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**Looked after children in prison as adults: Life adversity and neurodisability**

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4 **Purpose.** Looked After Children (LAC) are criminalised at 5 times the rate of children in the general population. Evidence suggests that children in contact with both child welfare and child justice systems have higher rates of neurodisability and substance use problems, and LAC in general have high rates of school exclusion, homelessness, and unemployment. We aimed to understand whether these factors persist in LAC who are in prison as adults.

9 **Methodology.** Administrative data collected by the Do-IT profiler screening tool in HMP ~~Par~~ (a prison in Wales, UK) were analysed to compare ~~adults in prison~~ sentenced prisoners who were LAC (n=631) to ~~adults in prison~~ sentenced prisoners who weren't ~~never~~ LAC (n=2,201). The sample comprised all prisoners who were screened on entry to prison in a two-year period.

14 **Findings.** ~~Adults in prison~~ Prisoners who were LAC scored more poorly on a functional screener for neurodisability (effect size = 0.24), and on four self-report measures capturing traits of dyslexia (0.22), ~~attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder~~ ADHD (0.40), autism spectrum disorders (0.34), and developmental co-ordination disorder (0.33). ~~Adults in prison~~ Prisoners who were LAC were more likely to have been to a Pupil Referral Unit (0.24), have substance use problems (0.16), be homeless or marginally housed (0.18), and be unemployed or unable to work due to disability (0.13).

21 **Originality/Value.** This study uniquely contributes to our understanding of prisoners who were LAC as a target group for intervention and support with re-integration into the community upon release. LAC in prison as adults may require additional interventions to help with employment, housing, and substance use. Education programmes in prison should screen for neurodisability, ~~in order to~~ develop strategies to support engagement.

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2  
3 26 **Keywords:** *Looked After Children, Social Care, Neurodisability, Homelessness, Prisoner,*  
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5 27 *Criminal Justice System.*  
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International Journal of Prisoner Health

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## Introduction

Looked After Children (LAC) are defined- in the United Kingdom under the Children Act of 1989 as children whom the local authority provides with accommodation for 24 hours or more, and children who are subject to a care or placement order. The most common reason for children becoming LAC is being identified as at risk of abuse or neglect, but other reasons also include absent parenting, family in acute stress, and family dysfunction (DfE, 2019). A 2018 report indicates that LAC are five times more likely to be criminalised than the general population LAC who have been in care for at least 12 months are five times more likely to be criminalised than children in the general population (DfE, 2018a). The reasons for this are complex but include frequent police presence in residential care homes for issues that would not normally warrant police intervention in domestic homes (Shaw, 2016). LAC are also at greater risk of criminal exploitation (i.e. the coercion or manipulation of a child into criminal activity) by adult gangs, who utilise vulnerable children to shield themselves from prosecution (Baidawi et al., 2020). It is also well established in the literature that experiencing Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACEs), which LAC are exposed to at disproportionate rates, is associated with later contact with the criminal justice system and that this effect is cumulative; experiencing multiple ACEs increases risk exponentially (Testa et al., 2022). The 'Stress Proliferation Model' offers an explanation for this association, positing that stress begets stress over the lifetime, and thus early exposure to ACEs increase risk of a range of problematic circumstances such as low socio-economic status, health-related stressors, stressful relationships, and maladaptive coping strategies, all of which increase vulnerability to later justice system contact and other negative life course outcomes (see Pearlin et al., 2005 for a full discussion).

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3 52 While the number of LAC ending up in contact with the criminal justice system in the  
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6 53 UK is decreasing - 15% of ~~care leavers~~children in residential care homes were formally  
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8 54 criminalised in 2014, compared to 10% in 2018 (The Howard League for Penal Reform,  
9  
10 55 2019), it is still considerably higher than children in the general population - 0.5% of children  
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12 56 in 2018/19 (YJB and MoJ, 2020). This follows significant advocacy and policy attention over  
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14 57 the last five years. In 2016, the Howard League for Penal Reform launched a ‘Programme to  
15  
16 58 end the criminalisation of children in residential care’ (2016), and in 2018 the Department for  
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18 59 Education, the Home Office, and the Ministry of Justice launched the ‘National protocol on  
19  
20 60 reducing criminalisation of looked after children and care leavers’ (2018). However, despite  
21  
22 61 this increased policy attention for this vulnerable group of children, little attention has been  
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24 62 paid to the population of adults in prison who were LAC. The legacy of these high  
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26 63 criminalisation rates is evident as 24% of adult male prisoners are reported to have been  
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28 64 Looked After Children (MoJ, 2012), despite LAC constituting about 0.7% of the general  
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30 65 population (NSPCC, 2021). It is important to understand the specific challenges faced by this  
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32 66 group, in order to direct resources and interventions to avoid cyclical justice system contact,  
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34 67 and support rehabilitation and community reintegration.  
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41 68 **Neurodisability and Special Educational Needs.** LAC in the general population  
42  
43 69 have higher levels of neurodisabilities (Ogundele, 2020) and special educational needs (SEN)  
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45 70 (DfE, 2019) – which is an umbrella term, incorporating formal diagnoses of neurodisabilities,  
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47 71 other disabilities and learning difficulties, as well as ‘social, emotional, and mental health’  
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49 72 ~~(SEMH)~~ needs. Neurodisability is also an umbrella term, encompassing several  
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51 73 neurodevelopmental conditions. These include (but are not limited to) Dyslexia, Attention-  
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53 74 Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD), and  
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55 75 Developmental Co-ordination Disorder (DCD) (also known as Dyspraxia). A study of 80  
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57 76 LAC found that 70% had one or more neurodisability, compared with a prevalence of 15% in  
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3 77 the general population (Ogundele, 2020). The causes of neurodisability are complex and  
4  
5 78 varied, but include genetics, prenatal substance use, birth trauma, infection, injury, and  
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7 79 nutritional deprivation (Patel *et al.*, 2011). Whilst the resultant presentation is heterogeneous,  
8  
9 80 neurodisabilities frequently result in impairments in key developmental domains: cognition,  
10  
11 81 memory, social and communication skills, attention and concentration, emotion regulation,  
12  
13 82 impulse control, and physical motor skills. Neurodivergence and neurodiversity are terms  
14  
15 83 often used interchangeably with neurodisability, but in this instance we choose the term  
16  
17 84 neurodisability to elicit the social model of disability (Oliver, 1983; Oliver, 1990). Individual  
18  
19 85 or medical models of disability place the locus of the problem within the disabled person,  
20  
21 86 whereas social models of disability locate the problem within the systems the disabled person  
22  
23 87 is navigating, which are frequently inaccessible and inappropriate. Those given the label of  
24  
25 88 ‘SEMH-social, emotional, and mental health’ are at particular risk of permanent school  
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27 89 exclusion (Timpson, 2019), and often have high rates of neurodisabilities including  
28  
29 90 dDyslexia and ADHD but importantly don’t receive appropriate screening (Regan, 2010;  
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31 91 Clegg *et al.*, 2009) as the focus tends to lie on ‘disruptive behaviours’ rather than the  
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33 92 underlying drivers of this. In 2019, 56% of LAC had a SEN, compared to 15% of those who  
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35 93 aren’t LAC (DfE, 2019).

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43 94 **School Exclusion.** Children with SEN are over-represented in school exclusions. In  
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45 95 2016/2017, 47% of all permanent exclusions were children with SEN, despite children with  
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47 96 SEN representing only 14% of the general school population (Timpson, 2019; DfE, 2018b).  
48  
49 97 LAC are more than five-times more likely to be excluded from school (Timpson, 2019).  
50  
51 98 Children who are excluded from mainstream school in the UK spend time in Alternative  
52  
53 99 Provision settings, which are frequently Pupil Referral Units (PRUs). Children in PRUs often  
54  
55 100 have poor outcomes in terms of employment, educational attainment, and later contact with  
56  
57 101 the criminal justice system (DfE, 2018b). These interactions build a picture of cumulative  
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3 102 adversity for children in the care system, having levels of neurodisability, and at inflated risk  
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5 103 of school exclusion.  
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8 104 **Crossover Children.** In general, outcomes for ‘crossover’ children involved in both  
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10 105 child justice and child welfare systems are more negative than outcomes for children  
11  
12 106 involved in only one system (Herz *et al.*, 2012). Instability in placements is a factor strongly  
13  
14 107 linked to poor psychosocial outcomes for LAC, compounding feelings of rejection, and  
15  
16 108 impacting on educational attainment, criminalisation, and poor physical and mental health  
17  
18 109 (Staines, 2016; The Howard League for Penal Reform, 2016). There is sparse literature  
19  
20 110 exploring rates of neurodisability amongst crossover children. However, in 2021, an  
21  
22 111 Australian study of 300 crossover children aged 10-21 found that 48% had an identified  
23  
24 112 neurodisability (Baidawi and Piquero, 2021). A key limitation of that study is that identified  
25  
26 113 neurodisability was found using a record search – which is likely to be an under-  
27  
28 114 identification, as this requires a formal diagnosis. To address this, the current study utilises  
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30 115 data from the Do-IT profiler screening tool (Kirby, 2016) for neurodisability. No current  
31  
32 116 evidence exists, to our knowledge, exploring the characteristics of adults in prison who were  
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34 117 LAC.  
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41 118 In addition to high levels of neurodisability, crossover children have vulnerability to  
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43 119 substance use problems (Simkiss, 2012), which has been linked to neurodisabilities including  
44  
45 120 ADHD in prison populations (Gonzalez *et al.*, 2017). There is a high association between  
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47 121 criminal justice system involvement and substance use (Bennett *et al.*, 2008), and those in  
48  
49 122 prison with substance use problems face complex challenges when reintegrating back into the  
50  
51 123 community (Visher *et al.*, 2004).  
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55 124 **Multidimensional Life Adversity.** In general populations it is known that adults who  
56  
57 125 were previously LAC have high levels of homelessness and unemployment (Tyler and  
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3 126 Melander, 2010). Glover and Clewett (2011) reported that LAC in custody received  
4  
5 127 insufficient support in finding suitable and stable living accommodation when released. This  
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7  
8 128 then was a significant contributor to a lack of engagement with other services, and eventual  
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10 129 reoffending. Homelessness and unemployment are inextricably linked, as are homelessness  
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12 130 and disability which renders people unable to work (Steen *et al.*, 2012). Unemployment is  
13  
14 131 also linked to educational disruption (Sutherland and Eisner, 2014), which LAC are  
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17 132 vulnerable to as discussed above.

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20 133 Viewpoints that consider broad sociological perspectives and the interactions of all  
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22 134 these above factors are important in understanding the multidimensional risk of  
23  
24 135 criminalisation and the appropriate policy response (Berridge, 2006). These multidimensional  
25  
26 136 adversities are a key area for intervention, to ensure successful community reintegration on  
27  
28 137 release from custody for crossover children. These relationships haven't yet been explored in  
29  
30 138 crossover children who are now in the adult secure estate, and this is an aim of the current  
31  
32 139 study. This could elucidate key targets for rehabilitation for crossover children who have  
33  
34 140 'grown up' in contact with the justice system. As justice system contact is criminogenic,  
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36 141 these children may have been caught in cyclical 'revolving door' justice system contact and  
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38 142 therefore still be in the secure estate as adults, with the same psychosocial needs (McAra and  
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40 143 McVie, 2010).

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46 144 **The Current Study.** The current study aimed to assess whether adults in prison who  
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48 145 had been LAC have higher levels of neurodisability, as screened for by the Do-IT profiler. It  
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50 146 is important to note here that the measure of LAC in the Do-IT profiler only asks whether the  
51  
52 147 individual has ever been fostered or adopted, so only captures a subset of LAC. We refer to  
53  
54 148 this group as LAC in this manuscript, but note that the group may not capture those who  
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56 149 spent time in residential care homes but were never fostered or adopted. This study expands  
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59 150 on existing literature which has so far relied on record searching (which can be an

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3 151 underestimate as it relies on diagnostic thresholds being met and screening taking place  
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5 152 reliably) and to our knowledge has only studied children and young people in the justice  
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7 153 system (rather than adults). In addition, we aimed to establish whether adults in prison who  
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9 154 had been LAC were more likely to have lifelong psychosocial vulnerabilities including being  
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11 155 referred to a PRU as a child, substance use, unemployment, and homelessness, compared to  
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13 156 those who were never LAC. It is also important to note that our data are cross-sectional and  
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15 157 may be confounded by variables not captured here (such as socio-economic status and  
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17 158 educational attainment); as such we did not aim to infer causality from our findings. We  
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19 159 aimed instead to produce normative rates of comorbidities in the LAC versus non-LAC adult  
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22 160 prison population.  
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## 26 27 161 **Method**

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30 162 **Data.** Administrative screening data from HMP Parc (a male ~~institution-prison~~ in  
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32 163 Wales, UK) were analysed. 3544 adult male prisoners completed the Do-IT profiler during  
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34 164 2017 and 2018 as part of usual practice during the first six weeks in prison. Prisons screen  
35  
36 165 individuals with the Do-IT profiler to collect background information about individual  
37  
38 166 vulnerabilities (e.g. substance use), and to identify deficits and strengths in functional skills  
39  
40 167 that may impact engagement with education. 413 individuals were removed from the analysis  
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42 168 as they were being held on remand, and so had not been convicted of a crime. 299 individuals  
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44 169 had missing data in one or more variables. Those who had missing data made up <10% of the  
45  
46 170 sample, and did not significantly differ on age, which was the only administrative variable  
47  
48 171 collected for all respondents (Welch's  $t = -0.035$ , Cohen's  $d = -0.002$ ,  $p = .972$ , missing mean  
49  
50 172 age = 32.4, non-missing mean age = 32.2). See supplementary material for more information  
51  
52 173 about individuals with missing data. They were removed listwise, so the final sample  
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55 174 comprised 2832 convicted adult males.  
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3 175           **Ethics.** Ethical approval for this study was granted by the HMPPS National Research  
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5 176   Committee (NRC) and the University of Exeter Department of Psychology Research Ethics  
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8 177   Committee. Permission to analyse the data was granted by HMP Parc as data controllers.  
9  
10 178   Participants provided consent for their anonymised data to be used for research, and this is a  
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12 179   routine part of the screening process.

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15 180           **Measures.** The Do-IT profiler (Kirby, 2016) is a computerised screening tool, divided  
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17 181   into modules which can be completed at once or at different time points depending on  
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19 182   concentration and time available. Optional accessibility features are built into each module,  
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21 183   including the ability to change the text and background colour, and the option to have each  
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23 184   question read aloud. A member of prison staff was present to help with completion if any  
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25 185   problems were encountered.

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30 186           Participants completed the following modules:

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33 187           ***About Me (Demographics and Background Information).*** This is a self-report  
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35 188   module comprising questions about conviction status, ethnicity, gender, and being a LAC  
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37 189   (‘Have you ever been fostered or adopted?’). It asks whether the individual has experienced  
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39 190   substance use problems (‘yes’ or ‘no’), what their employment status was before coming to  
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41 191   prison (with drop-down options including but not limited to ‘self-employed’, ‘unemployed’,  
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43 192   ‘employed full-time’, ‘employed part-time’), and whether they have ever attended a PRU  
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45 193   (‘yes’ or ‘no’).

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49 194           It also includes questions about housing - ‘What were your living arrangements before  
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51 195   coming to prison?’ with drop-down answers (including but not limited to ‘Homeless’,  
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53 196   ‘Supported Accommodation’, and ‘Living Independently (with or without others)’ and the  
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55 197   option to enter a free-text description of living arrangements if preferred. In recognition of  
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57 198   the fact that those housed ‘marginally’ in unstable living situations have similarly poor  
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3 199 outcomes in terms of mental health and substance use to those who are ‘literally’ homeless,  
4  
5 200 and that these outcomes differ in the literature to those who are stably housed (Eyrich-Garg *et*  
6  
7 201 *al.*, 2008), we created a dichotomy - ‘homeless or marginally housed’ and ‘stably housed’.  
8  
9  
10 202 Those who self-reported unstable living conditions (such as ‘sofa-surfing’ or ‘staying with  
11  
12 203 friends’) were classed as being marginally housed. Respondents can select ‘prefer not to say’  
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14 204 for any question in this module.  
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17  
18 205 **Knowledge and Skills Screener (KASS)**. KASS comprises 42 items assessing  
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20 206 transdiagnostic functional skills in domains relevant to everyday life. The items are multiple  
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22 207 choice, and the correct answer receives a score of 1 whilst all other answers receive a score of  
23  
24 208 0. Higher scores therefore indicate better functional skills. The maximum score is therefore  
25  
26 209 42. Example questions include: ‘Click on the clock which is showing 8:25’ accompanied by a  
27  
28 210 selection of analogue clocks, and ‘Which coin is worth the least?’ accompanied by a selection  
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30 211 of coins.  
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34 212 ***How I Learn***. This module includes 60 self-report items, which are divided into four  
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36 213 subscales. These broadly represent difficulties indicative of the spectrums of dyslexia, ASD,  
37  
38 214 ADHD, and DCD. Example questions include ‘I find it hard to read aloud’ (dyslexia), ‘I find  
39  
40 215 it hard to make direct eye contact with people’ (ASD), ‘I get distracted easily’ (ADHD), and  
41  
42 216 ‘I often knock into people or things’ (DCD). Responses are on a Likert Scale where 1 = Very  
43  
44 217 like me, 2 = A bit like me, 3 = Not really like me, and 4 = Not like me at all. Each scale is  
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46 218 therefore scored out of 60, with low scores reflecting self-assessed difficulties in that domain.  
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51 219 These measures have not been validated against traditional diagnostic criteria, as the  
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53 220 philosophy of the screening tool is to be transdiagnostic. This includes rejecting the medical  
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55 221 model of diagnostic threshold criteria, in favour of a transdiagnostic functional needs  
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57 222 assessment. The Do-IT assessments were developed in collaboration with forensic  
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223 psychologists and prison services to ensure their practical utility in prison populations who  
224 typically have complex, multifaceted profiles of need (see Kirby, 2016; Kirby and Saunders,  
225 2015), and have been used in other published studies of justice-involved samples (e.g. Kirby  
226 *et al.*, 2020).

### 227 Analysis

228 Welch's t-tests (with Cohen's *d* effect sizes) were used to compare prisoners who  
229 were LAC to prisoners who were not LAC in all continuous variables (age, KASS Score, and  
230 the four 'How I Learn' scales). Chi-Square tests (with Cramer's *V* effect sizes) were used to  
231 compare LAC to non-LAC in categorical or binary variables. Significance was reported at  $p$   
232  $< 0.001$ . According to Cohen (1992),  $d > 0.2$  indicates there is a small effect size,  $d > 0.4$  a  
233 medium effect size, and  $d > 0.6$  a large effect size. Cramer's *V* can be interpreted as  $V > 0.1$   
234 indicates a small effect size,  $V > 0.3$  a medium effect size, and  $V > 0.5$  a large effect size  
235 (Cramer, 1946). However, more recent literature indicates that these are high thresholds with  
236 which to define effect size groups, particularly in social research, (Lovakov and Agadullina,  
237 2021) and this is reflected in our interpretation of results. In addition, prison populations are  
238 relatively homogenous compared to the general population in terms of negative life outcomes  
239 and neurodisability, so any differences found have potentially important implications for this  
240 group of prisoners.

### 241 Results

242 22% of prisoners self-reported having been LAC. Table I shows characteristics of  
243 those who were LAC and those who were not. We found that adults in prison who were LAC  
244 were more likely to have been homeless or marginally housed before coming to prison (38%  
245 of LAC compared to 20% of non-LAC), more likely to have substance misuse problems  
246 (50% of LAC compared to 32% of non-LAC), and more likely to have been referred to a

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3 247 PRU as a child (49% of LAC compared with 22% of non-LAC). LAC in prison as adults  
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5 248 were different to prisoners who were not LAC in employment before prison – higher  
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7 249 proportions of LAC were unemployed (40 % of LAC compared with 33% of non-LAC) or  
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9 250 unable to work due to illness or disability (19% of LAC compared to 13% of non-LAC)  
10  
11 251 compared to prisoners who were not LAC. Cramer’s V sizes for these comparisons ranged  
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13 252 from 0.13 to 0.24. LAC in prison also differed from prisoners who were not LAC in ethnicity  
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15 253 – a higher proportion of LAC were White British/White European, but this effect size was  
16  
17 254 very small. Adults in prison who were LAC scored worse than those who were never LAC in  
18  
19 255 the KASS functional screener, and the four domains of the How I Learn measure (indicative  
20  
21 256 of traits of dDyslexia, ASD, ADHD, and DCD). Cohen’s D effect sizes here ranged from  
22  
23 257 0.22 to 0.40. We confirmed that these results weren’t confounded by age (as LAC are on  
24  
25 258 average only two years older) or ethnicity (as the percentage of LAC who are White is only  
26  
27 259 three percentage points higher than non-LAC) by comparing adjusted and unadjusted models  
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29 260 (see supplementary material).  
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36 261 *[Table I here]*  
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## 42 263 **Discussion**

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45 264 Despite the homogeneity of prison populations compared to general populations in  
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47 265 life outcomes, we found meaningful differences between prisoners who were LAC and  
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49 266 prisoners who were never LAC. Prisoners who had been LAC were more likely to have spent  
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51 267 time in a PRU. This indicates that education settings have been inappropriate or inaccessible  
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53 268 for these individuals in the past, or they may not have been properly screened to identify  
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55 269 functional difficulties associated with neurodisability. Our comparison indicates higher levels  
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57 270 of neurodisability in LAC in prison as adults compared to those who were never LAC, in line  
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3 271 with emerging literature which indicates that children in contact with both child welfare and  
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5 272 child justice courts have elevated levels of neurodisability (Baidawi and Piquero, 2021). LAC  
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8 273 were more likely to be unemployed or be unable to work due to illness or disability.  
9  
10 274 Interventions in prison focussed on future employment after prison will be particularly  
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12 275 important for this group, as employment is a key factor in preventing cyclical re-offending  
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14 276 (MoJ 2013). They were also more likely to have problems with substance use, and more  
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16 277 likely to be homeless or marginally housed, indicating that providing substance use  
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18 278 rehabilitation programs and housing support is also key in wrap-around support for LAC in  
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22 279 prison as adults.

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24 280 These differences are also likely an under-estimation of true differences between  
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26  
27 281 these groups as prisoners who spent time in residential care were excluded from the LAC  
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29 282 sample. Children in residential care may have more complex needs relative to other LAC  
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31 283 who have been fostered or adopted. For example, they may enter care for behavioural reasons  
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33 284 (rather than maltreatment being the primary reason), have poorer academic outcomes, be  
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35 285 subject to more instability in care placements, and be older at the point of entry to care (Trout  
36  
37 286 et al., 2008; Baskin & Sommers, 2011; Ryan, 2012). We therefore recommend that prisons  
38  
39 287 collect more robust and detailed data regarding looked-after status of prisoners in future  
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41 288 which is inclusive of residential care to support future research into this group.  
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46 289 **Implications.** These findings are important, as they indicate that there are a high  
47  
48 290 proportion of LACs in prison as adults, who are a particularly vulnerable group that may  
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50 291 require higher levels of support with re-integration into the community. This includes  
51  
52 292 additional support with housing, employment, and substance use problems. LAC may also  
53  
54 293 require specialist, multi-agency intervention in prison education settings, to provide support  
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56 294 for challenges to learning created by neurodisability. Holistic, rather than siloed approaches  
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58 295 to screening and intervention inside prison and on release could be better equipped to support  
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3 296 individuals with a very complex picture of adversity. Whilst significant efforts are currently  
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5 297 being made currently to reduce the criminalisation of LACs, it is important to also allocate  
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8 298 resource to support adults in prison who were in contact with the social care system as  
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10 299 children. We have found evidence that they are a vulnerable group within prisons, and  
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12 300 additional support with rehabilitation could reduce cyclical, repeat contact with the justice  
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14 301 system, as well as providing social support that may have been missing when they were  
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17 302 children.

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20 303 Additionally, these findings have implications in broader justice-system settings,  
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22 304 including in court and in community justice rehabilitation programmes. The Risk – Need –  
23  
24 305 Responsivity (RNR) model of assessment and rehabilitation of people in contact with the  
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26 306 justice system identifies three core principles (Bonta & Andrews, 2007). First, risk: matching  
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28 307 the level of service to the individual’s risk of reoffending. Second, need: assessing  
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30 308 criminogenic needs and targeting them in treatment. Finally, responsivity: maximising  
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32 309 efficacy of rehabilitative interventions by tailoring the intervention to the learning style and  
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34 310 specific needs of the individual. Neurodisability represents a responsivity factor that could  
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36 311 impact the efficacy of community justice interventions (such as restorative justice sentences).  
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38 312 If not properly identified and responded to, this could hinder efficacy of the programme and  
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40 313 increase risk of reoffending. Understanding whether an individual is a LAC in these contexts  
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42 314 could also therefore provide insight into complex needs and challenges which will inform the  
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44 315 responsivity element of interventions.

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47 316 **Limitations.** Self-report measures have natural limitations. By their nature, they rely  
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49 317 on insight, attention, and choice to report from the individuals. This could impact our  
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51 318 findings, particularly for sensitive measures such as substance misuse. However, it should be  
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53 319 noted that Schofield and colleagues (2011) found prisoners to be reliable survey respondents  
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55 320 when asked to self-report traumatic brain injury. Whilst every effort was made to ensure



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3 321 completion was accurate, including the assistance of a prison staff member to improve  
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5 322 attention and understanding of questions, it is possible that falsely anticipated punishment for  
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7 323 substance use may have had an impact. When considering neurodisability we posit that the  
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9 324 combination of self-report measures (which provide insight into domains where the  
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11 325 individual perceives they are having difficulties) and functional screening measures (the  
12  
13 326 KASS, which assesses functional ability in a more objective manner) provides insight into the  
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15 327 level of neurodisability as well as its impact on the individual, however we accept that this  
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17 328 requires a level of insight into functional difficulties experienced. The measure of being a  
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19 329 LAC ‘have you ever been fostered or adopted?’ also has limitations. We might not capture  
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21 330 those who spent time in residential care homes but were never actually fostered or adopted,  
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23 331 so they may be missing from our LAC group. We also did not have a measure of the length of  
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25 332 time spent in care, so the LAC group in the current study is likely to be a very heterogenous  
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27 333 population – some may have been in care for short placements (e.g. emergency foster care),  
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29 334 and others may have spent years in care. Future research should seek to capture more  
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31 335 complete data about being a LAC.  
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38 336 Our findings are also drawn from cross-sectional data. We therefore present them as  
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40 337 correlational, rather than drawing any conclusions about causality. Like much research in the  
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42 338 field, uncontrolled confounders could account for the differences seen between adults in  
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44 339 prison who were LAC compared to those who weren’t LAC. Factors like socio-economic  
45  
46 340 status could be distorting these effects, causing the measured LAC effect to be amplified.  
47  
48 341 Temporal order of variables isn’t clear, as the data did not capture age at becoming a LAC,  
49  
50 342 age at referral to a PRU, and age at onset of substance misuse problems. We would  
51  
52 343 recommend longitudinal studies of education and justice data in future to disentangle the  
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54 344 temporal order of these relationships. Ascertaining the temporal order of these factors would  
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3 345 allow more complex modelling to assess which variables impact each other, and whether  
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5 346 pathways into prison differ for LAC, and those who were never LAC.  
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8 347 Finally, our sample was from a male prison. Exploring these relationships in female  
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10 348 prisons is also important, as women in prison have particularly high levels of adverse  
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13 349 childhood experiences, and this early life trauma could also contribute to negative outcomes  
14  
15 350 for female LAC (Friestad *et al.*, 2014).  
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18 351 **Conclusion.** Adults in prison who were LAC are likely to have experienced multi-  
19  
20 352 dimensional life adversity, including school exclusion, substance use problems,  
21  
22 353 homelessness, and unemployment. They therefore should be a target group for intervention  
23  
24 354 and support with re-integration into the community upon release. LAC in prison as adults  
25  
26 355 also have indications of higher levels of neurodisability. This neurodisability may create  
27  
28 356 complex barriers to engagement in education in prison and contribute to cyclical  
29  
30 357 incarceration. Proper holistic assessment is key to understanding an individual's strengths and  
31  
32 358 weaknesses and designing multi-agency interventions. Reducing the criminalisation of LAC  
33  
34 359 is an essential focus of new policy, but we should additionally take care not to forget the LAC  
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36 360 who are currently in prison as adults in this paradigm shift away from punitive responses to  
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38 361 children in contact with the welfare system.  
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*Table 1:* Sample description, including test statistics for Welch's t-tests to compare outcomes on continuous variables for adults in prison who were LAC compared to those who were not LAC, and Chi-Square tests of independence to make this comparison for categorical or binary variables. Cohen's d and Cramer's V effect sizes are also provided for each comparison.

Variable		Total Sample Description (n = 2832)	Description of LAC (22.3%, n = 631)	Description of those who were not LAC (77.7%, n = 2,201)	Test Statistic comparing LAC with not LAC. (Cohen's d/Cramer's V Effect Size)
Age		M = 32.2 (SD = 11.4)	M = 32.7 (SD = 11.6)	M = 30.2 (SD = 10.5)	t = 5.12*** (d = 0.23)
Ethnicity	Asian or Asian British	3.4% (n = 96)	1.4% (n = 9)	3.9% (n = 87)	X <sup>2</sup> = 16.09*** (V = 0.075)
	Black African	2.5% (n = 71)	1.3% (n = 8)	2.9% (n = 63)	
	Black Caribbean	2.7% (n = 79)	2.7% (n = 17)	2.8% (n = 62)	
	Mixed	5.8% (n = 166)	6.8% (n = 43)	5.6% (n = 123)	
	White British/White European	85.5% (n = 2420)	87.8% (n = 554)	84.8% (n = 1866)	
PRU		28.2% (n = 800)	48.5% (n = 306)	22.4% (n = 494)	X <sup>2</sup> = 164.19*** (V = 0.24)
Homeless or Marginally Housed		24.3% (n = 688)	38.4% (n = 242)	20.3% (n = 446)	X <sup>2</sup> = 87.24*** (V = 0.18)
Substance Misuse		35.7% (n = 1012)	49.9% (n = 315)	31.7% (n = 697)	X <sup>2</sup> = 71.15*** (V = 0.16)
Employment Status Prior to Prison	Employed (full or part time)	22.7% (n = 643)	15.1% (n = 95)	24.9% (n = 548)	X <sup>2</sup> = 83.41*** (V = 0.13)
	Self-Employed	21.9% (n = 621)	18.1% (n = 114)	23.0% (n = 507)	
	Unable to work – illness or disability	14.5% (n = 410)	19.2% (n = 121)	13.1% (n = 289)	
	Unemployed	34.4% (n = 973)	40.1% (n = 253)	32.7% (n = 720)	
	Other	6.5% (n = 185)	7.6% (n = 48)	6.2% (n = 137)	
KASS Score		M = 36.1 (SD = 5.9)	M = 35.0 (SD = 6.7)	M = 36.5 (SD = 5.5)	t = 5.00*** (d = 0.24)
How I Learn	Dyslexia traits	M = 42.7 (SD = 7.6)	M = 41.4 (SD = 7.9)	M = 43.1 (SD = 7.5)	t = 4.81*** (d = 0.22)
	ASD traits	M = 42.5 (SD = 7.8)	M = 40.4 (SD = 7.8)	M = 43.1 (SD = 7.7)	t = 7.54*** (d = 0.34)
	ADHD traits	M = 41.5 (SD = 7.7)	M = 39.1 (SD = 7.6)	M = 42.1 (SD = 7.6)	t = 8.80*** (d = 0.40)
	DCD traits	M = 43.5 (SD = 7.6)	M = 41.6 (SD = 6.8)	M = 44.0 (SD = 7.8)	t = 7.61*** (d = 0.33)

Note: \*\*\* = p < .001

Lower scores on the KASS and How I Learn measures indicate poorer functional skills, and therefore higher levels of neurodisability. No comparison was made between prisoners who self-identified as male vs female, as cell counts would have been too small, revealing identifying information about individuals. Similarly, those who identified as White European have been combined with those who identified as White British, to avoid small cell counts.

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### Supplementary Material

*Supplementary table 1:* Results of linear and logistic regression models indicating association between each variable of interest and being a LAC, unadjusted and adjusted for age and ethnicity. This table indicates that observed differences between LAC and non-LAC groups were not confounded by age and ethnicity.

Dependent Variable		Unadjusted LAC Co-efficient (95% Confidence Intervals)	Adjusted LAC Co-efficient (95% Confidence Intervals)
PRU		1.18*** (0.99 – 1.37)	1.11*** (0.91 – 1.30)
Homeless or Marginally Housed		0.90*** (0.70 – 1.09)	0.87*** (0.68 – 1.06)
Substance Misuse		0.77*** (0.59 – 0.95)	0.75*** (0.57 – 0.94)
Employment Status Prior to Prison	Employed (full or part time)	Reference Category	Reference Category
	Self-Employed	0.26 (-0.04 – 0.56)	0.29 (-0.01 – 0.59)
	Unable to work – illness or disability	0.88*** (0.58 – 1.19)	0.98*** (0.67 – 1.29)
	Unemployed	0.71*** (0.45 – 0.97)	0.70*** (0.44 – 0.96)
	Other	0.70*** (0.31 – 1.10)	0.81*** (0.40 – 1.21)
KASS Score		-0.04*** (-0.05 - -0.03)	-0.04*** (-0.05 - -0.02)
How I Learn	Dyslexia traits	-0.03*** (-0.04 - -0.02)	-0.03*** (-0.04 - -0.02)
	ASD traits	-0.04*** (-0.06 - -0.03)	-0.04*** (-0.06 - -0.03)
	ADHD traits	-0.05*** (-0.06 - -0.04)	-0.05*** (-0.06 - -0.04)
	DCD traits	-0.04*** (-0.06 - -0.03)	-0.04*** (-0.05 - -0.3)

Note:

\*\*\* =  $p < .001$

Supplementary table II: Number and characteristics of those removed from the sample for having missing data (n = 299).

Variable		Number of Individuals with Missing Data	Mean/n of individuals excluded for having missing data on other variables. n = 299 - n of missing on that variable.	Mean/n of non-missing (included in main sample) n = 2832
Age		0	M = 32.4 (SD = 10.33)	M = 32.2 (SD = 11.4)
Ethnicity	Asian or Asian British	112	NA - Low Cell Counts	3.4% (n = 96)
	Black African		7.4% (n = 14/187)	2.5% (n = 71)
	Black Caribbean		NA - Low Cell Counts	2.7% (n = 79)
	Mixed		NA - Low Cell Counts	5.8% (n = 166)
	White British/White European		82.8% (n = 155/187)	85.5% (n = 2420)
LAC		55	24.6% (n = 60/244)	22.3% (n = 631)
PRU		5	36.3% (n = 107/294)	28.2% (n = 800)
Homeless or Marginally Housed		29	40.0% (n = 108/270)	24.3% (n = 688)
Substance Misuse		127	38.9% (n = 67/172)	35.7% (n = 1012)
Employment Status Prior to Prison	Employed (full or part time)	5	27.7% (n = 83/294)	22.7% (n = 643)
	Self-Employed		7.6% (n = 23/294)	21.9% (n = 621)
	Unable to work – illness or disability		19.7% (n = 59/294)	14.5% (n = 410)
	Unemployed		36.5% (n = 109/294)	34.4% (n = 973)
	Other		8.4% (n = 25/294)	6.5% (n = 185)
KASS Score		93	M = 34.1 (SD = 7.4)	M = 36.1 (SD = 5.9)
How I Learn	Dyslexia traits	93	M = 43.8 (SD = 8.1)	M = 42.7 (SD = 7.6)
	ASD traits	93	M = 41.7 (SD = 7.5)	M = 42.5 (SD = 7.8)
	ADHD traits	93	M = 40.4 (SD = 7.7)	M = 41.5 (SD = 7.7)
	DCD traits	93	M = 41.5 (SD = 6.8)	M = 43.5 (SD = 7.6)