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SEXUAL OFFENDING AGAINST CHILDREN: UTILISING NARRATIVE FRAMEWORKS TO EXPLORE
THE COGNITIVE, AFFECTIVE AND BEHAVIOURAL EXPERIENCES OF CRIME AND THE STATIC
RISK IMPLICATIONS.

CHELSEY DEWSON

A thesis submitted to the University of Huddersfield in partial fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

The University of Huddersfield in collaboration with the International Research Centre for
Investigative Psychology

May 2021

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*"When an antique clock breaks,
a clock that's been telling time for 200 or 300 years,
fixing it can be a real puzzle.
An old clock like that was handmade by someone.
It might tick away the time with a pendulum, with a spring, with a pulley system.
It might have bells that are supposed to strike the hour
or a bird that's meant to pop out and cuckoo at you.
There can be hundreds of tiny, individual pieces,
each of which needs to interact with the others precisely.*

*To make the job even trickier,
you often can't tell what's been done to a clock over hundreds of years.
Maybe there's damage that was never fixed or fixed badly.
Sometimes, entire portions of the original clockwork are missing,
but you can't know for sure
because there are rarely diagrams of what the clock's supposed to look like.
A clock that old doesn't come with a manual....*

*I'm told fixing an old clock can be maddening.
You're constantly wondering if you've just spent hours going down a path that will likely take
you nowhere,
and all you've got are these vague witness marks,
which might not even mean what you think they mean.
So, at every moment along the way,
you have to decide if you're wasting your time or not."*

(Reed, 2017)

I argue that writing a thesis is much like fixing an old clock.

Abstract

Despite ongoing advancements in sex offender risk assessments, the psychological dimensions of static risk assessments such as the Static-99R and the Static-2002R are still unclear. These tools are based on largely unchangeable and historical risk factors which have been empirically linked to recidivism. Whilst they hold moderate predictive validity, recent research has highlighted the need to identify psychologically meaningful constructs underpinning these tools. The current study has taken a novel approach to identify these constructs through examination of the cognitive, affective, and behavioural features of crime, utilising offender narrative frameworks. Forty men with convictions for sexual offences against children participated in this research and provided a personal account of their offences. They also completed questionnaires relating to the roles they assigned to themselves and their emotional experiences during the offence. The offender's interactions with the victim were investigated through their crime scene behaviour, as outlined in official documentation. Finally, their level of risk was determined using the Static-99R and Static-2002R. The analysis identified that the positive and aroused affective states are predictive of high scores on 'persistent paraphilia', as were criminal behaviours where the victim was behaviourally coerced and manipulated. Overall high scores on static risk were predicted by the offender physically controlling the victim through subjugation and objectification. Narratives, where the victim held little personal significance to the offender, were statistically correlated with high persistent paraphilia scores. A lack of agency on behalf of the offender was also associated with high-risk scores. This study is the first of its kind in investigating offenders' risk through their own criminal experiences, expressed in narrative form. Sexual violence is a complex and multidimensional construct, and these results suggest that narrative frameworks can provide fruitful insight into an offender's experiences, aiding in the conceptualisation of recidivism risk.

Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to my Mum and Dad. You told me I could be anything I wanted, and I believed you. You told me to chase my dreams, and so I did. You told me that no education was wasted, and you were right. Your wisdom, encouragement and support made this happen.

Mum and Dad, I took your advice and started at the tail, but the elephant was so big. I am sorry I didn't finish sooner so you could celebrate this moment with me. Finishing this without you is the hardest thing I have ever had to do. Dad, I promise to keep chasing my dreams, so long as you keep 'chasing the light'. Mum, your strength got me through this final push- I am forever in your debt.

Mum and Dad, you gave me everything. And so, I dedicate this thesis to you.

Acknowledgements

Writing these acknowledgements is a bitter-sweet moment and, in some ways, the most difficult section of this thesis.

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In the work context, I sincerely appreciate the support I received from the Corrective Services NSW staff. This includes management, custodial officers and offender services and programs staff. Be it for witnessing consent forms, organising inmate transfers or providing me with moral support, without your actions, this thesis would never have eventuated. I appreciate the support of the CSNSW ethics department, who took the time to assist in the development of a workable proposal. I am thankful to the CUBIT staff for your encouragement, support and feedback. Dr Tamara Sweller, I am particularly thankful for your friendship, motivation and encouragement. For making me conduct interviews when it would have been much easier to go home and for continuing to let me debrief after difficult interviews. You are a loyal and true friend.

To my peers at LSC Psychology, thank you for your expert advice. From sending me articles, reading over my work and providing insight, I appreciate your contributions. I would particularly like to thank Dr Katie Seidler for your professional supervision, expert advice and personal support.

There have been many people along the way who have assisted in this project, particularly Britt, Emily and Sue. Thank you so much for your time and support. Thanks to Mary for being the stats saviour, without you, I would still be scratching my head.

Thank you to the offenders who participated in this research and shared their stories. My aim for this project was to represent you by telling your side of offending. I hope it doesn't disappoint. I also hope you took something valuable from the research experience and use it in your journey towards a happy, healthy and offence free life.

To the victims of childhood sexual abuse: At one point during this thesis, I realised that you, as the victims of my participants, didn't consent to participate in my research. Nor did you consent to being part of the offender's risk assessment, their offence narrative or treatment program. Yet your details are often laid bare (some publicly) for strangers to read.

I have read hundreds, if not thousands, of such documents over my career. When I sometimes allow my brain to, it feels like I'm taking an unsolicited peek through a window and grabbing a brief view of the victim's life, potentially on one of their darkest days. I don't take this privilege lightly. And naturally, I treat their identities and personal information with respect and dignity. Remembering that these names, these stories, these facts, are actually the lived experiences of vulnerable children. Who were let down during times of their greatest need.

So, I feel it would be remiss not to mention the victims in these acknowledgements. Not only those specifically relating to this research but also those who are the unwitting focus of research all over the world. Who despite their absence, it has become a significant part of offenders treatment programs. And who unwillingly have become forever intertwined in the offender's crime narrative, some of which played out in this very project. To the victims, your experiences are not overlooked, understated or dismissed. In a thesis about narratives, you are the real heroes in these stories.

To my friends, who likely think that I have abandoned them, thanks for your understanding. I appreciate you taking me out, making me laugh and, when needed, making me cocktails. I would really like to thank Fleur for being my rock. You are my business partner, my colleague,

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KD, there is an old saying about a good friend bailing you out of gaol, but a best friend would be sitting in the cell next to you. It doesn't matter if life is high or low; I always know that you will be right there next to me. The ship can keep sinking, and we will just get longer snorkels. Cass, I have always relied on your strength. You ground me and act as reprieve when the world otherwise feels unstable and unpredictable. Without you, I would not have climbed this mountain. I am so lucky to have you two, not only as sisters but as best friends. And by sticking together, we will always be 'fine'.

Mum and Dad, this isn't about today or yesterday, but the months, years, and decades that you have held my hand. All my achievements to date are because of you and the relentless support you have given me. Whenever I came to you with my latest challenge, be it sporting,

academic, altruistic or vocational, you always encouraged me, and we found a way to make it happen. Even though we are limping across this finish line this time, we have finally made it. This is as much your achievement as it is mine.

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List of abbreviations

CSNSW	Corrective Services New South Wales
NSW	New South Wales, Australia
YSA	Youthful Stranger Aggression
BOCSAR	NSW Bureau of Crime Statistics and Research

PART I

Theoretical foundations

Introduction and Preamble

The current research serves to investigate the phenomena of adult males who sexually offend against children. The thesis is comprised of four unique studies, with the aim to understand child molestation from the perspective of the offender and the subsequent implications this has for static risk scores. Few studies have utilised the offenders own accounts of crime to understanding their sexual violence and, more specifically, their risk of sexual recidivism. As such, the current study serves to first identify their emotional, cognitive and behavioural experiences of crime, utilising narrative approaches, to meet some of the current gaps within the literature pertaining to sexual violence. The second objective is to investigate these findings in the context of recidivism risk literature.

- Part I: Theoretical foundations.

This section serves to answer two fundamental questions: What do we already know about child sexual offending? And what do we still need to learn? To do so, Part I of the thesis recapitulates the impressive and expansive body of research underpinning our current understanding of this complex and intrusive interpersonal crime. In order to meet the research objectives, Part I draws upon a diverse collection of knowledge, including theories of affective and conative processes, narratives, sexual offending and frameworks for predicting risk. It identifies the gaps within the literature and highlights areas of ambiguity within our current understanding.

- Part II: Research Agenda.

This section of the thesis focuses on the current four studies, revealing the research objectives, methodology and analysis. It also provides a detailed account of the current sample, highlighting their collective representation of the general NSW sexual offending population.

- Part III: Research results.

This section identifies the study results in consideration of historical research and with the aim to both reinforce and confirm pre-set objectives. The theoretical and clinical

interpretations of these findings are critically examined. Part III links each of the four studies with risk outcomes to identify any predictive inferences.

- Part IV: Making meaning.

This final aspect of the study aims to collate the research findings to present a cohesive understanding of the cognitive, affective and behavioural experiences of sexual offending against child victims. This will also explore these experiences considering individual risk factors, with the aim to highlight the latent psychological constructs of two (2) prominent static risk assessments.

With the intent to provide an overview of the contributions to knowledge generated by the current studies and to stimulate further discussion, Part IV of the thesis will offer a summary of essential concepts and provide concluding remarks. Potential research agenda for future exploration is identified, highlighting the self-perpetuating and enticing nature of the human enquiry.

This study is the first of its kind in investigating child sex offenders' risk through their own criminal experiences, expressed in narrative form and in correlation with risk outcomes. These results suggest that there is utility in eliciting offenders' narratives to understand their criminal experiences and identify pertinent risk factors.

As a note on the author/researcher, all data used in this research (unless otherwise specified) was collected by me as the sole researcher and author. For the past 17 years, I have worked in the justice sector, the last 15 of which as a Forensic Psychologist. I have taken an interest in adult males who have sexually offended, and I continue to professionally invest in the sub-group of offenders. This research project was developed and executed whilst I was working for Corrective Services New South Wales (CSNSW) within Sex and Violence Therapeutic Programs (SVOTP) in a high-risk sex offender program. My professional experience is noted in this instance, as it has important implications for the methodology and ethics of the current research project.

In relation to terminology, throughout this thesis, several terms are utilised interchangeably when discussing the sampled population. For brevity, the men who have offended sexually against children are often referred to as 'child sex offenders', 'child sexual offenders' or 'child molesters'. This is not to be confused with 'juvenile sexual offenders', which are a population of juveniles who have sexually offended against either children or adult victims. Other abbreviations are utilised when unavoidable, such as in graphs and tables (i.e., 'porn' for pornography). Offenders narratives were dictated verbatim and subsequently contained colloquial and expletive language.

I have also collectively (yet loosely) referred to 'the narrative approach' throughout this thesis. This encompasses four prominent models founded within Investigative Psychology, which utilise the offender's narrative and/or personal experiences to understand his behaviour. To address the research gaps, 'the narrative approach' has been implemented with the sampled population and consists of the narrative role's assignment, emotional experiences of crime, the criminal narrative experience (CNE) and victim role assignment models.

Chapter 1

Sexual violence:

**Defining terms
and
theories of offending**

1.1. Chapter introduction

Sexual violence is a complex, multidimensional and often misunderstood social phenomena. Child sexual offending is a pervasive feature within the Australian community, as well as in the international domain. Whilst we continue to make advances in understanding these behaviours, rates of sexual offending against children appear to have increased over time (BOCSAR, 2019). Perhaps this represents a rise in offending behaviour, or perhaps a rise in subsequent reporting, but regardless it is intolerable and invites further investigation and informed intervention. It is argued that offenders themselves are a largely neglected source of information into offending behaviour, leaving methodological avenues suppliant for academic attention. This has enticed the current research project, based on offender's personal crime narratives. To contextualise the current research, this chapter defines important terms and recants prominent theories of sexual violence as a footing to the remainder of the thesis.

1.2. Defining terms

1.2.1. Defining sexual offending

Sexual offending is generally viewed as a socially abhorrent act, highlighting a marked deviation from societal norms and expectations. Yet developing an integrative definition of sexual offending has proven challenging, as it is dependent on the legislative framework, context and epoch in which the deviant behaviour is being defined. By way of example, the age of consent for sexual contact varies across jurisdictions, highlighting the cultural differences between so-called socially appropriate sexual acts. Further, it appears that legislation adapts to the changing values of the society in which it governs, as seen by the 1984 decriminalisation of homosexual intercourse in New South Wales (NSW). Given the individualised and progressive nature of legislation, there is no universally accepted definition of sexual offending. That being said, sexual offences are often defined as any sexual activity, or behaviour with sexual intent, towards a person who has not or is incapable of consenting to such behaviour. This isn't limited to penetrative intercourse, and in relation to child sexual abuse, it has been stated:

Child sexual abuse does not just mean sexual intercourse, although it is involved. Child sexual abuse involves a range of sexual activity, including touching a child on their

breasts or penis, masturbating in front of children, flashing to oral sex. The offender uses tricks, bribes, threats, guilt and sometimes physical force to make the child take part and to stop the child from telling anyone about it (Victorian Centre Against Sexual Assault, 2014, p1).

In Australia, individual States and Territories are delegated primary responsibility for defining and regulating sexual behaviour throughout Australia. Whilst concurrently being governed by Federal law, people in NSW are regulated by the state statute (Crimes Act, 1900), Division 10 of which specifically related to sexual offences.

1.2.2. Definition of a sexual offender in New South Wales

Much like the challenges in defining a sexual offence, the term 'sexual offender' is nuanced by the context in which the individual lives. This is particularly prevalent given the legislative reforms in relation to sexual offenders in NSW. Historically, the end of an offender's sentence marked the end of their period of supervision in the community (and hence, the end of 'sexual offender' status). Yet in NSW, the introduction of s 25(1) of the Child Protection (Offenders Registration) Act 2000 sees that people convicted of sexual offences against children be identified as a "registered person" and are subsequently subject to reporting obligations for a number of years after the expiration of their sentence. The length of which depends on the nature and number of convictions, ranging from eight years to the duration of their life.

Further, the Crimes (High-Risk Offenders) Act (2006) serves to provide provisions for the State of NSW to enforce extended supervision and/or continuing detention past the expiration of sentence for high-risk sexual offenders with the aim to ensure the safety and protection of the community.

Many sexual offenders are subject to legal Orders despite having served their initial sentence, and these legislative changes highlight some of the challenges in defining a sexual offender. As such, the definition of a sexual offender appears to encompass any person who is serving a sentence for a sexual offence along with any person with historical sexual convictions. For

this research, the definition of a sexual offender outlined by Corrective Services NSW (CSNSW) will be used. Specifically, CSNSW define a sexual offender as

Any convicted offender whose current offence includes one of sexual violence; any convicted offender whose history of offences includes a conviction for sexual violence; any convicted offender who tells us that he/she has committed acts of sexual aggression (whether they be officially known or not, e.g., "no billed" charges); and/or, any convicted offender whose offence(s) are determined to have entailed an underlying motivation of sexual violence (e.g., sexually motivated murder, burglary with sexual violence) (Dewson & Czerkies, 2013).

1.2.3. Age of consent.

The age of consent is a term used to describe the minimum legal age for a person to participate in sexual behaviour (Waites, 2005). As mentioned earlier, this is a legal definition and varies across jurisdictions, including across the states and territories in Australia. In NSW, the age of consent is 16 years, one year younger than in South Australia and Tasmania. To complicate matters, however, in states and territories which stipulate the age of consent as being 16 years, there is further legislation prohibiting a person in a supervisory role from engaging sexually with a person aged 16 or 17 years. A person in a supervisory role may include a parent, foster parent, teacher, religious officer, medical practitioner or employer, for example (Australian Institute of Family Studies, 2017).

Internationally, there is even more variance with regards to the age of consent, highlighting discrepancies relating to how we define appropriate forms of emotional and sexual expression against a backdrop of concerns for child sexual abuse and exploitation (Waites, 2005). This continues to be a contentious issue, and regulations around the world define the appropriate age of consent as being between 13 and 18 years of age (Roberts, 2019). In many cases, the definition of consent is differentiated by genders and the sexuality of participants (for example, heterosexual versus homosexual) (Robertson, 2019).

One of the primary differences between these legislative reforms and those relating to adult sexual abuse is the notion of consent. Adult sexual assault assumes the absence of consent, whereas child sexual abuse assumes that the child is unable to consent, regardless of their willingness to participate in the activity (Eade, 2003; Barbaree & Marshall, 2006).

1.2.4. Defining a 'child'.

Whilst it is excusable to assume that the definition of a child for the purposes of sexual abuse legislation corresponds directly with the jurisdictional age of consent, there are further factors that require essential consideration. Some examples of these are as follows.

In 2017, a final report into the Royal Commission into Institutional Responses to Child Sexual Abuse was released. Within the Commissioners Terms of Reference (Royal Commission into Institutional Responses to Child Sexual Abuse, 2013), a child was defined in accordance with the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), which states that a child is any human being who is below the age of 18 years (United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, 2019). In defining 'child pornography', the Commonwealth of Australia's uses 18 years to represent a "child" (Criminal Code Act, 1995). The Child Protection (Offenders Registration) Act 2000 defines a 'registerable offence' for the purpose of supervision under the Act to be any sexual offence where the victim is a 'child', defined as a person under the age of 18 years.

In examining the legislative frameworks relating to sexual offending in Australia, there is a disparity between the age of consent and the age which constitutes a 'child'. For the purpose of this thesis, child sexual abuse has been defined as "*involvement of dependant developmentally immature children and adolescents in sexual activities that they do not fully comprehend, to which they are unable to give informed consent, or that violate the social taboos of family roles*" (Kempe & Kempe, 1978 p 43).

1.3. Theories of sexual offending

Examining why people commit sexual crimes is an essential and ongoing debate, which has significant and serious social implications. Part of the challenge lies with them as a heterogeneous population, meaning that there is no universal 'profile' of child sex offenders,

and their pathways to offending are varied. As identified by Lussier, McCuish & Cale (2020), the myths surrounding sexual offending persist within society and have important implications for our responses to this phenomenon, both in theory and practice. They argued that *"the popular image of 'sex offenders' as sexual pariahs and monsters, strange and mentally disturbed individuals hunting stranger victims in dark alleys is alive and well"* (Lussier et al., 2020, page 15). One of the biggest fallacies in this regard relates to the notion that child sexual offenders are necessarily "paedophiles", which has important implications for the features of offender's risk profiles and trajectory of recidivism risk. According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders- fifth edition (DSM-V), Paedophilia falls under the diagnostic banner of paraphilic disorders, which are considered as the intense and persistent sexual interest that is not based on phenotypically normal, mature or consenting humans. It is noted that there is a distinction between paraphilias and paraphilic disorder, which serves to allow differentiation between normative and nonnormative sexual behaviours but without psychopathologising nonnormative sexual practices. Within paraphilic disorders, the paedophilic disorder is categorised with other disorders featuring 'anomalous target preference' (DSM-V, p 697), in that their behaviour is directed towards underage humans, generally under the age of 13. Whilst many people deny attraction towards children, those who acknowledge it often describe an intense sexual interest in children or sexual interest in children, which is the same or higher in intensity than towards age-appropriate partners. The following criteria have been set as a diagnostic benchmark for Paedophilia:

1. *Over a period of at least six (6) months, recurrent, intense sexually arousing fantasies, sexual urges, or behaviours involving sexual activity with a prepubescent child or children (generally age 13 years or younger).*
2. *The individual has acted on these sexual urges, or the sexual urges or fantasies cause marked distress or interpersonal difficulty.*
3. *The individual is at least age 16 years and at least five (5) years older than the child or children in Criterion A (DSM- 5, p 697).*

This nature of sexual attraction and preference are critical diagnostic features as it is known that many child sexual offenders primarily maintain appropriate sexual attraction yet may offend on the basis of availability and/or other environmental or interpersonal factors.

Further, labelling child sexual offenders' paedophiles' discounts victims who are over the age of 13 or in a post-pubescent stage of development. Whilst 'hebephilia' has been used to describe offenders with a strong sexual preference for pubescent children (around ages 11 to 14), this still fails to recognise the older child victim age groups, and the term has not been widely adopted (Blanchard, Lykins, Wherrett, Kuban, Cantor, Blak, Dickey & Klassen, 2009). It is thought that the highest possible prevalence of paedophilic disorders in the male population is 3-5% (DSM-5), although not all these individuals are involved in sexual offences (Martijn, Babchishin, Pullman, & Seto M. C., 2020). Men who have a paedophilic disorder had reported that they generally became aware of their intense or preferential sexual interest in children when they were around the age of puberty and that this remained stable over their developmental course. In fact, Paedophilia appears to be a lifelong condition (DSM-5), potentially impacting an individual's offending course. As such, being diagnosed as a 'paedophile' has critical implications for not only the risk that these individuals posed to the community but also for their criminogenic and subsequent treatment needs. The presence of paedophilic interest versus other potential etiological factors (such as goal-driven pseudo-intimacy) is discussed throughout this thesis in relation to the narrative frameworks.

Although there isn't a unified epistemological foundation for child sexual offending, there are a plethora of theoretical arguments to understand sexual violence. Given the quantity and diversity of sexual offending theories, Ward and Hudson (1998) developed a meta-theoretical framework for theory classification. This classification system provides a heuristic aid for identifying arguments according to their primary explanatory focus and subsequently allocating them to one of three levels. Theories are classified into:

- Level I – Multifactor Theories (i.e., comprehensive accounts of sexual offending);
- Level II – Single Factor Theories (i.e., single factors that are thought to be particularly crucial to sexual offending); or
- Level III – Offence Process Theories (descriptive models of offence chains). The distinction between theories is not intended to be overly rigid, and some may fall somewhere in between the three levels.

The remainder of this chapter summarises the prominent theoretical contributions to date, with a focus on the research limitations, highlighting opportunities for research such as the present study.

1.3.1. Level 1 theories (multifactorial theories)

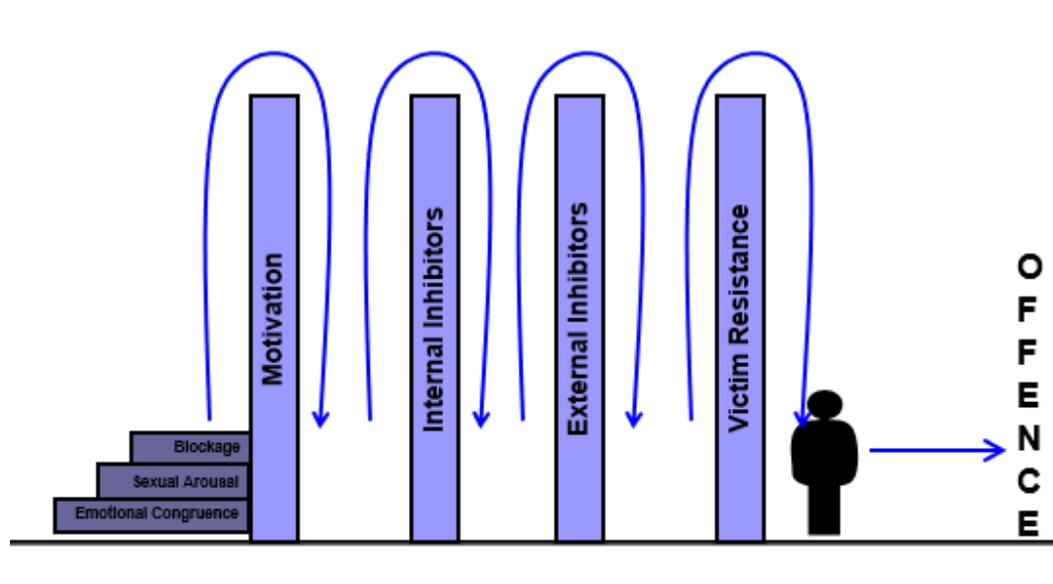
Within their theory classification, Ward et al. (2006) identified four multifactorial theories, including Finkelhor's precondition model of child sexual abuse (1984), Marshall and Barbaree's Integrated Theory (1990), Hall and Hirschman's Quadripartite Model (1992) and Ward and Siegert's Pathways Model (2002). One of the first theories of childhood sexual abuse was the Finkelhor precondition model (1984), which has been described as one of the most popular and most sighted theories of its kind (Ward, Polaschek & Beech, 2006). Whilst this theory represented a landmark achievement in its time, it is also still an integral part of sexual offender treatment programs today, thus suggesting that it continues to provide a good explanation of sexual abuse (Ward, Polaschek & Beech, 2006). Despite this, it also embodies a number of conceptual difficulties which impair its clinical utility and validity as an etiological theory.

The Finkelhor model outlines 'Four Preconditions of Abuse', which are necessarily present for a sexual offence to take place (Finkelhor, 1984). The theory goes beyond explaining the underlying psychological needs and problems exhibited by an offender and identifies individual motivations for offending (Cording & Ward, in press), giving behavioural agency to the offender. Further, this theory extends past 'why' individuals sexually abuse children to highlight 'how' they do so despite prospects of severe punishment and social condemnation. The preconditions include 1) Motivation to sexually abuse a child; 2) Overcoming internal inhibitions; 4) Overcoming external inhibitions; and 4) Dealing with a child's possible resistance. These preconditions occur in a temporal sequence, with each relying on passing previous conditions in order to progress. Figure 1.1 highlights the stepwise progression through these stages.

The first precondition (*Motivation*) assumes that offenders must be motivated to commit a sexual offence against a child. Finkelhor (1984) proposes that motivation may be the result of sexual arousal to children, encountering blockages to meeting their sexual wants in an appropriate manner or holding emotional congruence with children. Emotional congruence is likely the result of poor attachment experiences during their childhood, which impedes an

Figure 1.1

Finkelhor's precondition model of child sexual abuse



offender's ability to maintain healthy and satisfying adult relationships. In this case, children may be viewed by the offender as posing less of a threat than adults and as being able to meet their emotional (as well as sexual) needs. It is noted, however, that the foundations of these blockages associated with the first precondition have origins routed in childhood and has therefore been criticised as being heavily focused on historical and developmental experiences (Howells, 1994). In this regard, it is highlighted that the theory provides insufficient detail about how these experiences impact an individual's psychological functioning in adulthood. Further, there appears to be little focus on the role of cognitive factors, which are more prevalent within more recent theories (Ward & Hudson, 2001).

The second precondition (*Internal barriers*) involves the offender overcoming any internal inhibitors, which allows the offenders' motivation to be unleashed. This disinhibition need only be temporary (i.e., as a result of the person being in a state of intoxication) to allow the facilitation of a sexual offence. For example, most offenders presumably know that sexual offending is an illegal act, if not one of immorality. Despite being faced with cognitive objections to this wrongdoing (be it internal "this is wrong" or external "I could get in trouble for this"), the offender is able to overcome resistance and progress to the next precondition. Ward et al. (2006) argue that this precondition is not necessarily relevant to some offenders, particularly those who have little moral objection or internalised conflict. As such, this model

reflects a subset of potential offence pathways but is not as individualised as some other pathway-based theories of child molestation.

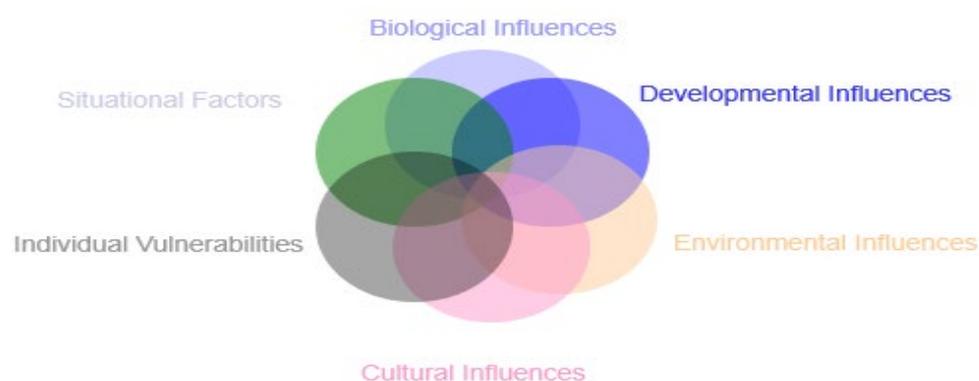
The third precondition (*External barriers*) is for the offender to overcome external inhibitors in the environment. For example, the offender must have an opportunity to offend (i.e., have access to a child) and to overcome any potential barriers to such, including the strong presence of a parent or guardian that deters or disables the offender from accessing a potential victim. Finally, the fourth precondition (*Resistance*) involves the offender overcoming the resistance or avoidance on the victim's behalf. Various strategies may be employed by the individual to overcome any resistance, including the implementation of grooming behaviours, physical force, manipulation of the environment, or targeting victim vulnerabilities. However, these last preconditions neglect to identify how individual motivations are expressed through distinct criminal behaviour. This is an important issue in relation to the current research, in which it is argued that offenders' interactions with the victim (as identified through analysis of crime scene behaviours) reflect aspects of the offender's personality and his motivation for offending (through variants of expressed 'control' and 'empathy').

According to the theory, in order to offend, an individual must progress through all four of these stages, and any one of these barriers may prohibit sexually abusive behaviour (Finkelhor, 1984). Acknowledging that this theory was one of the first comprehensive theories of child sexual abuse, few critical examinations were undertaken until decades after it was introduced (Ward & Hudson, 2008). The core constructs of this theory have since been examined, elucidating several strengths and limitations. One of the major criticisms of the theory is in relation to its lack of explanatory depth, in that it fails to identify why some men, in some circumstances, seek sexual contact with children as a means to appease their non-sexual wants (Ward & Hudson, 2001). It has also been criticised for lacking internal coherence, primarily as it is based on a blend of theories, causing it to have been called "essentially theory-neutral" in the past (Ward & Hudson, 2001, page 298). Despite failing as an aetiological theory of child sexual abuse, the Finkelhor model has been described as nevertheless being "*useful in helping individuals understand that their offending involves a number of distinct phases that collectively lead them to abuse a child sexually*" (Ward et al., 2006, page 30).

Some years after Finkelhor's model was developed, Marshall and Barbaree's integrated theory of sexual offending (1990) was established as a general theory of sexual offending and has been used to explain the development, onset and maintenance of deviant sexual behaviour. The authors stress that their motivation was to develop a broad theory inclusive of diverse processes leading to sexual abuse (e.g., psychological, biological or sociological schools of thought), which appears to have been absent from some previous theories (Marshall & Barbaree, 1990). The basis of this theory is that offending is the result of multiple intersecting factors, which, in a particular context and at a specific time, will manifest in the form of an offence. Specifically, the theory highlights six converging domains (see Figure 1.2), including 1) Developmental influences, 2) Environmental influences, 3) Biological influences, 4) Cultural influences, 5) Vulnerabilities, and 6) Situational factors. The specificity in this model is praised (Ward, 2002), noting that the capacity of the theory to reflect individualised offence characteristics, which was absent in Finkelhor's precondition model.

Figure 1.2

Marshall and Barbaree's Integral Theory with six converging domains



According to this theory (Marshall & Barbaree, 1990), the biological influences relate to the critical task for males in adolescence is to learn to discriminate between aggression and sexual impulses. When a child fails to do this, through developmental factors (including neglect, abuse, sexual abuse, exposure to misogynist attitudes), they tend to form an insecure interpersonal attachment. As a result, they experience coping and interpersonal skill deficits,

potentially leading to environmental factors, including peer rejection and social isolation. Furthermore, poor attachment and skill deficits make the task of discriminating between aggression and sexual impulses difficult. Cultural factors, including the belief that men are superior, interact with individual vulnerabilities such as impulsivity, poor self-regulation and hostile attitudes. These developmental experiences, albeit of varying degrees and in varying forms, interrelate to form critically important distal factors to sexually offending.

The attempt by this theory to encompass a broad spectrum of processes is notable, however, also considered to be the theory's Achilles heel. Specifically, it has been criticised for being too general in that it fails to identify commonality between certain types of offenders. In his critique, Ward (2002) provided the example that "*a theory of child sexual abuse should attempt to account for the fact that prepubescent children sexually arouse some individuals. Similarly, a theory of rape needs to explain why rapists frequently use violence to achieve their sexual goals*" (Ward, 2002, page 217). This theory, therefore, fails to account for the heterogeneity of sexual offenders and, in the case of the current research, offender typology for child sexual offenders.

Noting the limitations in Marshall and Barbaree's theory in relation to the heterogeneity of offenders, the Hall and Hirschman's (1992) quadripartite model of sexual abuse was developed to capture the complexity of child molestation (Ward, Polaschek & Beech, 2006), including the heterogeneity of those who commit them. Within this theory, it hypothesised that four factors relate to sexual offending and that these factors may be exhibited independently or in conjunction with the other counterparts. The four factors include 1) Physiological sexual arousal, 2) Cognitive distortions, 3) Affective dyscontrol, and 4) Personality problems.

This model highlights the intuitive view that sexual arousal and sexual offending are inextricably linked. This is particularly evident in child sexual abuse cases involving individuals with deviant sexual preferences, such as observed in those with Paedophilia. Cognitive distortions present in various forms, and it was viewed by Hall and Hirschman (1992) that these play a central feature in child sexual abuse. This may relate to offence justifications, seeing children as sexual objects or other self-serving interpretations (Ward, Polaschek &

Beech, 2006). As coined by Ward, Hudson and Keenan (1998), the term 'emotional regulation' refers to an individual's ability to control their emotions through the identification and subsequent management of psychological states. Affective dysregulation refers to an individual's inability to identify and modulate their emotions, including the implementation of counterproductive coping strategies (i.e., using sex/masturbation to alleviate distress). The final factor in this model, 'personality problems', is considered to be a distal vulnerability in that it originates from problematic developmental experiences which may be activated in specific contexts.

The quadripartite model (Hall & Hirschman, 1992) proposes that it is possible to construct a classification system for child sexual offenders by using these four factors which relate to sexual offending. Further, it highlights the core features often associated with offenders from these distinct facets. The core features of the 'physiological sexual arousal' group are a tendency to have multiple victims and generally exhibit low levels of non-sexual violence (Hall, 1996). The 'cognitive distortion' group are characterised by high degrees of planning, less impulsivity and greater insidious offending (Hall, 1996). With regards to the 'affective dyscontrol' subtype, these offenders tend to be opportunistic and exhibit higher levels of sexual and non-sexual violence (Hall, 1996). Finally, the 'personality problem' subtype is characterised by pervasive personality problems, antisocial attitudes, oppositional behaviour and high levels of aggression (Hall, 1996).

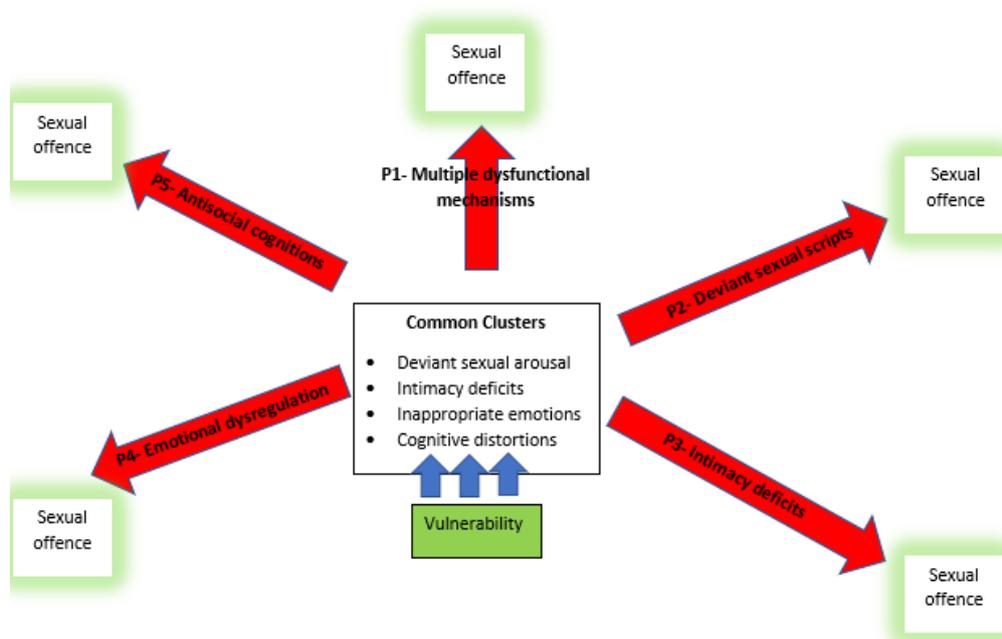
The limitations of this theory include its construct vagueness, the lack of detail relating to relationships between these factors and how they interact to cause sexual offending. Further, it lacks explicit information as to whether the factors are causes of behaviour or are the symptoms associated with the sexual offending phenomena (Ward et al., 2006). Interestingly, the theory assumes that sexual offending is associated with emotional dysregulation, noting that Hall and Hirschman "*argue that men who abuse children are more likely to experience depression, whereas men who rape adults are more likely to experience anger*" (Bartels, 2017, page 21). Further, it has been noted that the model explicitly identifies incidental emotions (or what are also referred to as 'state-based rather than 'trait-based emotions) such as using sexual offence to feel better after a negative life experience (such as job loss etc.) (Bartels, 2017). Whilst the focus on offenders' affective states is praised in this context, there is no

further explanation provided, within the model, to understand why emotions are expressed in a sexual manner (rather than a non-sexual manner). Further, it has been identified that the emotion is only relevant to offending if it is strong enough to hamper the self-regulatory process. This fails to consider the full spectrum of emotions, specifically, those generally thought of as positive (e.g., excitement, courageous), which can also hinder self-regulatory processes (Gilbert, Nolen-Hoeksema & Gruber, 2013). Generally, this appears to be a neglected area of inquiry (as discussed in chapter 2 of this thesis).

Ward and Siegert's (2002) pathway model was developed to further the exploratory power of aetiological theories of child sexual abuse by 'knitting' features of other level 1 theory (Cording et al., in press). By integrating or knitting three well-established theories, namely 'Finkelhor's precondition model', 'Marshall and Barbaree's integrated theory' and 'Hall and Hirschman's quadripartite model', the pathways model addresses a wide range of aetiological variables to provide an in-depth explanatory account of child molestation. Further, it wanted to extend on previous theories by accounting for cognitive, emotional, interpersonal and sexual factors related to child sexual offending.

Figure 1.3

Ward and Siegert's Pathways Model (2002)



The pathways model proposes that child sex offenders are a heterogeneous group who likely present with different behavioural and cognitive profiles. And yet, despite this, there are several distinct aetiological pathways that culminate in offences of this nature. At the centre of each path are core dysfunctions, which are likely the result of childhood experiences, and may be associated with four symptom clusters, including 1) emotional dysregulation, 2) interpersonal and skills deficits, 3) cognitive distortions, 4) deviant sexual preferences/scripts (Ward & Siegert, 2002) (see Figure 1.3).

From the four system clusters noted above, Ward and Siegert (2002) hypothesised five pathways to represent sexual offending processes and whilst this was not intended to be an exhaustive list, it described what they considered to be pure types of sexual offending pathways (Ward & Siegert, 2002). A summary of the five proposed pathways is as follows.

1. Multiple dysfunctional mechanisms: In this pathway, there is not one dominant problem, yet the offender exhibits distorted sexual scripts, interpersonal deficits, emotional dysregulation and attitudes which condone or support child sexual abuse.
2. Deviant sexual scripts: in this pathway, offenders have distortions in their understanding of appropriate sexual conduct and likely have difficulty distinguishing between sex and intimacy. They will often have trouble forming healthy sexual relationships, use children as a means to meet the sexual wants and likely have misinterpreted children's behaviour as being sexually inviting.
3. Intimacy deficits: offenders who offend via this pathway are considered to have healthy sexual scripts and are able to determine the difference between sex and intimacy. They generally, however, have profound difficulties with intimacy as a result of poor attachment due to developmental experiences. As a result, these offenders will seek out children to substitute healthy romantic relationships.
4. Emotional dysregulation: these offenders have difficulty identifying and modulating their emotions, particularly when faced with intense and distressing emotions. Offending sexually against a child may subsequently serve to eliminate negative affective states and establish a sense of emotional equilibrium. Using sex as a means to cope is positively reinforced through operant conditioning principles. In the context

of strong uncomfortable emotions, offenders in this pathway chose inappropriate partners (in this case, children) for sexual encounters to regulate their emotions.

5. Antisocial cognitions: Ward and Siegert (2002) proposed that offenders in this pathway exhibit an antisocial lifestyle, giving little regard for the sociomoral implications. This is associated with feelings of entitlement and attitudes supporting crime. Whilst it is not expected that they seek out opportunities to sexually offend, such would occur in the context of heightened sexual arousal and the absence of an appropriate partner.

The main limitation of the pathways model has been its lack of evidential base (Ward et al., 2006); however, more recent research has explored the theory in more detail. For example, research was conducted in Australia, where the pathway model was tested in the case of 58 child sexual offenders over a 10-year period (Osbourne & Christensen, 2020). The data was extrapolated from judges sentencing remarks, and deductive thematic analysis was able to capture results in support of Ward and Siegert's pathways. A large percentage of the sample took the emotional dysregulation pathway, within which three additional sub-groups were identified. These were referred to as the 'impulsivity', 'sexualised coping' and 'mental health' sub-groups (Osbourne et al., 2020). Notably, in the mental health context, bipolar was identified in the context of an elevated affective state associated with emotional dysregulation. One of the major strengths of the model is that it extends upon the strongest elements of prior multifactorial theories, which have been detailed above.

1.3.2. Level 2 Theories (single-factor theories)

As the title suggests, this level of theory relates to those which described single factors and the importance which these have on sexual offending (Ward et al., 2006). These appear to provide a more detailed account of the factors that are identified in the level 1 theories. An example of a level 2 theory, as is relevant to the current study, is that of cognitive distortions. The term 'cognitive distortions' has featured in offending literature for over 20 years (Mann, Hanson & Thornton, 2010), yet it has continued to lack definitional clarity. Abel, Becker and Cunningham-Rathner (1984) were the first to discuss cognitive distortions in the context of sexual offending, explicitly pertaining to offences against child victims. They described cognitions as internal statements made by an individual to evaluate his behaviour. If this

behaviour is not considered normative, then the offender must form cognitions to support this behaviour. Through repetition of behaviour (entertaining deviant sexual fantasies, for example), the beliefs are strengthened and reinforced. These distorted ways of thinking rationalise the behaviour and allow a person to engage in such with minimal levels of anxiety (Abel, Becker & Cunningham-Rathner, 1984). Given this process, Abel et al. (1984) considered cognitive distortions to be idiosyncratic belief systems that condone sexual contact with a child and allow the individual to rationalise socially abhorrent behaviour. This may include excuses, rationalisations and justifications (Ward & Beech, 2006). Theories of cognitive distortions suggest that these beliefs are externally reinforced by masturbation, thereby preceding offending whilst also acting as reinforcement for ongoing sexual offending. Given that this theory assumes that cognitive distortions are the result of reinforced behavioural acts, it highlights cognitive distortions as facilitators and maintainers of offending rather than as a causal factor (Ward, Polaschek & Beech, 2006). Put more simply, many researchers have viewed cognitive distortions as being maintaining factors for sexual offending, in that they likely present once an individual has already considered offending (Mann & Beech, 2003; Murphy, 1990; Ward et al., 2006). As such, whilst this is an important issue for understanding sexual offending, it lacks evidence as an aetiological theory.

A further example of a level 2 theory is victim empathy deficits. Definitions of empathy vary and highlight different forms of empathy. In this context, empathy may be considered as the capacity to identify ourselves with others and to understand what they may be feeling. With regard to victim empathy, this is the ability to perceive that someone has been harmed or frightened by offending behaviour and, in response to this, experience feeling of concern and compassion (Ward, Polaschek & Beech, 2006). Marshall and Barbaree (1990) described sexual offenders as lacking in empathy, which they likened to traits associated with psychopathy. Marshall, Hudson, Jones, & Fernandez (1995) proposed a four-stage model of empathy to highlight the emergence of empathy and how deficits in this process relate to sexual offending. The first stage of the model offers that empathy is reliant on 'emotional recognition', 'perspective taking' 'generation of emotions' and 'response decision'. Interestingly, this theory identifies some level of emotional intelligence as a prerequisite to experiencing victim empathy. These empathy deficits need not be indicative of a global deficiency, but rather situational empathy deficits are often observed within the sexual

offending population (Coetzee, 2020). Whilst there is consensus amongst the literature pertaining to the presence of empathy deficits in sexual offenders, there are few qualitative studies in this domain, and as Coetzee (2020) expressed, *“the voices of offenders are of paramount importance to provide context to the quantitative results obtained”* (page 252). In fact, in his recent study, Coetzee (2020) found that some young-adult sex offenders were unable to recognise that their victims were distressed, despite being able to identify this effectively in case studies. In concluding, Coetzee (2020) stated that *“understanding the thoughts and the feelings of young sex offenders prior to, during, as well as after their offences, may be a desirable point of departure to understand the reasons why empathy deficits were present”* (page 260). This welcomes the current study as a cognitive, emotional and behavioural exploration of crime.

Another consideration is the theories of deviant sexual arousal. According to Maniglio (2010), deviant sexual fantasy is a term to encompass cognitions that contain themes of harm, pain, illegal or immoral sexual acts. Theories relating to deviant sexual interest have roots in learning theories, specifically classical and operant conditioning. Whilst these theories provide insight into a small subset of sexually deviant offenders, it fails to address those with heteronormative sexual fantasies who engage in sexually abusive behaviour. Further, recent research on the psychological interventions for deviant sexual arousal within criminogenic treatment programs found little consistency in terms of the weight given to sexual arousal within treatment and also the means by which this is addressed (Allen, Katsikitis, Milliar & McKillop, 2020). This suggests that there are some fundamental unanswered questions in relation to child molestation and sexual deviance, both as an etiological approach and in terms of the systematic approaches taken to psychological intervention.

1.3.3. Level 3 Theories (descriptive models)

Level III theories focus on components of the offending process, with a heavy focus on proximal (immediate) rather than distal factors. The methods used to construct these models range from qualitative research concerning offence descriptions to anecdotal practitioner observations. These include relapse prevention models, self-regulation models, offence chains, offence cycle, and offence process models. As stated by Cording et al. (in press), these theories identify how offences are conducted, rather than on distal factors, which are used to

explain an individual's predisposition to offending. As such, they tend to be narrower in focus in comparison to higher levels of theories.

1.4. Gaps in theory

The literature pertaining to sexual offending is extensive and impressive. Yet whilst ever children are sexually victimised, and whilst ever miscalculations are made about offender's recidivism risk, there is an ongoing need for further research. A greatly neglected area of investigation starts with the offender himself, whose narrative and offence interactions can arguably tell us much about otherwise misunderstood aspects of crime.

At present, little is known about the offender's experiences of crime from their own perspective and how this relates to their risk scores. In relation to their emotional experiences, Hall and Hirschman's Quadripartite Model (1992) highlights affective dyscontrol as a factor relevant to sexual abuse, either independently or in conjunction with other factors. This was echoed in Ward and Siegert's Pathways Model (2002), which described emotional dysregulation as a potential pathway to sexual offending and was preceded by Marshall and Barbaree's Integrated Theory (1990), who noted that developmental experiences lead to affect regulation skill deficits. These theories are based on affect regulation as a dynamic risk factor yet provide little insight into the actual emotions experienced by offenders. Presumably, different offenders experience different emotions, but the nature, intensity and extent of these emotions are unclear. Further, it is yet to be determined if any affective states are predictive of recidivism risk, and if so, which emotions are associated with higher risk scores? These are some of the fundamental questions about child sex offenders' affective states that are answered within the current research project.

Although a level 2 theory has explicitly investigated the cognitive distortions of sexual offending (Mann et al., 2010), the cognitive processes of child sex offenders have yet to be explored in detail utilising narrative roles frameworks. Further, the roles offenders assign to themselves as the protagonist of their narrative haven't yet been investigated in relation to evidence-based risk factors for recidivism. Whilst the direction of causality between cognitive distortions and offending is debated (Maruna and Mann, 2006), the narratives approach holds that offenders' narratives explain offending experiences at the point of action, rather than as

a post hoc account of behaviour (Youngs, 2012). As such, it is argued that implementing the narratives role framework with child sexual offenders will provide detailed information about the offender's cognitive processes at the time of offending, and in doing so, highlight motivational and etiological factors for sexual violence. This is examined in light of risk-relevant propensities to determine the presence, directionality and strength of their relationship.

Research relating to the criminal actions of child sex offenders is scarce and fails to provide clarity around the psychological constructs underpinning specific behaviours. In fact, it appears that many theorists have viewed the onset of offending as a theoretical endpoint and subsequently provided little insight (if at all) into the actions contained within the actual offending episode. Across the spectrum of theories, the offence cycle and pathway models are most explicit at discussing offence behaviours, including the interplay between criminal actions and the offenders internal and external environment. Yet, these theories fail to identify the specific actions contained within sexual violence against children and if these transpire into recidivism risk scores. Whilst Finkelhor's pre-conditional model of child sexual abuse (1984) discusses victim resistance as a barrier to offending behaviour, it doesn't specify how most offenders overcome this in their offence pathways. In general, there is little information about the criminal actions and what they tell us about the individual offender's risk profile.

Finally, the relationship between specific emotions, narrative roles and criminal actions have with recidivism risk is not known. By examining the correlations and predictive qualities of these constructs against static risk scores, information relating to their risk mitigation importance and etiological properties comes to light. Further, although static risk measures (specifically the Static-99R and Static-2002R) hold moderate predictive validity, little is known about their psychological constructs. By examining affective, cognitive and behavioural aspects of offending in relation to risk scores and individual risk factors, a greater understanding of the psychological constructs come to light.

These gaps in research give rise to the current studies and hopefully assist in theory confirmation and potentially identify areas for future investigation. The findings from the

current study are discussed in relation to the aforementioned theories throughout the body of this thesis.

1.5. Chapter summary

Whilst working towards a unified theory of sexual offending, the challenges of such lie with the multifaceted and complex nature of human behaviour, including that of general and interpersonal offending. Further, child sexual offenders are a heterogeneous population, meaning that it is difficult to develop a comprehensive theory when there is no universal demographic or behavioural profile. Interestingly, in clinical practice, different theories of sexual offending are often utilised to understand different offenders. Anecdotally, diverse theories (or aspects of) can also be presented to offenders within an individual or collective treatment milieu to address responsivity issues, subsequently allowing them to explore their offending behaviour from different theoretical standpoints. Therefore, whilst ideally working towards a unified theory, the diversity of sexual offending theory potentially reflects and supports the diversity amongst those who commit them.

This chapter has highlighted not only the theories of initial sexual offending but also provided some remarks on persistence in offending. Given that most people are identified after having already committed a sexual offence, the factors empirically linked to recidivism are a strong focus of current research with this population. As such, theories of sexual offending are used as a cornerstone to understanding recidivist behaviour, which will be investigated in the subsequent chapters of this thesis.

Finally, research such as the current thesis aims to shed light on the sexual offending population, including their cognitive, emotional and behavioural processes. In the present case, this is specific to men who have sexually offended against child victims. Much of the research being conducted on this topic has a focus on the behavioural traits of the offender or official documentation relating to the offence. The current study provides an offenders account of their offence and provides helpful insight into their offending from a unique position. Given the statistics relating to child sexual abuse outlined in this chapter, research such as the current thesis are imperative to protecting some of society's most vulnerable individuals.

Chapter 2

Narratives of sexual offenders

2.1. Introduction

As evident in the expansive literature pertaining to sexual offending discussed in chapter 1, offenders cognitive, emotional, and behavioural experiences of crime are principal aspects of the sexual offending phenomena. And whilst the summary reflected our rich understanding of these processes, they are yet to form a unified theory of child molestation, specifically one which accounts for this heterogeneous population. Chapter 2 of this thesis introduces narrative approaches, which are commonly used with investigative psychology research. In doing so, the aim of this chapter is to highlight the potential benefits of utilising narrative frameworks with the current population, and in doing so, address some of the discrepancies and gaps within our current understanding. With this aim in mind, chapter 2 consists of the literature pertaining to offenders affective experiences, the roles offenders assign to themselves during their offence, and the roles offenders assign to their victims. These introductions set the stage for the current research, and in doing so, expand upon and clarify some of the theories identified in chapter 1.

2.2 Affective Experiences of Crime

What emotions do sex offenders experience during their crimes? Ostensibly, the research indicates that sexual offending occurs in response to or during times of negative emotive states such as anger, loneliness and boredom. Theories relating to affect dysregulation, utilising sex to cope and affect induced sexual arousal have monopolised the literature pertaining to this subgroup of offenders. Yet literature relating to the full spectrum of affective states is distinctly lacking, as is the correlation between all emotions and recidivism risk factors.

Human emotions and emotional regulation are eminent aspects of clinical psychology and have heavily been the focus of psychopathological interventions. Emotions have been described as “*a brief, target-specific affective reaction*” (Howells et al., 2004, p180) which are often intertwined with cognitive and behavioural processes. Whilst these are often boiled down to individual affective states (e.g., ‘angry’, ‘sad’, ‘happy’), emotions are far more complex and multidimensional. They are fundamentally important, as emotions are

considered influential in decision-making and cognitive processes (Oatley & Jenkins, 1996). Ciesla et al. (2018) stated that “*emotions are responsible for all communication and are not only related to the present but develop from past experiences and influence anticipated future communications*” (p288). Given the importance of emotions, their structural content and their functional role are particularly relevant to the forensic context, particularly when investigating emotions from an etiological or risk prediction perspective.

2.3. A brief history of emotional theory

2.3.1. Modular (or discrete) theory of emotions

Ekman (1957) developed an influential perspective on human emotions, coined ‘basic emotions theory’, which was influenced by Charles Darwin and Silvan Tomkins, and based on the premise that emotions are discrete and automatic responses (Ekman, 2011). The theory advocates that there are a near-infinite number of principally different affective states (Ekman, 1957) based on their physiological, psychological and behavioural presence (Posner, Russell and Peterson, 2005). Further, emotional assortments correspond with unique neural pathway activation allowing emotions to map onto one neural system (Posner et al., 2005). The taxonomies of emotions and associated neural pathways were developed primarily from the study of animals. This posed several limitations, as the non-verbal nature of animals placed emphasis on their behaviour as an indicator of emotional variance. Specifically, the research involved neural pathway stimulation in animals, after which their behaviours were observed. This has subsequently been identified as an unreliable research methodology (Panksepp, 1998). Further, results found within animal studies were inconsistent when replicated on human populations (Davidson, 2003).

In addition to animal studies, basic emotion theorists utilised human facial expressions in response to affect inducing stimuli. Physiological responses in humans, as evidenced by their facial expressions, were assumed by these investigators as being linked to individual emotions (Ekman, 1992). Yet evidence to support the “*automatic activation and facial innervation...to each basic emotion*” lacked evidentiary support (Posner, 2005, p3). Further, poor specificity in the correlation between specific emotions and their corresponding facial expressions has further discredited this theory. For example, a smile is associated with a number of emotional states and can’t be ascribed solely to happiness, nor is happiness always associated with a

smile. Basic emotion theorists also facilitated developmental studies, in which they explored infants' affective responses with the objective to identify the rudimentary emotions prior to language development. This research design encountered similar criticism to earlier studies with animals, in that any research with non-verbal participants requires emotional labelling on behalf of the researchers (Posner, 2005). Generally, the theory of basic emotions has largely been discredited, causing the theoretical pioneer himself, Ekman, to state that his views had "changed radically" since the inception of his idea (Ekman, 1999, p1). Whilst some theorists continue to review the concepts associated with the theory of basic emotions, the limitations associated with it prompted many researchers to advocate a new line of academic inquiry.

2.3.2. Dimensional theory of emotions

Through research maturation and deficits identified in the theory of basic emotions, support emerged for the dimensional models of emotions. Theorists who supported the dimensional approach (e.g., Davitz, 1969; Mehrabian & Russell, 1977; Russell, 1978) proposed that affective states were systematically related rather than independent constructs. In contrast to viewing emotions as discrete associations of a unique neural system, dimensional theories assumed that affective states correspond with overlapping neurophysiological systems. This replaces a strong demarcation of emotions with the assumption that emotions can be analogous in terms of neurophysiological system involvement and actual experience. According to this theory, positive emotions would be highly correlated, whereas there would be an inverse relationship between positive emotions and those considered negative (such as between 'happy' and 'miserable'). This idea that emotions were dimensions of the pleasant-unpleasant and low and high-intensity axis was proposed by Wandt (1896) yet extended upon by Russell (1980), who developed the circumplex model of affect.

2.4. Circumplex of emotions

The circumplex model of affect (Russell, 1980) is one of the most well-known and studied representations of affect. Russell (1980, 1997) proposed a multidimensional theory of emotions, suggesting that when plotted, emotions could be viewed as having a circular order. Their placement on the plot would be related to variances in valence (pleasantness) and arousal. What Russell (1997) referred to as a circumplex of emotions is a model reflecting not

only the broad range of affective states but also the relationship between them. Analogous emotions ('happy' and 'joyful' for example) will be placed adjacent or within close proximity on the circumplex, whereas variables that are considered dissimilar ('happy' and 'sad' for example) will be placed on opposite sides of the circumplex. The theory holds that affective states with little correlation (such as 'exhilarated' and 'relaxed') will be placed at a right angle on the circumplex. This theory of emotions appears congruent with research reflecting a tendency of people to identify the presence of closely themed emotions when asked to provide an account of their affective state (Watson & Clark, 1992).

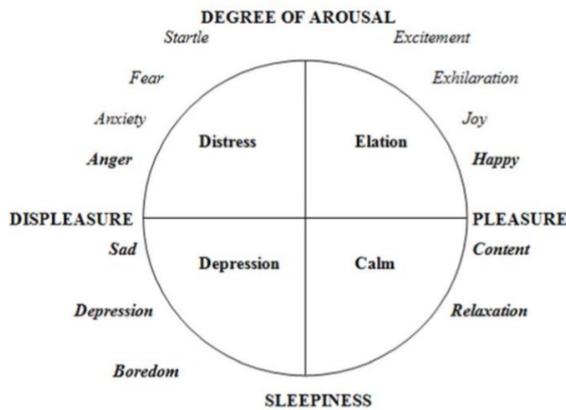
Russell (1980) utilised cardinal directions to identify the cognitive structure of affect. Specifically, the horizontal or east-west dimension is associated with the pleasure – displeasure dimensions of affect. This bipolar dimension, referred to as 'valance', refers to the degree of pleasantness associated with an emotion. Conversely, the vertical or north-south dimension is associated with arousal – sleep dimensions, indicating the amount of arousal associated with the emotion. Initially, eight affect concepts comprised the circular order with 'arousal' occupying the north cardinal point, 'pleasure' occupying the east, 'sleepiness' at the south and 'misery' at the west cardinal point. Using this analogy, intercardinal points (points between two cardinal points) are occupied by further emotions. Specifically, the north-east contained 'excitement', the south-east contained 'contentment', the south-west contained 'depression', and finally, the north-west contained 'distress'. As observed in Figure 2.1, the cardinal points remain unchanged, yet emotions are distributed at other intercardinal and secondary intercardinal points on the circumplex.

The intersecting dimensions create a quadrant, with the emotions within each reflecting an emotional theme. Russell (1980) stated that after dissecting the circumplex, "*the remaining four variables do not form independent dimensions but help to define the quadrants of space. Excitement need not be defined as an approximate north or as an approximate east: it can be defined precisely as falling at a point in the northeast, the combination of high pleasure and high arousal*" (pp. 1163-1164). Given the variants of valance and arousal, these have been titled 'Distress', 'Depression', 'Elation' and 'Calm'. 'Distress' is categorised by high arousal and displeasure; 'Elation' is categorised by high arousal and pleasure; 'Calm' is categorised by low

arousal and pleasure; finally, 'Depression' is categorised by low arousal and displeasure. The theory holds that all emotions will fall within one of these four emotional themes.

Figure 2.1

Russells (1980) circumplex model of affect



The intensity of emotions can also be reflected in the circumplex, with the centre considered a neutral zone. The intensity variation of the emotion is reflected by the distance in its position from the midline. Subsequently, emotions in the centre are less intense, and emotions intensify the further they are situated from the centre (Ciesla et al., 2000).

The circumplex model of affect has been widely reviewed, and the findings generally provide support for the model (Remington, Fabrigar & Visser, 2000). Further, cross-cultural studies have found that multidimensional scaling yielded a circular order of emotional experience and, in doing so, supported the circumplex model of emotions (Russell et al., 1989). Acknowledging these results, some research has identified that some affective states fell outside their expected regions or were inconsistent in their placement (Remington, Fabrigar & Visser, 2000). Further research on individual affective states has subsequently been called for.

2.5. Criminal applications of the circumplex model of emotions

Whilst this theory was based on the emotional experiences of a non-offending population, it has been applied in past research to offenders' experiences of their crime. Katz (1988) identified offenders accounts as a neglected source of inquiry, which was captured by Ciesla

et al. (2018), who on reflecting on Katz's work, stated that "*criminal behaviour cannot possibly be understood or explained without grasping how it is experienced or what it means to be the actor*" (p288). Katz (1988) suspected that offenders emotional experiences during crime would reflect the full range of emotions proposed in Russell's circumplex model (1987) and that the nature of their criminal activity would correlate with their emotional experiences. To test this theory, previous research has examined the emotional experiences of criminals, and in doing so, found that they represent a full spectrum of emotions, consistent with the non-offending population (Katz, 1998; Canter & Ioannou, 2004; Ioannou, 2006; Spruin, 2012). Further, four emotional themes were consistent with the arousal and valence dimensions, giving rise to 'Elation', 'Distress', 'Calm' and 'Depressed' themes.

More specifically, to test the circumplex theory of emotions with the criminal population, Canter and Ioannou (2004) investigated emotions using a forced-choice questionnaire with incarcerated offenders. Their objectives were to determine if criminals experienced a full circumplex of emotions during their offences and to identify if the emotions would be experienced with greater intensity than observed with the general (non-offending) population. Finally, the research aimed at determining if there would be variation in emotional experiences based on the nature of the criminal offence. The sample included 83 males who had convictions for various offence types, most notably, around 18% (n=15) of the sample were convicted of either rape (n=8), indecent exposure (n=2), attempted rape (n=1) or indecent assault (n=7). The results highlighted a strong division along the valence axis (pleasure-displeasure), suggesting that their experiences were either strongly positive or negative, with little between these dichotomies. Whilst they identified four distinct themes ('Elation', 'Calm', 'Distress' and 'Depression') based on the valence and arousal axis as posited by Russell (1997), the full circular structure was not supported with the criminal population. In relation to different offence types, the results suggested that sexual offences (along with robbery, non-sexual violence and murder) tended to elicit negative emotional responses. This was in contrast with non-violent offences, including fraud and property offences, which were associated with positive emotionality and drug-related offences, which were associated with neutral emotions. Given these results, Canter et al. (2004) highlighted the possibility of emotional variance being associated with the nature of interpersonal transactions.

Acknowledging the important contribution made by the aforementioned study, this was based on sex offenders in general rather than delineating between child and adult victims.

Russells' (1980) circumplex model of emotions has also been generalised throughout other offending populations. Ciesla, Ioannou and Hammond (2018) examined the emotional experiences of female offenders across the community and custodial settings. Similar to previous research, their results reflected four distinct emotional themes yet identified a strong distinction between pleasure and displeasure dimension. This supports the notion of a more bipolar emotional experience of crime in comparison to a circular structure of non-offenders emotions. Female offenders in their sample reportedly experienced more negative affective states, with 89.9% having dominant scores in the 'Depression' and 'Distress' themes (or combinations of the two when they were unable to be allocated to a single dominant theme), leaving only 7% with primarily positive affective states. Ciesla et al. point out that female offending is an "*overwhelmingly negative*" experience, consistent with previous research into this phenomenon (2018, p. 299).

In their doctoral dissertations, Dedeloudis (2016) and Spruin (2012) independently examined the emotional experiences of violent offenders and mentally disordered offenders, respectively. In relation to violent offenders, Dedeloudis (2016) identified that the emotional experiences of the sampled population could be distinguished into four themes, consistent with Russells' (1997) circumflex of emotions. Interestingly, 96% of the violent offenders were able to be allocated to one dominant theme, with experiences consistent with 'Elation' being the most prominent affective states. In relation to mentally disordered offenders, Spruin (2012) found that these offenders experienced emotions on the displeasure dimension with greater intensity and pleasurable emotions with less intensity than the general offending population. She also identified that both Axis I and Axis II disorders were associated with higher scores on emotions on the displeasure dimension, whilst the 'no formal diagnosis' group showed no significant difference in comparison to the general offending population. These studies reiterate that subgroups of offender's report variances in emotional experiences and emotional intensity. As such, this invites further inquiry into specific groups within the offending population, with the aim to gather further insight into the collective emotional experience of crime.

2.5.1. Negative emotions and violence

A burgeoning area of literature has focused on the emotional experience of offenders, with a specific focus on the presence of negative affective states during violent offending. In relation to non-sexual violence, offenders endorsed significantly higher scores on measures of anger and hostility than non-violent offenders (Shelby, 1984). Similarly, anger and antisociality were associated with verbal aggression and physical violence in custodial settings (Wang and Diamond, 1999). Anger, hopelessness and frustration as a predominant emotional state were more prevalent in violent recidivists (77.2%) in comparison to non-recidivists (41.7%) (Zamble and Quinsey, 1997). In contrast, non-recidivists endorsed higher rates of positive predominant emotional states (58.3%) in comparison to recidivists (17.9%). In the 48 hours prior to violent offending, recidivists experienced negative affect at a level six (6) times higher than the non-recidivists (Zamble and Quinsey, 1997).

2.5.2. Negative emotions during sexual violence

Whilst behavioural regulation is intuitively related to offending, recent attention has focused on the role that emotional-regulation deficits play in sex offending behaviour. Emotional variability suggests that humans' affective states are flexible and subsequently change in response to an individual's internal and external environment. As such, emotional regulation deficits in the content of risk assessments are classified as both stable and acute dynamic risk factors, depending on their duration. Affective states are considered fundamental aspects of self-regulation processes (Forgas, 2000) which has, in turn, been identified as a predictive factor for sexual recidivism (Hanson and Morton-Bourgon, 2002). Further, emotional dysregulation has been linked to behavioural relapse across a variety of behaviours, suggesting that distressing emotions erode an individual's capacity for self-regulation (Brownell, Marlatt, Lichtenstein & Wilson, 1986). Research suggests that hostility is significantly related to sexual recidivism (Firestone, Nunes, Moulden, Broom & Bradford, 2005), whereas emotions such as depression, anxiety and worry are weakly related to the onset of crime (Krueger, Schmutte, Caspi, Moffitt, Campbell, & Silva (1994) and unrelated to recidivism rates (Hanson, 2009). Interestingly, however, emotional distress appears to underpin the compulsive sexual behaviours of sexually preoccupied offenders (Marshall, Marshall, Serran and O'Brien, 2011), which is a predictive indicator of future sexual violence.

This suggests that emotional dysregulation may be related to sexual recidivism, yet only with a subset of offenders, specifically, those who experience hypersexuality.

Whilst the emotional experiences themselves are weakly associated with sexual offending, the way in which offenders respond to their emotions appears more relevant. Janssen et al. (2011) highlighted that approximately 10% to 20% of the general population became aroused to negative emotional states or were more likely to engage in sexual acts when experiencing anxiety, depression or anger. These trends were overrepresented in comparison to the general population when applied to child sex offenders (Whitaker et al., 2008). This suggests that child sex offenders are more likely than the general public to use sex to cope with negative emotions. Specifically, research suggests that using sex to cope with adverse emotions was a significant predictor of sexual recidivism (AUC = .062) (Hanson et al., 2007). There is further evidence that stressful events lead to deviant sexual fantasy, potentially resulting in sexually deviant behaviour (Proulx, McKibben & Lusignan, 1996).

In studies about sexual recidivism, 75% of offenders who reoffended reported negative emotional experiences in the lead up to offending, including experiences of boredom, frustration and anger (Pithers et al., 1983). A follow-up study differentiated offenders by victim type, highlighting that 94% of rapists experienced anger as a result of interpersonal conflict prior to reoffending. Whilst child molestation recidivism was also associated with negative affect, 46% of the sampled population experienced anxiety and 38% experienced depression. Whilst negative emotions have consistently been linked to recidivism, one study has suggested that this only applies to acute emotional variance (Hanson & Harris, 2000). That is, emotional changes occurring as precursors to offending has a stronger relationship with reoffending in comparison to prolonged and stable negative affect. Whilst a range of negative affective states have been associated with recidivism, anger was the best emotional predictor of future sexual violence (Serran & Marshall, 2006).

Research has identified negative emotionality as an acute risk factor, yet it remains unclear how these lead to offending. Research suggests that the use of sex as a coping strategy may provide insight into this area. Particularly, research had noted that both rapists and child sex offenders experienced an increase in deviant sexual fantasies at times when they experienced

negative emotions. For child sex offenders with female victims, loneliness and humiliation were specifically related to increased deviant fantasy, whereas these were triggered by loneliness in child sex offenders with male victims. Further research in this area is required.

2.5.3. Positive emotions during sexual violence

Acknowledging that most offenders appear to experience negative affect during their sexual crimes, research suggests that these emotions don't represent all sexual offenders (Ward et al., 2006). As previously stated, "*the major criticism of most research and theories examining mood, affect and emotions in sexual offending is that it only focuses on negative mood states and emotions*" (Serran et al., 2006, p 15). Rather, as implied in the Ward et al. (1995) child molester offence chain model, sexual offending against child victims elicits both positive and negative emotions in individual offenders. In a nine (9) stage offence chain, Ward et al. (1995) identified either positive or negative emotions in response to stage one (1) 'background factors', after which these emotions then influence stage two (2), 'distal planning'. Subsequent to having 'contact with the victim' (stage three [3]), 'cognitive restructuring' (stage four [4]) facilitates a further subcategory of either positive or negative affect. This is followed by 'proximal planning' (stage five [5]) and sexual offending (stage six [6]). Following the offence, 'cognitive restructuring' (stage seven [7]) occurs, resulting in either positive or negative evaluations of the offending behaviour. In stage eight (8), Ward et al. (1995) state that 'future resolutions' are determined in response to the affective tone of the evaluations made in stage seven (7). Subsequently, those who form negative evaluations resolved not to re-offend, whereas those with positive evaluations maintain cognitive distortions (e.g., that the victim enjoyed it) and therefore resolve to persist offending and/or make plans for ongoing behaviour. The implications for recidivism risk are yet to be explored.

Ward and Siegert's (1995) pathway model of child molestation has been praised for its novel approach in particular by including "*offences committed in states of positive affect, and not triggered by building stress*" (Ward et al., 2006 pg 251). In replicating this study, Hudson et al. (1999) investigated the offence pathways of 86 sexual offenders' pathways, including 14 offenders with adult victims. Whilst they found eight (8) pathways, most participants were captured within only three (3) offence pathways. Interestingly, one-third of the Hudson et al. (1999) sample followed a pathway characterised by positive distal affect, positive pre-offence

affects and a resolve to continue offending. Thus, there is evidence that positive affective states are relevant to child molestation offence pathways in up to one-third of analysis cases. Positive emotions were also identified in Polaschek and Hudson's (2004) rape model, although this is inherently related to sexual offenders with adult victims.

Given the paucity of research in this field, it appears that research has largely neglected those offenders who experience positive affect, including an investigation into the implications that positive affect has on offending aetiology, criminogenic treatment and recidivism risk. Further, it has been stated that *"The recognition that positive emotional states also play an important role in offending leads to new venues for both research and treatment providers to explore and understand"* (Serran, 2006 pg 22).

2.6. Emotions: An agenda for research?

To date, negative affect has monopolised research into emotional experiences of offending behaviour, specifically interpersonal crimes. As such, research has largely failed to explore the full circumplex of emotions, specifically those on the pleasant side of the valence dichotomy. Given the cognitive distortions featured heavily within child sexual offender literature and the deficits experienced by offenders in identifying emotions in others (potentially leading to them misinterpreting non-verbal cues), it is possible that some sex offenders have viewed their experiences positively. This view is supported by Ward et al. (1995) child molester offence chain model, which highlights the influence of positive and negative emotions throughout the offence. There is no known research focused on Russell's (1997) full circumplex of emotions in relation to sexual offending experiences, specifically those who offend against child victims. The implications of the arousal dimension of the circumplex are also yet to be explored. As noted by Serran et al. (2006), *"the intensity and type of emotions also appear relevant, and research has left these relatively unexplored. Specifically, not all negative emotions are going to be experienced to the same degree"* (Serran, 2006, pg 22). This suggests that the individual emotions (and their intensity) involved in sexual offending have not yet been established. Further, whilst there are scarce studies relating to emotions as a predictive construct, there are no known studies investigating emotions as a possible latent psychological variable to static risk measures (such as the Static-99R and Static-2002R). This invites a novel area of academic inquiry, which will be addressed as part of this thesis.

2.7. Criminal Narratives- Offender role assignment

How do child sexual offenders view their offending? What roles do they assign to themselves in retelling their crime narrative? What does this say about them psychologically? Do these narratives have any predictive qualities? These are just some of the questions waiting to be explored in relation to child sex offenders. The stories told by offenders are often overlooked in research, perhaps due to concerns about reliability or the offender's capacity for sufficient insight and memory. Yet, it is argued that through these stories, the offender's perceptions of crime are revealed, along with their cognitive processes at the time. Offence narratives are an imperative aspect of the justice process and increasingly more so within the treatment milieu. As such, it is important to understand what these stories are telling us, rather than just a biased chronology of events.

A narrative is a means by which ideas, concepts and events can be connected and communicated by the narrator in the form of a story. Ever since the beginning of civilisation, humans have been telling stories, and it has become a fundamental aspect of human nature (McAdams, 1999). It is the means by which knowledge has been passed, laws made and arguably how life gets its meaning and purpose (McAdams, 2006). Within a narrative, the narrator "*positions characters in space and time and, in a very broad sense, give order to and make sense of what happened or what is imagined having happened*" (Bamberg, 2012, p. 77). According to McAdams, Josselson and Lieblich (2001), narratives are made up of a number of essential features, including the setting (the 'where' and 'when'); characters (the 'who' i.e., protagonist, antagonist); and, the plot (the 'what').

2.8. Narratives in psychology- A conceptual framework

Whilst narrative psychology has gained popularity in recent years, narratives were embedded within personality theories as early as the 1900s. Sigmund Freud, for example, in 1913, identified the narrative value of dreams which he believes could expose an individual's inner truths (see Josselson, 2000). He commented that dreams were not meaningless but are the road to the unconscious. In 1927, Adler highlighted that an individual's account of their earliest memories was indicative of their future lifestyle (Josselson, 2000). Murray assessed motivation and developmental delays through the coding of imaginative stories developed in response to visual picture cues, for example, the Thematic Apperception Test (Josselson,

2000). Additionally, in order to assess personality traits, Murry examined in explicit detail individuals' life histories using numerous methods, including interviews, observations and life history analysis, to name a few (Murry, 1938). However, not until the 20th century was it that personality theories explicitly explored the association between human lives and stories (McAdams, 2008).

In 1979, Tomkins outlined the Script Theory, which is based on the premise that human beings are playwrights and that individuals construct personal dramas from very early years of life (Carlson & Carlson, 1984). Within an individual's drama, there are scenes, which are a representation of an event (real or imagined), and these scenes include aspects such as "*people, setting, time, place, actions, affect, and psychological functions*" (Carlson & Carlson, 1984 p 36). Additionally, individuals form scripts, where aspects of the scene are assembled to construct rules to predict and interpret information. From this, an individual can respond to situations, controlling the environment, and create further scenes (Carlson & Carlson, 1984).

Following on from Script Theory, McAdams proposed *a life-story model of identity*, which highlighted the importance of individuals organising their lives in terms of stories (McAdams, 2004). Where Tomkins' Script Theory begins from an individuals' early years (or even weeks) of life, McAdams' *life-story model of identity* proposed that stories are formed in late adolescence or young adulthood. It is through these evolving stories that people reconstruct their past and anticipate their future.

Today, narrative psychology is being used to explore human behaviour and motivation. Crossley (2000) argues that Narrative Psychology is a derivative of four main areas of psychology, including experimental based psychology, humanistic psychology, psychoanalytic /psychodynamic psychology and finally, social constructivist approaches. She noted that narrative psychology was developed as a result of the limitations in the aforementioned theories in identifying the construct of one's self and identity. Furthermore, she identified that narrative psychology attempts to refute their claims (predominantly the social constructivist and post modernist's theories) that life is a disorderly, unpredictable, and

chaotic experience. Rather, the narrative approach highlights individuals as autonomous beings and gives them agency over their behaviour.

2.8.1. Narratives and self

The idea that an individuals' narrative can fundamentally determine their 'personhood' and help to construct their sense of self and identity is a considerable claim, one which can have significant implications for many facets of psychology, including the criminal domain. Bruner (2004) supports the notion and argues that narratives are a story by which individuals tell and understand their lives. This is echoed by Serbin (1986), who describe narratives as the personal account of human experience organised in time. Mair (1989) argued that "*stories are the womb of personhood. Stories make and break us. Stories sustain us in times of trouble and encourage us towards ends we would not otherwise envisage*" (in Crossley, 2000, p. 2).

In defining the extent to which narratives determine one's 'personhood,' it is important to evaluate the role that narratives play, from a macro society perspective to a micro individual level. Bruner (2004) points out that narratives are inevitable and that there is no other way of communicating our lives without the use of narratives. He highlights that even if one was to write the skeleton of facts, they have still chosen certain events which are implicitly narratives. With this, it is argued that there is no such thing psychologically as '*life itself*' but rather a reflective process of recalling significant life events. Beyond recalling selective aspects of one's past and hypothesising about one's future, Bruner (2004, p 693) calls life but an "*interpretive feat*". Crossley (2000) highlighted the role of narratives as an organising principle for human life and that beyond the role narratives play in making sense of the world, narratives put the order of meaning to human consciousness.

McAdams (2004), life as a story model of identity, indicated that not all elements of one's life could be covered in their individual story, and thus what makes up a life story is selective and subjective. As a result, the scenes that make up an individual's identity highlights the values and importance they place on events in their life. This is likely influenced by the culture in which the individual lives (McAdams, 2004). Further, he argued that there is a distinction between an individual's life stories, which can be related to two-axis, each containing polarised domains. The first relates to their individual cultural background (collectivist versus

individualist), which will determine if they have an agency or communion focus. Identity, as measured by the collectivism and individualism dimensions, relates to the view that people have of themselves in relation to the groups in which they are part. Collective societies belong to 'in groups' where they are interdependent and view themselves as part of a larger social network. Research conducted in the 1980s found that the most interdependent (collectivists) individuals come from Venezuela, Columbia, Pakistan, Peru and Taiwan (Hofstede, 1980). Conversely, those from individualistic cultures are independent and view themselves as individuals. Individualistic countries include the USA, Australia, Great Britain, Canada and the Netherlands (Hofstede, 1980). This highlights the importance of avoiding ethnocentrism when reviewing individual narratives.

The second theme identified by McAdams (2004) lies within the script itself. Specifically, McAdams highlighted that scripts were either based on scenes of redemption or contamination. Redemption scripts portray one's life as a negative scene, which is then followed by a positive life story scene (e.g., being widowed after the death of a partner, yet forming a new relationship and having a baby). A contamination theme occurs in the opposite direction, where a positive life scene is followed by a negative life scene (e.g., being happy after the birth of a child yet turned into a widow after the death of a partner). Variants of redemption or contamination themes within scripts, in combination with variants of agency or communion, will, therefore, allow life stories to form one of a finite number of life story themes.

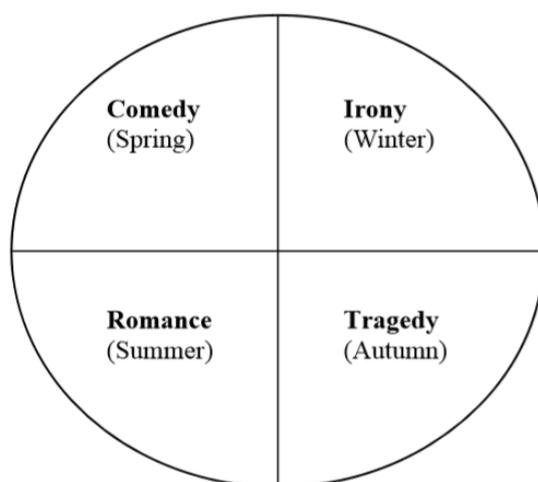
2.9. Frye's Theory of Mythoi

Given the very definition of narratives, it may seem obvious why theorists have collaborated with literary scholars to gain a better understanding of the structure and meaning of non-fictional narratives. One contribution to the literary field of particular relevance to psychology is that of Northrop Frye's theory of archetypes (1957). Frye was a literary theorist who aimed to identify the structural principles of literature. He hypothesised that important literary themes and narratives could be plotted onto a graph, and if there were enough themes when plotted, they would form identifiable categories or 'mythos' (meaning 'story').

According to Frye (1957), four distinct regions or categories could encompass all plotted literary themes. These mythoi included comedy (mythos of spring), romance (mythos of summer), tragedy (mythos of autumn) and irony/satire (mythos of winter). He noted that these mythoi were dynamic, and the movement propelling one archetype into the next gave it a 'circular order' (Canter, Kaouri & Ioannou, 2003). This dynamic quadripartite model has been likened to the seasons of the year and has subsequently been associated with the seasonal mythos. Each of the four regions merges into the next to share common properties, rather than forming strongly segregated and demarcated domains. As seen in Figure 2.2, when these themes are represented visually in a circular diagram, the themes (and subsequent seasons) which are most alike will sit next to each other. Conversely, the narratives or seasons which are least alike, (i.e. summer vs. winter; romance vs. irony/satire) are visually represented as being opposed to one another. The seasons of the year not only highlight the circular nature of the theory but also provide information about the protagonist, drawing from the processes of the natural world (i.e., birth, maturity, old age and death) (Spruin, 2012).

Figure 2.2

Frye's theory of archetypes (1957)

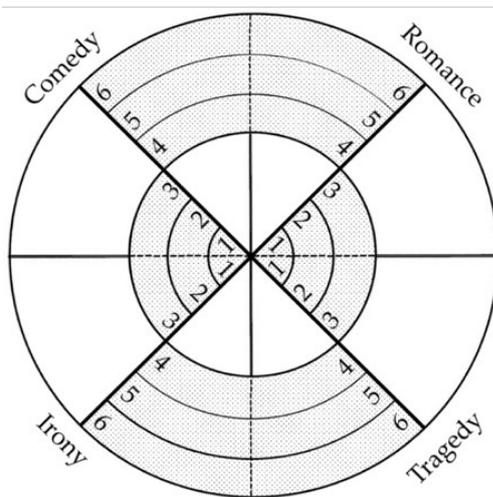


According to the theory of archetypes, each of the mythoi has six phases, each sharing three with the preceding and succeeding mythos (Frye, 1957). Figure 2.3. highlights the manner in which these stages interrelate to neighbouring themes whilst maintaining the individual distinction. Further, within the circumplex, some themes (like some dates in seasons) do not

fall defiantly within a category and may instead sit on the cusp of two domains. Whilst this may remove the absolute qualities of the theory, it is hypothesised that there is still great value in identifying patterns in literature and applying these to study human behaviour.

Figure 2.3

Frye's theory of archetypes (1957) and six overlapping phases



Whilst Frye used the term 'Comedy', this involves elements of what we refer to today as romance or romantic comedy and is associated with the spring mythos. It typically involves a romantic quest between two individuals, who are required to overcome opposition in order to maintain a relationship. It generally involves the protagonist being precluded from achieving his goals, but through confrontation, he reforms his environment. As such, he prevails, and the ending is characterised by positive emotions.

The 'Romance' role, which is associated with Summer mythos, involves the protagonist hero who represents right and morality. According to Canter (2011), this involves three stages, including 1) following the protagonist on his perilous journey, 2) where he encounters critical struggle in which either the hero, the foe, or both must die, and 3) from this, the elated hero triumphs and is recognised for his victory. It represents the protagonist as having a difficult life journey, for whom challenges are an integral and anticipated aspect of his life.

The 'Tragedy' role is associated with the autumn mythos and is based on tragic revenge. It focuses on the protagonist's inevitable causality, drawing on a process of tragic events. He

is described by Canter et al. (2003) as “*a victim of his nemesis*”, experiencing a concoction of confusing and ostensibly opposed emotional states throughout his quest (2003, p 4). The hero is overpowered by fate and is constantly faced with inescapable dangers. He is a tremendously proud individual, yet these characteristics are what cause him to be different from others and are the fundamental cause of his inevitable demise.

Finally, ‘Irony and Satire’, depicted with the winter mythos, is the story of a helpless, powerless and confused protagonist. In the protagonist’s world, nothing makes sense, little matters, and if rules exist for this individual, they are pliable. This protagonist engages in self-deprecation and has minimal sociomoral conscience.

It is important to note that Frye’s theory was not developed in relation to non-fictional content. As stated by Canter and Youngs (2009), “*Both Frye and Brooker are concerned with the invented, fictional stories, and Frye, in particular, is at pains to call attention to his view that fiction is always tidier and more clearly structured than real life*” (p. 125). Whilst this provides an intriguing framework for exploring offenders’ experiences, it should be done with this cautionary note in mind.

2.10. Narratives of offenders

Canter (1994) proposed a narrative theory as a valid explanatory tool for criminal behaviour in response to some of the shortcomings rooted within biological, social or psychological theories. Early biological theories viewed criminal behaviour as a defect in the individual (i.e., genetic, chemical, physical, mental etc.), and utilised scientific methods in an attempt to distinguish those who committed a crime from law-abiding citizens. Theorists such as Lombroso (from positivistic criminology) proposed that criminal behaviour was inherited and that by measuring physical attributes, one could determine if an individual was a criminal or atavistic (Gibson & Rafter, 2006). More modern biological theorists propose that attributes such as IQ and hormones are related to criminality (See, 2004). In response to the perceived shortcomings in these theories, Canter (1994) began to explore the utility of offenders’ own stories and believed that they might give insight into the offence process.

According to Canter and Youngs (2009), offenders develop stories, including the presence of antagonists and protagonists, which give meaning to their lives. They state, *“as with the great majority of accounts of criminality, just considering what a criminal has done fails to connect with the offenders’ own agency and understanding of their actions. Exploring the offender’s personal narrative is one pathway into this”* (Canter and Youngs, 2009. p. 122). By virtue of this understanding, the narrative approach was developed.

2.10.1. Causality, temporality and sequence - is offending the chicken or the egg?

Whilst gaining an offender’s account of offending provides an interesting perspective, the applicability of this in the criminal justice system is under debate. The essence of the debate surrounds the premise that narratives act as drivers of action. Aptly presented by Barrera (2019):

The relationship between narrative and action is a bit tricky and hotly debated in literature and theory (Meretoja, 2014). One camp argues that narrative is just a mode of representing life in general and action in particular (e.g. Mink, 1970; White, 1980). As such, the narrative turns the chaotic world of events into fine, comprehensible stories. In this stance, “stories are not lived but told” (Mink, 1970:557). The other camp, however, takes the opposite—stories are lived (e.g. Carr, 1986; Hardy, 1968; MacIntyre, 1981). We live our lives and act narratively; that is, we act as if we are writing our story. Stories provide schemas, and we act by filling in the blanks of such schemas. But as Bruner (1987) suggests, the relationship between narrative and life/action is a two-way affair: “Narrative imitates life, life imitates narrative” (p37).

From the perspective of those that support narratives as being drivers of action, narratives are intuitively given aetiological qualities by providing insight into an offender’s cognitive processes. As Presser (2009) states, narratives act as *“key investigators of action”* (p. 177), operating as antecedents to crime. This concept is echoed by Youngs and Canter (2012), who described narratives as having *“explanatory power”* (p. 246) and acting to generate criminal actions rather than simply provide a post hoc account. Interestingly, in reviewing cognitive distortions (arguably an important aspect of criminal narratives), Maruna and Mann (2006) discussed the *“robust correlation between offending and excuse-making”* and the underlying assumption about the direction of causality (Maruna & Mann, 2006, p. 156). Whilst it

intuitively resonates that cognitive distortions are developed as a result of offending, they posited that perhaps “*excuse-making causes, or at least allows for offending*” (Maruna & Mann, 2006, p. 156). This directionality of cognitive distortions is the essence of the debate relating to criminal narratives and criminal actions.

The introduction of narrative frameworks as a driver of criminal action provides offenders with agency over their actions and highlights critical information specific to the proximal antecedents of crime (Youngs and Canter, 2012). Whilst research in this area falls short of solving the narrative ‘chicken or egg’ debate in relation to offending, it certainly highlights the benefits of examining offence narratives to gain greater insight into offenders motivational, cognitive and behavioural processes.

2.10.2. Latent psychological structures of crime narratives

As mentioned earlier, McAdams (1993) asserted that narrative roles are categorised into four distinct regions by considering them as variants of two themes, namely Agency and Communion. The dimensionality of these two concepts gives rise to Youngs and Canter (2012:b) narrative roles in offending. In this context, Agency is described by McAdams (1993) as relating to power and achievement, whereas Communion relates to intimacy. Different variants of power and intimacy as psychological constructs will see the offender’s narrative fall within one of the four assigned themes. Given that this theory holds that narratives are based on only two themes (Agency and Communion), this further supports the notion by Youngs and Canter (2012) that there can be only a finite set of narrative themes.

When acting upon narratives from the forensic population, Youngs and Canter (2012) highlighted that there needs to be an adjustment for the criminal context. They discussed intimacy as the relevance the victim has to the offender and the significance of the impact the offending has on the victim. Using this context, if an offender has high intimacy, the victim would have significance in the offence, whereas in the case of an offender with low intimacy, the victim would be less relevant to the offender. Likewise, to adjust to the criminal context, Youngs and Canter (2012) noted that Agency (or potency) would relate to the manner in which the offender imposes his will upon the victim. High levels of potency would be observed as the offender taking control of the situation to achieve his desired outcome. Conversely, an

offender with low levels of potency would be observed as playing a passive role in offending, for example, feeling as though they got dragged into offending by external sources.

2.11. Structure of crime narratives

Canter (1994) was the first to utilise narrative theory to examine criminal narratives. He postulated that *“criminal activity can only be understood through in-depth analysis and understanding of those personal stories, called ... inner narratives”* (Canter, Kaouri & Ioannou, 2003, pp. 2-3). Through the exploration of the offender’s responses to a questionnaire relating to their offending experiences, researchers highlighted that their stories reflected four distinct narrative roles, consistent with Frye’s mythos (1957). These offence roles were labelled 1) ‘Adventurer’ 2) ‘Revenger’ 3) ‘Victim’ and 4) ‘Professional’. I note, however, that these labels have been altered to relate more closely with the literary mythos and their thematic content. The labels now include 1) Adventurer: The Professional, 2) Tragedy: The Revenger, 3) Quest: The Hero, and 4) Irony: The Victim. Below is a summary of the identified crime narratives, including their relationship to Frye’s mythos and McAdams Potency and Communion variants.

2.11.1. Hero/Quest narrative role

The Hero narrative is what Frye (1957) referred to as ‘comedy’, associated with the spring mythos. According to Canter and Youngs (2009), at face value, this narrative, which relates to romantic quests, is difficult to relate to offending behaviour. However, viewing this narrative as a heroic quest where an individual is driven to offend appears more relevant to the criminal population. The protagonist may be looking for recognition or honour and lacks agency over his behaviour.

As noted by Canter et al. (2003), in the hero’s quest, the offender reflects on his behaviour as being a positive experience, driven by cognitive distortions involving the minimisation of impact and externalising responsibility. For him, crime is interesting, and his affect is neutral to positive. He tends to believe he has little control over his situation but rather is pushed by fate. Others are insignificant to him, and his own identity is weak. This narrative role involves low potency and low intimacy.

According to Canter et al. (2003), this offender likely views the victim as a vehicle and as a means by which he can express his desires. Unlike in the revenger narrative, offending is not related to retaliation, but rather the offender views the offence as part of his quest. Whilst he has empathy and insight into the victims' humanity, his egocentricity and intensive focus on his quest allow him to overcome any moral objection to offending.

2.11.2. Revenger/tragedy narrative role

The revenger narrative is what Frye (1957) referred to as 'tragedy' and was associated with the Autumn mythos. This is essentially a story of the struggle between the protagonist and his enemy. The offender has chosen to offend, having judged the situation and decided that his actions are the appropriate course of action. The protagonist is constantly taking on quests, on which he is inevitably challenged throughout his journey. In this story-form, the more evil the enemy, the more divine the hero. This narrative is characterised by a powerful protagonist with a strong sense of identity. Others are significant, specifically their reactions to his behaviour. The protagonist's behaviour is an inevitable retaliation for the poor and unjust treatment inflicted by others. As such, the protagonist has recurring emotions of sadness and fear. His actions are his only option, and thus he externalises blame for offending. The revenger presents with offence-related cognitive distortions such as avoiding thinking about the consequences of his behaviour and instead focuses on his own objectives. In this regard, he tends to be egotistical and self-focused, yet inevitably doomed. Whilst calm, his affective states tend to be unpleasurable. This narrative role involves high potency and high intimacy.

Canter and Youngs (2009) highlighted the following variables from the NRQ as being related to the revenger role: 'it was right', 'only choice', 'I was getting revenge', and 'it was fate'. This offender uses the victim to facilitate revenge for his own perceived persecution. The victim themselves is not important, but rather they are a vehicle through which he can express his revenge on an individual who represents a greater set of individuals.

2.11.3. Victim/irony narrative role

The victim narrative was associated with what Frye (1957) referred to as 'irony' and was associated with the winter mythos. According to Frye's theory, this offender is related to the tragedy story form. The offender views himself as a victim who attempts to arouse pity and

fear from others. Rather than being angry by his perceived hardship, he presents with impotence and as having little power. He has a weak identity and generally appears as being alienated from others socially. Despite being isolated, others are considered important to this individual, and thus the isolation elicits displeasure. In this regard, he is often observed experiencing aroused yet negative affective states, including confusion and powerlessness. The cognitive distortions prevalent in this narrative role relate to blaming others, avoiding reality and refocusing on his own objective. Given the manner in which he views the offence, this offender also views any punishment that comes his way as being unjustified and excessive. The protagonist is continually confronted with danger, and he sees himself as the victim of circumstances. He has a generally pessimistic outlook and views his actions as fate or accidents beyond his control. Canter (2003) described criminals with this narrative as perceiving themselves as "*instruments of divine external factors*" (Canter, 2003, p. 10). This narrative role involves low potency and high intimacy. Canter and Youngs (2009) highlighted the following variables from the Narratives Roles Questionnaire as being related to the victim role: 'helpless', 'confused', 'victim' and 'wanted it over'.

This offender views the victim as a person and subsequently has individual significance. They are using the victim to alleviate negative affective states (such as loneliness) and, through offending, obtain a distorted sense of intimacy.

2.11.4. Professional/adventurer narrative role

The professional narrative represented the 'romance' literary narrative, according to Frye's theory of archetypal (1957), was associated with the summer mythos.

The protagonist (the offender in this context) presents as being in control of his environment and as a person who views the criminal activity as being part of making a livelihood. It is likely then that this behaviour is a regular and routine part of his life (or at very least viewed that way by the individual), and he is likely to take responsibility for his behaviour. Despite this, he minimises the impact of his behaviour by placing his own evaluations on the outcome. The protagonist has a strong identity, whereas others in the story are of less significance. The professional role is characterised by a calm and emotionally stable main character, which is likely related to his prolific offending behaviour. The protagonist is primarily focused on

mastering his environment and sees offending as an opportunity to gain satisfaction and pleasure. This narrative role involves high potency and low intimacy.

The background of this offender is potentially different from those described in the other forms, as he is likely to be skilled in his criminal behaviour. He may be competent, intelligent and highly skilled. Furthermore, due to the significant and frequent role that crime may play in his life, he may be experienced as a result of past behaviour. Canter and Youngs (2009) highlighted the following variables from the NRQ as being related to the adventurer/professional narrative: 'interesting', 'fun', 'professional', 'doing a job', and 'had power'.

These offenders treat their victim as an object. The victim's identity is irrelevant, but rather they are a means through which the offender can achieve his own objectives.

2.12. Examining the theory

To challenge, explore and consolidate the criminal narrative approach, researchers have applied the narrative framework to various offending populations. Whilst the following is not an exhaustive list of literature pertaining to offenders' narratives, it provides greater context and highlights the applicability of the framework. Through this, research has not only provided greater insight into offenders' narratives as a framework but also into the offenders themselves and the offending processes in general.

2.12.1. Establishing a crime narrative framework

Youngs and Canter (2012) set out to explore the roles that offenders assigned to themselves in the commissioning of their offences with the aim to provide a framework for future quantitative analysis. For the purpose of such, the 33-item Narrative Roles Questionnaire was developed based on previous research in which offenders provided post-offence verbalisations of their offending experiences. The items were scored on a five-point Likert scale, through which participants were able to express the degree to which they agreed with each statement ('not at all', 'just a little', 'some', 'a lot', or, 'very much').

To empirically examine offenders' narratives, 71 convicted offenders were recruited and completed the narrative roles questionnaire. Participants were categorised by their most recent offence type, which included violence (e.g., murder, other violence), crimes of acquisition (e.g., robbery, theft, fraud/deception), illicit substances, traffic offences and property damage (e.g., arson, criminal damage). It appears that sexual offending was only represented by one participant in this sample (Youngs & Canter, 2012).

According to Youngs and Canter (2012), on the basis of this 71-person sample, the NRQ was assessed as having high internal reliability ($\alpha=0.85$). Participant responses to the 33-items were intercorrelated using Pearson's r coefficient and assessed using a Smallest-Space Analysis (SSA-I). The spatial representation of variable correlations revealed four distinct regions associated with endorsed offending experiences, arguably revealing "*the latent intentions of the criminal actions*" (Youngs and Canter, 2012, p15). These regions were thematically consistent with Frye's circumplex model of literary narratives and subsequently labelled 'Hero', 'Victim', 'Professional' and 'Revenger'. To summarise, Canter and Youngs described the 'Hero' experience as a means for the offender to "*prove oneself*" and to "*demonstrate prowess*" (2012, pg. 15). The 'Victim' role was observed as the individual with little personal agency and as being a passive actor in the unfolding events. Conversely, the 'Professional' role was reflected as a pragmatic individual partaking in a task, from which they attracted a sense of satisfaction and mastery. Finally, the fourth domain, labelled the 'Revenge' role, observed the individual's offence having a specific purpose, legitimising their behaviour as a means to justify the ends.

2.12.2. Narratives of offenders across offence type

Whilst previous research had primarily focused on the development of the criminal narrative framework and the maturity of quantitative methodology for its application, a research team from the United Kingdom, set to explore the crime narratives as encapsulated by the NRQ to different modalities (Ioannou, Canter, Youngs & Synnott, 2015). Whilst previous research (Youngs and Canter 2011, 2012) had evidenced four distinct narrative roles experienced by offenders, this study acted to determine the applicability of the narrative framework across a spectrum of offences. Further, the study was employed to examine the specific narratives underpinning distinct types of offending. In other words, the objective of the research was to

determine if there was a relationship between offence types and narrative roles (Ioannou et al., 2015).

To meet the objectives, 120 convicted offenders were asked to complete the first version of the NRQ (NRQ v1). Consistent with previous research methodology, questionnaire responses were subject to an SSA, from which a spatial representation of the co-occurrence of variables was derived. Interestingly and in support of their research hypothesis, the researchers of this study indicated that there was a relationship between types of offences and narrative offence roles. Specifically, the study commented that the highest proportion of sampled property offenders were assigned to the 'Hero' role, similar to results from the robbery crime type. Drug offences were the only offence type that was most associated with the 'Professional' role. Sexual offenders were the only crime category most frequently assigned to the 'Victim' role. Both violence and murder offence types were strongly represented by the 'Revenger' role type.

This research suggests that narratives can be differentiated by offence type, suggesting that the criminal narrative may provide insight into motivational factors for criminal involvement.

2.12.3. Narratives of contact versus non-contact offenders

Hamilton and Sanchez (2018) released a research article subsequent to evaluating the narrative roles of contact versus non-contact sexual offenders. This was based on a European sample of 23 convicted sexual offenders, of which 11 had committed contact offences, and the remainder (n=12) had convictions for non-contact sexual offences. Although they didn't provide a specific definition for the categorisation of offending types, they exemplified the 'contact' category as involving offence types such as 'molestation', 'sexual assault' and 'rape'. The non-contact group were exemplified by offences such as 'internet attempted sexual assault', 'child pornography', 'voyeurism' and 'exhibitionism' (Hamilton & Sanchez, 2018). It can be extrapolated from the method that some of the samples were convicted of sexual offences against children, although the breakdown of child versus adult victims was not specified.

According to Hamilton et al. (2018), the results of this research were consistent with Youngs and Canters (2012) criminal narrative roles in that the sample endorsed items associated with four distinct themes (namely, revengeful mission/romantic quest, professional and tragic hero). Overall, participants were found to endorse the victim role least (4.4% of the sample), whilst the professional role was most prevalent (endorsed by 35% of their sample). The remaining roles were equally represented by the sample. Amongst the contact sub-group of the sample, the majority of the contact group (45.5%) endorsed the revengeful mission/romantic quest narrative, whereas, amongst the non-contact sub-group, the majority (41.7%) endorsed tragic hero narratives.

This study highlights the applicability of the narrative role model to sexual offenders yet suggests that there are subgroups within the sexual offending population, in this case, contact versus noncontact offenders. The authors suggest that these narrative differences reflect “*different motivations for offending*” between contact and non-contact sexual offenders (Hamilton & Sanchez, 2018, p16). This highlights the importance of applying the roles model to specific offending populations to provide further information on the complex phenomena of offending behaviour.

2.13. Criminal Narratives: An agenda for research?

This chapter thus far has provided a brief summary of the history of narratives. It has also identified the progressive use of narratives within psychology, and more recently, within criminal psychology. In particular, Frye’s theory of archetypes (1957) has been used as the foundations for Canter’s (1994) narrative framework for offenders. Utilising this framework, research has suggested that offenders assign themselves to one of four roles, and this has been consistently validated across various samples. Whilst this framework has shown promise across a spectrum of offences, the current study argues that to date, insufficient attention has been given to sexual offenders, in particular, those with child victims. Further, it is argued that until now, there has been no research into the risk prediction qualities of the narrative framework.

2.14. *The Criminal Narrative Experience (CNE)*

Extending upon the research on offence narrative roles and the emotional experiences of crime, Ioannou, Canter and Youngs (2017) considered these concepts together in the form of what they titled the Criminal Narrative Experience (CNE). Specifically, the aim of their research was to:

“Investigate the experience of committing a crime and propose a framework of criminal experiences bringing together emotions experienced and narrative roles acted out while an offender commits his crime...it is therefore proposed that the structure of the emotions experienced and narrative roles acted out by criminals when committing their crimes would form four distinct criminal narrative experience (CNE) themes and that these would reflect the circumplex of emotions (Russell, 1997) and Frye’s archetypal stories (mythoi)” (page 1536).

They hypothesised that these criminal narrative experiences would include the composed and competent professional (i.e., the ‘calm professional’), the joyful and optimistic hero (i.e., the ‘Elated hero’), the generally pessimistic and negative revenger (i.e., the ‘depressed revenger’) and finally the helpless and confused victim (i.e., the ‘depressed victim’). To test their theory, 120 participants who were convicted of various crimes, including robbery, murder, rape and theft etc., were asked to reflect on their offences using the emotions questionnaire and the narrative roles questionnaire. The results, as depicted in the form of a small space analysis, confirmed the presence of four distinct themes, with a strong demarcation between the pleasure and displeasure axis. Further, they found that each of these themes represented emotions and narrative roles consistent with previous research (into these individual concepts), suggesting that Frye’s archetypal mythoi and Russell’s circumplex of emotions had utility in the form of the criminal narrative experience.

Calm professional: In terms of the calm professional, Ioannou et al. (2017) described this individual as someone for whom crime is routine, he *“perceives crime as a job and therefore, part of the routine of his life and this is why he is calm and feels relaxed”*. He is characterised as feeling safe during his criminal experience and portrays himself as highly skilled and intelligent.

Elated Hero: The 'elated hero' was found within the research to perceive offending as a brave and courageous act, which is also interesting and exciting. Whilst he acknowledged the risks he is taking, this is likely part of the charm, and he enjoys being recognised for his aberrant behaviour.

Distressed revenger: Converse to the calm professional, the distressed revenger was found to harbour negative emotional experiences, including feeling annoyed, worried, upset and scared. Although crime is negative, he perceives being in control of his actions and justifies this on the basis of it being a revengeful mission.

Depressed victim: Finally, Ioannou et al. (2017) identified a fourth domain which they titled 'depressed victim', which as the name suggests, is characterised by an individual with negative affective states, perhaps lonely, sad and confused. He has little agency, internalising the belief that his circumstances are the product of poor luck or external factors beyond his control.

2.14.1. Testing the theory

Of the 120 participants, Ioannou et al. (2017) found that when characterised into dominant themes, 25% ($n=30$) of the cases were dominant in the 'distress revenger' theme, whereas 'calm professional' accounted for 15.8% ($n=19$). The less represented themes were the 'elated hero', which accounted for 15% ($n=18$) of the sample and finally, the 'depressed victim' role, which accounted for 12.5% ($n=15$) of the sample. A further 0.83% of the sample were considered hybrid (i.e., had two themes), and 30.83% were unable to be characterised to a dominant role on account of their criminal experience reflecting multiple themes. This research was identified as being an important step towards understanding criminal experiences utilising narrative approaches (Ioannou et al., 2017).

2.12.2. CNE across offence types

As stated by Ioannou et al. (2017), whilst the initial study showed promising results, it could only be regarded as a step towards understanding the CNE. They subsequently highlighted the importance of investigating the CNE in the context of different offence types and against people from diverse backgrounds and with varying personality types.

Goodlad, Ioannou & Hunter (2017) investigated the CNE amongst a population of psychopathic and personality disordered offenders. Specifically, they examined 22 offenders from a severe personality disorder unit within a high classification custodial facility. The SSA plot reflected four distinct themes, with similar content to the initial 2017 study. Interestingly, when allocating offenders by personality disorder to dominant themes, most participants (n= 13) were assigned to the 'distressed revenger', followed by the 'calm professional' (n=5) and one each for the 'depressed victim' and 'elated hero' groups. Notably, there was no significant correlation between psychopathy and the CNE identified themes (Goodlad et al., 2017). Ioannou, Synnott, Lowe and Tzani-Pepelasi (2018) conducted research into the criminal narratives of 23 young offenders. Participants responses to the Narratives Roles Questionnaire and the Emotions Questionnaire were analysed using a smallest-space analysis. Results from this study elicited three dominant themes, which they referred to as 'Calm Professional', 'Elated Hero' and 'Distressed Revenger/Depressed Victim' (Ioannou, Synnott, Lowe and Tzani-Pepelasi, 2018). This reflected a variant of Ioannou et al. (2017) CNE model, noting the merge of the 'Distressed Revenger' and 'Depressed Victim' themes. In her doctoral thesis, Clancy (2020) further elaborated on this framework through the investigation of offence subtypes. Specifically, she investigated the CNE in the context of sexual and acquisitive offending, having examined the individual differences between these two offence subtypes. This research examined the responses of 73 adult males on a nine-part self-report questionnaire, utilising a smallest space analysis to highlight the relationship between the Emotions Statement Questionnaire (Ioannou, 2001) and the Narrative Roles Questionnaire (Youngs & Canter, 2012). According to Clancy (2020), the results of this study evidenced two themes within the CNE, which were titled 'the dejected revenger' and 'the intrepid professional-adventurer'. Whilst this provided early support for the CNE framework, Clancy (2020) elicited different themes to those initially identified, highlighting the importance of further research into the CNE with different offending populations.

2.15. Victim role assignment

Canter, Hughes and Kirby (1998) were one of the first to investigate the interaction between offender and victim as a potential means to understand criminal behaviours. This was developed from a perceived shortfall in previous theories, which they believe failed to address

both the heterogeneity of the population and the potential for offender typologies. From the analysis of 97 incidents of child sexual abuse, the offender's interactions with the victim were considered in the context of 19 dichotomous variables, having been analysed using a smaller space analysis technique. From this, high-frequency variables were identified, including the child being alone at the time of the offence, the offender ejaculating during the offence and the offender engaging in vaginal penetration. Further, the SSA plot revealed three distinct themes, which were subsequently titled 'intimacy', 'aggression' and 'criminal-opportunism'. The 'intimacy' theme, as the name suggests, reflected an individual who has engaged in pseudo-intimacy during the commission of the offence, as observed by behaviours such as giving affection, kissing the victim and providing them with reassurance. The 'aggression' theme represented individuals who were interpersonally aggressive, exhibiting behaviour such as anal penetration, threats of violence and initial force. It is also noted that this was within proximity of the variable 'offender intoxicated', suggesting that alcohol may have had a disinhibiting effect when violence was prominent (Canter et al., 2008). Finally, the criminal-opportunism theme was described as an extreme form of criminal behaviour, comprising actions such as offence committed outdoors, one-off offence and stranger victim. The results indicated that of the 97 participants, 44 (45%) were predominantly associated with the intimacy theme, where as 14 (14%) and 17 (18%) were assigned to the aggressive and criminal-opportunist groups, respectively.

To extend upon this, Canter et al. (2009) began to investigate the relationship between the offender and the victim in more detail, with the aim to determine if this highlighted any personal characteristics about the offender. They hypothesised that for every offence, the offender inadvertently assigns a role to himself and to his victim. The offender narrative roles mentioned earlier relate to the roles assigned to himself, and the remainder of this chapter will focus on the roles assigned to his victim. Encapsulated within the criminal narrative framework is the assumption that personal narratives, not unlike fictional stories, have finite story plots. As such, there are finite roles to which offenders and victims can be assigned. As mentioned earlier, the literature suggests that offenders may assign themselves to one of four roles, namely 'Hero', 'Professional', 'Victim' or 'Revenger'. Similarly, Canter et al. (2009) identified three overlapping roles to which the sexual offender can assign his victim,

including the victim as an 'Object', a 'Vehicle' and a 'Person". It is argued that these act as drivers of criminal actions, which are observable in crime scene analysis.

Derived from observations that interpersonal offences involved variations of brutality, degradation, violence and coercion, Canter (1994) predicted the value of identifying the role offenders assigns to their victim. Within this line of enquiry, Canter offered that all murder and sexual offences were comprised of two central facets, 'control' and 'empathy'. These are derived from McAdams (1993, 2001), who identified 'power' and 'intimacy' as the core to all personal narratives. Not dissimilar to the strength-based framework for offender rehabilitation, the Good Lives Model (see Ward & Stewart, 2003; Ward, 2002; Ward & Gannon, 2006), Canter (1994) posits two basic human wants, namely power and intimacy as the core goal for offenders. Yet, it is through this pursuit that their disordered attempts for power and intimacy see them assign the victim to a particular role. Specifically, their approach to power can be observed in the manner in which they control their victim. Similarly, in pursuit of intimacy, the offender reveals the extent to which the victim's personhood is acknowledged by him, highlighting deficits in distinct aspects of empathy. As such, Canter (1994) suggests that control serves not only for victim compliance but reflects their pursuit of power. Similarly, it is through seeking a fundamental human value, namely intimacy, that empathy deficits are revealed.

Power and intimacy aren't novel constructs in the criminology arena and have been consistently identified (albeit in various forms and contexts) as proximal and distal risk factors for sexual violence. Intimacy generally refers to the capacity to form relationships and to feel emotionally connected with others. Intimacy deficits, including loneliness, have been associated with sexual aggression throughout the literature (e.g., Martin & Tardif, 2015; Garlick, Marshall, & Thornton, 1996; Seidman, Marshall, Hudson, & Robertson, 1994; Ward, McCormack, & Hudson, 1997). These deficits generally relate to the offender's incapacity for stable relationships, loneliness, hostile attitudes towards women, emotional identification with children, social isolation and lack of concern for others (Hanson & Harris, 2007). Power has also been prevalent in criminology literature, specifically that relating to interpersonal and partner violence (e.g., McCarthy, Mehta & Haberland, 2018).

Whilst these two constructs are documented within literature, Canter (1994) utilises the novel approach by incorporating these two paradigms as a means to identify victim role assignment. The first facet, 'empathy', is derived from the way an offender interacts with his victim, reflecting the objective of the assailant's behaviour. Canter (1994) suggests that the aspects of empathy being depicted include humanity, compassion and human value. As such, in distorted attempts to achieve intimacy, offenders who lack awareness of the victim's humanity, objectify their victims. Offenders who lack compassion may be observed in the offending context as victim exploitation. Finally, undervaluing the victim may be observed as manipulation and taking advantage of the victim's vulnerabilities.

The second facet, 'control,' is derived from the way an offender controls his victim throughout the offence. Canter (1994) suggests that three forms of control are observed within interpersonal crimes. Psychological control is observed through abuse, behavioural control is observed through coercion, and physical control is observed through possession and/or subjugation. Table 2.1 highlights the interactions between 'empathy' and 'control' variables and how these are demonstrated within the three victim roles.

Table 2.1

Canter's (1994) control and empathy deficits variation of victim role assignment

		Vehicle	Person	Object
Control	Type:	Psychological	Behavioural	Physical
	How:	Abuse	Coercion	Possession/subjugation
Empathy	Deficit:	Compassion	Victim value	Humanity
	Approach:	Exploitation	Manipulation	Objectification

In writing '*Criminal Shadows: The inner narratives of evil*', Canter (1993) primarily focused on the victim roles in relation to murderers and serial murderers, yet also identified these roles in relation to sexual offenders. Details of the specific roles contained in the victim role assignment model are as follows.

2.15.1. The victim as an 'Object.'

In the case where a victim is assigned by the offender as an object, it suggests that the victim has minimal personal significance, but rather they represent a wider set of possible victims. As the name suggests, the victim is but an object upon which the offender can act upon to achieve sexual gratification (Canter and Youngs, 2012). As such, the victim is given little agency or active part in the offence. Canter (1994) noted that the offender's relationship with the victim is often paralleled in the location of the crime, such as in public places or other nondescript areas. It was hypothesised that offending in such a location removes the offence from any meaningful area for the offender, subsequently making the victim's personhood less apparent. The offenders generally don't tend to stalk or search for victims, but rather victim availability is more important. This reinforces the notion that the victim themselves are of little significance. Occasionally, in extreme versions, excessive violence, including mutilation, may be present. They tend not to verbally communicate with the victim yet may present with weapons or other tools to overpower the victim (i.e., a 'rape kit'). According to Canter (1994), this group of offenders fail to understand the emotions in others, in some cases, causing him to experience social isolation within his general life. In more mild cases, they may experience marital relationships but were separated or in conflict at the time of offending. Offenders who assign the victim to an 'Object' role tend to be disorganised in their crimes and life more generally, potentially as a result of unstable developmental experiences such as frequent moving or living in out-of-home care. In more mild cases, their childhoods may be unhappy, evidenced by unstable parental figures, financial hardship or emotional abuse.

Canter (1994) specifically notes that traits relating to treating the victim as an 'Object' are arguably present in all violent offences. Yet, the subtle determination in this role relates to the offender having no real concern for the victim, treat the victim's body as something to be used, nothing more than a mere object.

2.15.2. The victim as a 'Vehicle.'

In the literal sense, a vehicle is a means within which a person can travel from their current destination to their desired destination. Using this example, the victim, in this case, is not just an item to act upon (as identified in the victim as an 'Object' role) but rather represents those who have caused him harm. Subsequently, the offender views the victim as a vehicle through

which he can express his emotions and seek redress. As noted by Canter (1994), "*here, the victim must carry the load of the offender's desires. She is a vehicle for him to use*" (p262). This offender tends to experience negative affect, which is projected towards himself and others who have led him into his bleak situation. Often, they are acting out a tragic quest, seizing the moment to experience the power and control perceivably missing from their life. This offender appears to recognise the consequences of his actions, as grim as they may be, subsequently confessing to their offences when identified. In relation to sexual offences, the offenders may utilise subterfuge to access the victims, feigning vulnerability to capitalise on the true vulnerability of the victim. The backgrounds of these offenders tend to be more stable, yet they may have experienced episodic violence (or at the least violent narratives) throughout their lives. They are more socially skilled than those who assign victims to the 'Object' role, with a history of relationships. In comparison to the other roles, they tend to be older and have children to past relationships. In summary, offenders who assign their victim to the 'Vehicle' role tend to use the victim to carry his own emotions, yet the victim themselves is of little significance.

2.15.3. The victim as a 'Person.'

The victim, in this case, is, of themselves, significant to the offender. Whilst the victim is identified as human by the offender, they are viewed as something to be manipulated and abused. This generally relates to an offender who views relationships as exploitable, causing them to be observed as two-faced by their friends. Offenders who assign their victim to the role of a 'Person' may use dominance and control (including violence) within everyday transactions, subsequently causing them to have a long and diverse criminal history. Engagement in petty crime, or more serious crime, maybe a way of life for this offender and people in his social setting. Given the normalisation of abusive behaviour, this offender may misinterpret the victim's behaviour as consensual and meaningful interactions. They may ask personal details of the victim, and offending may occur despite them maintaining a romantic relationship of their own (albeit it also containing power imbalances). Canter (1994) noted that offenders associated with the victim as an 'Object' and 'Vehicle' occasionally commence interpersonal offending against people known to them, and subsequently, this may be a transitory stage for some offenders in a long career of violence and abuse.

In summary, according to Canter's (1994) theory, the offender who views his victim as a 'Vehicle' feels tragically forced by accidents of fate to seek redress. In this case, the victims are not themselves of personal interest to the offender, but rather are representations of those who have done him harm. Similarly, the sexual offender, who views his victim as an 'Object', sees his victim as representative of a wider set of possible victims. Conversely, however, the offender who views his victim as an 'Object' generally sees himself on a heroic quest where he uses power and control to achieve his sexual gratification. In these cases, the victim is merely a means to an end for him to meet his sexual wants. Finally, is the offender who sees his victim as a 'Person'. In these cases, the victim is chosen as they have personal significance to the offender, and generally, the offender views himself as a victim of circumstances. By viewing the victim narratives in this manner, it is possible to observe how the criminal narratives ('Hero', 'Revenger', 'Professional' and 'Victim') map onto these three victim roles. Specifically, the 'Victim' offender role is associated with the victim as a 'Person'; the 'Professional' offender role is associated with the victim as an 'Object; and finally, the 'Hero' and 'Revenger' roles for offenders are associated with variants of the victim as a 'Vehicle.

2.16. Testing the theory

To test their hypothesis, Canter and Youngs (2012) applied the model to groups of men who had committed interpersonal crimes. Specifically, 33 offence actions were taken from 66 stranger rapists, 24 offence actions from 50 stalking offences and 39 offence actions from 50 murder cases. To summarise their findings, Canter et al. (2012) stated,

"The Victim Role model draws attention to the offender's conceptualisation of, and interaction with the victim as a central base for differentiation of offence actions. By showing that this framework holds across the rather distinct interpersonal offending forms of stranger rape, stalking and serial killing, this work builds importantly on existing studies modelling offending styles within crime types" (p321).

As noted above, the stranger rape aspect of the study supported the three-victim role model, finding 11 criminal actions within the 'Object' role, eight (8) within the 'Vehicle' role and 12 within the 'Person' role. Additionally, two items, 'vaginal penetration of the victim (attempted

or achieved)' and 'surprise attack: immediate attack on the victim', were associated with all stranger rape offences and subsequently remained uncategorised.

2.17. Criminal actions as risk-relevant propensities

Few studies have considered the criminal actions of child sex offenders, specifically in the context of recidivism risk. Lehmann, Goodwill, Hanson and Dahle (2014) appear to have extended on the pioneering work by Bennell, Alison, Stein, Alison and Canter (2001), who identified four broad behavioural themes in child sex offenders' criminal actions. These included 'Fixation', 'Regressed (Sexualisation)', 'Criminality' and '(Sexualised) Aggression'. A brief summary of these themes, according to Lehmann et al. (2014), are as follows.

2.17.1. Fixation

These offenders are described as having a preferential sexual interest in children, are committed and fixated on offending, and have low social competence. Based on Ward et al. (2002) pathways model of child molestation, this would represent the pure paedophile pathway. Lehmann et al. (2014) indicated that these offenders actively seek out opportunities to offend by utilising grooming behaviours and indoctrinate the victims to participate in the sexual contact. They tend to utilise 'sexual play' or an immature version of sexual behaviour (e.g., tickling, fondling, etc.), whereas non-sexual violence is rarely featured. These offenders show a preference for male victims and stranger victims. They tend to have a large number of victims, often simultaneously. These offenders have been associated with an increased risk of future sexual offending (Lehmann et al., 2014).

2.17.2. Regression (sexualisation)

By contrast, offence behaviours categorised as regression (sexualisation) experience intimacy deficits, and their offences tend to be situational. As such, their motivations aren't primarily deviant (i.e., sexual attraction to children), but rather non-paraphilic sexual excitement is present, and the victim is used as an alternative to age-appropriate sexual partners. The victim selection is based on availability rather than individual characteristics, and subsequently, their own children are commonly victimised. In this theme, their sexual behaviours are more mature than observed in the 'fixation' group, yet physical force is also rare. Given their more mature understanding of sex, often behaviours in this theme involve

the child being sexualised, as evidenced by behaviours such as mutual masturbation and oral sex. In summary, *“the need for sex is transferred to an inappropriate partner (normal sexual scripts) and the primary offender motivation should also be sexual rather than aggression”* (Lehmann et al., 2014, pp 1010-1011). These offenders tend to be otherwise law-abiding citizens, and their offending generally desist after detection. These offenders were not associated with high-risk factors for future sexual offending.

2.17.3. Criminality

These offenders are described by Lehmann et al. (2014) as being generally antisocial. They are opportunistic in their sexual offending, often occurring in the context of a more prolific pattern of criminality. The offence may be characterised by verbal threats, use of restraints, physical strength, and/or use of weapons. The victim selection in this context isn't specific, but rather the offender is capitalising on an opportunity for their own sexual gratification. Whilst instrumental violence may be present, there is little interest or intention to harm the victim more than is needed or required for victim compliance. This offender is associated with a desire for high levels of domination and control. They tend to have a lengthy and varied criminal history, adhering to Ward & Keenan (1999) implicit theories, specifically relating to the world, is a dangerous place and entitlement. Given that these offences are more related to general criminality than to sexual deviance or paraphilia, they have been associated with risk factors for non-sexual recidivism.

2.17.4. (Sexualised) Aggression

These offences relate to high levels of instrumental violence, harming the victim beyond what is required to gain their compliance. In this theme, there is evidence of brutality, sadism and physical force, including anal penetration. This theme has been associated with intoxication, thought to exacerbate aggression through further emotional dysregulation and general disinhibition. These offenders likely have difficulty coping and subsequently have a history of violence, including that which is recidivistic in nature. In this small group of offenders, anger and sadism are expressed through the offender's sexuality and have subsequently been associated with risk factors for sexual recidivism.

The four themes of CSA used in Lehmann et al. (2014) study were investigated in relation to Static-2002 subscales ('sexual deviancy', the 'persistence of sexual offending', and 'general criminality') as well as the Static-99 total score and the Screening Scale for Paedophilic Interest (SSPI) total scores. Their results reflect significant relationships in relation to the Fixation theme offenders with the Static 2002 subscales, the Static-99 and the 'sexual' item on the SSPI. The fixated group was negatively correlated with 'multiple offences', 'occurring over 2 years', 'having a relationship with the victim' and 'power' on the SSPI.

In contrast, the regression (sexualised) theme was associated with sexual deviance only on the Static-2002R, 'sexual' item on the SSPI, 'multiple offences', 'duration over 2 years' and 'close relationship between offender and victim'. The criminality group was negatively correlated with 'sexual deviance' and 'persistence' on the Static-2002R and 'having had multiple offences'. It was positively correlated with 'power', 'anger' and 'sadism' on the SSPI. Finally, the (sexualised) aggression theme was associated with 'sexual deviance' and 'general criminality' on the Static-2002R and the Static-99R, and 'power', 'anger' and 'sadism' on the SSPI.

These results have shown promising findings in relation to crime scene analysis of child sex offenders and their risk-relevant propensities and, in many ways, paved the way for further research into this domain. Interestingly, the analysis was conducted on psychometrics which has since been superseded by the Static-99R and Static-2002R, which have found to outperform the previous versions (Helmus, Hanson, Thornton, Babchishin & Harris, 2012). Further, recent research (Brouillette-Alarie, Babchishin, Hanson & Helmus, 2016) has identified psychological constructs of the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R, which has yet to be tested against crime scene actions in this manner. Finally, whilst the research identified four distinct themes, the internal consistency was described as "*lower than desirable (around .50)*" (Lehmann et al., 2014, p1024). Research of this nature has yet to be conducted utilising Canters victim role model, which may solve the problem with thematic consistencies observed in the Lehmann et al. (2014) study. This invites an exciting opportunity for exploration of the criminal actions of child sex offenders from the victim roles perspective, utilising these more accurate predictive measures.

2.18. Chapter summary

This chapter has offered a comprehensive framework for identifying offenders' experiences, utilising narrative approaches. It has explored a brief history of emotions, with a focus on the dimensional model of affect. The circumplex model of emotions (Russell, 1980) has recently been applied to the criminal population, with promising results relating to the pleasure – displeasure dimension. It appears, however, that there are variations amongst subgroups of offenders based on crime type and psychological profile (specifically mental illness). In examining the literature related to the emotions of offenders, there is a distinct lack of research investigating the full spectrum of emotional experiences of child sex offenders. In particular, the literature pertaining to positive emotional experiences within child sex offending is scarce. Even less research has investigated the relationships between the full circumplex of emotions and factors empirically linked to recidivism. Given the possible implications for this construct, these research gaps offer an exciting opportunity for academic investigation, which will form an integral aspect of the current research design.

Narratives have been documented for centuries and have been used to describe and define history, literature and anthropology. The narrative approach to Psychology has gained momentum in theorising culture, social life and identity over past decades and has recently been used to explain behaviours, including crime. This chapter has also identified the progressive use of narratives within psychology, and more recently, within criminal psychology. In particular, Frye's theory of archetypes (1957) has been used as the foundations for Canter's (1994) narrative framework for offenders. Utilising this framework, research has suggested that offenders assign themselves to one of four roles, and this has been consistently validated across various samples. In addition, this chapter has identified the importance of offender's criminal actions, particularly their interaction with the victim. It is suggested that victims assign themselves to one of three roles based on a variance of control and empathy deficits. Whilst these frameworks have shown promise across a spectrum of offences, the current study argues that to date, insufficient attention has been given to sexual offenders, in particular, those with child victims. Further, it is argued there is a paucity of research into offenders' risk of recidivism utilising narrative approaches.

It is evident that the narrative approach is gaining traction within the literature and providing insight into offender's experiences from a unique perspective. It is also evident, however, that this research is in a relatively adolescent state and requires further testing across different offence subtypes and with different populations. As will be identified in the next chapter, one of these research gaps pertains to the applicability of the narrative frameworks to inform static and dynamic risk factors. This is an area necessitating further research to assist in ameliorating offenders risk factors appropriately in the treatment context and to adequately inform case management recommendations and judicial decisions.

Chapter 3

Actuarial risk assessments (Recidivism risk)

3.1. Introduction to chapter

The primary objective of this chapter is to introduce the concept of risk assessments for sexual recidivism. In particular, the chapter is focused on static risk assessments and the limitations to their use. Although widely used, Static-99R and Static-2002R test developers have been vocal in outlining the constraints to the tools use and have actively engaged in research to broaden the scope of their utility from both a treatment and risk prediction perspective (e.g., Brouillette-Alaire, Babchishin, Hanson & Helmus, 2016; Brouillette-Alarie, Proulx & Hanson, 2018). This thesis argues that static risk factors, whilst empirically linked to recidivistic behaviour, lack clarity as psychological phenomena. As such, the current research aims to provide more information about the psychological constructs of static risk factors, using a relatively novel yet promising methodology.

3.2. Conceptualising risk

When discussing the risk of recidivism, the risk is often defined as the likelihood of an adverse event, in this case, sexual offending. However, many risk assessments aim to do more than simply predict the likelihood of a behaviour. They may also aim to identify the factors that increase the individual's risk, which act as therapeutic targets and warning signs for future offending. Further, some risk assessments predict factors such as imminence, context (including triggers), victim selection, nature of the behaviour, and severity of the offending. This provides information not only on an individual's risk but also how this risk can be mitigated. The types of risk and risk assessments are discussed in more detail.

3.2.1. Static risk factors

Static risk factors are considered unchangeable. Static risk assessments are based on historical factors (such as 'number of prior convictions') which, despite all attempts, are unable to be addressed in treatment. Whilst hypothesised underlying constructs might be targeted (for factors relating to criminal history, this may include antisocial attitudes, for example), it is not possible to erase someone's past. In addition, static risk factors include items that may change (such as age) yet are not within the individual's control. Actuarial risk assessments that are based on static factors are considered to be the most common approach to assessing offenders' risk of recidivism (Klinge, 2020; Kingston Yates, Firestone, Babchishin, & Bradford, 2008). The benefit to static risk assessments is that they are generally easy to score,

individual items are harder to dispute and often, the offender is not required to participate in the assessment. Further, and arguably most importantly, they consistently outperform empirically derived structured professional judgement (Hanson & Morton-Bourgon, 2009), making them a desired tool in litigious settings. The Static-99R and Static-2002R are examples of an actuarial risk assessment based on static factors for the purpose of identifying sexual offenders' risk of recidivism.

3.2.2. *Dynamic risk factors*

Dynamic risk factors are often the targets for treatment intervention and are subsequently amenable to change. They are described by Mann, Hanson and Thornton (2010) as being factors which *"describe psychological or behavioural features of the offender that raise the risk of reoffending and that are potentially changeable, such as distorted attitudes or deviant sexual interest"* (Mann, Hanson & Thornton, 2010, p 4). Additional examples include maintaining unhealthy significant social influences, intimacy deficits, incapacity or unwillingness to cooperate with supervision, emotional dysregulation and sexual dysregulation. As such, these become what Andrews and Bonta (2006) described as "criminogenic needs". Dynamic risk assessments are a little more difficult to score and are open to greater scrutiny. Because they are dealing with psychological constructs such as attitudes and cognitions, the offender is either directly or indirectly (through observations or collateral sources) involved in the assessment process.

Dynamic risk can be further broken down into 'stable' and 'acute' risk factors. Stable dynamic risk factors are considered to be amenable to change yet are persistent in nature. As an example, if an offender lacks social skills, this is likely an enduring characteristic making it static-like yet amenable to change. Therefore, these factors are likely to be pervasive and in the absence of intervention, enduring. Despite this, they are not considered static as they are changeable.

Acute factors are highly contextual and subsequent targets in criminogenic intervention. These are the factors that may be immediate precursors to offending yet are fleeting in nature. Examples of acute risk factors include intoxication, relationship breakdown causing

emotional distress and associating with an antisocial peer. Acute factors are often used in case management situations and provide information about risk imminence.

3.3. Understanding risk assessments- What are they?

Risk prediction is an imperfect science, highlighting the complexities of human motivation and behaviour, particularly in relation to socially aberrant behaviour. It has been described as “*a hazard that is incompletely understood and whose occurrence can be forecast only with uncertainty*” (Beech & Ward, 2004, p 31). Risk assessment tools have been developed with the aim to assist in making these predictions and are continually subject to modification and adjustment as our understanding of offending behaviour advances. One way to understand the theoretical aspects of risk assessments is to consider them in the context of the Receiver Operating Characteristics (ROC) curve analysis. A ROC curve analysis is a statical procedure, and whilst anecdotally fear-provoking for most forensic clinicians, can aid in conceptualising the development of risk measures.

At its simplest level, ROC analysis graphically displays the sensitivity and specificity of a given test (Green & Swets, 2000). The concept originated in the 1940s by the United States Military, who wanted to understand how their radars missed the Japanese aircraft during the attack on Pearl Harbour. Essentially, the radio signals were contaminated by ‘noise’, and they needed to find the sensitivity at which they could detect enemy planes without false positives (such as birds). Put simply, if you were to consider sensitivity as being like a dial on a remote control when sensitivity was dialled up high, they were guaranteed to detect enemy planes yet were also guaranteed to experience false alarms. By dialling the sensitivity way down, they solved the problem of false alarms but also allowed some enemy planes to go undetected.

In relating this to offenders, it is the capacity of a risk assessment tool to correctly predict those who will re-offend whilst reducing false alarms as much as possible. To ensure that all would-be recidivists were identified before reoffending, it could be argued that best practice would include assessing all sexual offenders against all variables ever associated with reoffending. By casting this large net, most (if not all) offenders would be identified as being at risk and case managed accordingly. There are many problems with this, including the poor

allocation of resources (e.g., low-risk offenders taking unnecessary resources from high-risk offenders), poor adherence to well established rehabilitative processes (such as the 'risk, needs and responsivity' model) and basic human rights. Therefore, in developing risk assessments, the aim is to identify variables related to offending without implicating all of those being assessed.

3.4. Generations of risk assessments

Three generations of risk assessments have been established (Bonta, 1996), although occasionally these are classified into just two categories, namely structured and unstructured risk assessments. The first generation involves unstructured risk assessments, which was the conventional approach, yet have, for the most part, been superseded due to problems with validity. The second and third generations of risk assessments are classified as being structured, although these can be further broken down into pure actuarial measures and structured professional judgement.

3.4.1. First-generation: Unstructured clinical judgement

These risk assessments are based on a clinician's own judgements, potentially being derived from experience and/or intuition. Whilst these methods have the benefits of freedom and flexibility in their utility, they rely heavily on the skills and experiences of the assessor. As such, they often have poor interrater reliability, and generally, their predictive validity is slightly better than chance (Barabas, Dinakar, Ito, Virza & Zitrain, 2018; Beech & Ward, 2004).

3.4.2. Second generation: Pure actuarial risk assessments

These risk assessments measure the factors outlined in the relevant literature as pertaining to risk. It focuses on static or historical factors, the presence of which are then coded, and when tallied, they arrive at a total risk score for the individual. This generation of risk assessments is only interested in those factors which are empirically linked to the risk outcome. The risk scores are correlated with a probability estimate of reoffending for the individual, which has been derived from empirical evidence based on the normed sample (Beech & Ward, 2004). These tools are consistently more accurate than unstructured clinical opinion (Hanson & Morton-Bourgon, 2009), yet they provide less insight into criminogenic needs (Barabas et al., 2018).

3.4.3. Third generation: Structured professional judgement (SPJ)

These risk assessments are somewhat of a combination of the two types of risk assessments noted above. They incorporate the clinician's professional judgement of the offender's risk but do this through a structured review of literature pertaining to the type of risk. SPJ measures generally outline a list of empirically validated factors, from which the clinician gathers evidence to highlight the presence and relevance of each factor against the individual being assessed (Beech & Ward, 2004). As such, they are empirically validated and are considered to add incrementally to static risk assessments (Mann, Hanson & Thornton, 2010). This generation of assessments can also provide information relating to risk imminence, potential triggers and treatment targets (Barabas et al., 2018).

3.5. Static Risk assessments

Two static risk assessments are of specific interest to the current studies, and their details are as follows.

3.5.1. Static-99R

The Static-99R is a 10-item actuarial measure that is intended to position offenders in terms of their relative degree of risk for sexual recidivism (Appendix A). This is based on available demographic and criminal history information that has been found to correlate with sexual recidivism in adult male sex offenders (Phenix, Helmus & Hanson, 2016). The Static-99R provides explicit rules for combining 10 factors which, when added together, create a total score. The total score places an individual within a risk category of others who present with similar characteristics, and in doing so, provides an estimation on the likelihood of sexual recidivism based on group aggregates. This can be helpful in understanding the potential risk posed by the individual at the time of rating (by comparing them to individuals with similar characteristics) and also hypothesizes their long-term risk profile.

The original Static-99 was developed using data from 4 samples (n = 1,208) across Canada and the United Kingdom. In 2012, this was updated to the Static-99R, which saw only changes to the scoring of the 'age' item, which effectively reflected the association between aging offenders and risk reduction. The Static-99R was developed using data on sexual recidivism

from 8,106 sexual offenders across 23 samples (including from Canada, the United States, the United Kingdom, Austria, Denmark, Germany, Sweden, and New Zealand). Of the total sample, 5,714 offenders were randomly assigned to the development sample, and 2,392 were assigned to the validation sample (Phenix, Helmus & Hanson, 2016).

The Static-99R is considered to be a 'static' risk assessment in that it is based on historical factors. This suggests that the factors are unable to be reduced, except for the 'age' and 'cohabitation' items. The static score will inevitably change as individuals' age (specifically at ages 36, 40 and 60 years) and may decrease in the event that an individual cohabits with a romantic partner for two or more years (and had previously not done so). The only other possible changes to Static-99R relate to the individual being involved in further offending behaviour, which would necessarily increase their risk.

3.5.2. Static-2002R

The Static-2002R is a 14-item actuarial measure, which, like the Static-99R, is intended to position offenders in terms of their relative degree of sexual recidivism (Appendix B). Stringent coding rules are applied to score each of the items, which have independently been empirically linked to sexual recidivism. This tool was developed as a revision of the Static-99 (Hanson & Thornton, 2000), which at the time was at the forefront of sex offender assessments, and is the combination of two well-established assessments, the 'Rapid Risk Assessment for Sex Offence Recidivism (RRASOR)' (Hanson, 1997) and 'Thornton's Structured Anchored Clinical Judgement scale (SAC-J)' (Hanson et al., 2000). According to Static-2002 test developers, however, the Static-99 lacked enough coherence and conceptual clarity in that it was unclear exactly what was being assessed. Further, given that the Static-99 was derived from two independent measures, there were differences in coding principles. As such, the development of a more comprehensive tool, namely the Static-2002, was anticipated to have greater interrater reliability. Finally, it was hoped that by adding new variables, the predictive validity of the Static-2002 would exceed that of the Static-99 (Hanson & Thornton, 2003). As it were, both the Static-99 and Static-2002 have since revised the age weights to improve predictive validity amongst older sex offenders (Helmus, Thornton, Hanson & Babchishin, 2012). Whilst the Static-2002 was developed as a solution to the Static-99 shortcomings, the revised age weights altered the predictive validity measure on both tools, and subsequently,

“no difference in predictive accuracy were found between the Static-99R and the Static-2002R” (Babchishin, 2012, p2).

3.5.3. Static-99R and Static-2002R- empirical bases (Phenix, Helmus & Hanson, 2016).

The 10 items on the Static-99R are empirically linked to sexual recidivism, and some of these items were subsequently utilised in the development of the Static-2002R. In relation to the common items between the two actuarial measures, the first item, ‘age at release from index offence’, reflects studies that have shown that the rate of sexual offending (along with general offending) reduces with age (Helmus et al., 2012).

Both measures contain what is commonly referred to as ‘the victim questions’. Research suggests that interfamilial offenders recidivation rate is lower than extrafamilial offenders (Helmus & Thornton, 2015), giving rise to the ‘any unrelated victim’ question. Additionally, the recidivation rate is lower for men who offend against acquaintances rather than strangers, evidencing the ‘any stranger victims’ question. The last item of the victim questions relates to victim gender, namely ‘any male victims’, as this is correlated with sexual deviance and, subsequently, higher recidivism rates (Helmus & Thornton, 2015).

If an offender has a conviction for a ‘non-contact sex offence’ (Static-99R and Static-2002R), their risk is elevated as this behaviour is indicative of paraphilias. It is well established that paraphilias and non-contact sexual offences are related to sexual recidivism. The items ‘prior sexual offences’ (Static-99R), ‘rates of sexual offending (Static-2002R) and ‘convicted of juvenile and adult sexual offences’ (Static-2002R) also related to recidivistic sexual offending and associated paraphilia.

The item ‘Number of prior sentencing dates’ (Static-99R), ‘prior sending occasions’ (Static-2002R) and ‘Any prior involvement in the criminal justice system’ (Static-2002R) is evidence of persistent criminality and strongly correlated with sexual recidivism. Regarding the items ‘prior non-sexual violence’ (Static-99R) and ‘prior non-sexual violence sentencing occasions’ (Static-2002R), these are associated with Andrews and Bonta (2010) “Big Four” predictors of general offending. ‘Community supervision violations’ (Static-2002R) and ‘years free prior to

index sexual offence' (Static-2002R) are indicative of general criminality and have been confirmed as a predictor for sexual violence.

Interestingly, however, the item 'index non-sexual violence' has been correlated with sexual offending in some research, yet its predictive validity has been inconsistent. Relevant to the current research, test developers highlight that this item appears to significantly predict sexual recidivism in North American based samples yet is not significant with samples outside of North America. As such, it is unclear if 'index sexual violence' is a valid predictor of sexual recidivism in Australia.

The item 'ever lived with an intimate partner' is related to research highlighting enduring intimate relationships as being a protective factor for offending. As such, for this item to be considered protective, the individual must have cohabited for more than two years.

Regarding the item 'prior non-sexual violence', this is associated with Andrews and Bonta (2010) "Big Four" predictors of general offending. Further, it has been confirmed as a predictor of sexual violence.

3.5.4. Reliability and risk score outcomes

With regards to reliability, the Static-99R Advisory Board (Phenix, Helmus & Hanson, 2016) recommend using one of their templates for effective and accurate reporting of both the Static-99R and Static-2002R. The following is an example of such (using the Static-99R):

Static-99R has moderate accuracy in ranking offenders according to their relative risk for sexual recidivism. On average, there is a 70% chance that a randomly selected recidivist would have a higher score than a randomly selected non-recidivist. The ability of Static-99R to assess relative risk has been fairly consistent across a wide variety of samples, countries, and unique settings. Static-99R is widely accepted by the scientific community, by courts, and by applied evaluators. (Phenix, Helmus & Hanson, 2016 p 28)

In relation to risk score outcomes, offenders scores on both the Static-99R and Static-2002R are individually tallied, and an overall score is derived, ranging from -3 to 12 and -2 to 13, respectively. These scores correspond to the risk category outlined in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Static-99R and Static-2002R risk scores and corresponding risk categories

Level	Risk category	Static-99R score	Static-2002R score
Level I	Very low risk	-3 to -2	-2 to -1
Level II	Below average risk	-1 to 0	0 to 1
Level III	Average risk	1 to 3	2 to 4
Level IVa	Above-average risk	4 to 5	5 to 6
Level IVb	Well above average risk	6+	7+

Note. Phenix, Helmus & Hanson (2016)

Interestingly, whilst these are independent measures, the scales are thought to add incremental validity to the prediction of sexual violence, non-sexual violence and general offending. As a result of these findings, “*psychometric theory supports the use of multiple instruments*” (Babchishin et al., 2011, p4). Utilising multiple scales is not without inherent challenges, specifically in the interpretation of varying results. As such, test developers advocated for the development of guidelines on interpreting test results (Babchishin, 2012). In order to interpret risk assessment outcomes, the latent constructs of the actuarial measures require comprehension. This gives rise to the current research utilising the narrative approach to understand the latent psychological constructs.

3.6. Latent psychological variables

Early research questioned the utility of identifying actuarial scales latent psychological constructs, including Babchishin et al. (2012), who stated that

Although desirable, it is not always necessary to fully understand the latent psychological constructs being assessed for a measure to have practical utility...Measures can have importance based simply on their empirical relationships with the outcome of interest (p3.)

Although the overall utility of these risk assessments hasn't been disputed, the utility of the latent constructs appears to have been understated by Babchishin et al. (2012) in this instance. As noted by Brouillette-Alaire et al. (2018),

Total scores, although simple, limit the predictive utility of risk scales for the specific outcome for which they were developed (usually sexual recidivism). When constructs are known, it is possible to improve the prediction of other outcomes by removing constructs unrelated to each of these new outcomes... total scores may also reduce the clinical utility of actuarial scales (especially static ones) because delineating an overall level of risk is not as useful as having scored on multiple domains (pp 694-695).

Acknowledging the benefits of latent construct identification, Brouillette-Alaire et al. (2016) point out the recent surge in research to identify these constructs, superficially on the Static-99R and Static-2002. Previous research has identified at least two latent psychological constructs, and whilst labelled differently, all appear related to sexual deviancy and antisociality. Brouillette-Alaire et al. (2016) add that *"although the aforementioned studies offered valuable insights on the latent constructs of static actuarial scales, nearly all of them used less optimal statistical methods"* on which they derived their results (p. 97). As such, further studies have been conducted to rectify these design problems. Their data was explored using a variety of factor analysis and correlational analysis techniques. The results reflected three latent psychological constructs of the Static-99R and the Stable-2002, namely 1) persistent sexual offending/sexual paraphilia, 2) youthful stranger aggression, and 3) general criminality (hereafter referred to as 'persistent paraphilia', 'YSA' and 'criminality' respectively). Table 3.2 depicts the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R items, and the corresponding factor utilising the three-factor model offered by Brouillette-Alaire et al. (2016). The process to combine the actuarial measures is outlined in the original source (see Brouillette-Alaire et al., 2016).

Table 3.2

Combined Static-99R and Static-2002R risk factors by latent construct

Factor	Item (actuarial measure)
Persistent paraphilia	Prior sex offences (Static-99R) Rate of sex offending (Static-2002R) Any convictions for non-contact sex offences (Static-99R and Static-2002R) Any male victims (Static-99R and Static-2002R) 2 or more young victims, one unrelated (Static-2002R)
YSA	Age at release (Static-99R and Static-2002R) Ever lived with a lover for at least 2 years (Static-99R) Index non-sexual violence- any convictions (Static-99R) Any unrelated victims / Any stranger victims (Static-99R and Static-2002R) Juvenile arrests (Static-2002R)
Criminality	Prior non-sexual violence- any convictions (Static-99R and Static-2002R) Prior sentencing dates (Static-99R and Static-2002R) Breach history (Static-2002R) Years free (2002R) Prior involvement justice system (2002R)

The outcome of this recent research supports previous findings in relation to the presence of ‘general criminality’, and ‘sexual deviance’ yet introduces the third factor ‘youthful stranger aggression’. According to Brouillette-Alaire et al. (2016), *“this (third) factor lacked face validity, being mixed of demographics, victim relationship information and nonsexual violence. Its internal consistency was low ($\alpha = .50$) and could not be improved by item deletion. We labelled it (unconvincingly) youthful stranger aggression”* (p 102). Despite challenges in labelling this construct, it was positively and significantly predictive of sexual, violent and general recidivism, as was ‘general criminality’. ‘Persistent paraphilia’ was only associated with sexual recidivism. Predictive validity analysis identified child-molesters having higher scores on persistent paraphilia in comparison to adult rapists. Conversely, adult rapists had higher scores on YSA and general criminality (Brouillette-Alaire et al., 2016).

Given these recent developments, the current study has employed the 3-factor model to the sample population. It is anticipated that by viewing the Static-99R and Static-2002R as single risk scores and a combined 3-factor model, there will be enhanced capacity to utilise narrative

frameworks to elicit an understanding of static risk factors. Given the prevalence of 'persistent paraphilia' amongst child offenders and the challenges labelling 'YSA', the current research will specifically aim to gain conceptual clarity of these constructs.

3.7. Criminal Narratives and Risk Assessments: Gaps in the research

Considering the increasing reliance on offenders as active agents in their treatment pathways and the importance of risk assessments in the justice system in its entirety, there is a paucity of research into the correlation between criminal narratives and offenders' risk of recidivism. One recent and valuable contribution was the result of research into the criminal narratives of young offenders (Ioannou, Synnott, Lowe & Tzani-Pepelasi, 2018). Within this study, the criminal narrative experience (CNE) model was applied to 23 young offenders aged between 14 and 18 years who were serving community-based sentences for a range of offences. The research applied the Narratives Roles Questionnaire and the Emotions Questionnaire, consistent with previous research utilising the CNE framework. The participant's responses were analysed using a smallest-space analysis, from which researchers observed three dominant themes, namely the 'Calm Professional', 'Elated Hero' and 'Distressed Revenger/Depressed Victim' (Ioannou et al., 2018). It is noted that this is a variant of the Ioannou, Canter and Youngs (2017) quadrant model of criminal narrative experiences, as there was little variability with the themes of the 'Distressed Revenger' and 'Depressed Victim'. By assigning participants to one of three dominant themes based on individual responses, the correlation between individual risk scores and the CNE themes were able to be analysed. Ioannou et al. (2018) acknowledged that, for the most part, there was no significant association between risk and the criminal narrative themes (Ioannou et al., 2018). Despite this, they identified statistically significant results between narrative themes and risk domains relating to 'neighbourhood and community', 'attitudes towards offending', 'living arrangements' and 'family and personal relationships'. Specifically, the risk factor 'neighbourhood and community' was associated with the 'Calm Professional' role; their 'attitudes towards offending' scores were associated with the 'Elated Hero' theme; and both 'living arrangements' and 'family and personal relationships' was correlated with the 'Distressed Revenger/Depressed Victim' theme (Ioannou, Synnott, Lowe & Tzani-Pepelasi, 2018). Whilst the research conducted into juveniles showed only a few correlations, it is a novel contribution in exploring the relationship between criminal narratives and the risk of

recidivism. The current research is an extension of this methodology in utilising narrative frameworks to understand risk constructs.

3.8. Narratives and risk correlates. An agenda for research?

Recent research into actuarial measures has called for more investigation into the latent psychological constructs of these static risk measures. Until now, little research has utilised the offender's own narratives to identify the constructs underpinning these commonly used actuarial measures. The research conducted by Ioannou et al. (2018) highlights the potential for the narrative approach to fill some of the gaps within our understanding of these complex areas of risk assessments. This gives rise to the current research project, where narratives are utilised to investigate the cognitive, affective and behavioural aspects of child sex offending, with the aim to reveal the psychological constructs of recidivism risk assessments.

3.9. Summary of chapter

This chapter has discussed the application of risk assessments to the offending population, specifically in relation to sexual offenders. Whilst there are various psychometric and actuarial measures available to assess risk, they each vary in design, applicability and validity. In addition, the evidence is now suggesting that the implementation of multiple criterion-references measures, despite being highly correlated, adds incremental validity (Babchishin, Hanson & Helmus, 2012). This suggests that a battery of tests is likely the best practice for risk determination. Yet making sense of conflicting risk results is challenging and pleads for more research into the constructs underpinning each risk factor, allowing for risk factor differentiation and subsequently accurate interpretation. As such, the current research focuses on one element of risk assessments (static risk) utilising the two most widely used actuarial measures (Static-99R and Static-2002R). This serves as a preliminary exploration into the correlation between narrative frameworks and factors empirically linked to reoffending.

PART II

The current study

Chapter 4

Current study overview

4.1. Current study: Aim.

The aim of this research is to determine the applicability of the narrative frameworks to the child sexual offending population and to determine if these narratives provide insight into an offender's recidivism risk. The narrative framework includes offender's crime narratives (Canter & Youngs, 2012), emotional experiences of crime (Canter & Ioannou, 2004; Ioannou, 2006; Spruin, 2012), the CNE (Ioannou et al., 2017) and criminal actions (Canter & Youngs, 2012). These theoretical constructs were developed based on the analysis of the general offending population, and while they also have some roots with sexual offenders, previous research has primarily focused on sexual offenders as a collective group. Research into the theories of sexual offending has long distinguished offenders based on victim selection, specifically child versus adult victims. This differentiation potentially highlights the different approaches individuals in these subgroups take to offending, including variances in the developmental, cognitive, behavioural and interpersonal factors relating to their offending. Until now, these narrative frameworks haven't been applied to the child sex offending population. As such, the aim of the current study is, in the initial instance, to build on the body of growing research into the narratives of offenders by considering their self-reported cognitive and affective experiences of crime, along with their crime scene behaviours. It then takes a novel approach by investigating these narrative outcomes in the context of static recidivism risk scores on actuarial psychometrics. Specifically, the narrative frameworks are investigated against well-established actuarial measures, namely the Static-99R (Hanson & Thornton, 2000; Helmus, Thornton, Hanson and Babchishin, 2012) and the Static-2002R (Hanson & Thornton, 2003). As mentioned earlier, risk assessments are a central feature in the management of sexual offenders and are used in the justice system to inform sentencing, intervention and case management. Given that items on the Static-99R and Static-2002R are empirically linked to reoffending (Phenix, Helmus & Hanson, 2016), any correlation between the criminal narrative frameworks and these actuarial tools produces enlightening implications for the assessment and treatment of sexual offenders. At the least, reviewing risk in light of narrative research may open a new line of academic enquiry.

4.2. Current study: Objectives.

The current research encompasses four objectives, which collectively address the aforementioned research aim. A brief summary of the research objectives are as follows:

4.2.1. *Objective 1:* The first objective is to investigate offenders' emotional experiences of child sexual abuse and to determine if their emotions have any correlations with their static risk assessment scores.

To answer objective 1, the first study ('study 1') seeks to determine if child sexual offenders experience a full range of emotions during their offences, as observed in Russell's circumplex model (1997), which was derived from research on the non-offending population. By way of context, this model suggests that all emotions are the result of variants from two axes, specifically valence and arousal. Several studies have applied the circumplex of emotions to criminal experiences (Canter & Ioannou, 2004; Ioannou, 2006; Spruin, 2012), identifying four emotional themes in the general offending experiences, namely 'Elation', 'Distress', 'Calm' and 'Depressed'. This aspect of the current research is intended to examine the applicability of emotional themes observed in general offending to the current population.

Canter and Ioannou (2004) highlighted that offenders experience a broad range of emotions during their offending and that these emotions are similar to Russell's circumplex model of emotions. Within a study conducted to determine the emotional experiences of offenders, Canter and Ioannou (2004) observed the emotions specifically experienced by sexual offenders, and as part of their more comprehensive study, compared these to offences of other natures. While this research observed sexual offenders as an entirety, they found that a broad range of emotions was experienced during sexual offences. As such, the hypothesis of the current study is consistent with previous research in that it is expected that child sex offenders will report having experienced a full range of emotions. It is also hypothesised that there will be an apparent differentiation between positive and negative emotions (pleasure versus displeasure dichotomy), while there will be less differentiation between emotions based on the arousal-sleepiness dichotomy.

Further, study 1 also examines the intensity of emotions experienced by offenders during the commissioning of sexual offences against children. Consistent with research conducted by Canter and Ioannou (2004), it is hypothesised that the overall emotional direction of offending for child sex offenders will be negative (i.e., they will generally experience negative

emotions during their offences). It is suggested that the intensity will be more significant for those emotions considered negative (e.g., worried, pointless, lonely). It is hypothesised that those emotions associated with arousal will be reported with higher intensity in comparison to those reflected closer to the sleepiness theme.

Finally, this study investigates if emotions experienced during crime correlate with recidivism risk scores. To do this, emotions are investigated against different levels of risk assessments, including 1) Participants risk of recidivism total scores using the Static-99R; 2) Participants risk of recidivism total scores using the Static-2002R; 3) The latent psychological variables of the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R, namely the 'persistent paraphilia', 'youthful stranger aggression (YSA)' and 'general criminality' (Brouillette-Alarie, Babchishin, Hanson & Helmus, 2016) and, 4) individual items on the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R.

No known research has been conducted in relation to the full spectrum of affective states and their recidivism risk scores. It is hypothesised, however, that offenders with strong emotional states, both positive and negative, will be associated with higher risk scores on these actuarial tools. It is also hypothesised that strong negative emotions (such as anger) will be associated with higher scores on 'YSA' and 'criminality' than observed with persistent paraphilia.

4.2.2. Objective 2: The second objective is to investigate the criminal narratives of child sexual offenders and to determine if their narratives have any correlations with their static risk assessment scores.

To answer objective 2, the second study ('study 2') seeks to determine if the criminal experiences of child sexual offenders in the Australian population can be categorised into four narrative themes as identified by Canter (1994). To summarise, this theory postulates that offenders' experiences are variants of potency and intimacy, identifying four narrative themes, namely 'Revenger', 'Hero', 'Professional' and 'Victim' roles. The current research is intended to examine the applicability of narrative roles observed in offending literature to the current population. Consistent with past research (Youngs & Canter, 2012; Ioannou, Canter, Youngs & Synnott, 2015), it is hypothesised that child sex offenders in Australia will endorse items on the NRQ that can be categorised into four distinct themes, each containing

substantially equivalent variables. It is anticipated that these roles will be consistent with the 'Revenger', 'Hero', 'Professional' and 'Victim' roles (Youngs & Canter, 2012). The null hypothesis is that the variables show little co-variation, poor internal consistency or are unable to be demarcated.

Further, study 2 also investigates if child sexual offenders' present with dominant narrative themes, as observed within the literature with other offending populations. Previous research into sex offender's crime narratives (Ioannou, Canter, Youngs & Synnott, 2015) revealed that sexual offenders endorsed items relating to the victim role to a greater extent than the other three roles ('Revenger', 'Professional', 'Hero'). Acknowledging that the previous research has focussed on sexual offenders in general (rather than by specific victim type), it lends support to the current research hypothesis that child sex offenders will present with one dominant narrative role. Given that there is no known literature on the narratives of child sexual offenders, any hypothesis relating to the specific dominant role would likely be speculative. The null hypothesis will be supported if criminal narrative roles are even distributed within the child sexual offending population.

Finally, this study investigates if narrative roles are correlated with recidivism risk scores. In a similar fashion to study 1, to do this, narrative roles are examined against different levels of risk assessments, including 1) Participants risk of recidivism total scores using the Static-99R; 2) Participants risk of recidivism total scores using the Static-2002R; 3) The latent psychological variables of the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R, namely the 'persistent paraphilia', 'YSA' and 'general criminality' (Brouillette-Alarie et al., 2016) and, 4) individual items on the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R. It is hypothesised that there will be few correlations with overall risk scores, yet the current sample will reflect high scores relating to persistent paraphilia (given the paraphilic nature of their offending).

4.2.3. Objective 3: The third objective is to combine the criminal narratives and emotional experiences (in the form of the Criminal Narrative Experience- CNE) and to determine if their combined emotions and narratives have any correlations with their static risk assessment scores.

To answer objective 3, the third study ('study 3') investigates participants emotional experiences (taken from the emotional experiences of crime questionnaire used in study 1) combined with the narrative roles of offenders (taken from the Narrative Roles Questionnaire used in study 2). Previous research, which analysed 120 cases into offender's narrative experiences, identified four distinct themes, namely, 'Elated Hero', 'Calm Professional', 'Distressed Revenger', and 'Depressed Victim' (Ioannou, Canter and Youngs, 2017). Consistent with past research (i.e., Ioannou et al., 2017), it is hypothesised that child sex offenders in Australia will endorse items that can be categorised into four distinct themes, each containing substantially equivalent variables. It is anticipated that these will be consistent with the 'Elated Hero', 'Calm Professional', 'Distressed Revenger', and 'Depressed Victim'. The null hypothesis is that the variables show little co-variation, poor internal consistency or are unable to be demarcated.

Finally, this study investigates if the CNE facets are correlated with recidivism risk scores. In a similar fashion to study 1 and 2, to do this, CNE themes are examined against different levels of risk assessments, including 1) Participants risk of recidivism total scores using the Static-99R; 2) Participants risk of recidivism total scores using the Static-2002R; 3) The latent psychological variables of the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R, and, 4) individual items on the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R. No known research has been conducted in relation to the CNE and recidivism risk scores for child sexual offenders. Subsequently, it is hypothesised (on the basis of the aforementioned hypothesis identified in relation to the narrative roles and emotional experiences) that the CNE will have no correlations with overall risk scores, although they will be correlated with the latent psychological constructs of these actuarial measures (specifically 'persistent paraphilia').

4.2.4. Objective 4: The final objective is to investigate the roles that offenders assign to their victims in the commissioning of their offences and to determine if these roles have any correlations with their static risk assessment scores.

To answer objective 4, the fourth study ('study 4') examines the roles assigned by child sex offenders to their victims, thereby extending on previous studies. Specifically, the current study intends to investigate if the current sample assigns victims to one of three roles, namely

a 'Person', 'Object' or 'Vehicle'. Canter and Youngs (2012b) applied the victim role model (Canter, 1994) to sexual and violent offenders to elicit the 'power' and 'intimacy' variants in offenders' actions. Subsequently, sexual and violent offenders were allocated to one of three categories, dependant on the role they assigned to their victim ('Person', 'Object' and 'Vehicle'). Consistent with this previous research, it is hypothesised that the current study will elicit criminal actions suggestive of these three victim roles. The null hypothesis would be supported if there was little correlation between variables, little differentiation between sub-groups of variables, or themes extrapolated from the sample, which are thematically inconsistent with previous research.

Finally, study 4 examines if there is any correlation between the roles child sexual offenders assign to their victims and their risk scores using the levels of risk assessment identified in the previous studies (i.e., total scores using the Static-99R, total scores using the Static-2002R, the latent psychological variables of the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R, and, individual items on the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R). Whilst this is a unique study, some specific criminal actions have been empirically linked to the risk of sexual offending (on static actuarial measures). Specifically, the use of violence (as reflected in current study by items; 'use of weapon'; 'excessive violence'; 'using violence to subdue'; 'detain victim'; 'restrain victim'), non-contact sexual offences (as reflected in current research by items: 'masturbate in front of victim'; 'take photographs of victim'; 'show pornography') and offending against a male (as indicated in the present study by item: 'receive anal sex from victim'). Other items have been empirically linked to lower levels of risk, such as offending against a female victim (as reflected in the current study by item 'vaginal intercourse') and knowing the victim before the offence (as reflected by items: 'known', 'grooming'). On the basis of this, and in the absence of any specific studies into the correlation between the narrative framework and static risk of recidivism, it is hypothesised that offenders who assign their victim to the 'Object' role would present with the highest level of risk, followed by the 'Person' and then 'Vehicle' role assignment.

4.3. Aims and objectives summary:

These studies have been designed to elicit rich data about offenders' experiences to reveal the psychological constructs of risk assessments. This research acts as further empirical

support for the applicability of narrative frameworks across a diverse range of offending populations and, in this case, within a highly specific sub-category of offenders. The research has originated from frameworks showing promise as explanatory tools to offending, and the current study aims to expand the utility of criminal narratives and possibly linking them with recidivism risk levels.

4.4. Anticipated contribution to knowledge and chapter summary

This study offers a significant and novel contribution to criminal psychology, irrespective of viewing it from an investigative, forensic or clinical perspective. While previous research has focused on the narrative framework with the general offending populations, the current study places the microscope over a sub-group of offenders, who represent a small percentage of the offending population, yet whose behaviour has an extensive and devastating impact in the broader community. The current study argues that sexual offences against children are fundamentally different from those perpetrated against adult victims and therefore require a specific focus of analysis. The narratives roles and the criminal narrative framework have yet to be explicitly applied to sexual offenders with child victims, and subsequently, the findings of the current study are a novel contribution to knowledge.

There is a paucity of research into the narratives of offenders and their risks of reoffending. While a recent study evaluated the correlations between the CNE and aspects of a risk assessment tool that was applied to a young offender population with histories of non-sexual offences (Ioannou, Synnott, Lowe & Tzani-Pepelasi, 2018), there is no other known research into the CNE framework and risk. Given the authority delegated to actuarial risk assessments scores for sexual offenders within the justice sector, considering the relationship between narrative roles, the CNE frameworks and risk provides an opportunity to explore and compare these frameworks with factors empirically linked to offending behaviour. In NSW, the Static-99R is invariably used as the risk assessment of choice within CSNSW, Justice Health NSW and most clinicians working in private practice. The Static-2002R is gaining traction given recent recommendations indicating the incremental value it provides to the Static-99R risk assessment. Given the prominence of these actuarial tools in clinical practice, any correlations between them and narrative roles, emotional experience or criminal actions serve to provide more information about this specific population, both in terms of their behavioural and

cognitive approaches to crime. It also has potential implications for child sexual offenders' risk of reoffending.

This study takes an interesting approach in that the data has been sourced from the offender, which within itself is unique in the forensic jurisdiction. It provides insight into their offending experiences and potentially sheds light on the latent psychological constructs underpinning empirically derived actuarial risk tools, namely the Static-99R and Static-2002R.

Chapter 5

Methodology and analysis

5.1. Chapter introduction

Exploration of the literature pertaining to sexual offenders and their criminal experiences has resulted in the current research design, consisting of four independent studies. When combined, there are discernible themes within these research projects, which, when integrated, provide a wholesome account of child sexual offenders experiences from a narrative perspective. This chapter offers the methodological procedures utilised in these studies, including reflections on the initial research design.

5.2. Participants

5.2.1. Identifying participants

At the time that the data was collected, I (the researcher and author) was working as a Specialist Forensic Psychologist for Corrective Services New South Wales (CSNSW). I was employed in the Custody-Based Intensive Treatment (CUBIT) unit, which is located within a specifically purposed subsection of the Metropolitan Special Programs Centre (MSPC), Long Bay Correctional Complex. This program is designed for high-risk sexual offenders who are housed in a therapeutic environment for the duration of treatment. My primary role in this context was to provide assessment and intervention to high-risk sex offenders in custody.

In my capacity as a Specialist Forensic Psychologist for CSNSW, I was part of a broader team of specialist psychologists within Sex and Violent Offender Programs (SVOPT). This provided me with access to the CSNSW offender database, which contained information relating to inmate's offence histories, index offence and gaol of classification (i.e., their location at the time). This allowed me to identify potential participants for this research.

5.2.2. Selection of participants

Participants in custody were identified using databases available to me as an employee of CSNSW (as approved by relevant ethics boards). Specifically, potential participants were randomly selected via one of three means:

- The Sexual and Violent Offender Therapeutic Programs (SVOTP) database;
- Serious Offender Assessment Unit (SOAU) 'gaol detailed list'; and,
- Corporate Research Evaluation and Statistics (CRES) 'monthly snapshot'.

Potential participants in the community were selected randomly via one of four means:

- Forensic Psychology Services (FPS) database;
- Community Offender Support Program (COSP) 'detailed list';
- Community Offender Support (COS) lists; and,
- CRES 'monthly snapshot'.

Initially, the research design intended to recruit equal numbers of community and custody-based participants. As such, for inclusion, the participants needed to be:

- Incarcerated in a CSNSW facility, housed in a COSP, attending FPS, or attending a Probation and Parole Office (now referred to as Community Corrections);
- Classified to the Sydney Metropolitan Region;
- Able to undertake self-completed questionnaires (i.e. sufficient literacy and intellectual functioning); and,
- Willing and able to give informed consent to participate in the study.

To ensure effective data collection and to preserve the rights of the participant, individuals were excluded if:

- They failed to meet the inclusion criteria;
- They were on remand or on bail (unsentenced offenders);
- They had been identified by State-wide Disability Services as having an Intellectual Disability (IQ under 80) or as being illiterate;
- They were assessed as posing a significant safety risk to the researcher, other offenders, themselves, CSNSW, or the community (as determined by alerts on the Offenders Integrated Management System);
- They were participating in a Sex Offender Treatment Program;
- They were undergoing treatment and/or assessment at the time by the researcher;
- They did not wish to participate in the study; or
- They withdrew their consent at any time.

As mentioned earlier, the initial research was designed to assess equal numbers of custody-based and community-based participants. Whilst this would have been ideal, accessing community-based participants proved more difficult and was assessed as presenting unmanageable risks. With regard to access difficulties, given that this research occurred during core business hours and the emphasis placed on offenders to seek employment in the community by CSNSW, participants in the community were often unavailable to participate as they were working or actively seeking vocational opportunities. As such, a gross proportionate of participants came from within the custodial environment, as these individuals were readily available for participation.

With regards to potential risks, it was also assessed that the community-based sample presented with additional factors which outweighed the desire for a balanced sample. These risks related to the potential for intentional harm perpetrated by the participant towards the researcher (as a known employee of CSNSW) in an insecure environment, the potential for self-injurious behaviour after the interview by the participant due to reflecting on offending behaviour in the absence of custody-based support services, and, the possibility to destabilise participants in the community by rehashing crime details, having the potential to unknowingly eliciting acute factors for the risk of recidivism. These factors were unable to be satisfactorily mitigated, and subsequently, the current study primarily focuses on sexual offenders in custody. Given that the present study is evaluating a cohort of participants (child sexual offenders) rather than specific stages of treatment or progress through the criminal justice system, the small community-based sample in the current research is considered appropriate.

5.2.3. Recruitment of participants

Fortunately, as an employee of CSNSW, I had relatively unrestricted access to MSPC facilities, which encompassed three custodial centres and a custody-based hospital. As such, potential participants were approached in either their wing (housing location), place of work or an educational site. Knowledge of standard operating procedures and centre routine (e.g., timings for 'let go', 'muster' and standard working hours) provided estimated locations of offenders through the Centre and facilitated participants being approached at any time throughout core business hours. Before approaching potential participants, their position was confirmed through phone-based communication to their supervising staff (e.g., custodial

officers, overseers, educational staff, etc.). With permission from their supervising staff, potential participants were directed into a private interview room, where the study was explained to them. At this time, they were provided with an information sheet outlining the objectives of the study, including the expectations of them, should they agree to participate (see Appendix C). Offenders were advised that participation was voluntary and that non-participation would have no adverse consequences for them.

Initially, offenders were asked to participate in the study at the time of introduction. It was observed, however, that offenders were requesting time to consider the proposal or had conflicting commitments at that time. As such, offenders were asked to participate in the study at a later date. If participants agreed to participate, a rough outline of their weekly schedule was documented to determine when in the near future, they might have been available. On occasion, a predetermined appointment was made, whereas, on other occasions, they were contacted at a time suitable to both them and the researcher.

5.2.4. Participant demographic summary

A total of 40 men were examined in the present study. Thirty-six (36) of the total sample were men convicted of sexual offences against children, who were at the time of the research serving a custodial sentence and were incarcerated in goals across the Sydney metropolitan region of NSW. A further four (4) male offenders were convicted of sexual offences against children; one (1) was serving a community-based sentence, whereas the other three (3) had been released from custody having served their sentence and were under the supervision of CSNSW Community Corrections. The all-male sample ranged in age 22-years to 72 years, with an average age of 45-years. They had all been convicted for sexual offences against a child, although the nature of these offences varied.

5.2.5. Supervision of participants

With permission from custodial staff, in accordance with CSNSW policies and procedures and as per agreement with the CSNSW ethics board, I was able to escort offenders to an appropriate interview location. Although I was interviewing offenders as part of a university-based research project, I maintained my responsibility as a CSNSW employee to supervise offenders in my custody. I had access to centre keys/fobs, which allowed free access

throughout the centre. Whilst there was no direct line-of-site supervision of inmates by Correctional Officers, I wore a duress alarm (as per standard procedures for staff working in MSPC facilities) and maintained safety procedures whilst in contact with offenders. Previous safety and security training had been undertaken in a vocational context.

5.3. Facilities

To preserve confidentiality and provide an environment conducive to making disclosures, participants were interviewed in a private interview room. This generally occurred within an Offender Services and Programs building, which are specifically designed to facilitate interviews of such nature, with the security of inmates and staff in mind.

5.4. Material

This investigation used the CYNIPv1 questionnaire (see Appendix D) developed by Canter and Youngs (2012) from a pilot study that evaluated the narratives of general offenders (i.e., not explicitly sexual offenders). The CY-NEIPv1 is comprised of a semi-structured interview schedule, with a number of surveys dispersed throughout the interview.

Given some observed nuances between British and Australian colloquialisms, some minor modifications were made to the questionnaire (with the permission of the authors) to represent the current study demographics. For example, the term 'giro' is uncommonly used in Australia and subsequently was replaced with 'credit card'. Further, questions relating to monetary sums were changed into corresponding Australian currency at the time of assessment. The general content of the questionnaire remained unchanged. The sections of the CYNEIPv1 were as follows:

5.4.1. Description of crime

Participants were asked to give a free-flowing, personal account of a sexual offence for which they have been convicted and which they could remember. If information was missing, they were then asked additional explorative and open-ended questions relating to the lead up to the crime, events which occurred during the offence and how they were arrested. Descriptions of the crime were tape-recorded for future analysis.

5.4.2. Emotional experiences of crime questionnaire

Participants in the current study were provided with a list of 26 emotions relating to their offending experiences. This questionnaire was initially developed by Canter and Ioannou (2004) with the aim to encapsulate the full spectrum of emotions proposed in Russell's (1997) circumplex. Canter and Ioannou (2004) based the statements on self-reported emotional experiences of 83 convicted offenders.

The 26 emotion statements were read verbatim to the participant by the researcher and, consistent with the main crime narrative, were audio recorded for future analysis. Participants were asked to respond to emotions based on the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement, based on a five-point scale Likert scale ('not at all' = 1, 'just a little' = 2, 'some' = 3, 'a lot' = 4, 'very much' = 5). A Likert scale not only allowed for more response elaboration than dichotomous responses (e.g., presence or absence of a variable) but also enabled researchers to evaluate the intensity of the emotional experiences.

5.4.3. Narrative roles questionnaire (NRQ)

The roles offenders viewed themselves as playing during a sexual offence were examined through the implementation of the NRQ. The initial version of the NRQ (Canter, Kaouri & Ioannou, 2003) contained 20 items, although this was later revised (Youngs & Canter, 2012) to include additional statements. Participants in the current study were provided with a list of 46 offending experiences, each of which has been associated with a broad spectrum of criminal experiences. These experiential statements were read verbatim to participants by the researcher, and participants were asked to respond to statements based on the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each stated experience, based on a five-point scale Likert scale ('not at all' = 1, 'just a little' = 2, 'some' = 3, 'a lot' = 4, 'very much' = 5). A Likert scale allowed participants to provide more elaborate responses.

5.4.4. Demographic questionnaire

Questions were posed to participants relating to their demographic background. These included enquiries relating to their personal background, such as developmental experiences, ethnicity, age, educational, and vocational history. The questionnaire also explored their family histories, such as their parent's occupation and history of criminal convictions.

Information relating to the participant's criminal history was collected, including that relating to their sexual, non-sexual and incarceration history. It also posed questions pertaining to juvenile delinquency. The demographic questionnaire used in this study can be found within the CYNEIPv1 protocol (Appendix D).

5.4.5. The D60 self-report offending questionnaire

Styles of offending behaviour was assessed using a questionnaire consisting of 60 statements relating to offending and/or antisocial behaviour. The initial questionnaire, referred to as the D45, contained 45 items (Youngs, 2004) and was based on items previously used in previous (such as Nye & Short, 1956; Sharpland, 1978; Hindelang, Hirschi & Weis, 1981; Elliott & Ageton, 1980; Furnham & Thompson, 1991, cited in Youngs, 2004). Scoring of the original measure involved participants indicating the frequency in which they had carried out each of the 45 items, from 'never', 'once or twice', 'a few times', 'many times' to 'many times (more than 50 times)'. The questionnaire used in the current research was an extended version of Youngs (2004) D45, retitled D60 to reflect the number of expressed statements.

The list of 60 criminal or anti-social behaviour were listed, and subjects were asked to identify how prevalent this behaviour was (i.e., "actually shot at someone with a gun", "taken ecstasy", "acted as a 'watch' or 'lookout' for someone else" etc.). A five-point Likert scale was used to identify the frequency of these behaviours ("never", "once or twice", "a few times - less than 10", "quite often -10-50 times", "very often -more than 50"). This was utilised in the current study for demographical analysis and offending background comparison between criminal actions.

The implementation of the D60 required a different administrative procedure to the previously mentioned assessment items. In NSW, psychologists are considered 'mandatory reporters' under s316 of the NSW Crimes Act (1900). Therefore, it is a legislative requirement that any crime-related information reported by the participant about a crime for which they haven't been charged or convicted needed to be reported to the NSW police in consultation with the CSNSW legal team. Needing to balance this critical reporting responsibility with the desire to obtain accurate information about participants history, they were asked to self-complete this questionnaire at the end of the interview. They were reminded of this section

of the NSW Crimes Act (1900) and provided information about the devised procedure to protect them from inadvertently self-incriminating. It was also hoped that by having this frank discussion with participants, it provided them with an opportunity to ask questions about their information security and encouraged them to provide accurate information knowing that measures were implemented for their protection.

Given this, participants were requested to complete the questionnaire independently and whilst they were encouraged to ask questions if required, they were reminded not to pass comment on their responses. They were then asked to place the questionnaire in a sealed envelope, and in doing so, ensure that there were no identifying marks (such as their offender identification number or name) on either the response sheet or the envelope. Each envelope was coded, allowing for anonymity and allowing individual questionnaires to be excluded if a participant had withdrawn from the study.

5.4.6. Static-99R and Static-2002R

The Static-99R (Helmus, Thornton, Hanson & Babchishin, 2011) is a commonly used, empirically derived actuarial risk assessment tool that can be employed to assess an individual's risk of sexual recidivism (Brouillette-Alarie, Babchishin, Hanson & Helmus, 2016). The predecessor to this tool, the Static-99 (Hanson & Thornton, 2000), was a 10-item instrument developed for use with the adult male sexual offending population. In 2012, the 'age' item on the Static-99 was altered, giving rise to the most recent version of the measure, the Static-99R (Helmus, Thornton, Hanson & Babchishin, 2011). According to test developers, *"Static-99/R is the most widely used sex offender risk assessment instrument in the world and is extensively used in the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, Australia, and many European nations"* (Ducro, 2019). The Static-2002R is a 14-item actuarial measure, which is intended to position offenders in terms of their relative degree of sexual recidivism. Stringent coding rules are applied to score each of the items, which have independently been empirically linked to sexual recidivism.

In accordance with the test developers coding rules (Harris, Phenix, Hanson & Thornton, 2003), official documentation was collected for each of the participants. The nature of the documentation varied depending on availability at the time of data collection. Not all

available official information was collected, as this was considered unnecessary for the purpose of the current research. Invariably, NSW Police criminal history bail reports were obtained, as were any criminal histories for commonwealth or interstate offences. The Judges Sentencing Remarks (JSR) were generally saved from official archives, and in their absence, attempts were made to access these records through publicly available information sources (e.g., Law Link). In cases where JSR's were unavailable (such as being heard in lower Courts or being subject to suppression orders), other collateral information was sought. This was in the form of offence-specific treatment reports, pre-sentence reports and/or Probation and Parole pre-release reports. Sufficient information by which to score the Static-99R and Static-2002R was available for all participants.

5.5. Coding the criminal actions

A list of potential offending behaviours for child sexual offenders was developed, using as a starting basis, Canter and Heritage (1990) 33 rape actions which were derived from 66 stranger rapes. This list of sex offender styles has also been used in the Canter and Youngs (2012) application of the victim role assignments model. Whilst this provided a foundation of possible criminal actions for the current study, many of the 'rape actions' were not relevant to the child sex offending population. Further, a large proportion of offences committed by participants in the current sample were against victims known to them prior to committing the offence, therefore eliminating criminal actions associated with stranger offences (such as blindfolding). As such, those offence actions specific to stranger rape were deleted from the list. The criminal actions of child sex offenders, as identified within Canter, Hughes & Kirby's (1998) research, was also reviewed. Interestingly, Canter et al. (1998) identify the importance of evaluating the entire SSA plots, including places where no variables are situated. Specifically, in relation to their findings, they identified that

It can be hypothesised that the current sample of data does not include actions which would have mapped into these locations. For example, the empty circular region surrounding the centroid of the modulating facet would likely comprise behavioural variables relating to the offender approach strategy...Within the intimate region, missing behavioural variables are hypothesised to be consistent with the seductive style of offending...In the aggressive region, the missing values are those that would

result in injury or death of the child...within the criminal-opportunities region, missing values are those that related to criminal activity (Canter et al., 1998, pages 549-550).

With this, it was identified that more variables were needed in areas identified as being absent in this previous research. As such, to refine and extend the list of offence actions, 10 peers were asked to assist in the project. These peers were all accredited forensic psychologists, had a minimum of 10 years of experience working within the forensic context and were specifically trained and experienced in the assessment and treatment of sexual offenders. Each psychologist was asked to develop a list of criminal actions commonly associated with sexual offences against children, regardless of victim characteristics or offence type. These responses were collated, and a list of 48 criminal actions was developed. These were considered in light of using Canter and Heritage (1990) 33 rape actions and the criminal actions within child molestation, as identified by Canter, Hughes & Kirby (1998). A total list of 33 offence actions relevant to child sexual offenders was created on the basis of previously identified criminal actions within adult rapes, the list of common sexual actions identified by 10 experts in a relevant field, and those gaps identified within research conducted by Canter et al., (1998). These behaviours have all been identified within the literature as being associated with sexual offences against children. It is noted that all of the criminal actions are related to the offender himself, rather than actions associated with the victim's responses. The list of the criminal actions, an overview of coding instructions and a reference taken from the literature identifying them as criminal actions found within child sexual abuse are outlined in Appendix E.

5.6. Ethical considerations and approval

5.6.1. Approval

Applications to conduct the research were submitted to the CSNSW and the University of Huddersfield human ethics boards. I was invited and subsequently attended a meeting for the CSNSW human ethics board, where I was able to present the research proposal and discuss any concerns relating to the research design. Generally, the board were supportive of the research, although requested amendments relating to the 'research information' sheet, explicitly asking that an external contact from CSNSW be added to the form.

Given that participants were accessed from within custodial settings with security classifications ranging from low to high security, the ethics board also discussed the risks of introducing a recording device into a facility. It was agreed that the Manager of Security of each facility be notified in writing that this item would be introduced and that it was to be kept in a secure area (specifically my professional office) when not in use.

The CSNSW human ethics department expressed concern about participants motivation for participation and the risk of them potentially viewing research participation as favourable for allocation into a sexual offender treatment group (which generally corresponds with an earlier release). To negate this, participants were advised that the research was being conducted by the University of Huddersfield and had no affiliation with CSNSW. As such, offenders were informed that participation in the study was voluntary and that refusal to participate would have no adverse consequences on their treatment pathway. Conversely, those who agreed to participate were advised that research participation would not influence their treatment pathway or allow them quicker entry into a therapeutic program.

The CSNSW human ethics board also requested verbal confirmation that I (the researcher) would not recruit participants from my CBUIT current treatment group. They asked that participants not be recruited at times when they were actively engaged in any criminogenic program, regardless of the facilitator. As it were, there were offenders in the sample who participated in the study and were later allocated to my treatment group; however, this allocation was the result of standard procedures and unrelated to the research project. The CSNSW human ethics board were aware of this, and there were no restrictions in this regard.

5.6.2. Informed consent

As mentioned earlier, all offenders who were approached and spoken to about this study were provided with a research information sheet (see Appendix C). This described the nature of the research and explained the intended interview format. This also contained the contact details of an external person to the study, namely the Director of Sexual and Violent Offender Programs, with whom they could contact should they feel the need. They were also provided

with my contact details and, for those in custody, a note for their supervising Correctional Officers politely requesting they allow the inmate to call me regarding the research if needed.

If offenders declined to participate in the research, they were thanked for their time, and their details were subsequently removed from the potential candidate list. For offenders who agreed to participate in the research, they were provided with a 'Research Consent Form' (see Appendix F), which was used to obtain written consent from the participants and was witnessed by a colleague (generally a welfare officer or fellow psychologist). Participants were advised of the measures implemented to protect their personal information, although as a matter of transparency, the limits to confidentiality as a mandatory reporter under the Crimes Act, 1900 were discussed with the participant.

5.6.3. Debriefing

At the conclusion of the interview, subjects were thanked for their co-operation and were provided with casual debriefing. They were again offered my details should they need to discuss their participation further or if they wanted to withdraw from the study. Participants were reminded of the avenues to access professional support should they experience any distress as a result of discussing sensitive information. Specifically, participants were encouraged to submit a referral to welfare, psychology or chaplaincy services in the event of distress. Offenders were generally screened for self-harming histories prior to participation in the research, yet they were reminded of the process to report any suicidal ideation or other self-injurious intent to Justice Health or Corrective Services staff. Participants in the community were encouraged to discuss any intense or concerning emotions with their treating psychologist or Community Corrections Officer. Participants in custody were casually approached over the weeks following their participation as a means for them to access support should it be required.

5.6.4. Confidentiality

Given that I was well known amongst inmates in MSPC and was known to work within sex offender programs, I was required to take additional measures to ensure participant confidentiality was maintained. By virtue of meeting with me, other offenders may have easily extrapolated the nature of participants offending, thereby breaching their confidentiality. It

is particularly essential to preserve the offence-related confidentiality of child sexual offenders in custody, as they are often targeted by other offenders as retribution for their offending behaviour. In an attempt to mitigate this, inmates and staff were advised that the research was being conducted to evaluate the narratives of all offenders rather than pertaining only to child sexual offenders. Within individual interviews, participants were given information and consent forms relating to the actual research topic 'the narratives of child sexual offenders' yet were informally advised that this was part of a broader international project into the narratives of general offenders. Although no non-sex offenders were interviewed for the purpose of this study, the research does contribute to a larger project undertaken by the International Research Centre for Investigative Psychology (IRCIP).

5.6.5. Motivation for participation

Most offenders were willing to participate in the research, and those who declined did so after failing to meet inclusion criteria (e.g., were active appellants). In describing their motivation for participating in the research, many subjects commented on the perceived positive benefits for them, specifically in relation to upcoming treatment (e.g., being good practice speaking about their offending behaviour before being required to do so in a group context). Those who had completed offence-specific treatment often commented that they had become accustomed to speaking about intimate (and often confronting) aspects of their life in a group format and that this alleviated any anxiety towards participating in the research with an individual researcher. Several participants also expressed interest to communicate their offences from their personal perspective, rather than from official documents (e.g., Judges Sentencing Remarks), which are heavily relied upon within the justice system (e.g., for classification reviews, release decisions etc.). To their credit, several participants expressed motivation to participate in the research to reduce sexual offending rates by providing proactive support and intervention to men at risk of sexual offending in the community. Further, they expressed the benefits of research in general as it has the potential to assist in the provision of streamlined, effective and evidence-based therapeutic interventions to minimise unnecessarily being detained into their parole period and to reduce rates of sexual and general recidivism. A couple of participants candidly admitted that participating in the research served to avoid work and/or to engage in something novel in an otherwise mundane daily routine.

5.7. Analysis

The data were examined using a variety of advanced statistical analysis techniques, including descriptive and bivariate statistics and smallest space analysis. These were conducted utilising two software programs, namely the well-known Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and the Hebrew University Data Analysis Package (HUDAP). Below is a summary of the statistical techniques used in this study, along with definitions of important concepts, theories underpinning their conception and explanations for utilisation.

5.7.1. Facet Theory

Facet theory has its roots in Scalogram analysis and was developed by the late Louis Guttman during World War 11 (Guttman, R. & Greenbaum, 1998). Guttman was tasked at the time with providing accurate data to United States Military Officers about soldier's attitudes and was required to do so in a time-pressured environment. Prior to the war, Guttman had contributed to research projects using monographs, and for the purpose of war-time reporting, elaborated on these studies (in collaboration with his peers) to develop scalogram analysis. It has been stated:

A scalogram analysis...provided a means for assessing whether a finite collection of conceptually related variables...represented a unidimensional – and hence scalable-content. An important property of a scalable universe is that the ordering of persons based on the sample reflects the ordering based on the universe, and from that, a sample of attributes, one can draw inferences about the universe of attributes. (Guttman, L., 1944, in Guttman. R, & Greenbaum, 1998, p14).

In response to some limitations in scalogram analysis and factor analysis, including the absence of precise definitions, Guttman developed Facet Theory (1954). Essentially, facet theory is “*a way of developing, organising and performing qualitative research*” (Foster, Barkus & Yavorsky, 2005, p124). According to Canter (1983), facet theory utilises three main principles: 1) formal definitions of variables being studied, 2) hypothesis of a relationship between the defined variables and empirical observations, and 3) the rationale for the relationship between (1) and (2). Guttman and Greenbaum (1998) identified five main principles: 1) theory construction, 2) research design, 3) choice of observation, 4) data

analysis, and 5) interpretation. Facet theory has been described as a “*research package*” rather than a “*statistical technique*” in that it assists with each stage of a research project (Foster, Barkus & Yavorsky, 2005 p 124).

Regarding commonly used terms, a ‘facet’ is a concept introduced by Guttman in 1954 and is described as “*a set of attributes (variables) that together represent underlying conceptual and semantic concepts*” (Guttman. R, & Greenbaum, 1998, p 17). Within the facet (or ‘set’ using mathematical terms), items are referred to as ‘elements’. Facets must be conceptually distinct from other facets, and elements within a facet are required to be mutually exclusive concepts. A facet “*maybe, in essence, any way of categorising observations so long as the elements of the category scheme are mutually exclusive*” (Canter, 1983, p 37). The ‘domain’ is the product of all facets observed in the study and subsequent elements within (Guttman et al., 1998). A ‘mapping sentence’, used in theory construction and is considered as one of the basic features of facet theory (Borg, 1981). According to Foster et al. (2005), a mapping sentence is

A formalised way of asking a question that ‘maps’ onto the observations made in a piece of research. The word ‘maps’ here means exactly what it would in a geographical sense. Landforms, roads and towns have observed characteristics that are represented by maps, and the mapping sentence represents a similar situation where the observed characteristics of a social phenomenon (for example) are represented in the sentence. (Foster, Barkus & Yavorsky, 2005 p 126).

5.7.2. Smallest Space Analysis (SSA- Lingoos, 1973)

An SSA is a multivariate technique used to analyse complex datasets, with both qualitative and quantitative data (Foster et al., 2005). The non-metric procedure geometrically represents the data in such a manner to highlight the intercorrelations between all variables, allowing for efficient analysis of complex datasets. The basis of the visual representation is that highly correlated variables will be plotted within proximity of one another, whereas distance will be observed between less correlated variables. To achieve this, an SSA uses rank order intercorrelations to visually represent each variables relationship with every other variable. Because highly correlated variables share proximity within the multidimensional space, facets form within the SSA are based on variables with similar conceptual content. It is

referred to as ‘smallest space analysis’ because the analysis aims to represent the information in the smallest dimensionality possible. The SSA isn’t significantly different from a factor analysis, which is frequently used within social science research, but rather presents the results in graphical output. An SSA can be used in isolation from facet theory, although their combination provides structure to assist with research development and analysis (Foster et al., 2005).

In the current study, SSA was used to explore the correlations between variables relating to offender narrative roles, emotional experiences during crime and roles assigned by offenders to the victims. SSA was also used to explore the co-occurrence of offender’s narrative roles and their emotional experiences in one domain. The effectiveness of SSA as a statistical analysis technique has been demonstrated in past research projects into criminal narratives (Youngs, 2004; Canter & Youngs, 2012; Spruin, Canter, Youngs, & Coulston, 2014; Ioannou, Canter, Youngs, Synnott, 2015; Ioannou, Canter & Youngs, 2017). As such, it is the choice of analysis for the current research project.

5.7.3. Stress, hypothesis testing, regionality and internal consistency

One of the strengths of SSA is that it visually depicts the correlations between variables based on their rank order rather than the absolute values (Guttman, 1968). For this to occur and to achieve the ‘smallest’ space analysis, the SSA program repeatedly calculates the rank order of correlations with the distance between each point. This process is referred to as ‘stress’, and the intent of the repeated analysis is to achieve the lowest level of stress possible. As a representation of the final level of stress, the SSA program produces a score, referred to as a coefficient of alienation. Put simply, *“the smaller the coefficient of alienation, the greater the correspondence to the original correlational data”* (Ciesla, Ioannou & Hammond, 2018, p. 294). The coefficient of alienation is represented as a score between zero (0) and one (1), with zero (0) representing a perfect fit between the visual representation and the original correlation. Delineating the coefficient of alienation as being ‘good’ or ‘bad’ in a rigid manner is considered overly simplistic (Borg, 1987), and subsequently, it is recommended that other factors be considered. Despite this, Guttman (1968) considered a coefficient under 0.15 to be a ‘good fit’ and a coefficient of alienation between 0.15 and 0.20 to be a ‘reasonably good fit’.

An important aspect of facet theory is postulating hypothesis relating to which variables will be correlated and subsequently closely placed within the domain. After the SSA has been run, a visual inspection of the output is then performed to determine themes within the correlated variables, with the intent to determine if the current analysis is consistent with the research hypothesis. As mentioned earlier, the propinquity of variables of equivalent content will cause regions of variables to be formed, from which boundary lines can be inserted to define elements and facets. This is termed 'regionality'. According to Youngs and Canter

Lines are positioned on the plot to distinguish regions of substantially equivalent, contiguous items. Consistent with the notion of systemic rather than sharply demarcated structures for human phenomena, there is no mathematically precise position for the lines because they are taken to indicate boundary conditions between defined regions (2012, p. 15).

To estimate the reliability of each theme, as determined by the internal consistency of the variables assigned, Cronbach's Alpha analyses were performed on each of the regions within a given domain. Alpha coefficients scores range from 0 – 1 and can be used to explain the reliability of factors based on dichotomous data and that extracted from Likert scales. As such, they were a suitable measure of internal consistency for all the studies in this thesis. If $\alpha = 0$, it suggests that the variables are independent of one another (i.e., not correlated), whereas when α approaches 1, this suggests that the items are highly correlated, potentially measuring the same concept. Whilst there doesn't appear to be any universally accepted level of α ; ideally, the Cronbach alpha coefficient should be above 0.7 (DeVillis, 2012), although above 0.5 is considered acceptable (Goforth, 2015). That being said, standards for internal consistency are generally considered to be arbitrary and should be interpreted with other methodological considerations.

5.8. Assigning cases

Whilst the SSA highlights the correlations of variables based on aggregated scores, it doesn't provide any information about individual participants and their test-taking tendencies. Whilst this is acceptable when examining groups of individuals (in this case, child sexual offenders), there are times when identifying an individual's responses can be advantageous. In the current research, when individual responses were necessitated, the proportion of endorsed

responses to questionnaire items (and subsequent variables) were calculated, giving rise to dominance in one or more SSA derived theme. The same procedure for case assignment was used in each of the studies, although naturally, the theme to which they were assigned depended on the nature of the individual study. It is noted that a stringent criterion was attempted, as observed in similar studies of this nature (see Canter & Fritzon, 1998; Salfati, 2000; Ioannou, Canter & Youngs, 2017; Ioannou, Synnott, Lowe & Tzani-pepelasi, 2018). Specifically, previous research has allocated an individual on the basis of their scores on one theme being greater than the sum of scores on the remaining themes. Results using this stringent approach with the current population weren't promising, with no participants being assigned to the dominant theme. The causes of this and the limitations this brings to the research are discussed in the limitations section of this thesis.

Given the exploratory stage of this research, it was considered important to allocate as many participants to dominant groups as possible. As such, a less stringent method of allocation was adopted. Further, it is noted that this less stringent criterion has been utilised within similarly contented published research in the recent past (for example, Goodlad, Ioannou & Hunter, 2019), noting that their criteria were less stringent than that used within the current research.

An overview of the allocation process is as follows. The first step of assigning cases was to identify the variables contained within each theme, and individual's responses to each of these variables were tallied. Given the unequal number of variables in each theme, the totals were considered in light of the highest possible response for that theme and subsequently transformed into percentages.

The next step involved cases being classified to a theme based on a pre-set criterion. Specifically, if the percentage of the dominant theme was greater than the remaining themes by 5%, it was allocated to a single theme. As mentioned earlier, this method of classification has been used in previous research relating to the forensic population, although with variance between studies in relation to the threshold for percentage differences between scores (noting that previous studies have used more stringent criteria). On the occasion when there were two themes with equal percentages (or less than the required 5% between themes), a

hybrid theme was created. If more than two themes had equal percentages (or within 5% of the third theme), the individual was considered as being uncategorizable. As pointed out by Salfati (2000) in relation to violent offenders, *“it is important to state that this segment of the analysis is not looking at offenders who belong exclusively to one theme...rather this segment will look at the predominant theme that an offender exhibits”* (Salfati, 2000, p. 283).

Again, whilst this classification methodology isn't as stringent as observed in some previous studies (for example, Salfati, 2000), the lower allocation threshold was considered adequate given the current research methodology. Specifically, the current research accepts the contiguous nature of the data and acknowledge that participants potentially endorsed items from a number (if not all) themes. As such, the purpose of assigning cases to themes was not to define typologies but rather to explore the criminal narratives of child sex offenders and their dominant traits. It is anticipated that this allocation criterion will allow for maximum case assignment, which given the research sample size, is considered important for deriving meaningful outcomes.

5.9. Regression and Correlation Analysis

Multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine if the narrative outcomes (i.e., narrative roles, affective states and crime scene behaviours) were predictive of risk scores on the Static-99R and Static-2002R (along with the combined latent constructs). In addition, correlation analyses were conducted to identify the relationship between the variables. This was particularly helpful in understanding the correlations between individual risk factors and individual items from questionnaires. The outcome from the correlation analysis is a score ranging from -1 to 1. A negative score indicates a negative relationship between the variables (i.e., as one score increases, the other decreases) where the opposite is true for positive scores. The strength of the relationship is depicted by the closeness the score is to 1 (or -1). A score (r) between .10 and .29 is considered small, .30 to .49 is medium and .50 to 1.0 is considered large (Cohen, 1988).

5.10. Chapter summary

The methodology and analysis of these studies were carefully constructed to meet the research objectives by taking into consideration previous research of a similar nature. Whilst

there were substantial benefits to conducting research on a population with whom I, as a solo researcher and author, am professionally familiar and to who I had persistent access in a professional capacity, this also posed some challenges to the research design. These barriers were overcome through consultation with ethics boards (namely CSNSW and the University of Huddersfield), university supervisors, professional CSNSW supervisors, offenders (including potential and actual participants), and CSNSW staff (primarily Correctional Officers). Further, changes were made to protocols used in previous research (such as the administrative procedure for the D60) to protect the rights of participants and maintain strong ethical practices in research.

The psychometrics used in this research (with the exception of the criminal actions coding framework used to elicit the victim role assignment themes) weren't novel yet were considered unique to this sample (child sexual offenders). Rather, they have been derived from previous research and considered appropriate for research of this nature. Similarly, analysis of the data collected was conducted using advanced statistical techniques which have been used effectively in past research into offenders narratives and their criminal experiences (Canter & Fritzon, 1998; Salfati, 2000; Ioannou, Canter & Youngs, 2017; Ioannou, Synnott, Lowe & Tzani-pepelasi, 2018).

Chapter 6

Descriptive statistics

6.1. A brief summary of the sampled population

At the time of the interview, participants of this study were under the supervision of Corrective Services New South Wales (CSNSW). They were extrapolated from the CSNSW offender population from one of three sources: the CSNSW Offender Integrated Management System (OIMS), Client Information Management System (CIMS) or the CSNSW Sex Offender Programmes Database.

Offenders of all classifications were able to participate in the research, although they had to be sentenced and under the supervision of CSNSW at the time of the interview. To preserve due process, active appellants to either their conviction or severity of sentence were ineligible for participation.

The sample initially consisted of 45 participants, although five were later withdrawn due to either the nature of their offences (e.g., non-contact sexual offences including possession of child abuse material) or having 'categorically' denied their offence. Categorical denial is defined as the complete absence of responsibility taking or lying (i.e., "I did not commit any crime") rather than denying aspects of the crime or minimising responsibility, coerciveness, intrusiveness etc. Categorical deniers were withdrawn as it was thought to have inhibited their capacity to respond to psychometric test items. Additionally, the nature of this psychological construct potentially represents a qualitatively different concept than the minimisations and cognitive distortions often associated with aberrant social behaviour, in this case, sexual offending.

Thirty-six (90%) interviewees were serving custodial sentences at the time of their participation, housed at the time in a gazetted correctional centre managed by CSNSW (namely the Metropolitan Special Programs Centre, Long Bay Correctional Centre). The remainder of the sample (10%, n=4) had been released from custody on parole and were living in the community under the supervision of Community Corrections (ComCor).

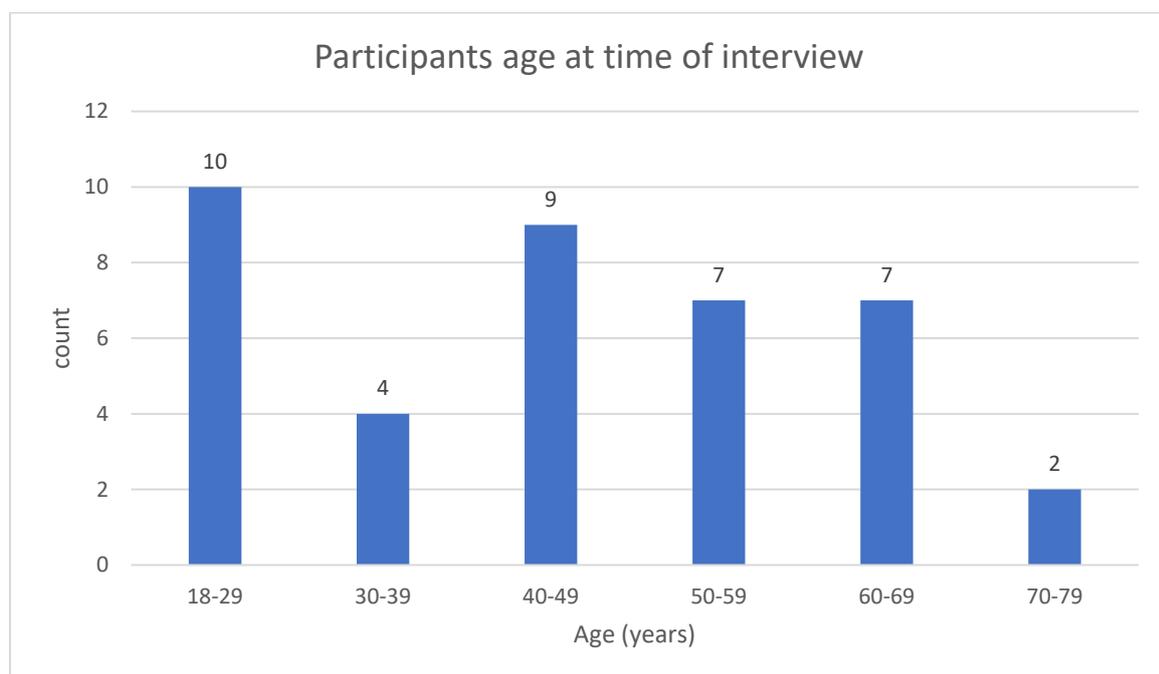
6.2. Age demographics

Participants were aged between 22 and 72 years (m= 45 years) at the time of the interview (Figure 6.1). According to the NSW Custody Statistics Quarterly Update June 2019 (NSW

Bureau of Crime Statistics and Research- BOCSAR, 2019), the average age of incarcerated males in NSW was 37.1, which is younger than the average age of the current sample. Upon request, BOCSAR provided raw data relating to sexual offenders in NSW for the purpose of the current study. Subsequent to a descriptive analysis of their data, the average age of child sex offenders convicted in 2018 was 44.9 years. This suggests that the age demographics of the current sample reflect that of the wider sexual offending (child victim) population in NSW.

Figure 6.1

Age distribution of the current sample of child sex offenders (N=40)



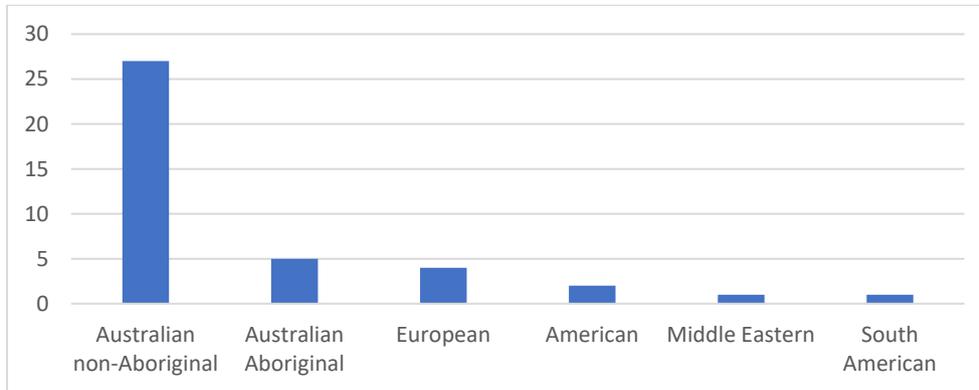
6.3. Ethnicity

The current sample primarily consisted of men who identified as “Australian non-Aboriginal” (68%, n=27). A small number identified as Australian Aboriginal (13%, n=5), with the remainder of the sample identifying as being European (10%, n= 4), American (5%, n=2), Middle Eastern (2.5%, n=1) and South American (2.5%, n=1) (see Figure 6.2). According to the BOCSAR (2019), Indigenous males are overrepresented within the general offending population, consisting of 25% (n=3063) of all offenders incarcerated within NSW (n= 12,457). In relation to sexual offenders, 14.39% of all sexual offenders incarcerated in NSW identified as being Aboriginal. Specific to the child sexual offending population, 12.16% of child sexual offenders incarcerated in NSW identified as being Aboriginal. This suggests that the current

sample generally reflects the greater Indigenous child sex offending population within CSNSW custodial centres.

Figure 6.2

Ethnicity of sample



6.4. Developmental and family demographics

Of the sample, 90% (n=36) was raised by one or both of their biological parents, two were parented by extended family, and the remaining two were raised in out of home care.

According to 85% of the sample, their parents had no known criminal convictions (n=34). Of those who disclosed parental criminal histories (15%, n=6), half believed that their parent(s) had been convicted for violent offences, whilst the remaining half described the nature of their parents offending as “unknown”. Similarly, only a small number of participants disclosed having a sibling with criminal convictions (17.5%, n=7). Two (2) stated that their sibling had convictions for sexual offences, whilst the others stated that their siblings had convictions for either driving, drugs or theft-related offences. In total, 27.5% of the sample disclosed a family history of criminal convictions.

6.5. Educational history

With regards to educational history, most of the sample had completed High School to a minimum Year 10 level (63%, n=25). Thirteen (13) of these participants (33%) had received their High School Certificate (Year 12 or equivalent). Of those who failed to achieve Year 10, two participants withdrew from formal education prior to completing primary school (year

6), and a further 13 withdrew during early High School. The lowest level of education achieved in this sample was Year 5.

Of the sample, 10% had completed university-level education, with one reportedly completing a PhD and three completing an undergraduate degree. Three (3) participants completed a diploma, and 10 participants completed a certificate I, II, III or IV. Further, 47.5% of the sample (n=19) had not completed any formal education post-school.

6.6. Non-sexual criminal history

Coding offences was based on the Australian and New Zealand Standard Offence Classification (ANZSOC) (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011), which categorises offences into one of 16 domains (Table 6.1).

Table 6.1

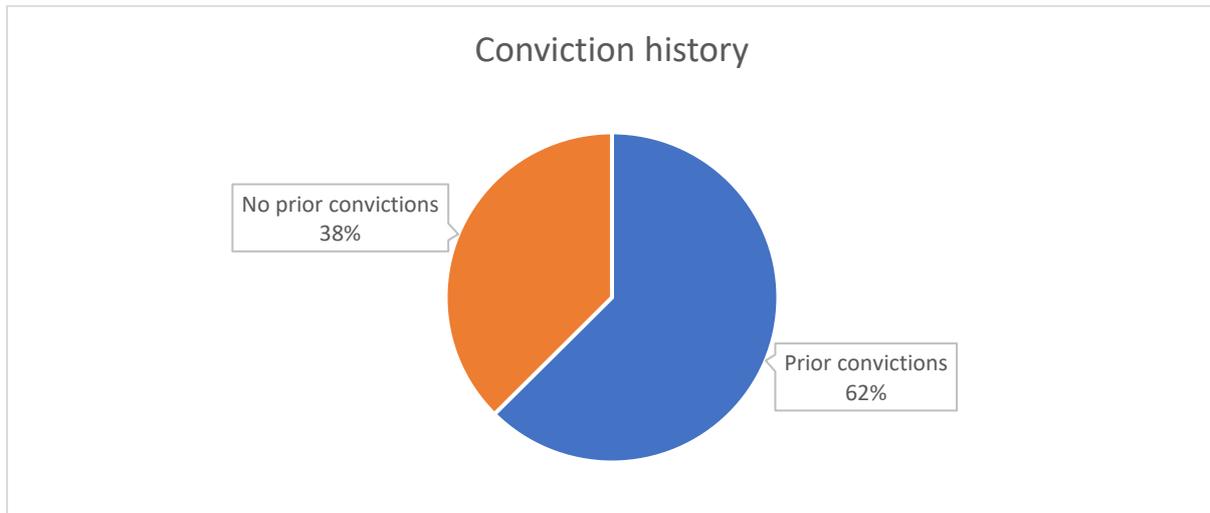
Australian and New Zealand Standard Offence Classification

Offence code	Offence type
1	Homicide and related offences
2	Acts intended to cause injury
3	Sexual assault and related offences
4	Dangerous or negligent acts endangering persons
5	Abduction, harassment and other offences against the person
6	Robbery, extortion and related offences
7	Unlawful entry with intent/burglary, break and enter (B&E)
8	Theft and related offences
9	Fraud, deception and related offences
10	Illicit drug offences
11	Prohibited and regulated weapons and explosives offences
12	Property damage and environmental pollution
13	Public order offences
14	Traffic and vehicle regulatory offences
15	Offences against government procedures, security and operations

Of the 40 participants, 63% (n=25) had prior criminal convictions (Figure 6.3). Their offending histories were varied, and many had convictions across a spectrum of offence types (Figure 6.4).

Figure 6.3

Participants conviction history



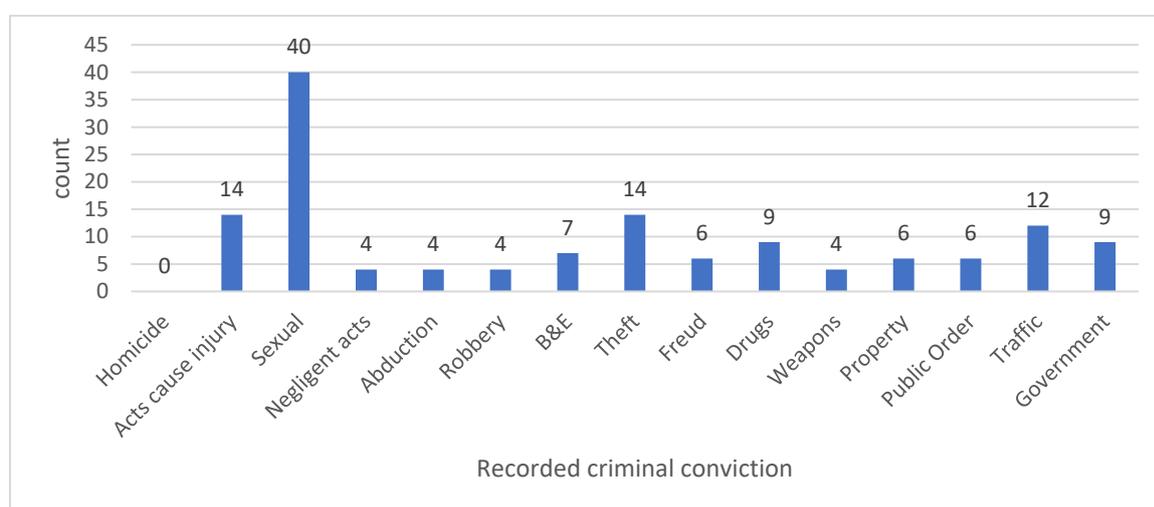
Concerningly, 35% of this sample had historical convictions for offences categorised as 'acts intended to cause injury' (n=14), and 33% had past convictions for 'sexual assault or related offences' (n=13). In total, 52% (n=21) of participants had previous convictions for either sexual or non-sexual violence.

In addition, the current sample also represented other offences against a person, including abduction (n=4, 10%) and robbery (n=4, 10%). None of the samples had committed homicide or homicide-related offences. Outside of non-sexual violence, offences relating to theft were the most common (n=14, 35%), followed by traffic (n=12, 30%), government (n=9, 22.5%), illicit drug (n=9, 22.5%) and B&E (n=7, 17.5%) offences. A smaller number of the sample had prior convictions for 'fraud and deception' (15%, n=6), 'property damage' (15%, n=6) and public order (15%, n=6) offences. Weapon offences (10%, n=4) and negligent acts (10%, n=4) were also represented by this sample.

The criminal histories from the current samples highlight the varied nature of their offending, covering all but one (i.e., homicide) of the offending types set out by Australian and New Zealand Standard Offence Classification. Acknowledging that 37% of the sample had no criminal history prior to the sexual offence, these demographics demonstrate the diversity of their offending backgrounds, further supporting the antisociality of some offenders. This contrasts with what appears to be a prosocial subgroup of offenders (outside of sexual offending), highlighting the heterogeneity of this population.

Figure 6.4

Participants (n=40) criminal histories by type of offence



Each participants NSW Police Criminal History Report was reviewed to derive the following demographics. Their age at first conviction (including the index sexual offence) ranged from 10 to 70 years, with the older tending to have no criminal history outside of the index sexual offence. The average age of the first conviction was 24 years (median 21 years). Whilst many participants had no criminal history, the average number of historical sentencing episodes was 5, ranging from never to 35 occasions. Of those who had previously served custodial sentences (33%, n=13), the number of times they were incarcerated ranged between “once” or “twice” (each representing 7.5% of the sample) and 14 times (2.5%, n=1). Most participants with a history of incarceration had served five or less custodial sentences (69%, n=9). Participants were asked to self-report the most common offence for which they have been before the Court. Thirty-six (90%) participants reported sexual offences, whereas the

remainder of the sample was before the Court, most commonly for non-sexual violence, traffic and B&E offences.

Acknowledging that offending behaviour is often underrepresented by official crime statistics and individual official documents (e.g., in this instance, the participants NSW Police Criminal History Reports), perhaps a greater understanding of antisocial behaviour can be derived from self-report measures. The D60 was administered to participants with the intent to understand the breadth of behaviour engaged in by this sample of offenders. The results of the D60 are observed in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2

Samples D60 questionnaire outcomes

Question	Yes N (%)	No N (%)	Question	Yes N (%)	No N (%)
1. Broken into a house, shop or school and taken money or something else you wanted?	7 (17.5)	33(82.5)	31. Beaten up someone who did something to one of your mates?	22(55)	18(45)
2. Broken into a locked car to get something from it?	8(20)	32(80)	32. Pinched stuff you didn't want, but did it just because all your mates were doing it?	9(22.5)	31(17.5)
3. Threatened to beat someone up if they didn't give you money or something else you wanted?	10(25)	30(75)	33. Done a burglary in a place that you knew would be hard to get into?	3(7.5)	37(92.5)
4. Actually shot at someone with a gun?	2(5)	38(95)	34. Stolen stuff from a shop that had a lot of security?	4(10)	36(90)
5. Pulled a knife, gun or some other weapon on someone just to let them know you meant business?	7(17.5)	33(82.5)	35. Had to take part in a fight your mates were having with another group of guys even though you didn't want to?	9(22.5)	31(17.5)
6. Beaten someone up so badly they probably needed a doctor?	8(20)	32(80)	36. Taken drugs you didn't want because everyone else there was having them?	9(22.5)	31(17.5)
7. Taken heroin?	2(5)	38(95)	37. Taken a badge or something from an expensive car (like a BMW) to keep for yourself?	7(17.5)	33(82.5)
8. Broken the windows of an empty house or other empty building?	11(27.5)	29(72.5)	38. Pretended your credit card had been stolen because you needed a bit more money?	2(5)	38(95)
9. Bought something you knew had been stolen?	10(25)	20(75)	39. Actually used a knife to hurt someone?	4(10)	36(90)
10. Set fire to a building on purpose?	3(7.5)	37(92.5)	40. Bought pirated videos or CDs to sell on?	4(10)	36(90)
11. Been in gang fights?	7(17.5)	33(82.5)	41. Bought pirated videos or CDs to keep for yourself?	14(35)	26(65)

Question	Yes N (%)	No N (%)	Question	Yes N (%)	No N (%)
12. Taken things worth more than \$200 from a shop without paying for them?	6(15)	34(85)	42. Sold heroin?	1(2.5)	39(97.5)
13. Taken Ecstasy (E's)?	6(15)	34(85)	43. Sprayed graffiti on a building or public wall?	4(10)	36(90)
14. Broken into a house, shop, school or other building to break things up or cause other damage?	5(12.5)	35(87.5)	44. Done a burglary on a really big, posh house?	4(10)	36(90)
15. Sniffed glue or other solvents (e.g. paint thinner, petrol)?	1(2.5)	39(97.5)	45. Broken into a warehouse and stolen goods worth more than \$2000?	3(7.5)	37(92.5)
16. Used or carried a gun to help you commit a crime?	1(2.5)	39(97.5)	46. Smashed the glass of a bus shelter or phone box?	3(7.5)	37(92.5)
17. Prepared an escape route before you carried out a crime?	5(12.5)	35(87.5)	47. Set fire to a bin?	5(12.5)	35(87.5)
18. Taken care not to leave evidence (like fingerprints) after carrying out a crime?	6(15)	34(85)	48. Set fire to a car even though you didn't know whose it was?	1(2.5)	39(97.5)
19. Got others to act as 'watch' or 'lookout' while you did a crime?	7(17.5)	33(82.5)	49. Killed someone in a fit of anger or emotion?	40 (0)	0 (100)
20. Acted as 'watch' or 'lookout' for someone else?	9(22.5)	31(17.5)	50. Parked in a disabled space (when you didn't have a permit)?	20(50)	20(50)
21. Taken special tools with you to help you carry out a crime?	7(17.5)	33(82.5)	51. Got a bit violent with your family at home?	21(52.5)	19(47.5)
22. Molested or fondled someone (in a sexual way) without their permission?	25(62.5)	15(37.5)	52. Pretended that you had lost stuff to the insurance company?	5(12.5)	35(87.5)
23. Stolen a car to re-sell it?	2(5)	38(95)	53. Got Centrelink payments when you were working?	14(35)	26(65)
24. Stolen a car to go for a joy ride and then abandoned it?	7(17.5)	33(82.5)	54. Gone to a sauna or massage place to get sex (i.e. brothel)?	14(35)	26(65)
25. Stolen things you didn't really want from a shop just for the excitement of doing it?	6(15)	34(85)	55. Stolen the purse of someone you knew?	1(2.5)	39(97.5)
26. Pinched things from a shop and then sold them on?	5(12.5)	35(87.5)	56. Done a burglary on the house of someone you knew?	3(7.5)	37(92.5)
27. Carried a gun in case you needed it?	4(10)	36(90)	57. Sold marijuana (pot/grass)?	10(25)	30(75)
28. Stolen something to eat because you were so hungry?	9(22.5)	31(17.5)	58. Threatened someone you knew with a knife?	4(10)	36(90)
29. Made a shop assistant give you money from the till?	1(2.5)	39(97.5)	59. Set fire to a building when people were still in there?	0 (100)	40(0)
30. Helped your mates smash up something even though you really didn't want to?	5(12.5)	35(87.5)	60. Made new credit cards with stolen card numbers?	0 (100)	40(0)

These results highlight the diversity of offending behaviour in addition to highlighting offences with high base rates (e.g., 'Beaten up someone who did something to one of your mates?').

6.7. Victim demographics

There are questions relating to victim demographics that are used to inform a sexual offender's static risk score, and these are commonly referred to as “the three victim questions”. These questions relate to the gender of the victim and the offender-victim relationship and have been empirically linked to the risk of reoffending. Whilst these static risk factors have been accounted for in the risk assessments conducted for this research, they were also included in the demographic information collected from the current sample. A review of the empirical research relating to these factors can be found in Chapter three, however, for immediate context, the study suggests that men who offend against family members, someone who was known to them and/or female/s re-offend at lower rates compared to those who offend against unrelated, unknown and/or male victims (see Helmus & Thornton, 2015). Table 6.3 highlights the victim demographics from the current sample.

Table 6.3

Samples victim demographics

Victim type	n	%	Victim type	n	%
Unrelated victim/s	n=31	77.7%	Related victim/s	n=9	22.5%
Stranger victim/s	n=12	30%	Known victim/s	n=28	70%
Male victim/s	n=11	27.5%	Female victim/s	n=29	72.5%

The demographic profile of the current sample based on the Static-99R coding rules indicated that the majority of victims had been females who were unrelated to the offender but known.

6.8. Chapter summary

To meet the research objectives, data has been collected from 40 males who have been convicted of sexual offences against children. Generally, their demographics appear consistent with the CSNSW sexual offending population, suggesting that the current sample are a demographical representation of a wider group of offenders. Whilst demographic details of the wider offending population are freely available, less information is known about child sex offenders as a subset of the offence population. For the purpose of this study, BOCSAR has released some information on sexual offenders in NSW, although information

relating to their educational and vocational histories (for example) are unavailable. Despite this, given the methodology employed in this study, the current sample is likely representative of the child sex offenders in NSW.

PART III

Research results

Chapter 7

Study one:

Emotional experiences of
crime and
risk correlations

7.1. Introduction

Study one critically examines the emotional experiences of sampled child sex offenders. The study is divided into two phases, with the first relating to the emotional experiences of offenders during the commissioning of their crimes. The second relates to the correlations between static risk factors and offenders' emotional experiences of crime.

Phase one: The primary objective of this phase is to determine if the emotional experiences of child sex offenders can be differentiated into four themes, representing the emotional circumplex proposed by Russell (1997). The emotional circumplex model of affect suggests that emotions are variants of two distinct axes, namely the arousal-boredom axis and the pleasure-displeasure axis. The specific research aims are as follows:

1. To determine if child sexual offenders experience a full range of emotions during their offences, as observed in Russell's circumplex model (1997), which was derived from research on the non-offending population.
2. To examine the intensity and direction of emotions experienced by offenders during the commissioning of sexual offences against children. The intensity of emotions within the identified domains is of specific interest to this research.

Russell (1980, 1997) proposed a multidimensional theory of emotions, suggesting that when plotted, they could be viewed as having a circular order. Their placement on the plot would be related to variances in valence (pleasantness) and arousal. What Russell (1997) referred to as a circumplex of emotions is a model reflecting not only the broad range of affective states but also the relationship between them. Emotions that are considered as being similar ('happy' and 'joy', for example) will be placed within close proximity on the circumplex, whereas variables that are considered dissimilar ('happy' and 'sad' for example) will be placed on opposite sides of the circumplex. The theory holds that affective states with little correlation (such as 'exhilaration' and 'relaxed') will be placed at a right angle on the circumplex. Whilst this theory was based on the emotional experiences of a non-offending population, it has been applied in past research to offenders' experiences of their crime. Katz (1988) suspected that offenders emotional experiences during their offence would reflect the full circumplex of emotions proposed in Russell's circumplex model (1987). He also

questioned if there was any correlation between the emotions experienced during criminal activity and the nature of the offending behaviour.

Previous research examining the emotional experiences of criminals has found that they represent a full spectrum of emotions, consistent with the non-offending population (Katz, 1988; Canter & Ioannou, 2004; Ioannou, 2006; Spruin, 2012). Further, four emotional themes have been identified, namely 'Elation', 'Distress', 'Calm' and 'Depressed'. Research of this nature has also examined the emotional experiences of sexual offenders (as part of a larger sample) and identified that they also experience a full spectrum of emotions during the crime (Canter and Ioannou, 2004). Given the results of previous studies, it was hypothesised that the current sample of child sex offenders would report having experienced a full range of emotions. It is also hypothesised that there will be an apparent differentiation between positive and negative emotions (pleasure versus displeasure), while there will be less differentiation between emotions based on the arousal-sleepiness axis.

Phase two (2): The second phase of the research relates to the static risk of child sex offenders and their emotional experiences of offending. Specifically, this phase investigates the relationships between emotional states and static risk scores on the Static-99R and Static-2002R. There are three (3) levels of analysis to achieve this objective.

1. To investigate overall risk scores on the Static-99R and Static-2002R in relation to the emotional themes identified in the first phase of this study.
2. To investigate three (3) latent constructs of the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R, namely 'persistent paraphilia', 'youthful stranger aggression' and 'criminality', in relation to the emotional themes.
3. To investigate individual emotions (as endorsed on an 'emotional experiences of crime' questionnaire) and individual risk factors (from the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R) to determine if there are any correlations between them.

Most research to date has focussed on interpersonal crime and associated negative emotions. That is, emotions situated on the displeasure region of the valence axis, such as anger, depression and irritability. Specifically, relationships between emotions associated with anger and adult stranger rape offences have monopolised literature in relation to sex offenders'

affective states. Despite this, recent research with general offending populations have found that a full range of emotions is experienced during crime (Ioannou et al., 2006), and subsequently, it was anticipated that child sex offenders would also collectively experience a full spectrum of emotional states. It was expected that emotions commonly considered as being negative (e.g., sad, depressed) would be particularly prevalent amongst the endorsed emotions. Despite this, it was anticipated that negative emotional states would have few correlations with static risk scores, as they are hypothesised as being inherently part of many offending experiences. Conversely, it was hypothesised that positive emotional states, arguably an inherent aspect of deviant and sadistic behaviour, would be positively correlated with risk scores. Given the different psychological constructs of the static risk assessments used, it was anticipated that the emotional experiences would have a stronger correlation with the latent constructs of the actuarial measures in comparison to the overall risk scores.

7.2. Phase 1- emotional experiences of child sex offenders

7.2.1. Smallest space analysis (SSA)

To determine the emotions experienced during sexual offences against children, the 40 participants of the current sample responded to 26 statements from the emotional experiences of crime questionnaire as outlined in Table 7.1. These statements covered a range of emotional experiences and were scored by participants using a five-point Likert scale. The responses elicited by the participants were analysed using smallest space analysis (SSA) technique, which has successfully been implemented in past research of similar nature (Canter & Ioannou, 2004; Ioannou, 2006; Spruin, 2012). A comprehensive overview of this multidimensional procedure is provided in chapter five (5) of this thesis, and the following serves only to summarise the analysis conducted on this occasion.

The SSA process analyses the correlation between variables and produces a spatial representation of the results. The SSA program examines the relationship between all the variables and uses distance within space to depict their rank-ordered correlations. For effective and efficient analysis, the results are visually depicted as points on a graph, with highly correlated variables sharing proximity within the multidimensional space. Subsequently, two points will be closer the more they are intercorrelated, and the distance between points is used to reflect the strength of their correlation (or lack of correlation). This

method has been used extensively within investigative psychology research (Canter, Kaouri & Ioannou, 2003; Youngs & Canter, 2012; Ioannou, Canter, Youngs & Synnott, 2015; Spruin, Canter, Youngs & Coulston, 2014) and is considered a suitable analysis technique for this study.

Table 7.1

The Narrative Role Questionnaire statements and Analysis Labels

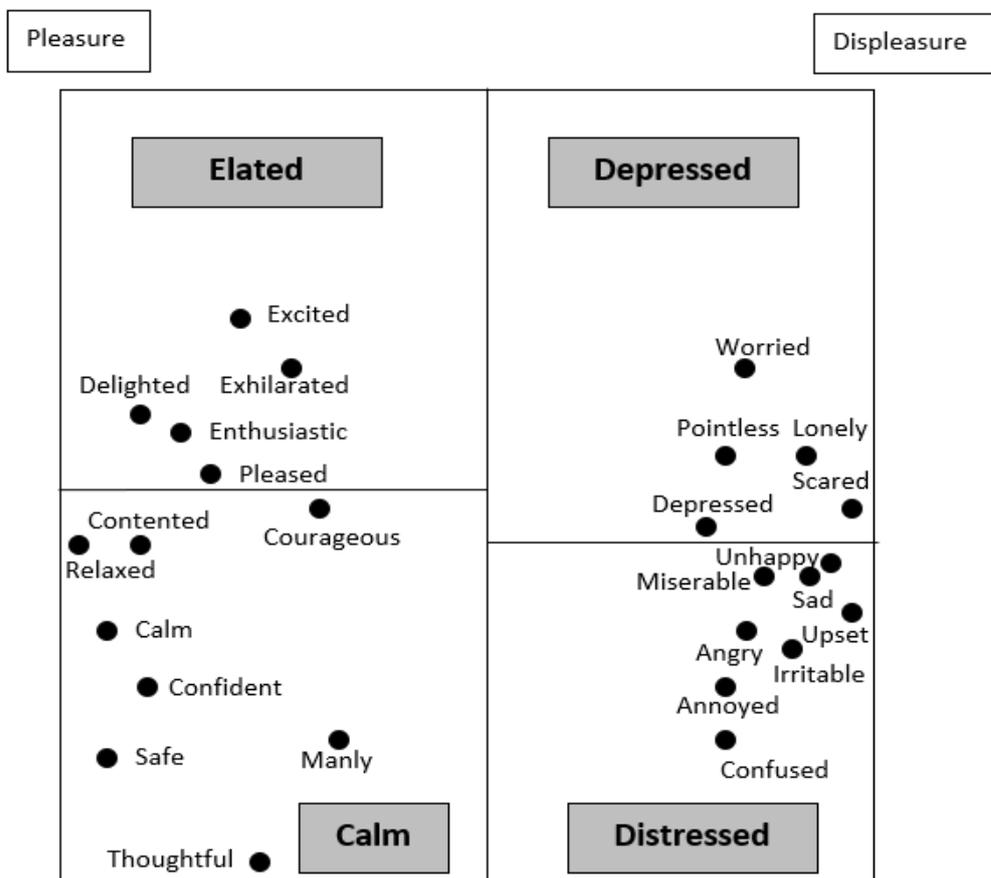
Variable number	Full question	Analysis label
1	I felt lonely	Lonely
2	I felt scared	Scared
3	I felt exhilarated	Exhilarated
4	I felt confident	Confident
5	I felt upset	Upset
6	I felt pleased	Pleased
7	I felt calm	Calm
8	I felt safe	Safe
9	I felt worried	Worried
10	I felt depressed	depressed
11	I felt enthusiastic	Enthusiastic
12	I felt thoughtful	Thoughtful
13	I felt annoyed	Annoyed
14	I felt angry	Angry
15	I felt sad	Sad
16	I felt excited	Excited
17	I felt confused	Confused
18	I felt miserable	Miserable
19	I felt irritated	Irritate
20	I felt relaxed	Relaxed
21	I felt delighted	Delighted
22	I felt unhappy	Unhappy
23	I felt courageous	Courageous
24	I felt contented	Contented
25	I felt manly	Manly
26	I felt pointless	Pointless

Figure 7.1 shows the SSA narrative roles projection of vector one (1) by vector two (2) of the two (2)-dimensional space. SSA attempts to represent the data in the smallest space possible (Guttman & Greenbaum, 1989), although this needs to be balanced against the ‘goodness of fit’. In this case, the two (2)-dimensional SSA solution has a Guttman – Lingoes coefficient of

alienation of 0.13246, highlighting a good fit between the Pearson's coefficients of criminal emotional experiences and the visual representation. This vector was selected as it was the lowest possible space, had a good coefficient of alienation and presented the correlations in a clear manner. For clarity, the SSA depicts brief descriptive labels, and the full questionnaire is outlined in Table 7.1.

Figure 7.1

Smallest space analysis representing the distribution of the 26 emotional statements. Guttman-Lingoes coefficient of alienation = 0.13246



Visual analysis of the SSA solution for this study (Figure 7.1) highlights a clear differentiation between variables on either side of the domain. This reflects a strong demarcation on the 'valance' dimension, with an equal split of 13 emotional statements occupying space on either side of the plot. Examination of those on the left side generally reflects positive emotions, such as 'pleased', 'relaxed' and 'calm'. Conversely, the right side of the plot is occupied by

statements reflecting emotions generally considered as being negative, such as 'angry', 'depressed', and 'miserable'. This supports the notion that child sexual offenders' criminal experiences will be strongly dissected on the valance axis.

Further visual examination of the SSA highlights a group of variables on the left side of the domain, occupying space above the midline. These emotions reflected experiences of higher arousal than those observed in the lower left-hand region of the domain. Examples of statements depicting high levels of arousal on the pleasant side include 'delighted', 'interested' and 'exhilarated'. These emotional experiences appear consistent with the 'Elated' theme observed in previous research.

Remaining on the positive side of the valance axis, the variables at the bottom of the plot appear, on visual inspection, to be less correlated. This is observed by the greater dispersion of variables within the space. Regardless, these emotions reflected experiences of lower arousal than those mentioned above. Examples of pleasant statements depicting lower arousal include 'safe', 'calm' and 'relaxed'. These emotional experiences appear consistent with the 'Calm' theme observed in previous research.

Interestingly, the variable 'courageous' is situated in the 'Calm' theme, yet a priori assumptions considered this emotion to have higher levels of arousal and subsequently predicted its representation in the 'Elated' theme. Reliability analysis was conducted to determine the internal consistency of each theme, and subsequently, the placement of 'courageous' was reviewed in detail. The Cronbach's Alpha of the 'Calm' theme would have been reduced (from 0.80 to .079) had this item been omitted, highlighting a poorer outcome. Similarly, the inclusion of 'courageous' in the 'Elated' theme had a detrimental impact on its internal consistency. This supports the contiguous placement of the 'courageous' variable with the 'elated' theme and potentially reflects the semantic interpretation of the variable.

Moving to the right area of the SSA, which is associated with negative emotions, there is evidence of two distinct regions, which may be differentiated by levels of arousal. The variables contained above the midline on the displeasure side of the SSA include variables such as 'depressed', 'pointless' and 'lonely'. The emotions contained in this region appear to

have less arousal than those observed in the lower right-hand region. Subsequently, the upper right-hand region appears consistent with the 'Depressed' theme. The variables below include items such as 'angry', 'miserable' and 'irritable', which appear most consistent with the 'Distressed' theme of emotions. Generally, there appears to be less variance between emotions taking space in the displeasure facet than those in the pleasure facet. This likely suggests that for this sample, there is less differentiation experienced between negative emotions than experienced with positive emotions.

The current study supports previous research and suggests that child sexual offenders experience a full range of emotions. The results, however, fail to reflect a circular model as the arousal axis had little differentiation, and the valence axis was clearly dissected rather than evenly dispersed. Despite this, these emotions can be differentiated into four themes, 'Elated', 'Calm', 'Depressed', and 'Distressed', reflecting the two-axis theory proposed in Russell's circumplex model (1997).

7.3. Emotional themes

Below is a summary of the emotional themes and the statements on which they are comprised.

7.3.1. Depressed theme

The upper right quadrant of the SSA was identified as being consistent with the 'Depressed' theme of emotions and was depicted by the five (5) following emotional statements:

- Worried
- Pointless
- Lonely
- Depressed
- Scared

7.3.2. Distressed theme

The bottom right quadrant of the SSA was identified as being consistent with the 'Distressed' theme of emotions and was depicted by the eight (8) following emotional statements:

- Unhappy
- Sad
- Miserable
- Upset
- Confused
- Annoyed
- Irritable
- Angry

7.3.3 *Elated theme*

The upper left quadrant of the SSA was identified as being consistent with the 'Elated' theme of emotions and was depicted by the five (5) following emotional statements:

- Excited
- Exhilarated
- Delighted
- Enthusiastic
- Pleased

7.3.4 *Calm theme*

Finally, the bottom left quadrant of the SSA was identified as being consistent with the 'Calm' theme of emotions and was depicted by the following eight (8) emotional statements:

- Relaxed
- Contented
- Manly
- Thoughtful
- Calm
- Confident
- Safe
- Courageous

7.4 *Reliability analysis*

Analyses were conducted to confirm the presence of four distinct themes, with the intent to identify the internal consistency of each theme. To achieve this, Cronbach Alpha analysis was conducted on each of the four emotional themes to ensure the variables were intercorrelated. Although visual inspection supports the development of four themes, this analysis serves as an additional layer of statistical support for the theory. A Cronbach Alpha analysis produces a score between zero (0) and one (1), with scores closest to one representing greater internal consistency. Ideally, the coefficient should be above 0.7 (DeVillis, 2012), although 0.5 is considered acceptable (Hills, 2011).

As observed in Table 7.2, the 'Depressed' theme with five (5) variables had an alpha coefficient of 0.77; the 'Distressed' theme with eight (8) variables had an alpha coefficient of 0.91; the 'Elation' theme with five (5) variables produced an alpha coefficient of 0.87; and, the 'Calm' theme containing eight (8) variables had an alpha coefficient of 0.80. These internal consistency analyses reflect a high degree of association between the variables in each of the four elements.

Table 7.2

Emotional experiences of crime (with Alpha if item deleted in parentheses)

Theme				
	Depression	Distress	Elation	Calm
Items	Worried (.78) Pointless (.72) Lonely (.70) Depressed (.67) Scared (.75)	Unhappy (.90) Sad (.89) Miserable (.89) Upset (.90) Angry (.87) Irritable (.90) Annoyed (.90) Confused (.91)	Excited (.84) Exhilarated (.86) Delighted (.83) Enthusiastic (.81) Pleased (.85)	Relaxed (.77) Content (.71) Calm (.77) Confident (.74) Manly (.79) Safe (.77) Thoughtful (.81) Courageous (.79)
No. of items	5	8	5	8
Cronbach's alpha	.77	.91	.87	.80

For each variable within a theme, the 'alpha if item deleted' is written in parentheses in Table 7.2. This highlights what (if any) changes to the overall alpha would occur if a variable were omitted. There were no variables in the 'Distressed' or 'Elation' themes, which, if removed, would have positively impacted the alpha coefficient. Within the 'Depressed' theme, removal of the 'worried' variable would have improved the alpha coefficient from 0.77 to 0.78. Similarly, in the 'Calm' theme, removal of the 'thoughtful' variable would have improved the alpha coefficient from 0.80 to 0.81. Consideration was made for these variables to be within other themes, although no other viable options were available. Further, the changes to the themes by omitting these items was negligible, and they continue to reflect high levels of internal consistency.

The strength of the relationship between each of the themes can further support the notion of having four distinct emotional experiences. Table 7.3 contains the relationship between each of the emotions and suggests that the highest correlation is between depressed and distressed, followed by elated and calm. A negative correlation is observed between the pleasure themes (i.e., 'Calm' and 'Elated') and the displeasure themes (i.e., 'Depressed' and 'Distressed'), suggesting that they are thematically opposite. To a much lesser extent, there are negative correlations between themes based on the arousal axis. These results reflect a strong division on the primary axis, suggesting that child sexual offenders generally experience their offences as either being negative or positive.

Table 7.3

Correlations among affective themes

	Emotion	1	2	3
1	Depressed			
2	Distressed	.713**		
3	Elation	-.072	-.254	
4	Calm	-.495**	-.388**	.449**

***p<0.05; **p<0.01**

7.5. *Dominant themes*

Another means to determine the validity of the narrative themes is to consider individual cases in relation to their dominant emotional experience during a crime and refer to their personal crime narrative to cross-reference thematic similarity. To do this, participants were allocated to a dominant theme as per the protocol outlined in chapter five (5). To summarise this procedure, endorsed scores on emotional items were tallied for each corresponding theme and transformed into percentage scores. Participants were assigned to a dominant theme if the percentage of scores was greater than the remaining themes by 5%. On the occasion when there were two themes with equal percentages (or less than the required 5% between themes), a hybrid theme was created. If more than two themes had equal percentages (or within 5% of the third theme), the individual was considered as being uncategorizable.

It is noted that more stringent criteria for allocation were attempted; specifically, that observed within previous research (such as Canter & Fritzon, 1998; Salfati, 2000; Ioannou, Canter & Youngs, 2017; Ioannou, Synnott, Lowe & Tzani-Pepelasi, 2018). When applying this criterion to the current population, none of the 40 participants could be allocated to a dominant theme. This suggests that child sexual offenders experience a broader range of emotions than seen with the general offending population, reinforcing the contiguous nature of the circumplex model.

Of the sample (N=40), 31 participants were classified into dominant themes, most represented by the 'Distressed' theme (30%, n=12), followed by 'Depressed' (17.5%, n=7) and

the 'Calm' and 'Elated' themes, each accounting for 15% of the sample (n=6) (see Table 7.4). Only three (3) participants were unable to be classified utilising the procedure outlined above. Five (5) of the remaining six participants were allocated to hybrid themes, namely 'Depressed-Distressed' (n=1), 'Calm-Elated' (n=3) and 'Calm-Distressed'(n=1). Interestingly one (1) participant was assigned to the hybrid them 'Depressed-Elated', which reflects opposite affective qualities on both the valance and arousal axis.

Table 7.4

Distribution of sample allocated by dominant emotional theme

	Emotion
1	Calm (n=6)
2	Depressed (n=7)
3	Elated (n=6)
4	Distressed (n=12)

On the basis of dominant roles, child sex offenders tend to experience negative emotions at the time of offending. Whilst this is unsurprising given the literature relating to negative affect and offending behaviour (Howells et al., 2004), it only accounts for 57% of dominant themes, including hybrid themes associated with only positive or negative experiences (e.g., 'Depressed-Distressed' and 'Calm-Elated'). A further 43% of the sample predominantly experienced positive emotions or subsets of these emotional themes. This highlights the important role that positive emotions play in child sexual offending and identified in Ward et al. (1995) child molester offence chain model.

To highlight the emotional differences of child sex offending, below are excerpts from the narratives of participants who were assigned to dominant emotional themes.

7.5.1 'Depressed' case examples

Case example, participant 22

- Index sexual offence: This participant was convicted of sexual intercourse with a child under the age of 10; produce child pornography; and, access child pornography. The victim was an 8-year-old male who was the offender's half-brother.
- Offending history: This participant has no reported criminal history.
- Demographics: The offender was 23 years of age at the time of offending and was residing with the victim at their mother's house.
- Narrative: *"In the lead up to the offence, I was taking a lot of drugs. Not at the time of the offence. But before, I was taking methamphetamines. That was mainly to do with my anxiety. My anxiety and depression was through the roof....I was living a double life at the time. I was homosexual, but no one knew. It was a struggle".*

Case example, participant 2

- Index sexual offence: The participant was convicted of sexual offences against his then stepdaughter over a period of six years. The offending commenced when the victim was around age eight (8), progressing from digital penetration to penile-vaginal intercourse.
- Offending history: This participant had one prior offence for non-sexual violence.
- Demographics: At the time of the offence, the participant was 39 years old and had been cohabiting with his partner for 10 years.
- Narrative: *"There was a lot of stress in my marriage. A lot of stress at work, bills, financial troubles. Troubles with the three stepsons. A lot of violence around the house. They were smashing walls. It was pretty traumatic. Before the offence, I found out that my dad had passed away. That he had been gone for eight (8) years before I was notified. There was just a lot of stress."*

These cases studies clearly reflect an individual with negative affect. The first was described as "anxiety and depression", whilst the second was described as "stress" is in the context of grief and ongoing interpersonal conflict. These emotions reflect displeasure on the valance axis, yet arousal is less clear.

7.5.2 'Distressed' case examples

Case example, participant 16

- Index sexual offence: This participant offended against a 16-year-old female in what he described as violent sexual intercourse. The victim was previously unknown to him, and the offence occurred in a public place.
- Offending history: This participant had a lengthy criminal history for sexual violence, non-sexual violence and general offending. This spanned across juvenile and adult jurisdictions.
- Demographics: This participant was part of the 'stolen generation' and, throughout the interview, expressed anger about this. At the time of the offence, he was unemployed and living on an Aboriginal mission. He was 34 years of age at the time of the offence.
- Narrative: *"How angry I was. I was lashing out at the victim. When I woke up the next day, there was blood all over the car. Because that is where the offence took place...I thought I was entitled to, you know, to sexual favours by me driving her home"*. He indicated that when his sexual advances towards the victim became *"too serious"*, the victim resisted, causing the offender to *"lay into the victim"*. Regarding the lead up to the offence, he stated *"to be honest, I thought that I was going to have sex with her (the victims) friend... When I went to the party, I thought I was going to have sex. But then I was asked to drive the victim home, which made me angry"*.

Case example, participant 6

- Index sexual offence: This offender was convicted of assault with an act of indecency; commit an act of indecency on a person under 16 years. The victim was a 14-year-old female who was unknown to the offender at the time. The offence occurred in a public place during daylight hours.
- Offending history: This participant had a criminal history of violence and one prior conviction for non-sexual violence.
- Demographics: This participant was 36 years old at the time of the offence. He was single, living alone and was unemployed.
- Narrative: When asked about his offence, this participant commented: *"I was really confused at women. I thought women were all playing games with me out in public. It*

made me angry. That's it. I just thought women were all playing games, and I was angry at them. I just lost the plot a bit. Because I had no work, I was just hanging around outside, just sitting places and smoking cigarettes. I saw her (the victim) and thought she was playing games with me like everyone else. So I followed her and assaulted her....I was trying to get women to stop hassling me...I was teaching her a lesson".

These participants reflect negative affect on the valence axis and generally described being "angry" at the time of the offence. The offenders appear to have used reactive violence to a greater extent than observed in the 'Depressed' group, suggesting that violence may be associated with arousal on the arousal-sleepiness axis.

7.5.3 Calm case examples

Case example, participant 4

- Index sexual offence: This participant was convicted of sexual offences against two males, who were ages 12 and 13 at the time of the offending. They were known to the offender through his position as a youth leader at the Police Citizens Youth Club (PCYC). The offences began with the offender performing oral sex on the victims during their sleep whilst on PCYC camps. Over time, this progressed to intrusive anal intercourse perpetrated by the offender.
- Offending history: The participant has a criminal history of non-sexual offences, namely break and enter, enter a property, stealing and possession of a prohibited substance.
- Demographics: At the time of offending, this participant was 23 years old, and at the time of the offences was living with his wife and three children. He was gainfully employed, and his history generally appears benign.
- Narrative: *"I thought that it was a consentive (sic). He would come around to my house, and we would go back around to the police boys club. We would go from there to the shops or whatever. So, I thought it was a consentive (sic) relationship. He was happy. I was happy. There was no issue, then 22-years later, it popped up again. It was a consentive (sic) homosexual relationship, in my eyes".*

Case example, participant 3

- Index sexual offence: The sexual offences were perpetrated against multiple males over a period of 25 years when the children were between ages four (4) and 16 years. The victims were known to the offender through his role as a leader in the Scouts, and he was in a position of authority over the children at the time of the abuse. The offending behaviour involved oral sex and homosexual intercourse.
- Offending history: The participant had a criminal history of multiples counts of stealing and possession of an unregistered firearm. Outside of the index offences (which reflects an enduring pattern of sexual offending), he has no historical convictions for sexual matters.
- Demographics: Official records suggest that this participant commenced offending when he was around age 28, although was not arrested until he was 57. The participant was married and held stable employment. By all accounts, it appears that the participant was a trusted and well-respected member of his community during the offending period.
- Narrative: *“Oh, I don’t know. It would have been an ordinary day. (The victim) came to me, it was recommended to me to try and bring them into line because of their behaviour and their attitude. And during discussions with him, he confessed to me that he was gay and had feelings and that. And I asked various questions about it. One thing led to another, and I just umm, it happened, it ah, we got excited or something, and I believe that we had a look at a video, I don’t actually recall that exactly, but he said we looked through a video, and we got excited. He was very gay and had a lot of partners, and it was just a matter of rolling on”*.

Interestingly, the participants in these case studies, who represent the ‘Calm’ emotional theme, appear to engage in cognitive distortions, allowing them to view their sexual behaviour as consensual, or at the very least, justifiable. They reflect offenders with protracted periods of offending, who are likely able to remain undetected due to the nature of their relationship with the victim and the manipulation used.

7.5.4. Elated case example

Case example, participant 11

- Index sexual offence: This participant was convicted of persistent child abuse against four male victims. They were known to the offender through his work.

- Offending history: Official documents suggest that this offender was considered to have an extensive criminal history for sexual offences, although only had few criminal convictions. As such, the extent of his offending history is unclear.
- Demographics: The participant was aged 22 years at the time of the index sexual offences and was living with a female partner. Outside of incarceration, he has reportedly maintained stable employment within the Australian Government.
- Narrative: This participant discussed the offences as being “*consensual on both sides*” and indicated that the victim, who was a 13-year old male at the time, initiated the offence. He discussed the victim “*splashing around*” in the bath and making comments, which the participant took to be sexual. He commented that the offending was fun and that he was exploring the victim’s body with his permission. *He wanted to see my penis, so I showed him. And he showed me his. I touched it, and he said it felt good. I said that it could feel better, and then I gave him oral sex*”.

Case example, participant 32

- Index sexual offence: Commit an act of indecency on a child under the age of 16.
- Offending history: this participant had no criminal history in NSW, although had a previous federal conviction for governmental benefit fraud.
- Demographics: This participant was convicted of sexual offences against five (5) children over a period of nine (9) years.
- Narrative: *“It was an ordinary day. And he came around. And he, I think, I don’t know if I did him any harm, but I think that he kinda enjoyed doing it. Because he said, “you have been naughty, and so you’re getting a spanking”. I would bend over the bed, and he would hit me on the bottom with a paddle and then finish with a cane. And that was pretty much it. I thought it was just fun*”.

These offenders reflect on offending as a positive experience, one in which the victim is highly involved. There appear to be subtle differences in these participants narratives in comparison to those in the ‘Calm’ theme, in that these participants focus on the lead up to offending (e.g., “*splashing around*” or “*getting spanked*”) as a period of anticipation and excitement.

7.6. Direction and Intensity of Emotions

The second objective of this study is to examine the intensity of emotions experienced by offenders during the commissioning of sexual offences against children. Previous research has revealed that the overall emotional direction of offending for general offenders was negative (Canter & Ioannou, 2004). This suggests that they generally experienced feelings considered to be negative at the time of offending (Canter et al., 2004). Consistent with previous research, it was hypothesised that the overall emotional direction of offending for child sex offenders would be negative (i.e., they generally experience negative emotions during their offences) and that they would experience these emotions with greater intensity than observed in positive emotions.

To achieve this research objective, the SSA outcome has been reviewed in two different ways. The first is by analysis of variables on the valence axis, highlighting the bipolar differentiation between positive and negative emotional states. The second analysis takes into consideration the orthogonal dimension referred to as arousal, giving rise to the four emotional themes of this dimension. Table 7.5 consists of the variables contained in the SSA (Figure 7.1), which reflects a clear differentiation between emotions based on pleasure and displeasure. Given that participants were asked to respond to each of the 26 emotion statements using a five-point Likert scale, the mean scores reflect the intensity by which these emotions were endorsed. As mentioned earlier, the bipolar dimensions each contained an equal number of variables ($n=13$), providing a clear analysis of individual and collective affective states. Based on the current sample, it appears that child sexual offenders experienced negative emotions with greater intensity (mean= 2.74, SD= 0.29) than positive emotions (mean= 2.47, SD= 0.27). This is consistent with previous research into the emotional experiences of offenders, and specifically into sexual offenders (Canter & Ioannou, 2004).

An analysis was undertaken to determine the intensity of emotions incorporating the valence axis of the SSA. As highlighted in Table 7.6, the 'Depressed' theme was endorsed as occurring with the greatest intensity. This was followed by 'Distress' ($m=2.74$, $SD=0.26$), 'Elated' ($m=2.54$, $SD=0.34$) and finally 'Calm' ($m=2.43$, $SD=0.29$).

Table 7.5

Valance axis means and standard deviation

Pleasure	Mean	SD	Displeasure	Mean	SD
Excited	2.88	1.24	Worried	2.75	1.53
Exhilarated	2.83	1.32	Pointless	2.75	1.46
Delighted	2.05	1.13	Lonely	3.23	1.56
Enthusiastic	2.58	1.13	Scared	2.23	1.25
Pleased	2.38	1.25	Depressed	2.88	1.52
Courageous	1.95	1.01	Unhappy	3.00	1.34
Relaxed	2.45	1.28	Sad	2.88	1.44
Content	2.30	1.22	Miserable	2.58	1.50
Calm	2.70	1.20	Upset	2.75	1.57
Confident	2.83	1.28	Angry	2.53	1.63
Manly	2.18	1.21	Irritable	2.33	1.37
Safe	2.60	1.34	Annoyed	2.65	1.57
Thoughtful	2.45	1.50	Confused	3.10	1.59
<i>(Total of means)</i>	<i>(32.18)</i>		<i>(Total of means)</i>	<i>(35.63)</i>	
Pleasure mean (n=13)	2.48	0.29	Displeasure Mean (n=13)	2.74	0.27

Table 7.6

Four regions of the SSA with Means and Standard Deviations

Pleasure			Displeasure		
Elation	Mean	SD	Depressed	Mean	SD
Excited	2.88	1.24	Worried	2.75	1.53
Exhilarated	2.83	1.32	Pointless	2.75	1.46
Delighted	2.05	1.13	Lonely	3.23	1.56
Enthusiastic	2.58	1.13	Scared	2.23	1.25
Pleased	2.38	1.25	Depressed	2.88	1.52
<i>(Total of Means)</i>	<i>(12.7)</i>		<i>(Total of Means)</i>	<i>(13.84)</i>	

Elation Mean (n=5)	2.54	0.34	Depressed Mean (n=5)	2.77	0.36
Calm	Mean	SD	Distressed	Mean	SD
Relaxed	2.45	1.28	Unhappy	3.00	1.34
Content	2.30	1.22	Sad	2.88	1.44
Calm	2.70	1.20	Miserable	2.58	1.50
Confident	2.83	1.28	Upset	2.75	1.57
Manly	2.18	1.21	Angry	2.53	1.63
Safe	2.60	1.34	Irritable	2.33	1.37
Thoughtful	2.45	1.50	Annoyed	2.65	1.57
Courageous	1.95	1.01	Confused	3.10	1.59
<i>(Total of Means)</i>	<i>(19.46)</i>		<i>(Total of Means)</i>	<i>(21.2)</i>	
Calm Mean (n=8)	2.43	0.29	Distressed Mean (n=8)	2.74	0.26

The individual emotion experienced with the greatest intensity was 'Lonely' (M=3.23, SD=1.56) followed by 'Confused' (M= 3.10, SD=1.59), both occupying space in the displeasure region of the domain. By contrast, the emotions endorsed with the least intensity by this sample of child sexual offenders included 'Courageous' (M=1.01, SD=1.01) followed by 'Delighted' (M=2.05, SD=1.13) and 'Enthusiastic' (M=2.58, SD=1.13).

To determine the overall direction of emotional experiences during crime, Canter et al. (2004) differentiated participants by offence type and calculated the average of positive versus negative emotions experienced during different types of offences. Their results highlighted sexual offending as generally a negative experience, which is consistent with the current study. Specifically, this past research found that the mean score for sexual offenders was -0.21 in the direction of negative emotionality (Canter & Ioannou, 2004), compared with -0.27 in the current sample. This is consistent evidence that sexual offenders experience greater negative emotions during crime. It is worthy to note that the current data, which is based on child sexual offenders, reflected a slightly higher intensity of negativity than did a sample of sexual offenders with no specified victim. Although this margin of difference is small, this potentially provides insight into the affective nuances between sexual offending against an adult versus a child victim. This warrants further exploration in future research.

7.7. Phase 1 discussion

Results from this study achieve the first research objective, which was to determine if child sexual offenders experience a full range of emotions during their offences, as observed in Russell's circumplex model (1997), which was derived from research on the non-offending population.

Statistical analysis of the self-reported emotional experiences during sexual offending has highlighted the presence of four emotional themes, consistent with Russell's Circumplex of Emotions (1997) with the non-offending population. These are also consistent with previous studies, which have applied a similar method to the general offending population (Canter & Ioannou, 2004).

The evidence suggests that there is a strong differentiation between the offender's emotional experiences based on the primary axis relating to 'pleasure' or 'displeasure', more so than the axis relating to arousal. This suggests that child sexual offenders make a clear distinction between positive and negative emotional experiences, yet arousal appears to be present in all offences. As such, the full circumplex of emotions was not present with this sample of child sexual offenders.

The second objective of this study was to examine the intensity of emotions experienced during sexual offences against children. Overall, it appears that the sample of child sexual offenders experienced negative emotions with greater intensity than pleasurable emotions, and in particular, endorsed items contained in the 'Depressed' theme at the time of the offence. Feelings of 'loneliness', 'confusion' and 'unhappiness' were experienced with the greatest intensity.

Of the sample who were able to be allocated to 'pure' emotional themes, over 60% presented as being 'Distressed' (30%) or 'Depressed' (23%), whereas 'Calm' and 'Elated' each represented around 19% the sample. This further supports the notion that child sexual offences tend to be associated with negative emotional states.

7.8. Phase 11: Risk and emotions – mapping the Static-99R and Static-2002R onto sexual offenders’ emotional experiences of crime

The initial investigation within phase two related to the overall risk scores on the Static-99R (-3 to 12) and the Static-2002R (-2 to 13) in relation to the emotional experiences of crime. Further, analysis was conducted to determine the predictability of the four emotional themes in identifying risk levels with the three latent psychological variables (persistent paraphilia, criminality and YSA). A multiple linear regression was calculated to predict risk scores based on the four emotional experiences. Results from the multiple linear regression indicate that there was not a collective significant effect between emotions and overall risk scores, nor was there a collective significant effect between emotions and the three latent psychological variables ($F(4, 34)=2.102$, $p=0.102$) $R^2=20$. However, it was found that ‘Elated’ emotions significantly predicted high scores on persistent paraphilia ($\beta= .414$, $p=.031$, 95% CI [.011, .211]). The other emotional themes were not statistically predictive of risk.

Correlational analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between these four emotional themes and individual participants level of risk. The results, as identified in Table 7.7, suggest that there is a statistically significant relationship between the ‘Elated’ theme emotions and the overall risk score on both the Static-99R (with small effect size) and the Static-2002R (with medium effect size).

Table 7.7

Correlations among the four (4) emotional themes and the total risk scores on the Static-99R and the Static-2002R.

	Emotional theme	Static-99R total score	Static-2002R total score
1	Depressed	.024	.047
2	Distressed	.006	-.107
3	Elated	.271*	.333*
4	Calm	.254	.259

* $p<0.05$; ** $p<0.01$

The 'Elated' emotions are associated with pleasure and arousal. In the past, much research has focused on the role that negative emotions play in offending, specifically in relation to anger and depression. These current results suggest, however, that emotional dysregulation is not only relevant to negative emotions on the displeasure side of the valance axis but rather positive emotions are correlated with overall risk scores. The 'Elated' domain consists of five (5) variables, namely 'excited', 'delighted', 'exhilarated', 'enthusiastic', and 'pleased'.

The second level of analysis in this phase involved the three variables recently proposed as latent psychological constructs to the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R tools, namely 'persistent/paraphilia', 'youth stranger aggression (YSA)' and 'general criminality' (Brouillette-Alarie, 2016). The results (Table 7.8) of the correlational analysis indicate that emotional themes are only associated with 'persistent/paraphilia'. As observed in the total risk score analysis, the correlation appears specific to the 'Elation' emotional theme ($r=.312, p<0.05$).

Table 7.8

Correlations between emotional themes and latent constructs of the Static-99R and Static-2002R

	Persistent paraphilia	YSA	Criminality
Depressed	-.008	.085	-.201
Distressed	-.068	-.036	-.089
Elated	.321*	.219	.123
Calm	-.026	-.064	.190

* $p<0.05$; ** $p<0.01$

Persistent paraphilia has been linked to sexual dysregulation and deviant interest, with no specific intent to harm the victim (Brouillette-Alaire et al., 2016). In relation to specific Static-2002R and Static-99R items, it relates to high rates of sexual offending, male victims, non-contact sexual offences and having two or more young victims, one of whom is a stranger. Whilst negative affect, in particular, anger, is often associated with stranger rape, these results suggest that offenders with atypical sexual interest tend to experience positive emotions during offending episodes. Of the current sample, 27% were categorised to the

'Elated' theme either as a pure or hybrid categorisation, suggesting that positive affect is a secondary emotional experience of child molestation, yet one certainly worthy of attention. As observed in the analysis of 26 incarcerated child molester's offence pathways (Ward et al., 1995), "*sexual arousal was a significant motivator for an offender in a positive affective state, leading him to make explicit plans for contact with the victim*" (pg. 462). Further, cognitive distortions where the victim is perceivably enjoying or initiating the offence are also associated with positive affective states. The current results indicate that there was no significant relationship between the 'Calm' theme and overall risk scores, being differentiated from 'Elation' on the arousal axis. This suggests that emotional arousal may be associated with sexual arousal, in cases of paraphilic interest, and not simply with any positive emotions.

To understand the relationship between emotional experiences and sexual recidivism risk, further analysis was undertaken in relation to individual risk factors (extrapolated from the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R measures) and individual affective states. Table 7.9 highlights the items from the 'emotional experiences of crime' questionnaire, which were statistically correlated with overall risk scores on the two actuarial measures. The Static-99R is positively correlated with five (5) of the 26 emotional states depicted in the emotional experiences of crime questionnaire. Additionally, this risk tool was negatively correlated with one (1) emotion, as was the Static-2002R. The Static-2002R was positively correlated with a further four (4) of the 26 emotional states.

The total Static-99R score was only correlated with the 'Elation' theme, yet at this level of analysis was statistically and positively correlated with four emotions found within the 'Calm' theme, namely 'confident', 'relaxed', 'content' and 'manly'. Although the Static-2002R total score wasn't correlated with any emotional themes, the overall score was also statistically and positively correlated with three emotions (i.e., 'relaxed', 'content', and 'courageous'). In addition, both Static-99R and Static-2002 are correlated with 'delighted' from within the 'Elated' theme. These results likely highlight the importance of positive affect in general relation to recidivism risk, rather than considering position emotions in relation to arousal.

Table 7.9

Individual emotions and correlations with total risk scores (Static-99R and Static-2002R)

Individual Emotion (emotional theme)	Static-99R	Static-2002R
Confident (calm)	.277*	
Worried (depressed)	-.297*	-.266*
Relaxed (calm)	.289*	.350*
Delighted (elated)	.319*	.340*
Content (calm)	.276*	.354*
Manly (calm)	.264*	
Courageous (calm)		.408**

Note. Statistically significant results only (*p<0.05; **p<0.01)

Sexual offenders with child victims experienced a range of emotions during their offences, yet only experiences of ‘worry’ were negatively correlated with risk on both of the static actuarial measures. This suggests that in cases when an offender experienced worry, their risk scores on recidivism measures decreased. Conversely, positive correlations were observed with emotions contained within both the ‘elated’ and ‘calm’ emotional themes. As observed in phase one of this study, these results reiterate the presence of a strong division on the valence axis, whereas the arousal axis is less prominent.

Consideration was given to the latent psychological constructs of the static risk assessments and their correlations with emotions, as seen in Table 7.10. Risk factors associated with ‘persistent paraphilia’ are statistically correlated with ‘Elated’ emotions, as were ‘YSA’. ‘Criminality’, however, was associated with ‘Calm’ emotions, specifically feeling ‘content’. By contrast, feeling worried was negatively correlated with the criminality construct of sexual recidivism on these static tools.

The final level of analysis involved the emotional themes and individual risk factors on the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R measures. Table 7.11) reveals that ‘Depressed’ and ‘Distressed’ themes were only negatively associated with risk factors, specifically having a ‘prior criminal history’ and having a ‘male victim’. The strongest correlation was between ‘Elation’ and having a ‘history of breaching supervision’, followed by ‘high rates of sexual offending’. Interestingly, ‘Elation’ appears positively and statistically related to risk factors

from all three constructs, reflecting its potential as an indicator for sexual recidivism across the spectrum of risk domains.

Table 7.10

Individual emotions and their correlations with latent constructs

Emotion item (theme)	Persistent paraphilia	YSA	criminality
Excited (elated)	.354*		
Delighted (elated)	.384**	.368**	
Exhilarated (elated)		.290*	
Worried (depressed)			-.268*
Courageous (calm)			.335*
Content (calm)			.428**

Note. Statistically significant results only (*p<0.05; **p<0.01)

Table 7.11

Emotional themes and correlations with individual risk factors (constructs in parentheses)

Emotional theme	Individual risk factor (construct)	r
Depressed	Prior criminal history (criminality)	-.298*
Distressed	Male victim (persistent paraphilia)	-.379**
Elation	Breach history (criminality)	.473**
	Juvenile and adult sex offence (YSA)	.280*
	Non-contact sex offence (persistent paraphilia)	.292
	Rates of sexual offending (persistent paraphilia)	.417**
	Unrelated/stranger victim (YSA)	.355*
Calm	Prior criminal history (criminality)	.366**
	Prior non-sexual violence (criminality)	.229*

Note. Statistically significant results only (*p<0.05; **p<0.01)

7.9. Phase two discussion

Emotional regulation has long been associated with sex offender recidivism risk, although this has featured specifically in relation to negative affective states. Acknowledging that positive emotions were associated with one side of Ward's et al. (1995) child molester offence chain

model, outside of this, literature pertaining to positive emotions in relation to sex offending is scarce. In psychology, in general, much of the literature focuses on positive emotionality as a healthy affective state or as symptomology of emotional disorders such as bipolar disorder. Yet, it is known that *“biobehavioural features of positive emotions are distinct from those of negative emotions and therefore merit separate attention”* (Carl, Soskin, Kerns & Barlow, 2013). Further, as stated by Carl et al. (2013):

The experience of positive emotions has been associated with distinct neurobiological and physical changes, including increased metabolic activity in regions of the left prefrontal cortex, increased neurotransmission in mesolimbic dopaminergic pathways, attenuated startle responses and increased cardiac vagal tone (Pg. 344).

Positive emotions have also been associated with reward learning (Berridge & Robinson, 1998) and impulsivity. It is argued that positive emotions require adaptive regulation processes to be managed, as much as negative emotions. This highlights the importance of enhancing our knowledge around positive affective states and the impact that this may have on sexual offending processes. The current research has indicated that it is positively correlated with individual risk factors, and the ‘Elation’ theme is predictive of overall risk scores on the Static-99R. Whilst it is beyond the scope of the current research to fully comprehend how positive emotions increase risk, it is hypothesised that this relates to cognitive distortions and deviant sexual arousal.

7.10. Emotions as a framework

The results of the current study have supported the hypothesis that child sex offenders experience a full spectrum of emotions during their offence. To conceptualise the findings, it is important to understand the constructs underpinning the emotional responses and discuss how these relate to recidivism risk. As mentioned earlier, the emotions are based on variants of the valence axis and arousal axis, giving rise to the quadrant model of affect. The results indicate that there is considerable variance on the valence axis, suggesting that offenders’ emotions are either positive or negative, with little in between. The valence axis has highlighted particularly interesting findings in relation to risk. Positive emotions were statistically correlated with 9 of the 14 static risk factors (male victim; rates of sexual offending; non-contact sexual offence; young/unrelated victim; juvenile and adult sexual

offence; breach history; unrelated/stranger victim; prior criminal history; and, prior non-sexual violence) and there was a relationship between emotions becoming more positive in relation to offenders aging. Review of the offender's narratives who were assigned to the positive themes as a dominant role highlight that they tended to engage in cognitive distortions relating to the victim consenting ("it was consensual") and minimisation of victim impact ("he kinda enjoyed doing it"). Their narratives focussed on the victim and externally attributed their behaviour to the victim. Subsequently, it appears that strong cognitive distortions in support of sexually abusive behaviour underpin positive affective states at the time of offending, and these are in turn associated with recidivism risk.

In contrast, negative emotional states were negatively correlated with risk factors, namely having a prior criminal history and offending against a male victim. A review of the crime narratives of offenders assigned to negative emotional themes (as a dominant role) suggested that these individuals tended to discuss problems in their life or discussed the victim as a cause of their distress. Given that this was negatively correlated with risk scores, it appears that offending as a means of affect regulation is less concerning for recidivism than is cognitive distortions facilitating offending.

Arousal appears to have been associated with self-regulation deficits and impulsivity, along with persistent histories of offending, whereas low arousal was associated with a non-sexual criminal history. It is possible that emotional arousal is subsequently associated with sexual and general dysregulation, whereas low emotional arousal is indicative of antisociality.

7.11. Chapter summary

Previous analysis of criminal emotions has tended to view sexual offenders as a homogenous group, which has been reflected in their research methodology. The current study has analysed a subgroup of sexual offenders, namely those with child victims, to determine the affective states of the men who perpetrate what is arguably the most abhorrent of social acts. Through firsthand accounts, this research has obtained information about the emotional experiences of child sexual abuse by the very men who acted them out.

By understanding the emotions experienced during a crime, it provides insight into the proximal factors associated with sexual offending. The current study results suggest that child sexual offenders experience a full range of emotions, although they tend to be either positive or negative in nature (with little in between). More offenders experience negative emotions, yet those who experience positive emotions are at higher risk of recidivism (due to higher risk assessment scores).

By utilising this novel approach, it is evident that the 'Elated' emotional theme is predictive of persistent paraphilia scores on the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R. It is argued that offenders with deviant sexual arousal utilise entrenched cognitive distortions to overcome any moral objection to offending, therefore allowing them to experience positive emotions during a crime. They specifically appear to minimise the harm caused to the victim and misinterpret victim responses as being indicative of consent. Given the pervasive nature of these distortions, sexual offending and non-offending sexual behaviour (such as fantasy and masturbation) likely reinforce deviant sexual interest and, in combination with entrenched cognitive distortions, facilitates persistent sexual abuse against children. Whilst the literature has heavily focussed on negative emotions for sexual offenders, this research suggests that offending for affect regulation is less predictive of recidivism than positive emotions.

Chapter 8

Study two:

**Child sex offender's
crime narratives and risk
correlates**

8.1 *Child sexual offender's crime narratives*

This chapter critically examines study two (2), which relates to criminal narratives of sampled child sexual offenders. The investigation is divided into two phases, with the first investigating the narrative role's offenders assigns themselves during the offence. The second relates to the correlations between static risk scores and offenders' criminal narratives.

Phase one: The objective of this phase is to investigate the sample using the narrative role's framework, with the intent to determine if the criminal experiences of child sexual offenders can be categorised into four (4) narrative themes, consistent with past research (Youngs & Canter, 2012; Ioannou, Canter, Youngs & Synnott, 2015). The two (2) specific objectives are as follows:

1. To examine if the narrative roles framework, when applied to child sexual offenders, elicits four (4) distinct themes, consistent with the 'Revenger', 'Hero', 'Professional' and 'Victim' roles (Youngs & Canter, 2012).
2. To determine if child sexual offenders' present with dominant narrative themes, as observed within the literature with other offending populations (Ioannou, Canter, Youngs & Synnott, 2015).

Reflecting on Frye's (1957) four (4) archetypal mythoi of literature themes, a previous study replicated the circumplex of personal narratives with 161 convicted offenders (Canter, Kaouri & Ioannou, 2003). The results highlighted that offenders' narratives could be differentiated into four (4) themes, which were labelled 1) 'Hero', 2) 'Revenger', 3) 'Victim' 4) 'Professional'. Subsequent studies have replicated these results, including those with a sub-group of sexual offenders within their sample (Ioannou, Canter, Youngs & Synnott, 2015). Given previous research into offence narratives, it was hypothesised that the current sample of child sex offenders could also be differentiated into four (4) roles. Previous research relating to sexual offenders (not specific to child sexual offenders) found that 45% of sexual offenders were assigned to the role of the 'Victim' followed by 'Revenger' (25%), 'Hero' (15%) and 'Professional' (10%). It is hypothesised that child sex offenders will present with less agency than sexual offenders against adult victims, and subsequently, the 'Revenger' and 'Professional' roles will be less prevalent in the current sample. Rather, it is anticipated that the majority of the current sample will be allocated to either the 'Victim' or 'Hero' roles,

highlighting low levels of personal agency at the time of offending. It is hypothesised that the current sample will present with varying degrees of victim significance.

Phase two (2): The second phase of the research relates to the static risk of child sexual offenders. Specifically, the objective is to determine if there is any correlation between the narrative themes for child sex offenders and their risk of recidivism scores on the Static-99R and Static-2002R. There are three (3) levels of analysis to achieve this objective

4. To investigate overall risk scores on the Static-99R and Static-2002R in relation to the narrative themes identified in the first phase of this study.
5. To investigate three (3) latent constructs of the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R, namely 'persistent paraphilia', 'youthful stranger aggression (YSA)' and 'criminality', in relation to the narrative themes.
6. To investigate individual narrative role statements (based on the NRQ) and individual risk factors (from the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R) to determine if there are any correlations between them.

Given the different psychological constructs of the static risk assessments used, it is anticipated that the narrative framework will have little correlation with the overall risk scores. Rather, it is hypothesised that the narrative roles will be related to some of the latent psychological constructs of these actuarial measures (specifically 'persistent paraphilia'). Further, it is anticipated that there will be relationships between the narrative roles and individual risk factors, providing fruitful insight into both the narrative framework and the conceptualisation of risk assessments.

8.2. Phase 1- criminal narratives of child sex offenders

8.2.1. Smallest Space Analysis (SSA)

To examine the narrative roles of child sexual offenders, participants responses to the 46-item Narrative Roles Questionnaire (NRQ) were analysed using the multi-dimensional scaling process of Smallest Space Analysis (SSA). The SSA identifies NRQ variables using brief descriptive labels, yet the full NRQ items, including their corresponding labels, are presented in Figure 8.1. This process examines the data and presents the rank order correlations

between each variable with every other variable. The results are visually depicted as points on a graph, with highly correlated variables sharing proximity within the multidimensional space. Put simply, variables sharing similar thematic content will be placed closely together, whereas variables with dissimilar content will be separated on the plot. This process has shown to be an effective technique for analysis of narrative data and has been used in previous research relating to criminal narratives (Canter, Kaouri & Ioannou, 2003; Youngs & Canter, 2012; Ioannou, Canter, Youngs & Synnott, 2015; Spruin, Canter, Youngs & Coulston, 2014).

Figure 8.1.

The Narrative Role Questionnaire (NRQ) items and corresponding analysis labels.

Variable number	Full question	Analysis label
1	I was like a professional	Professional
2	I had to do it	Had to
3	It was fun	Fun
4	It was right	Right
5	It was interesting	Interesting
6	It was like an adventure	Adventure
7	It was routine	Routine
8	I was in control	In control
9	It was exciting	Exciting
10	I was doing a job	Job
11	I knew what I was doing	Knew what doing
12	It was the only thing to do	Only thing
13	It was a mission	Mission
14	Nothing else mattered	Nothing mattered
15	I had power	Power
16	I was helpless	Helpless
17	It was my only choice	Only choice
18	I was a victim	Victim
19	I was confused about what was happening	Confused
20	I was looking for recognition	Recognition
21	I just wanted to get it over with	Wanted over
22	I didn't care what would happen	Didn't care
23	What was happening was just fate	Fate
24	It all went to plan	Went to plan
25	I couldn't stop myself	Couldn't stop
26	It was like I wasn't part of it	Wasn't part
27	It was a manly thing to do	Manly
28	For me, it was like a usual days work	Usual day

29	I was trying to get revenge	Revenge
30	There was nothing special about what happened	Nothing special
31	I was getting my own back	Own back
32	I knew I was taking a risk	Taking a risk
33	I guess I always knew it was going to happen	Always knew
34	I was grabbing my chance	Grab chance
35	I didn't really want to do it	Didn't want to
36	It was distressing	Distressed
37	At that time, I needed to do it	Needed to
38	It was the only way to rescue things	Rescue
39	I was in pain	Pain
40	I was in misery	Misery
41	I felt hunted	Hunted
42	I was in an unlucky place in my life	Unlucky
43	I was taken over	Taken over
44	I was out of control	Out of control
45	It was satisfying	Satisfying
46	It was a relief	Relief

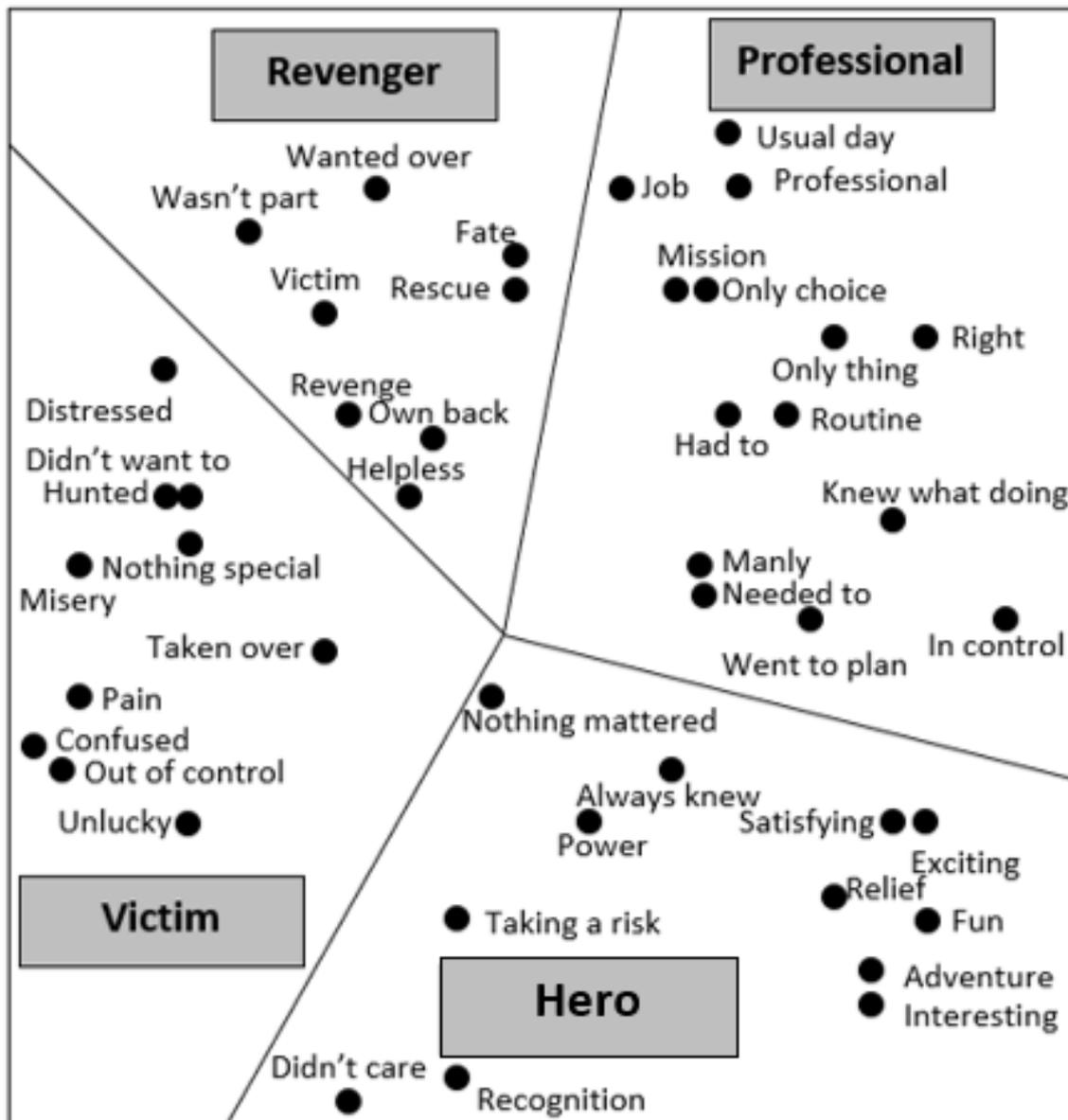
Figure 8.2 shows the SSA narrative roles projection of vector 1 by vector 2 of the three-dimensional space. The three-dimensional SSA solution has a Guttman – Lingoes coefficient of alienation of 0.18499, highlighting a good fit between the Pearson's coefficients of criminal narrative roles and the corresponding geometric distances depicted in the SSA structure. This vector was selected as it had a good coefficient of alienation and presented the correlations between variables in a clearer manner than the two-dimensional solution.

8.3. Narrative roles of child sexual offenders: structure of the SSA

The responses elicited from the 40 participants on the NRQ were represented in the SSA, highlighting the roles offenders assumed during their offending behaviour. Visual analysis of the SSA solution highlights strong correlations between variables in the top right corner of the domain. This included variables such as "I was doing a job", "I was like a professional", and "It was routine". These statements appear conceptually similar to the 'Professional' role.

Figure 8.2

Smallest space analysis of the distribution of the 46 statements. Guttman-Lingoes coefficient of alienation = 0.18499 with eight (8) iterations.



The statements contained within the 'Professional' theme reflect an individual who generally accepts responsibility for offending, as observed by statements such as "I knew what I was doing". Further, the individual presents with personal agency (e.g., "I was in control") yet minimises the impact of his behaviour by placing his own evaluations on the outcome (e.g., "it was right", "it was my only choice"). Generally, it appears that the offender was calm and emotionally stable (e.g., "For me, it was like a usual day's work"), and there was no evidence of emotional dysregulation. Previous research has highlighted the presence of positive emotions in this theme (e.g., "it was fun"; "it was interesting"), yet these were absent in the current study. This suggests that child sexual offenders in the professional theme approached

offending with a neutral demeanour, reflecting the literal meaning of the term 'professional' (i.e., "I was doing a job").

Canter and Youngs (2009) indicated that individuals who strongly endorsed items relating to the 'Professional' role were likely to be skilled in criminal behaviour and may subsequently reflect a history of criminal convictions. It appears that the variables associated with the 'Professional' theme were interpreted differently by the current sample, and their backgrounds generally reflect individuals who offended in the context of parenting or caring roles. As such, they acknowledge their offending yet considered their behaviour as being an extreme version of normative parental duties. This likely reflects an individual who has used cognitive distortions relating to parenting duties to absolve conscious objections in order to gain personal satisfaction.

There was a visual differentiation between the 'Professional' statements mentioned above and those variables which were closely correlated in the bottom right quadrant of the domain. These consisted of statements such as "it was an adventure" and "it was satisfying". Whilst these statements also reflect an individual with agency over their offending, they appear to have viewed offending in a positive manner (e.g., "it was fun"; "it was exciting") and accept the inevitable risks associated with their crime (e.g., "I knew I was taking a risk"). These statements reflect an individual for whom crime is interesting and exciting, reflecting a conceptual consistency with what previous studies have referred to as the 'Hero' role.

Canter et al. (2003) described this theme as characteristic of an individual who has little control and is pushed into offending by fate. Whilst there are elements of this with the current sample, there is no specific mention of helplessness in this theme (e.g., "what was happening was just fate"). Rather, variables such as "I didn't care what would happen" and "I knew I was taking a risk" potentially reflects the awareness of the risk associated with criminal activity yet, experiencing an urge to act regardless.

Adjacent to the 'Hero' role was a group of closely correlated variables including "I was in pain", "I was in an unlucky place in my life", and "I was taken over". These appear consistent with the Canter et al. (2003) 'Victim' role, in which offenders' narratives attempt to arouse

pity and compassion from the audience by portraying himself as a victim of circumstances. This is observed in the current study with variables such as “I was in an unlucky place in my life” and “I was out of control”. Statements from the NRQ related to the offender expressing negative emotions (such as ‘distress’; ‘pain’; and “confusion”) were a significant aspect of this theme, as was variables suggesting minimal agency over his behaviour (“I was taken over”; and, “I didn’t want to do it”).

Previous research (Canter et al., 2003) observed the ‘Victim’ role as reflecting an individual with neutral emotions, yet in this case, it appears that strong emotions were present (such as “I was in misery”; and, “I felt hunted”). These emotions potentially act as a means through which the offender can communicate the impact that his perceived misfortune had on him, with the aim to arouse pity from others.

The top left corner of the SSA appears consistent with the ‘Revenge’ role, containing variables that were similar in thematic content to the victim role, in that they reflect an individual who generally had a negative experience of crime (e.g., “I just wanted to get it over with”). The theme reflected an individual experiencing conflict with his enemy, in response to which the offender feels that he must act (e.g., “it was the only way to rescue things”). He appears to have considered his options and chose to offend as retaliation to the unjust treatment inflicted by others (e.g., “I was getting my own back”; and “I was trying to get revenge”). Because this was his only perceivable option, the narrative reflects an individual who blames others (e.g., “I was the victim”) and has minimal personal agency (e.g., “it was like I wasn’t part of it”).

8.4. Findings: Narrative roles

This current research based on a child sex offending population supports previous research in highlighting that their crime narratives can be differentiated into four (4) themes and that these themes are consistent with the ‘Professional’, ‘Revenger’, ‘Victim’ and ‘Hero’ roles. Below is a summary of the individual items which constitute each theme. Corresponding with each narrative role is a case example extrapolated from the current sample subsequent to them being allocated to dominant narrative roles. These provide further insight into the cognitive, emotional and behavioural elements of the offender’s personal crime narratives.

10.4.1. 'Professional' role

The upper right quadrant depicts variables related to the 'Professional' role. The 14 NRQ variables related to this theme are:

- I was like a professional
- I had to do it
- I knew what I was doing
- It was routine
- I was in control
- It was right
- I was doing a job
- It was a mission
- It was my only choice
- It all went to plan
- It was a manly thing to do
- For me, it was like a usual day's work
- At that time, I needed to do it
- It was the only thing to do

Case example, participant 24

- Index sexual offence: This participant was convicted of aggravated sexual assault against a six (6) year old male who was in his care.
- Offending history: this participant had been charged with previous sexual offences, although these were withdrawn and dismissed. He had no other criminal history.
- Demographics: The participant was 52 years of age at the time of offending and was unmarried and living alone.
- Narrative: The participant stated that he was a pseudo carer for the six-year-old child as his parents, who were close friends with the offender, experienced physical disabilities. The participant discussed his frustrations at being "*relied upon quite heavily*" to provide the child's care. The participant communicated that the child soiled the bed frequently and complained of gastrointestinal distress. The participant was convicted of inserting a tube into the anus of the child, which he explained during the interview as a means "*to help him (the victim) poo*". Whilst he maintained that the purpose of the offence was to assist the victim, he acknowledged that "*the syringe was the offence, I know that it was an offence*".

This case example reflects an individual with high potency/agency who takes full responsibility for his behaviour and who was in control of his actions at the time of the

offence. Whilst he doesn't appear to view crime as a way of life (i.e., prolific offending history), as observed in the 'Professional' role with general offenders, he views the offence as occurring as an everyday aspect of his life (i.e. in a pseudo parenting capacity). This is a subtle but important difference in the way the crime is viewed by a child sexual offender. The offenders focus in the narrative is on himself, and the inconvenience of needing to assist the victim and his family. As such, it doesn't appear that the victim was particularly significant to the offender. This narrative appears consistent with the 'Professional' role.

8.4.2. 'Hero' role

The bottom right quadrant depicts variables related to the 'Hero' role. The 12 NRQ variables related to this theme are:

- It was fun
- It was interesting
- It was like an adventure
- It was exciting
- Nothing else mattered
- I had power
- I was looking for recognition
- I knew I was taking a risk
- I guess I always knew it was going to happen
- It was satisfying
- It was a relief
- I didn't care what would happen

Case example, participant 11

- Index sexual offence: This participant was convicted of persistent child abuse and publish child pornography. He offended against four (4) male victims who were known to him through his professional associations.
- Offending history: Official documents indicate that this participant likely commenced sexual offending behaviour around age 18, although he doesn't have any juvenile convictions. His sexual offending history is extensive, yet he has no history of non-sexual offending behaviour. He received internal charges within custody for facilitating a "paedophile ring", including the development of a coding system to pass child abuse material between offenders. This offender is reported to have maintained detailed diary entries of his offending behaviour.
- Demographics: The participant was aged 22 at the time of the index sexual offences and was living with a female partner. Outside of incarceration, he has reportedly maintained stable employment and was previously employed by the Australian Defence Force.

- Narrative: At the time of the offence, he was working in the Royal Australian Air Force, where he was tasked as a caretaker for the base swimming pool. He acknowledged that he became “friendly” with the children who lived on the base and that this caused there to be “questions raised” by adults. He recalled that “one boy stayed in my room. Where he lived, he didn’t have a shower or anything like that. I’d gone for a shower after work, and he had been down at the pool. He came back and wanted to have a bath. So, I ran a bath for him whilst I had a shower. He called me in and started throwing water at me. He threw the soap at me to wash him, so I started washing him. He said, ‘well, don’t stop there’, so I just kept washing him, and it went on from there. He was curious, and I obliged”. He also noted that “one of the boys I had a relationship for six (6) years when he was from 13 to 19 years. It was consensual on both sides...he used to talk about sex and ask personal questions. He wanted to see my penis, so I showed him. And he showed me his. I touched it, and he said it felt good. I said that it could feel better, and then I gave him oral sex.”

Case example, participant 35

- Index sexual offence: This participant was convicted of 13 counts of sexual offences, including assaults with acts of indecency and sexual intercourse with a child under the age of 16. The offences occurred over a period of 24 years against six (6) victims, five (5) females and one (1) male. The victims ranged in age between eight (8) and 16 years and were all related to the offender.
- Offending history: This participant has a criminal history of sexual offences and possession of an unregistered pistol.
- Demographics: The offences commenced when the participant was around age 33 and appear to have occurred consistently over a 24-year period. At the time of offending, he was married and stably employed.
- Narrative: When asked to reflect on his offending, he stated: “all my life I have known that I have a problem, some kind of problem. I didn’t know what it was, but it was not knowing about sexual norms. In my youth, it was expressed in a normal childhood way, like ‘ill show you mine and you show me yours’. But when I became older, I tried to control it, and for a long while, I was able to control it. And I don’t know what allowed me to subvert my normal

upbringing...the offending has been happening since I was about 25, and for most of my adult life, I have been living with a feeling that the world was kind of going to collapse at some stage". In relation to a specific offence against his niece, he stated that the young person came to his house and that he used to "sneak to her bed at night. I enjoyed feeling her body. Caressing her body".

These two case examples reflect an individual with a long-standing attraction to children. They generally reflect on offending as a positive experience and enjoyed the contact they had with the victim. Whilst the second case reflects on the immorality of his behaviour, the first case study suggests that it was consensual. Regardless, they both appear to have little control over their sexual impulses, and their prolific offending suggests that victim availability is more significant than specific victim selection. These case studies appear consistent with the 'Hero' narrative role.

8.4.3. 'Revenger' role

The upper left quadrant depicts variables related to the 'Revenger' role. The eight (8) NRQ variables related to this theme are:

- It was like I wasn't part of it
- I was trying to get revenge
- I was a victim
- I was getting my own back
- I just wanted to get it over with
- I was helpless
- What was happening was just fate
- It was the only way to rescue things

Case example

None of the participants met the inclusion criteria for categorisation as a pure 'Revenger' theme. Whilst several were considered hybrid cases, these case examples are not provided as they fail to reflect the essence of the revenger role.

8.4.4. 'Victim' role

Finally, the bottom left quadrant depicts variables related to the 'Victim' role. The 12 NRQ variables related to this theme are:

- I was out of control
- It was distressing

- I was confused about what was happening
- I didn't really want to do it
- There was nothing special about what happened
- I was grabbing my chance
- I was in an unlucky place in my life
- I was in pain
- I was in misery
- I felt hunted
- I couldn't stop myself
- I was taken over

Case example, participant 25

- Index sexual offence: This participant was convicted of sexual offences against a prepubescent child who was unknown to him at the time of offending.
- Offending history: This participant has prior convictions for driving whilst intoxicated and aggravated sexual intercourse.
- Demographics: The offence occurred when the participant was aged 32, working and single.
- Narrative: *"I was a member of a service club, and we ran a merry-go-round. I was involved with both the merry-go-round and the client who hired it. So I was, mostly on both sides of the fence. During the day, I decided I would have a couple of drinks, and I relinquished my duties at the merry-go-around. During the afternoon I met some people they were work colleagues although I didn't know them before. Anyway, I was invited home by the family to have a meal, and then they were going to take me home. I had a few drinks, and I sat down on the lounge. There were adults around and other children. I vaguely remember asking one of the children to get a blanket and cover us. There was a fire going, and I was tired. I dozed off. I fell asleep. I was awakened by someone asking what was going on under the blanket. When the little girl was lifted up by the arm, I noticed that she was partially unclothed, and I was exposed. Apparently, she had done things to me at that time whilst I was asleep".*

Case example, participant 34

- Index sexual offence: This participant was convicted on multiple accounts of sexual intercourse with his stepdaughter. Throughout the interview, he commented on her becoming pregnant as a result of his offending and feeling aggrieved by her aborting the pregnancy without his consent.

- Offending history: This participant had no criminal history.
- Demographics: This participant commenced offending at age 60 when he was living in a long-term romantic relationship with the victim's mother.
- Narrative: *"I was the modern hen mother.... If she (the victim) had problems with the month (menstrual cycle), I would get her pads. Mostly she wouldn't go to her mother; mostly, she would come to me. What happened between her and I, we just got a bond that was so strong. Anything she wanted. She wanted me to wash her back; she would say "dad come and wash my back for me". I did everything. She got to a certain time, and she got a certain need. Because I was with her seven days a week, I got caught...She came to me and asked for favours. To ask for a cuddle and a kiss. A cuddle and a kiss lead to this and that. And then whoop! I didn't even know that she was pregnant until two and a half months when it was too late. What do you expect? I got too attached to her, and she wanted affection".*

These case studies reflect low levels of agency and discuss the offence as though they had little control. The first case study suggests that he was victimised by the victim, whereas the second case study suggests that his actions were absolved by his parental responsibilities. Whilst the victim in the first case appears to have been randomly selected based on general characteristics and availability, the victim in the second case study appears significant to the offender. The offender in the first case appears to spend time at a social gathering with children rather than the adults, which may simply act as a means to access the victim, or may represent emotional congruence with children (e.g., a preference for the company of children). Similarly, given the emotional connection expressed in the second case study, elements of emotional identification with children are also present. Overall, these two case studies reflect an offender with low agency and varying degrees of victim intimacy. As such, they appear consistent with the 'Victim' theme.

8.5. Reliability analysis

Whilst a visual inspection confirms that the current sample's responses are correlated in a manner to support the notion of four (4) distinct themes, further analysis was conducted to identify the internal consistency of each element. Specifically, Cronbach Alpha analysis was conducted on each of the roles, which produces a score between zero (0) and one (1). The

closer the Cronbach Alpha score is to one (1), the more correlated the items are, and ideally, the coefficient should be above 0.7 (DeVillis, 2012).

As observed in Table 8.1, the 'Professional' theme with 14 variables had an alpha coefficient of .89, the 'Hero' theme with 12 variables had an alpha coefficient of .87, the 'Revenger' theme with eight (8) variables had an alpha coefficient of .82, and the 'Victim' theme with 12 items had an alpha coefficient of .78. These internal consistency analyses reflect a high degree of association between the variables in each distinct element.

For each variable within a theme, the 'alpha if item deleted' is written in parentheses in Table 8.1. This highlights what (if any) changes to the overall alpha would occur if a particular variable was omitted. There were no variables in the 'Professional', 'Revenger' or 'Victim' themes that would have positively impacted the alpha coefficient if removed. Within the 'Hero' theme, the only variable which, if removed, would have strengthened the overall alpha coefficient was "I was looking for recognition". A review of the physical location within the matrix for this variable highlights no other conceivable theme for this to belong in. Further, the intensity by which this item was endorsed was the lowest of all in the 'Hero' theme (M= 2.10, SD=1.48), potentially suggesting that this item was not as significant to the 'Hero' theme as compared with other variables.

8.6. *The intensity of themes*

Each of the NRQ items was scored on a five-point Likert scale, allowing participants to reflect the extent to which the statements were consistent with their experiences. Their responses ranged from 'not at all' = 1, 'just a little' = 2, 'some' = 3, 'a lot' = 4, 'very much' = 5. The mean scores for each of the variables and their standard deviation are presented in Table 8.2. Review of individual items provides further insight into child sexual offenders narratives, with the least intense variables including "I felt manly" (M=1.33, SD=0.86); "I was going a job" (M=1.38, SD=0.98); and "it was like a usual days work" (M=1.40, SD=1.0). Interestingly, these variables were strongly correlated and placed within the 'Professional' role. Statements "I knew what I was doing" (M=3.13, SD=1.51) and "I knew I was taking a risk" (M=3.41, SD=1.45) from the 'Professional' and 'Hero' roles, respectively, were the items endorsed with the most intensity by this sample. This provides an interesting insight in that the variables which

Table 8.1

Narratives of offending (with Alpha if item deleted in parentheses)

	Theme			
	Professional	Hero	Revenger	Victim
Items	Professional (.89) Had to (.87) Right (.88) Routine (.87) Control (.89) Job (.88) Plan (.88) Only thing (.87) Only choice (.88) Mission (.87) Manly (.89) Usual work (.88) Needed to (.88) Went to plan (.88) Knew what doing (.88)	Fun (.85) Interesting (.85) Adventure (.85) Exciting (.85) Recognition (.88) Didn't care (.86) Satisfying (.85) Relief (.86) Taking risk (.86) Knew would happen (.86) Nothing mattered (.86) Power (.87)	Victim (.79) Revenge (.79) Wanted over (.81) Helpless (.80) Own back (.78) Wasn't part (.82) Fate (.80) Needed to rescue (.78)	Misery (.75) Hunted (.75) Unlucky (.76) Taken over (.75) Out control (.76) Pain (.76) Didn't want (.78) Distressing (.77) Nothing special (.78) Confused (.77) Grab chance (.78) Couldn't stop (.77)
No. of items	14	12	8	12
Cronbach's alpha	.89	.87	.82	.78

received the highest and lowest endorsement, suggesting that offenders generally understood the risks associated with their offending at the time.

Mean scores on each of the four (4) themes were also extrapolated, highlighting the extent to which those items were endorsed. The Hero role was endorsed with the greatest intensity (M= 2.57, SD=0.34), followed by the 'Victim' role (M=2.43, SD=0.39), the Professional' role (M=1.94, SD=0.56) and finally, the 'Revenger' role (M=1.76, SD=0.34). This suggests that statements associated with the 'Hero' role were experienced with the greatest intensity. Conversely, those in the 'Revenger' role were modestly endorsed.

To observe the relationships between the narrative roles, an analysis was conducted utilising a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), and results are depicted in Table 8.3. The evidence highlights a correlation between the 'Professional' and 'Revenger' role, in addition to the

‘Professional’ and ‘Hero’ role. The ‘Victim’ role is correlated with the ‘Revenge’ role and also the ‘Hero’ role. This highlights that themes geographically placed beside one another have significant correlations. The ‘Victim’ and ‘Revenger’ role had the highest correlation, suggesting that they share similar thematic content.

Table 8.2

Narrative roles by theme (Variable means and standard deviation in parentheses)

Professional (n=14, M=1.94, SD=0.56)	Hero (n=12, M=2.57, SD= 0.34)
Professional- 1.68 (1.12)	Fun – 2.31 (1.24)
Had to – 2.35 (1.37)	Interesting – 2.26 (1.25)
Right – 1.78 (1.79)	Hero – 2.62 (1.39)
Routine – 1.83 (1.83)	Exciting – 2.72 (1.36)
Control – 2.68 (1.44)	Recognition- 2.10 (1.48)
Job – 1.38 (0.98)	Didn’t care – 2.77 (1.58)
Plan – 1.70 (1.14)	Satisfying -2.54 (1.37)
Only thing – 1.88 (1.31)	Relief – 2.33 (1.46)
Only choice – 1.63 (1.13)	Taking risk – 3.41 (1.45)
Mission – 1.73 (1.18)	Knew would happen – 2.36 (1.57)
Manly – 1.33 (0.86)	Nothing mattered – 2.74 (1.43)
Usual work – 1.40 (1.00)	Power – 2.62 (1.30)
Knew what doing – 3.13 (1.51)	
Needed to – 2.73 (1.52)	
Revenger (n=8, M=1.76, SD=0.34)	Victim (n=12, M=2.43, SD=0.39)
Victim – 1.59 (1.10)	Misery – 2.59 (1.71)
Revenge – 1.49 (1.12)	Hunted – 1.79 (1.38)
Wanted over – 2.08 (1.33)	Unlucky – 2.87 (1.58)
Helpless – 1.95 (1.23)	Taken over – 1.87 (1.32)
Own back – 1.44 (1.10)	Out control – 2.92 (1.56)
Wasn’t part – 2.38 (1.50)	Pain – 2.49 (1.70)
Fate – 1.67 (1.13)	Didn’t want – 2.15 (1.33)
Needed to rescue - 1.51 (1.00)	Distressing – 2.54 (1.70)
	Nothing special – 2.10 (1.47)
	Confused – 2.46 (1.43)
	Grab chance – 2.51 (1.40)
	Couldn’t stop – 2.92 (1.42)

Congruent with Frye’s theory of archetypes (1957), these findings support the circular nature of child sexual offenders’ criminal narratives. Specifically, the results suggest that child sexual offenders’ narrative can be differentiated into distinct roles, and whilst thematically distinct,

Table 8.3

Correlations among narrative roles

	Narrative	1	2	3
1	Professional			
2	Hero	.316*		
3	Revenger	.376**	0.067	
4	Victim	.025	.311*	.617**

***p<0.05; **p<0.01**

they are dynamic in quality. This is observed by similar variables occupying different themes, yet being contiguously placed to represent their correlation. In theory, themes which are opposed (e.g., such as winter and summer) should be less correlated than contiguous themes (e.g., winter and autumn, or summer and spring). This is represented in the current study, with there being little correlation between opposed themes, specifically between 'Professional' and 'Victim' themes and 'Revenger' and 'Hero' themes.

8.7. Dominant criminal narrative roles

To test the criminal narrative theory, individual cases were assigned to narrative roles based on the proportion of endorsed responses to questionnaire items (and subsequent variables). To do this, variables from the NRQ which related to specific narrative roles were identified. Individuals responses to each of these variables were tallied and given the unequal number of variables in each theme, and the totals were considered in light of the highest possible response for that theme and subsequently transformed into percentages. Cases were allocated to a narrative role if the percentage of the dominant theme was greater than the remaining themes by 5%. This method of classification has been used in previous research relating to the forensic population, although with variance between studies in relation to their specific requirements for allocation. Cases were assigned to hybrid narrative roles if they presented with two (2) themes of equal percentages (or less than the required 5% between themes). If more than two (2) themes had equal percentages (or within 5% of the third theme), the individual was considered as being uncategorizable.

It is noted that stringent criteria for allocation were attempted, specifically, that observed within previous research (such as Canter & Fritzon, 1998; Salfati, 2000; Ioannou, Canter & Youngs, 2017; Ioannou, Synnott, Lowe & Tzani-Pepelasi, 2018). When applying this criterion to the current population, none of the 40 participants could be allocated to a dominant theme. This suggests that child sexual offenders experience a broader range of narrative roles than seen with other offending population. Given the circular order of Frye’s narrative forms, this likely suggests that child sex offenders experience psychological features in themes on either side of their most prevalent theme.

As presented in Table 8.4, after assigning individual cases to dominant roles, it was clear that most child sex offenders in the current sample could be assigned to one of the four (4) dominant roles. Specifically, 67.5% met the pre-set criteria for allocation to one dominant theme, of which a little over half (54%) were allocated to the ‘Hero’ theme. The ‘Victim’ theme had the second-highest representation (27.5%), followed by the ‘Professional’ theme (5%). Interestingly, whilst several offenders presented with hybrid roles, including the ‘Revenger theme’, there were no offenders who were considered pure ‘Revenagers’. Even by relaxing the allocation criteria and simply assigning cases according to the theme with the highest percentage score, still, no offenders would be assigned to the ‘Revenger’ theme. This suggests that whilst child sexual offenders represent aspects of the ‘Revenger’ role, none of them embodied this as a dominant narrative.

Table 8.4

Child sexual offender dominant roles (pure and hybrid types)

Pure type	% (n)	Hybrid type	% (n)
Hero	37.5% (n=15)	Hero-victim hybrid	10% (n=4)
Professional	5% (n=2)	Hero-professional hybrid	5% (n=2)
Victim	27.5% (n=11)	Professional – revenger hybrid	2.5% (n=1)
Revenger	0% (n=0)	Victim – revenger hybrid	7.5% (n=3)
		Uncategorizable	5% (n=2)

When considering both the pure and hybrid groups, the 'Hero' theme is prevalent in over 87% of examined cases. This suggests that variables associated with this theme are inherently part of child sexual offending experiences.

Of the cases which were unable to be allocated to an individual theme (n=12), 83% (n=10) were allocated to a hybrid group. Only two (2) participants were unable to be differentiated into either a pure or hybrid group. Although child sexual offenders (based on this sample) experience elements of all four (4) roles present in previous research on general offenders, it appears that the 'Revenger' theme is inherently lacking from child sexual offenders' narratives.

Research conducted by Ioannou et al. (2015) compared the narratives of offenders across offence types and found that 45% of sexual offenders were assigned to the 'Victim' role, 25% to the 'Revenger' role, 15% to the 'Hero' role and 10% to the 'Professional' role. The findings suggest that the highest percentage of participants from their sample endorsed narrative role variables consistent with the 'Victim' role, which is inconsistent with the current findings. Whilst 27.5% of the current sample was assigned to the 'Victim' role as a dominant theme, this was second to the 'Hero' role. In the aforementioned previous study, the 'Hero' role appeared less prevalent. It is notable that Ioannou et al. (2015) assigned 25% of participants to the 'Revenge' role, yet this theme was distinctly lacking in the current sample. These differences may, at least in part, relate to differences between crime narratives of child sexual offenders versus general sexual offenders.

8.8. Phase 1 discussion

Statistical analysis of the participant's responses to the NRQ questionnaire relating to self-reported crime experiences highlighted the presence of four (4) narratives, which appear thematically congruent with those observed in previous research. As in previous research (Canter et al., 2003; Youngs & Canter, 2012), the 'Professional' role reflected an individual who accepted responsibility for his offending and who acted this out in a calm emotional state. Whilst research relating to general offenders has reflected this theme as representing skilled and experienced offenders, child sexual offenders appear to have interpreted this in a different manner. Specifically, those who endorsed these items seem to have offended in the

context of parental or carer roles over the victim and therefore appear to have justified offending as normative behaviour. Whilst continuing to take responsibility for their actions, communicating their behaviour in the context of parental duties potentially resolved them of any moral objection and allows them to obtain their overarching and self-serving objective.

The 'Hero' role reflected positive and thrill-seeking experiences, where risks relating to offending were identified yet overcome due to strong urges to act. In contrast, the 'Victim' role revealed an impotent individual who offended in a state of powerlessness and despair. The current sample endorsed strong negative emotions in this theme, which are likely a means to communicate to the audience the extent of injury caused to the offender by others. Finally, there was evidence of the 'Revenger' role depicted by negative criminal experiences in response to perceived injustice. This reflects an individual who has thought through the situation and found that offending is the only conceivable option to rectify the harm caused to him. As such, the victim is significant to the offence, in particular, their reaction to their victimisation. The orientation of sexual offenders' criminal narratives within a multidimensional space support Frye's circumplex of literary themes (1957).

The second objective of this phase was to determine if child sexual offenders presented with dominant narrative themes, as observed within the literature with other offending populations (Ioannou, Canter, Youngs & Synnott, 2015). Of the current sample, 54% of classifiable participants (i.e., those who were able to be classified into a 'pure' dominant theme) were allocated to the 'Hero' theme, followed by the 'Victim' role (24.5%). A small number (n=2, 5%) were allocated to the 'Professional' role, and there were no pure 'Revenger' themed participants. This is inconsistent with previous research, which highlighted the greatest proportion of sexual offenders being assigned to the 'Victim' group (45%) followed by the 'Revenger' (15%), 'Hero' (10%) and 'Professional' (5%) roles. Across these two studies, it appears that the offender having little agency is a central theme within their narratives. Child sex offenders in the current sample tended to show few high agency traits, whilst these were featured in the previous study with adult sex offenders. This potentially indicates the difference in cognitive processing across offence types and indicative of different forms of cognitive distortions evident.

The current research suggests that offenders demonstrate tendencies from all four (4) narrative roles yet reflect strong themes relating to the ‘Hero’ and ‘Victim’ themes. This potentially reflects differences between the criminal narratives of child sexual offenders in comparison to sexual offenders more generally.

8.9. Phase 2- Static risk and narrative roles

The initial investigation within phase two related to the overall risk scores on the Static-99R and the Static-2002 in relation to the narrative roles. Correlational and regression analyses were conducted to determine the relationship between participants risk scores and the four (4) roles identified in the first phase of this study (‘Revenger’, ‘Professional’, ‘Victim’ and, ‘Hero’ roles). There were no statistically significant findings in relation to the regression analysis on all fronts. The results of the correlation analysis, however, reflected a statistically significant correlation between the ‘Professional’ role and total risk on the Static-99R, although the effect size is weak (see Table 8.5). Interestingly, there is no evidence of any correlation between the narrative roles and the Static-2002R total score. This supports the notion that whilst the Static-99R and Static-2002R are similar and hold proportionate predictive validity, they examine different risk factors and different psychological constructs.

Table 8.5
Correlations among the four (4) narrative roles and the total risk scores on the Static-99R and the Static-2002R.

	Narrative role	Static-99R total score	Static-2002R total score
1	Professional	.253*	.210
2	Hero	.139	.227
3	Victim	.021	.098
4	Revenger	.086	-.009

***p<0.05; **p<0.01**

Within the narrative framework, the ‘Professional’ role is characterised by a protagonist (the offender) who is in control of his environment and who normalises criminal activity (high potency). He tends to take responsibility for his behaviour, yet by placing his own evaluations on the outcome, he minimises the impact that his offending has on others. Offenders who

assign themselves to the 'Professional role' have a strong identity, whereas others in the story are of less significance (low intimacy). The 'Professional' role is characterised by a calm and emotionally stable main character, which is likely related to his prolific offending behaviour. The protagonist is primarily focused on mastering his environment and sees offending as an opportunity to gain satisfaction and pleasure. No other significant relationships were observed between overall risk scores and the four (4) narrative roles.

The second level of analysis in phase 2 related to the four narrative roles identified in phase one (1) of this study and the three (3) latent constructs of the combined Static-99R and Static-2002. Specifically, these have been identified as 1) persistent paraphilia, 2) YSA, and, 3) general criminality. Correlational analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between the narratives and latent constructs. As reflected in Table 8.6, the results indicate that out of the three (3) latent constructs, the narrative roles are only correlated with 'persistent paraphilia'. In particular, the most promising results lie in the relationship between the offender assigning himself to a 'Hero' role and scoring high on items relating to persistent paraphilia, which held a medium effect size.

Table 8.6

Correlations between narrative roles and latent constructs of the Static-99R and Static-2002R

	YSA	Criminality	Persistent paraphilia
Professional	-.070	.054	.265*
Hero	.190	.194	.461**
Victim	-.083	-.049	.038*
Revenger	-.093	.033	.150

***p<0.05; **p<0.01**

The 'Hero' role is an adaptation of the romantic quest (in literary terms), in which offending is a positive experience, driven by cognitive distortions involving the minimisation of impact and externalising responsibility. For him, crime is interesting, and his affect is neutral to positive. He tends to believe he has little control over his situation but rather is pushed by fate. Others are insignificant to him, and his own identity is weak. This narrative role involves low potency/agency and low intimacy. An offender with low levels of potency/agency would

be observed as playing a passive role in offending, for example, feeling as though they got dragged into offending by external sources.

'Persistent paraphilia' is the only latent construct exclusively related to sexual criminality, whereas the other two (2) latent constructs are also associated with non-sexual recidivism (Brouillette-Alarie et al., 2018). Recent research suggests that 'persistent paraphilia' represents the fixated child molester offence process, where grooming behaviours are preferred over forms of physical coercion (Proulx, Perreault, & Ouimet, 1999; Brouillette-Alarie et al., 2018). As such, this latent construct appears specifically relevant to child sex offenders, where grooming is particularly evident. It is noted that "*although rapist could, in theory, score high on persistent paraphilia because of persistence in sexual crimes alone, convergent validity analysis and descriptive statistics suggested otherwise*" (Brouillette-Alarie et al., 2018, p691). Given the nature of current participants victim selection (i.e., children), the correlation between their narratives with persistent paraphilia, as opposed to the other two latent constructs, is intuitively sound.

The relationship between the 'Hero' role and 'persistent paraphilia' potentially suggests that offenders who assign themselves to the 'Hero' role are driven to offend by deviant sexual interests rather than any specific interest in the victim themselves. It also suggests that low levels of potency/agency are driven by cognitive distortions, which in turn facilitate deviant fantasy. This is consistent with Brouillette-Alarie et al. (2018), who describe persistent paraphilia as relating to atypical sexual interest and little interest in victim harm.

Out of the four (4) narrative roles, it appears that the 'Revenger' is the only one that has no significant relationship with the overall risk scores or the three (3) latent psychological variables. On the basis of all analysis conducted in this study, the presence and significance of the 'Revenger' role within child sexual offenders' experiences appear weak.

The final level of analysis in phase two (2) aimed to determine if there were any relationships between individual risk factors extrapolated from the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R, in conjunction with individual items from the NRQ. Table 8.7 depicts items on the NRQ, which were statistically correlated with overall risk scores on the two actuarial measures, including

their corresponding narrative role in parentheses. Individual items were predominantly from the ‘Professional’ role, although all four (4) narrative roles were represented.

Table 8.7

Individual NRQ items (n=46) correlated with total risk scores (Static-99R and Static-2002R)

NRQ item (narrative role)	Static-99R	Static-2002R
I had to do it (professional)	.414**	.358*
It was right (professional)	.287*	
It was routine (professional)	.310*	.295*
I was in control (professional)	.325*	
It was exciting (professional)	.278*	.297*
It all went to plan (professional)	.291*	
I was trying to get revenge (revenger)	.315*	
I was getting my own back (revenger)	.281*	
I was in an unlucky place in my life (victim)	.271*	.281*
It was fun (hero)		.295*

Note. Statistically significant results only (*p<0.05; **p<0.01)

These results are further indication that the narrative roles have a stronger correlation with the Static-99R than the Static-2002R in relation to overall risk scores. The NRQ item ‘it was fun’ is the only item uniquely correlated to the Static-2002R, although the effect size is noted. Despite this, further investigation into individual items (Table 8.8) indicates that ‘it was fun’ was statistically correlated with youthful stranger aggression. This may provide some insight into one of the many subtle differences between the psychological constructs of the Static-99R and Static-2002R.

The evolution of research into the constructs of static risk assessments has consistently identified the presence of ‘persistent paraphilia’ and ‘general criminality’, or variants of these titles (Brouillette-Alarie et al., 2016). Most research has identified a third construct, although its thematic content has been less consistent across studies (Brouillette-Alarie et al., 2018). Whilst some have interpreted it as devoid of meaning, others have considered it related to

emotional detachment or, more recently, ‘youthful stranger aggression’ (Brouillette-Alarie et al., 2018). An investigation into individual items suggests that ‘youthful stranger aggression’ is only positively correlated with individual items from the ‘Hero’ role whilst negatively correlated with one individual NRQ items from each of the other three narrative roles. Statements such as ‘it was fun’ and ‘it was exciting’ reflect a level of callousness, and ‘I didn’t care what would happen’ suggests acceptance of known adverse consequences. Conversely, ‘youthful stranger aggression’ is negatively correlated with distress and viewing oneself as a victim. On the basis of the narrative roles framework, it is, therefore, possible that this construct is based on goal-orientated criminal activity, which brings the offender personal enjoyment and fulfilment. Brouillette-Alarie et al. (2018) suggest that youthful stranger aggression may be categorised by an offender who has the intent to harm the victim, which is fitting with the current results from the narrative perspective.

Table 8.8

Individual NRQ items (n=46) and correlations with latent constructs (combined Static-99R and Static-2002R)

NRQ item (role theme)	Persistent paraphilia	YSA
I had to do it (professional)	.431**	
It was fun (hero)	.285*	.304*
It was interesting (hero)	.280*	
It was like an adventure (hero)	.278*	
It was exciting (hero)	.403**	.297*
I knew what I was doing (professional)	.380**	
I had power (hero)	.330*	
I couldn’t stop myself (victim)	.467**	
I knew I was taking a risk (hero)	.372*	
I guess I always knew it would happen (hero)	.385**	
I was grabbing my chance (victim)	.330*	
It was satisfying (hero)	.405**	
It was a relief (hero)	.403**	
It was a job (professional)		-.347*

I was a victim (revenger)		-.275*
I didn't care what would happen (hero)		.322*
It was distressing (victim)		-.304*

Note. Statistically significant results only (*p<0.05; **p<0.01)

Persistent paraphilia has been statistically correlated with 13 of the 46 NRQ individual items. Most prominently, it appears to be related to items reflecting low agency/potency, such as 'I had to do it' and 'I couldn't stop myself'. Further, it appears to have generally evoked positive emotions, as evidenced by statements 'it was satisfying' and 'it was exciting'. Statements such as 'I guess I always knew it was going to happen' suggest that the offender held cognitive awareness of risk-propensities prior to offending (such as deviant sexual interest, for example), which were alleviated through sexual violence, as evidenced by statements such as 'it was a relief'.

Finally, narrative roles were investigated in relation to individual risk factors identified in the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R. As observed in Table 8.9, high scores on the 'Professional' role were moderately associated with a history of non-contact sexual offending. This risk factor on the Static-99R and Static-2002R is thought to represent the presence of deviant sexual interest. Given that the 'Professional' role was also correlated with 'persistent paraphilia', it appears that the 'Professional' role is associated with atypical sexual interests.

Table 8.9.

Narrative roles and individual risk factors (Static-99R and Static-2002R) (with latent construct in parentheses)

Narrative role	Individual risk factors (construct)	r
Professional	Non-contact sexual offence (persistent paraphilia)	.348*
Hero	Breach history (general criminality)	.360*
	Never lived with a lover (young stranger aggression)	.313*
	Non-contact sex offence (persistent paraphilia)	.358*
	Rates of sex offending (persistent paraphilia)	.345*
	Unrelated/stranger victim (youthful stranger aggression)	.297*

Note. Statistically significant results only (* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$)

The 'Hero' role was correlated with five of the 12 individual risk factors comprising the Static-99R and Static-2002R. The risk factors are varied and may relate to several psychological constructs, including self-regulation deficits (e.g., breach history), antiauthoritarian attitudes (e.g., breach history), intimacy deficits (e.g., never lived with a lover), sexual deviancy (e.g., non-contact sexual offence, unrelated/stranger victim) and hypersexuality (e.g., rates of offending). As such, it is possible that individual who are predominantly associated with the 'Hero' role may be generally dysregulated, both sexually and non-sexually. At the latent construct level of analysis, the 'Hero' role was only significantly correlated with persistent paraphilia, yet this level of analysis suggests that the 'Hero' role may include traits from general criminality and youthful stranger aggression constructs.

8.10. Narrative roles as a framework

The results of the current study have supported the hypothesis that child sex offenders assign themselves to the four narrative roles during their offence. In particular, the 'Hero' role was dominant, in contrast to literature pertaining to adult sex offenders. To conceptualise the findings, it is important to understand the constructs underpinning the narratives roles and discuss how these relate to recidivism risk. As mentioned earlier, the narratives are based on variants of intimacy (high or low) and agency (high or low), giving rise to the quadrant model of themes. The results indicate that there is no statistical significance between high risk scores and high levels of intimacy, indicating that the victim held significance to the offender. Rather, low levels of intimacy (i.e., the victim holding no personal significance to the offender) was statistically correlated with five (5) of the 14 individual risk factors (namely, convictions for a non-contact sex offence, breach supervision history, never lived with a lover, rates of sexual offending and having unrelated/stranger victim). This suggests that the victim having little significance may be associated with impulsivity and general self-regulation deficits. It also suggests that they may have a general disregard for others or have social skill deficits.

High risk scores (on items: young and unrelated victim; rates of sexual offending; and convictions for non-contact sexual offence) were correlated with high levels of agency. This indicates that for these offences, the offender is asserting his will/power upon others, and he

acknowledged his actions (although likely dismisses the harm caused). By contrast, low agency scores were associated with a history of risk factors indicative of general dysregulation.

The narrative roles model has not only highlighted the way child sex offenders perceive themselves during crime but also highlight the cognitive distortions and intimacy deficits associated with certain actuarial risk factors.

8.11. Chapter summary

The aim of this study was to determine if the narrative roles framework had applicability with this population and to determine any subsequent relationships between narrative roles and static risk scores. Examination of the results reveals four primary findings. The first relates to the narrative role's offenders assigned to themselves during the commissioning of their offence. When applied to child sex offenders, the results of the narrative roles framework reflected four (4) distinct themes, consistent with the 'Revenger', 'Hero', 'Professional' and 'Victim' roles (Youngs & Canter, 2012). Interestingly, when assigning participants to dominant themes, results suggest that the 'Hero' and 'Victim' roles account for over 90% of offenders assigned to pure themes. In considering the control/agency and intimacy variants, these results suggest that the majority of the sample expressed a lack of agency and control over their offending behaviour.

The second major finding involves the correlation between narrative themes and overall risk scores. Specifically, it appears that there is a statistically significant relationship between the 'Professional' role and overall risk scores on the Static-99R, although with a small effect size. The third major finding suggests that the narrative roles highlight risk in relation to persistent paraphilia, which is the most predictive of sexual recidivism out of the three latent constructs. In particular, the 'Professional' and 'Hero' roles are correlated with persistent paraphilia, along with the 'Victim' role, although the effect size for the latter was very small. The 'Hero' role had the strongest correlation with persistent paraphilia, reflecting low agency and low intimacy. Both the 'Professional' and 'Hero' role is categorised by low intimacy, suggesting that offenders who view their victim with little personal significance tend to have higher scores relating to persistent paraphilia. It is possible that these offenders fail to see the victim

as a significant person but are rather focused on their sexual goals. In doing so, there is no evidence of sadism or unnecessary harm to the victim, but rather likely seen as a means to achieve their intended goal. The 'Hero' role, as categorised by low agency/control, potentially relates to the dysregulation associated with persistent sexual behaviour, such as hypersexuality and difficulties regulating sexual urges.

The final prominent finding relates to individual risk factors and individual items from the NRQ. This level of analysis has arguably provided the most psychologically meaningful results. Whilst there is no suggestion that any item on the NRQ is predictive of high-risk scores, just as no individual risk factor (or latent construct for that matter) is predictive of high risk scores, individual items provide some clarity to otherwise global and complex constructs. Further, there is evidence that specific items such as "I couldn't stop myself" and "I was grabbing my chance" were moderately correlated with persistent paraphilia, yet their overarching theme ('Victim' role) showed a very small effect size in relation to persistent paraphilia. This highlights the utility of investigating individual items, regardless of the relationship between their overarching theme and risk. Finally, individual risk factors provide insight into potential behaviours associated with narrative roles (i.e., 'Hero' role correlated with a history of supervision breaches). These results suggest that static risk factors are able to give insight into narratives roles, as much as narrative roles provide insight into the psychological constructs of risk.

In summary, this is the first research project of its kind in utilising the narrative framework to understand static risk factors. The findings of this study provide further support for the four narrative roles and provide valuable insight into this unique subset of offenders. Acknowledging the need for greater research, it is anticipated that this research provides greater interest, if not understanding, into the risk-relevant propensities of sexual offenders. In particular, the intimacy variant of the narrative role's framework appears to be most relevant to the child sex offending populations risk and subsequently warrants further investigation.

Chapter 9

Study three:

Child sex offender's
criminal narratives
experiences (CNE) and risk
correlates

9.1 *Criminal Narrative Experience.*

This chapter critically examines study three (3), which relates to the criminal narrative experience. The investigation is divided into two phases, with the first investigating the criminal narrative experience (i.e., the combines narrative roles and affective experiences of crime) that the offender experiences during the commissioning of a child sexual assault. The second relates to the correlations between static risk scores and offenders' criminal narrative experience.

Phase one: The first phase investigates the sample using the criminal narrative experience (CNE) investigates, which includes a combination of the narratives roles (taken from the narrative roles questionnaire) and the emotions of crime (taken from the emotions of crime questionnaire) to form a complete understanding of offending experiences. The intent behind this is to determine if child sexual offenders can be categorised into four (4) CNE themes, consistent with past research (Ioannou, Canter and Youngs, 2017). The two (2) specific objectives are as follows:

3. To examine if the CNE, when applied to child sexual offenders, elicits four (4) distinct themes, consistent with the 'Distressed-Revenger', 'Elated-Hero', 'Calm-Professional' and 'Depressed- Victim' roles (Ioannou, Canter and Youngs, 2017).
4. To determine if child sexual offenders' present with dominant CNE themes, as observed within the literature with other offending populations (Ioannou, Canter and Youngs, 2017).

Phase two (2): The second phase of the research relates to the static risk of child sexual offenders. Specifically, the objective is to determine if there is any correlation between the CNE outcomes for child sex offenders and their risk of recidivism scores on the Static-99R and Static-2002R. There are three (3) levels of analysis to achieve this objective

7. To investigate overall risk scores on the Static-99R and Static-2002R in relation to the CNE themes identified in the first phase of this study.
8. To investigate three (3) latent constructs of the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R, namely 'persistent paraphilia', 'youthful stranger aggression (YSA)' and 'criminality', in relation to the CNE themes.

9. To investigate individual CNE statements (based on the NRQ and the emotional experiences of crime) and individual risk factors (from the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R) to determine if there are any correlations between them.

Given the different psychological constructs of the static risk assessments used and the multiple facets assessed within the CNE, it is anticipated that the narrative framework will have little correlation with the overall risk scores. However, it is hypothesised that the CNE will be related to some of the latent psychological constructs of these actuarial measures (specifically 'persistent paraphilia').

9.2. Phase one (1): Criminal Narrative Experience Framework

The objective of this study is to examine the criminal narrative experiences of offenders, taking into consideration their dominant narrative roles (taken from the Narrative Roles Questionnaire) and their emotional experiences (taken from the emotional experiences of crime questionnaire). From the analysis of 120 cases, previous research into offender's narrative experiences (Canter & Youngs, 2017) identified four distinct themes, namely, Elated Hero, Calm Professional, Distressed Revenger, and Depressed Victim (Ioannou, Canter and Youngs, 2017).

9.2.1. Smallest space analysis (SSA)

To determine the criminal narrative experiences of child sexual offenders, which incorporates the roles and emotions experienced by the offender, the 40 participants of the current sample responded to 59 statements comprised of 26 statements from the criminal emotional experiences questionnaire and 33 statements from the Narrative Roles Questionnaire (NRQ) (Table 9.1).

These statements covered a range of emotional and narrative experiences and were scored by participants on a five-point Likert scale. The responses elicited by the participants were analysed using smallest space analysis (SSA-I) technique, which has successfully been implemented in past research of similar nature (Ioannou, Canter & Youngs, 2017; Canter, Kaouri & Ioannou, 2003; Youngs & Canter, 2012; Ioannou, Canter, Youngs & Synnott, 2015;

Spruin, Canter, Youngs & Coulston, 2014). A comprehensive overview of this multidimensional procedure has previously been stated.

Table 9.1

The Criminal Narrative Experience statements and Analysis Labels.

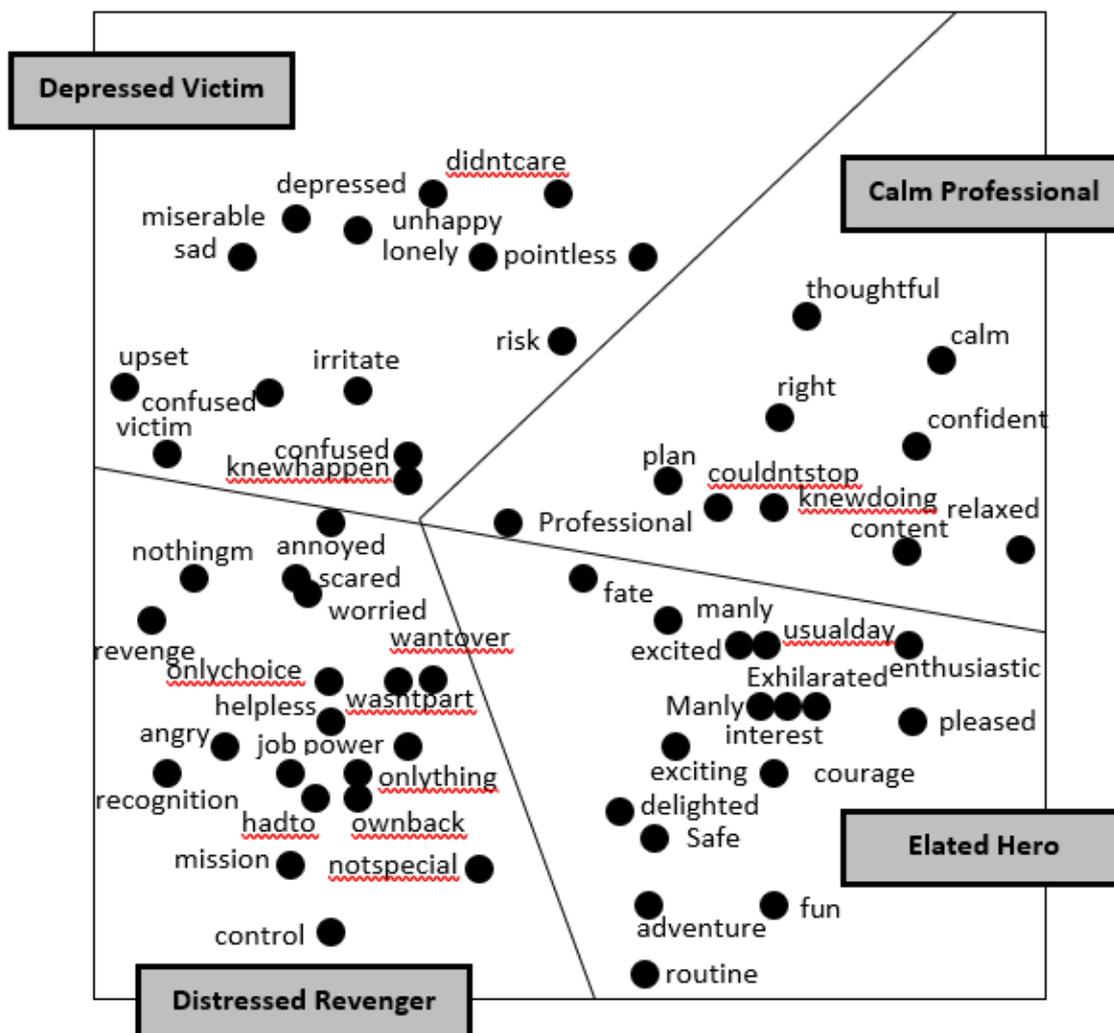
Variable number	Full question	Analysis label	Type
1	I felt lonely	Lonely	Emotion
2	I felt scared	Scared	Emotion
3	I felt exhilarated	Exhilarated	Emotion
4	I felt confident	Confident	Emotion
5	I felt upset	Upset	Emotion
6	I felt pleased	Pleased	Emotion
7	I felt calm	Calm	Emotion
8	I felt safe	Safe	Emotion
9	I felt worried	Worried	Emotion
10	I felt depressed	depressed	Emotion
11	I felt enthusiastic	Enthusiastic	Emotion
12	I felt thoughtful	Thoughtful	Emotion
13	I felt annoyed	Annoyed	Emotion
14	I felt angry	Angry	Emotion
15	I felt sad	Sad	Emotion
16	I felt excited	Excited	Emotion
17	I felt confused	Confused	Emotion
18	I felt miserable	Miserable	Emotion
19	I felt irritated	Irritate	Emotion
20	I felt relaxed	Relaxed	Emotion
21	I felt delighted	Delighted	Emotion
22	I felt unhappy	Unhappy	Emotion
23	I felt courageous	Courageous	Emotion
24	I felt contented	Contented	Emotion
25	I felt manly	Manly	Emotion
26	I felt pointless	Pointless	Emotion
27	I was like a professional	Professional	Role
28	I had to do it	Had to	Role
29	It was fun	Fun	Role
30	It was right	Right	Role
31	It was interesting	Interesting	Role
32	It was like an adventure	Adventure	Role
33	It was routine	Routine	Role
34	I was in control	In control	Role
35	It was exciting	Exciting	Role
36	I was doing a job	Job	Role

37	I knew what I was doing	Knew what doing	Role
38	It was the only thing to do	Only thing	Role
39	It was a mission	Mission	Role
40	Nothing else mattered	Nothing mattered	Role
41	I had power	Power	Role
42	I was helpless	Helpless	Role
43	It was my only choice	Only choice	Role
44	I was a victim	Victim	Role
45	I was confused about what was happening	Confused	Role
46	I was looking for recognition	Recognition	Role
47	I just wanted to get it over with	Wanted over	Role
48	I didn't care what would happen	Didn't care	Role
49	What was happening was just fate	Fate	Role
50	It all went to plan	Went to plan	Role
51	I couldn't stop myself	Couldn't stop	Role
52	It was like I wasn't part of it	Wasn't part	Role
53	It was a manly thing to do	Manly	Role
54	For me, it was like a usual day's work	Usual day	Role
55	I was trying to get revenge	Revenge	Role
56	There was nothing special about what happened	Nothing special	Role
57	I was getting my own back	Own back	Role
58	I knew I was taking a risk	Taking risk	Role
59	I guess I always knew it was going to happen	Always knew	Role

Figure 9.1 shows the SSA narrative roles projection of vector one (1) by vector two (2) of the three (3)-dimensional space. SSA attempts to represent the data in the smallest space possible (Guttman & Greenbaum, 1989), although this needs to be balanced against the 'goodness of fit'. In this case, the three -dimensional SSA solution has a Guttman – Lingoes coefficient of alienation of 0.26426. Given the nature of the research, this is considered an adequate fit between Pearson's coefficients of criminal emotional experiences and visual representation. This vector was selected as it presented the correlations in a clear manner and was considered to have adequate goodness of fit.

Figure 9.1

One by two projection of the 3-dimensional SSA of emotions and narrative roles with regional interpretation (pleasure axis and Frye's story forms- mythoi). Guttman-Lingoes coefficient of alienation = .026426 with 22 iterations



9.3 Emotions experienced during offending for child sexual offenders.

Upon visual examination, the SSA reveals a clear separation of the emotions, specifically reflecting the pleasure axis outlined in Russell's (1997) circumplex of emotions. On the right side of the plot, emotions associated with pleasure are depicted, including "pleased", "excited", and "delighted". Conversely, on the left side of the plot, emotions associated with displeasure are depicted, including "depressed", "unhappy", and "angry". Also evident, although to a lesser extent, was a distinction between the emotions based on arousal. As hypothesised, emotions in the upper half of the plot appear thematically consistent in that they have less arousal (e.g., "unhappy", "lonely", "thoughtful", "calm") than the emotions in the bottom half of the plot (e.g., "angry", "excited", "exhilarated", "scared").

The results of this study, in relation to the emotional experiences of offending, highlights that child sexual offenders' experience crime as either pleasurable or unpleasurable states. This is consistent with previous research (Canter, Kaouri & Ioannou, 2003) and the findings from study one. The arousal axis is less differentiated yet still present. On the pleasurable side of the plot, there are emotions which are less energised (i.e., "safe") below more energised variables (i.e., "excited"), highlighting some inconsistencies with a priori assumptions. These inconsistencies are more observable on the displeasure axis, with emotions such as "irritable" and "miserable" occupying space in the vicinity of less aroused emotions such as "depressed" and "upset". Previous research on general offenders has also found a strong differentiation on the pleasure axis, with less differentiation on the arousal axis (Canter, Kaouri & Ioannou, 2003), which they considered as "possibly due to the fact that all crime has some degree of arousal associated with it" (Ioannou, Canter and Youngs, 2017, p 1453). Whilst the current SSA fails to reflect the circular notion of Russell's (1997) circumplex of emotions, the themes are consistent with his proposed four distinct categories: calm, elation, depressed and distressed.

9.4 *Narrative roles and emotional experiences of child sexual offenders*

Further analysis of the SSA involved consideration of the participant's responses to the Narrative Roles Questionnaire. By viewing the narrative roles in relation to the emotional experiences noted above, there appear to be four distinct themes, which suggests that Frye's archetypal mythoi can be associated with the emotional experiences of sexual offending. Previous research (Ioannou, Canter and Youngs, 2017) has referred to these four themes as "*Elated Hero, Calm Professional, Distressed Revenger and Depressed Victim*" (Ioannou, Canter and Youngs, 2017, p 1543). Many of the variables from the NRQ occupy space in the bottom-left section of the plot, potentially reflecting a strong correlation between the distressed emotional theme and narrative experiences of crime. Despite this, other NRQ variables were dispersed across the plot, giving rise to the four themes. Using the terminology used in previous research, below is a summary of the regions identified in the current sample of child sexual offenders.

9.4.1. *Calm professional*

The top right quadrant of the SSA (Figure 9.1) was identified as being consistent with the 'Calm, professional' theme and was depicted by the following 10 statements:

- Professional
- Couldn't stop
- Knew doing
- Calm
- Plan
- Right
- Thoughtful
- Confident
- Contented
- Relaxed

As mentioned earlier, the top right area of the plot contains emotions consistent with a calm theme. It also consists of five (5) narrative roles, which reflect an individual who takes responsibility for offending ("it all went to plan") and views it as a routine aspect of their life ("I knew that I was doing", "I was like a professional"). This offender's emotionally neutral and pragmatic approach to offending is consistent with the calm, professional role.

Case example, participant 13:

- Index sexual offence: The participant was convicted of aggravated indecent assault; incite aggravated act of indecency; aggravated indecent assault; use child under 14 years for pornographic purposes; possession of child pornography; assault and contravene domestic violence order (DVO). The offences occurred against his daughter, who was between ages 12 and 14 at the time.
- Offending history: this participant had no criminal history.
- Demographics: The participant was between 32 and 34 years of age when he offended and was married, although experiencing marital conflict.
- Narrative: This participant acknowledged that he had offended against his biological daughter. Specifically, he discussed the parental role he assumed, which included duties such as "*buying her bras and things*". Regarding the offence, he acknowledged that he often observed the child in the shower, although he described this in the content of parental duties ("*to me, I was just being a parent*").

9.4.2. *Elated Hero*

The lower right quadrant of the SSA (Figure 9.1) was identified as being consistent with the 'Elated Hero' theme and was depicted by the following 16 statements:

- | | | | |
|---------------|---------------|----------------|----------------|
| • Excited | • Exhilarated | • Delighted | • Enthusiastic |
| • Safe | • Adventure | • Fun | • Routine |
| • Manly thing | • Exciting | • Courageous | • Delighted |
| • Usualday | • Exhilarated | • Interested | • Pleased |
| • Manly | • Excited | • Enthusiastic | • Fate |

In addition to the eight (8) positive emotions identified in the lower right side of the plot, a further eight (8) criminal narratives are situated. Consistent with the aroused and positive emotions (i.e., “excited”, “exhilarated”), these narrative statements project the criminal experience as being an adventurous quest on which the protagonist is destined to be involved. Canter et al. (2003) described the Hero theme as characteristic of an individual who has little control and is pushed into offending by fate, and this is consistent with the current results (e.g., “it was fate”, “it was routine”).

Case example, participant 7:

- Index sexual offence: This participant was convicted on two counts of aggravated sexual assault and incite indecent assault. The victim was a 13-year-old male who was known but not related to the participant.
- Offending history: This participant had a history of minor offences (language etc.), embezzlement, drink driving and several for
- Demographics: The offender was 54 years old at the time of the offence. He was employed and living alone.
- Narrative: *“Umm, it was on a chat line. And I ended up talking to this one guy who said that he was 18. And so anyway he said he would be interested in meeting me and so forth. And I said yep, no problem. I said where you would like to meet. And he said, well, I finish school, which I should have taken the hint straight away...It was a pretty elite kind of school, more of an arts school. A niche type of school. He said, but you will have to meet me down the road, so park down the road. And we can go somewhere. I was like yeah, ok. Silly me drives out. And I parked there, and anyway, he came along. He was a tall young bloke. He looked 18. “I really don’t know. It’s hard to explain. It’s just something that I*

enjoy. Put it down the enjoyment. I mean, I've had sexual intercourse, and it's been no problem".

9.4.3. Distressed Revenger

The lower left quadrant of the SSA (Figure 9.1) was identified as being consistent with the 'Depressed revenger' theme and was depicted by the 19 following statements:

- Revenge
- Angry
- Recognition
- Job
- Mission
- Control
- Annoyed
- Scared
- Nothing matter
- Worried
- Over with
- Power
- Power
- Only thing
- Helpless
- Wasn't part
- Had to
- Own back
- Nothing special

This region reflects an individual with strong negative emotions, who likely views offending as a means of retaliation for his own victimisation (e.g., "I was getting revenge", "I was getting my own back"). The protagonist appears to have considered the options available to him, and yet, the only choice was to offend in this manner (e.g., "it was my only choice", "I was helpless"). This appears to be the narrative of an individual who externalises responsibility ("it was like I wasn't part of it") and minimises the significance of his actions ("there was nothing special about what happened").

Case example, participant 37:

- Index sexual offence: This participant was convicted of aggravated intercourse without consent, the circumstance of aggravation being threatening to inflict actual bodily harm with an offensive weapon (a knife) and an offence of detaining with the intent to obtain an advantage. The victim was 17 years of age, and at the time of the offence, she was in his care. It is worth noting that this participants narrative was inconsistent with official documents.
- Offending history: This participant has an extensive history dating back to matters before the Children Court. He has been convicted for matters including assault, robbery, drink driving, theft of a motor vehicle, escape custody, abduction and other offences of a violent nature. He was historically convicted of sexual assault and carnal knowledge.

- Demographics: At the time of the offence, this participant was 37 years of age. He had briefly commenced living with a romantic partner (the victim's mother) and was unemployed. I reiterate that this is inconsistent with the participants narrative.
- Narrative: *"I was associating with gangsters. I was partying and ganstering (sic) on. My wife, who told me she was barren, fell pregnant. And she became impossible to live with. So, I moved in with this other couple. Whilst I was there, I wasn't dealing with things well, and I was drinking, on drugs. When I did have sex, it was a one night stand. The people I was staying with weren't happy because I was coming home at all hours and they worked. I tried to sort it out, so I took them shopping one day and dropped about 14 hundred bucks. But I forgot the smokes, so I went back down the street. I ran into mates and got pissed, so I called them up, and they made a big hoot about it. He said some things that grinded me. Because of the things that were going on. Not now, now I wouldn't even worry about it, but back then, I wanted to kill him. So, a few days later, I went around there, and she (the victim) was the only one home. I dragged her into the bathroom, and her breasts accidentally became exposed. It went from there. So, I sexually assaulted her. I was there for about three hours, I think. It was a pretty awful situation. I pretty much destroyed her life".*

9.4.4. Depressed Victim

Finally, the upper left quadrant of the SSA (Figure 9.1) was identified as being consistent with the 'Distressed victim' theme and was depicted by the following 14 statements:

- Miserable
- Depressed
- Upset
- Knewhappen
- Sad
- Didn'tcare
- Victim
- Confused
- Unhappy
- Pointless
- Confused
- Lonely
- Risk
- Irritate

This region includes negative emotions ("sad", "depressed", "lonely"), depicting offending as a negative experience. It also includes narrative statements of an individual who may be attempting to elicit pity from others ("I was the victim"), presenting as apathetic ("I didn't care what would happen") and vulnerable ("I knew I was taking a risk").

Case example, participant 8:

- Index sexual offence: The participant was convicted on several counts of sexual intercourse with a child under 10 and indecent assault of a child under 10. The victim was an eight-year-old female and was occasionally cared for by the offender in her parents' absence.
- Offending history: this participant had no prior history of offending.
- Demographics: The offender was working at the time of the offence and was living with his wife and three children.
- Narrative: *“Well, (mentions the victim by name), what she did to me, she pulled down her pants in front of me. Well, what they did, they found all my men magazines first, and they were reading them. Anyway, she pulled down her pants in front of me. And, what can you say, I lost the plot. And I assaulted her. I didn’t rape her. I just touched her. I did stick the tip of my finger into her vagina, and the only reason I pled guilty to that is because she had a broken hymen, and she said I did it. I said I was guilty because I would have been in big trouble for that, well I am anyway. But, anyway, she pulled her pants down in front of me, and that’s what caused it all. But of course, she didn’t say any of that”.*

9.5. Reliability analysis

Further analysis was conducted to confirm the presence of four distinct themes, with the intent to identify the internal consistency of each theme. To achieve this, Cronbach Alpha analysis was conducted on each of the four criminal narrative experience themes to ensure the variables were intercorrelated. Although visual inspection supports the development of four themes, this analysis serves as an additional layer of statistical support for the theory. A Cronbach Alpha analysis produces a score between zero (0) and one (1), with scores closest to one representing greater internal consistency. Ideally, the coefficient should be above 0.7 (DeVillis, 2012).

As observed in Table 9.2, the ‘Calm Professional’ theme with ten (10) variables had an alpha coefficient of 0.70, the ‘Elated Hero’ with sixteen (16) variables had an alpha coefficient of 0.84, the ‘Distressed Revenger’ theme with nineteen (19) variables produced an alpha coefficient of 0.82 and the ‘Depressed Victim’ theme containing fourteen (14) variables had

an alpha coefficient of 0.84. These internal consistency analyses reflect a high degree of association between the variables in each of the four elements.

Table 9.2

Criminal Narrative Experience themes (with Alpha if item deleted in parentheses)

Theme				
	Calm Professional	Elated Hero	Distress Revenger	Depressed Victim
Items	Professional (.66) Plan (.67) Couldn't stop (.71) Right (.69) Knewdoing (.68) Thoughtful (.69) Calm (.66) Confident (.66) Relaxed (.68) Contented (.63)	Manly (.84) Excited (.82) Enthusiastic (.82) Usualday (.85) Exhilarated (.82) Interested (.82) Pleased (.82) Manly thing (.84) Exciting (.81) Courageous (.83) Delighted (.85) Safe (.85) Adventure (.82) Fun (.81) Routine (.83) Fate (.85)	Revenge (.80) Angry (.80) Recognition (.83) Job (.83) Mission (.81) Control (.83) Annoyed (.81) Scared (.80) Nothingmatter (.80) Worried (.82) Overwith (.81) Power (.80) Only choice (.80) Only thing (.81) Helpless (.80) Wasn't part (.81) Had to (.80) Own back (.79) Nothing special (.82)	Miserable (.81) Sad (.80) Unhappy (.81) Lonely (.82) Depressed (.81) Didn'tcare (.85) Pointless (.82) Risk (.83) Upset (.83) Victim (.85) Confused (.84) Irritate (.82) Knewhappen (.84) Confused (.84)
No. of items	10	16	19	14
Cronbach's alpha	.70	.84	.82	.84

For each variable within a theme, the 'alpha if item deleted' is written in parentheses in Table 9.2. This highlights what (if any) changes to the overall alpha would occur if a variable was omitted. Within the 'Calm Professional' theme, removal of the 'couldn't stop' variable would have improved the alpha coefficient from 0.70 to 0.71. Similarly, in the 'Elated Hero' theme, removal of the 'usual day', 'safe', and 'fate' variables would have improved the alpha coefficient from 0.84 to 0.85. The alpha coefficient in the Distressed Revenger could have improved from 0.82 to 0.83 with the removal of 'recognition', 'job' and 'control' variables.

Finally, the Depressed victim theme would have seen the alpha coefficient increase from 0.84 to 0.85 with the removal of ‘didn’t care’ and ‘victim’. The potential changes to the themes by omitting these items was negligible, and they continue to reflect high levels of internal consistency. It is interesting, however, that these specific variables are inconsistent with SSA results observed in a previous study relating to general offenders (Ioannou, Canter & Youngs, 2017). Specifically, the results of the Ioannou et al. (2017) study indicated that the variable ‘couldn’t stop’ and ‘fate’ were captured within depressed victim theme; ‘job’ was situated with calm Professional and ‘recognition’ was in ‘Elated Hero’.

Table 9.3

Narrative roles by theme. Variable means and standard deviation in parentheses.

Calm Professional (n=10, mean 2.42)	Elated Hero (n=16, mean 2.22)
Professional - 1.69 (1.13)	Manly – 2.18 (1.22)
Plan – 1.72 (1.47)	Excited – 2.73 (1.34)
Couldn’t stop – 2.92 (1.42)	Enthusiastic – 2.58 (1.3)
Right – 1.79 (1.22)	Usual day – 1.40 (1.0)
Knew what doing – 3.18 (1.49)	Exhilarated – 2.83 (1.12)
Thoughtful – 2.46 (1.52)	Interested – 2.23 (1.25)
Calm – 2.74 (1.19)	Pleased – 2.38 (1.25)
Confident - 2.85 (1.23)	Manly thing- 1.33 (0.9)
Relaxed – 2.49 (1.28)	Exciting – 2.88 (1.24)
Contented – 2.33 (1.22)	Courageous – 1.95 (1.01)
	Delighted – 2.05 (1.13)
	Safe – 2.60 (1.34)
	Adventure – 2.63 (1.37)
	Fun – 2.28 (1.24)
	Routine – 1.83 (1.3)
	Fate – 1.65 (1.12)
Distressed Revenger (n=19, mean 2.14)	Depressed Victim (n=14, mean 2.70)
Revenge – 1.49 (1.12)	Miserable – 2.59 (1.51)
Angry – 2.56 (1.64)	Sad - 2.90 (1.45)
Recognition -2.03 (1.46)	Unhappy - 3.03 (1.35)
Job – 1.38 (0.99)	Lonely - 3.26 (1.46)
Mission – 1.67 (1.13)	Depressed - 2.92 (1.51)
Control – 2.64 (1.44)	Didn’t care - 2.77 (1.58)
Annoyed – 2.69 (1.56)	Pointless - 2.79 (1.45)
Scared – 2.21 (1.26)	Risk - 3.41 (1.45)
Nothing mattered – 2.74 (1.43)	Upset – 2.79 (1.56)
Worried – 2.74 (1.55)	Victim - 1.59 (1.21)
Over with – 2.08 (1.33)	Confused - 2.49 (1.45)

Power – 2.26 (1.35)	Irritated – 2.36 (1.37)
Only choice – 1.64 (1.14)	Knew happen - 2.36 (1.56)
Only thing – 1.90 (1.31)	Confused – 2.49 (1.45)
Helpless – 1.95 (1.23)	
Wasn't part – 2.38 (1.5)	
Had to – 2.31 (1.36)	
Own back – 1.44 (1.1)	
Nothing special – 2.18 (1.49)	

The intensity by which the variables were endorsed by the participants again reflects the 'Depressed Victim' theme experienced the emotions and role statements with the greatest intensity. The emotion 'lonely' and role statement 'I knew I was taking a risk' was the highest endorsed items, both contained within the 'Depressed Victim' theme (see Table 9.3).

9.6. Dominant themes

Utilising the same allocation criteria as previous studies in this project, offenders were assigned to dominant themes based on their response to the NRQ and emotional experiences of crime questionnaire. The analysis of these groupings is outlined in Table 9.4.

Table 9.4

Distribution of sample allocated by dominant narrative experience theme

Pure themes	% (n)	Hybrid themes	% (n)
Calm professional	10% (n=4)	Calm professional / Depressed victim	10% (n=4)
Elated hero	15% (n=6)	Calm professional / Elated hero	10% (n=4)
Depressed victim	40% (n=16)	Calm professional / Distressed revenger	5% (n=2)
Distressed revenger	2.5% (n=1)	Depressed victim / Distressed revenger	2.5% (n=1)
		Uncategorizable	5% (n=2)

Once again, it is noted that this is less stringent criteria than that seen in previous studies. When applying this criterion to the current population, none of the 40 participants could be allocated to a dominant theme. Regardless, most participants (67.5%, n=27) were able to be allocated to a dominant theme utilising the CNE framework (by implementing the less stringent inclusion criteria). The results suggest that a large number of child sex offenders

were assigned to the ‘Depressed Victim’ theme, whereas only one was assigned to the ‘Distressed Revenger’. This is consistent with the analysis of narrative roles where no participant was identified as predominantly assigned to the ‘Revenger’ themes. This also reflects the results from the emotional experience of crime analysis, where the majority of offenders were observed to experience negative emotions during the index sexual offence.

9.7. Phase 2- Static risk and CNE

The initial investigation within phase two related to the overall risk scores on the Static-99R and the Static-2002 in relation to the CNE themes. Correlational analyses were conducted to determine the relationship between participants risk scores and the four (4) roles identified in the first phase of this study (‘Distressed-Revenger’, ‘Calm-Professional’, ‘Depressed-Victim’ and, ‘Elated-Hero’ roles). The results of the correlation analysis reflected a statistically significant correlation between the ‘calm-Professional’ and ‘elated-hero’ roles and total risk on the Static-2002R, although the effect size is weak (see Table 9.5). Interestingly, there is no evidence of any correlation between the CNE themes and the Static-99R total score, again supporting that these two psychometric tests, whilst both hold proportionate predictive validity, examine different aspects of risk.

Table 9.5
Correlations among the four (4) criminal narrative experience themes and the total risk scores on the Static-99R and the Static-2002R.

	CNE theme	Static-99R total score	Static-2002R total score
1	Calm Professional	.244	.328*
2	Elated Hero	.248	.324*
3	Depressed Victim	.2.31	.178
4	Distressed Revenger	.028	.004

***p<0.05; **p<0.01**

Within the narrative framework, the ‘Professional’ role is characterised by a protagonist (the offender) who is in control of his environment and who normalises criminal activity (high potency). In the CNE context, this individual is also described as experiencing positive and non-aroused emotions, with examples including ‘relaxed’, ‘confident’ and ‘content’. The

elated hero, on the other hand, is associated with aroused emotions, including excitement, enthusiasm and pleased. Whilst these showed correlation with the Static-2002R, there were no correlations with the Static 99R. This is noteworthy as statistically significant correlations between the narrative roles (namely the ‘professional’ role) and emotions (namely the ‘elated’ theme) with the Static-99R in studies one and two. This suggests that the Static-99R may be more correlated with individual narratives and roles, whereas the Static-2002R is more correlated with the combined CNE model. This potentially highlights the risks being captured within these actuarial tools, with the 99R being more sensitive to intimacy and control variants in comparison to the Static-2002R, which is potentially more sensitive to emotional arousal.

The second level of analysis investigated the four CNE themes identified in phase one (1) and the three (3) latent constructs of the combined Static-99R and Static-2002. As mentioned earlier, these have been titled 1) persistent paraphilia, 2) YSA, and 3) general criminality. Correlational analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between the CNE themes and latent constructs. As reflected in Table 9.6, the results indicate that out of the three (3) latent constructs, only persistent paraphilia is correlated with the elated hero theme, having held a weak effect size.

Table 9.6

Correlations between CNE themes and latent constructs of the Static-99R and Static-2002R

	YSA	Criminality	Persistent paraphilia
Calm Professional	.072	.211	.312
Elated Hero	.128	.263	.391*
Depressed Victim	-.104	.253	.109
Distressed Revenger	.118	.077	.195

***p<0.05; **p<0.01**

The ‘Elated Hero’ can be described as an individual who views that offending as a positive experience, driven by cognitive distortions involving the minimisation of impact and externalising responsibility. Further, this individual’s affective states are identified as being both aroused and pleasurable. The relationship between the ‘Elated Hero’ role and ‘persistent

paraphilia’ potentially suggests that offenders who assign themselves to the ‘Hero’ role are driven to offend by deviant sexual interests rather than any specific interest in the victim themselves. This is consistent with Brouillette-Alarie et al. (2018), who describe persistent paraphilia as relating to atypical sexual interest and little interest in victim harm.

The final level of analysis in phase two (2) aimed to determine if there were any relationships between individual risk factors extrapolated from the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R, in conjunction with the CNE themes. Individual items on the CNE were not investigated in terms of their correlation with risk scores, as these have been considered in the previous two studies. No changes to these questionnaire items occurred for the purpose of developing the CNE, and therefore, no further analysis is warranted.

Table 9.7.

CNE themes and individual risk factors (Static-99R and Static-2002R) (with latent construct in parentheses)

CNE theme	Individual risk factors (construct)	r
Calm professional	Non-contact sexual offence (persistent paraphilia)	.347*
Elated Hero	Prior sexual offence (persistent paraphilia)	.325*
Distressed Revenger	Prior sexual offence (persistent paraphilia)	.424*

Note. Statistically significant results only (*p<0.05; **p<0.01)

As observed in Table 9.7, high scores on the ‘calm-professional’ role were weakly correlated with a history of non-contact sexual offending. This risk factor on the Static-99R and Static-2002R is thought to represent the presence of deviant sexual interest. Both the elated-hero theme and the distressed revenger theme were correlated with the offender having a history of prior sexual offences. It is noted that the results from the Distressed revenger theme were more promising, revealing moderately strong correlations.

9.8. Chapter summary

The aim of this study was to determine if the CNE had applicability with this population and to determine any subsequent relationships between CNE themes and static risk scores. In

comparison to the prior levels of analysis (as identified in previous chapters), the CNE appears to be less correlated with risk than the individual narrative and emotion themes. Likely, by combining the affective and narrative aspects of offending, the risk factors identified within the static risk measures are being diluted. As such, this suggests that the potential key to identifying the psychological constructs of static risk measures is to investigate isolated phenomena, as, in this instance, this has provided more fruitful insight. Despite this, that is not to say that the current study lacks explanatory power. Rather, the CNE framework has investigated child sexual offenders' experiences from a unique perspective and, in doing so, developed a greater understanding of this population. Specifically, it appears that sexual offending against children is a generally negative experience and committed largely by offenders who hold little personal agency. In this case, the victim and his/her response are likely significant to the offender, potentially being used as a means to regulate his emotions. These have important implications for treatment intervention, specifically in relation to the 'risk, needs, responsivity' model of criminogenic intervention.

Chapter 10

Study four: Victim role assignment and static risk correlates

10.1. Chapter introduction- Victim role assignment

This chapter critically examines study four (4) – victim role assignment. Study four (4) is divided into two phases, with the overall research objective to investigate the roles offenders assign to their victims during sexual offences and the correlations between these roles and the offender’s risk of recidivism.

The first phase involves the exploration of interactions between the offender and their victim, as observed through their crime scene behaviours. Previous research on violent and sexual offenders has supported a three-category victim-role model, where the offender interacts with the victim as a ‘Person’, ‘Object’ or ‘Vehicle’ (Canter and Youngs, 2012b). Although this framework has been applied to sexual offenders, the current study aims to explore it in the realm of child sexual abuse. Consistent with past research, it is hypothesised that the current study will elicit offending styles suggestive of these three victim roles.

The second phase involves the examination of the three victim roles with the offender’s risk of recidivism scores on the Static-99R and the Static-2002R. It is anticipated that this will highlight correlations between the offenders’ interactions with the victim and his overall level of static risk using two actuarial measures. In addition, individual items on these risk measures will be examined in the context of victim role assignment. Finally, the victim roles will be investigated against the three latent constructs of the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R. By utilising various levels of risk, it is expected that the narrative approach will provide greater insight into the factors underpinning these static risk measures.

10.2. Phase 1- applicability of the victim role assignment framework to child sex offenders

Procedure:

A list of potential offending behaviours for child sexual offenders was developed, using as a starting basis, Canter and Heritage (1990) 33 rape actions which were derived from 66 stranger rapes. This list of sex offender styles has also been used in the Canter and Youngs (2012) application of the victim role assignments model. Whilst this provided a foundation of possible criminal actions for the current study, many of the ‘rape actions’ were not relevant to the child sex offending population. Further, a large proportion of offences committed by participants in the current sample were against victims known to them prior to committing

the offence, therefore eliminating criminal actions associated with stranger offences (such as blindfolding). As such, those offence actions specific to stranger rape were deleted from the list. The criminal actions of child sex offenders, as identified within Canter, Hughes & Kirby's (1998) research, was also reviewed. Interestingly, Canter et al. (1998) identify the importance of evaluating the entire SSA plots, including places where no variables are situated. Specifically, in relation to their findings, they identified that

It can be hypothesised that the current sample of data does not include actions which would have mapped into these locations. For example, the empty circular region surrounding the centroid of the modulating facet would likely comprise behavioural variables relating to the offender approach strategy...Within the intimate region, missing behavioural variables are hypothesised to be consistent with the seductive style of offending...In the aggressive region, the missing values are those that would result in injury or death of the child...within the criminal-opportunities region, missing values are those that related to criminal activity (pages, 549-550).

With this, it was identified that more variables were needed in areas identified as being absent in this previous research. As such, to refine and extend the list of offence actions, 10 peers were asked to assist in the project. These peers were all accredited forensic psychologists, had a minimum of 10 years of experience working within the forensic context and were specifically trained and experienced in the assessment and treatment of sexual offenders. Each psychologist was asked to develop a list of criminal actions commonly associated with sexual offences against children, regardless of victim characteristics or offence type. These responses were collated, and a list of 48 criminal actions was developed. These were considered in light of using Canter and Heritage (1990) 33 rape actions and the criminal actions within child molestation, as identified by Canter, Hughes & Kirby (1998). As seen in Table 10.1, a total list of 33 offence actions relevant to child sexual offenders was created, on the basis of previously identified criminal actions within adult rapes, the list of common sexual actions identified by 10 experts in a relevant field, and those gaps identified within research conducted by Canter et al., (1998). These behaviours have all been identified within the literature as being associated with sexual offences against children. It is noted that all of the criminal actions are related to the offender himself, rather than actions associated with the victim's responses.

Table 10.1 Child sex offenders' criminal actions and corresponding SSA labels

	Offence action	SSA label
1	Offender known to the victim prior	Known
2	Digital penetration	Dig pen
3	Touching/groping only	Touching only
4	Took photographs of the victims	Took photos
5	Foreign objects used throughout the offence	Foreign objects
6	Surprise attack	Surprise
7	One-off event	One-off
8	Performed oral sex on the victim	Oral sex
9	Received oral sex	Receive oral
10	Penile-vaginal intercourse	Vaginal int
11	Forced victim to perform anal sex on them	Received anal
12	Performed anal sex on the victim	Perform anal
13	Masturbate in front of the victim	Masturbate
14	Forced victim to masturbate offender	V masturbate
15	Restrained victim (tied hands)	Restrain
16	Weapon featured in the offence	Weapon
17	Occurred in public	Public
18	Kissed to victim	Kissed
19	Threat not to tell anyone	Threaten
20	Asked victim about sexual history	Talked sex
21	Offender suggest to the victim he was teaching	Teaching
22	Was in a position of power	Position power
23	Talked about sex with the victim then immediately offended	talked sex
24	Showed pornography to the victim and then immediately offended	Porn offend
25	Showed pornography prior to offending	Porn prior
26	Talked about sex with the victim prior to offending	Talked sex
27	Detained victim	Detain
28	Groomed prior to the offence	Grooming
29	Requested that the victim initiate the offence	Victim initiate
30	Used violence just to subdue victim	Violence to subdue
31	Used excessive violence	Excessive violence
32	Attempted/had contact with the victim after the offence	Contact after
33	Pretend to be a person in authority	Pretend authority

A list of the corresponding evidence to support the inclusion of these criminal actions within the current study, along with the coding framework, is attached in Appendix E.

To determine the criminal actions of each participant, official documents relating to their crime were sourced. The nature of the documents varied, although generally included the NSW Police Facts sheet, the Agreed Facts on Sentence report and/or the Judges Sentencing Remarks. Their offending behaviours, as determined from official documents, were assessed against the 33-item offence action table outlined in Table 10.1. A dichotomous method of scoring was utilised, with the presence of an item attracting a score of one (1) and the absence of an item attracting a score of zero (0). Scores were assessed using Smallest space analysis methods.

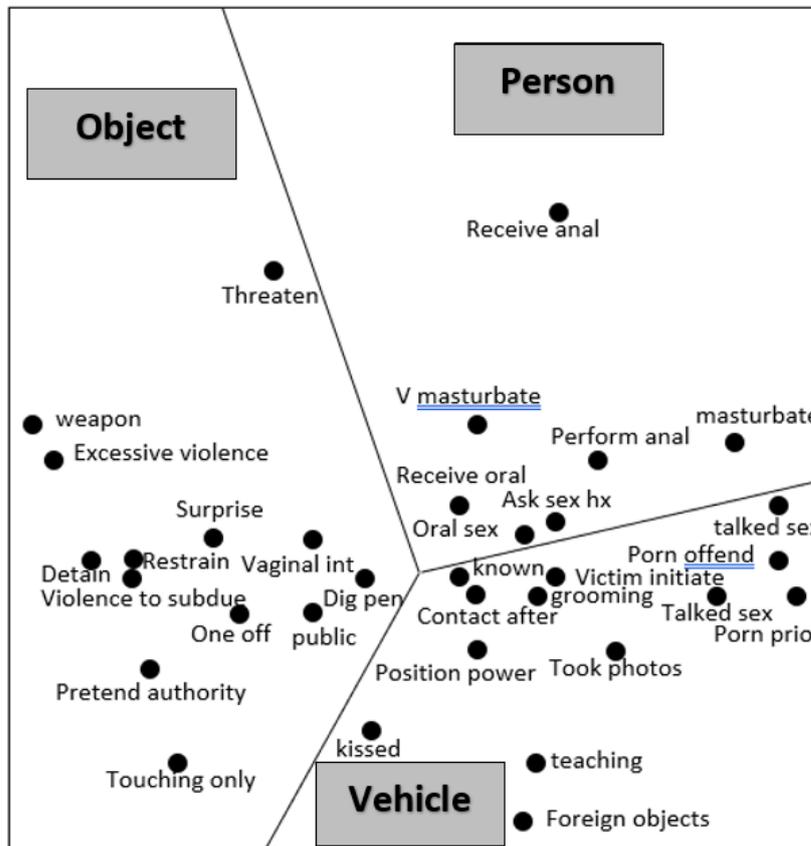
10.3. Smallest Space Analysis (SSA)

To examine the interactions between the offender and victim, the data collected from the examination of their crime scene behaviours were analysed using Smallest Space Analysis (SSA-I). This form of analysis examines the correlation between all the variables and employs a multidimensional space to visually depict the results. Variables are observed as points on the plot, and the distance between the variables is used to highlight the strength of the relationship between the variables. Therefore, variables with similar thematic content will share regionality within the plot and be separated geographically from thematically dissimilar variables. This is a concise and accurate way to represent complex data and has been used effectively in investigative psychology, in particular with criminal narratives (Canter, Kaouri & Ioannou, 2003; Youngs & Canter, 2012; Ioannou, Canter, Youngs & Synnott, 2015; Spruin, Canter, Youngs & Coulston, 2014) and victim role assignment (Canter & Youngs, 2012).

Figure 10.1 shows the SSA victim role assignment projection of vector 1 by vector 2 of the two-dimensional space. The two-dimensional SSA solution has a Guttman – Lingoes coefficient of alienation of 0.14356, highlighting an excellent fit between the Pearson's coefficients of victim role assignment categories and the corresponding geometric distances depicted in the SSA structure. Put simply, it appears that Figure 10.1 is an accurate representation of the intercorrelations between variables.

Figure 10.1

Smallest Space Analysis of 32 child sexual offence actions in 40 offences.



Victim role assignment: Structure of the SSA

The scores from the content analysis of criminal behaviours in relation to the 33-item crime actions list were represented in the SSA, highlighting the roles offenders assign to their victims during their offending behaviour. Visual analysis of the SSA solution highlights items with thematically similar content on the left side of the plot. These involve elements of non-sexual violence (e.g., “weapon use”; “excessive violence”) and verbal aggression (e.g., “threaten no to tell”). These also appear related to isolated incidents (e.g., “one-off”; “surprise”) rather than protected periods of offending. In relation to Canter’s (1994) power variants, items in this region relate to controlling the victim physically through acts demonstrating possession and subjugation. In relation to Canter’s (1994) intimacy variants, criminal actions in this region reflect humanity deficits (e.g., “occurs in a public place”) as seen through behaviours indicative of objectification (e.g., “restrain”, “violence to subdue”). These criminal actions

suggest that the victim has limited significance for the offender. The victim is given no active part in the offence (as observed with the physical restraints imposed by the offender) but is rather a means to act upon. The items in this region suggest that the offender has assigned the victim to the role of an 'Object'.

The lower right side of the domain primarily relates to non-contact sexual behaviours (e.g., 'talk about sex'; 'show pornography') and the relationship between the offender and victim (e.g., 'known', 'contact after', 'position of power'). The victim is given an active role in these behaviours, being invited to participate in sexual activities (i.e., 'porn prior', 'victim encouraged to initiate', 'teaching'). This is in contrast to the 'Object' role, where the criminal actions involve deactivating any participation by the victim. The lower right side of the domain reflect behaviours, whereby the offender psychologically abuses the victim to gain compliance. The victim is exploited, reflecting an offender with deficits in compassion. These variants of control and empathy deficits are consistent with Canter's (1994) victim as a 'Vehicle' role assignment.

The upper right side of the SSA represents contact sexual behaviours, except for 'ask sex history'. The behaviours include receiving and performing anal sex, oral sex and masturbation, suggesting that the offender may be showing interest in pleasuring the victim. Behavioural strategies of a coercive nature are used to gain victim compliance. The offender likely fails to value the victim, but rather through manipulation, meets his sexual (or other) wants. These control and empathy deficit variants appear consistent with Canter's (1994) 'Person' role assignment.

10.4. Reliability analysis

Visual analysis of the SSA highlights the three roles which were assigned to victims by offenders during their offence. To add support to the theory that sexual offenders assign their victims to three distinct themes, further analysis was conducted to identify the internal consistency of the regions. A Cronbach Alpha analysis was conducted, which produces a score between zero (0) and one (1), highlighting the strength of the correlations within the subset of variables. As mentioned in chapter 7, the closer the Cronbach Alpha score is to one (1), the

more correlated the items are, and ideally, the coefficient should be above 0.7 (DeVillis, 2012).

As observed in Table 10.1, the victim as an 'Object' role contained 13 variables and had an alpha coefficient of 0.76, the 'Person' role contained seven (7) variables and had an alpha coefficient of 0.72, and finally, the victim as a 'Vehicle' role contained 13 criminal actions with an alpha coefficient of 0.77. These internal consistency analyses reflect a good degree of association between the variables in each of the roles assigned to victims.

Table 10.2

Criminal action themes (with Alpha if item deleted in parentheses)

The victim as an object (n=13, Coefficient of alienation 0.76)		
Item #	Crime behaviour	Alpha if item deleted
2	Digital penetration	.78
3	Touching/groping only	.77
6	Surprise attack	.70
7	One-off event	.75
10	Penile-vaginal intercourse	.77
15	Restrained victim (tied hands)	.72
16	Weapon featured in the offence	.75
17	Occurred in public	.74
19	Threat not to tell anyone	.77
27	Detained victim	.73
30	Used violence just to subdue the victim	.71
31	Used excessive violence	.74
33	Pretend to be a person in authority	.73
Victim as a Person (n=7, Coefficient of alienation 0.72)		
Item #	Crime behaviour	Alpha if item deleted
9	Received oral sex	.63
8	Performed oral sex on victim	.74
11	Forced victim to perform anal sex on them	.72
12	Performed anal sex on the victim	.74
13	Masturbate in front of the victim	.70
14	Forced victim to masturbate offender	.73
20	Asked victim about sexual history	.59
The victim as a Vehicle (n=13, Coefficient of alienation 0.77)		

Item #	Crime behaviour	Alpha if item deleted
1	Offender known to the victim prior	.73
4	Took photographs of the victims	.76
5	Foreign objects used throughout the offence	.77
18	Kissed victim	.78
21	Offender suggest to the victim he was teaching	.77
22	Was in a position of power	.77
23	Talked about sex with the victim and then immediately offended	.76
24	Showed pornography to the victim and then immediately offended	.76
25	Showed pornography prior to offending	.76
26	Talked about sex with the victim prior to offending	.76
28	Groomed prior to the offence	.72
29	Requested that the victim initiate the offence	.74
32	Attempted or had contact with the victim after the offence	.74

For each variable within a theme, the ‘alpha if item deleted’ is written in parentheses in Table 10.2. This highlights what (if any) changes to the overall alpha would occur if a variable was omitted. Within the ‘Object’ role, the variables which, if removed, would have strengthened the overall alpha coefficient were “digital penetration”, “penile-vaginal intercourse”, and “threaten”, although only marginally from 0.76 to 0.77 (and 0.78 in the case of digital penetration). Within the ‘Person’ theme, deletion of the variables “performed oral sex on the victim”, “performed anal sex on the victim”, and “forced victim to masturbate the offender” would have seen the alpha increased to a possible 0.74. Finally, in the ‘Vehicle’ role, the alpha may have been improved from 0.77 to 0.78 with the deletion of “kissed the victim”. These variables were unable to be reallocated without an adverse alpha result for the subsequent role. Regardless of these factors, the current analysis highlights high internal consistency and therefore, no changes to the regionality were made.

To understand the relationships between the three victim roles, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted, and the results are depicted in Table 10.3. The evidence reflects a negative correlation between the victim as an ‘Object’ and as a ‘Vehicle’ role, highlighting these as thematically different concepts. This suggests that offending incidents such as non-sexual violence, surprise attacks and restraining the victim decreased at times when offending incidents such as showing pornography, teaching the victim and having

contact after the offence were prevalent (and vice versa). Acknowledging that all offenders had committed sexual offences against children, there appears to be a thematic difference involving offenders who engage in ‘child molestation’ (including behaviours such as grooming, protracted periods of offending, extended contact with the victim) and ‘rape-like’ offences (involving non-sexual violence generally perpetrated against a stranger). This also likely accounts for the significant proportion of participants assigned to the ‘Vehicle’ role, as these are inherently related to child sexual abuse (see dominant roles below).

There weren’t any statistically significant relationships between the victim as a ‘Person’ role and the other two victim roles.

Table 10.3

Correlations among victim role assignment

	Victim Roles	1	2
1	Object		
2	Person	.210	
3	Vehicle	-.595**	-.202

****p<0.01**

10.5. Dominant themes

Another means to determine the validity of the victim roles is to consider individual cases in relation to their dominant behaviours during a crime. As such, each of the 40 individual cases was also assigned to one dominant role based on the proportion of behaviours they engaged in during their offence. To do this, behaviours from official documents related to specific victim roles were identified. The presence of relevant behaviours was tallied and changed into percentage scores. Cases were allocated to a dominant victim role if the percentage of the dominant theme was greater than the remaining themes by 5%. Alternatively, they were considered a hybrid theme (if two roles were more than 5% above the third role) or uncategorizable (if they failed to meet the above criteria).

Of the 40 participants, 38 were able to be categorised to one dominant theme, and half of those were assigned to the victim as a ‘Vehicle’ role (n=19). Around one third (28.9%) of those

categorised were assigned to the victim as an 'Object' role (n=11), followed by 21% who were assigned to the victim as a 'Person' role (n=8). Case examples from the sampled population were extracted for an additional layer of validity.

Case example- victim as an 'Object' (participant 15)

- Index sexual offence: This participant committed sexual offences against a 15-year-old female who was unknown to him at the time of offending. According to official documents, the participant was convicted on six offences, including kidnapping, common assault, abduct female, aggravated sexual assault and assault occasioning actual bodily harm.
- Offending history: This offender had an extensive and varied criminal history. They relate to violence, traffic offences and stealing. He has prior convictions for sexual offences, although he wasn't convicted on these until after the index offence. In terms of risk assessments (Static-99R), his offending would, therefore, be considered a cluster of offences.
- Demographics: At the time of the offence, this participant was approximately 33 years old. He was married with two children and living with his family. He had completed his Higher School Certificate and had maintained consistent work of a semi-skilled nature.
- Criminal actions: On the evening of the offence, the participant was driving the streets when he spotted the victim, causing him to pull over his vehicle and address the victim. He falsely represented himself as a police officer, advising her that there had been a spate of violent attacks in the area, encouraging her to accept his offer to drive her home. Once in the car, the offender told the victim that she was going to be subject to a "pat-down" and subsequently handcuffed her and drove her to an isolated park. He engaged in sexual acts with the victim, although after an escape attempt on her behalf, he drove to another more secluded area where he continued to inflict sexual and non-sexual violence on the victim. The sexual component included digital penetration of her vagina, forcing the victim to perform oral sex on him, and vaginal-penile penetration. The victim made several attempts to escape during the offence, to which the offender responded with physical violence (hair pulling, punching, etc.). Based on the information, it appears that the offender was unaware of the victims'

age, and this was not a significant aspect of the offence. This participant was described by the sentencing Judge and 'cunning' and 'devious' due to the nature of his offending behaviour, including 'luring' the victim into his vehicle.

This participant utilised non-sexual violence to subdue the victim, and threats of extreme violence acted as forced compliance. This is consistent with Canter's (1994) 'Object' role, where weapons are used to overpower the victim in place of verbal communication or other less violent means. The victim was objectified and, through the use of physical restraints, was denied an active role in the offence. This suggests that the victim was an object to be acted upon rather than a significant individual from the offender's perspective. The location of the crime was in an isolated place with no known significance, which is consistent with the offender paralleling offence location with the victim's insignificance. There is no evidence that the victim was stalked or followed for any length of time, but rather she was selected having been viewed by the offender from a distance in his car. There is clear evidence in this example that the victim was assigned to the role of an 'Object'.

Case example- victim as a 'Vehicle' (participant 19)

- Index sexual offence: The offences occurred over a protracted period against the participant's biological daughter. She was around age 5-years when the offending commenced.
- Offending history: This participant has a small criminal history relating to an incident of drug possession. Outside of this, there is no indication that he was engaged in any serious criminal behaviour.
- Demographics: The offences commenced when the participant was 33 years old and continued over a period of 11 years. During the offending period, the offender was employed in a skilled position and living with his wife and three children. He had completed his Higher School Certificate, followed by vocational courses. He had a history of cannabis dependence and was diagnosed with generalised anxiety.
- Criminal actions: According to official documents, the victim was one of three biological children born to the offender's marriage, although as the only female, she was the only child to be victimised. The victim noted that the offender regularly took

her away when she was playing with her siblings, indicating that he wanted to “teach” her something. During early offences, the primary offence action involved digital penetration of the victim’s vagina, which he reportedly advised her was his way of helping her to stay away from boys when she was older. He reportedly encouraged the victim to initiate the offence and asked her to assume (pretend) non-family sexual roles. Throughout the offending, it is reported that the offender praised the victim, told her that she was his soul mate and expressed frustration that they couldn’t have a relationship because they were related. The offending continued relatively unabated until the victim was aged 16, at which time she reported the abuse to her mother. The participant admitted guilt to his offence immediately after detection.

This case study highlights an offender with a history of negative affect, likely with a history of substance abuse for self-medicative purposes. He acknowledged the consequences for his actions, as observed by him taking the earliest possible opportunity to enter a guilty plea. He appears to have utilised his position of authority over the victim to meet his own sexual wants, suggesting that victim selection was based on availability rather than individual significance. He presents with adequate social skills, including a history of marriage stability and enduring employment. As such, this offender’s behaviour and background appear consistent with what Canter (1994) concluded as the ‘Vehicle’ of victim role assignment.

Case example- victim as a ‘Person’ (participant 42)

- Index sexual offence: This participant was convicted of several offences, including aggravated sexual intercourse, possessing an unauthorised firearm, produce child abuse material and assault. The victim was a 14-year-old female who was under the participants’ care at the time of offending.
- Offending history: This participant had a criminal history dating back to his youth, although the index sexual offence appears to be the most serious. He has convictions for stealing, drug supply and possession, preventing the course of justice, weapon and ammunition offences,
- Demographics: At the time of offending, the participant was the owner of a number of charity organisations, which primarily raised money for children’s hospitals. He established a romantic relationship with the victim’s mother, who was also an

employee of his organisation. Despite being in a stable age-appropriate relationship, this was considered a front for his relationship with the victim.

- Criminal actions: The offences began when the victim was aged 14 and continued over an 18-month period, apparently escalating in severity. The offences involved frequent sexual contacts, such as penile/vaginal intercourse, anal penetration, fellatio, cunnilingus and use of sex toys or other penetrative items. The offending involved a protracted period of grooming, where the victim was purchased expensive gifts and taken on interstate holidays. The participant gave the victim sentimental gifts, including his own grandmother's jewellery. He encouraged her mother to allow her to leave her casual job in retail instead of working for him within his organisation. The participant frequently asked the victim about her sexual history, including her relationships with boys at school.

This case study reflects an offender who views the victim as a significant person. He generally appears to exploit people within his general life, and this is transposed onto his offending behaviour. On the one hand, he is an altruistic man dedicating his life to supporting sick children, yet on the other hand, utilising this position to victimise a vulnerable individual. As Canter (1994) highlighted, these individuals are often viewed as being two-faced, exploiting opportunities as they present. He has a history of petty crime, although not to an extent to preclude him from working within pro-social circles. Canter (1994) noted that offenders who assign their victim to the 'Person' role tend to misinterpret the victim's behaviour as being consensual, which is evident within the current case study. Specifically, he appears to have facilitated a relationship involving pseudo-intimacy with the victim, potentially buying into his own abusive construct. This evidence highlights that the victim has been assigned to the 'Person' role.

10.6. Frequency of criminal actions

In order to extrapolate the characteristics of sexual offenders, Canter (1996) investigated the crime scene behaviours of 66 sexual assaults committed by 27 offenders. The data obtained was subjected to a smallest space analysis (SSA), from which Canter (1996) identified five aspects of sexual assault, namely 'sexuality, violence, impersonal, criminality and intimacy'. The SSA was interpreted further to identify the frequencies of criminal actions within rape

offences, and in doing so, identified focal aspects of rape. Specifically, the five behaviours associated with over 65% of cases included 'vaginal intercourse', 'no reaction to the victim', 'impersonal language', 'surprise attack' and 'victims clothing being disturbed'. This method of analysis not only highlighted the focal aspects of rape, but the periphery of the domain reflected behaviours prevalent in less than 15% of cases, highlighting the most distinct rape behaviours. As noted by Canter (1996), this analysis provided a heuristic summary of offence behaviours pertaining to stranger rape offences.

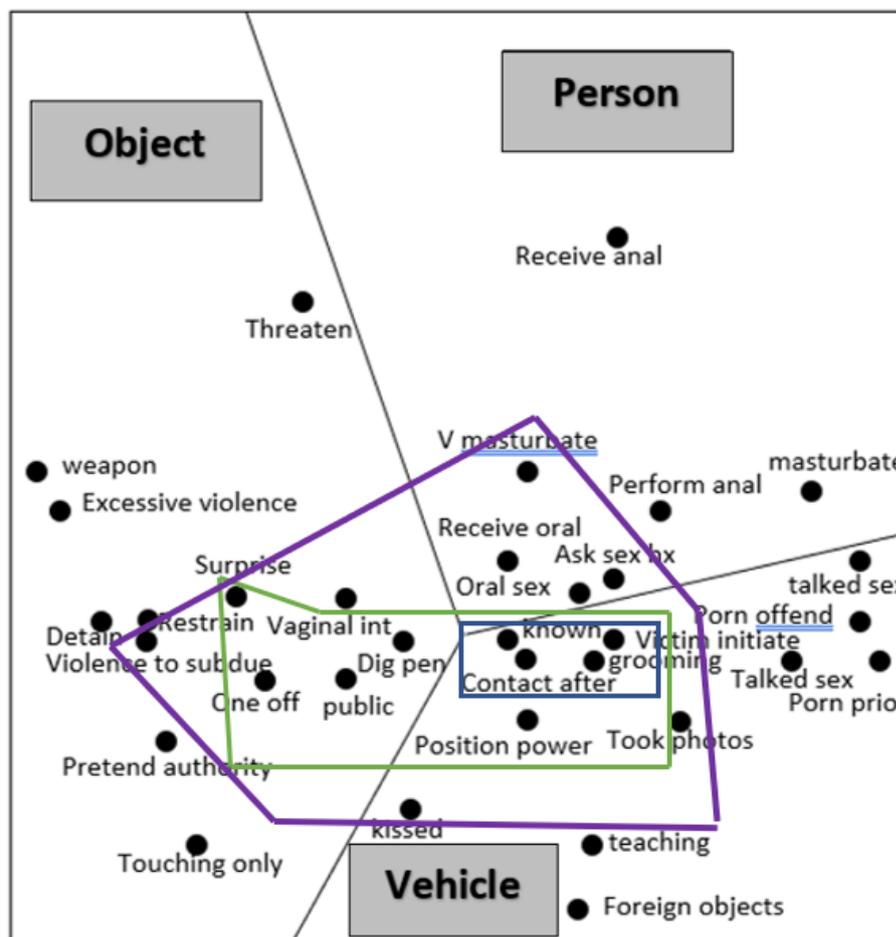
Utilising this method of analysis, the frequencies of behaviours associated with child sexual abuse were also investigated (Figure 10.2). The two most prevalent aspects of child sexual abuse include 'offender known to the victim prior' and 'attempted or actual contact with the victim after the offence', which were present in over 68% of the cases. The presence of 'grooming' behaviour prior to the offence was prevalent in over 50% of the cases, whereas the offender 'requesting the victim initiate' the offence occurred in over 43% of the cases. As such, the contour created in the centre of the domain reflects those behaviours which are present in over 40% of child sexual abuse cases.

The second echelon contained aspects such as 'digital penetration', 'surprise attack', 'one-off event' and 'occurred in a public place', which were present in between 30% to 40% of sexual offences. The third echelon contained aspects such as 'offender asked victim about their sexual history', 'oral sex' and 'violence to subdue victim', which were present in between 15% to 30% of sexual offences against children. The outer region of the domain contained more distinct criminal actions, including 'pretending to be in authority', 'showing the victim pornography', and 'using a weapon during the offence', which were present in between 3% to 15% of offences. A comprehensive list of frequencies is contained in Table 10.4.

The core behaviours contained within the SSA analysis are not indicative of non-sexual violence, with violent behaviours featuring only within outer regions of the plot. As expected, sexual offences against children tend to be committed by people known to the victim and involve grooming and psychological coercion. There is also a suggestion that sexual victimisation occurs on multiple occasions, or at the least, the victim has contact with the offender after the initial incident of abuse.

Figure 10.2

SSA of 33 criminal actions with regionality depicting the frequency of criminal actions



Whilst the variables utilised within the current study aren't completely representative of those used in Canter, Hughes & Kirby (1998), there are some consistencies in the outcomes relating to behaviour frequency. Specifically, within both studies, actions associated with excessive violence and anal penetration are represented with less frequency than other criminal actions. Further, grooming behaviours or actions to desensitize the victim appear with frequency in both studies. Within Canter's et al. (1998) study, vaginal intercourse was also observed as being present in less than 16% of cases, whereas this was identified in almost 21% of current offences. It is noted that somewhere between 39-70% of Canter et al. (1998) sample was engaged in a 'one off' offence, whereas only 31% of the current sample were engaged in a one-off offence. This suggests that the current study represents individuals who engaged in multiple or protracted offending behaviours and may account for some variance

Table 10.4

Frequency of 33 criminal actions across 40 sexual offences against children

Crime behaviour	Frequency (%)
Offender known to the victim prior	71.9
Attempted or had contact with the victim after the offence	68.8
Groomed prior to the offence	53.1
Requested that the victim initiate the offence	43.8
Digital penetration	37.5
Was in a position of power	37.5
Surprise attack	34.4
Occurred in public	34.4
One-off event	31.4
Performed oral sex on the victim	28.1
Received oral sex	25
Penile-vaginal intercourse	21.9
Took photographs of the victims	18.8
Used violence just to subdue the victim	15.6
Forced victim to masturbate offender	15.6
Asked victim about sexual history	15.6
Kissed victim	15.6
Touching/groping only	12.5
Performed anal sex on the victim	9.4
Restrained victim (tied hands)	9.4
Detained victim	9.4
Foreign objects used throughout the offence	9.4
Showed pornography to the victim and then immediately offended	9.4
Talked about sex with the victim and then immediately offended	6.3
Showed pornography prior to offending	9.4
Talked about sex with the victim prior to offending	9.4
Threat not to tell anyone	6.3
Offender suggest to the victim he was teaching	6.3
Masturbate in front of the victim	6.3
Used excessive violence	6.3
Pretend to be a person in authority	6.3
Forced victim to perform anal sex on them	3.1
Weapon featured in the offence	3.1

in relation to vaginal intercourse. Although there is variance in the criminal actions investigated between research designs, both studies suggest that manipulation and coercion

are at the core of child sexual abuse, whereas physical violence is less frequent, representing a distinct sub-set of perpetrators.

10.6.1. Offender characteristics

Individual characteristics of the offenders pertaining to the three roles were critically examined. There was no significant relationship between the victim roles and offenders' parent(s) having criminal convictions, yet there was a correlation between the 'Object' role and having a sibling with convictions ($r=.334$, $p=.019$). Living with siblings was unrelated to the role assignments, yet living in out of home care or with extended family during childhood was positively correlated with the 'Object' role ($r=.311$, $p=.025$) and negatively with the 'Vehicle' role ($r=-.275$, $p=.043$). The level of school achievement was not statistically correlated with any of the three roles. Those who assigned the victim to the 'Object' role had histories of probation supervision ($r=.558$, $p=.000$); conversely, the 'Vehicle' role was associated with few histories of supervision ($r=-.430$, $p=.003$). In relation to the sentence imposed for the index offence, offenders who assigned their victim to the 'Object' role were given harsher custodial sentences ($r=.270$, $p=.046$), which likely reflects the use of violence in their offending and their apparent criminal histories.

The most significant results in relation to the victim roles are the participant's criminal histories. These were examined utilising official documentation (e.g., conviction records) and their self-reported participation in criminal behaviours using the D60 questionnaire (the full questionnaire is available in Appendix G). As observed in Table 10.5, official documents suggest that the 'Object' roles are assigned by offenders with a varied history, particularly a history of interpersonal violence and robbery. These offences, therefore, likely occur in the context of a general criminal lifestyle, likely facilitated by antisocial attitudes. In contrast, the 'Vehicle' role is negatively correlated with offending behaviour, suggesting that they tend to be law-abiding individuals, at least in comparison to the other roles. The 'Person' role is associated with criminal histories for theft and illicit drugs, reflecting involvement in petty crime. This also potentially indicates behavioural dysregulation rather than a strong criminal involvement.

Table 10.5

Correlations between samples criminal histories and victim role assignment themes

Convictions	Person	Object	Vehicle
Acts intended to cause injury		.543**	
Traffic and vehicle regulatory offences		.431**	-.483**
Fraud, deception and related offences		.319*	
Theft and related offences	.408**		
Illicit drug offences	.309*		
Government procedures, security and operations		.313*	
Unlawful entry with intent/burglary, B&E		.314*	
Robbery, extortion and related offences		.578**	-.275*
Abduction, harassment and other against a person		.511**	

Note. Statistically significant results only (* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$)

In addition to criminal histories, the D60 questionnaire collected information from offenders first-hand and highlights their criminal involvement beyond what is reflected in official documents. As mentioned in the methodological section of this dissertation, great care was taken to protect the information provided by offenders, allowing them to provide honest information without fear of self-incrimination. The patterns of correlations match official documents, suggesting that offenders did provide a candid account of their criminal histories. Table 10.6 highlights that the most significant relationships are between the 'Object' role and offences of a violent nature (i.e., 'threatened to beat someone up for money', 'pulled a knife, gun or weapon' and 'used a knife to hurt someone').

Table 10.6

Correlation between samples responses to D60 questionnaire and victim role assignment themes

D60 questionnaire item	Person	Object	Vehicle
Broken into a house, shop or school and taken money?		.412**	
Threatened to beat someone up if they didn't give you money?		.546**	-.290*
Actually shot at someone with a gun?		.379**	-.278*
Pulled a knife, gun or some other weapon on someone?		.600**	-.324*

Broken the windows of an empty house or other empty building?		.273*	
Been in gang fights?		.459**	-.367*
Used or carried a gun to help you commit a crime?		.371*	
Prepared an escape route before you carried out a crime?		.297**	
Taken care not to leave evidence after carrying out a crime?		.391**	
Got others to act as 'watch' or 'lookout' while you did a crime?		.406**	
Acted as 'watch' or 'lookout' for someone else?		.379**	
Taken special tools with you to help you carry out a crime?		.419**	
Molested or fondled someone without their permission?			-.389**
Stolen a car to go for a joy ride and then abandoned it?		.561**	-.354*
Stolen things you didn't really want just for the excitement?		.468*	
Pinched things from a shop and then sold them on?		.359**	
Carried a gun in case you needed it?		.305*	
Stolen something to eat because you were so hungry?			-.308*
Made a shop assistant give you money from the till?		.297*	
Helped your mates smash up something when you didn't want to?		.326*	
Done a burglary in a place that you knew would be hard to get into?		.469**	
Stolen stuff from a shop that had a lot of security?		.326*	
Had to take part in a fight for mates even though you didn't want to?		.453**	-.302*
Pretended your credit card had been stolen?			-.278*
Actually, used a knife to hurt someone?		.556*	-.299*
Sold heroin?	.369**		.307*
Sprayed graffiti on a building or public wall?		.469**	
Done a burglary on a really big, posh house?		.456**	
Broken into a warehouse and stolen goods worth more than \$2000?		.333*	
Set fire to a bin?		.381**	
Got Centrelink payments when you were working?			-.440**

Note. Statistically significant results only (*p<0.05; **p<0.01)

10.7. Phase 1 summary

This phase of the investigation has investigated the victim role assignment framework in relation to the current sample of sexual offenders. The hypothesis has been supported in that the criminal actions of sexual offenders were categorizable into three roles, which were thematically similar to Canter (1994) 'Person', 'Object' and 'Vehicle' roles. Most of the participants met the criteria for allocation to dominant themes, which interestingly reflected high rates of the victim as a 'Vehicle' role. The results suggest that half of the categorizable

sample demonstrated manipulative behaviours, behavioural coercion and empathy deficits relating to victim value.

10.8. Phase 11: Risk and victim roles – mapping the static 99R onto sexual offenders' victim role assignment.

Multiple linear regression analyses were calculated to predict total risk scores on the Static-99R, Static-2002R and three latent psychological variables (persistent paraphilia, criminality and YSA) based on the three (3) victim roles ('Vehicle', 'Object', and 'Person'). Results from the multiple linear regression indicated that there was a collective significant effect between the victim roles and overall risk scores on the Static-99R ($F(3,36)=6.77$, $p=.001$, 95% CI [3.6, 7.63]), with R^2 of .361, yet there were no significant findings in relation to the Static-2002R. Individual predictors were examined and indicated that the 'object' role was predictive of risk scores on the Static-99R ($\beta= .568$, $p=.002$, 95% CI [0.25, 0.99]).

Results from the multiple linear regression also found that there was a collective significant effect between the victim roles and 'persistent paraphilia' ($F(3,35)=2.955$, $p=.046$, 95% CI [0.05, 2.45]), with R^2 of .20. In terms of the individual victim roles, the 'person' role was predictive of 'high persistent paraphilia' scores ($\beta= .430$, $p=.009$, 95% CI [0.12, 0.77]). The other emotional themes were not statistically predictive of risk. These are significant findings in that the variances in crime scene behaviours, outside of index non-sexual violence (which is already accounted for in the Static-99R) are predictive of recidivism risk scores.

Finally, multiple linear regression analyses indicated that there was a collective significant effect between roles offenders assign to their victim and their 'general criminality' risk scores ($F(3,35)=4.40$, $p=.001$, 95% CI [0.10, 2.27]), with R^2 of .273. No individual victim roles were significantly predictive of the model.

Utilising correlation analysis, the roles offenders assigned to their victims during sexual offences were investigated in relation to overall risk scores on the Static-99R and the Static-2002R. As observed in Table 10.7, there aren't any significant correlations between the 'Person' role and the overall risk scores on the two actuarial measures. The strongest correlation was between the victim being assigned to an 'Object' role and the overall scores

on the Static-99R. The relationship between the victim as an ‘Object’ role and Static-2002R was also statistically significant, yet to a lesser extent. The victim as an ‘Object’ is characterised by the offender physically controlling the victim using subjugation and possession. His behaviour highlights empathy deficits associated with deficits in humanity, as observed through victim objectification. These results suggest that overall, all higher scores on these static actuarial risk assessments are associated with the offender physically controlling and objectifying his victim, as observed in him assigning them to an ‘Object’ role.

Table 10.7

Correlations among Static99R and Static-2002R total risk scores and victim roles (N=40)

	Victim role	Static-99R	Static-2002R
1	Person	.102	.142
2	Object	.555**	.311*
3	Vehicle	-.358**	-.187

***p<0.05; **p<0.01**

The overall risk score on the Static-99R is also correlated with the victim as a ‘Vehicle’ role, although the correlation is in the negative direction. This suggests that the more an offender’s behaviour is thematically consistent with the victim as a ‘vehicle’ role, the lower their total risk scores will be (on this measure). The victim as a ‘Vehicle’ role is characterised by psychological abuse to control the victim and deficits in compassion observed through victim exploitation. Offenders who predominantly assigned their victim to the ‘Vehicle’ theme accounted for over half of the sample. Whilst this doesn’t suggest that assigning the victim to a ‘Vehicle’ role is a protective factor for sexual reoffending, its relationship with overall risk scores arouses interest for further inquiry.

Table 10.8 depicts the relationships between the victim roles and the three latent psychological constructs of the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R measures. Interestingly, whilst the victim as a ‘Vehicle’ role assignment was negatively correlated with the overall risk score, there were no statistically significant relationships between the victim as a ‘Vehicle’ role and the three latent psychological constructs. It is, therefore, possible that

items relating to the Static-2002R (on which the total score was not statistically correlated with the 'Vehicle' role) influenced the relationship on the combined latent variables. This reinforces the notion that the two actuarial tools measure some independent constructs.

Table 10.8

Correlations among combined Static-99R and Static-2002R combined risk factors with victim roles

	Persistent paraphilia	YSA	Criminality
Object	.144	.337*	.128
Vehicle	-.168	-.201	-.064
Person	.307*	-.039	.032

*p<0.05; **p<0.01

Offenders who assign their victims to an 'Object' role, which in the current study was around one-third of the sample, tended to have higher scores relating to YSA. Given the non-sexual violence involved in these criminal actions, the relationship with 'YSA' appears intuitively sound. To understand this relationship further, individual correlations were examined.

Table 10.9 highlights that the victim as an 'Object' role was positively correlated with 'index non-sexual violence', 'prior non-sexual violence' and 'unrelated/stranger victim'. It appears that offences with these criminal actions tended to be perpetrated against females, as reflected by the negative correlation between the 'Object' role and having a 'male victim'. Overall, the behaviours and associated risk factors associated with the victim as an 'Object' role give this domain qualities often associated with stranger rape offences.

According to Canter (1994), the victim as a 'Person' role is characterised by the offender using behavioural coercion to control the victim and reflects an offender who has empathy deficits relating to the value of the victim, as observed through manipulative behaviour. This has been correlated with high scores on items constituting 'persistent paraphilia'. The correlation between individual items provides further insight into this relationship. The victim as a

'Person' role was correlated with having a 'male victim' and having 'few years free' prior to index sexual offence. Offenders who predominantly assigned their victim to the 'Vehicle' theme accounted for 21% of the sample.

Table 10.9

Combined Static-99R and Static-2002R combined risk factors with significant correlations to victim roles

Risk factor	Person	Object	Vehicle
Male victim	.408**	-.300*	.374**
Years free	.287*		
Index non-sexual violence		.393**	
Prior non-sexual violence		.433	
Unrelated/stranger victim		.307*	-.411**
Rate of offending			-.318*

Note. Statistically significant results only (* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$)

Whilst there was no statistical relationship between the victim as a 'Vehicle' role and the three latent constructs, it was correlated with individual static test items. Specifically, the 'Vehicle' role was positively correlated with having a 'male victim', yet negatively correlated with 'high rates of offending' and having 'unrelated/stranger victims'.

Of the 33 criminal actions, three were positively correlated with the latent psychological constructs and a further four were negatively correlated with them. Table 10.10 highlights the significant correlations, including forcing the 'victim to masturbate the offender', which was indicative of high scores on 'persistent paraphilia'. 'Digital penetration' and 'one-off' offences, on the other hand, were correlated with 'YSA'. Being 'known' to the offender prior was negatively correlated with 'persistent paraphilia' and 'youthful aggression'. The 'offender masturbating himself' in front of the victim was negatively correlated with 'general criminality'. Both 'having contact with the victim after the offence' and 'showing the victim pornography' prior to offending was negatively correlated with 'youthful aggression'.

Table 10.10

Combined Static-99R and Static-2002R combined risk factors with significant correlations to victim roles.

Criminal action	Persistent paraphilia	YSA	Criminality
Victim known to offender prior	-.342*	-.346*	
Forced victim to masturbate offender	.308*		
Contact with the victim after offence		-.313*	
Shown porn prior to offend		-.331*	
Digital penetration		.282*	
One-off offence		.333*	
Masturbate self in front of victim			-.287*

Note. Statistically significant results only (*p<0.05; **p<0.01)

10.9. Victim role framework

The results of this study are based on three victim roles, which highlight variants of control and empathy deficits. As such, it is possible to determine what relationship there is between empathy deficits in relation to total risk scores and also individual risk factors. Men who have deficits in ‘humanity’ tend to be associated with non-sexual violence and ‘rape-like’ offences, likely dehumanising others during offending episodes. Men with deficits relating to the value of others are associated with sexual offending against males and having few years free from offending, both being indicative of sexual deviance and paraphilia. This suggests that they value their own sexual interest over the value of the victim. Finally, those who lack compassion for others tend to offend against male victims. This highlights that understanding the empathy deficits apparent in sexual behaviour by observing their crime scene behaviours can inform risk prediction.

10.10. Chapter summary

This study investigated the criminal actions of child sex offenders, in particular, their interaction with the victim. Examination of the results reveals five primary findings. The first relates to the criminal actions of offenders, which were able to be allocated in three themes, as variants of control and empathy deficits on behalf of the offender, as observed in previous research by Canter and Youngs (2012). These included the victim as an ‘Object’, ‘Vehicle’, and

'Person'. Whilst all three roles were represented, when assigned to dominant roles, half of the sample was allocated to the 'Vehicle' role. This suggests that most child sex offenders experience psychological abuse and exploit victims' vulnerabilities.

The second major finding was in relation to the crime scene behaviours most prevalent with this population. It appears that items such as 'being known to the victim', 'grooming', 'having contact after the offence' and 'requesting that the victim initiate the offence' are inherent aspects of child molestation. Variables such as weapon use and pretending to be in authority were far less prevalent. The offender characteristics revealed that the 'Object' role was associated with a varied and extensive criminal history, a family history of offending, and being raised outside the context of the biological family.

The second major finding involves the correlation between narrative themes and overall risk scores. Specifically, it appears that there is a statistically significant relationship between the 'Professional' role and overall risk scores on the Static-99R, although with a small effect size. The third major finding was in relation to the criminal actions and the overall risk scores, which showed a positive correlation between the victim as an object and overall scores on both the Static-2009R and Static-99R.

The fourth finding was in relation to the latent constructs, using which the 'Person' role was correlated with persistent paraphilia, and the 'object' was correlated with youthful aggression. This potentially suggests that psychological control and abuse is associated with deviant sexual interest, whereas physical control is associated with antisociality.

The final findings were in relation to individual items. In particular, high scores on persistent paraphilia was associated with forcing the victim to masturbate, which may reinforce that this behaviour is indicative of deviant interest. A one-off offence and digital penetration were associated with youthful aggression. Interestingly, there was only a negative correlation with criminality, suggesting that there were few findings from the narrative framework in this

In summary, this is the first research project of its kind in utilising this criminal action model to understand static risk factors. The findings of this study provide further support for the

three types of offender and victim interactions providing insight into the offender's empathy deficits. The most significant finding is in relation to the predictive utility in this model with high risk scores relating to general criminality. The findings from further analysis relating to the criminal actions are contained within the following chapter.

PART IV

Making meaning

Chapter 11

Psychological constructs of
static risk assessments:
a narrative approach

11.1. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to critically examine the individual risk factors from the combined Static-2002R and Static-99R in light of their relationships with different narrative role items, emotions, the CNE and criminal actions. The overarching objective of this analysis is to provide insight into the potential psychological constructs of each static risk factor by utilising cognitive, affective and behavioural features of offending, elicited through narrative frameworks. Acknowledging the complexities of assessing human behaviour, it is not the aim of the current study to find a single construct underpinning each risk factors but rather to explore some of the multilayered psychological dimensions of recidivism risk. It is well established that the Static-2002R and Static-99R offer moderate predictive validity, however in their current form, the utility of these actuarial assessments as tools to facilitate change and reduce an individual's risk is limited. As such, it is anticipated that the rich data obtained from the offenders themselves in the form of the narrative framework will assist not only in understanding sexual offending but also identify potential targets for therapeutic intervention.

11.2. Persistent paraphilia

11.2.1. Rates of sexual offending

This item is extracted from 'prior sex offences' (charges and convictions) from both the Static-99R and Static-2002R, in combination with the 'rate of sexual offending' from the Static-2002R. These were collinearity cases, and subsequently, the items were summed as per the item preparation technique used within the original source (see Brouillette-Alarie et al., 2016).

The item 'prior sex offence' on the Static-2002R and Static-99R were statistically correlated with several narrative role individual statements. A summary of significant relationships is outlined in order of effect size in Table 11.1.

In addition, rates of sexual offending, taken from the Static-2002R was statistically correlated with the following NRQ items: 'I always knew it would happen' ($r=.437$, $p=.003$), 'I had to do it' ($r=.381$, $p=.010$), 'it was a relief' ($r=.334$, $p=.022$), 'it was the manly thing to do' ($r=.326$, $p=.025$), 'it was an adventure' ($r=.317$, $p=.028$), 'I was grabbing my chance' ($r=.308$, $p=.032$),

and 'it was satisfying' ($r=.288, p=.042$). Several emotions were also statistically correlated with prior sexual offences. These are identified in Table 11.2.

Table 11.1

Individual NRQ items and significant correlation outcomes with Static-2002R and Static-99R

NRQ item	Static-2002R	NRQ item	Static-99R
I had to	.462**	It was a relief	.473**
I was grabbing my chance	.459**	I was grabbing my chance	.435**
I couldn't stop	.455**	I knew what I was doing	.413**
I had power	.432**	I had power	.413**
I knew what I was doing	.432**	I couldn't stop	.409**
I was getting my own back	.407**	It was satisfying	.372*
It was a relief	.402**	I had to	.371*
It was exciting	.374*	I was looking for recognition	.353*
It was satisfying	.361*	I was taken over	.338*
It was the manly thing to do	.361*	It was the manly thing to do	.315*
At the time, I needed to do it	.319*	It was routine	.311*
It was routine	.298*	It was exciting	.306*
It was an adventure	.281*	I felt hunted	.304*
I was trying to get revenge	.283*	Needed to	.285*
There was nothing special about it	.282*	Mission	.282*
		Adventure	.276*

Note. Statistically significant results only (* $p<0.05$; ** $p<0.01$)

In relation to criminal actions, having prior sexual offences on the Static-99R was positively correlated with 'using physical force to subdue the victim' ($r=.376, p=.013$) and a 'surprise offence' ($r=.284, p=.049$). It was negatively correlated with the offender 'knowing the victim prior to offending' ($r=-.513, p=.001$), having 'contact with the victim after the offence' ($r=-.461, p=.003$), 'requesting the victim initiate the offence' ($r=-.368, p=.015$) and 'kissing the victim' ($r=-.307, p=.036$). Unsurprisingly, results were similar when investigating 'prior sex

offences' utilising the Static-2002R, highlighting correlations with prior sex offences and 'teaching the victim something' ($r=.301$, $p=.039$), 'detaining the victim' ($r=.462$, $p=.003$), 'using physical force to subdue the victim' ($r=.517$, $p=.001$), 'using excess violence' ($r=.438$, $p=.004$) and 'surprise' ($r=.339$, $p=.023$). It was negatively correlated with the 'offender knowing the victim prior' ($r=-.484$, $p=.002$) and having 'contact after offence' ($r=-.435$, $p=.004$). Rates of offending on the Static-2002R was positively correlated with 'detaining the victim' ($r=.397$, $p=.009$), yet negatively correlated with 'knowing the victim prior to offending' ($r=-.345$, $p=.021$).

Table 11.2

Individual emotions and significant correlation outcomes with Static-2002R and Static-99R

Emotions and prior sex offences	Static-99R
Delighted	.462**
Scared	.352*
Safe	-.300*
Emotions and prior sex offences	Static2002R
Lonely	.328*
Excited	.335*
Delighted	.436**
Enthusiastic	.328*
Delighted	.409**
Courageous	.332*
Emotions and rates of SO	Static2002R
Delighted	.369**
Courageous	.346*
Relaxed	.293*
Excited	.276*

Note. Statistically significant results only (* $p<0.05$; ** $p<0.01$)

On the basis of this analysis, the risk factor 'rates of sexual offending' are suggestive of an individual who experiences positive emotions throughout the offence. In particular, offenders

with high rates of sexual offending reported experiencing 'delight' at the time of sexual offending against a child victim. There appears to have been some ambivalence with emotions such as 'scared' and 'lonely', although generally, their emotional states were pleasant. High rates of sexual offending are also associated with an individual with low agency, indicating that they felt compelled, if not forced to offend, which were resolved through offending as evidenced by experiences of relief. This potentially suggests a person who has been fixated on offending as a background factor, experiencing anticipation as an acute dynamic factor. Their index offence involved the use of violence to subdue the victim, excess violence, detaining the victim and engaging in a surprise attack. It is negatively correlated with behaviours suggestive of pseudo intimacy, such as kissing the victim or requesting that they initiate sexual contact. These behaviours are not indicative of paedophilia but rather other deviant interest such as non-consensual sexual behaviour.

11.2.2. Non-contact sex offence

This item is a combination of items 'any convictions for non-contact sexual offences' and 'any sentencing occasions for non-contact sex offences' from the Static-99R and Static-2002R, respectively.

In relation to narrative roles, high scores on non-contact sex offences were positively correlated with the following NRQ statements: 'I was a professional' ($r=.400, p=.007$), 'it all went to plan' ($r=.359, p=.041$), and 'I was in control' ($r=.294, p=.039$). Conversely, risk scores for non-contact sex offences were negatively correlated with 'I felt helpless' ($r=-.432, p=.004$), 'it was like I wasn't part of it' ($r=-.351, p=.017$), 'I was getting my own back' ($r=-.274, p=.050$), and 'it was the only way to rescue things' ($r=-.309, p=.031$).

High scores on non-contact sexual offence on the Static-99R and Static-2002 was also statistically related to the following emotions: 'delighted' ($r=.394, p=.007$), 'relaxed' ($r=.336, p=.018$), 'thoughtful' ($r=.334, p=.019$), 'content' ($r=.332, p=.019$), and 'pleased' ($r=.282, p=.041$). It was negatively correlated with the following emotions: 'worried' ($r=-.289, p=.037$), 'upset' ($r=-.456, p=.002$), 'scared' ($r=-.285, p=.039$), and 'confused' ($r=-.351, p=.014$).

In relation to criminal actions, non-contact sex offences were positively correlated with 'talking to the victim about pornography prior to offending' ($r=.452$, $p=.003$), 'talking about pornography during the offence' ($r=.364$, $p=.016$), 'taking pornographic photographs of the victim' ($r=.431$, $p=.005$), the 'offender suggesting he is teaching the victim something' ($r=.364$, $p=.016$), and the 'offender asking the victim about their sexual history' ($r=.337$, $p=.024$).

The risk factor '*non-contact sexual offence*', from the narrative framework perspective, is associated with an individual exerting control over the victim and, either explicitly or through 'seemingly unimportant decisions', appears to have made preparations prior to offending. The act of sexual violence seems to have been a positive experience, potentially acting out sexual fantasies previously developed by the offender. As such, pornography is used not only to entice the victim (e.g., a form of grooming behaviour) but potentially also acts as a form of arousing stimuli for the offender. His behaviours, such as asking the victim about their sexual history and taking photographs, may indicate that the victim has some significance, yet more likely serves to facilitate his own sexual arousal and, in the case of photographs, act as a source of pornographic material for ongoing use. Individuals with high scores on non-contact sexual offences appear to experience sexual preoccupation and deviant sexual interest, possibly consistent with paedophilia.

11.2.3. Male victims

The item 'any male victims' is included in both static risk assessments, yet where there were any discrepancies in scoring this item, the coding rules from the Static-2002R took precedence. Despite being on both tools, this item was only counted once.

Offenders with male victims tended to feel 'relaxed' ($r=.293$, $p=.035$) at the time of the index sexual offence. Conversely, having a male victim was negatively correlated with the following emotional experiences: 'annoyed' ($r=-.327$, $p=.010$), 'scared' ($r=-.363$, $p=.011$), 'confused' ($r=-.318$, $p=.024$), 'angry' ($r=-.302$, $p=.031$), 'worried' ($r=-.278$, $p=.043$), or 'manly' ($r=-.266$, $p=.049$). Items on the NRQ were negatively correlated with having 'male victims'. These include statements: 'I was taken over' ($r=-.334$, $p=.022$), 'it was distressing' ($r=-.323$, $p=.026$), 'I was helpless' ($r=-.311$, $p=.031$), 'I was getting my own back' ($r=-.288$, $p=.042$), and, 'it was

the manly thing to do' ($r=-.278$, $p=.048$). The statistical correlations between criminal actions of child sex offenders and having male victims are outlined in Table 11.3.

Table 11.3

Individual criminal actions and significant correlations with individual risk factor 'male victim'

Criminal actions	Male victim
Perform oral sex on victim	.641**
Ask victim about sexual history	.568**
Use foreign objects	.568**
Request victim initiate offence	.457*
Contact with victim after offence	.457**
The offender received oral sex	.474**
Knew victim prior	.428**
Suggested teaching victim	.389**
Forced victim to masturbate offender	.369*
Surprise offence	.326*

Note. Statistically significant results only (* $p<0.05$; ** $p<0.01$)

On the basis of the current investigation, offenders with male victims tend to experience positive emotions, with relatively low emotional arousal. Further, they tend to have personal agency and is negatively correlated with statements suggesting he externalises his behaviour. This potentially suggests some emotional congruence with children or cognitive distortions, allowing them to overcome any sociomoral objection to their behaviour. The sexual behaviours associated with having a male victim are varied, yet most strongly associated with the offender performing fellatio on the victim and asking about their sexual history, potentially reflecting pseudo intimacy within their interactions. It is positively associated with protracted offending, although it is also correlated with it being a surprise attack. In cases where males are the victim of sexual offences, these findings suggest that the victim may be highly significant to the offender, yet in other cases may serve merely as a means to meet their desires for intimacy and sexual satisfaction. In the case of the latter, the victim may have been chosen due to their perceived availability.

11.2.4. *Young, unrelated victims*

The item 'two or more young (under 12) victims, at least one of them unrelated' pertains to the Static-2002R only.

Offending against a young and unrelated victim was positively correlated with feeling 'pleased' ($r=.269$, $p=.049$) at the time of the index sexual offence. Further, it was statistically related to the following NRQ statements: 'I knew what I was doing' ($r=.352$, $p=.016$), 'I had power' ($r=.322$, $p=.026$), 'it was fun' ($r=.298$, $p=.037$), 'it all went to plan' ($r=.285$, $p=.044$), and 'it was like I wasn't part of it' ($r=.281$, $p=.046$). This risk factor was negatively correlated with 'I was in misery' ($r=-.338$, $p=.020$).

The criminal action statistically correlated with the young and unrelated risk factor is 'showing the victim pornography prior to offending' ($r=.287$, $p=.047$). It was negatively correlated with a 'surprise offence' ($r=-.409$, $p=.007$), having 'vaginal intercourse with the victim' ($r=-.372$, $p=.014$) and 'using physical violence to subdue the victim' ($r=-.346$, $p=.021$).

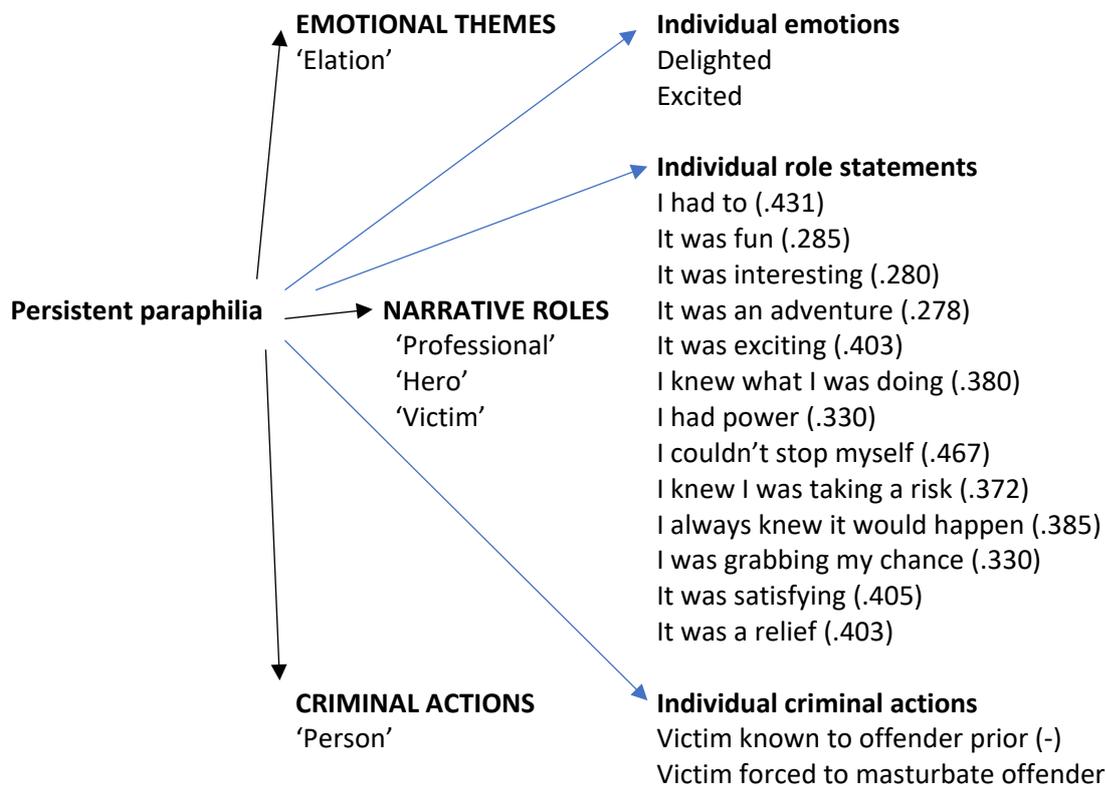
There was limited information gleaned from the narrative framework in relation to the '*young and unrelated victims*' risk factor. It is possible that this is the result of the factor being two different constructs, namely sexual interest in prepubescent children and extra-familial offending. Despite this, results suggest that offenders with high scores on this risk factor also experience positive emotions throughout their offences. Their offence narratives, on the one hand, suggest a level of preparation (i.e., 'it all went to plan'), yet was also related to 'it was like I wasn't part of it' indicative of low agency. It is unclear if this suggests cognitive dissonance or suggests that the risk factor reflects two different offence pathways. Considering their criminal actions, it appears that the offender used pornography with the victim prior to offending, suggesting a prior established relationship (although this item wasn't significantly correlated with the 'known' criminal action). On the basis of the information, it is possible that this item involves protracted periods of contact with the victim prior to offending and potentially involves immature sexual behaviours. Despite this, the construct underpinning this item remains somewhat unclear.

11.2.5. Summary of persistent paraphilia

The four risk factors outlined above have been grouped under the label 'persistent paraphilia' in previous research. The findings of the study from the earlier chapters in relation to persistent paraphilia are summarised in Figure 11.1.

Figure 11.1

Summary of significant findings across narrative roles, emotional experiences of crime and criminal actions with latent construct 'persistent paraphilia.'



As evident by the findings relating to individual risk factors, persistent paraphilia is consistently associated with an offender experiencing positive emotions at the time of offending. This was supported by the statistically significant correlation between persistent paraphilia as a construct and the 'Elation' theme emotion. This is an important finding as emotional dysregulation relating to negative affect has monopolised research into offending behaviour. This research suggests, however, that positive emotions are correlated with all four risk factors contained within persistent paraphilia. To stress the meaning of this finding, persistent paraphilia is the only risk factor solely predictive of sexual recidivism, suggesting that positive emotionality may well be unique to child molestation.

In relation to criminal narrative roles, persistent paraphilia reflects variances in personal agency. By way of example, the risk factor 'rates of sexual offending' were associated with low offender agency, whereas the others project an offender who assumes control or at least perceives it that way. This variance in agency is also reflected in the statistically significant relationship between persistent paraphilia and both the 'Professional' and 'Hero' narrative theme. In these roles, the victim holds little personal significance, and they differ based on levels of offender agency. Throughout all of the four risk factors within persistent paraphilia, the victim is generally unimportant to the offender.

In terms of the CNE, the analysis of individual items was not warranted as these had been investigated in the context of the narrative roles and emotional experiences at the individual level of analysis. When combining these to form the CNE, however, the only correlation with 'persistent paraphilia' was in terms of the 'elated hero' group ($r=.391$, $p=.023$), which is consistent with the findings of the findings noted above. It is noted, however, that there weren't any correlations between persistent paraphilia and other CNE themes, despite the hero and victim roles being correlated at an individual level. This suggests that investigating the roles that an offender assigns to himself in the absence of his emotional experiences may provide better insight into the presence of persistent paraphilia in child sexual offenders. This has important implications for further research.

Offence behaviours involve behavioural coercion to gain victim compliance, reflecting an offender who devalues and manipulates the victim. At the individual criminal actions and persistent paraphilia level of analysis, the only statistical relationship was with high scores on persistent paraphilia and the offender forcing the victim to masturbate them. Rates of sexual offending appear somewhat incongruent with the other three risk items, in that the criminal actions involved violence and against an unknown victim. The remaining risk factors contained within persistent paraphilia suggest an ongoing relationship between offender and victim and a certain level of pseudo-intimacy. On the basis of the narrative approach, 'rates of sexual offending' therefore appear thematically closer to rape-like offences and sexual deviancy around non-consensual sex. The other three risk factors ('male', 'non-contact sexual offence' and 'young, unrelated victim') appear related to paedophilic interests.

11.3. Youthful stranger aggression

12.3.1. Age at release

The offender's age in years at the time of release is derived from both the Static-99R and Static-2002R.

As age increased, offenders endorsed greater experiences of enthusiasm ('enthusiastic') ($r=.341$, $p=.023$), and there was a positive relationship with the narrative statement 'I knew what I was doing' ($r=.342$, $p=.019$). They were more likely to be in a 'position of power' ($r=.327$, $p=.028$), although there were negative correlations with 'taking photographs of the victim' ($r=.357$, $p=.018$), 'talking about pornography prior to offending' ($r=.416$, $p=.006$) and 'offending in public' ($r=.378$, $p=.013$).

It is well established within the literature that offending reduces with age, and sexual offending doesn't appear to be an exception (Helmus et al., 2011). The current research identified some of the cognitive, affective and behavioural changes that occur within the offending maturation process from the perspective of the offender himself. It appears that levels of enthusiasm for offending develop as an individual age, as does their confidence in their behaviour. It is possible that this reflects a general growth in confidence and self-acceptance associated with maturity or may indicate offence specific changes. Older offenders tend to offend against people under their authority, likely as a means of availability and convenience. Conversely, younger offenders appear to engage in more opportunistic (i.e., public place) and/or deviant behaviour (i.e., taking pornographic pictures of the victim).

11.3.2. Juvenile arrests

Item 'any juvenile arrests for a sexual offence and convicted as an adult' is taken from the Static-2002R only.

Juvenile and adult sexual offending on the Static-2002R was associated with feeling 'courageous' ($r=.296$, $p=.034$) during the index sexual offence. On the NRQ, it was statistically and positively correlated with the following statements: 'I was a professional' ($r=.378$,

p=.010), 'I was getting my own back' ($r=.333$, $p=.022$), 'it was the manly thing to do' ($r=.313$, $p=.030$), 'it was routine' ($r=.293$, $p=.039$) and, 'I was taken over' ($r=.289$, $p=.042$).

In relation to criminal actions, juvenile and adult sexual offending is positively correlated with the 'use of physical force' ($r=.287$, $p=.047$) and negatively associated with 'talking to the victim about pornography before offending' ($r=-.364$, $p=.016$).

The current investigation indicates that having high scores for 'juvenile and adult sexual offences' related to positive emotionality with average to low levels of affective arousal. This suggests that perhaps offending is a positive experience, yet not viewed as overly exciting nor threatening. Perhaps this relates to his early onset of sexual behaviour and subsequent normalisation of atypical interests. The narrative roles reflect an individual who generally has agency over his behaviour, although the inclusion of 'I was taken over' implies occasional undercurrents of externalisation. It is possible that this relates to being overcome by strong sexual urges given the absence of other strong affective states. The victim is likely insignificant to the offender but rather is used as an object to achieve his desired outcome (likely sexual gratification). His criminal actions involve physical force, potentially reflecting his youth and agility rather than sophistication and manipulation. There is no evidence of excessive violence, as his primary interest is sexual gratification, which can be achieved through lower levels of physical violence.

11.3.3. Lived with lover

The item 'ever lived with a lover for two years or more' is derived from the Static-99R.

Offenders who scored on the Static-99R item never lived with a lover for two or more years were statistically correlated with NRQ statements 'it was fun' ($r=.274$, $p=.050$), and 'I was in control' ($r=.294$, $p=.039$). Emotions were negatively correlated with this risk factor, explicitly feeling 'worried' ($r=-.302$, $p=.031$), 'upset' ($r=-.295$, $p=.034$) and, 'manly' ($r=.278$, $p=.043$).

Not having lived with a lover is statistically correlated with criminal actions. In particular, it is related to the 'use of a foreign object' ($r=.415$, $p=.007$), 'talking to the victim about pornography prior to offending' ($r=.354$, $p=.019$), 'offender commenting that he is teaching

the victim something' ($r=.284$, $p=.049$) and the 'use of physical force to subdue victim' ($r=.283$, $p=.050$).

The findings from the research suggest that men who haven't lived with a lover have positive offending experiences (i.e., 'it was fun') and achieve a sense of control. The literature suggests that not loving with a lover for two years or more is inherently associated with intimacy deficits. Subsequently, a priori assumptions would indicate that narrative role statements, emotions, and criminal actions should be indicative of pseudo intimacy. Yet, the current results suggest that there aren't any overt attempts to achieve a connection with the victim. Further, there are no statistically significant relationships with loneliness and other negative emotions associated with social rejection and incapacity for stable relationships. There is no indication of hostility towards women, although given that this is a child sex offender population, this is not unexpectedly absent.

It is possible that the intimacy deficits associated with 'lived with a lover' risk factor include emotional identification with children (i.e., 'indicating offender is teaching the victim', 'talking to the victim about pornography') and a lack of concern for others (i.e., physical violence to subdue victim, 'use of foreign objects'). Any other behavioural, cognitive or emotional traits reflective of intimacy deficits weren't captured using the narrative framework.

11.3.4. Index non-sexual violence

This item was taken from the Static-99R only.

This risk factor was statistically correlated with feeling 'confident' ($r=.393$, $p=.007$) and 'manly' ($r=.382$, $p=.008$). Conversely, it was negatively correlated with feeling 'lonely' ($r=-.407$, $p=.005$) and 'excited' ($r=-.267$, $p=.050$). Index non-sexual violence was only positively associated with the narrative statement 'it was right' ($r=.300$, $p=.036$). By contrast, it was negatively correlated with 'I knew I was taking a risk' ($r=.457$, $p=.002$), 'I was grabbing my chance' ($r=.323$, $p=.025$), and 'it was a relief' ($r=.279$, $p=.047$).

Index non-sexual violence is also associated with the 'use of restraints' ($r=.341$, $p=.022$) and 'taking photos of the victim' ($r=.286$, $p=.048$), whilst negatively correlated with 'performing oral sex on the victim' ($r=-.294$, $p=.043$).

The current investigation suggests that index non-sexual violence tends to reflect instrumental violence, as evidenced by the absence of negative emotionality and negative correlation with statements such as 'I was grabbing my chance' and 'it was a relief'. This suggests that violence took on a more functional purpose. The violence may be associated with perceived grievances or reflect attitudes supportive of violence ('it was right'). The victim appears to have little personal significance to the victim, as observed by the lack of pseudo-intimacy and objectification of the victim.

Naturally, this risk factor was associated with the use of restraints, which reflects an inherently non-sexual act. Interestingly, however, is the lack of correlation with other violent acts (such as the use of violence to subdue the victim or excessing violence), which may relate to the way in which the item is coded on the Static-99R and Static-2002R. In order to score a point for non-sexual violence, the offender must have a separate conviction for at least one act of non-sexual violence. Often, at least within the jurisdiction in which this data was collected, acts of violence within an event involving sexual violence will be reflected in the specific sexual conviction. For example, they may be convicted of 'aggravated sexual intercourse without consent', with the matter of aggravation being the violence used, rather than separate convictions for the sexual and non-sexual components. As such, this impacts the scoring of this item. This may be a contributing factor for the inconsistencies in research relating to index non-sexual violence as a predictive factor for recidivism outside of North American populations (Brouillette-Alarie et al., 2016).

11.3.5. Any unrelated/stranger victims

This item is a combination of 'any unrelated victims' and 'any stranger victims' from the Static-99R and Static-2002R. Although the two items are independent factors on the coding forms, they are part of the same dimension as strangers are automatically coded as unrelated (Harris, Phenix, Hanson, & Thornton, 2003). Subsequently, the items were combined to form

a 3-point scale with the following weighting: 0 = no unrelated or stranger victim, 1 = at least one unrelated victim and no strangers, 2 = at least one stranger victim.

Having an unrelated victim was statistically correlated with the following emotional experiences: 'relaxed' ($r=.314$, $p=.026$), 'enthusiastic' ($r=.293$, $p=.035$) and 'excited' ($r=.267$, $p=.050$). It was also correlated with the NRQ items 'I had to' ($r=.319$, $p=.027$) and 'I had power;' ($r=.306$, $p=.033$).

Having a stranger victim was correlated with feeling 'pointless' ($r=.328$, $p=.021$), 'scared' ($r=.331$, $p=.020$), 'annoyed' ($r=.311$, $p=.027$), 'irritated' ($r=.298$, $p=.033$), and 'angry' ($r=.275$, $p=.045$). It was correlated with NRQ items 'it was the manly thing to do' ($r=.348$, $p=.017$), 'I was taken over' ($r=.330$, $p=.023$) and 'I was in an unlucky place in my life' ($r=.311$, $p=.031$).

The offender and victim being unrelated held a positive relationship with 'offending in a public place' ($r=-.306$, $p=.037$), a 'one-off offence' ($r=.306$, $p=.037$), and 'using force to subdue the victim' ($r=.320$, $p=.030$). There was a negative and statistically significant relationship between having an 'unrelated victim' and having 'contact with the victim after offending' ($r=.393$, $p=.010$) and being in a 'position of power' ($r=.286$, $p=.048$).

The victim and offender being strangers was correlated with a 'surprise offence' ($r=.491$, $p=.001$), 'using force to subdue the victim' ($r=.447$, $p=.004$), the 'offender performing anal sex on the victim' ($r=.337$, $p=.024$), 'one-off offence' ($r=.452$, $p=.003$), 'offending in a public place' ($r=.462$, $p=.003$) and 'pretending to be a person of authority' ($r=.364$, $p=.016$). The victim being a stranger is negatively correlated with 'having contact after the offence' ($r=-.548$, $p=.000$), 'offender request that the victim initiates the offence' ($r=-.427$, $p=.005$), 'grooming the victim' ($r=.412$, $p=.007$), 'digital penetration' ($r=.327$, $p=.028$) and 'being in a position of power over the victim' ($r=.393$, $p=.010$).

The results of the investigation utilising narrative frameworks suggest that these items may be thematically different risk factors. Having an unrelated victim is associated with positive emotionality, where stranger offences are related to negative affective states. Both reflect an individual with low agency, although in different forms. The unrelated factor is potentially

associated with feeling compelled to sexual offending as an opportunity to exert power over another individual arose, whereas the stranger factor suggests that offending served to alleviate negative emotionality. This is potentially a subtle but essential nuance between these two items and may highlight the benefits of keeping them separated on actuarial risk measures.

In terms of criminal actions, both unrelated and stranger risk factors were associated with violent, public and blitz attacks. They are negatively correlated with items related to having an ongoing relationship or attempting to have contact with the victim after the offence. Whilst both factors were related to the use of violence as a means for victim compliance, it appears that the stranger offender was also associated with manipulative behaviour (i.e., pretending to be a person in authority) and involved more intrusive sexual violence (i.e., anal sex).

11.3.6. Summary of youthful stranger aggression

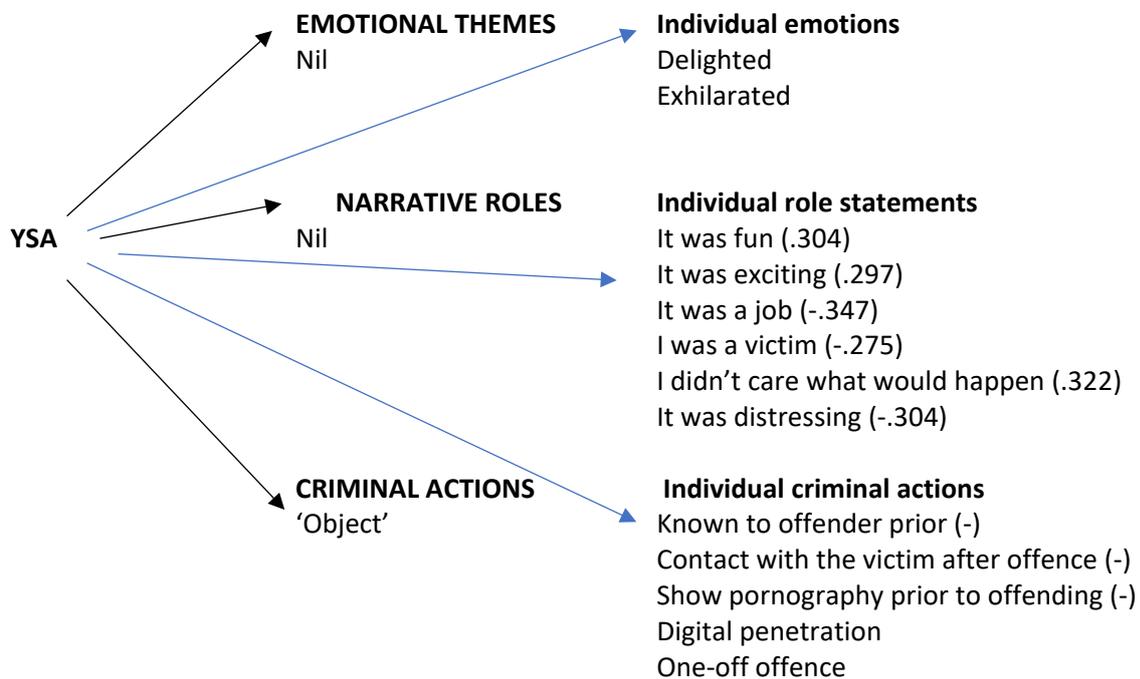
The four risk factors outlined above have been grouped under the label 'youthful stranger aggression' in previous research (Brouillette-Alarie et al., 2016). The findings of the study from the earlier chapters in relation to persistent paraphilia are summarised in Figure 11.2.

The results suggest that YSA as a construct has little correlation with emotional themes or narrative role themes. This was reinforced through the CNE analysis, in which no correlations were identified. Despite this, it was statistically correlated with assigning the victim to the role on an 'Object', suggesting that control of the victim was demonstrated through physical possession and subjugation. Offenders with high scores on YSA tended to be associated with deficits in humanity, as observed through the objectification of their victims.

There were some correlations with YSA and positive affective states during offending (specifically 'delighted' and 'exhilarated'), and individual risk factors were associated with a range of positive emotional states. In saying that, these risk factors were generally associated with lower levels of affective arousal. The risk factor 'stranger' was correlated with negative emotionality, reflecting the variance of emotional states across these four risk factors.

Figure 11.2

Summary of significant findings across narrative roles, emotional experiences of crime and criminal actions with latent construct 'youthful stranger aggression'



YSA was associated with an offender-victim interaction where the victim held little significance to the offender. All YSA risk factors (except for 'age') were associated with the presence of non-sexual violence to subdue the victim, yet the function of the violence appears to vary across the risk factors. The risk factors 'juvenile and adult sex offences', 'unrelated victim' and 'lived with a lover' were associated with non-sexual violence as a means to control the victim. 'Index non-sexual violence' and 'stranger victim', however, appear related to the use of violence as an affect regulation tool (in addition to controlling the victim). The latter two also potentially reflect attitudes supportive of violence and a generally antisocial disposition.

Previous research has described some challenges in finding a term to encompass these four risk factors given their differences (Brouillette-Alarie et al., 2016). Whilst there are several overt differences between these factors, they all appear linked in the manner in which the offender interacts with the victim. Specifically, physical subjugation and objectification is a consistent theme throughout these four risk factors.

11.4. Criminality

11.4.1. Breach history

The risk factor 'any community supervision violations' is contained within the Static-2002R only.

Prior supervision violations history was associated with feeling 'relaxed' ($r=.318$, $p=.024$) and 'content' ($r=.295$, $p=.034$) at the time of index offence. Conversely, this risk factor was negatively correlated with being 'unhappy' ($r=-.269$, $p=.049$). The statistically significant correlations between this risk factor and NRQ statements are outlined in Table 11.4.

Table 11.4

Individual NRQ items and significant correlations with risk factor 'breach history.'

NRQ statement	Breach history
I had to	.438**
I was in control	.431**
I knew it would happen	.425**
It was right	.392**
It was routine	.375*
I was getting my own back	.353*
It was the only thing	.349*
It was exciting	.337*
I was in misery	-.279*

Note. Statistically significant results only (* $p<0.05$; ** $p<0.01$)

High scored on having a breach history was positively correlated with the following criminal actions: 'detaining victim' ($r=.551$, $p=.000$), 'excess violence' ($r=.484$, $p=.002$), 'surprise' ($r=.435$, $p=.004$), 'weapon use' ($r=.389$, $p=.010$), 'restraining victim' ($r=.389$, $p=.011$), 'using force/violence to subdue victim' ($r=.351$, $p=.017$) and 'touching the victim only' ($r=.284$, $p=.044$). It was negatively correlated with 'grooming the victim' ($r=-.362$, $p=.016$).

A history of supervision violations is associated with positive emotional states with low affective arousal. There was a high degree of agency in offenders with these histories, potentially suggesting a general disregard for prosocial norms. Their narrative role statements suggest attitudes supportive of antisociality, possibly reflecting cognitive distortions associated with personal entitlement. In comparison to criminal actions related to other risk factors, a history of supervision violations is correlated with higher levels of non-sexual violence and general callousness. The criminal actions include restraining and detaining the victim, preventing them from taking an active role in the offence.

11.4.2. Years free

The number of 'years free prior to index offence' is taken from the Static-2002R.

The number of years free was positively correlated with feeling 'lonely' ($r=.269$, $p=.049$), 'scared' ($r=.314$, $p=.026$), and 'angry' ($r=.219$, $p=.036$). It was negatively correlated with feeling 'safe' ($r=-.281$, $p=.036$) and 'thoughtful' ($r=-.310$, $p=.027$) at the time of index sexual offence. In addition, 'years free' was correlated with several narrative role statements, identified in Table 11.5.

In relation to criminal actions, the few number of years free is positively correlated with 'weapon use' ($r=.603$, $p=.000$), 'restraining the victim' ($r=.464$, $p=.002$), 'excess violence' ($r=.458$, $p=.003$), 'vaginal intercourse' ($r=.284$, $p=.049$), the 'victim being forced to masturbate the offender' ($r=.367$, $p=.015$), and the 'use of force to subdue the victim' ($r=.320$, $p=.030$). 'Contact between the victim and offender after the offence' was negatively correlated with having few years free prior to offending ($r=-.393$, $p=.010$).

In contrast to 'breach history,' this risk factor is correlated with negative affective states and the use of non-sexual violence. There appears to be some dissonance in relation to the NRQ items endorsed, with some reflecting high agency (i.e., 'I was in control', 'it was right') and others indicative of low agency (i.e., 'I was taken over', 'I couldn't stop myself'). It is possible that this highlights the inner struggle of these offenders between knowing their offending is wrong and the cognitive distortions used to overcome these. Alternatively, it may suggest that 'years free' represents two offence pathways. The use of violence observed in the

criminal actions indicates that this risk factor has undercurrents of humanity deficits and victim objectification.

Table 11.5

Individual NRQ items and significant correlations with risk factor ‘any criminality.’

NRQ statement	Any criminality
I was in control	.439**
I had to	.381**
It was right	.367*
I couldn’t stop myself	.357*
Always knew it would happen	.354*
I was getting my own back	.348*
It was exciting	.352*
I had power	.305*
I needed to	.302*
I was taken over	.311*
It was the only thing to do	.297*
It was the only way to rescue things	.275*

Note. Statistically significant results only (*p<0.05; **p<0.01)

11.4.3. Prior sentencing dates/prior involvement in the justice system

The item ‘prior sentencing dates’ was taken from the Static-99R and Static-2002R, whilst the prior involvement was taken only from the Static-2002R. These items were combined as they effectively measure the same factor. The scores were coded as follows: 0 = no prior involvement with the criminal justice system, 1 = at least one prior charge, but less than 3 prior sentencing occasions, 2 = 3 to 13 prior sentencing occasions, 3 = 14+ prior sentencing occasions.

The statistical correlations between prior sentencing dates and prior involvement with the justice system with the NRQ individual statements are identified in Table 11.6. These risk factors were statistically correlated with the following emotional experiences: ‘manly’

($r=.509$, $p=.000$), 'safe' ($r=.302$, $p=.031$), 'irritated' ($r=.298$, $p=.033$), 'confident' ($r=.295$, $p=.034$), and 'scared' ($r=.279$, $p=.043$).

Table 11.6

Individual NRQ items and significant correlations with risk factors 'any criminal history' and 'prior sentencing dates'

NRQ	Any criminal history
I didn't really want to do it	362*
It was like I wasn't part of it	342*
Was the only way to rescue things	340*
I just wanted it over	333*
Knew what I was doing	322*
I was trying to get revenge	284*
It was my only choice	287*
Knew I was taking a risk	-.099*
It was interesting	-.369*
NRQ	Prior sentencing dates
It was the manly thing to do	.360*
I was in an unlucky place	.289*
I knew I was taking a risk	-.290*

Note. Statistically significant results only (* $p<0.05$; ** $p<0.01$)

In addition, the criminal actions statistically correlated with prior sentencing dates (Static-99R and prior involvement in the justice system (Static-2002R) are outlined in Table 11.7.

'Prior sentencing dates/prior involvement with the criminal justice system' was associated with various emotions, likely reflecting the diversity of offending experiences captured within this risk factor. For example, those with long histories of deviant sexual arousal and convictions for sexual offences may have found the index offence exciting, whereas those with a history of drug or property offences may have found it frightening. Without further

analysis of the offender’s background in relation to their emotional reactions to sexual offending, it is difficult to extrapolate further meaning from these results.

Table 11.7

Individual criminal actions and significant correlations with risk factors ‘prior sentence’ and ‘prior involvement with the justice system’

Criminal actions	Prior sentence	Criminal actions	Prior justice system
Physical violence	.398**	Surprise	.405**
Surprise	.374*	Detain	.393**
Detain	.308**	Restrain	.393**
Restrain	.308	One off	.339*
Masturbate in front of victim	-.364*	Excess force	.339*
		Weapon	.323*
		Grooming	-.392**

Note. Statistically significant results only (*p<0.05; **p<0.01)

Overall, higher scores for prior offending were associated with lower levels of agency. This suggests that those with antisocial backgrounds may have been more reluctant to sexually offend than those with seemingly little or no offending history. The offence, therefore, appears to have acted as a means to solve some problem for the offender, be it unmet sexual urges, affect regulation or perceived need for control and power. Alternatively, men with generally antisocial backgrounds may present with more entrenched cognitive distortions, which have facilitated both sexual and non-sexual criminality.

11.4.4. Prior non-sexual violence

This item is a combination of ‘any prior non-sexual violence sentencing occasions’ from both the Static-2002R and Static-99R. Because these items had slightly different coding rules yet were thematically similar, they were added.

A history of ‘non-sexual violence’ was statistically correlated with feeling ‘irritated’ (r=.376, p=.009) and ‘annoyed’ (r=.318, p=.024). Further, it was associated with the narrative

statements 'I was looking for recognition' ($r=.357$, $p=.0015$) and 'it was right' ($r=.395$, $p=.038$). Criminal actions statistically correlated to this risk factor are outlined in Table 11.8 and detailed specifically in relation to each risk assessment as their coding rules vary.

Table 11.8

Individual criminal actions and significant correlations with risk factors 'prior non-sexual violence' by risk assessment (Static-2002R) and Static-99R

Criminal action	Static-2002R	NRQ item	Static-99R
Surprise	.491**	Surprise	.363*
Excess violence	.452**	One off offence	.338*
One off offence	.452**	Digital penetration	.338*
Public place	.372*	Verbal threat not to tell	.230*
Weapon use	.364*	Contact after offence	-.317*
Verbal threat not to tell	.364*	Perform oral sex on victim	-.317*
Digital penetration	.327*		
Force to subdue	.306*		
Contact after	-.548**		
Grooming	-.412**		
Taking photos of the victim	-.339*		
Known to offender prior	-.337*		

Note. Statistically significant results only (* $p<0.05$; ** $p<0.01$)

Offenders with a history of non-sexual violence tended to experience negative emotions, particularly feeling irritated and annoyed. This potentially suggests that violence is used within their life to solve problems and as a means to regulate their own emotions. Given the endorsement of 'I was looking for recognition,' it is possible that in this context, violence is also used to develop status and reinforce attitudes associated with toxic masculinity. Naturally, their index offence is characterised by non-sexual violence and verbal threats. This risk factor is related to the offender having agency for his behaviour yet likely overcoming sociomoral implications through entrenched antisocial attitudes.

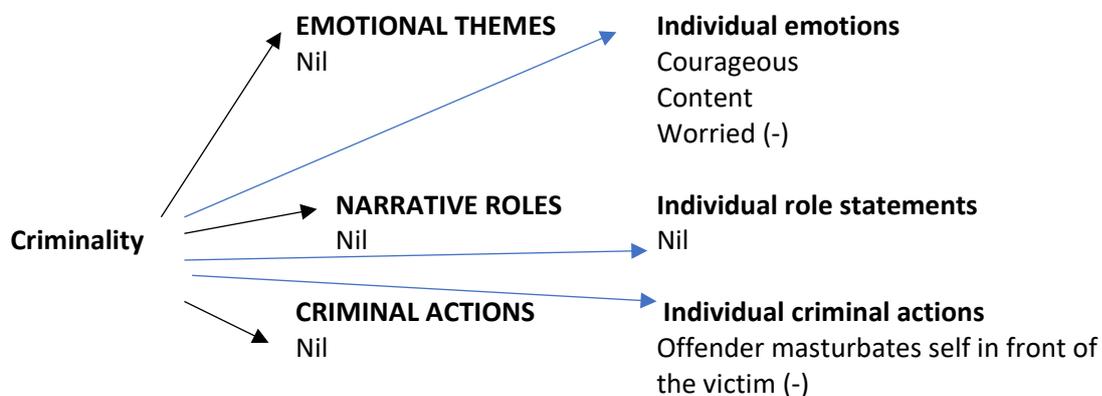
11.5. Summary of Criminality

As observed in Figure 11.3, criminality has few statistical relationships with the narrative framework in comparison to persistent paraphilia and YSA. This was also the case when investigating the combined CNE. This may relate, at least in part, to the nature of the sample (child sex offenders) and the absence of adult stranger rapists who likely score highly on these items. Child sex offenders are inherently less antisocial than adult sexual offenders, and subsequently, a sample including stranger rapists may provide greater insight into these risk factors. It is also noted that similar results were found when considering the CNE, in that there were no correlations with CNE themes and the criminality facet of risk.

Despite this, the subgroup of risk factors referred to as 'criminality', as the name suggests, appears generally associated with antisociality, violent crime actions and negative emotionality.

Figure 11.3

Summary of significant findings across narrative roles, emotional experiences of crime and criminal actions with latent construct 'criminality.'



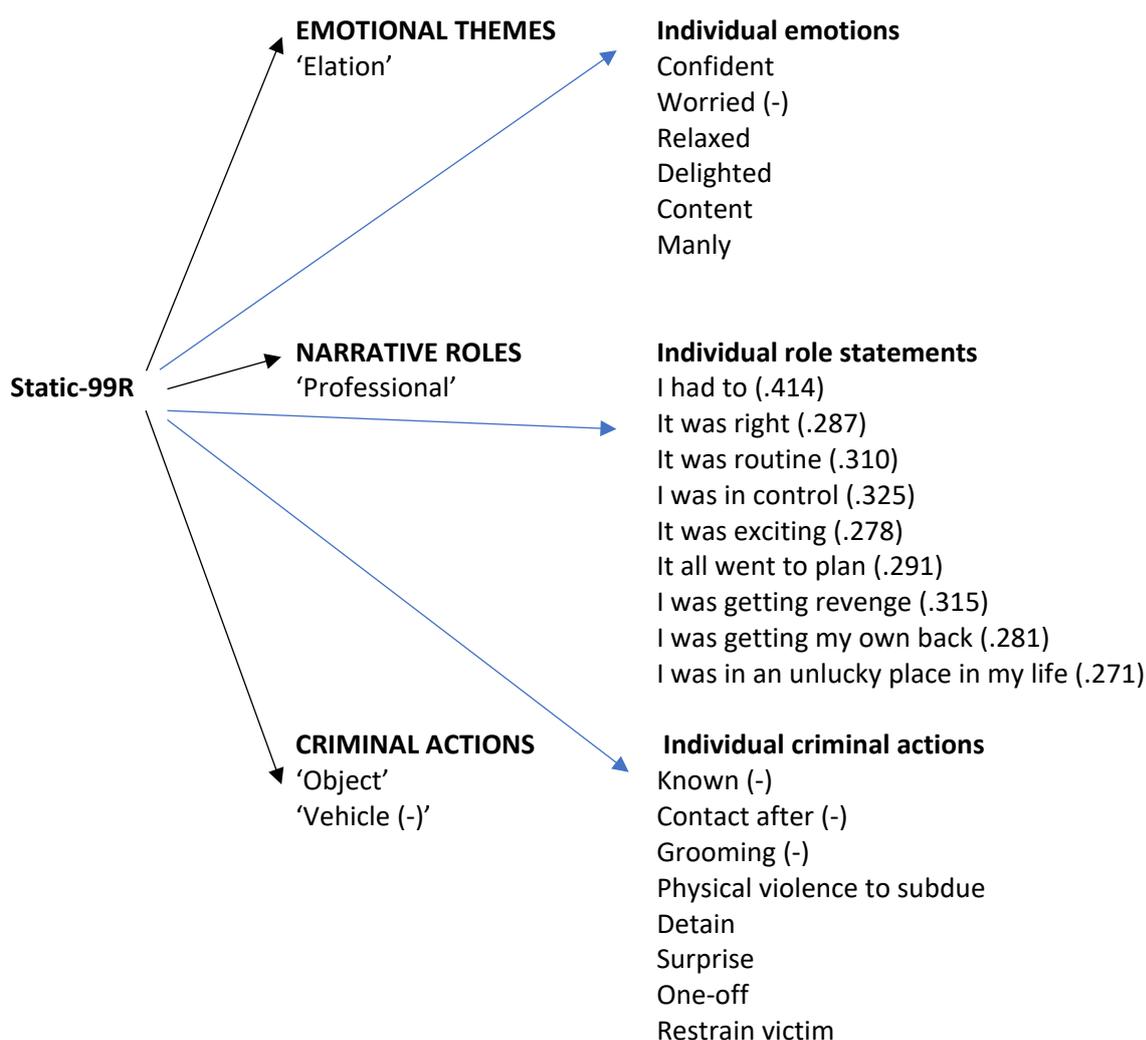
11.6. Total scores

Both the Static-99R and Static-2002R were associated with statistically significant relationships to outcomes from the narrative frameworks. As observed in Figure 11.4, the Static-99R is notably correlated with narrative roles, in which the 'professional' role was most correlated with high overall scores. The 'Professional' narrative role involves an offender who has high control over his behaviour yet views the victim with little significance.

As mentioned earlier, the current findings consistently highlight the importance of positive affective states during the offence as an indicator for empirically linked risk factors, and in this case (Static-99R), overall risk of recidivism. By contrast, one negative emotion (worried) was negatively correlated with overall risk scores. This highlights the need for more investigation into the positive affective states of offenders, with the objective to understand what facilitates these emotions and how they interact with criminal behaviour. This is particularly important within the treatment context, where the focus of intervention specific to emotional regulation focuses on negative emotional states.

Figure 11.4

Summary of significant findings across narrative roles, emotional experiences of crime and criminal actions with total scores on Static-99R

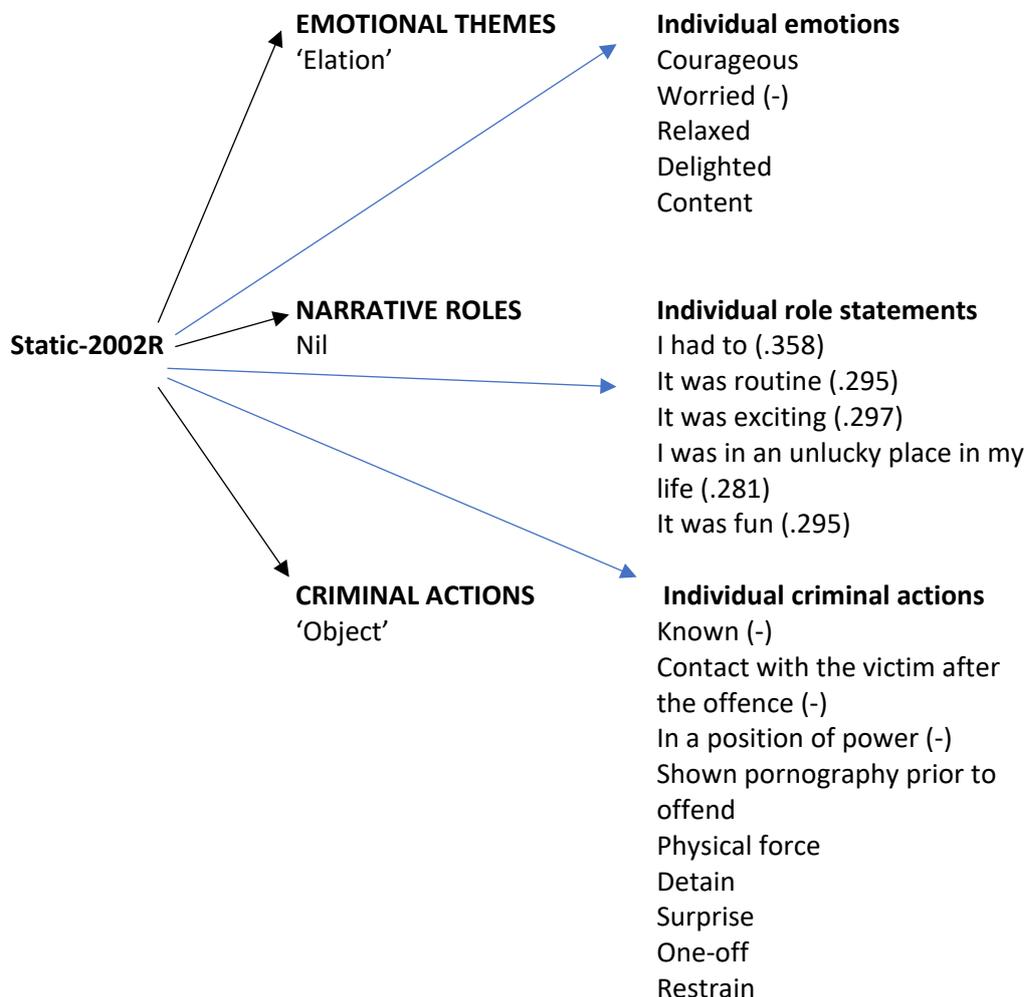


Both the Static-99R (Figure 11.4) and Static-2002R (Figure 11.5) are correlated with offenders who assign their victim to the object role, as characterised by physical subjugation and objectification. These offenders tend to experience humanity deficits and utilise violence within their offending behaviours. This indicates that on the whole static risk assessments are particularly sensitive to identifying offenders who employ non-sexual violence within the context of their sexual offence or within their life more generally. It is anticipated, therefore, that adult stranger rapists would reflect more correlations with risk utilising the narrative framework in comparison to child sex offenders. Perhaps an area of future enquiry would be the correlation between positive emotionality and recidivism rates, as this appears particularly relevant to the child offender population.

Interestingly, whilst correlations were found between the Static-99R, the narrative roles (namely 'professional') and emotions (namely 'elation') when investigating these concepts at an individual level, this was not the case when combined in the CNE model. Rather, there were no statistically significant correlations between the Static-99R and any of the CNE themes. Conversely, the Static-2002R was correlated with the 'calm professional' theme and 'elated hero' themes, despite there being no correlation at the individual level. This is further evidence that the Static-99R and Static-2002R likely measure slightly different concepts, despite having comparable predictive validity. It also suggests that whilst the CNE provides new insight into offending experiences, it should not necessarily be seen as a replacement of the narrative roles framework and the emotional experiences of crime, as these are identifying unique risk factors within the Static-99R. Further research investigating the interplay between these ostensibly similar actuarial tools and different and narrative frameworks would be advantageous.

Figure 11.5

Summary of significant findings across narrative roles, emotional experiences of crime and criminal actions with total scores on Static-2002R



11.7. Conclusion

These results provide fruitful insight into the static risk factors empirically linked to sexual recidivism. Acknowledging that this has focussed on a sub-set of offenders (child victims), it has highlighted the different cognitive, emotional and behavioural traits associated with each of the individual risk factors, along with the three psychological constructs and overall risk scores. Perhaps considering alternative methods of extracting information, such as observed in this case, could assist in raising the predictive validity of risk assessments in general. In particular, utilising the offender's own experiences has proven, in this case, to be a promising yet underutilised methodology.

Chapter 12

Summary and Conclusion

12.1. Summary of findings

These studies have been undertaken to examine the cognitive, affective and behavioural aspects of child sex offending, utilising the narrative framework. Sexual offending against children continues to be prevalent in our society, highlighting the need for novel approaches to its conceptualisation. Theories of sexual offending are varied and multifaceted, highlighting the difficulties in working with a heterogeneous population. This investigation has identified multifactorial theories, single-factor theories and offence process theories for sexual offending. Notwithstanding the significant advances made in this regard, this thesis has identified a number of gaps in our understanding, specifically in how offending behaviours transpire into risk assessment scores.

In relation to affective states, little is known about emotions experienced by child sex offenders at the time of the offence. As such, much of the literature has focussed on affective dysregulation in relation to negative emotions, and in doing so, neglected to examine the full spectrum of potential affective states.

Within the current research, a broad range of emotional experiences was investigated in relation to sexual offending experiences. Based on the emotional circumplex model proposed by Russell (1997), previous studies have evaluated the emotional experiences of offenders using an 'emotional experiences of crime questionnaire'. Whilst this has been applied to sex offenders in general until now, it hasn't been applied specifically to the child sex offending population. The results suggest that this population experiences could be classified into four themes, thematically consistent with 'Elation', 'Calm', 'Depressed' and 'Distressed', based on variants of valance and arousal. A significant dichotomy was observed on the valance axis, suggesting that offenders either experienced positive or negative emotionality, with little variance in between. Overall, the emotional experiences of the current sample were in the negative direction (e.g., their experiences were more negative than positive), with 61% being assigned to either 'Depressed' or 'Distressed' as a dominant theme.

The emotional experiences of crime were considered in light of static risk factors, and a regression analysis identified that the 'Elated' theme was predictive of high scores on persistent paraphilia risk factors. Further, it was correlated with both the total risk scores on

the Static-99R and the Static-2002R actuarial tools. In general, positive emotions were associated with higher risk scores, whereas negative emotions reflected negative correlations. In relation to the three latent constructs, positive emotions were statistically associated with persistent paraphilia, YSA and criminality. Feeling 'worried' was the only emotion statistically correlated with criminality yet in a negative direction. High scores on Elation was associated with high rates of sexual offending and having a history of supervision violation, amongst others. High scores on 'Calm' was associated with having a prior criminal history and engaging in non-sexual violence.

Whilst research in relation to negative emotions has been discussed within the literature, there is a paucity of research into positive affective states and associated criminality. Given the outcomes from the current investigation, it is suggested that positive affective states are the result of entrenched cognitive distortions and deviant sexual arousal, likely reinforced through operant conditioning processes (offending and masturbation to deviant fantasy).

To highlight the cognitive processes involved in child sex offending, the roles offenders assigned to themselves through the offending episode were examined. This was elicited through participants responses to the narrative role's questionnaire and their free-flowing offence narrative. As predicted, child sex offenders' criminal narratives were able to be categorised into four themes, namely 'Hero', 'Revenger', 'Professional' and 'Victim'. These were thematically consistent with Canter et al. (2012) narrative framework, based on Frye's (1957) archetypal mythoi, in that they were variances of agency and intimacy. Previous research on sexual offenders (not child-specific) identified that 45% of the sample was allocated to a dominant theme thematically consistent with the 'Victim' role (Ioannou et al., 2015). The current research, however, utilising similar research methodology, found that 37.5% of the sample was allocated to the pure 'Hero' dominant theme, yet when including hybrid themes, 87% of the current sample was allocated to the 'Hero' theme. This suggests that variables associated with this theme (low agency, low intimacy) are an inherent aspect of child molestation. The variance in these findings is potentially reflective of the psychological differences between child and adult sexual offending experiences.

The criminal narratives of sexual offenders were examined in the context of static risk measures for recidivism prediction. Although not statistically predictive of risk, the 'Professional' was statistically and positively correlated with the total score on the Static-99R. Further, the 'Professional' and 'Hero' roles were significantly associated with persistent paraphilia scores, indicating that low intimacy associated with these roles has promise as a latent construct for paraphilic and persistent offending risk factors. Several NRQ individual items were associated with overall risk, in particular items from the 'Professional' role such as 'I had to do it' and 'I was in control'. Some individual items from the NRQ were statistically related to persistent paraphilia and youthful aggression, yet there were no correlations with criminality. Those who endorsed items associated with the 'Professional' role were more likely to have a history of non-contact sexual offences, and those associated with the 'Hero' role were more likely to have a history of supervision violations.

Study four (4) investigated the criminal actions of child sex offenders, as evidenced by official documentation relating to their offence. A 33-item list of offending behaviours was developed from previous research (i.e., Canter & Heritage, 1990; Canter & Youngs, 2012) in conjunction with analysis of potential behaviours identified by a group of professional peers. The data was subject to analysis which identified the presence of three themes based on the interactions between the offender and the victim. These were thematically consistent with the 'Person', 'Object' and 'Vehicle' roles, which are based on variants of control and empathy deficits. Offenders represented all three roles when considered on the basis of dominant themes, although half (50%, n=19) were assigned to the 'Vehicle' group. This was followed by 'Object' and finally 'Person'.

The offence behaviours were identified, and those central to child sexual offending included 'being known, 'offender requesting that the victim initiate the offence'; 'having contact after the offence; and the offending using 'grooming' behaviours. The characteristics of offenders were analysed in relation to their dominant themes, and there were statistically significant findings in relation to the 'Object' role and having a sibling with convictions and being raised by someone other than biological parents. The 'Object' role also had histories for prior supervision orders, converse with the 'Vehicle' role, which was associated with fewer supervision order histories. The major finding of this analysis was in relation to their criminal

histories, both self-reported and officially documented. The 'Person' role was associated with theft and illicit drugs, potentially reflecting offences based on dysregulation. The 'Object' role was associated with varied criminal histories indicative of general antisociality, whereas the 'Vehicle' role was negatively associated with any offending behaviour.

In relation to offenders' risk on static actuarial measures, a multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to risk scores based on the victim roles ('Object', 'Vehicle' and 'Person'). Elements of the framework were found to be a significant predictor of high-risk scores on the Static-99R, although not the Static-2002R. They were also predictive of general criminality. Individually, the 'Person' roles predicted high-risk scores on persistent paraphilia ($\beta = .430$, $p < .01$, 95%CI [0.12, 0.77]).

Each of the 14 risk factors was analysed in relation to the narrative roles, the emotions and the criminal actions. These provided fruitful information in relation to the intimacy, agency, valance, arousal, control and empathy variants of each risk factor. This highlighted the different cognitive, emotional and behavioural traits associated with these risk factors, indicative of potential latent constructs.

12.2. Theoretical implications

The justice system generally utilises official documents to aid in the conceptualisation of offence pathways, identification of risk factors and development of treatment pathways and supervision plans. The current research, however, highlights the benefit of utilising the offender as a source of information to understand criminal behaviour and the implications this has for risk. This is a strength-based approach to offender management, which can be applied within a risk, needs and responsivity framework. The narrative frameworks, in particular, the offender's roles and the emotional experiences of crimes, reflect the same stories and emotions as those from the non-offending population. This highlights that offending is an extreme form of normative sexual behaviour, rather than being a conceptually different and disparate concept. Yet this extreme behaviour is due to, amongst other things, variations of normal human experiences (i.e., empathy, affective states). Subsequently, the narrative approach assists both offenders and professionals tolerate, understand and treat these socially abhorrent behaviours.

Potentially the biggest theoretical contribution is in relation to the correlation between offender's narrative roles, emotional experiences of crime, and criminal actions with their recidivism risk. Whilst static risk assessments have gained popularity as risk prediction tools, there are some limitations to their use. Firstly, they hold only moderate predictive validity, and notwithstanding the significant contributions made by their test developers, there is scope for improvement in their predictive validity. Secondly, static risk factors are effective at risk prediction, yet in their current form are unable to inform treatment targets or report on treatment gain. As such, understanding the latent constructs of these assessments is essential to utilise them for more than predictive analysis. Each of the 14 risk factors from the combined Static-99R and Static-2002R risk assessments was statistically related at some level to the narrative framework. Whilst the specific relationship depended on individual results, the narrative framework, in general, was considered effective in giving insight into the latent constructs of risk factors.

This study has highlighted the cognitive, affective and behavioural aspects of child sex offending, and in doing so, revealed the generalisability of narrative frameworks to this population. This lends support to the ongoing use of narrative approaches whilst also highlighting important variances in offence behaviours. It is believed that this is the first instance where a range of narrative frameworks has been investigated considering recidivism risk. Given these findings, it suggests that cognitive, behavioural and emotional factors can contribute to risk conceptualisation and highlights the possibility that narrative approaches may assist in risk prediction across other offence types.

In summary, this study has placed a spotlight on a subset of offenders, and in doing so, provided invaluable insight not only to them as individuals but also recidivism risk and narrative frameworks more generally.

12.3. Therapeutic contributions

Over recent years, criminogenic treatment has become more focused on strength-based approaches (i.e., Good Lives Model) and ensuring that treatment meets offenders' individual needs (i.e., the Risk, Needs, responsivity Model). It is anticipated that the findings of the

current research meet both of those objectives whilst also giving offenders agency over their offence information. Rather than focussing on official documentation, as often the case in the justice system, the narrative approach allows offenders to explore their offending from a perspective they can own. The narrative framework provides avenues to explore offending pathways by investigating broad themes (i.e., narrative roles) along with individual items (NRQ statements). As discussed, people make sense of their world through personal narratives, and we come to learn about others by the stories they tell. Therefore, it is argued that personal narratives are fundamental to understanding criminal behaviours, both for the offender and those around them (including professionals).

Generally, therapeutic interventions tend to be based on cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT) models, for which the narrative framework has the potential to inform on the cognitive, affective and behavioural aspects of offending. Subsequently, any adverse patterns in thinking or behaving can be addressed as treatment targets within the therapeutic milieu. This research highlights the range of emotions experienced by offenders, reflecting a full spectrum of affective states. Despite this, treatment anecdotally focuses on emotional dysregulation in relation to negative emotions only. Yet this research has highlighted that many child sex offender's expertise positive affective states, which are concerningly associated with recidivism risk. Acknowledging that more research is required, this suggests that emotions may act as a driver of behaviour, or at least, maybe an indicator of deviant sexual interest and a propensity for persistent abusive behaviour.

The criminal actions analysis has identified the common behaviours within sexual offences and reflects ways the offender controls the victim and the associated empathy deficits. Further, the narrative roles highlight the offender's levels of agency and empathy, both of which are dynamic risk factors suitable for treatment intervention. Understanding the role that each of these factors has a contribution to recidivism risks allows therapeutic intervention to be specifically tailored to address areas where the offender is most at risk. This is particularly relevant at times when resources or time is poor.

12.4. Future direction

The current study has provided information on a sub-set of sexual offenders whilst highlighting areas critically in demand for future research. Notwithstanding the novel and significant findings, caution is required when interpreting results from an isolated research project. As such, it is recommended that steps be taken to replicate this study, including with adult sexual offenders, to determine the utility of the narrative frameworks as a contributing tool for risk prediction conceptualisation in this population. It was evident that some aspects of the narrative approach had significant utility, and whilst others potentially highlighted areas for further investigation, they lacked statistical significance to recidivism risk factors. The next step would likely involve the identification of those factors relevant to risk and developing a more developed narrative assessment focussed on these items.

This research has identified the gaps in research in relation to positive affective states and the impact that this has on sexual offence pathways and recidivism processes. Whilst there is a clear predictive utility in emotional experiences and persistent paraphilia, the exact cause of this relationship is speculative. In order to establish a comprehensive understanding of risk factors for sexual offending, more research is required into the positive affective states that underpin them. Also, whilst this research has identified the emotions associated with static risk factors, there is currently no way to determine how much weight to give to individual emotional states and corresponding risk increments. By further understanding positive emotional experiences, more insight into individuals, risk scores may be available.

In order to utilise these findings with more generalisability, replication is required with other offence types. In doing so, it is hypothesised that more clarity will be gained in relation to the predictive qualities of the narrative framework, particularly the benefits of utilising offenders as a first-hand source of information. This may also highlight the accuracy of offender's accounts across a larger and more detailed population.

This study has made important contributions by bridging gaps within our theoretical knowledge. Whilst this has inevitably raised further research agenda, it has taken critical steps in identifying a tool with the notable potential to clarify complex and multidimensional human behaviour.

12.5. Limitations

Despite the significant contributions, some limitations were noted within the research.

Accessing large numbers of sexual offenders who are willing to discuss their offending behaviour in detail is not without its challenges. And whilst the current sample reflects an adequate number of participants, ideally, a larger sample would have been canvassed. This is particularly the case when the research involved allocating participants into dominant themes for the purpose of further analysis (in this case, as they relate to risk). As seen in the CNE study, 32.5% of the sample were unable to be allocated to a dominant theme, despite using less stringent inclusion criteria in comparison to previous studies. As such, the base numbers for each group were at times so low (such as in the case of the 'distressed revenger', which had only one participant), which made the capacity for further inquiry limited. Whilst this likely suggests that the distressed revenger is less pertinent to child sexual offenders than the other three roles, it could not be completely discounted on account of having one participant allocated within that as a dominant theme. In this regard, it is possible that a larger sample could have given greater statistical power to the research, particularly when investigating narrative theme correlations and risk outcomes.

Further, it would be beneficial for future research to address the issue of sample homogeneity that was evident in the current research. As stated in the 'description of sample' section of this thesis, one strength of the research is that the participants generally reflected the wider population of child sexual offenders in NSW prisons, in terms of their age, ethnicity (specifically the inclusion of a proportionate number of Australian Aboriginal sexual offenders), and conviction history (based on BOCSAR prison census, 2019). It is acknowledged, however, that most of the participants were serving custodial sentences for sexual offences. Whilst this has potential implications in terms of their criminal reflections (by virtue of treatment participation, having more time to critically reflect on the adverse consequences etc.), the main identified difference in relation to the current study is that the current sample likely present with a higher-than-average level of risk, in comparison to the general sexual offender population. Those with lower risk profiles are more likely (than high-risk offenders) to be sentenced to non-custodial orders, and therefore, these lower-risk offenders wouldn't have

been captured with the current research methodology. As mentioned earlier, attempts to include community-based offenders were made, although it proved difficult from a logistical and safety perspective. An ideal sample would have even representation from both custody and community-based offenders, as well as those who had completed their periods of supervision. Unfortunately, there were some practical and methodological factors that prevented this and maybe rectified in future studies.

In addition, given CSNSW adherence to the 'risk, need, responsivity' principles (see Andrews, Bonta & Hoge, 1990), programs are often recommended for moderate to high-risk offenders, with those at low risk generally not requiring any sex offender specific intervention. As such, some of the participants had undertaken intensive criminogenic treatment prior to their participation in the current study. Presumably, engaging in such programs would assist the offender in developing insight into his offences and in challenging some of the cognitive distortions he experienced at the time. Although this sample covered offenders from both pre-and post-treatment cohorts, this information was not considered in the analysis. It is unclear what, if any, impact this may have on the findings, yet it may also serve as a research agenda in the future.

The sampled population have invariably been involved in delinquent, deceptive and/or criminal behaviour. As such, it appears counterintuitive to rely on them to provide an accurate account of their behaviour, specifically when this is potentially associated with shame and remorse. As stated by Elffers (2010), when using offenders as sources of information, "*we are not interested in the offender as such, but we treat him as an instrument that makes available information about that offence and its associated decision making*" (page 13). In this regard, there is always scope for error, potentially on behalf of the offender, the researcher, or both. Elffers (2010) identifies three broad categories of problems with self-report measures, including 'misinformation' (i.e., including memory problems, insight deficits, being uninformed etc.), 'misunderstanding' (i.e., communication error between offender and researcher) and 'misleading' (i.e., socially desirable responding, malingering etc.). One of the strengths of this research is that collateral information was available to validate self-report information, which in one case resulted in a participant being excluded from the study (i.e., it was identified that he discussed a different offence to that which he had been convicted). By

doing this, the problems associated with 'misleading' information was reduced. Further, small changes were made to the questionnaires to account for the nuanced differences in colloquial terminology commonly used in Australia (versus in the UK, where the questionnaires were initially developed for use). The research was also undertaken by one researcher, allowing for consistency in providing research introductions and responding to questions. This eliminated some of the challenges typically associated with 'misunderstanding' problems.

Memory recall can be a problem with self-report methodology, particularly when some participants were recalling one incident amongst highly frequent offending episodes and/or from decades prior to the interview. Aptly summarised by Copes and Hochstetler (2010), *"absent the prompts and activities that are close at hand when interviewing active offenders, subjects may forget significant events and details as time introduces error in recall"* (page 58). The upside, however, is careful detail was not required in the current study, as crime scene interactions (such as antecedents of offending) were derived from the official documentation. Whilst recall deficits are an inherent challenge of self-report methodology, perhaps in the cause of the current research, where their real-time risk is being correlated with narrative themes, the offender's current reflections of their offending behaviour are as important as their experiences at the time of offending. This is particularly relevant given the dynamic nature of cognitions and affective states. Regardless, memory deficits is an inherent limitation of this methodology and must be balanced against the benefits of its use.

Within investigative psychology, particularly in the context of research investigating narrative frameworks, non-metric multidimensional scaling has been extensively utilised. In particular, Louis Guttman's (1954) smallest space analysis is one of the preferred analytic strategies. The current study applied methodology and analysis, which has been demonstrated in past research relating to narrative experiences, which has allowed for effective comparison between research findings. Despite this, a number of limitations have been identified with this methodology. Specifically, the smallest space analysis is within itself a limitation of this study, as this is typically used for hypothesis generation. Whilst this has been selected in previous studies on account of its circumplexity, it's acknowledged that it is one of the less effective techniques, primarily because the circumplexity can only be assessed through visual inspection (Spruin, 2012). Given, however, that the primary focus of the research was to

determine if the narrative framework has any correlations with sexual offending recidivism risk scores, it was deemed necessary to first replicate previous studies with this novel population to ensure that the child sexual offenders experiences of crime were similar to the general offending populations. Further, Canter, Hughes and Kirby (1998) argued that the SSA technique *“may be regarded as both hypothesis-testing and hypothesis-generating in helping to indicate if there are any directions from the results that can be used to focus future research”* (page 540). As such, and in light of this project serving to address gaps identified in previous research, this methodology was considered appropriate for the current project. This methodology was also selected over a factor analysis as the research was primarily interested in an association matrix.

One of the most significant limitations to this study was the allocation of participants to dominant groups. Previous research into criminal narratives has used more stringent allocation criteria, in which participants were allocated if their score on a theme was greater than the combined values of the remaining themes (such as in Canter et al., 1998). In the current research, the more stringent criteria were applied, however few (if any at all) were able to be allocated using this criterion. This suggests that offenders’ experiences, as identified in previous studies, were more distinguished than in the current study. Less stringent criteria were therefore used to allow for comparison between this population and those studied in previous research. It is noted, however, that more participants were allocated to hybrid categories or were considered uncharacterizable, suggesting that the four dimensions may be less prevalent in the child sexual offending population. Given the exploratory nature of this investigation, the allocation criterion was considered adequate, although not ideal. It is noted, however, that this less stringent criterion has been utilised within similarly contented published research in the recent past (for example, Goodlad et al., 2019, noting that their criteria were less stringent than that used within the current research). Future research should attempt to replicate this study utilising a larger population and by implementing the more stringent allocation criteria for dominant themes.

Finally, understanding the psychological constructs of risk assessments is not the same as understanding recidivism. More specifically, whilst the results of the current study tell us about the correlation between narrative approaches and static risk assessment scores, it

doesn't investigate the narrative data against actual recidivism rates. Given that these actuarial measures only have moderate predictive validity, it doesn't imply a direct correlation between narratives and recidivism. Considering this, future research may also incorporate the narrative frameworks into longitudinal studies relating to recidivism rates.

12.6. Concluding remarks

This study is the first of its kind in investigating offenders' risk through their own criminal experiences, expressed in narrative form. Previous studies on this issue have largely devised meaningful constructs of static risk factors based on behavioural aspects of offending (for example, a high rate of sexual offending may be attributed to hypersexuality or deviant sexual interest). Few studies, however, have utilised the offenders own accounts of offending to understanding their sexual violence and, more specifically, their risk of sexual recidivism. In recent years, investigative psychology has utilised the offender's narrative to understand the cognitive, emotional and behavioural aspects of offending behaviour. Specifically, Canter (1994) proposed a narrative theory as a valid explanatory tool for criminal behaviour and has subsequently commented that it assists in understanding their offending expertise. The narrative approach assumes that offenders, as the protagonist of their story, will assign themselves and to certain roles during the commissioning of their offence. As such, some argue that narratives act as drivers of action, intuitively given aetiological qualities by providing insight into an offender's cognitive, emotional and behavioural processes. There is a paucity of research investigating sexual offenders utilising the narrative framework, yet the results from the current study highlight not only the generalisability of these frameworks but also the clarity they provide to static risk assessment scores.

Sexual violence is a complex and multidimensional construct, and it is anticipated that narrative frameworks can provide fruitful insight into an offender's experiences, aiding in the conceptualisation of recidivism risk. The theoretical and clinical interpretations of these findings have been critically examined and call for more research into the latent constructs of risk assessments utilising novel methodology, as seen within the current study.

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Legislation

Child Protection (Offenders Registration) (2000).

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Crimes Act (1900).

Criminal Code Act (1995).

Static-99R – TALLY SHEET

Assessment date: _____ Date of release from index sex offence: _____

Item #	Risk Factor	Codes		Score
1	Age at release from index sex offence	Aged 18 to 34.9 Aged 35 to 39.9 Aged 40 to 59.9 Aged 60 or older		1 0 -1 -3
2	Ever lived with a lover	Ever lived with lover for at least two years? Yes No		0 1
3	Index non-sexual violence - Any convictions	No Yes		0 1
4	Prior non-sexual violence - Any convictions	No Yes		0 1
5	Prior sex offences	<u>Charges</u> 0 1,2 3-5 6+	<u>Convictions</u> 0 1 2,3 4+	0 1 2 3
6	Four or more prior sentencing dates (excluding index)	3 or less 4 or more		0 1
7	Any convictions for non-contact sex offences	No Yes		0 1
8	Any unrelated victims	No Yes		0 1
9	Any stranger victims	No Yes		0 1
10	Any male victims	No Yes		0 1
	Total Score	Add up scores from individual risk factors		

Nominal Risk Levels (2016 version)	<u>Total</u>	<u>Risk Level</u>
	-3, -2,	I - Very Low Risk
	-1, 0,	II - Below Average Risk
	1, 2, 3	III - Average Risk
	4, 5	IVa - Above Average Risk
	6 and higher	IVb - Well Above Average Risk

There [was, was not] sufficient information available to complete the Static-99R score following the coding manual (2016 version). I believe that this score [fairly represents, does not fairly represent] the risk presented by Mr. **XXXX** at this time. Comments/Explanation: _____

(Evaluator name)

(Evaluator signature)

(Date)



STATIC-2002R CODING		
ITEMS	Raw Score	Subscore
AGE 1. Age at Release 18 to <u>34.9</u> = 2 35 to <u>39.9</u> = 1 40 to <u>59.9</u> = 0 60 or older = -2		
PERSISTENCE OF SEXUAL OFFENDING 2. Prior Sentencing Occasions for Sexual Offences: No prior sentencing dates for sexual offences = 0 1 = 1 2, 3 = 2 4 or more = 3 3. Any Juvenile Arrest for a Sexual Offence and Convicted as an Adult for a Separate Sexual Offence: No arrest for a sexual offence prior to age 18 = 0 Arrest prior to age 18 and conviction after age 18 = 1 4. Rate of Sexual Offending: Less than one sentencing occasion every 15 years = 0 One or more sentencing occasions every 15 years = 1		
Persistence Raw Score (subtotal of Sexual Offending) 0 = 0 1 = 1 2, 3 = 2 4, 5 = 3		
Persistence of Sexual Offending SUBSCORE		
DEVIANT SEXUAL INTERESTS 5. Any Sentencing Occasion For Non-contact Sex Offences: No = 0 Yes = 1 6. Any Male Victim: No = 0 Yes = 1 7. Young, Unrelated Victims: Does <u>not</u> have two or more victims < 12, one of them unrelated = 0 Does have two or more victims < 12 years, one must be unrelated = 1		
Deviant Sexual Interest SUBSCORE		
RELATIONSHIP TO VICTIMS 8. Any Unrelated Victim: No = 0 Yes = 1 9. Any Stranger Victim: No = 0 Yes = 1		
Relationship to Victims SUBSCORE		



GENERAL CRIMINALITY		
10. Any Prior Involvement with the Criminal Justice System No = 0 Yes = 1		
11. Prior Sentencing Occasions For Anything: 0-2 prior sentencing occasions for anything = 0 3-13 prior sentencing occasions = 1 14 or more prior sentencing occasions = 2		
12. Any Community Supervision Violation: No = 0 Yes = 1		
13. Years Free Prior to Index Sex Offense: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More than 36 months free prior to committing the sexual offence that resulted in the index conviction AND more than 48 months free prior to index conviction = 0 • Less than 36 months free prior to committing the sexual offence that resulted in the index conviction OR less than 48 months free prior to conviction for index sex offence = 1 		
14. Any Prior Non-sexual Violence Sentencing Occasion: No = 0 Yes = 1		
General Criminality raw <u>score</u> (subtotal General Criminality items) 0 = 0 1, 2 = 1 3, 4 = 2 5, 6 = 3		
General Criminality SUBSCORE		
TOTAL <u>-2 to 13</u>		

Score

Labels for Standardized Risk Categories

-2, -1	=	Level <u>I</u> , Very Low Risk
0, 1	=	Level <u>II</u> , Below Average Risk
2, 3, 4	=	Level <u>III</u> , Average Risk
5, 6	=	Level <u>IVa</u> , Above Average Risk
7 plus	=	Level <u>IVb</u> , Well Above Average Risk



RESEARCH INFORMATION FORM

Hello,

I am a Specialist Psychologist for CSNSW, and I currently work as a therapist in the CUBIT program at MSPC 2. I am also a PhD research student at the University of Huddersfield (in the UK) and conducting some research into the way offenders think about their lives and their offences. I am specifically looking at individuals who have been convicted of a sexual offence in the past. I have received your name from Corrective Services NSW records and am making contact with you today to see if you would be available to participate in my research study.

The study will involve you talking to me for around 60 minutes (max 1.5 hour) about your life experiences and your account of your offence.

All of your information will be kept private, and no material will be able to be traced back to you (i.e., it is all anonymous). Throughout the session, I may need to take a few notes but again this will have no identifiable information on it. Also, so I can remember what you have said, I will be audio taping some of the interview (i.e., your voice, not your face).

At the end of the study, I will collect the information from all the people I have interviewed, to see if there are any common themes in the way you all think about your lives and offences.

You don't have to participate in the study if you do not wish to, and you can stop participating at any time throughout. Your decision to participate (or not), will not affect your case (i.e. getting released, participating in treatment, your parole conditions etc).

If you have any questions about the study you can contact the A/Director Sex and Violent Offender Therapeutic Programs, **Danielle Matsuo** on (02) 92198104

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Regards,

Chelsey Dewson
Researcher
(02) 9289 2796

(One copy to be retained by Participant / one copy to be retained by Researcher)

Appendix D

INITIAL ACCOUNT

Crime narrative.

I would like you to tell me about and a sexual offence that you have committed and can remember clearly (one you have been convicted of). If you have committed more than one sexual offence, describe one that is typical of the type of offences you have carried out in the past (except for a sexual murder then describe that). If you have only committed the offence you are incarcerated for then describe that. Please tell me in as much details about the event.

Tell me more, what happened.

Tell me who else it involved

Tell me what impact it had on your life

DETAILED ACCOUNT

Description of a Crime

Please could you tell me about what you did in a bit more detail.....

BEFORE

What were the events leading up to you committing the crime?

What preparations, if any, did you make?

What type of place or person did you pick?

Who did you go with?

What did you take with you?

What did you do before you started?

How did you start the crime?

Did anyone see you starting the crime? Yes _____ No _____

If someone saw you starting the crime what did you do?

What happened next?

DURING: THE DETAIL OF THE MAIN EVENT

What were your reasons for doing this crime/ what was the main purpose? How did you go about trying to achieve this?

So what did you actually do (i.e. what did you actually do to the person?)

Burglary related sexual offence specific questions:

How did you get in?

What did you do as soon as you were inside the house?

What else did you do inside the house?

What did you do to make sure you were safe from the people that lived there?

Did the people living in the house come across you? Yes _____ No _____

IF yes, what did you do?

Alternatives

You could have done this offence in a different way. What other ways might you have done it in?

Why didn't you do it in these ways?

Sometimes you might decide to do a crime differently- can you think when and what you would have to adjust?

What else could you have done that you didn't? If so why?

So why did you stop/ leave it there?

Why did you choose sex (i.e. rather than using physical violence)?

You said your main reasons/ purpose was..... Why did you choose this/ get this by doing this particular crime, rather than another type?

CHANGES due to SITUATIONAL FACTORS or INTERACTIONS

Did you change what you planned to do during the course of the crime at all? (if so how and why)

Did anything unexpected happen? How did this change what you did?

Did anyone/ the person do anything you didn't expect? So what did you do?

Was there anything in the place or about the place that you didn't expect? So what did you do?

ENDING

What did you do to make sure you didn't get caught?

How did you get out or away?

What did you do as soon as you got out or away?

Where did you go?

OVERVIEW

How long did the incident last?

How strong are your memories of the incident? Please tick a box

VERY STRONG	STRONG	QUITE STRONG	WEAK	VERY WEAK

For the crime that you have just talked about, please tell me how you felt. Indicate the extent to which you felt each of the following:

	Not at all	Just a little	Some	A lot	Very Much
1. Lonely	1	2	3	4	5
2. Scared	1	2	3	4	5
3. Exhilarated	1	2	3	4	5
4. Confident	1	2	3	4	5
5. Upset	1	2	3	4	5
6. Pleased	1	2	3	4	5
7. Calm	1	2	3	4	5
8. Safe	1	2	3	4	5
9. Worried	1	2	3	4	5
10. Depressed	1	2	3	4	5
11. Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5
12. Thoughtful	1	2	3	4	5
13. Annoyed	1	2	3	4	5
14. Angry	1	2	3	4	5
15. Sad	1	2	3	4	5
16. Excited	1	2	3	4	5
17. Confused	1	2	3	4	5
18. Miserable	1	2	3	4	5
19. Irritated	1	2	3	4	5

20. Relaxed	1	2	3	4	5
21. Delighted	1	2	3	4	5
22. Unhappy	1	2	3	4	5
23. Courageous	1	2	3	4	5
24. Contented	1	2	3	4	5
25. Manly	1	2	3	4	5
26. Pointless	1	2	3	4	5

For the crime that you have just talked about, please indicate the extent to which each of the statements below describes what it was like.

	Not at all	Just a little	Some	A lot	Very Much
1. I was like a professional	1	2	3	4	5
2. I had to do it	1	2	3	4	5
3. It was fun	1	2	3	4	5
4. It was right	1	2	3	4	5
5. It was interesting	1	2	3	4	5
6. It was like an adventure	1	2	3	4	5
7. It was routine	1	2	3	4	5
8. I was in control	1	2	3	4	5
9. It was exciting	1	2	3	4	5
10. I was doing a job	1	2	3	4	5
11. I knew what I was doing	1	2	3	4	5
12. It was the only thing to do	1	2	3	4	5
13. It was a mission	1	2	3	4	5
14. Nothing else mattered	1	2	3	4	5
15. I had power	1	2	3	4	5
16. I was helpless	1	2	3	4	5
17. It was my only choice	1	2	3	4	5
18. I was a victim	1	2	3	4	5
19. I was confused about what was happening	1	2	3	4	5
20. I was looking for recognition	1	2	3	4	5
21. I just wanted to get it over with	1	2	3	4	5
22. I didn't care what would happen	1	2	3	4	5
23. What was happening was just fate	1	2	3	4	5
24. It all went to plan	1	2	3	4	5
25. I couldn't stop myself	1	2	3	4	5
26. It was like I wasn't part of it	1	2	3	4	5
27. It was a manly thing to do	1	2	3	4	5
28. For me, it was like a usual days work	1	2	3	4	5
29. I was trying to get revenge	1	2	3	4	5
30. There was nothing special about what happened	1	2	3	4	5
31. I was getting my own back	1	2	3	4	5
32. I knew I was taking a risk	1	2	3	4	5
33. I guess I always knew it was going to happen	1	2	3	4	5
34. I was grabbing my chance	1	2	3	4	5
35. I didn't really want to do it	1	2	3	4	5
36. It was distressing	1	2	3	4	5

37. At that time I needed to do it	1	2	3	4	5
38. It was the only way to rescue things	1	2	3	4	5
39. I was in pain	1	2	3	4	5
40. I was in misery	1	2	3	4	5
41. I felt hunted	1	2	3	4	5
42. I was in an unlucky place in my life	1	2	3	4	5
43. I was taken over	1	2	3	4	5
44. I was out of control	1	2	3	4	5
45. It was satisfying	1	2	3	4	5
46. It was a relief	1	2	3	4	5

LIFE NARRATIVE INTERVIEW

SIGNIFICANT EVENT

I want you to tell me about a significant event in your life that you can remember very clearly. It can be anything at all. Tell me in as much detail as you can what happened.

(Tell me more, what happened)

Tell me why it was significant

Tell me what impact it had on your life

LIFE IN GENERAL:Film narrative.

If your life were to be made into a film, what type of film would that be and what would happen?

Tell me more, what would happen?

Who would the main characters be?

What would the main events that might happen in the film?

How do you think it might end?

LIFE NARRATIVE QUESTIONNAIRES

Here are some words that people sometimes use to describe themselves. Please indicate the extent to which each of the following words describes you.

	Not at all	A little	Some	A lot	Very Much
1. Hero	1	2	3	4	5
2. Comic	1	2	3	4	5
3. Tragic	1	2	3	4	5
4. Worthless	1	2	3	4	5
5. Courageous	1	2	3	4	5
6. Just a clown	1	2	3	4	5
7. Unfortunate	1	2	3	4	5
8. Insignificant	1	2	3	4	5

Here are some statements that people sometimes use to describe life. Please indicate the extent to which each of those statements describes you.

	Not at all	A little	Some	A lot	Very much

1. Life is meaningless	1	2	3	4	5
2. Things usually turn out for the best	1	2	3	4	5
3. I am fated to fail miserably	1	2	3	4	5
4. If I try hard enough I will be successful	1	2	3	4	5
5. There is not much point to life	1	2	3	4	5
6. Overall I am an optimist about things	1	2	3	4	5
7. I can be a winner if I want to be	1	2	3	4	5
8. I feel there is no hope for me.	1	2	3	4	5

Below are some statements that people sometimes use to describe their feelings or actions. Please indicate the extent to which each of the statements describes how you feel.

	Not at all	Just a little	Some	A lot	Very Much
1. I do try but things always seem to mess up in my life	1	2	3	4	5
2. It is important in my life to have a good time	1	2	3	4	5
3. I am trying to get my own back for things that have happened	1	2	3	4	5
4. In my life I've managed to do things others thought I could not do	1	2	3	4	5
5. In my life more bad things have happened to me than most others	1	2	3	4	5
6. Life is hard but I'm a winner, I get what I need out of life	1	2	3	4	5
7. I suffer a lot but I carry on	1	2	3	4	5
8. It is important in my life to have lots of different experiences	1	2	3	4	5
9. I have done wrong things in the past but I am decent underneath, it will all work out well	1	2	3	4	5
10. I tend to get myself noticed	1	2	3	4	5
11. I am just trying to make the best of myself	1	2	3	4	5

Now please tell me about yourself....

Male _____ or Female _____

How old are you? _____

What ethnicity are you? Please tick.

Australian not Aboriginal	Australian Aboriginal	Middle Eastern	American including south American (if so what country)	Asian (if so what country)	European (if so what country)	Other Please say what

What qualifications did you get at school? (School Certificate/ HSC)

Write down any other qualifications or training that you have? (Things like military training or sports skills)

What courses/ sessions have you attended in gaol, if any?

How old were you when you were first given an official warning by the police?

How old were you when you were first found guilty of a crime in court?

What was this for? _____

About how many convictions have you got in total (include everything)? _____

About how many times have you been up in court? _____

What do you have convictions for? Please write all the different types of convictions that you have.

What are most of your convictions for?

What was your first conviction?

Do either of your parents or step-parents have convictions? Yes _____ No _____

If yes, what for? _____

Have you been to a gaol or a Juvenile Justice Centre before? Yes _____ No _____

If yes, how long were you away for before? _____ months

How long was the sentence you were given (this time)? _____ months

How much of this have you served so far? _____ months

Have you been on probation before? Yes _____ No _____

As a child did you live? (If you lived in different places please tick all those that apply) :-

- with my Mum and Dad - _____
- with just one of my parents - _____
- with my Mum and step-Dad - _____
- with my Dad and step-Mum - _____
- with other relatives - _____
- with foster parents - _____
- in a Children's or Community Home - _____
- Other (please say) - _____

Did any brothers or sisters (or step brothers or step sisters) live with you?

Yes _____ No _____

If yes, how many lived with you? - _____

What ages are they now?

Do they have any criminal convictions? Yes _____ No _____

If so, what are these for?

If you know, please tell me what job your parents (or step-parents) do.

If they are unemployed tell me about their most recent job:-

Father/ Step-father: What is the job called? _____

What do they do? _____

Full time or Part time? _____

Are they unemployed now? Yes _____ No _____

Mother/ Step mother: What is the job called? _____

What do they do? _____

Full-time or Part-time? _____

Are they unemployed now?

Appendix E

Criminal actions and explanations. Scoring Code.

The criminal actions came from a number of sources, and the references to each are contained within the respective criminal action.

<p>Offender known to the victim prior - Ref: <i>Canter et al., 1998.</i> Same coding rules as the Static-99R, i.e., known for more than 24 hours</p>
<p>Attempted or had contact with the victim after the offence - Ref: <i>Smallbone & Wortley, 2000</i> Any contact or attempted contact with the victim physically, digitally (social media etc.) or verbally (phone). Doesn't include accidental contact or any contact as a result of legal actions (i.e., seeing the victim in Court).</p>
<p>Groomed prior to the offence - Ref: <i>Canter et al., 1998.</i> Contact with the victim prior to offence and engaged in 'grooming' behaviour such as befriending victim, complimenting, offending them gifts, spending a lot of time with them, taking them places, purchasing alcohol etc., asking inappropriate questions etc</p>
<p>Requested that the victim initiate the offence - Ref: <i>Bennell, et al., 2001</i> Asked or hinted that the victim engages in certain acts. The acts may have been overtly sexual or covert with sexual intention (e.g., asking the victim to perform cartwheels or practice the 'splits'). May occur at the start of an offence (i.e., the initial sexual contact) or during the offence.</p>
<p>Digital penetration – Ref: <i>Smallbone & Wortley, 2004.</i> Vaginal penetration using hands (not including rubbing genitals over underwear)</p>
<p>Was in a position of power - Ref: <i>Weiss, 2002</i> Had authority or delegated authority of the child at the time (examples include parent, stepparent, teacher, leader, coach, baby-sitter etc.).</p>
<p>Surprise attack – Ref: <i>Canter & Youngs, 2012</i> No contact with the victim prior to the offence. For example, hadn't been communicating with a victim, sharing a drink, watching a movie together etc. May be known to the victim, but there was no contact immediately prior to the offence. Sudden onset.</p>
<p>Occurred in public - Ref: <i>Canter et al., 1998.</i> Any aspect of the offence (not grooming) occurred outdoors in a place where strangers could have interrupted offence. Includes cars (not in garage), parks and public toilets. Doesn't include backyard or personal property.</p>
<p>One-off event - Ref: <i>Canter et al., 1998.</i> Only offended once. Breaks in offending (for example, to change sexual position or regain compliance through acts of violence) may still be considered one offence. Sexually offending against the victim, keeping them detained and then engaging in further sexual acts is considered one single incident. Allowing the victim freedom and offending again within a short period if considered multiple events.</p>
<p>Performed oral sex on a victim- Ref: <i>Canter et al., 1998.</i> Any fellatio or cunnilingus on the victim (actual contact)</p>
<p>Received oral sex- Ref: <i>Smallbone & Wortley, 2000</i> Forcing, requesting or accepting any offer made by the victim to perform oral sex on the offender (with or without ejaculation)</p>

<p>Penile-vaginal intercourse - <i>Ref: Canter et al., 1998.</i> Any penile to vaginal intercourse regardless of duration (doesn't include other penetrative acts such as sex toys etc.).</p>
<p>Took photographs of the victims - <i>Ref: Lehmann, et al., 2014</i> Used still camera (belonging to offender, victim or other) to photograph the victim either clothed or in other states of undress. May have been overt or covert, part of sexual act or surveillance. Must have been used within the context of a sexual offence (not parent photographing child prior to the offence, for example- assuming this was not sexually related).</p>
<p>Used violence just to subdue victim - <i>Ref: Canter et al., 1998.</i> Any physical violence (hitting, punching, kicking, biting) to subdue the victim but ceased upon gaining compliance or consider motivation likely only to gain compliance and engage in sexual activity.</p>
<p>Forced victim to masturbate offender - <i>Ref: Smallbone & Wortley, 2000</i> Offender forced, requested or accepted offer by the victim to masturbate the offender.</p>
<p>Asked victim about sexual history – <i>Ref: Erooga et al., 2012</i> Offender engaged in conversation with the victim about their sexual interests, sexual history,</p>
<p>Kissed victim - <i>Ref: Canter et al., 1998.</i> Any actual or attempt to kiss the victim (<i>note- this is rarely reported in JSR, yet only code when it is explicitly stated</i>)</p>
<p>Touching/groping only – <i>Ref: Lehmann, et al., 2014</i> No sexual behaviour (i.e., penetration, oral sex etc.) other than touching genitals (not penetration), outside of underwear, breasts etc.</p>
<p>Performed anal sex on the victim - <i>Ref: Canter & Heritage, 1990</i> Offender engages in penile-anal intercourse on the victim</p>
<p>Restrained victim (tied hands) - <i>Ref: Canter & Youngs, 2012</i> Uses any external source to bind the victim's wrists/hands/arms. Maybe something brought by the offender to the crime scene or may have come from the natural environment or victim (their underwear, for example).</p>
<p>Detained victim – <i>Ref: Canter & Heritage, 1990</i> Establish or maintain an environment where the victim is unable to flee. Examples include locking car doors, obscuring exits, or using threats etc., for the purpose of keeping the victim detained. The duration of confinement may only last for the sexual component of the offence or may last longer.</p>
<p>Foreign objects used throughout the offence - <i>Ref: Lehmann, et al., 2014</i> Use of any foreign objects or sex toys. Doesn't include restraints (coded elsewhere). May involve vibrators, dildos, nipple clamps etc.</p>
<p>Showed pornography to the victim and then immediately offended - <i>Ref: Erooga et al., 2012</i> Showed the victim photos or videos with pornographic content (naked, engaging in sexual acts, highly provocative or sexually explicit). Maybe factual (medical text etc.) or recreational ("men's" magazine). Immediately offended in the context of showing this content.</p>
<p>Talked about sex with victim and then immediately offended - <i>Ref: Erooga et al., 2012</i></p>

Engaged the victim in sexualised conversation (about them, their friends, celebrities etc.). Doesn't include "sex talk" (i.e., talking during the offence) but immediately before the offence.

Showed pornography prior to offending - Ref: Erooga et al., 2012

Showed the victim photos or videos with pornographic content (naked, engaging in sexual acts, highly provocative or sexually explicit). Maybe factual (medical text etc.) or recreational ("men's" magazine). Did not do this immediately before offending. Did this in the days, weeks, or months prior to offending.

Talked about sex with victim prior to offending - Ref: Erooga et al., 2012

Engaged the victim in sexualised conversation (about them, their friends, celebrities etc.). Doesn't include "sex talk" (i.e., talking during the offence). Did not do this immediately before offending. Did this in the days, weeks, or months prior to offending.

Threat not to tell anyone - Ref: Canter et al., 1998.

Threatens violence, loss of status/reputation, psychological harm etc., if the victim tells anyone. Doesn't need to be a 'threat' per se but makes comments to the victim not to tell anyone or suggests it be kept a secret.

Offender suggest to victim he was teaching – Ref: Weiss, 2002

Offender explained his behaviour throughout the offence or referred to the experience he was imparting to the victim.

Masturbate in front of victim - Ref: Smallbone & Wortley, 2000

Engages in sexual acts (masturbation) directly in front of the victim or in an area where he is likely (or has considerable chances of) being observed by the victim. Asking the victim to watch him engage in these acts.

Used excessive violence - Ref: Canter et al., 1998.

Violence used within the offence which was considered excessive and beyond what was needed to gain compliance. Violence which featured after the offence. Violence which appears to have been sexually arousing and used for this purpose.

Pretend to be a person in authority - Ref: Weiss, 2002

Engaged in actions to mislead the victim into thinking they were acting as a government or community representative (e.g., police officer, security guard). Utilised this as a means to gain or maintain victim compliance.

Forced victim to perform anal sex on them - Ref: Smallbone & Wortley, 2000

Forced, requested or accepted victims offer to perform anal sex on the offender

Weapon featured in the offence - Ref: Canter & Heritage, 1990

Any weapon (actual or makeshift) or engages in behaviour to make victim believe that a weapon was present.



CONSENT FORM

Project: The Narratives of Sexual Offenders.

Chief Researcher: Chelsey Dewson, Forensic Psychologist.

It is important that you read, understand and sign the consent form. Your contribution to this research is entirely voluntary, and you are not obliged in any way to participate, if you require any further details, please contact your researcher.

I.....agree to participate in the research project that is looking at how I viewed myself and the victim prior to, and during the sexual offence. |

- The study has been explained to me.
- I understand that the researcher will talk to me about my life experiences in general and experiences during the offence.
- This will be audio-recorded but without my name on it.
- I will have to talk to the researcher for about approximately 1 hour.
- But I can stop sooner if I want to.
- I know that no-one will mind if I decide not to take part in the study.
- The researchers have agreed not to tell anyone my name or personal details.
- It is OK for the researchers to look at my CSNSW notes.
- If I have any questions about this study, I can speak to the research team.
- I have read or have had read to me, this consent form.
- I understand that if I discuss an offence which I have not been charged or convicted for, the researcher will be obliged to report it to the authorities.

If I have any questions about the study, I can contact the Chief researcher, Chelsey Dewson on (02) 9289 2794, or A/Director Sex and Violent Offender Therapeutic Programs, Danielle Matsuo on (02) 92198104

Signature of Participant: _____ Print name: _____ Date: _____	Signature of Independent Witness: _____ Print name: _____ Date: _____
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(One copy to be retained by Participant / one copy to be retained by Researcher)

Appendix G

GENERAL BACKGROUND- to be self-completed. **Please do not write your name or MIN on this form.**

Have you ever....

	NEVER	ONCE OR TWICE	A FEW TIMES (LESS THAN 10)	QUITE OFTEN (10-50 TIMES)	VERY OFTEN (MORE THAN 50)
1. Broken into a house, shop or school and taken money or something else you wanted?					
2. Broken into a locked car to get something from it?					
3. Threatened to beat someone up if they didn't give you money or something else you wanted?					
4. Actually shot at someone with a gun?					
5. Pulled a knife, gun or some other weapon on someone just to let them know you meant business?					
6. Beaten someone up so badly they probably needed a doctor?					
7. Taken heroin?					
8. Broken the windows of an empty house or other empty building?					
9. Bought something you knew had been stolen?					
10. Set fire to a building on purpose?					
11. Been in gang fights?					
12. Taken things worth more than \$200 from a shop without paying for them?					
13. Taken Ecstasy (E's)?					
14. Broken into a house, shop, school or other building to break things up or cause other damage?					
15. Sniffed glue or other solvents (e.g. paint thinner, petrol)?					
16. Used or carried a gun to help you commit a crime?					
17. Prepared an escape route before you carried out a crime?					
18. Taken care not to leave evidence (like fingerprints) after carrying out a crime?					
19. Got others to act as 'watch' or 'lookout' while you did a crime?					
20. Acted as 'watch' or 'lookout' for someone else?					

21.Taken special tools with you to help you carry out a crime?					
	<i>NEVER</i>	<i>ONCE OR TWICE</i>	<i>A FEW TIMES (LESS THAN 10)</i>	<i>QUITE OFTEN (10-50 TIMES)</i>	<i>VERY OFTEN (MORE THAN 50)</i>
22.Molested or fondled someone (in a sexual way) without their permission?					
23.Stolen a car to re-sell it?					
24.Stolen a car to go for a joy ride and then abandoned it?					
25.Stolen things you didn't really want from a shop just for the excitement of doing it?					
26.Pinched things from a shop and then sold them on?					
27.Carried a gun in case you needed it?					
28.Stolen something to eat because you were so hungry?					
29.Made a shop assistant give you money from the till?					
30.Helped your mates smash up something even though you really didn't want to?					
31.Beaten up someone who did something to one of your mates?					
32.Pinched stuff you didn't want, but did it just because all your mates were doing it?					
33.Done a burglary in a place that you knew would be hard to get into?					
34.Stolen stuff from a shop that had a lot of security?					
35.Had to take part in a fight your mates were having with another group of guys even though you didn't want to?					
36.Taken drugs you didn't want because everyone else there was having them?					
37.Taken a badge or something from an expensive car (like a BMW) to keep for yourself?					
38.Pretended your credit card had been stolen because you needed a bit more money?					
39.Actually used a knife to hurt someone?					
40.Bought pirate videos or CDs to sell on?					
41.Bought pirate videos or CDs to keep for yourself?					

42. Sold heroin?					
	<i>NEVER</i>	<i>ONCE OR TWICE</i>	<i>A FEW TIMES (LESS THAN 10)</i>	<i>QUITE OFTEN (10-50 TIMES)</i>	<i>VERY OFTEN (MORE THAN 50)</i>
43.Sprayed graffiti on a building or public wall?					
44.Done a burglary on a really big, posh house?					
45.Broken into a warehouse and stolen goods worth more than \$2000?					
46.Smashed the glass of a bus shelter or phone box?					
47.Set fire to a bin?					
48.Set fire to a car even though you didn't know whose it was?					
49.Killed someone in a fit of anger or emotion?					
50.Parked in a disabled space (when you didn't have a permit)?					
51.Got a bit violent with your family at home?					
52.Pretended that you had lost stuff to the insurance company?					
53.Got Centrelink payments when you were working?					
54.Gone to a sauna or massage place to get sex (i.e. brothel)?					
55.Stolen the purse of someone you knew?					
56.Done a burglary on the house of someone you knew?					
57.Sold marijuana (pot/grass)?					
58.Threatened someone you knew with a knife?					
59.Set fire to a building when people were still in there?					
60.Made new credit cards with stolen card numbers?					

Please remember, for your own privacy, **DO NOT** write your name or MIN on this form. If you have already done so, please let the researcher know, so it can be removed or destroyed.

Once you have finished, please place it in the envelope provided and seal it. Hand it directly to the researcher.

Thank you for participating in this study; your time and contributions are appreciated.