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1 **Impaired processing of threat in psychopathy: a systematic review and meta-analysis of**  
2 **factorial data in male offender populations**

3 **Running head:** *Threat processing and psychopathy*

4  
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## 27 **Abstract**

### 28 **Background**

29           Psychopathy is a personality disorder characterised by two underlying factors. Factor  
30 1 (affective and interpersonal deficits) captures affective deficits, whilst Factor 2 (antisocial  
31 and impulsive/disorganised behaviours) captures life course persistent antisocial  
32 behaviours. Impaired processing of threat has been proposed as an aetiologically salient  
33 factor in the development of psychopathy, but the relationship of this impairment to the  
34 factorial structure of the disorder in adult male offenders is unclear.

### 35 **Objectives**

36           To investigate whether threat processing deficits are characteristic of psychopathy as  
37 a unitary construct or whether such deficits are specifically linked to higher scores on  
38 individual factors.

### 39 **Data Sources**

40           A systematic review of the literature was conducted by searching PubMed, Web of  
41 Science and PsycINFO.

### 42 **Methods**

43           Studies were included if they (1) reported physiological measures of threat response  
44 as the primary outcome measure (2) indexed psychopathy using a well-validated clinician  
45 rated instrument such as the PCL-R (3) investigated male offenders between 18 and 60 years  
46 of age (4) reported threat processing analyses using both Factor 1 and Factor 2 scores (5)  
47 provided sufficient data to calculate effect sizes and (6) were published in English-language

48 peer-reviewed journals. We identified twelve studies with data on 1112 participants for the  
49 meta-analysis of the relationship with Factor 1 scores, and nine studies with data on 801  
50 participants for the meta-analysis of the relationship with Factor 2 scores. We conducted  
51 the meta-analyses to calculate correlations using random-effects models.

## 52 **Results**

53 PCL-R/SV Factor 1 scores were significantly and negatively related to threat  
54 processing indices ( $r = -0.22$ , (95%CI [-0.28, -.017])). Neither PCL-R/SV Factor 2 scores ( $r = -$   
55  $0.005$ , 95%CI [-0.10, 0.09]), nor PCL-R total score ( $r = -0.05$ , (95%CI [-0.15, -0.04])) were  
56 related to threat processing indices. No significant heterogeneity was detected for the  
57 Factor score results.

58

## 59 **Conclusions**

60 The meta-analyses of the distinct psychopathy factors suggest that the threat  
61 processing deficits observed in male offenders with psychopathy are significantly associated  
62 with higher scores on Factor 1. A similar relationship does not exist with Factor 2 scores. Our  
63 findings highlight the importance of investigating the potentially discrete relationships  
64 between aetiological variables and the two factor constructs in the disorder.

## 65 **Key words**

66 Psychopathy, Threat processing, Systematic Review, Violence

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## 72 **Introduction**

73           Violence is a global public health problem, with most violent crimes being committed  
74 by a small group of males who meet diagnostic criteria for conduct disorder in childhood  
75 and for antisocial personality disorder (ASPD) in adulthood [1]. Within this population, a  
76 subgroup of individuals additionally presents with psychopathy. This is a severe personality  
77 disorder encompassing two distinguishable symptomatic factors – affective and  
78 interpersonal deficits (interpersonal manipulation, callousness, shallow affect, lack of  
79 empathy, known as Factor 1 traits) and life course persistent antisocial and impulsive  
80 behaviours (impulsive and reckless behaviour, juvenile delinquency, and early behavioural  
81 problems, known as Factor 2 traits) [2]. The antisocial personality disordered group with  
82 additional diagnoses of psychopathy begin offending at a younger age, commit a  
83 disproportionate number of violent offences, typically fail to benefit from rehabilitation  
84 programs and present with higher rates of violent recidivism on release from custodial  
85 settings [3].

86           One measure that has been identified as potentially aetiologically salient in the  
87 psychopathic group is the aberrant processing of threatening cues in the social environment  
88 [4]. Threat processing is defined as the automatic bodily reactivity to threatening stimuli

89 which elicits defensive responses [5]. Threat processing therefore denotes the activation of  
90 a neurobiological mechanism which prepares an organism to react appropriately to  
91 imminent threat. In healthy individuals, presentation of aversive or threatening cues such as  
92 a shock or loud noise in conditioning paradigms, or startle probes while viewing unpleasant  
93 pictures, results in the mobilization of defensive actions, which can be measured by threat-  
94 associated responses such as skin conductance levels and startle reflex responding [ 5, 6, 7].  
95 These autonomic and central nervous system responses are hypothesised to reflect  
96 responses to the dimensional aspects of such threatening cues, namely arousal and valence  
97 [8, 9], and underpin both the core affective response to such cues, and the preparation for  
98 instrumental action [10, 11].

99         Many studies have demonstrated an abnormal response to aversive stimuli in  
100 antisocial individuals, particularly those with high psychopathic traits. For example, Lykken’s  
101 landmark study [12] showed that psychopathic individuals had diminished skin-conductance  
102 reactivity to a conditioned stimulus associated with shock and less avoidance of punished  
103 responses on an avoidance learning task. These findings gave rise to the low-fear hypothesis  
104 of psychopathy, positing threat processing deficits as the core underlying feature of the  
105 disorder [12]. Numerous studies have since provided support for this theory by  
106 demonstrating that offenders with high psychopathic traits show smaller electrodermal  
107 responses when anticipating aversive shock [13-17]. Psychopathic individuals also show  
108 reduced autonomic reactivity relative to non-psychopathic individuals while processing  
109 unpleasant visual images capable of provoking a distressed or fearful response, as expressed  
110 by diminished or absent startle modulation and skin-conductance responses [18-22].  
111 Further, startle potentiation in response to aversive events [23, 24] and anticipatory skin  
112 conductance response [25] are known to be mediated by a “limbic” network including

113 vmPFC, the amygdala, the thalamus and brainstem (including the peri-aqueductal grey  
114 [PAG] and locus coeruleus), suggesting a functional deficit in the amygdala or affiliated  
115 structures in psychopathic individuals. Consistent with this, neuroimaging studies of  
116 psychopathic individuals have suggested that impaired amygdalar activation occurs during  
117 threat processing paradigms including fear conditioning and instrumental learning tasks [26-  
118 31].

119         Recent studies have suggested that deficits in threat processing, such as abnormal  
120 responding to aversive stimuli, are more characteristic of Factor 1 of the psychopathy  
121 construct (affective and interpersonal deficits). Factor 2 (antisocial and  
122 impulsive/disorganised behaviours) scores appear more related to impaired cognitive-  
123 executive functioning [32]. In keeping with this, investigations of the physiological measures  
124 of threat processing, such as fear-potentiated startle responses and startle blink modulation  
125 during aversive stimulation, have shown reduced reactivity in individuals scoring high on  
126 Factor 1, but not on Factor 2 [22, 33, 34]. Similarly, reduced skin-conductance response  
127 during anticipation of aversive stimuli, one of the most replicated findings in psychopathic  
128 individuals, has recently been distinctively associated with Factor 1 [35].

129         Taken together, these studies suggest that the impaired threat processing seen in  
130 psychopathy may be particularly related to Factor 1 (affective and interpersonal deficits)  
131 scores in this group. Negatively valenced stimuli do not elicit the same defensive response  
132 as they do in non-psychopathic antisocial populations and healthy controls. Further support  
133 for this conclusion comes from recent findings indicating that controlling for the correlation  
134 between Factor 1 and Factor 2 strengthens the negative association between Factor 1 and  
135 threat processing, whilst having no effect on the association between Factor 2 and threat

136 processing [36-38]. Using a global measure of psychopathy based on combined Factor 1 and  
137 Factor 2 scores provides limited insights when considering the underlying aetiology of the  
138 social cognitive abnormalities in the disorder. A meta-analysis examining the processing of  
139 facial or vocal emotional information in psychopathy [39], demonstrated that while the  
140 unitary construct of psychopathy was found to be associated with pervasive emotion  
141 recognition deficits, a targeted analysis showed that Factor 1 scores were only related to  
142 deficits in recognising fear, while Factor 2 scores were associated with deficits in recognising  
143 other emotions [39].

144           Threat processing and other aetiological components of psychopathy may therefore  
145 also be best understood and investigated as being related in different ways to Factor 1 and  
146 Factor 2 traits within the disorder. To date however, no systematic review or meta-analysis  
147 has attempted to disentangle the link between the factorial constructs of psychopathy and  
148 threat processing impairments. Consequently, it remains unclear whether the observed  
149 deficits in threat processing are characteristic of the condition or of only one of its  
150 constituent factors. This ambiguity needs to be resolved to help to promote a better  
151 understanding of causal mechanisms and to help to develop effective interventions [40]. To  
152 our knowledge, only one previous systematic review investigating threat processing in  
153 psychopathy (dimensionally conceptualised to include clinician-assessed offender samples  
154 and self-rated community and student populations) has been published [4]. The review  
155 aimed to determine whether the fear processing abnormalities in psychopathy were best  
156 characterised as impairments in automatic threat processing, impairments in the conscious  
157 experience of fear, or both. The findings suggested that psychopathy is characterised by  
158 impaired automatic threat processing. However, their analysis of the relationship between  
159 the distinct psychopathy factors and threat processing returned nonsignificant results. The



160 current work will seek to extend these findings by examining automatic threat processing in  
161 psychopathy, but solely in the context of offender populations subject to detailed clinician  
162 assessment in studies that report factor-based analyses. Furthermore, the project uses  
163 standardised PRISMA approaches to reporting to ensure clarity and transparency of the  
164 review process [41]. Research has suggested that community samples manifest lower  
165 degrees of both psychopathy factors and predominantly possess the affective deficits with  
166 relatively reduced degrees of antisocial features (whereas offenders with psychopathy  
167 possess high scores on both factors [42, 43]). The strength of the association between the  
168 two factors is also stronger among offender in comparison to community samples [44].  
169 Restricting our consideration to offender populations therefore serves to limit confounds  
170 and to ensure consistency across included studies. The aim of the present work was to  
171 systematically review the psychopathy literature which has reported factorial data and  
172 conduct meta-analyses to examine whether threat processing deficits are characteristic of  
173 psychopathy as a unitary construct or whether such deficits are specifically linked to higher  
174 scores on individual factors. Based on findings in previous work, we hypothesised that  
175 impaired threat processing would be related to higher scores on Factor 1 items of the  
176 disorder.

## 177 **Methods**

178 The systematic review and meta-analyses were conducted following the Preferred Reporting  
179 Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses [41] guideline.

### 180 **Search Strategy**

181 We searched for studies indexed in three databases from their start dates: PsycINFO  
182 (1960–28 February 2019), PUBMED (1960–28 February 2019) and Web of Science (1945-28  
183 February 2019). Combinations of search terms relating to threat processing (threat OR fear  
184 OR arousal) and psychopathy (psychopathy OR psychopathic OR antisocial OR “offender  
185 sample” OR “forensic sample” OR “antisocial personality”) were used. On PsycINFO,  
186 additional limits were used for the methodology (male population groups) and publication  
187 type (peer reviewed); the other databases did not provide the function required to enable  
188 these limits. Reference lists were scanned by hand to identify additional studies. Non-  
189 English language articles were excluded.

190 To ensure rigorous systematic search and identification of all relevant papers, we  
191 carried out an additional systematic search looking for studies utilising neuroimaging  
192 metrics of threat responsivity. The same databases were searched with a combination of the  
193 following search terms: (fear OR threat OR arousal) AND (functional imaging OR functional  
194 MRI or fMRI) AND (psychopathy OR psychopathic OR antisocial OR "offender sample" OR  
195 "forensic sample" OR "antisocial personality"). This secondary search did not reveal any  
196 additional papers.

### 197 **Study eligibility**

198 Threat processing studies had to report physiological measures of threat response as  
199 the primary outcome measure (i.e. the dependent variable in analyses). These physiological  
200 indices of autonomic nervous system activation included skin conductance response, heart  
201 rate, blood pressure, startle blink reflex, fear potentiated startle, theta coherence, event  
202 related potentials or neuroimaging derived metrics [6]. Psychopathy had to be defined using  
203 a well-validated clinician administered instrument (the PCL-R [2] or SV [45] instrument).

204 Studies were included if a) they investigated male offenders between the ages of 18 and 60  
205 with current or historical criminal convictions, b) they employed sample sizes greater than  
206 10 participants (following guidance on required sample size for accurate effect size  
207 estimation, [46]), c) they reported threat processing analyses using factor-based approaches  
208 (that is, their analytic approach enabled factor level data to be appraised) d) they provided  
209 sufficient data to calculate effect sizes for the separate factor analyses and e) they were  
210 published in English-language peer-reviewed journals.

211 Studies were excluded if a) they examined only female offenders (because  
212 psychopathy may be differentially expressed across biological sex [47, 48]), and if b) they  
213 had included participants with brain injuries, learning disabilities or major mental illnesses  
214 such as schizophrenia or bipolar affective disorder. When suitability for inclusion was in  
215 question, this was resolved through discussion between the authors. No effects from non-  
216 published data were included in this analysis.

217 Twelve studies involving 1112 participants were included in the meta-analysis of the  
218 relationship between threat processing indices and Factor 1 scores. Nine studies involving  
219 801 participants were included in the meta-analysis of the relationship between threat  
220 processing indices and Factor 2 scores. This is due to some papers not providing specific  
221 effect sizes for Factor 2 (instead, choosing solely to report the relevant results as “non-  
222 significant”). Figure 1 illustrates the paper selection process (see S1 table in supplementary  
223 material for details on number of papers and reasons for exclusions).

224

225 **Fig 1. Flowchart of the systematic search strategy.**

226

227

228 **Data extraction**

229 A standardized form was used to extract data based on a template by the Cochrane  
230 Consumers and Communication Review Group (2016) and refined for the purposes of the  
231 current paper in view of the use of cross-sectional studies. The following information was  
232 collected: (1) authors and year of publication, (2) methods and measures (i.e. tasks), (3)  
233 sample size, (4) psychopathy assessment instrument, (5) physiological index of threat  
234 processing and (6) main findings. Studies did not report data from overlapping samples.

235

236 **Quality assessment**

237 To ascertain the quality and susceptibility to bias of individual studies the authors  
238 tailored a ten-item scale using items from the STROBE Statement for cross-sectional studies  
239 (see supplementary material, [49]). Each item was scored 0 or 1. The total score range was 0  
240 to 10. The quality index was calculated at the study level by summing the items across all  
241 criteria. Uncertainties about quality were resolved through discussions between authors.  
242 Samples were considered of low quality if they scored from 0 to 3 points; medium quality,  
243 from 4 to 6 points; and high quality, from 7 to 10 points.

244 **Statistical analysis**

245 All analyses were completed using the meta package for R [50]. The meta-analyses  
246 were performed using a random effects model, as we expected considerable heterogeneity  
247 due to the small number of studies [51]. Pearson's  $r$  was used as a measure of effect size  
248 and was transformed to Fisher's  $z$  for the purposes of analyses [52]. The pooled effect size

249 and its confidence intervals were converted back into the original scale and reported as  
250 such. Standardized beta coefficients were converted to  $r$ 's using the procedures outlined by  
251 Peterson [53]; relevant F value statistics were converted to  $r$  using formulas outlined by  
252 Field [54]. The relevant beta and F statistics were taken from models including other  
253 predictors: supplementary table S2 provides a summary of these models. Cohen's [55] rules  
254 for interpretation were used:  $r \sim 0.10$  is a small effect size,  $r \sim 0.30$  is a medium effect size,  $r$   
255  $\sim 0.50$  is a large effect size.

256 We tested for heterogeneity with the chi-squared test *Cochran's Q and  $I^2$  statistics*  
257 [56]. The heterogeneity analyses were performed with a random-effects model, with 95%  
258 confidence intervals and a two-tailed test. If heterogeneity tests returned significant results,  
259 we planned to conduct a further moderator analysis via meta-regression with quality of  
260 studies as a moderator (low/moderate/high).

261 Potential publication bias for relationships with factor 1 and factor 2 scores were  
262 assessed graphically and statistically using published methods [57-59].

263 A summary of the characteristics of the eligible studies and their respective quality  
264 indices is included in table 1. Three studies were classified as having lower quality, six as  
265 intermediate and three as higher quality studies.

266

267 Table 1. Characteristics of studies included in the meta-analyses.

<i>Study</i>	<i>Methods and measures</i>	<i>Participants</i>	<i>Psychopathy Measure</i>	<i>Outcome</i>	<i>Main findings Factor 1</i>	<i>Main findings Factor 2</i>	<i>Quality index</i>
<i>Newman et al, 2010 * ‡</i>	Fear conditioning paradigm	125 offenders	PCL-R	Fear-potentiated startle (FPS)	Factor 1 was negatively and significantly associated with outcome.	No data on Factor 2.	4
<i>Vaidyanathan et al, 2011</i>	Startle modulation during affective picture-viewing task	108 offenders	PCL-R	Startle potentiation	Factor 1 was negatively and significantly associated with outcome.	Factor 2 was negatively and not significantly associated with outcome.	6
<i>Veit et al, 2013</i>	Fear conditioning paradigm	14 offenders	PCL-R	Skin Conductance Response (SCR)	Factor 1 was negatively and not significantly associated with outcome.	Factor 2 was negatively and not significantly associated with outcome.	4
<i>Baskin-Sommers et al, 2013 ‡</i>	Startle modulation during affective picture-viewing task	136 offenders	PCL-R	Emotion modulated startle	Factor 1 was negatively and significantly associated with outcome.	Factor 2 was not associated with outcome.	5
<i>Venables, 2015 ‡</i>	Aversive noise during affective picture-viewing task	139 offenders	PCL-R	Late positive potential (LPP, measure of affective processing)	Factor 1 was negatively and significantly associated with outcome.	Factor 2 was positively and not significantly associated with outcome.	7
<i>Drislane et al, 2013</i>	Noise probes during affective picture-viewing task	140 offenders	PCL-R	Event related potentials	Factor 1 was negatively and significantly associated with outcome.	Factor 2 was positively and not significantly associated with outcome.	4
<i>Baskin-Sommers et al, 2011a * ‡</i>	Fear conditioning paradigm	87 offenders	PCL-R	Fear-potentiated startle (FPS)	Factor 1 was negatively and significantly	No data on Factor 2.	6

<i>Sadeh &amp; Verona, 2012</i>	Startle probe during an affective-picture viewing task	63 offenders	PCL-SV	Fear-potentiated startle (FPS)	Factor 1 was negatively and not significantly associated with outcome.	Factor 2 was positively and not significantly associated with outcome.	6
<i>Casey et al., 2013</i> †	Emotion regulation during affective picture-viewing task	61 offenders	PCL-R	Cardiovascular response (heart rate)	Factor 1 was negatively and significantly associated with outcome.	Factor 2 was not associated with outcome.	6
<i>Verona et al., 2012</i>	Emotional processing in an emotional-linguistic Go/No-Go task	45 offenders	PCL-SV	P3 event related potentials	Factor 1 was negatively and not significantly associated with outcome.	Factor 2 was positively and significantly associated with outcome.	7
<i>Baskin-Sommers et al., 2011b</i> ‡	Fear conditioning paradigm	92 offenders	PCL-R	Fear-potentiated startle (FPS)	Factor 1 was negatively and significantly associated with outcome.	Factor 2 was negatively and not significantly associated with outcome	8
<i>Tillem et al., 2016</i> * ‡	Picture-viewing paradigm (threat vs neutral pictures)	99 offenders	PCL-R	EEG theta-coherence	Factor 1 was negatively and significantly associated with outcome.	No data on Factor 2.	5

268 \* Only included in the meta-analysis of Factor 1. This is due to specific papers not providing enough information to calculate effect sizes for Factor 2 (stated as non-  
269 significant in the papers).

270 † Reported standardized beta coefficients, which were converted to  $r$ 's

271 ‡ Reported relevant F value statistics, which were converted to  $r$ 's

## 272 RESULTS

273 To test whether threat processing is associated with psychopathy as a unitary  
274 construct, we carried out pooled analysis of the total PCL-R scores and threat processing  
275 measures. The total psychopathy score was not significantly associated with threat  
276 processing metrics,  $r = -0.05$  (95% CI [-0.15, - 0.04]). Significant heterogeneity was detected  
277 across the pooled studies ( $Q^2 = 20.70$ ,  $df=11$ ,  $p=0.04$ /  $I^2 = 46.9\%$ ), indicating that there is  
278 considerable variation in study outcomes between the included studies (see S1 Fig). Visual  
279 inspection of the funnel plot did not suggest presence of publication bias (see S2 Fig).

### 280 Factor 1

281 As shown in Figure 2, the pooled analysis of 12 studies showed that Factor 1  
282 (affective and interpersonal deficits) scores had a negative and significant moderate effect  
283 on threat processing indices,  $r = -0.22$  (95% CI [-0.28, -0.17]).

284

285 **Fig 2. Correlations (r) between physiological threat processing index and PCL-R/SV Factor 1 scores.**

286

287 No significant heterogeneity was detected across studies ( $Q^2 = 11.46$ ,  $df = 11$ ,  $p=0.41$ /  
288  $I^2 = 4.0\%$ ). A visual inspection of the funnel plot (Fig 3) revealed that the studies were evenly  
289 distributed across varying significance levels and Egger's regression intercept (intercept = -  
290 0.10;  $t = -0.82$ ;  $df = 11$ ;  $p = 0.43$ ) suggested no evidence of publication bias.

291

292 **Fig 3. Funnel plot showing distribution of studies included in the meta-analysis of Factor 1 scores.**

293



294 **Factor 2**

295           Meta-analysis of nine studies indicated that Factor 2 (antisocial and  
296 impulsive/disorganised behaviours, Fig 4) scores were not significantly related to threat  
297 processing indices  $r = -0.005$  (95% CI [-0.10, 0.09]).

298

299 **Fig 4. Correlations (r) between physiological threat processing index and PCL-R/SV Factor 2 scores.**

300           Heterogeneity analyses revealed no significant between-study variability ( $Q^2=13.75$ ,  
301  $df=8$ ,  $p=0.09/I^2=41.8\%$ ). A visual inspection of the funnel plot (Fig 5) and Egger's regression  
302 intercept (intercept = -0.07;  $t = -0.42$ ;  $df = 8$ ;  $p = 0.68$ ) suggests that there is no publication  
303 bias.

304

305 **Fig 5. Funnel plot showing distribution of studies included in the meta-analysis of Factor 2 scores.**

306

307           The meta-analysis of the two separate factors did not return significant  
308 heterogeneity results, thus no meta-regression analyses were carried out.

309 **Discussion**

310           This meta-analysis examined the relationship between Factor 1 and 2 scores of the  
311 psychopathy construct and physiological indices of threat processing in cross sectional  
312 studies of male offenders which reported factorial data, identifying 12 studies involving  
313 1112 individuals for Factor 1 scores, and 9 studies involving 801 individuals for Factor 2  
314 scores. The only previous meta-analysis in the field included data from community and

315 student samples which utilised self-report measures [4], which rendered the potential  
316 relationship between threat processing measures such as skin-conductance [60], fear-  
317 potentiated startle [14, 63, 67] and startle blink modulation [32] and individual factor scores  
318 non-significant. For clinicians who utilise the psychopathy construct categorically to help to  
319 inform treatment programmes, this relationship required further exploration in a restricted  
320 sample of clinician-assessed offenders.

321 Our findings support the hypothesis that threat processing deficits in male offenders  
322 are significantly related to only one of the psychopathy factors, namely Factor 1. Meta-  
323 analytic investigation revealed that psychopathy total score and psychopathy Factor 2  
324 scores are not associated with fear responses. Analysis of Factor 1 and threat processing  
325 revealed a significant inverse association, indicating that higher scores on this psychopathy  
326 factor are associated with greater deficits in threat processing. The effect size was  
327 significant and consistent across studies. Heterogeneity was low and not significant, further  
328 supporting the consistency of the effect direction across studies. In contrast, threat  
329 processing was not significantly related to the Factor 2 traits of psychopathy. Heterogeneity  
330 estimates here were moderate and not significant. A smaller number of studies was  
331 included in this meta-analysis, yet they consistently reported non-significant relationships  
332 between the variables of interest (see Table 1 and Figure 3).

333 The current findings cannot be readily integrated into the low-fear model, which  
334 argues that diminished responsivity to threat lies at the core of the condition, giving rise to  
335 other key deficits [12, 69]. Our results, in line with previous empirical investigations [34, 62,  
336 63, 67-69] do not support the notion that impaired threat responsivity is associated with  
337 psychopathy as a unitary construct. By contrast, the dual-process model posits that

338 aetiologically distinct pathways lead to the development of the two factors, with threat  
339 processing deficits being particularly associated with emotional detachment traits and  
340 deficient regulatory control being particularly associated with the life-span persistent  
341 antisocial features [70, 71]. Our results fit in with the larger body of empirical evidence on  
342 this model specifically linking factor 1 psychopathic traits, and not life-span persistent  
343 antisocial behaviour, to an impaired threat processing system [32, 33, 35].

344         A substantial number of the studies in the current meta-analyses utilised startle  
345 responses as measures of threat processing, and these reactions are presumed to be  
346 modulated via limbic systems, with a particularly important role for the amygdala [72]. The  
347 significant link between Factor 1 and threat processing impairments reported here is  
348 consistent with the view that affective deficits in psychopathy are related to atypical  
349 structure and function within affective brain systems [73-78]. The amygdala is also  
350 presumed to control the early stage processing of threatening stimuli [79] and studies  
351 utilising methods restricting conscious awareness, such as backward masking and  
352 continuous flash suppression, have shown that it is precisely the affective deficits in  
353 antisocial populations that are positively associated with impairments in early stage  
354 processing of fearful stimuli [80, 81].

#### 355         *Study Limitations*

356         It should be noted that readers need to interpret the current findings in the context  
357 of restrictions inherent in our meta-analytic approach. Thus, we included those studies  
358 which examined physiological measures of threat response in male offender populations  
359 assessed with a clinician administered diagnostic tool, and where effect size measurements  
360 were included for both factors. We were unable to secure unpublished data to help to

361 inform the meta-analysis, which may in turn have impacted on the generalizability of the  
362 findings. Nevertheless, we sought to clearly establish factor structure associations in the  
363 clinical samples with whom we work in custodial settings to help to inform our aetiological  
364 considerations and potential future approaches to treatment. Future work could employ  
365 moderation analyses to interrogate the possibility that differences may emerge when  
366 community samples on the psychopathy continuum [42-44] or female populations [47, 48]  
367 are examined.

368         It was beyond of the scope of the current work to investigate metrics of threat-  
369 processing beyond physiological measures. However, previous meta-analytic work on  
370 emotion recognition in psychopathy strongly supports the conclusions drawn here [39]. The  
371 global psychopathy construct was associated with pervasive deficits in recognition of  
372 emotion (fear, sadness, anger, happy, disgust), but Factor 1 scores were specifically  
373 associated with impairments in processing fear. Taken together, the literature suggests that  
374 Factor 1 is associated with deficient threat processing across different metrics.

375         Heterogeneity in the meta-analysis of Factor 2, albeit statistically non-significant,  
376 indicated the presence of moderate variation. Our analyses were also limited by missing  
377 data. Some of the studies identified as eligible did not report effect sizes for Factor 2 so they  
378 could not be included, although their results stated that Factor 2 was not significantly  
379 related to the outcome (see Table 1).

### 380         *Treatment Implications*

381         Traditional treatments within the criminal justice system are relatively ineffective for  
382 psychopathic offenders [82-84]. One possible explanation is that these treatments do not  
383 address the unique patterns of dysfunctions present in psychopathic individuals. Findings

384 that the two factors are associated with distinctive cognitive-affective functions, from our  
385 studies and others [40, 85-87], strongly suggest that developing evidence-based treatments  
386 depends upon targeting the unique factor-specific deficits. Directly translating the current  
387 results into clinical practice would suggest that individuals with higher scores on Factor 1  
388 will not be able to utilise aversive learning to shape behaviour, and so alternative strategies  
389 are required. Cognitive remediation training targeting the dysfunctions associated with the  
390 two factors have shown promising preliminary results [40].

391

392

## 393 **Conclusions**

394 The current findings suggest that impairments in threat processing among  
395 psychopathic offenders are significantly associated with scores on Factor 1 but not Factor 2  
396 of the psychopathy construct. These meta-analyses highlight the importance of investigating  
397 and evaluating the discrete relationships the two factorial constructs of psychopathy may  
398 have with aetiological variables. Developments in therapeutic approaches require just such  
399 a nuanced understanding.

400

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407

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409

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- 639

640 **Captions**

641 **S1 Table.** Table presenting the number of excluded/included papers per database and search.

642 **S2 Table.** Table presenting the summary of the analyses reporting relevant beta and F statistics.

643 **S1 Text.** Quality assessment was based on the following criteria.

644 **S1 Fig.** Correlations ( $r$ ) between physiological threat processing index and PCL-R/SV Total scores.

645 **S2 Fig.** Funnel plot showing distribution of studies included in the meta-analysis of total scores.