participants have a specified maximum number of moves to complete the task; the maximum number of moves was displayed on screen for participants' viewing. The maximum number of moves for each configuration ranges from 1 – 5 moves. Participants are required to complete this activity over 12 trials. The number of trials that a participant successfully completes (within the maximum number of moves) was then calculated. Scores range from 0 – 36 with each trial being worth three points. Higher scores are indicative of better planning and problem-solving abilities (Krikorian, Bartok, & Gay, 1994; Shallice, 1982). The TOL is a well-known task that has been extensively used in the field of psychology on varying populations for the purposes of testing planning and problem-solving abilities in executive functioning. The TOL demonstrated good internal consistency ranging from $\alpha = .70$ to $.73$ in non-clinical populations (Bosgelmez et al., 2015). An internal reliability could not be produced for this measure within the present work as the TOL was generated as a sum score.

Procedure

Permission to conduct this study was granted by Curtin University's Human Research Ethics Committee (ethic approval number: HREC2017-0063) on the 23rd of February 2017. Prior to collection of data, two versions of the questionnaire was created. Both questionnaires were identical, with the exception of the method of recruitment, and method of compensation. For student participants, the study recruited psychology students from Curtin University via the Curtin SONA website. This website facilitates student participation in research studies (a requirement of their undergraduate studies that they can opt out of). For participants from the

general population, the study recruited participants via physical posters placed around Curtin University's campus, as well as electronic posters distributed online via social media platforms (e.g., Facebook).

Promotional material for the study included a shorten Uniform Resource Locator (URL) which directed participants to an information sheet (See Appendix F) that provided participants with a brief description of the study, informed participants that the study was voluntary, and that completion of the study took approximately 80 minutes. Participants were also advised to take short breaks if they experienced fatigue whilst participating in the studying. Following the information sheet, a consent form was presented to the participant. The consent form required participants to acknowledge that they understood the information provided, and agreed to participate in the study. The study did not begin unless the consent form was completed. Upon completion of the consent form, participants were asked to complete the demographics questionnaire, the MPS, the SRAQ, the BIS, and the TOL (in this order)⁵; to examine perfectionism, stalking-related attitudes, impulsivity, and planning and problem-solving respectively.

Upon completion of the demographic questionnaire, and four psychological measures, participants were directed to a debriefing sheet (See Appendix G) that thanked the participant for their participation in the study, and explained the purpose of the study. The debriefing sheet also provided locations of counselling services, and telephone numbers of helplines in the event that participants felt distress after completion of the study. To enable participant compensation, a text box was provided at the end of the study. Students from Curtin University were asked to type their student number for compensation in the form of five SONA points. Participants from the general population were asked to type their residential address for a compensation of a physical \$20 Coles/Myer voucher. All participant student numbers, and residential addresses were kept separately to data from the demographic questionnaire, and four psychological measures. Records of participant student numbers, and residential addresses were destroyed upon successful compensation.

Data Analysis

An independent samples t-test was conducted to determine if males and females had significantly different scores on the SRAQ and the SRAQ subscales (H1). All subsequent analyses were split by gender in the presence of significantly different scores between males

⁵ Counter-balancing was not plausible as the TOL was available on a different platform (i.e., Inquisit)

and females. A Pearson's correlation was conducted to determine the presence of statistically significant relationships for H2, H3, and H4. A path analysis was conducted to test H5. The independent samples t-test and Pearson's correlation was performed in SPSS 24.0, and path analysis was performed on MPlus.

Power Analysis, Sample Size, and Statistical Power

A prior power analysis using G*Power (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009) was conducted for a t-test. For a t-test, an estimated 64 participants were required to achieve a medium effect size ($r = .30$) with α error probability of .05, and a power ($1-\beta$) of .80. For a path analysis, a minimum number of 200 participants provides sufficient statistical power (Hoelter, 1983; Wolf, Harrington, Clark, & Miller, 2013). As the study required a minimum of 200 participants in a statistical test, the study had achieved sufficient power with 281 participants.

Assumption Testing

Normality was assessed for the results of the SRAQ, TOL, MPS, and BIS. Data was examined for skewness and kurtosis. All measures indicated acceptable skewness ($< \pm 2$) and kurtosis ($< \pm 7$; Kim, 2013), with the exception of the TOL for males (skew = -2.10, kurtosis = 5.81). The non-normal distributions could be expected of a large university student sample⁶. Previous studies conducted using the TOL showed that university students achieved mean scores of 57.91% to 73.13% (e.g., Kaller, Unterrainer, & Stahl, 2011; Mitchell & Postin, 2001; Schnirman, Welsh, & Retzlaff, 1998). The current sample achieved a mean of 30.39 (84.42%) for males, with a large score range (6 – 36; 16.67% – 100%), and a mode of 33 (91.67%). The sample in this study had better performance in the TOL, compared to other previously tested samples (i.e., Kaller, Unterrainer, & Stahl, 2011; Mitchell & Postin, 2001; Schnirman, Welsh, & Retzlaff, 1998). The large range of scores, higher mean scores, and high mode may have contributed to the non-normal distribution of scores for the TOL. The large sample size also provided sufficient robustness to perform an independent samples ttest, correlational analysis, and regression analysis. Prior to testing, assumptions for a path analysis were tested. The recommended sample size for a path analysis was 200 participants (Garver & Mentzer, 1999; Hoelter, 1983). As the study had 281 participants, the path analysis was sufficiently powered.

⁶ Negative skew representing higher scores on the TOL

Chapter 3: Results

Independent Samples t-test for SRAQ, and SRAQ Subscales by Gender

Participants were split into groups based on gender. An independent samples t-test was conducted on SRAQ scores, and the three SRAQ subscales (i.e., stalking is a nuisance, blaming the victim, and stalking is flattery). Levene's test indicated that homogeneity of variances were met for the SRAQ, and the three SRAQ subscales ($p > .05$).

On average, male participants had higher scores on the SRAQ ($M = 58.60$, $SD = 19.37$) compared to female participants ($M = 46.77$, $SD = 17.93$). This effect was significant at $t(279) = 4.94$, $p < .001$. On average, male participants had a higher score on the stalking is a nuisance subscale ($M = 15.27$, $SD = 6.68$) compared to female participants ($M = 11.63$, $SD = 5.76$). This effect was significant at $t(279) = 4.62$, $p < .001$. On average, male participants had a higher score on the blaming the victim subscale ($M = 23.57$, $SD = 7.79$) compared to female participants ($M = 18.68$, $SD = 7.46$). This effect was significant at $t(279) = 4.96$, $p < .001$. On average, male participants had a higher score on the stalking is flattery subscale ($M = 19.75$, $SD = 6.96$) compared to female participants ($M = 16.45$, $SD = 6.45$). This effect was significant at $t(279) = 3.83$, $p < .001$.

Descriptive Statistics for the SRAQ, TOL, BIS, and TOL

Table 1 presents participants' scores on the SRAQ, TOL, BIS, MPS, and associated subscales by gender.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for SRAQ, TOL, BIS, and MPS by Gender

	Measure	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Minimum	Maximum	N
Male	SRAQ	58.60	19.37	19	121	84
	SRAQ - Nuisance	15.27	6.68	6	37	84
	SRAQ – Blaming	23.57	7.79	7	45	84
	SRAQ - Flattery	19.75	6.96	6	39	84
	TOL	30.39	5.20	6	36	84
	BIS	67.20	9.07	48	87	84

	BIS – Attention	18.30	2.77	10	23	84
	BIS – Motor	25.27	4.87	15	37	84
	BIS – Non-planning	23.63	4.60	13	35	84
	MPS	180.50	24.26	126	245	84
	MPS – Self	66.63	13.97	30	100	84
	MPS – Others	57.36	9.93	38	82	84
	MPS - Social	56.51	9.56	30	75	84
	Measure	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Minimum	Maximum	N
Female	SRAQ	46.77	17.93	19	95	197
	SRAQ - Nuisance	11.63	5.76	5	30	197
	SRAQ – Blaming	18.68	7.46	7	41	197
	SRAQ - Flattery	16.45	6.45	6	35	197
	TOL	30.28	5.13	8	36	197
	BIS	67.80	9.90	36	94	197
	BIS – Attention	19.51	3.92	811	30	197
	BIS – Motor	24.46	4.41	12	36	197
	BIS – Non-planning	23.82	4.27	13	36	197
	MPS	181.27	26.17	110	253	197
	MPS – Self	68.91	13.02	30	99	197
	MPS – Other	57.17	9.33	31	83	197
	MPS – Social	55.20	11.27	24	91	197

Correlational Analysis

Correlational analyses tested three hypothesis: that there that there would be a statistically significant negative relationship between the endorsement of stalking attitudes (SRAQ), and planning and problem-solving (TOL) for both genders, that there would be a statistically significant positive relationship between endorsement of stalking attitudes (SRAQ) and impulsiveness (BIS) for both genders, and that there would be a statistically significant positive relationship between endorsement of stalking attitudes (SRAQ) and perfectionism (MPS) for both genders. Table 2 presents the results of the correlation analyses for the SRAQ, TOL, BIS, MPS, and associated subscales by gender.

Table 2

Correlations Between SRAQ, BIS, MPS, TOL, and Associated Subscales by Gender

Male	SRAQ	Nuis	Blame	Flatter	TOL	BIS	Att	Motor	Non-plan	MPS	Self	Other
SRAQ	1											
Nuis	.88**	1										
Blame	.90**	.67**	1									
Flatter	.92**	.76**	.75**	1								
TOL	-.21	-.29**	-.10	-.20	1							
BIS	.24*	.26	.12	.27*	-.12	1						

Att	.03	.02	-.02	.09	.01	.56**	1					
Motor	.30**	.33**	.17	.33*	-.18	.78**	.18	1				
Non-plan	.13	.16	.06	.13	-.04	.80**	.31**	.38**	1			
MPS	.03	.01	.06	.01	.04	-.25	.06	-.10	-.41**	1		
Self	-.18	-.21	-.10	-.19	.10	-.42**	-.02	-.25*	-.55**	.83**	1	
Other	.22*	.07	.22*	.17	-.04	-.14	-.00	-.01	-.26*	.74**	.45**	1
Social	.12	.13	.06	.13	-.02	.13	.18	.11	.03	.57**	.17	.180

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *Nuis* = stalking is a nuisance; *Blame* = blaming the victim; *Flatter* = stalking is flattery; *Att* = attentional impulsiveness; *Motor* = motor impulsiveness; *Non-plan* = non-planning impulsiveness; *Self* = self-orientated perfectionism; *Other* = otherorientated perfectionism; *Social* = socially prescribed perfectionism.

Female	SRAQ	Nuis	Blame	Flatter	TOL	BIS	Att	Motor	Non- plan	MPS	Self	Other
SRAQ	1											
Nuis	.90**	1										
Blame	.93**	.77**	1									
Flatter	.90**	.71*	.74**	1								
TOL	-.11	-.14*	-.11	-.06	1							
BIS	.06	.03	.01	.12	.04	1						
Att	-.01	-.03	-.05	.06	.07	.70**	1					

STALKING ATTITUDES AND PSYCHOLOGICAL CORRELATES

52

Motor	.11	.11	.06	.12	-.03	.83**	.35**	1				
Non-plan	.03	-.02	.01	.10	.05	.82**	.34**	.57**	1			
MPS	.20**	.12	.21**	.20**	.05	-.04	.14*	-.12	-.10	1		
Self	.08	-.00	.12	.09	.17	-.18*	.02	-.21**	-.23**	.85**	1	
Other	.18**	.16*	.17*	.18*	-.07	-.08	-.01	-.08	-.09	.73**	.50**	1
Social	.21**	.16*	.21*	.20**	.00	.18**	.32**	.04	.09	.73**	.41**	.28**

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *Nuis* = stalking is a nuisance; *Blame* = blaming the victim; *Flatter* = stalking is flattery; *Att* = attentional impulsiveness; *Motor* = motor impulsiveness; *Non-plan* = non-planning impulsiveness; *Self* = self-orientated perfectionism; *Other* = other-orientated perfectionism; *Social* = socially prescribed perfectionism.

Predicting the Scores on the SRAQ Using the TOL, BIS, and MPS by Gender

A path analysis was conducted using Mplus Version 8 (Muthen & Muthen, 1998 – 2017) to test the influence of the TOL, BIS, and MPS on SRAQ scores by gender. For males, results indicated that the BIS significantly predicted a positive effect, $\beta = .50$, $SE = .23$, $p < .05$ (see Figure 2). For females, results indicated that the MPS significantly predicted a positive effect, $\beta = .14$, $SE = .05$, $p < .01$ (see Figure 3).

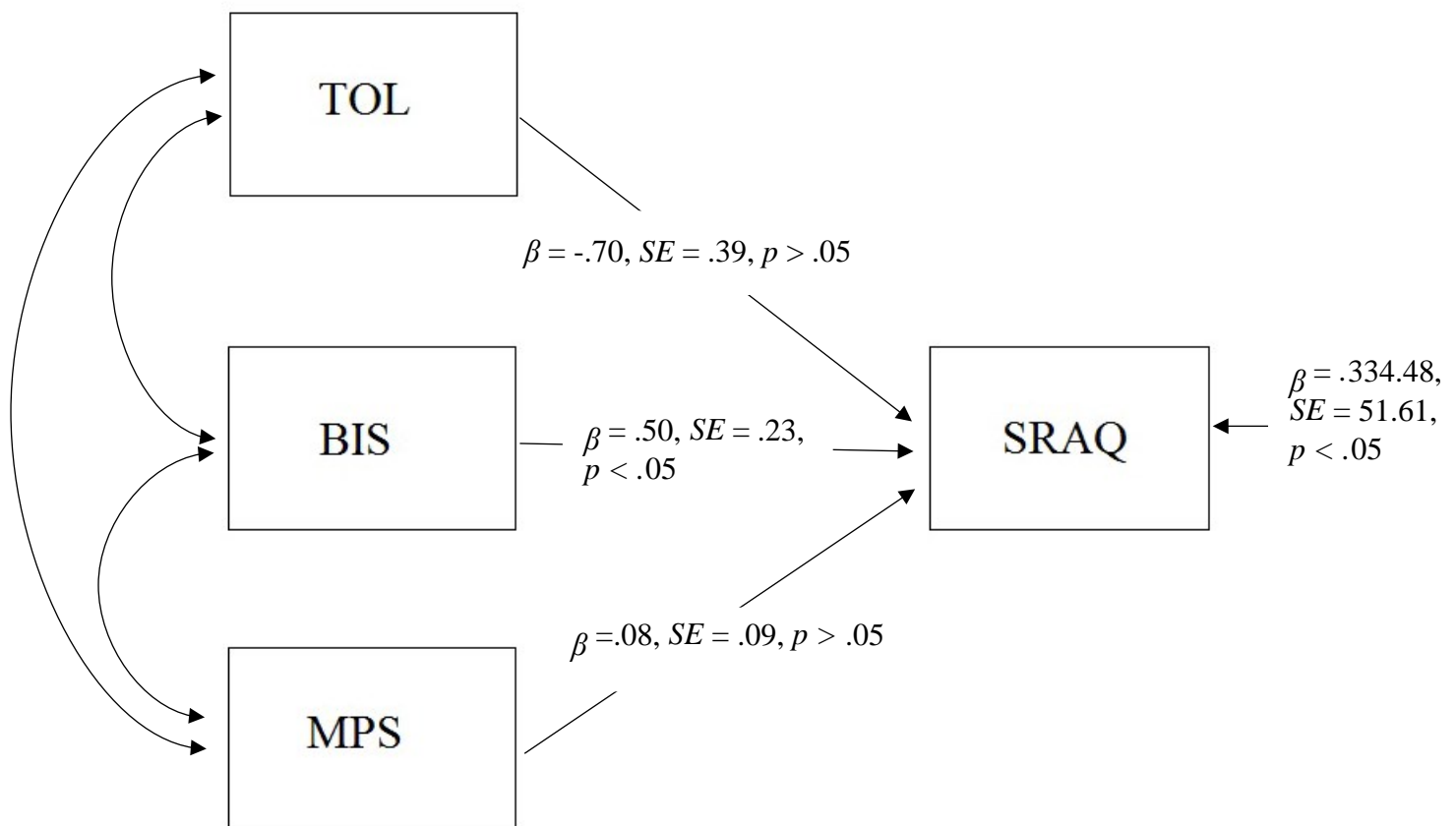


Figure 2

Path Analysis Model for Males Using TOL, BIS, and MPS to Predict SRAQ Scores

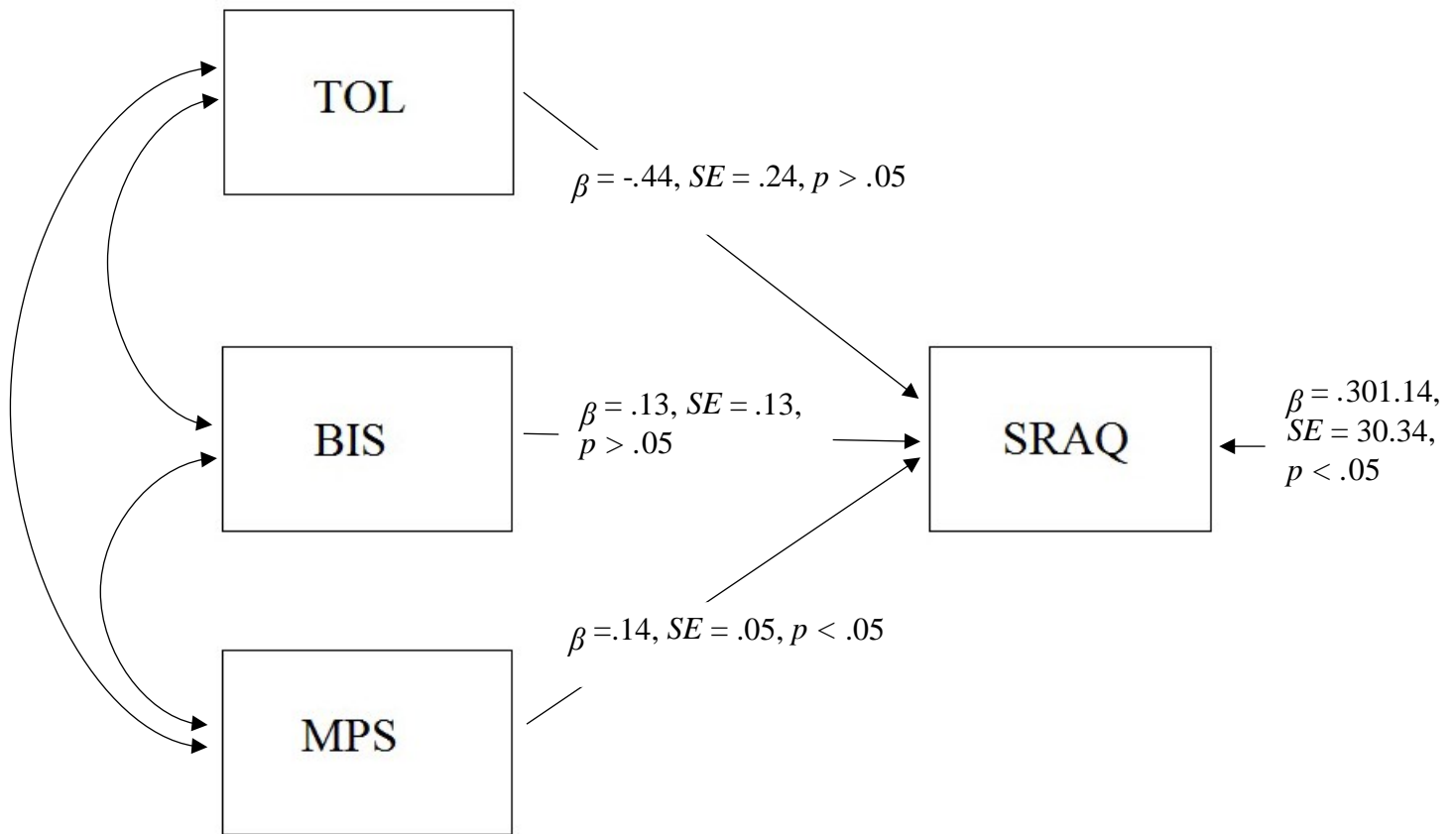


Figure 3

Path Analysis Model for Females Using TOL, BIS, and MPS to predict SRAQ scores

As the path analysis found that BIS scores were a significant predictor for male SRAQ scores, and MPS scores were a significant predictor for female SRAQ scores, further analysis was conducted to determine which subscale of the BIS, and MPS significantly influenced SRAQ scores. Results found that only the motor impulsiveness subscale significantly predicted SRAQ scores for men ($\beta = 1.18, SE = .45, p < .05$; see Figure 4). For women, other-orientated perfectionism ($\beta = .33, SE = .15, p < .05$), and socially prescribed perfectionism ($\beta = .31, SE = .12, p < .05$; see Figure 5) significantly predicted SRAQ scores for women.

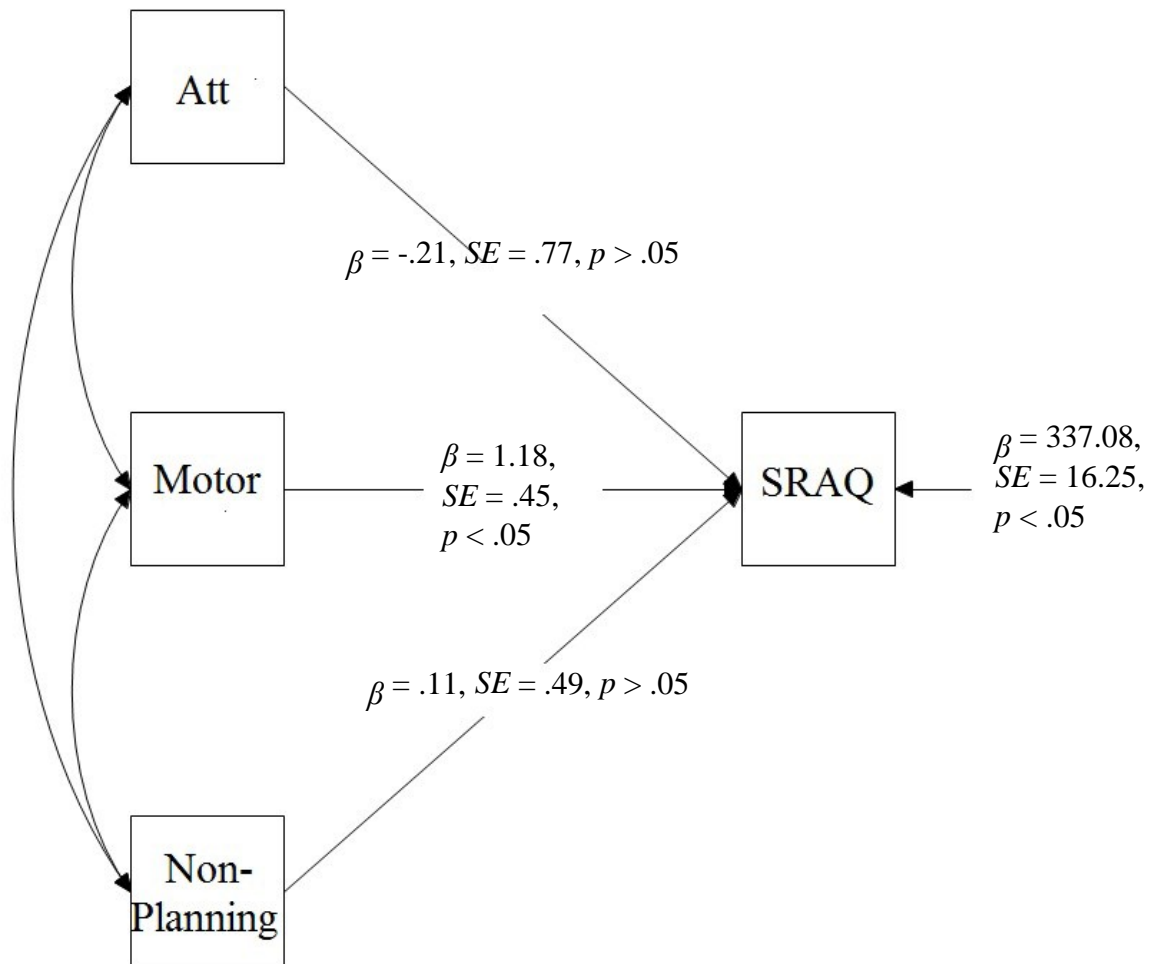


Figure 4

Path Analysis Model for Male SRAQ Scores Using BIS Subscales

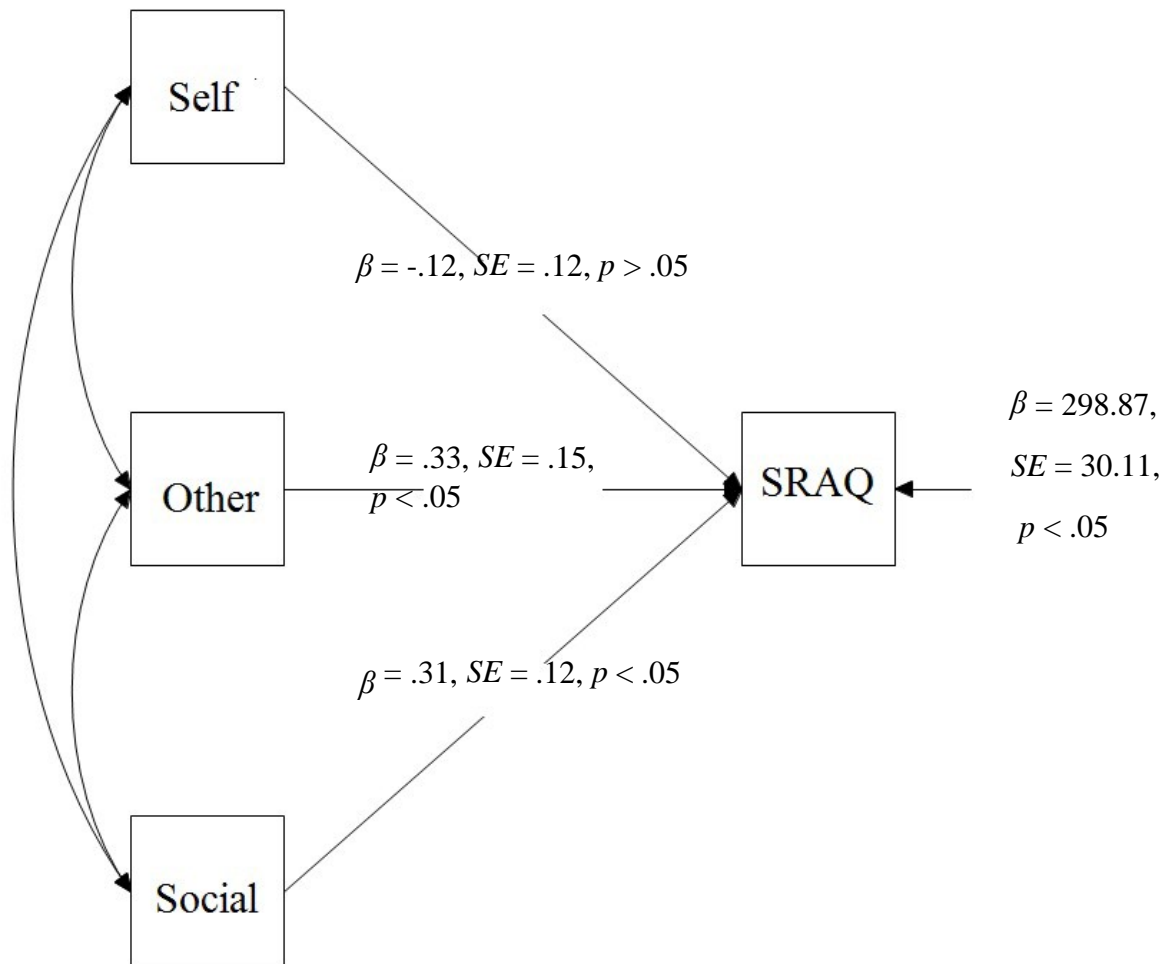


Figure 5

Path Analysis for Female SRAQ Scores Using MPS Subscales

Chapter 4: Discussion

The purpose of this study was to explore potential relationships between the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes, and impulsivity, planning and problem-solving, and perfectionism. The study was conducted specifically on men and women who have been in romantic relationships, or were in romantic relationships at the time of data collection. The endorsement of stalking-related attitudes was measured using the SRAQ, planning and problem-solving was measured using the TOL, impulsivity using the BIS, and perfectionism using the MPS. As gender is known to influence the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes (McKeon, McEwan, & Luebbbers, 2014), correlational analyses and multiple linear regression analyses were conducted separately for males and females.

Five hypotheses were explored. H1 stated that men and women would have statistically significant different scores on the SRAQ, and the SRAQ subscales. H2 – H4 explored the correlation between endorsement of stalking-related attitudes, and planning and problem-solving, impulsiveness, and perfectionism for both men and women. H5 explored the variance accounted for by planning and problem-solving, impulsiveness, and perfectionism in both genders. The findings of this preliminary study indicate that stalking-related attitudes may be related to different psychological variables in men and women.

Scores on the SRAQ, and SRAQ Subscales by Gender

The hypothesis that there would be significant differences between male and female scores on the SRAQ, and SRAQ subscales was supported. This is consistent with previous findings from McKeon et al. (2014) where a medium significant difference ($d = .52$) between male and female SRAQ overall scores and SRAQ subscale scores was identified, and Kamphuis et al. (2005) where males scored higher than females on the combined SRAQ, and on each individual subscale. Based on the findings, and the context of what each subscale entails, it could be suggested that men who have experienced romantic relationships are more likely to misconstrue stalking as follows: 1) that stalking is justifiable, and normalised, and that the reactions by victims of stalking can be minimised in select situations that are determined by the partner/ex-partner stalker, 2) that stalking behaviour is part of a valid courtship strategy, and should not be considered a crime; that it is harmless, but may be seen as a nuisance, 3) that stalking behaviour is romantic, and is a form of flattery towards the victim, 4) that victims deserve to be stalked as victims contribute to the continuation of stalking, or encourage the stalker to continue stalking behaviour (McKeon et al., 2014). The attitudes portrayed within the three subscales have been suggested to reflect part of a gendered culture script that involves interpersonal violence (i.e., rape, domestic abuse,

stalking) as experienced mainly by women (McKeon et al., 2014; Yanowitz, 2006).

Correlation and Path Analysis of the SRAQ to TOL, BIS, and MPS scores

Planning and Problem-Solving and Stalking-Attitudes The hypothesis that there would be a statistically negative relationship between the SRAQ and EF (specifically planning and problem-solving) for both males and females was not supported. While correlations trended in the expected direction for both males ($r = -.21$) and females ($r = -.11$), they were not found to be significant. These scores may be a result of the sample used in this study (i.e., students and general population). Previous studies (i.e., Cohen et al., 1999; Cohen et al., 2003; Persampiere, Poole, & Murphy, 2014), recruited both controls and convicted/identified domestic violence perpetrators, and controls performed better than domestic violence perpetrators in executive functioning tasks. As the current study did not have a large sample of domestic violence perpetrators ($N = 5$ participants convicted of nonmotor related offence), nor a comparison group comprised of partner-stalkers, a measure of executive functioning (specifically the TOL) may not be appropriate. Adjustments to measures of executive functioning, and more appropriate sample groups are further discussed in the 'Limitations' section below.

Impulsivity and Stalking-Attitudes The hypothesis that there would be a statistically positive relationship between the SRAQ and the MPS for both males and females was partially supported. Results found that only males' scores for the BIS and the SRAQ were significantly positively correlated. In other words, men with higher impulsivity scores endorsed more stalking-related attitudes. Path analysis on the individual subscales of the BIS indicated that only the male motor subscale scores significantly predicted male SRAQ scores. This result appears to be consistent with previous research of male partner-violent individuals (i.e., Cohen et al., 2003; Persampiere et al., 2014). Motor impulsiveness associates an individual with the maladaptive traits of sensation-seeking and behaviour disinhibition; and may in part, explain the persistence and range of stalking behaviour of partner/ex-partner stalkers. In a partner/ex-partner situation, potential male partner/ex-partner stalkers with motor impulsiveness, specifically behaviour disinhibition, may execute a behaviour without considering the consequences of that behaviour for themselves, or for the partner/ex-partner, and may not be able to stop performing these actions. Additionally, due to sensation-seeking traits, stalking behaviour performed may vary and range between more minor stalking behaviour (e.g., harassment) to more major stalking behaviour (e.g., physical assault) based on the perceived reward gained by the potential male partner/ex-partner stalker. As such, potential male partner/ex-partner stalkers with higher levels of motor impulsiveness may not

perform behaviours that are socially appropriate for certain situations involving a partner/expartner, may not be able to stop performing these behaviours, and may engage in escalating stalking behaviour over a period of time (e.g., frequently calling the victim on the telephone, to showing up at places the victim might be, to threatening to kill/harm the victim). While men and women are both capable of impulsiveness, it is important to note that men seemed to be more associated with impulsiveness; specifically, with motor impulsiveness (e.g., Lundahl, Wahlstrom, Christ, & Stoltenberg, 2015; Stoltenberg, Batién, & Birgenheir, 2008). Findings from Chamorro et al.'s (2012) study measuring impulsivity in the general population found that men were significantly more impulsive compared to women. Additionally findings from Marazziti et al. (2009) also found that motor impulsivity was more pronounced in men, compared to women; despite women having higher impulsivity scores. Based on the results from Marazziti et al. (2009), Cohen et al. (2003), Persampiere et al. (2014), and the current study, it can be suggested that men have a higher association with motor impulsiveness compared to women, and that men with higher motor impulsiveness have been associated with intrusive behaviour. Considerations for future studies are further discussed in 'Limitations'.

Perfectionism and Stalking-Attitudes The hypothesis that there would be a statistically positive relationship between the SRAQ and the MPS for both males and females was partially supported. Despite evidence from prior studies (Furman et al., 2017; Stoeber, 2012) suggesting that both men and women who were higher in perfectionism would have maladaptive characteristics that negatively impacted interpersonal relationships, results for men with higher perfectionism in this study did not show a significant relationship between higher perfectionism and higher endorsement of stalking-related attitudes. Results show that higher perfectionism scores in females showed a small significant positive correlation with the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes. In other words, women with higher levels of perfectionism endorsed more stalking-related attitudes. Results from the path analysis showed that female SRAQ score were significantly predicted by other-orientated perfectionism, and socially prescribed perfectionism. The results may be due to the differences in characteristics between men and women with higher levels of perfectionism (Hill et al., 1997), and appeared to be consistent with the two types of perfectionism (i.e., partner-orientated perfectionism, partner prescribed perfectionism) seen in interpersonal conflict (Furman et al., 2017; Hill et al., 1997; Stoeber, 2012). It is also notable that using the two factor approach of perfectionism, that the other-orientated perfectionism is considered as

perfectionistic concerns, and socially prescribed perfectionism is considered perfectionistic strivings.

While men and women have maladaptive characteristics associated with higher levels of perfectionism, men have been associated with more aggressive, domineering traits, while women have been associated with more overly-nuturant traits (i.e., over-generosity, eager to please, permissive, overly-trusting; Hill et al., 1997). It may be reasoned that women who are non-partner stalkers, with higher partner-prescribed perfectionism (socially-prescribed perfectionism in the current study), and who possess overly-nuturant characteristics may be more lenient in regards to stalking-related attitudes, allowing or overlooking negative interpersonal interactions due to being overly-trusting, or being eager to please their partner. This may also be explained in terms of the two-factor approach to perfectionism, where individuals with perfectionistic concerns are more worried about their perceived or actual mistakes, or evaluation of those mistakes by their partner (Stoeber & Gandreau, 2017). As a result, women with higher partner-prescribed perfectionism might endorse more stalking-related attitudes in an attempt to keep their partner (should their partner perform stalking behaviour) satisfied. Alternatively, women who are partner-stalkers, with higher partner-orientated perfectionism (other-orientated perfectionism in the current study) may see these attitudes as a form of care for their current/ex-partners; expecting their partners to understand and accept these motives. Using the two-factor approach to perfectionism, individuals with perfectionistic strivings may strive for perfectionism in their relationships, and see stalking behaviour as an excellent manner of showing concern towards their partner/ex-partner (Stoeber & Gandreau, 2017).

Despite characteristic differences in other-orientated perfectionism, and socially prescribed perfectionism, females with both higher other-orientated, and higher socially prescribed perfectionism may view some stalking-related attitudes as a form of reconciliation, care or acceptance towards/from their partner/ex-partner. However, the interpretation of these stalking-related attitudes differ between both groups of women. For example, females with higher other-orientated perfectionism, and females with higher socially prescribed perfectionism may both endorse similar stalking-related attitudes (e.g., repeatedly following someone, making phone calls, and leaving gifts doesn't actually hurt anyone; stalking is just an extreme form of courtship, "stalkers" only continue because they get some sort of encouragement), but interpret these behaviours based on the type of perfectionist they are (i.e., socially prescribed and perfectionistic concerns; other-orientated and perfectionistic strivings). The socially prescribed perfectionistic concerns perfectionist,

may interpret these behaviours as a romantic gesture from their partners in a bid to keep their partners happy, and maintain the overall quality of the relationship (Furman et al., 2017a,b; Stoeber, 2012). The other-orientated, perfectionistic strivings perfectionist, may interpret these behaviours as a romantic gesture towards their partner to improve the overall quality of the relationship (Furman et al., 2017a,b; Stoeber, 2012). Considerations for future studies are further discussed in 'Limitations'.

General Discussion

The results of this study identified that motor impulsivity was correlated to, and predicted the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes for men; that other-orientated perfectionism and socially prescribed perfectionism was correlated to, and predicted the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes for women. No prior studies have examined the direct link between the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes, and executive functioning, perfectionism, and impulsiveness. Thus, the findings in this current study have provided a preliminary examination of these factors. The current study found that there were significant differences in mean scores between men and women on the SRAQ. While the scores on the SRAQ in the current study were relatively low, the significant difference suggests that men and women among an Australian student/general population endorsed different levels of stalking-related attitudes. The results of this study found that the difference in endorsement of stalking-related attitudes between men and women, may be explained to some degree by different intrinsic traits (i.e., impulsivity, perfectionism).

The endorsement of stalking-related attitudes was only associated with motor impulsivity for men. As motor impulsivity significantly correlated to, and predicted the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes for men, it may be reasonable to suggest that motor impulsiveness, may be a unique predictor for men's endorsement of stalking-related attitudes. It was proposed that men who are potential partner-stalkers and have higher motor impulsivity may perpetuate stalking behaviour without the ability to stop, and may escalate in frequency and intensity of stalking behaviour over a period of time.

The endorsement of stalking-related attitudes was only associated with other-orientated, and socially prescribed perfectionism for women. As other-orientated, and socially prescribed perfectionism significantly correlated to, and predicted the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes for women, it may be reasonable to suggest that other-orientated, and socially prescribed perfectionism might be unique predictive variables for women's endorsement of stalking-related attitudes.

Limitations

The results of this exploratory study showed that there is a relationship between other-orientated, and socially prescribed perfectionism for females, and motor impulsivity for males in predicting the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes. However, these results should be taken as preliminary. To gain a better understanding of relationships between executive functioning, impulsivity, perfectionism and stalking-related attitudes, future studies may consider the following suggestions. Whilst the current study found that men had significantly higher scores on the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes, and had support from previous studies, it is important to note that McKeon and colleagues (2014) used the 34-item SRAQ. While the contents of the three factor structures using the 34-item SRAQ remained similar, the 34-item SRAQ included other questions that did not have higher factor loadings in the factor analysis. This might not affect the results found by the authors, however, a further cull of questions on the 34-item SRAQ may improve reliability statistics of the 34-item SRAQ. As a result, the 19-item SRAQ by Kamphuis and colleagues (2005) was used in this study instead. However, future studies may benefit from examining the 34-item SRAQ to examine if the use of the 34-item SRAQ better correlated to measures of executive function, impulsivity, and perfectionism. Whilst the findings of the study support that men and women differed in the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes, and that men support more stalking-related attitudes in each subscale of the SRAQ, it may also be worthwhile examining if men and women interpreted, or understood the questions on the SRAQ in a similar manner. As such, further investigation on the invariance of the measure between men and women may be considered.

While some variables have been identified as influencing men and women's endorsement of stalking-related attitudes, it should be noted that there were significant correlations between other subscales and measures that have not been examined. For example, TOL had a significant negative correlation to the stalking is a nuisance subscale for both men and women. This may indicate the presence of a relationship between better planning and problem-solving, and the acknowledgement that stalking is a crime, and not just a nuisance. As such, future studies may consider using a range of executive functioning measures to assess different areas of executive functioning (e.g., cognitive flexibility, verbal fluency), when examining the relationship to stalking-related attitudes. Future research may also consider using a more diverse population. Sampling may include female and male partner-stalkers, or perpetrators of domestic violence from intervention programs as the experimental group, and the general population, or university students as control groups. To

ensure that controls did not have violent tendencies towards their partners, control populations for future studies should be evaluated on the International Dating Violence Study (IDVS; Straus, 2004) prior to participating.

Another unexamined relationship includes negative correlations between combined impulsivity (BIS), the motor impulsivity subscale, and the non-planning impulsivity subscale, to self-orientated perfectionism. However, self-orientated perfectionism scores did not correlate with SRAQ scores, nor the three subscales measuring the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes. This relationship was shown in both correlations for males and females, and may indicate the presence of interdependent variables; such that individuals with higher self-orientated perfectionism appear to be less impulsive overall, have less motor, and non-planning impulsivity. Future research may consider examining if self-orientated perfectionism mediated/moderated impulsivity in the context of intrusive behaviour.

For perfectionism, the findings from the current study generated two questions that may be explored by future studies. As other-orientated and socially prescribed perfectionism were identified as predictors of female SRAQ scores, do 1) women with higher other-orientated perfectionism endorse stalking-related attitudes as a means to reconcile with or court the current/ex-partner?, and 2) women with higher socially-prescribed perfectionism endorse stalking-related attitudes to appease their current/ex-partners? Following the results of the current study, future studies on a similar topic may also benefit by using the partner-specific MPS presented in Furman et al. (2017) and Stoeber (2012), where statements of perfectionistic tendencies on the other-orientated perfectionism and socially-prescribed perfectionism subscales have been adapted to be partner-centric.

The endorsement of stalking-related attitudes, perfectionism, and impulsiveness measures used in this study were self-report questionnaires. As such, the susceptibility to positive response, or social desirability may be present. The reliability of responses from participants may be improved by including a partner version of these measures. Partner versions of personality and relational functioning inventories would involve the participant's partner responding to questions on the measure, based on the actions exhibited by the participant during the course of the relationship.

It is not yet known whether the SRAQ is associated with actual stalking behaviour. As the possible presence of mediators was identified, future studies on intrinsic differences between males and females in the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes may consider using 1) an in-depth personality assessment scale (e.g., IAS – R; Wiggins et al., 1988; IIP – C; Alden et al. 1990; PAI, Morey, 1991), and 2) relational functioning measures (e.g., OQ –

45.2; Lambert & Finch, 1996) to explore possible mediators, and other predictive variables in the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes, and 3) a structured diagnostic interview (e.g., AUDADIS – IV; Grant et al., 2003) to assess underlying or external factors that may impede/exacerbate endorsement of stalking-related attitudes.

Lastly, a majority of the studies examining stalking and domestic violence have recruited individuals from Western, Educated, Industrialized, Rich, and Democratic (WEIRD; Henrich, Heine & Norenzayan, 2010) countries. Similarly, a majority of stalking, and domestic violence studies focused mainly on heteronormative dyadic relationships; these recruitment techniques may produce results/findings that may not be reflective or generalizable to individuals that are not within WEIRD countries or heteronormative dyadic relationships, and may cause researchers to lose possible variations in their data (Henrich et al., 2010). Future studies may consider recruitment of samples to better resemble global populations and gender diversity.

Implications

Previous studies have reliably identified the presence of a prior relationship as a known risk factor for stalking (Churcher & Nescar, 2013), and it has been found that partner-stalkers perform a larger range of stalking tactics more frequently, and more aggressively than other relational subtypes; leading to greater psychological distress for their victims (Logan & Walker, 2009). Impulsiveness and maladaptive perfectionism have been associated with aggressive behaviours and traits in dyadic relationships (Becerra-Garcia, 2015; Cohen et al., 2003; Chamorro et al., 2012; Hill et al., 1997). Additionally, impulsiveness has been associated with dangerous, risk-taking behaviours (Becerra-Garcia, 2015; Chamorro et al., 2012), and perfectionism associated with domineering characteristics in males and females, and overly-nurturant characteristics in females (Hill et al., 1997). These intrinsic characteristics may relate to the endorsement of stalking-related attitudes, and may consequentially negatively affect partner-stalking behaviours. More importantly, the current study provided a preliminary illustration of how the interaction of intrinsic personality traits and circumstances in dyadic relationships could negatively exacerbate aggressive/controlling behaviour.

The detection of gender specific risk-factors that exacerbate partner stalking behaviour would greatly contribute to the investigation of partner stalkers and their other motivations, redefine the categorisation of male and female partner stalkers, assisting risk assessments (stalking desire in risk assessments (e.g., Stalking Assessment and Management, Kropp, Hart, Lyon, & Storey, 2011; Stalking Risk Profile, McKenzie et al., 2009), potentially

reducing/preventing recidivism in convicted partner-stalkers, and faster identification of partner stalkers. At a therapeutic level, clinicians may be able to further identify similar intrinsic factors that may exacerbate an identified partner stalker's stalking. Should other intrinsic factors be identified, the incorporation of treatments that can alleviate the inclination to stalk, may be applied to existing intervention strategies leading to better treatments outcomes when counselling, or treating identified male/female partner stalkers.

References

- Alden, L., Wiggins, J., & Pincus, A. (1990). Construction of circumplex scales for the Inventory of Interpersonal Problems. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 55(3), 521-536. doi: 10.1207/s15327752jpa5503&4_10
- Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2017). In Focus: Crime and Justice Statistics, Stalking. Retrieved from [http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/Latestproducts/4524.0 Main%20Features4Stalking%20-%20June%202017?opendocument&tabname=Summary&prodno=4524.0&issue=Stalking%20-%20June%202017&num=&view=](http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/Latestproducts/4524.0>Main%20Features4Stalking%20-%20June%202017?opendocument&tabname=Summary&prodno=4524.0&issue=Stalking%20-%20June%202017&num=&view=)
- Australian Government Solicitor. (2009). Domestic Violence Laws in Australia (pp. 23-181). Australia: Department of Families, Housing, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs.
- Babor, T. F., Huggins-Biddle, J. C., Saunders, J. B., & Monteiro, M. G. (2001). *The Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test: Guidelines for use in primary care* (2nd ed.). Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organisation.
- Barocas, B., Emery, D., & Mills, L. G. (2016). Changing the Domestic Violence Narrative: Aligning Definitions and Standards. *Journal of Family Violence*, 31(8), 941–947. doi:10.1007/s10896-016-9885-0
- Basha, S. E. (2015). Rumination, cognitive distortion, and its relation to anxiety and depression symptoms. *Indian Journal of Health and Wellbeing*, 6(11), 1049-1061. Retrieved from <https://search-proquest-com.dbgw.lis.curtin.edu.au/docview/1755075839?accountid=10382>
- Becerra-García, J. (2015). Neuropsychology of domestic violence: A comparative preliminary study of executive functioning. *Medicine, Science and the Law*, 55(1), 35-39. doi: 10.1177/0025802414525148
- Beck, A., Steer, R., & Brown, G. (1996). *Manual for the Beck Depression Inventory–II* (1st ed.). San Antonio, Texas: Psychological Corporation.
- Benton, A. L., & Hamsher, K. S. (1983). Multilingual aphasia examination: Manual of instructions. Iowa City: Dept. of Neurology and Psychology, University of Iowa.

- Bickel, W. K., Jarmolowicz, D. P., Mueller, E. T., Gatchalian, K. M., & McClure, S. M. (2012). Are executive function and impulsivity antipodes? A conceptual reconstruction with special reference to addiction. *Psychopharmacology*, *221*(3), 361-387. doi: 10.1007/s00213-012-2689-x
- Bosgelmez, S., et al. (2014). Reliability and validity of the Turkish version of Cognitive Assessment Interview (CAI-TR), *Bulletin of Clinical Psychopharmacology*, *25*(4), 111. doi: 10.5455/bcp.20150502064017
- Braddock, K., Dillard, J., Voigt, D., Stephenson, M., Sopory, P., Anderson J. (2011). Impulsivity partially mediates the relationship between BIS/BAS and risky health behaviors. *Journal of Personality*, *79*(4), 793-810. doi: 10.1111/j.14676494.2011.00699.x
- Brewster, M. P. (2000). Stalking by former intimates: Verbal threats and other predictors of physical violence. *Violence and Victims*, *15*(1), 41-54. Retrieved from <https://searchproquest-com.dbgw.lis.curtin.edu.au/docview/208555149?accountid=10382>
- Brewster, M. P. (2003). Power and control dynamics in prestalking and stalking situations. *Journal of Family Violence*, *18*(4), 207-217. doi: 10.1023/A:1024064214054
- Buller, A., Devries, K., Howard, L., & Bacchus, L. (2014). Associations between intimate partner violence and health among men who have sex with men: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Public Library of Science Medicine*, *11*(3), 1-12. doi: 10.1371/journal.pmed.1001609
- Burgess, A.W., Baker, T., Greening, D., Hartman, C. R., Burgess, A. G., Douglas, J. E., & Halloran, R. (1997). Stalking behaviours within domestic violence. *Journal of Family Violence*, *12*(4), 389-403. doi: 10.1023/A:1021931509143
- Buschke, H. (1973) Selective Reminding for analysis of memory and learning. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behaviour*, *12*(5), 543-550. doi: 10.1016/S00225371(73)80034-9
- Caprara, G. (1986). Indicators of aggression: The dissipation-rumination scale. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *7*(6), 763-769. doi: 10.1016/0191-8869(86)90074-7

- Carney, M. M., & Barner, J. R. (2012). Prevalence of partner abuse: Rates of emotional abuse and control. *Partner Abuse, 3*(3), 286-335. doi: 10.1891/1946-6560.3.3.286
- Causbrook, M. (2018). Taking controlling and coercive behaviour seriously: Criminalising domestic violence in NSW. *Alternative Law Journal, 43*(2), 102–107. doi:10.1177/1037969x18772160
- Chamorro, J., Bernardi, S., Potenza, M. N., Grant, J. E., Marsh, R., Wang, S., & Blanco, C. (2012). Impulsivity in the general population: A national study. *Journal of Psychiatric Research, 46*(8), 994-1001. doi: 10.1016/j.jpsychires.2012.04.023.
- Chan, H. C., & Sheridan, L. (2017). Is this stalking? Perceptions of stalking behaviour among young male and female adults in Hong Kong and mainland China. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 088626051771118*, 1-25. doi:10.1177/0886260517711180
- Chan, S. C., Raine, A., & Lee, T. M. (2010). Attentional bias towards negative affect stimuli and reactive aggression in male batterers. *Psychiatry Research, 176*(2-3), 246-249. doi: 10.1016/j.psychres.2008.12.013
- Cho, H., Hong, J., Logan, T. (2012). An ecological understanding of the risk factors associated with stalking behaviour: Implications for social work practice. *Affilia: Journal of Women and Social Work, 27*(4), 381–390. doi: 10.1177/0886109912464474
- Churcher, F. P., & Nesca, M. (2013). Risk factors for violence in stalking perpetration: A meta-analysis. *FWU Journal of Social Sciences, 7*(2) 100-112. Retrieved from <https://search-proquest-com.dbgw.lis.curtin.edu.au/docview/1519062099?accountid=10382> Cohen,
- R. A. (1993). *Neuropsychology of attention*. New York: Plenum Publishing.
- Cohen, R. A., Rosenbaum, A., Kane, R. L., Warnken, W. J., & Benjamin, S. (1999). Neuropsychological correlates of domestic violence. *Violence and Victims, 14*(4), 397-411. Retrieved from <https://search-proquest-com.dbgw.lis.curtin.edu.au/docview/208556236?accountid=10382>
- Cohen, R., Brumm, V., Zawacki, T., Paul, R., Sweet, L., & Rosenbaum, A. (2003). Impulsivity and verbal deficits associated with domestic violence. *Journal of The International Neuropsychological Society, 9*, 760-770. doi: 10.1017/s1355617703950090

- Cole, K., Logan, T. K., Shannon, L., & Walker, R. (2006). The impact of differential patterns of physical violence and stalking on mental health and help-seeking among women with protective orders. *Violence Against Women, 12*(9), 866-886. doi: 10.1177/1077801206292679
- Compton, W., Thomas, Y., Stinson, F., & Grant, B. (2007). Prevalence, correlates, disability, and comorbidity of DSM-IV drug abuse and dependence in the United States. *Archives of General Psychiatry, 64*(5), 566-576. doi: 10.1001/archpsyc.64.5.566
- Cook, W. W., & Medley, D. M. (1954). Proposed hostility and pharisaic virtue scales for the MMPI. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 38*(6), 414-418. doi: 10.1037/h0060667
- Corvo, K. (2014). The role of executive function deficits in domestic violence perpetration. *Partner Abuse, 5*(3), 342-355. doi: 10.1891/1946-6560.5.3.342
- Cupach, W. R., & Spitzberg, B. H. (2004). *The dark side of relationship pursuit: From attraction to obsession and stalking*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
- Davis, K. E., Coker, Ann. L., & Sanderson, M. (2002). Physical and mental health effects of being stalked for men and women. *Violence and Victims, 17*(4), 429-443. doi: 10.1891/vivi.17.4.429.33682
- Davison, G. C., Robins, C., & Johnson, M. K. (1983). Articulated thoughts during simulated situations: A paradigm for studying cognition in emotion and behaviour. *Cognitive Therapy and Research, 7*(1), 17-39. doi: 10.1007/BF01173421
- Derefinko, K., DeWall, C. N., Metze, A. V., Walsh, E. C., & Lynam, D. R. (2011). Do difference facets of impulsivity predict different types of aggression?. *Aggressive Behaviour, 37*, 223-233. doi: 10.1002/ab.20387
- Douglas, K. S., & Dutton, D. G. (2001). Assessing the link between stalking and domestic violence. *Aggression and Violent Behaviour, 6*, 519-546. doi: 10.1007/s10896-0139501-5.
- Dunlap, E., Lynch, K. R., Jewell, J. A., Wasarhaley, N., & Golding, J. M. (2014). Participant gender, stalking myth acceptance, and gender role stereotyping in perceptions of intimate partner stalking: a structural equation modeling approach. *Crime and Law, 21*(2), 234-253. doi: 10.1080/1068316X.2014.951648

- Ferreira, C., & Matos, M. (2013). Post-relationship stalking: The experience of victims with and without history of partner abuse. *Journal of Family Violence, 28*, 293-402. doi: 10.1007/s10896-013-9501-5
- First, M. B., Gibbon, M., Spitzer, R. L., Williams, J. B. W., Benjamin, L. S. (1997). *Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-IV Axis II Personality Disorders (SCID-II): User's Guide*. Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Association Publishing.
- Flett, G. L., Nepon, T., Hewitt, P. L., & Fitzgerald, K. (2016). Perfectionism, components of stress reactivity, and depressive symptoms. *Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioural Assessment, 38*(4), 645-654. doi: 10.1007/s10862-016-9554-x
- Fowler, K. A., & Westen, D. (2010). Subtyping male perpetrators of intimate partner violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 26*(4), 607-639. doi: 10.1177/0886260510365853
- Fox, K. A., Nobles, M. R., & Fisher, B. S. (2011). Method behind the madness: An examination of stalking measurements. *Aggression and Violent Behaviour, 16*(1), 74-84. doi: 10.1016/j.avb.2010.12.004
- Frost, R.O., Marten, P., Lahart, C., & Rosenblate, R. (1990). The dimensions of perfectionism. *Cognitive Therapy and Research, 14*(5), 449-468. doi: 10.1007/BF01172967
- Furman, C. R., Luo, S., & Pond, R. S. Jr. (2017). A perfect blame: Conflict-promoting attributions mediate the association between perfectionism and forgiveness in romantic relationships. *Personality and Individual Differences, 111*, 178-186. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2017.01.052.
- Grangeia, H., Matos, M., & Machado, C. (2008). *Inventário de comportamentos de stalking [Stalking Behaviours Inventory]*. In C. Machado, L. Almeida, M. Gonçalves, V. Ramalho, & S. Martins (Eds.), XII actas do congresso internacional avaliação psicológica: Formas e contextos. Braga: Psiquilíbrios Edições.
- Grant, B. F., Dawson, B. A., Stinson, F. S., Chou, P. S., Kay, W., & Pickering, R. (2003). The Alcohol Use Disorder and Associated Disabilities Interview Schedule-IV (AUDADIS-IV): reliability of alcohol consumption, tobacco use, family history of depression and psychiatric diagnostic modules in a general population sample. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence, 71*(1), 7-16. doi: 10.1016/S0376-8716(03)00070-X

- Guignard, J. H., Jacquet, A. Y., & Lubart, T. I. (2012). Perfectionism and anxiety: A paradox in intellectual giftedness?, *Public Library of Science ONE* 7(7): e41043. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0041043
- Habke, A. M., Hewitt, P. L., & Flett, G. L. (1999). Perfectionism and sexual satisfaction in intimate relationships. *Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioural Assessment*, 21(4), 307-322. doi: 10.1023/A:1022168715349
- Hackett, K. (2000). *Criminal harassment*. Juristat, 20(11), 1-16, catalogue no. 85-002-XIE. Ontario: Statistic Canada/Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics.
- Heaton, R.K. (1981). *A manual for the Wisconsin Card Sorting Test*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.
- Henrich, J., Heine, S. J., & Norenzayan, A. (2010). The weirdest people in the world?. *Behavioural and Brain Sciences*, 33(2-3), 61-83. doi: 10.1017/S0140525X0999152X
- Hewitt, P. L., & Flett, G. L. (1991). Perfectionism in the self and social contexts: Conceptualization, assessment, and association with psychopathology. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 60(3), 456-470. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.60.3.456
- Hill, A. P., & Curran, T. (2016). Multidimensional perfectionism and burnout: A metaanalysis. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 20(3), 269-288. doi: 10.1177/1088868315596286
- Hill, R. W., Zrull, M. C., & Turlington, S. (1997). Perfectionism and interpersonal problems. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 69(1), 81-103. doi: 10.1207/s15327752jpa6901_5
- Hoaken, P. N. S., Allaby, D. B., & Earle, J. (2007). Executive cognitive functioning and the recognition of facial expressions of emotion in incarcerated violent offenders, nonviolent offenders, and controls. *Aggressive Behaviour*, 33(5), 412-421. doi: 10.1002/ab.20194
- Hoelter, D. R. (1983). The analysis of covariance structures: Goodness-of-fit indices, *Sociological Methods and Research*, 11, 325-344
- Indu, P., Vidhukumar, K., Subha, N., Remadevi, S., & Anilkumar, T. (2011). Development and validation of the domestic violence questionnaire in married women aged 18-55 years. *Indian Journal of Psychiatry*, 53(3), 218. doi:10.4103/0019-5545.86811
- Kaller, C., Unterrainer, J., & Stahl, C. (2012). Assessing planning ability with the Tower of

- London task: Psychometric properties of a structurally balanced problem set. *Psychological Assessment*, 24(1), 46-53. doi: 10.1037/a0025174
- John, I. A., & Lawoko, S. (2010). Assessment of the structural validity of the domestic violence healthcare providers' survey questionnaire using a nigerian sample. *Journal of Injury and Violence Research*, 2(2), 75-83. doi: 10.5249/jivr.v2i2.41
- Kamphuis, J. H., Galeazzi, G. M., Fazio, L. D., Emmelkamp, P. M. G., Farnham, F., Groenen, A., . . . Vervaeke, G. (2005). Stalking - perceptions and attitudes amongst helping professions. An EU cross-national comparison. *Clinical Psychology & Psychotherapy*, 12(3), 215-225. doi: 10.1002/cpp.451
- Kane, R. L., & Kay, G. G. (1992). Computerized assessment in neuropsychology: a review of tests and test batteries. *Neuropsychology Review*, 3(1), 1-117. doi: 10.1007/BF01108787
- Keeling, J., & Fisher, C. (2014). Health Professionals' Responses to Women's Disclosure of Domestic Violence. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 30(13), 2363-2378. doi:10.1177/0886260514552449
- Kilbert, J. J., Langhinrichsen-Rohling, J., & Saito, M. (2005). Adaptive and maladaptive aspects of self-oriented versus socially prescribed perfectionism. *Journal of College Student Development*, 46(2), 141-156. doi: 10.1353/csd.2005.0017
- Kim, H. (2013). Statistical notes for clinical researchers: assessing normal distribution (2) using skewness and kurtosis. *Restorative dentistry & endodontics*, 38(1), 52-4. doi: 10.5395/rde.2013.38.1.52
- Korkodeilou, J. (2014). Dealing with the unknown: Learning from stalking victims' experiences. *Crime Prevention and Community Safety: An International Journal*, 16(4), 253-268. doi: 10.1057/cpcs.2014.10
- Krikorian, R., Bartok, J., & Gay, N. (1994). Tower of London procedure: A standard method and developmental data. *Journal of Clinical and Experimental Neuropsychology*, 16(6), 840-50. doi: 10.1080/01688639408402697
- Kropp, P. R., Hart, S. D., Lyon, D. R., & Storey, J. E. (2011). The development and validation of the guidelines for stalking assessment and management. *Behavioural Sciences and the Law*, 29(2), 302-316. doi: 10.1002/bsl.978

- Kuehner, C., Gass, P., & Dressing, H. What can we learn from the first community-based epidemiological study on stalking in Germany?. *International Journal of Law and Psychiatry*, 30(1), 10-17. doi: 10.1016/j.ijlp.2006.03.006
- Lambert, M. J., & Finch, A. E. (1999). *The Outcome Questionnaire*. In M. E. Maruish (Ed.), *The use of psychological testing for treatment planning and outcomes assessment* (2nd ed., 831-869). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Lezak, M. D. (1995). *Neuropsychological assessment* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Lepistö, S., Luukkaala, T., & Paavilainen, E. (2011). Witnessing and experiencing domestic violence: a descriptive study of adolescents. *Scandinavian Journal of Caring Sciences*, 25(1), 70–80. doi:10.1111/j.1471-6712.2010.00792.x
- Locke, H. J., & Wallace, K. M. (1959). Short marital adjustment and prediction tests: Their reliability and validity. *Marriage and Family Living*, 21, 251–255. doi: 10.2307/348022
- Logan, T. K., & Walker, R. (2009). Partner stalking: Psychological dominance or “business as usual”? *Trauma, Violence, and Abuse*, 10(3), 247-270. doi: 10.1177/1524838009334461
- Logan, T. K., & Walker, R. (2010). Toward a deeper understanding of the harms caused by partner stalking. *Violence and Victims*, 25(4), 440-455. doi: 10.1891/08866708.25.4.440
- Lorr, M., & Strack, S. (1990). Wiggins interpersonal adjective scales: A dimensional view. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 11(4), 423-425. doi: 10.1016/01918869(90)90227-I
- Lucian, P. S. (2011). The role of irrational beliefs, brooding and reflective pondering, in predicting distress. *Journal of Cognitive and Behavioural Psychotherapies*, 11(1), 43-55. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Paul_Lucian_Szasz/publication/214409114_The_role_of_irrational_beliefs_brooding_and_reflective_pondering_in_predicting_distress/links/552644f40cf24b822b407ac9/The-role-of-irrational-beliefs-brooding-and-reflectivepondering-in-predicting-distress.pdf

- Lundahl, A., Wahlstrom, L. C., Christ, C. C., & Stoltenberg, S. F. (2015). Gender differences in the relationship between impulsivity and disordered eating behaviours and attitudes, 18, 120-124. doi: 10.1016/j.eatbeh.2015.05.004
- Lyndon, A. E., Sinclair, H. C., MacArthur, J., Fay, B., Ratajack, E., & Collier, K. E. (2012). An introduction to issues of gender in stalking research. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, 66(5-6), 299-310. doi: 10.1007/s11199-011-0106-2
- Lyubomirsky, S., & Nolen-Hoeksema, S. (1995). Effects of self-focused rumination on negative thinking and interpersonal problem solving. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 69(1), 176-190. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.69.1.176
- MacKenzie, R. D., McEwan, T. E., Pathé, M. T., James, D. V., Ogloff, J. R. P., & Mullen, P. E. (2009). *Stalking Risk Profile: Guidelines for the assessment and management of stalkers* (1st ed.). Melbourne, Victoria, Australia: StalkInc and Centre for Forensic Behavioural Science, Monash University.
- Marazziti, D., Baroni, S., Masala, I., Golia, F., Consoli, G., ... Massimetti, G. (2009). Impulsivity, gender, and the platelet serotonin transporter in healthy subjects. *Neuropsychiatric Disease and Treatment*, 6, 9-15. doi: 10.2147/ndt.s5291
- Mazingo, A. (2014). The intersection of dominance feminism and stalking laws. *Northwestern Journal of Law and Social Policy*, 9(2), 335-359. Retrieved from <https://search-proquest-com.dbgw.lis.curtin.edu.au/docview/1635433421?accountid=10382>
- McEwan, T. E., Shea, D. E., Nazarewicz, J., & Senkans, S. (2017). Re-assessing the link between stalking and intimate partner abuse. *Partner Abuse*, 8(3), 223-250. doi: 10.1891/1946-6560.8.3.223
- McFarlane, J. M., Campbell, J. C., Wilt, S., Sachs, C. J., Ulrich, Y., & Xu, X. (1999). Stalking and intimate partner femicide. *Homicide Studies*, 3(4), 300-316. doi: 10.1177/1088767999003004003
- McKeon, B., McEwan, T. E., & Luebbbers, S. (2015). "It's not really stalking if you know the person": Measuring community attitudes that normalize, justify and minimise stalking. *Psychiatry, Psychology, and Law*, 22(2), 291-206. doi: 10.1080/13218719.2014.945637
- Melton, H. C. (2007). Stalking in the context of intimate partner abuse: In the victims' words.

- Feminist Criminology*, 2(4), 347-363. doi: 10.1177/1557085107306517
- Millon, T., Davis, R. D., & Millon, C. (1997). *Manual for the Millon Clinical Multiaxial Inventory—III (MCMI—III)*. Minneapolis, MN: National Computer Systems
- Milner, B. (1972). Disorders of learning and memory after temporal lobe lesions in man. *Neurosurgery*, 19(1), 421-446. doi: 10.1093/neurosurgery/19.CN_suppl_1.421
- Mitchell, C., & Poston, C. (2001). Effects of inhibiting of response on Tower of London performance. *Current Psychology*, 20(2), 164-168. doi: 10.1007/s12144-001-1024-1
- Morey, L. C. 1991. *Personality Assessment Inventory - professional manual*, Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.
- Nabors, E. L., Dietz, T. L., & Jasinski, J. L. (2006). Domestic violence beliefs and perceptions among college students. *Violence and Victims*, 21(6), 779-795. doi: 10.1891/0886-6708.21.6.779
- Norris, S. M., Huss, M. T., & Palarea, R. E. (2011). A pattern of violence: Analysing the relationship between intimate partner violence and stalking. *Violence and Victims*, 26(1), 103-115. doi: 10.1891/0886-6708.26.1.103
- Palarea, R. E., Scalora, M J., & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, J. (1999). *Risk assessment inventory for stalking*. Unpublished measure.
- Palarea, R. E., Zona, M. A., Lane, J. C., & Langhinrichsen-Rohling, J. (1999). The dangerous nature of intimate relationship stalking: Threats, violence, and associated risk factors. *Behavioral Sciences and the Law*, 17, 269–283. doi:10.1002/(SICI)1099-0798(199907/09)17:3<269::AID-BSL346>3.0.CO;2-6
- Pathé, M., & Mullen, P. E. (2007). The impact of stalkers on their victims. *The British Journal of Psychiatry*, 170(1), 12-17. doi: 10.1192/bjp.170.1.12
- Patton, J., Stanford, M., & Barratt, E. (1995). Factor structure of the Barratt impulsiveness scale. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 51(6), 768-774. doi: 10.1002/1097-4679(199511)51:6<768::aid-jclp2270510607>3.0.co;2-1
- Persampiere, J., Poole, G., & Murphy, C.M. (2014). Neuropsychological correlates of anger, hostility, and relationship-relevant distortions in thinking among partner violent men. *Journal of Family Violence*, 29(6), 625-641. doi: 10.1007/s10896-014-9614-5

- Reitan, R.M. (1992). *Trail Making Test: Manual for administration and scoring*. South Tuscon, AZ: Reitan Neuropsychology Laboratory.
- Roberts, K. A. (2005). Women's experience of violence during stalking by former romantic partners: Factors predictive of stalking violence. *Violence Against Women, 11*(1), 89-114. doi: 10.1177/1077801204271096
- Roca, M., Parr, A., Thompson, R., Woolgar, A., Torralva, T., Antoun, N., Manes, F., & Duncan, J. (2010). Executive function and fluid intelligence after frontal lobe lesions. *Brain, 133*(1), 234-247. doi: 10.1093/brain/awp269
- Rosenfeld, B. (2004). Violence risk factors in stalking and obsessional harassment: A review and preliminary meta-analysis. *Criminal, Justice, and Behaviour, 31*(1), 9-36. doi: 10.1177/0093854803259241
- Rusbult, C. E., Martz, J. M., & Agnew, C. R. (1998). The Investment Model Scale: Measuring commitment level, satisfaction level, quality of alternatives, and investment size. *Personal Relationships, 5*(4), 357-391. doi: 10.1111/j.1475-6811.1998.tb00177.x
- Rye, M. S., Loiacono, D. M., Folck, C. D., Olszewski, B. T., Heim, T. A., & Madia, B. P. (2001). Evaluation of the psychometric properties of two forgiveness scales. *Current Psychology, 20*(3), 260-277. doi: 10.1007/s12144-001-1011-6
- Schnirman, G., Welsh, M., & Retzlaff, P. (1998). Development of the Tower of London revised. *Assessment, 5*(4), 355-360. doi: 10.1177/107319119800500404
- Scott, A., Rajakaruna, N., Sheridan, L., & Sleath, E. (2014). International perceptions of stalking and responsibility: The influence of prior relationship and severity of behaviour. *Criminal Justice and Behaviour, 41*(2), 220-236. doi: 10.1177/0093854813500956
- Shafran, R., Cooper, Z., & Fairburn, C. G. (2002). Clinical perfectionism: A cognitive-behavioural analysis. *Behaviour Research and Therapy, 40*(7), 773-791. doi: 10.1016/S0005-7967(01)00059-6
- Shallice, T. (1982). Specific impairments of planning. *Philosophical transactions of the Royal Society of London. Series B, Biological Sciences, 298*(1089), 199-209. doi: 10.1098/rstb.1982.0082

- Shipley, W. C. (1946). *Institute of living scale*. Los Angeles, CA: Western Psychological Services.
- Siegel, J. M. (1986). The multidimensional anger inventory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(1), 191-200. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.51.1.191
- Sijtsema, J. J., Baan, L., & Bogaerts, S. (2014). Associations between dysfunctional personality traits and intimate partner violence in perpetrators and victims. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 29(12), 2418-2438. doi: 10.1177/0886260513520228
- Smet, O. D., Loeys, T., & Buysse, A. (2012). Post-breakup unwanted pursuit: A refined analysis of the role of romantic relationship characteristics. *Journal of Family Violence*, 27, 437-452. doi: 10.1007/s10896-012-9437-1
- Smet, O. D., Uziebol, K., Loeys, T., Buysse, A., & Onraedt, T. (2015). Unwanted pursuit behaviour after breakup: Occurrence, risk factors, and gender differences. *Journal of Family Violence*, 30, 753-767. doi: 10.1007/s10896-015-9687-9
- Sotelo, J. M., & Babcock, J. C. (2013). BIS/BAS variables as moderators of the rumination intimate partner violence link. *Journal of Family Violence*, 28, 233-242. doi: 10.1007/s10896-013-9500-6
- Spielberger, C.D. (1988). *Professional manual for the state-trait anger expression inventory*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment resources.
- Spitzberg, B. H. (2002). The tactical topography of stalking victimization and management. *Trauma, Violence, and Abuse*, 3(4), 261-288. doi: 10.1177/1524838002237330
- Spitzberg, B. H., & Cupach, W. R. (2007). The state of the art of stalking: Taking stock of the emerging literature. *Aggression and Violent Behaviour*, 12(1), 64-86. doi: 10.1016/j.avb.2006.05.001
- Spitzberg, B. H., Cupach, W. R., & Ciceraro, L. D. L. (2010). Sex differences in stalking and obsessive relational intrusion: Two meta-analyses. *Partner Abuse*, 1(3), 259-285. doi: 10.1891/1946-6560.1.3.259
- Spitzberg, B., & Cupach, W. (2014). *The dark side of relationship pursuit*. Hoboken: Taylor and Francis.

- Spitzer, R.L., Williams, J.B.W., Gibbon, M., & First, M.B. (1992). The Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-III-R (SCID) I: History, rationale, and description. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 49(8), 624-629. doi: 10.1001/archpsyc.1992.01820080032005
- Stanley, S. M., & Markman, H. J. (1992). Assessing commitment in personal relationships. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 54(3), 595-608. doi: 10.2307/353245
- Stewart, M. A., & George-Walker, L. D. (2014). Self-handicapping, perfectionism, locus of control and self-efficacy: A path model. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 66, 160-164. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2014.03.038
- Stoeber, J. (2012). Dyadic perfectionism in romantic relationships: Predicting relationship satisfaction and longterm commitment. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 53(3), 300-305. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2012.04.002
- Stoltenberg, S. F., Batién, B. D., & Birgenheir, D. G. (2008). Does gender moderate associations among impulsivity and health-risk behaviours?, *Addictive Behaviours*, 33(2), 252-265. doi: 10.1016/j.addbeh.2007.09.004
- Straus, M. (1979). Measuring intrafamily conflict and violence: the Conflict Tactics (CT) scale. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 41(1), 75-88. doi: 10.2307/351733
- Straus, M. A. (2004). Prevalence of violence against dating partners by male and female university students worldwide. *Violence Against Women*, 10, 790-811. doi: 10.1177/1077801204265552
- Straus, M., Hamby, S., Boney-McCoy, S., & Sugarman, D. (1996). The Revised Conflict Tactics Scales (CTS2). *Journal of Family Issues*, 17(3), 283-316. doi: 10.1177/019251396017003001
- Taber, K.S. (2017). The use of Cronbach's Alpha when developing and reporting research instruments in science education. *Research in Science Education*. doi: 10.1007/s11165016-9602-2
- Thorne, D. R., Genser, S. C., Sing, H. C., & Hegge, F. W. (1985). The Walter Reed performance assessment battery. *Neurobehavioral toxicology and teratology*, 7(4), 415-418. Retrieved from <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/3840579>
- Tjaden, P., & Thoennes, N. (1998). *Stalking in America: Findings from the National Violence Against Women Survey*. Washington, DC: National Institute of Justice

- Wallace, C., Mullen, P.E., & Burgess, P. (2004). Criminal offending in schizophrenia over a 20-year period marked by deinstitutionalization and increasing prevalence of comorbid substance use disorders. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, *161*, 716-727. doi: 10.1176/appi.ajp.161.4.716
- Warrington, E. K. (1984). *Recognition memory test*. Windsor, Berks: National Foundation for Educational Research – Nelson
- Wechsler, D. (1997). *Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale* (3rd ed.). San Antonio, TX: Psychological Corporation
- Wiggins, J., Trapnell, P., & Phillips, N. (1988). Psychometric and geometric characteristics of the Revised Interpersonal Adjective Scales (IAS-R). *Multivariate Behavioural Research*, *23*(4), 517-530. doi: 10.1207/s15327906mbr2304_8
- Wilkinson, G. S. (1993). *Wide range achievement test 3*. Wilmington: Wide Range Inc.
- Wolf, E. J., Harrington, K. M., Clark, L. C., & Miller, M. W. (2013). Sample size requirements for structural equation models: An equation of power, bias, and solution propriety, *Eating Behaviors*, *73*(6), 913-934. doi: 10.1177/0013164413495237
- Yanowitz, K. L. (2006). Influence of gender and experience on college students' stalking schemas. *Violence and Victims*, *21*(1), 91-100. Retrieved from <https://search-proquestcom.dbgw.lis.curtin.edu.au/docview/60038397?accountid=10382>

Every reasonable effort has been made to acknowledge the owners of copyright material. I would be pleased to hear from any copyright owner who has been omitted or incorrectly acknowledge.

Appendix A**Time Taken for Each Measure**

Name of measure	Time taken (Minutes)
Demographics	5
Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale	25
Stalking Related Attitude Questionnaire	15
Barrett Impulsiveness Scale	20
Tower of London	15

Total: 80 minutes (1 hour 20 minutes)

Appendix B**Demographic Questionnaire**

Question	Answer Type
1 What is your age?	Typed
2 What is your gender?	Typed
3 What is your nationality?	Typed
4 What is your race?	Typed
5 What is your profession?	Typed
6 What is your annual income?	Typed
7 What is your country of current residence?	Typed
8 How many years have you lived in (7)?	Typed
9 Have you ever been convicted of a non- motor related offence?	Typed

Appendix C

Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale

Please consider each statement and circle the corresponding number that best reflects your agreement with the statement. Please be sure to read each statement carefully.

(Please select one number on each line)

Statement	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly Agree
1 When I am working on something, I cannot relax until it is perfect	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
2 I am not likely to criticize someone for giving up too easily	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
3 It is not important that people I am close to are successful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
4 I seldom criticize my friends for accepting second best	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
5 I find it difficult to meet others' expectations of me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
6 One of my goals is to be perfect in everything I do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
7 Everything that others do must be of top-notch quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
8 I never aim for perfection on my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
9 Those around me readily accept that I can make mistakes too	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
10 It doesn't matter when someone close to me does not do their absolute best	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
11 The better I do, the better I am expected to do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

12	I seldom feel the need to be perfect							
13	Anything that I do that is less than excellent will be seen as poor work by those around me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	I strive to be as perfect as I can be	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	It is very important that I am perfect in everything I attempt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	I have high expectations for the people who are important to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	I strive to be the best at everything I do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	The people around me expect me to succeed at everything I do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	I do not have very high standards for those around me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	I demand nothing less than perfection of myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	Others will like me even if I don't excel at everything	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	I can't be bothered with people who won't strive to better themselves	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	It makes me uneasy to see an error in my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	I do not expect a lot from my friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	Success means that I must work even harder to please others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	If I ask someone to do something, I expect it to be done flawlessly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	I cannot stand to see people close to me make mistakes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	I am perfectionistic in setting my goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	The people who matter to me should never let me down	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	Others think I am okay, even when I do not succeed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	I feel that people are too demanding of me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	I must work to my full potential at all times	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

33	Although they may not say it, other people get very upset with me when I slip up	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34	I do not have to be the best at whatever I am doing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	My family expects me to be perfect	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36	I do not have very high goals for myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37	My parents rarely expected me to excel in all aspects of my life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38	I respect people who are average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39	People expect nothing less than perfection from me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40	I set very high standards for myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41	People expect more from me than I am capable of giving	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42	I must always be successful at school or work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43	It does not matter to me when a close friend does not try their hardest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44	People around me think I am still competent even if I make a mistake	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45	I seldom expect others to excel at whatever they do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

*Items 2, 3, 8, 9, 10, 12, 18, 19, 21, 24, 30, 34, 36, 37, 38, 43, 44, and 45 are reverse-scored items

Appendix D

Stalking-Related Attitudes Questionnaire

Please answer the following questions based on your own opinion. Rate the strength of your opinion by checking one of the numbers on the scale, which goes from 1 (absolutely true) to 7 (absolutely untrue)

Statement		A. True			A. Untrue			
1	A person, who dates a lot would be more likely to be "stalked".	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	The concept of "stalking" is just a fad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	People find it flattering to be persistently pursued.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	If a person just ignored a pursuer, the pursuer would eventually go away.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	"Stalkers" are a nuisance but they are not criminals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	People often say one thing but mean another.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	"Stalking" is just an extreme form of courtship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	If there's no actual violence, it shouldn't be a crime.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Some people actually want to be "stalked"; they see it as a compliment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Victims of "stalking" are often women wanting revenge on their ex-partners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Repeatedly following someone, making phone calls and leaving gifts doesn't actually hurt anyone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	"Stalking" should be dealt with in civil, not, criminal law.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	A person may be more likely to be "stalked" if they cannot clearly say "No".	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14	If a person gives any encouragement, the pursuer has a right to continue their pursuit.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Those who are upset by “stalking” are likely more sensitive than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	Even if they were annoyed, most people would be at least a little flattered by “stalking”.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	If someone continues to say nice things and give nice gifts, then “stalking” is far more acceptable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Stranger “stalking” is the only “real” stalking.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	“Stalkers” only continue because they get some sort of encouragement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix E**Barratt Impulsiveness Scale**

People differ in the ways they act and think in different situations. This is a test to measure some of the ways in which you act and think. Read each statement and select an appropriate option. Do not spend too much time on any statement. Answer quickly and honestly.

	Statement	Never			Almost Always/ Always
1	I plan tasks carefully.	1	2	3	4
2	I do things without thinking.	1	2	3	4
3	I make-up my mind quickly.	1	2	3	4
4	I am happy-go-lucky.	1	2	3	4
5	I don't pay attention	1	2	3	4
6	I have "racing" thoughts.	1	2	3	4
7	I plan trips well ahead of time.	1	2	3	4
8	I am self-controlled.	1	2	3	4
9	I concentrate easily.	1	2	3	4
10	I save regularly.	1	2	3	4
11	I "squirm" at plays or lectures.	1	2	3	4
12	I am a careful thinker	1	2	3	4
13	I plan for job security	1	2	3	4
14	I say things without thinking.	1	2	3	4
15	I like to think about complex problems.	1	2	3	4
16	I change jobs.	1	2	3	4

17	I act "on impulse."	1	2	3	4
18	I get easily bored when solving thought problems	1	2	3	4
19	I act on the spur of the moment.	1	2	3	4
20	I am a steady thinker.	1	2	3	4
21	I change residences.	1	2	3	4
22	I buy things on impulse.	1	2	3	4
23	I can only think about one thing at a time.	1	2	3	4
24	I change hobbies.	1	2	3	4
25	I spend or charge more than I earn.	1	2	3	4
26	I often have extraneous thoughts when thinking.	1	2	3	4
27	I am more interested in the present than the future.	1	2	3	4
28	I am restless at the theatre or lectures.	1	2	3	4
29	I like puzzles.	1	2	3	4
30	I am future orientated.	1	2	3	4

*Items 1, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, 15, 20, 29, and 30 are reverse-scored items

Appendix F

Information Sheet

Exploring relationships between the endorsement of stalking attitudes, planning, impulsiveness and perfectionism

Thank you for taking the time to help with this important research.

What is the study about?

The primary aim of this study, is to examine the relationship between the endorsement of stalking related attitudes towards a current/ex-partner, how individuals perform in measures of perfectionism, the ability to plan, and control impulses. The study will take approximately 45 mins. You are advised to take a short break if you feel tired whilst doing the study. You can leave the study window open, and complete it after your break.

Who is doing the research?

The study is being conducted by Isabella Branson, and supervised by Dr Lorraine Sheridan, and Associate professor Andrea Loftus. The results of this research will be used by Isabella as part of her Masters of Philosophy (Psychology) at Curtin University, and is funded by the University.

Why have I been invited to take part?

You have to been invited to take part because you fulfil the following conditions:

- 1) You are at least 18 years of age
- 2) You are currently in, or have been in a romantic/intimate relationship
- 3) You have not ever experienced loss of consciousness lasting more than 24 hours
- 4) You do not have a history of a severe psychiatric illness

What do I have to do?

We will ask you information about yourself, measure your attitudes towards behaviors that are potentially related to stalking, invite you to complete questionnaires and a task relating to

planning ability, impulse control, and perfectionism. The questions and tasks will all be done online. An estimated time of 45 minutes is needed to complete the study.

At the end of the study, you will be asked to click on a link. This link will direct you to a separate questionnaire that will prompt you to enter only your student number, in order to receive 5 SONA points.

The purpose of this is to ensure that your responses are kept separately from any personal information. Your personal information will be kept securely by the researcher, and will be destroyed when your SONA points have been issued.

Are there any benefits to being in the research project?

Your participation in this study will help form the basis for future studies on populations of potential and actual offenders. Eligible students who complete the study will also receive 5 SONA points.

Are there any risks from being in the research?

A questionnaire in the study contains descriptions of potential stalking attitudes and may cause discomfort to some individuals. If you feel anxious to any of the questions presented, you may skip the questions or withdraw from the study at any time. If you are or have been a victim of stalking, or have experienced similar intrusive behaviours, and require support, please contact the following services:

Curtin Counselling Services

Curtin University, Building 109, Level 2

Telephone: +61 8 9266 7850, or 1800 651 878

Mensline (Australia wide)

Telephone: 1300 789 978

Womensline (Australia Wide)

Telephone: 1800 811 811

Crisis Care Helpline (Western Australia)

Telephone: +61 8 9223 1111, or 1800 199 008

Family Helpline (Australia Wide)

Telephone: +61 8 9223 1100, or 1800 643 000

This study will ask you about your participation in criminal activities. Your responses are anonymous and the software used to collect your responses will erase any identifiable information (for example, your IP address).

Who will have access to the information provided?

Any information collected will be confidential and used only for the purposes of this study. The following people will have access to the information collected in this study: the student researcher and supervisors of the research.

Student numbers and participants' addresses collected at the end of the study will be destroyed after participant incentives have been issued. Electronic data will be password protected. The information collected will be stored securely for 7 years in Curtin University and destroyed thereafter. The results obtained from this study may be used in conferences, or published in journals. As no personal information will be kept, you will not be identified.

Will I know the results of the study?

As we do not collect any identifiable information from you, the researcher will not be able to send you any additional information about the study.

Do I have to take part in the research?

Taking part in the study is voluntary, and you can withdraw at any time without penalty.

What if I have questions about the study?

If you have any questions, please contact the researcher, Isabella Branson at isabella.branson@postgrad.curtin.edu.au

Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) has approved this study (HRE2017-0063). Should you wish to discuss the study with someone not directly involved, in particular, any matters concerning the conduct of the study or your rights as a participant, or you wish to make a confidential complaint, you may contact the Ethics Officer on (08) 9266 9223 or the Manager, Research Integrity on (08) 9266 7093 or email hrec@curtin.edu.au.

Appendix G

Debriefing Sheet

Thank you for your participation.

We would like to take a few minutes to tell you about the purpose of this study.

The study

This study seeks to understand the relationship between the endorsement of stalking attitudes towards a current/ex-partner, the ability to plan, impulse control, and perfectionism.

How was this tested?

This study used the Stalking-Related Attitude Questionnaire to assess the endorsement of stalking attitudes. The Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale was used to assess perfectionistic tendencies. Barratt Impulsiveness Scale was used to assess impulse control. The Tower of London task was used to measure the ability to plan and problem solve.

What do we expect to find?

Although this is an exploratory study, it is expected that impulse control would be the largest contributor to the endorsement of stalking attitudes, followed by the ability to plan and problem solve.

Why is this study important?

No studies to date have examined the relationships between executive functioning, impulsiveness, perfectionism, and partner/ex-partner stalking. Any identified relationships from this study will assist researchers in understanding the relationship between pro-stalking attitudes and other variables of interest. Stalkers, like the perpetrators of domestic violence, are a heterogeneous group. The study of stalking is now at the point where specific variables are being examined with a view to inform the literature relating to public policy and risk assessment of how best to identify the antecedents of stalking. Your participation today has contributed to this process.

What if I want to know more?

If you would like to learn more about issues associated with stalking, you may wish to visit:

The Stalking Risk Profile at www.stalkingriskprofile.com

If the completion of this study has raised any concerns or caused any discomfort, please contact the following free services.

Curtin Counselling Services

Curtin University, Building 109, Level 2

Telephone: +61 8 9266 7850, or 1800 651 878 (Free call)

Crisis Care Helpline (WA)

Telephone: +61 8 9223 1111, or 1800199008 (Free call)

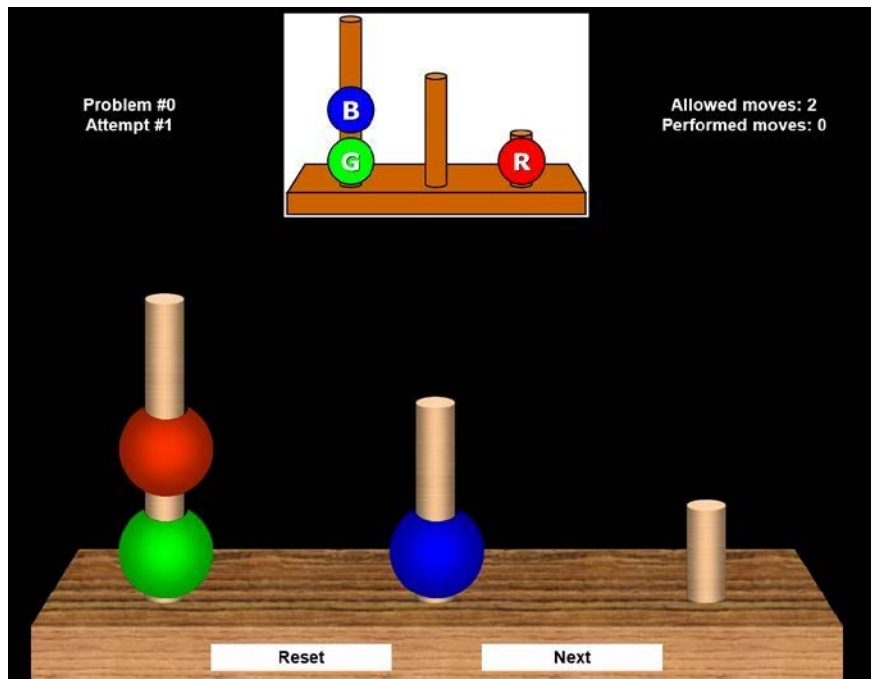
Family Helpline

Telephone: +61 8 9223 1100, or 1800 643 000 (Free call)

If you are concerned about your rights as a participant of this study, or questions please contact the researcher, Isabella Branson at isabella.branson@postgrad.curtin.edu.au

Thank you once again for your participation.

Figure 1
Tower of London



A screenshot of the Tower of London task. Participants are required to arrange the configuration below to match the configuration above.