CIRCUMSTANCES OF ABUSE: EXAMINING THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MALE AND FEMALE SEX OFFENDERS

by

ODESSA A. SIMMS

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty in Criminal Justice in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, The City University of New York

2012

This manuscript has been read and accepted for the
Graduate Faculty in Criminal Justice in satisfaction of the
dissertation requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Dr. Karen J. Terry

Date | Chair of Examining Committee

Dr. Joshua Freilich

Date | Executive Officer

Dr. Amy Adamczyk

Dr. Joshua Freilich
Supervisory Committee

THE CITY UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK

Abstract

CIRCUMSTANCES OF ABUSE: EXAMINING THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MALE AND FEMALE SEX OFFENDERS

by

Odessa A. Simms

Advisor: Karen J. Terry, Ph.D.

Over time, criminological research has focused predominately on male offenders. Sex offender research maintains the same focus, with little attention paid to female sex offenders. That focus is now shifting, and female sex offenders have been a rising area of interest for researchers. Research has focused on the individual aspects of these offenders; however, no study has applied traditional criminological theories, combined with male-centered models and frameworks, to the study of female sexual offending. Previous research has also neglected to consider other variables that can affect offending patterns like the victim-offender relationship, victim characteristics, location of the offense, a history of sexual abuse, and situational characteristics. The current study, utilizing data collected on registered sex offenders in three states, will fill those gaps by comparing male and female sex offenders on variables such as their sexual abuse history, thoughts, urges, and fantasies consistent with paraphilic interests, presence of a co-offender, access to victims, victim-offender relationship, the situational characteristics offense(s), victim characteristics, and victim preference. Findings indicate fewer differences between male and female sex offenders than research suggests and contributes to the routine activities and situational crime prevention theories.

Acknowledgements

There are several people I would like to recognize and thank for helping me complete the long and rocky journey to receiving my PhD. Without my committee, I could not have made this journey. My committee chair, Dr. Karen Terry has been my mentor, teacher, psychiatrist, and friend. She never gave up on me, and wouldn't let me give up on myself. No matter what I said or how long between drafts, I could always count on her to push me to the next level. Dr. Amy Adamczyk, who has unending patience and kindness; words cannot express how grateful I am for your help on the most challenging sections of my dissertation. And Dr. Joshua Freilich, your support and enthusiasm for this project are appreciated and helped me more than I could ever articulate.

My appreciation for Margaret Smith must also be acknowledged. Maggie, without you I would have never survived this long in New York City let alone completed my PhD. You have seen me though every possible obstacle from financial stability to proofreading, and for that I truly thank you. Alissa Ackerman-Acklin, I am also indebted to you. I would never been able to complete my study without you. Words aren't enough to thank you, but hopefully the friendship we have built along the way is a start.

I would like to acknowledge my friends that have not only been my support system, but my transplant family. Carrie, Fabiola, Mia, Misha, Crystal, Emmy, Meredith L., Meredith D., Zainab, Celia, Kristin, and Ji Hyon -- I owe a huge part of my journey to all of you. From study groups to happy hours, conferences to holidays, we have run the gamut together. Thank you for never letting me quit, sharing the tears, bearing the stress, and seeing me through.

I would also like to thank a very special friend: Nicole Hill. Nicole was by my side through the most difficult and challenging portions of this process. Bearing the brunt of my stress,

exhaustion, anger, and frustration; she weathered it all and stuck with me until the end. Nicole you are my rock. You make me a better and stronger person and I will forever be grateful and love you for that.

And finally, to my family: Mom, Sidney and Ed; thank you for your unwavering support, unending patience, and unconditional love. You all encouraged me to finish my dissertation and never lost faith in me despite the length of the journey. Mom, you have listened to me say that I was going to get my PhD from the time I was four years old. And because of your love, belief in me, and support I have finally achieved that goal.

Table of Contents

Abstract iv
Acknowledgements v
Chapter 1. Introduction and Literature Review 1
Introduction 1
Male Sexual Offenders 3
Demographic Characteristics 3
Prevalence 5
Typologies 5
Motivations, Explanations, and Techniques 9
Motivations and Explanations 9
Techniques. 10
Female Sexual Offenders 11
Demographic Characteristics 11
Prevalence. 14
Motivations, Explanations and Techniques of Female Sex Offenders 15
Motivations and Explanations 15
Techniques 17
Typologies. 19
Comparing and Contrasting Male and Female Sex Offenders 23
Why Study the Genders Separately? 25
Finkelhor's four-factor Model 28
Motivation 29
Overcoming Internal Inhibitions 30
Overcoming External Factors 36
Overcoming the Child's Resistance to Sexual Abuse 41
Other Models Explaining Sexual Abuse 42
Marshall and Barbaree's Integrated Theory 42
Hall and Hirschman's Quadripartite Model 44
Pathways Model. 45
Research Question and Hypotheses 48
Research Questions 48
Hypotheses: 49
Chapter 3. Methodology, Data, and Analysis 54
Methodology 54
Procedures and Missing Data 55
Measures 56
Substance Abuse History 56
Thoughts, Urges, and Fantasies Consistent with Paraphilic Interests 57

Relationship to the Victim 58
Presence of a Co-Offender 59
Access to Victims and Situational Characteristics of Offenses 60
Sexual Abuse History 62
Victim Preference 63
Independent Variable 64
Control Variables 64
Data Analysis Strategy 66
Chapter 4. Results 68
Demographics and Representativeness 68
Logistic Regression Models 68
Substance Abuse History 69
Thoughts, Urges, and Fantasies Consistent with Paraphilic Interests 73
Relationship to the Victim(s). 78
Presence of a Co-Offender and Access to Victim(s). 80
Situational Characteristics of the Offense(s). 86
History of Sexual Abuse and Victim Preference 91
Chapter 5. Discussion and Conclusion 95
Key Contributions 95
Key Findings 98
Limitations 101
Policy Implications 103
Future Research 105
Appendix A 107
Bibliography 114

Table of Tables

Table 1 Research Questions and Hypotheses 52
Table 2 Average Age, Education and Income of Respondents by Gender 65
Table 3 Percentage of Respondents that are Employed, White, and Married by Gender 65
Table 4 Descriptive Statistics Presented in the Analysis (N = 278) 66
Table 5 Logistic Regression Predicting Access to the Victim(s) While Controlling for Gender 70
Table 6 Logistic Regression Predicting a History of Substance Abuse While Controlling for Race and Education 71
Table 7 Logistic Regression Predicting a History of Substance Abuse While Controlling for Income and Marital Status 72
Table 8 Logistic Regression Predicting the Presence of Thoughts, Urges, and Fantasies Consistent with Paraphilic Interests While Controlling for Age 74
Table 9 Logistic Regression Predicting the Presence of Thoughts, Urges, and Fantasies Consistent with Paraphilic Interests While Controlling for Race 75
Table 10 Logistic Regression Predicting the Presence of Thoughts, Urges, and Fantasies Consistent with Paraphilic Interests While Controlling for Education and Marital Status 76
Table 11 Logistic Regression Predicting the Presence of Thoughts, Urges, and Fantasies Consistent with Paraphilic Interests While Controlling for Income and Employment Status 77
Table 12 Logistic Regression Predicting a Previous Victim-Offender Relationship While Controlling for Age and Employment 78
Table 13 Logistic Regression Predicting a Previous Victim-Offender Relationship While Controlling for Race and Education 79
Table 14 Logistic Regression Predicting a Previous Victim-Offender Relationship While Controlling Income and Marital Status 80
Table 15 Logistic Regression Predicting the of Presence of a Co-Offender While Controlling for Gender, Age, Employment, and Race 81
Table 16 Logistic Regression Predicting the of Presence of a Co-Offender While Controlling for Education, Income, and Marital Status 82
Table 17 Logistic Regression Predicting Access to the Victim(s) While Controlling for Gender 83
Table 18 Logistic Regression Predicting Access to the Victim(s) While Controlling for Age 83
Table 19 Logistic Regression Predicting Access to the Victim(s) While Controlling for Job Status 84
Table 20 Logistic Regression Predicting Access to the Victim(s) While Controlling for Race 84
Table 21 Logistic Regression Predicting Access to the Victim(s) While Controlling for Race (Recoded) 85
Table 22 Logistic Regression Predicting Access to the Victim(s) While Controlling for or Education 85
Table 23 Logistic Regression Predicting Access to the Victim(s) While Controlling for Income 86
Table 24 Logistic Regression Predicting Access to the Victim(s) While Controlling for Marital Status 86

Table 25 Logistic Regression Predicting the Situational Characteristics of the Offense(s) While Controlling for Age 88
Table 26 Logistic Regression Predicting the Situational Characteristics of the Offense(s) While Controlling for Employment and Race 89
Table 27 Logistic Regression Predicting the Situational Characteristics of the Offense(s) While Controlling for Education, Income, and Marital Status 90
Table 28 Logistic Regression Predicting a History of Sexual Abuse History and Victim Preference While Controlling for Gender 91
Table 29 Logistic Regression Predicting a History of Sexual Abuse History and Victim Preference While Controlling for Age 91
Table 30 Logistic Regression Predicting a History of Sexual Abuse History and Victim Preference While Controlling for Employment 92
Table 31 Logistic Regression Predicting a History of Sexual Abuse History and Victim Preference While Controlling for Race 92
Table 32 Logistic Regression Predicting a History of Sexual Abuse History and Victim Preference While Controlling for Race (Recoded) 93
Table 33 Logistic Regression Predicting a History of Sexual Abuse History and Victim Preference While Controlling for Education 93
Table 34 Logistic Regression Predicting a History of Sexual Abuse History and Victim Preference While Controlling for Income 94
Table 35 List of Hypotheses and Analytical Outcomes 99

Table of Figures

Figure 1 RAT Pathways and Nodes Where Crimes are Most Likely to Occur 39

Chapter 1. Introduction and Literature Review

Introduction

Traditionally, criminological research has focused on male offenders. Criminologists viewed the female offender as abnormal and/or rare. Socially women are viewed as nurturing caregivers incapable of violence or harming others, especially children (Denov, 2003). However, a closer examination of crime rates indicates that crimes committed by women are neither abnormal nor rare. The proportion of female to male offenders has been rising for all types of offenses, especially sexual offenses. Although the prevalence of sexual offenses committed by women currently seems small compared to the number committed by men, it is still important to understand more about these offenses and the women who commit them. Understanding these female offenders and their offenses will provide insight on etiology, offender motivation, research methodologies, prevention methods, and policy and treatment implications.

In all facets of the social sciences, female offenders have been considered different from their male counterparts. Female offenders have been thought to have different motivations, offense characteristics, and theories to explain deviant behavior, and different treatment and prevention measures. But are female offenders, specifically sex offenders, truly different from their male counterparts? Can theories, models, and frameworks tested on male sex offenders apply to female sex offenders? The current study seeks to address those questions by comparing a sample of male and female sex offenders on the following characteristics:

- Presence of a substance abuse history
- Deviant sexual thoughts, urges, and fantasies consistent with paraphilic interests
- Presence of a co-offender

- Relationship to the victim(s), to include childcare duties
- Situational characteristics of their offenses
- Presence of a sexual abuse history and
- Victim preference.

The comparison of male and female sex offenders on these measures will expand current literature, and establish the first theoretical foundation for the etiology of female-perpetrated sexual offenses.

The literature on female sex offenders to date can be summarized into four general categories: (1) overviews of female sexual offending (e.g., Denov, 2003), (2) typologies of female sexual offenders (e.g., Matthews & Speltz, 1989; Vandiver & Kercher, 2004) (3) evaluations of recidivism rates (e.g., Snyder & Sickmond, 2006) and (4) assessment of registration and notification information and experiences (e.g., Tewksbury, 2004). Female sex offender research is lacking in the assessment of situational characteristics of their offenses and has no theoretical foundation. And existing comparisons of male and female sex offenders uses a juvenile sample, and still has little to no theoretical support. The study will expand the current body of literature on adult, male and female sex offenders by addressing all of the above measures in regard to *both* genders.

Using data collected on registered sex offenders in three states, the study will begin with a description of the male sexual offender to include demographic characteristics, prevalence, current literature, motivations and techniques and typologies; the study will explain the same for their female counterparts, followed by comparing and contrasting the genders, and why those differences merit further research. Next, the theoretical integration will explain Finkelhor's (1984) four-factor model, Marshall and Barbaree's (1990) integrated theory, Hall and

Hirschman's quadripartite model, and Ward and Siegert's pathways model (2002) and how each component applies to female sex offenders; specifically when linked to components of traditional criminological theories and current typologies. The literature and theoretical integration are then tied together into the research questions and hypotheses of the study.

The methodology, data, and analysis chapter outlines the dataset, missing data, measures used and analytic strategy. Next, the results chapter will explain the outcome of each analysis by hypothesis. Finally the discussion and conclusions chapter will report key contributions, findings, limitations and future research.

Male Sexual Offenders

Demographic Characteristics. To date, research is yet to establish a universal or "typical" sex offender profile. Male sex offenders can range in age, levels of education, are both married and single, vary in job status and income, and commit offenses for a variety of reasons (Becker & Murphy, 1998; Hunter, 2006; Marshall, 1996; Terry, 2006). Male sex offenders can also vary in their family and community relationships. Prior criminal involvement for either sexual or general offenses is not always present in male sex offenders; however, a significant number have no prior overall criminal history or prior sexual offense history (Becker & Murphy, 1998; Hunter, 2006; Marshall, 1996).

According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics (2009) 10.9% male sexual offenders are 18 years of age or younger; 8% are age 18-20; 31.2% are age 21-29; and 40% are age 30 or older. When present, their criminal backgrounds varied including crimes such as breaking and entering, theft, and physical assault. Male sex offenders also tend to begin their criminal career at an early age (Barbaree, Marshall & Hudson, 1993). Incarcerated sex offenders tend to come from large

families, but unstable home environments. They have high rates of familial psychiatric history, criminal history and substance abuse (Bard, et al., 1987).

Sex offenders who molest children are from all races, social classes and education levels (Harkisnowo, 1989), and can be further categorized into child molesters and pedophiles. According to Abel et al. (1983), a child molester seemingly engages in sexual activity that is driven by anger and hostility. The victim is viewed more as an object or symbol rather than a person. This offender will attack different victims in successive offenses. In contrast, a pedophile has a sexual deviation displayed through a persistent preference for sexual behavior with children. The victim(s) of a pedophile are seen as an individual the offender can identify with and may perceive the offense(s) as a relationship or be interested in maintaining an ongoing relationship with the child (Abel et al., 1983; Metzner, 1988). The different categories or typologies of male child abusers are discussed at length later in the section.

Adult, male child abusers have ten times the number of victims than those male offenders with adult victims. 71% of child sex abusers are below the age of thirty-five, and of abusers who offend against young children 90% are male and 95% are heterosexual. It has also been found that more male child abusers are known to their victims in some capacity more often than not (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2003; Groth, 1990; Holmes & Slap, 1998; Metzner, 1988).

Based upon the above characteristics, there is no "profile" of a male sex offender. They are a heterogeneous group that varies in age, race, education, familial structure, and victim preference. And while there is no research to date to support the predictive ability of these characteristics of deviant sexual behavior, with the exception of mental characteristics, this information is useful for differentiating this group of offenders from other types of offenders, especially their female counterparts. Therefore, the study will also compare the demographic

characteristics of the male and female sex offenders in the sample for any significant patterns, trends or differences.

Prevalence. There are many difficulties involved in identifying the prevalence of child sexual abusers in society. One of the most significant research problems is the vast underreporting of offenses. A contributing factor to this underreporting is perpetrator reluctance to fully disclose the extent of their illegal acts. Other problems include the use of police statistics for analysis, which can vary in accuracy, and/or the heterogeneity of the samples used to study abuse rates. Varying offender motivations contributes to underreporting and obtaining true prevalence rates as well. For if the motivation for offending comes from a belief the actions or non-abusive or justified, they will go unreported especially by the offender (Briere & Runtz, 1989). Prevalence rates are also difficult to capture as they will typically be based upon self report data, arrest records, and clinical data which can be inaccurate for a variety of reasons. Offenders minimize offenses, inflate the number of offenses, lie, plea to lesser charges, or simply do not reveal the true extent of their offending.

While the above information is useful for research, it is dated, inconsistently collected, and based predominately on incarcerated populations. Yet, despite the obstacles in collecting a true prevalence rate, the information is vital for male and female sex offender research. It can still provide insight to the scope of the problem of child sexual abuse, and another variable to highlight differences, or similarities, between male and female sex offenders.

Typologies. While it is difficult to capture how often the sexual assault of a child occurs, how many victims an offender has, or the number acts of abuse an offender has committed; that ability to categorize or establish typologies has been successful in understanding offender motivation(s) and implementing preventative measures against the sexual assault of a child. For

example Groth et al (1982) were the first to discuss or categorize child sexual abusers into categories such as “fixated” or “regressed.”

Fixated offenders are primarily sexually attracted to children and regressed offenders are primarily attracted to adults, but abuse children as a reaction to negative triggers in their lives (Johnston & Johnston, 1997). Groth, et al.’s (1982) typologies are based on an earlier study by Groth and Birnbaum (1978) of 175 convicted child molesters referred for psychological evaluation by the criminal courts of Massachusetts. Groth and Birnbaum (1978) classified offenders based upon if the offender’s sexual involvement with children represented a “fixation” or “regression” in their sexual orientation. They defined fixation as a temporary or permanent arrest of psychological maturation resulting from unresolved formative issues that persist and underlie the organization of subsequent phases of development. A fixated offender is sexually attracted, primarily or exclusively, to significantly younger individuals since adolescence. Any sexual involvement with those of the same age or older is only situational in nature and has not replaced the primary sexual attraction or preference for an underage person (Groth & Birnbaum, 1978).

Regression is defined as a temporary or permanent appearance of primitive behavior after more mature forms of expression have been attained, regardless of whether the immature behavior was actually manifested earlier in the individual’s development. A regressed offender does not exhibit a sexual attraction to significantly younger individuals, and if any involvement with younger individuals did occur, it is situational and experimental in nature. Therefore, the sexual interests of a regressed offender are focused on peer-aged or adult individuals (Groth & Birnbaum, 1978). Groth and Birnbaum (1978) attributed these behavioral differences to differences in the cognitive style and content of these offenders. Groth et al. (1982), found the

regressed offender to attribute adult roles to a child when the preferred or primary adult relationship breaks down. In contrast, the fixated offender is acting out a primitive sense of identification with children along with a distorted view of sexuality and its impact on the child/victim.

Groth and Birnbaum (1978) categorized offenders based upon data gathered from interviews and case materials; later, Groth et al. (1982) expanded on this research using clinical observations and found characteristics that correlated with the two types of offenders. Characteristics for the fixated offender include, in addition to the primary sexual orientations toward children, a lack of peer-age relationships, an early onset (e.g., during adolescence) of pedophilic interests, a preference for male victims, and little or no alcohol or drug involvement in the offense. Characteristics for the regressed offender included, in addition to the primary sexual attraction toward those of the same or similar age, a late onset (e.g., during adulthood) of pedophilic interests, a preference for female victims, and a high incidence of alcohol involvement.

Johnston and Johnston (1997) expanded on Groth, et al (1982) and further identified certain behaviors and cognitions that differentiated between the fixated and regressed molester types. For instance, fixated molesters are more likely to come from a broken home, use alcohol less frequently, be child-centered when selecting victims, and molest male children. In contrast, regressed molesters are more likely to be better adjusted, tend to molest female children, and come from more stable or intact homes. The fixated molester does not need external disinhibitors (i.e.: alcohol, drugs, etc) to engage in sexual deviance. Fixated offenders view their sexual involvement with children as acceptable, eliminating any inhibitions typically induced by this

behavior. Fixated molesters also report lower levels of social adjustment, including marital problems and poor relationships with peers (Johnston & Johnston, 1997).

The regressed molester, however, is not comfortable with sexual attraction toward a child and will seek out means that remove any inhibitions (e.g.: drugs or alcohol) and will allow that action based upon that desire or attraction. Other demographic findings for male sex offenders indicate that fixated offenders, coming from broken homes, were also subject to greater abuse than regressed offenders. These demographic findings imply that the loss of a parent can leave a boy vulnerable and in a negligent environment. These variables, combined with sexual abuse can render that individual permanently and psychosexually stunted and focused on children (Johnston & Johnston, 1997).

Similar to their male counterparts, female sex offenders exhibit some of the same characteristics of the "fixated" child sexual abuser. Female sex offenders report a higher level of substance abuse that non-sexual female offenders and have a history of both physical and sexual abuse. They also have poor intimate relationships to include marriage. These similarities, discussed at length further in the chapter, are the foundation for the study seeking to test if females in the sample report a history of substance abuse more than their male counterparts. Found to be true when comparing males and females separately, the study seeks to test this within the same sample and supported by the techniques of neutralization theory.

Researchers have also supported the idea that typologies are a continuum versus a dichotomy (Finkelhor & Araji, 1986; Prentky & Burgess, 2000; Robertiello & Terry, 2007). Instead of distinct categories for all offenders, it should be viewed as two continuous dimensions based upon the strength of pedophilic interest (how strongly motivated one is to have sex with a child) and the persistence of this interest over time (Finkelhor & Araji, 1986). Yet, these explanations

and categories do not explain why an attraction to youth may or may not exist in male sex offenders or any applicability to female sex offenders. Therefore, the study seeks to apply these explanations, along with criminological theory and corresponding explanations of female sex offending, to determine if the presence of a co-offender, having a history of sexual abuse, and characteristics of that sexual abuse history impact victim selection. This will serve as a possible explanation for a female sex offender's attraction to youth and provide insight on their motivation to offend.

Motivations, Explanations, and Techniques

Motivations and Explanations. As an explanation for the typologies discussed in the previous section, the term implicit theory (IT) was introduced to illustrate the integrated sets of cognitions and desires that influence which goals are most salient in male sexual offending (Ward & Keenan, 1999). The five core ITs in child sexual offenders are: children as sexual objects (the belief that children are capable of enjoying and desiring sex), entitlement (the belief that some people are superior to others and therefore have the right to have their needs met), dangerous world (the idea that the world is inherently threatening and that people are malicious, and these beliefs lead to either attacks on others, or avoidance and submissive behavior), uncontrollability (the belief that the world is uncontrollable and that events "just happen" to people) and nature of harm (centered on the belief that there are degrees of harm and that some sexual acts are beneficial and do not cause harm) (Ward & Keenan, 1999; Ward, 2000). Recent research using qualitative interviews with male child abusers (Marziano, Ward, Beech, & Pattison, 2006) found strong evidence providing additional support for these five IT categories (Beech, Parrett, Ward, & Fisher, 2009).

Four of the five ITs were found to be present in female sex offenders. These four ITs when combined with Mayer's (1992) explanation of female sexual offending (discussed at length later in the chapter) are similar to the preconditions of Finkelhor's four-factor model. Preconditions, or elements that need to exist prior to the commission of the offense as a motivation/driving force, that are applicable to female sex offenders will also provide insight on their motivation to offend. The study will also test this through the theoretical foundation explained in Chapter 2.

Techniques. Once an offender has the motivation to offend, various techniques are employed to facilitate the commission of that offense. And for sexual offenses against a child to occur, male sexual offenders are more likely to use bribes or grooming techniques in order to be sexually invasive (Beech, Parrett, Ward & Fisher, 2009). The term "grooming" describes the process by which sex offenders carefully initiate and maintain sexually abusive relationships with children. Grooming is typically in the form of verbal and/or physical coercion, emotional manipulation, seduction, gifts, and games. Alcohol and drugs are also potential facilitators, but is more common in regressed offenders (Groth, et al, 1982). Male offenders will use grooming techniques on both male and female victims, even though known rates of victimization indicate that more girls are abused than boys (Terry & Ackerman, 2008).

According to Mcalindon (2006), grooming is an approach used by an offender that is purposeful, intentional and carefully planned. The grooming process systematically separates victims from their family and peers creating opportunity for the sexual encounter. Grooming also facilitates and provides incentive for keeping the sexual encounter a secret (Lawson, 2003). Isolation is the key to furthering the exploitation and manipulation of a child into a sexual relationship. The grooming process helps to maintain the abusive relationship by ensuring the

complicity of the victim (Mcalindon, 2006).

The sex offender grooming process can be organized into three phases: targeting, strategy, and maintenance (Elliot, Browne, & Kilcoyne, 1995). Targeting includes selection of victims that are vulnerable (e.g.: having low self-confidence, and/or low self-esteem), those that have less parental oversight, and victims that are socially isolated or emotionally needy. Strategy consists of caretaking and forming a "special" relationship through gaining the trust of parents, the giving of gifts, creating special times, isolation, and seizing on feelings of being unloved and/or unappreciated. Strategy also consists of emotional bonding and trust building, desensitization to sex (e.g., talking, pictures, pornographic videos, etc.), and exploiting the victim's sexual curiosity or uncertainty. Lastly, maintenance includes bribes or gifts to ensure compliance, the threat of dire consequences to ensure secrecy, threatening to blame the victim, and threatening the loss of the "loving" relationship (Knoll, 2010).

Although, male sex offenders are lacking in an overall profile; current motivations, explanations, and techniques enable a degree of predictability, management and prevention methods. But does this apply to their female counterparts? The following sections explain what we currently know about female sex offenders to begin the comparison to their male counterparts.

Female Sexual Offenders

Demographic Characteristics. Like their male counterparts, female sex offenders do not have a general demographic profile. However, current research has shown female sexual offenders are most commonly Caucasian with an age range between 26-36 years of age (Nathan & Ward, 2002), have lower educational levels, and lower paying jobs than non-offending females and their male counterparts (Lewis & Stanley, 2000). They exhibit a history of

childhood sexual victimization, mental health symptoms--including personality disorders, have substance abuse problems, difficulties in intimate relationships or an absence of intimate relationships, have a tendency to commit offenses against persons whom they are related to or those well known to them (Nathan & Ward, 2002; Vandiver & Kercher, 2004) and tend to be less violent in nature (Terry, 2006). Female sex offenders also have a higher likelihood of past sexual and ongoing, physical victimization than their male counterparts. This victimization is also more severe and longstanding than male sex offenders' abuse histories (Terry, 2006). Acting with co-defendants also frequently occurs within this population of offenders (Ford, 2006; Lewis & Stanley, 2000; Nathan & Ward, 2001).

These characteristics found in the literature show that women who commit sexual offenses tend to prey on those younger, smaller and weaker than themselves, and those to whom they have easy and/or unlimited access. According to Terry (2006), the percentage of sex offenders that are women increases as the victims' age decreases. Female-perpetrated offenses have a pattern of being incestuous, and are sexual acts against children that can fall under the guise of routine care taking activities (Denov, 2003; Johansson-Love & Fremouw, 2005; Terry, 2006). Their offending behavior is, in many cases, associated with abusive backgrounds and/or psychological disorders stemming from a longstanding history of various types of abuse and unstable households (Terry, 2006).

Estimates indicate that 90–95% of female-perpetrated sexual offenses go unreported to the police (Vandiver & Kercher, 2004). It has also been found that females acting with male accomplices are often not reported. Offenses including a co-offender are viewed as a family problem and typically handled amongst family members (Vandiver & Kercher, 2004).

The victims of female sexual offenders are usually under the age of 18 with a high percentage of intra-familial abuse. And many studies are inconsistent in terms of the victim's gender or victim preference. Even though some commonalities can be found among this population of sexual offenders, the empirical literature ultimately suggests that female sexual offenders are a heterogeneous group of offenders (Becker et al., 2001; Grayston & De Luca, 1999; Hunter, Becker, & Lexier, 2006; Johansson-Love & Fremouw, 2006).

A characteristic unique to female-perpetrated offenses is the increased potential for a male co-offender. Vandiver's (2006) research of over 200 female sex offenders found several differences between co-offending women and solo offending women. Specifically co-offending women are more likely to have multiple young victims, have female victims, or victims of both genders --to include their own children. In comparison, solo offenders often target acquaintances. Additionally, co-offending women are more likely to have been charged with non-sex crimes at the same time the sex offense charge occurred (Vandiver, 2006).

These elements of the literature lead to the formulation of several of the study's hypotheses. For example, it has been found that females have a previous relationship, often biological, to their victim(s). This has been previously tested on adult female samples as explained above, and established as a difference between male and female sex offenders. However, no study to date has tested this characteristic within the same sample, using male sex offenders as a comparison group. Thus, the study will test if a previous relationship to the victim(s), and having child care duties for the victim are truly unique to female sex offenders.

Research has also provided mixed findings on victim preference in female sex offenders (Becker et al., 2001; Grayston & De Luca, 1999; Hunter, Becker, & Lexier, 2006; Johansson-Love & Fremouw, 2006). And Vandiver (2006) deemed the presence of a co-offender unique to

female sex offenders. Once again, this has been tested on the genders separately, never within the same sample. Theoretical support has also never been applied to these differences. Therefore, the study will also test for these differences using male sex offenders as a comparison group, and with the support of a theoretical foundation.

Prevalence. Similar to male sex offenders, the true prevalence rate of female sex offenders is also difficult to capture. Research supports a low rate of reporting such offenses and sex offender research focuses primarily on male sexual offenders. The data from 2002 show that females comprised 1.2% of the arrests for rape and 8.0% of the arrests for all other sex offenses (United States Department of Justice, 2002), which is supported by the data in 2006 indicating that less than 10% of the sex crimes cases were female-perpetrated, with 1% of adult, female arrests for forcible rape, and 6% of adult, female arrests for all other sexual offenses (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2006). The National Center for Victims of Crime (NCVC) indicates that females commit 6% of rapes or sexual assaults by an individual acting alone and it also implicates female offenders in up to 40% of sex crimes involving multiple offenders (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2006).

Though females account for a small percentage of *known* sexual offenses, this is not an insignificant number of offenders. Female sexual offenders are often convicted of lower- level offenses, such as child endangerment, when they are in fact committing much more serious offenses against children. They are often only held responsible for being an accomplice or allowing abuse to occur, instead of their charges reflecting the female being the abuser (Hetherton, 1999). And due to the frequency of these low-level felony convictions female sexual offenders are considered the "less serious" sex offenders (Tewksbury, 2004, p. 32) and there is a disparity in the number of recorded offenses and actual offenses. Therefore, it is likely that the

actual number of female sex offenders is higher than official statistics indicate. Thus, the prevalence of female-perpetrated sexual offenses included in the official data will continue to be explained by the infrequency of reporting such offenses (Bunting, 2007; Johansson-Love & Fremouw, 2005; Lewis & Stanley, 2000).

Motivations, Explanations and Techniques of Female Sex Offenders

Motivations and Explanations. Early criminological reporting did not generally recognize females as perpetrators, but as clinical data began to show an increase in female sex offenders so did the amount of research on this population. But few of these studies were empirically based, and the emerging patterns and trends needed a framework in order to structure the explanations of female sexual offending. This need drove research attempting to provide explanations and typologies for female sex offenders.

Mayer (1992) was the first to provide three possible explanations of why women commit sexual offenses. The first is the reenactment of an earlier trauma, meaning that female sexual offenders identify with those that previously abused them and in turn become abusers themselves. Victims become empowered and move into a position of control by abusing others in the same manner (Mayer, 1992). The second is emotional disdain. This type of female criminal will often use a lover to carry out violent sex crimes. This explanation exhibits an individual motivated by self-centered feelings, including jealousy, a desire for power, and feelings of hate. This type of female sexual offender is very rare. These women tend to be psychotic and have serious character disorders (Mayer, 1992). The final explanation is narcissism. This leads women to molest their own daughters because the daughters are seen as extensions of the offenders; thus, the mother is unable to tell where her existence ends and her daughter's begin. She has a poor sense of boundaries between herself and others. This type of

sexual offender tends to be insecure and may have difficulties with her gender identity (Mayer, 1992).

Ward and Keenan's (1999) Implicit theories (ITs) were not only applied to male sexual offending, but four of the five implicit theories were clearly identified in women also serving as an explanation for their offenses. Semi-structured interviews eliciting cognitions and motivations were carried out with 15 incarcerated female child sexual abusers. Qualitative analysis of those interviews indicated that four of the five motivational schemas (implicit theories) suggested by Ward (Ward, 2000; Ward & Keenan, 1999) to underlie male sexual offenders' cognitions could be clearly identified in women. These motivational schemas were: Uncontrollability (UN, identified in 87% of participants), Dangerous world (DW, 53%), Children as sexual objects (CSO, 47%) and Nature of harm (NH, 20%). Entitlement, the final implicit theory (IT), commonly found in males, was not identified in any participants in the sample.

Though Mayer (1992) provides one of the more thorough explanations of female sexual offending, she provides minimal theoretical or empirical support for her explanations. Her research was based upon previous typologies and limited empirical research (e.g.: Mathews et al., 1989; Sarrel & Masters, 1982; and Wolfe, 1985). Those previous typologies were based upon extremely small samples ($n < 20$), consisting of individuals from clinical or judicial settings, and were created with little to no theoretical foundation. Ward and Keenan's (1999) study contained an incarcerated sample of only 15 female sex offenders using face-to-face, semi-structured interviews. Considering the sensitive nature of offense(s), the offender may not have fully and truthfully disclosed all of the necessary information.

But the presence of the ITs in female sex offenders suggests less of a gap between them and their male counterparts. These findings also speak to the motivation of female sex offenders and the presence of thoughts, urges, and fantasies consistent with paraphilic interests among this population. However these small samples had no comparison group, or theoretical basis. The study will expand upon these studies with a slightly larger sample size of female sex offenders, male sex offenders as a comparison group and a theoretical foundation.

Techniques. Crime patterns among female sexual offenders are still being developed. However, current research suggest female perpetrators are less likely to use force than their male counterparts and more likely to act with male accomplices (Vandiver, 2006). The majority of offenses occur in the victims' homes, and a babysitting situation is common for female-perpetrated sexual offenses. Weapons are not often used, but in a low number of instances a weapon was used to threaten or coerce, not for actual violence (Lewis & Stanley, 2000).

In regard to victim selection, female sex offenders utilize a variety of methods to establish and maintain a sexual relationship similarly to male sex offenders, when the victim is *not* related to the offender. Those perceived as vulnerable, isolated, and/or emotionally needy were often targeted as victims (Elliot, Browne, & Kilcoyne, 1995). Offenders also reported a reliance on the victim's natural sexual curiosity or feelings of being unloved or unappreciated to facilitate or maintain sexual relationships. Some female sex offenders also use the profession of teaching to target victims (Sullivan & Beech, 2002).

There is support for the idea that female sex offenders are also using a variety of grooming methods, as well as sexual and psychological exploitations, to elicit enticement into and the maintenance of a sexual relationship (Nicaise, Bois, Fairclough, Amorose, & Cogerino, 2007). Used to gain the trust of a victim (Bennell, Alison, Stein, Alison, & Canter, 2001), the offender

exploits the adult-child power balance in order to gain the trust of a victim, creating a special relationship between the two. This trust leads to compliance, and the sexual and psychological exploitation of the victim's natural curiosities and/or vulnerabilities ensure secrecy of the inappropriate acts, ultimately maintaining that 'special relationship' (Nicaise, Bois, Fairclough, Amorose, & Cogerino, 2007; Shakeshaft, 2003).

Victim selection in female perpetrated sexual abuse is not only impacted by compliance and secrecy like their male counterparts, but also by the ability to control the victim (Shakeshaft, 2003). Children respond and react to positive attention. Therefore, if a teacher or caretaker is the offender, praise or extra attention can be very influential and facilitate some sort of sexual interaction (Nicaise et al, 2007). Other variables also play an important role in victim selection, especially as the victim increases in age. For example, children who are estranged from their parents or suffer from some type of emotional difficulty are likely targets as they will be more responsive to positive attention and more likely to maintain silence (Knoll, 2010).

Victims of sexual abuse by females also seem more likely to not report such abuse for various reasons. Many female-perpetrated offenses are incestuous and incestuous acts of abuse tend to go unreported (Terry, 2006) as they will be handled within the family versus the legal system. And these incestuous acts, at times under the guise of normal caretaking activities, will also go unreported by those victims that are too young to report such actions.

Women are also traditionally seen as caregivers, nonviolent nurturers who are either not willing or capable of harming children. This perception reduces the validity of claims of female-perpetrated sexual abuse, minimizing the prosecution of these individuals. Many adolescent males are also reluctant to report abuse because of the shame of being a victim. And these actions may not be viewed as abuse by the offender, as this behavior is often linked to abusive

backgrounds and/or psychological disorders socializing female offenders to perceive their actions as non-criminal (Terry, 2006).

Yet one key element regarding technique is not found in female sex offender research: situational contexts of the offenses. Block (1981) suggested that in order to understand crime event outcomes (e.g., the sexual offense), it is important to consider the situational factors that surround the offense. If criminologists are able to complete a script of what happens prior to the offense, this would support current typologies (e.g.: the teacher/lover and heterosexual nurturer typologies discussed at length in the next section) and identifying implications for prevention. The study of situational characteristics would also support the suggestion that the motivations (behaviors and characteristics before the offense) and the situation in which the offense occurred--or how the opportunity to offend exists or was created--are important variables in the study of female sex offenders. The study will test the situational characteristics of both female and male sex offenses for any differences, and to support current typologies and the applicability of the routine activities, power-control, and situational crime prevention components of the theoretical foundation.

Typologies. In an effort to better understand the varying characteristics and motivations of offenders several researchers have developed typologies, or classification systems, of women who sexually abuse. Matthews, Matthews and Speltz (1989) were the first to suggest three primary typologies for female sexual offenders and Vandiver and Kercher (2004) expanded those typologies, using empirical research, into six statistically based categories or typologies. Although these typologies have limitations, they clearly highlight potential offending patterns, as well as distinct differences between male and female sexual offenders. Vandiver and Kercher's

(2004) typologies also support Mayer's (1992) causes and explanations of female sexual offending.

Through their clinical observations of 16 women Mathews, Matthews and Speltz (1989) suggested three primary typologies for female sexual offenders. Women who struggle with peer relationships at the time of their offense fall into the teacher/lover category. There is a level of regression and perception of having a romantic or sexually mentoring "relationship" with an underage adolescent of their sexual preference. This self-perception leads to the belief that their actions are not criminal or wrong. The second typology is the male-coerced offender, who tends to be passive and dependent with a history of sexual abuse and relationship difficulties. They fear abandonment and feel pressured by male offenders to commit sex offenses, often against their own children. The third typology is the predisposed offender, who typically has a history of incestuous sexual victimization and psychological difficulties. Deviant sexual fantasies can be common among these women. This category of female sexual offenders also generally acts alone and tends to victimize their own children or other young children within their families. Later analyses by Syed and Williams (1996) added an angry/impulsive typology to Mathews, et al.'s three typologies. The angry/impulsive sex offender is a female who acts alone in an angry and impulsive manner against an adult male victim. Further, they suggest that treatment for this type of female sex offender would entail dealing with personal abuse issues, and anger management issues (Syed & Williams, 1996).

While later analyses support the applicability of Mathews, et al (1989) typologies (e.g.: Nathan & Ward 2002; Vandiver & Kercher, 2004), the above typologies were not empirically generated. The small sample size also makes it unclear as to whether or not these typologies are generalizable. The study will test Mathews, et al's (1989) typologies by using a larger sample,

self-reported data, a comparison group of male sex offenders, and by empirically testing the data for statistically significant differences.

More recently Vandiver and Kercher (2004) added to the above research by empirically studying the largest female sex offender sample to date. Using the Texas Department of Safety Sex Offender Registry as a sample, information on over 450 female sex offenders was collected and analyzed creating six statistically based categories. The first is the heterosexual nurturer. This woman is in a mentorship or caretaking role and the relationship is perceived as non-abusive. The second is non-criminal homosexual offenders. Most victims are female and the female sex offender tends to act with a male accomplice. The third is the female sexual predator. The average age of this female sex offender is 29 and they tend to have male victims with an average age of 11. Also, the offender's sexual offending may be a part of her criminal disposition. The fourth category is young adult child exploiters. The victims tend to be young, related to the offender, and may include mothers molesting their own child/children. Fifth are homosexual criminals. Female sex offenders in this category commit crimes that include indecency with a child and a high proportion of 'forcing behavior,' including sexual performance of a child and compelling prostitution. Lastly there are the aggressive homosexual offenders. This final category involves women who have assaulted adults rather than children (Vandiver & Kercher, 2004).

Though their sample was large, Vandiver and Kercher's (2004) data were limited to basic demographic and criminal record information. Specific characteristics could not be identified in regard to the motivating psychosocial or other characteristics of these women, as only information from the registry and arrest records were used. Other limitations include data collection in only one day and those who were ultimately charged with a lesser offense were also

required to register including them in the sample. The study will test and expand upon this research using self-report data and theoretical support.

However, typology research faces additional limitations. It is difficult, if not impossible; to determine every action a person is likely to engage in, deviant or otherwise. Taking into account this limitation, examining female abusers on a case-by-case basis, along with not assuming typologies are mutually exclusive, may be a plausible solution. Individual case analysis may eliminate the difficulty criminal justice professionals will face attempting to organize such a large population of offenders into individual categories. In addition to case-by-case analysis, sexually abusive behavior may need to be redefined with more flexible parameters. This would account for the broad range of behaviors female sex offenders have been found to or could possibly engage in (Bunting, 2007).

According to Robertiello and Terry (2007), the best way to understand typologies of sex offenders is as a continuum versus distinct and unique or separate categories. The idea of a continuum has several advantages. First, strength and exclusivity are separable issues and need to be examined as such. While they can influence each other, this is not the case in every offender and needs to be addressed as such. The continuum also allows for the focus on those that may not be defined as "strong" pedophiles or "weak" pedophiles (Finkelhor & Araji, 1986, p. 158). Those that fall between those two nodes will need a focus that addresses the individual strength of their pedophilia. Lastly, the continuum will avoid the reliance on a particular theoretical approach. A variety of processes at the various levels of the model will combine to explain pedophilic behavior (Finkelhor & Araji, 1986). Allowing an overlap of typologies will aid in the identification of the underlying motivation of offenders can aid in their overall management while incarcerated, in treatment and/or under supervision for both male and female

sex offenders. All of the above will lead to a clearer profile of sex offenders and a reduction of future incidents (Robertiello & Terry, 2007).

The study seeks to provide a theoretical foundation that supports the above continuum and overlap of typologies. By testing the applicability of multiple theories to support existing models and frameworks, the study will support the applicability of typologies as a continuum and a multi-faceted theoretical foundation.

Comparing and Contrasting Male and Female Sex Offenders

While the majority of research indicates a difference between male and female sex offenders, there are several similarities as well. Both male and female sex offenders have cognitive distortions, and they deny and minimize their abusive actions as forms of justification for their behavior. However, it has been found that female sex offenders have fewer cognitive distortions and are more likely to be receptive to treatment and motivated to change their behavior (Allen, 1991; Terry, 2006). Additionally, men and women display poor coping skills, relationship difficulties, and victim empathy deficits. A majority of female sex offenders (studies show percentages ranging from 50% to 95%) experienced physical (nonsexual) abuse (Allen, 1991; Kaplan & Green 1995; Miccio-Fonseca, 2000) and Lewis and Stanley (2000) reported that 80% of female sex offenders experienced physical abuse later in life by a male sexual partner or had been threatened with it.

Victimization of those related to the offender is more common in women; although both male and female perpetrators are likely to be known in some capacity by their victim. The sexual acts that occur during female and male-perpetrated abuse range from genital fondling, oral sex, to sexual penetration of the body (Mathews et al., 1991; Vandiver & Kercher, 2004; Vandiver & Walker, 2002). Victims of female offenders are usually children between 6 and 12 years, and

most perpetrators overall are heterosexual. Female sex offenders groom their victims in the same way as male sex offenders (Ford, 2006) and also use similar processes to overcome inhibitions and feelings of guilt (for example substance abuse). The misperception of the high percentage of female victims is in part due to the fact that many women act with a male co-offender (Vandiver & Kercher, 2004) and that male sex offenders typically prefer female victims (Wijkmand, Bijleveld, & Hendricks, 2010). This history of victimization and victim characteristics drive the hypotheses in the study testing for differences in offender victimization and the impact, if any, that history has on their victim selection. These characteristics have not been compared across the genders to date.

Female sex offenders are more likely to commit sex offenses with men, either in concert with the male or as a result of coercion (Grayston & De Luca 1999; Wakefield & Underwagner, 1991). Overall, females may be more likely to be coerced into "any" criminal activity by a co-offender than males, or that they may justify their behavior by having an accomplice. Male sex offenders tend to offend alone (Finkelhor & Williams, 1988; Solomon 1992). However, replication by future researchers is needed to support this finding (Johansson-Love & Fremouw, 2009). Research indicating the presence of a co-offender in female sexual offending is the driving force of the study testing if having a co-offender is truly unique to female sex offenders by using male sex offenders as a comparison group. Justifying one's behavior by acting in concert with another individual drove the application of the techniques of neutralization theory in the study. Support for these characteristics will support the current literature and be the first study to apply a traditional criminological theory to female sex offenders.

In comparison to non-sexual offenders, sex offenders reported having a history of alcohol and drug abuse less often. Female sex offenders reported alcohol and drug abuse histories at a

higher rate than male sex offenders, and a higher rate of substance use during the commission of a crime (Hislop, 2001). The study will be the first to date to compare the presence of substance abuse history and its impact, if any, on victim selection across the genders of sex offenders. It will also be the first to compare male and female sex offenders within the same sample on the situational characteristics of their offense(s).

Why Study the Genders Separately?

A gendered approach to studying sex offenders is necessary because existing strategies and theories are primarily based upon male offenders. Little to no attention is paid to characteristics unique to female offenders. Characteristics such as risk and protective factors, developmental pathways to crime and delinquency are differences between genders and need to be addressed as such. Furthermore, the interrelatedness of substance abuse, trauma and mental health must be considered, as well as the relationships in the woman's life and any socioeconomic challenges (Johansson-Love & Fremouw, 2009).

In addition, further testing of current typologies, examining variables such as gender differences and the situational characteristics of their offenses, will lead to better assessments of the characteristics of female sex offenders, their victims and the range of their abuse (Vandiver & Walker, 2002). This examination will explain more about the offender, how they commit their offenses and assist in preventative measures to stop female-perpetrated sexual offenses. Also, identifying patterns and trends in situational characteristics of female-perpetrated sexual offenses will also provide a predictive measure of these types of offenders and offenses.

The study seeks to establish the foundation for the above to occur by comparing the men and women of the sample on the above characteristics. By testing eight hypotheses developed from gaps in the current literature, and the application of a multifaceted theoretical foundation

explained in the next chapter, the study will open the door to several untapped avenues of research on female sex offenders.

Chapter 2. Theoretical Integration

Over time, several theories have been developed to explain the sexual abuse of a child to include psychological, behavioral, cognitive and organic theories. The development and testing of these theories evolved into more sophisticated models and integrated theories, beginning with Finkelhor's four-factor model (1984). Other models, based upon Finkelhor's framework, have been developed more recently such as Marshall and Barbaree's Integrated Theory (1990), Hall and Hirschman's Quadripartite Model (1991), and the Pathways Model (Ward & Seigert, 2002).

Most explanations of female sexual offending have focused on the psychological or developmental explanations of behavior. The focus of these explanations are often on the difficulty sexual offenders have relating to other adults leading to loneliness, and social and emotional problems residing in a lack of social skills. Sexual offenders' childhood rejection and abuse also result in explanations that focus on the development of an insecure attachment style resulting in more feelings of loneliness, hostile attitudes, a lack of intimacy and some social skills, and poor psycho-sexual development (Denov, 2003; Terry, 2006; Vandiver & Kercher, 2004). Thus, the current explanations of female sexual offending can be loosely tied to attachment theory, although this has limited empirical testing. Considering this, the study will test a different approach by applying the power control, social learning, routine activities, rational choice, and situational crime prevention theories to models, frameworks and integrated theories, tested on male sex offenders to create the first theoretical foundation explaining female sexual offending.

This theoretical integration will begin by explaining traditional frameworks and models of male-perpetrated child sexual abuse, starting with Finkelhor's four-factor model and how traditional criminological theories link to this model to serve as an explanation of female sexual

offending. Followed by an explanation of Marshall and Barbaree's Integrated Theory (1990), Hall and Hirschman's Quadrapartite Theory (1991) and Ward and Seigert's Pathways Model (2002), these integrated theories and models will also be linked to criminological theories to explain female sexual offending. Finally, the research questions and hypotheses of the study will be explained.

Finkelhor's four-factor Model

Finkelhor's precondition model states there are four preconditions that must exist *prior* to the commission of sexual abuse of a child. The first precondition states the offender must have some *motivation* to sexually abuse a child. Emotional congruence, sexual arousal, and blockage are factors Finkelhor found to be directly linked to, and impacting, the precondition of motivation. Second, the offender must overcome internal inhibition (e.g.: his conscience) to act upon his motivation; followed by overcoming external factors (e.g.: grooming to gain victim compliance, obtaining the trust of parents, etc.) which may act as inhibitors to the sexual offense. Lastly the offender must overcome the child's resistance to the abuse (e.g.: using bribes or guilt to maintain secrecy) (Finkelhor & Araji, 1986). Disinhibition , or when conventional inhibitions against having sex with children are absent or overcome, is the factor directly linked to Finkelhor's final precondition. Disinhibition provides a higher level of acceptability for such behavior and the ability for the offender to work toward overcoming any resistance from the child. Finkelhor hypothesized these preconditions to occur in temporal sequence meaning one is necessary for the next to occur and that this model is a typology for child molesters (Ward & Siegert, 2002: 323-324). All will be discussed in depth and integrated with other models, theories, and current female sex offender typologies below.

Motivation

In order for a crime to take place, there must be a motivated offender (Cohen & Felson, 1979; Felson & Clark, 1998). Finkelhor also suggested this as a precondition that must exist prior to the commission of sexual abuse of a child. Emotional congruence, sexual arousal to children and blockage are the three factors that affect the motivation of the offender, in other words, drive the motivation toward the sexual abuse of a child.

Emotional Congruence. Emotional congruence is when the characteristics of a child fit the offenders' emotional needs. Regressed offenders tend to be emotionally and developmentally delayed making the offender feel they relate more to the age group they offend against. Emotional congruence can be seen in female sex offenders through Mathews et al (1989) teacher/lover typology which highlights a level of regression and perception of having a romantic or sexually mentoring "relationship" with the victim of their sexual preference. Vandiver and Kercher's (2004) heterosexual nurturer typology is similar to the teacher/lover typology in that the woman perceives herself as in a mentorship or caretaking role and the relationship is non-abusive. Thus, emotional congruence is a factor that would also drive the motivation of female sex offenders similarly to their male counterparts.

Sexual Arousal to Children. Sexual arousal to children must be present in an offender, also driving their motivation to offend. A fixated child sexual abuser is sexually attracted to significantly younger individuals (Groth & Birnbaum, 1978) and views their sexual involvement with children as acceptable. This perception is reinforced by low levels of social adjustment, marital problems and poor relationships with peers (Johnston & Johnston, 1997). In regard to female sex offenders, there is currently no research that indicates women do or do not have a physiological sexual arousal to children. However, Mathews, et al (1989) did find the presence

of deviant sexual thoughts/fantasies in a small sample of female sex offenders, but little to no research has addressed this characteristic any further. Therefore the study will test the presence of thoughts, urges, and fantasies consistent with paraphilic interests between the men and women of the sample. Support for this hypothesis indicates less of a gap between the genders and the applicability of Finkelhor's factor of sexual arousal to children to female sex offenders.

Blockage. Blockage refers to the inability to form age-appropriate relationships for a variety of reasons. There is a lack of normal development and normal preference that eventually leads to the development of sexual interest in children, driving the offenders' motivation to commit child sexual abuse. There is no research to specifically tie emotional congruence, sexual arousal to children, and blockage to female sex offenders, but Mayer (1992) explained that female sexual offending could result through a reenactment of an earlier trauma. This is similar to blockage in that an earlier trauma can block normal development and/or socialize that individual to believe that an attraction to or a sexual interest in children is acceptable and appropriate. The study will test the applicability of blockage, linked with Mayer's (1992) explanation, thought the hypothesis testing for the presence of a history of sexual abuse. For if a female sex offender has a history of sexual abuse, this supports the reenactment of an earlier trauma and the blockage of or inability to form age appropriate relationships as explained previously.

Overcoming Internal Inhibitions

Despite the motivation to sexually abuse a child and it's corresponding factors, a sex offender will still experience internal inhibitions toward committing this socially and legally unacceptable behavior. Groth et al. (1982) found the regressed molester is not comfortable with sexual attraction toward a child and will seek out means (e.g.: drugs or alcohol) that remove any inhibitions to allow that action based upon that desire or attraction. This type of male sex

offender would then employ excuses (or techniques of neutralization) as an additional means to remove internal inhibitions, and justifying their deviant behavior. In contrast, female sex offenders will view the relationship as loving, caring, mentoring or educational as a means to justify their sexually abusive acts (refer to teacher/lover typology (Mathews et al, 1989) and heterosexual nurturer category (Vandiver & Kercher, 2004)). Thus, both male and female sex offenders use other means, or excuses, to justify their offending behavior, supporting the use of Sykes and Matza's Techniques of Neutralization theory as support for Finkelhor's overcoming internal inhibition factor.

Techniques of Neutralization: Theoretical Basis for Finkelhor's Overcoming Internal Inhibitions Factor. Techniques of neutralization are justifications and excuses for committing delinquent acts (Sykes & Matza, 1957). These techniques are inappropriate extensions of rationalizations in society that are generally accepted. The acceptance of these rationalizations does not indicate that the offender rejects societal norms and values; they just hold the 'subpar' values in order to circumvent and rationalize any deviations from those norms (Sykes & Matza, 1957). Sykes and Matza (1957) organized the techniques of Neutralization into five categories: denial of responsibility, denial of injury, denial of victim, condemnation of the condemners, and an appeal to higher loyalties. Many of these techniques of neutralization can be seen in both male and female sex offenders.

Offenders (both male and female) that assign adult roles to their victims, view the abuse as a longstanding relationship, or view their child victims as "soul mates" are displaying a denial of responsibility and denial of a victim. This will also lead to denial of injury, for the offender will view the abuse as the ultimate display of love; thus, it cannot be harmful. Therefore, the above pre-condition and criminological theory supports various typologies of female sex

offenders: the teacher/lover (Mathews, et al, 1989) and the heterosexual nurturer (Vandiver & Kercher, 2004). Women who struggle with peer relationships at the time of their offense fall into the teacher/lover category. There is a level of regression and perception of having a romantic or sexually mentoring "relationship" with an underage adolescent of their sexual preference. This self-perception leads to the belief that their actions are not criminal or wrong (Mathews, et al, 1989). The belief their actions are not wrong is also a form of neutralization: the denial of a victim. If one believes what they are doing is not wrong, and the relationship is justified, one will not see a victim or that they are hurting another individual.

Male-coerced (Mathews, et al, 1989) and non-criminal homosexual offender typologies (Vandiver & Kercher, 2004) are also supported. These typologies support the presence of a co-offender and the neutralization technique: denial of responsibility. Female sex offenders are known to have a history of childhood sexual victimization, mental health symptoms, including personality disorders, have substance abuse problems, and difficulties in intimate relationships or an absence of intimate relationships. These characteristics will be viewed as forces beyond the offenders' control, causing the offending behavior, and justifying why it couldn't be stopped/prevented (denial of responsibility). But what happens when excuses are no longer needed and conventional inhibitions have been overcome? Finklehor's factor referring to disinhibition will answer that question.

Disinhibition, Condemnation of the Condemners, and Appeal to Higher Loyalties. Disinhibition is when conventional inhibitions against having sex with children are absent or overcome, providing a higher level of acceptability for such behavior. Female sex offenders' sexual victimization histories are more longstanding, extensive and severe, and they are more likely to commit sex offenses with men, either in concert with the male or as a result of coercion

(Grayston & De Luca 1999; Wakefield & Underwagner, 1991). This history of victimization found in women can lead to mental health symptoms, including personality disorders, difficulties in intimate relationships or an absence of intimate relationships (Nathan & Ward, 2002; Vandiver & Kercher, 2004). These variables impact the "inhibition" against the commission of sexual acts with a child. Female offenders learn from the abuser that abused them in the past or from their co-offender that this behavior is acceptable in order to facilitate their offending behavior (Mayer, 1992). This belief that sexually abusing a child is acceptable, and non-abusive, also links directly to condemnation of the condemners and the appeal to higher loyalties of the techniques of neutralization theory. Condemnation of the condemners refers to ignoring or acting in direct opposition to those that disapprove of one's behavior. And an appeal to higher loyalties refers to identifying with the higher power that conforms to the delinquent behavior rather than conventional powers (e.g.: a gang leader over the police). If an offender is exhibiting disinhibition, they will shun conventional beliefs that the "relationship" with their child victim is wrong/abusive (condemnation of the condemners), and maintain their belief, or the belief of their co-offender, that this behavior is the ultimate form of love (appeal to higher loyalties). The study will test this application of the techniques of neutralization theory by examining differences across the genders on the presence of a co-offender and reporting a history of sexual abuse.

Acting with a co-offender links directly to a woman "learning" their offending behavior from this co-offender and using that to justify their deviance. This link also draws upon Ronald Akers' Social Learning Theory as further theoretical support for Finkelhor's disinhibition factor. Learning child sexual abuse from a lover, significant other, or co-offender is a direct example of differential association. A component of the social learning theory that is also linked to several female sex offender typologies.

Social Learning Theory: Theoretical Basis for Finkelhor's Disinhibition Condition. Akers (1985) found that individuals learn to engage in crime through exposure to and the adoption of definitions favorable to crime. He furthered previous research by explaining that learning mechanisms are processes in the context of a social structure, interaction and situation that produces both conforming and deviant behavior (Akers, 1985). Another component of the social learning theory is differential association. This refers to the individual's exposure to definitions that are either favorable or unfavorable to illegal or law-abiding behavior. And as a result of this exposure, the individual adopts those same definitions and imitates the same behavior. Exposure that occurs earlier (priority), last longer and occupy more of one's time (duration), take place most often (frequency), and involve others with whom one has the more important and closer relationship (intensity) will have the greater effect on behavior (Burgess & Akers, 1966).

This theoretical component is supported by female sex offenders being more likely to have a male co-offender (Grayston & DeLuca, 1999; Wakefield & Underwagner, 1991). Women that commit sexual offenses with men are possibly displaying characteristics of differential association, the acceptance of favorable definitions for sexual offenses, and experiencing little to no negative reinforcement or punishment, but this has not been tested. In fact, if the offense results from a dysfunctional relationship, the woman may receive a reward or positive reinforcement by seeming to please her significant other by allowing him to fulfill his desires through sexual offending. So not only is the male gratified by offending, the female is gratified by receiving the social reinforcement needed when traditional relationships are lacking in the offenders' life.

Applying the work of Mayer (1992), another explanation for this behavior is an imitation of previous acts of abuse experienced by the offender. Her explanation of female-perpetrated sexual

offenses suggests these acts to be a re-creation of an earlier trauma. This would make her subsequent offenses an "imitation" of abusive acts toward the offender, or seeing a significant other committing those acts on a child close to her. An extensive victimization history, paired with this explanation can lead to a depressive state in women, similar to their male counterparts according to Hall and Hirschman (1991), also leading them to sexually abuse a child. This link to Hall and Hirschman (1991) will be discussed at length later in the chapter.

The SLT supports Mathews et al (1989) male-coerced typology, as well as Vandiver and Kercher's (2004) non-criminal homosexual typology. Women who are categorized under these typologies feel pressure by male offenders to commit sexual offenses, fear abandonment from their significant others and have a history of sexual abuse and relationship difficulties. Therefore, utilizing SLT as part of a theoretical foundation for the study would not only support current literature, but test current typologies and suggested differences between male and female sex offenders. This will be tested in the same manner as the applicability of disinhibition and the techniques of neutralization theory. The above may also explain any coercion of a female to commit a sexual offense by a male, or the power imbalance in a relationship; thus, supporting the inclusion of the Power-Control Theory.

Power-Control Theory: Theoretical Basis for Finkelhor's Overcoming Internal Inhibitions Factor. Hagan's (1989) power-control theory was developed to address the relationship between gender and delinquency. Hagan defined gender in terms of family socialization patterns and that the balance of power between the mother and father is what determines those socialization patterns (Bottcher, 2001, pg. 896). Families are categorized into patriarchal (father dominated household socializing more "traditional" gender roles) and egalitarian (mother and father have equal power and socialize less rigid and/or traditional gender

roles). Thus, according to the PCT, when raised by a more patriarchal family, male children are more likely to engage in delinquency. And when raised by an egalitarian family, there is an equal risk across the genders of becoming delinquent (Bottcher, 2001; Hagan, 1989).

PCT explains the power imbalance in a relationship, which may support the presence of a co-offender found in a significant amount of female sex offenses. There is also support that the offender exploits the adult-child power balance in order to gain the trust of a victim, creating a special relationship between the two (Nicaise, Bois, Fairclough, Amorose, & Cogerino, 2007; Shakeshaft, 2003). Considering this, the PCT supports the male-coerced typology (Mathews et al, 1989), the angry-impulsive typology (Syed & Williams, 1996), and the non-criminal homosexual typology (Vandiver & Kercher, 2004). The power imbalance in a relationship, in conjunction with the social learning process can impact the vulnerability of a woman and the likelihood she would participate in or allow the sexual abuse of a child. The study will test this applicability of the PCT by testing for gender differences in the presence of a sexual abuse history, victim preference, presence of a co-offender and the relationship to their victim(s).

Once internal inhibitions have been overcome, overcoming external factors and overcoming the child's resistance are the final preconditions that must be met prior to the sexual abuse of a child. These final two pre-conditions for male sex offenders will be applied as the motivation and opportunity of female sex offenders. Thus, the Rational Choice (RCT), Routine Activities (RAT), and Situational Crime Prevention (SCP) theories will be used as the theoretical basis for the Finkelhor's final two preconditions as they relate to female sex offenders.

Overcoming External Factors

In order for the sexual abuse of a child to occur, Finkelhor indicated that external factors must also be overcome prior to the commission of the offense. External factors such as gaining

the trust of a victim, gaining the trust of the parents to obtain unsupervised access to the child, and being able to get the victim into a location that facilitates an offense are all examples of external factors that can prohibit the sexual abuse of a child. In order to achieve this, a motivated offender, that has overcome internal inhibitions and met the corresponding factors, will have to weigh the anticipated costs and benefits of overcoming these factors progressing toward a sexual offense. Thus, the rational choice theory links directly to Finkelhor's precondition of overcoming external factors.

Rational Choice Theory: Theoretical Basis for Finkelhor's Overcoming External Factors. This theory asserts that an individual chooses if, when, and how to commit a crime based on the analysis of anticipated costs and benefits of the action (Felson & Clarke, 1998; Eck & Eck, 2012). Offenses are committed with a particular goal in mind and the decision-making process only extends to the immediate situation. Thus offenders place more emphasis on the immediate context of crime, and immediate situational cues are a stronger influence on offenders than distal signals like risk and punishment (Eck & Eck, 2012).

This theory explains *how* the offense can happen, and when applied to female sex offenders indicates that the situational characteristics of the offense are an important characteristic in the decision making process to commit a sexual offense. Since the victims of female sex offenders tend to be their own children, or those they are exposed to via a care-giving situation, teacher-student relationship, or some sort of mentoring relationship; it is important to study the context in which the offense takes place of female-perpetrated sexual offenses (Leclerc et al., 2009). These situational characteristics can be viewed as the external factors a female sex offender would have to overcome. The study will test the applicability of the rational choice theory on female sex offenders through hypotheses testing for differences between male and female sex offenders on

the situational characteristics of their offenses and having child care duties for their victim(s). This victim-offender relationship (biological or pre-existing relationship) and access to victims (child care duties, teaching, mentoring, etc.) impacts situational characteristics of offenses, but also suggests a link to the Routine Activities Theory (RAT). For female sex offenders would be more likely than their male counterparts to encounter their victims through their routine activities (e.g.: employment) as explained below.

Routine Activities Theory and Situational Crime Prevention: Theoretical Bases for Finkelhor's Overcoming External Factors and Overcoming the Child's Resistance Factor. Considering the relationship female sex offenders tend to have with/to their victim(s), and the professions these women exploit in order to offend against children, examining the gender differences offenders meet their victims, access to victims, and the victim-offender relationship links directly to overcoming external factors, overcoming the child's resistance factors, and the Routine Activities Theory.

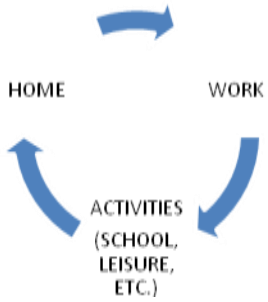
In order for a crime to occur according to the routine activity theory, motivated offenders must converge with suitable targets in the absence of capable guardians (Cohen & Felson, 1979). The absence of any of these conditions is sufficient to prevent the crime from occurring. Thus, the probability of this occurring is influenced by our routine activities, or changes in our routine activities (Eck & Weisburd, 1995).

Routine activities are defined as any recurrent and prevalent activities that provide for basic population and individual needs (Cohen & Felson, 1979). For example work, food, leisure, social interaction, learning and childrearing. Crimes may occur during routine activities at home, in jobs and other activities away from home (Cohen & Felson, 1979) as shown in Figure 1. The risk of victimization varies directly with social distance between offender and victim and among

circumstances and locations in which people place themselves and their property. Target suitability is also an element, based upon the value, visibility, accessibility and inertia of a particular target (Cohen & Felson, 1979).

Since female sex offenders tend to be the primary caregiver or in some sort of teaching/mentorship role (Denov, 2003; Johansson-Love & Fremouw, 2005; Nathan & Ward, 2002; Vandiver & Kercher, 2004; Vandiver 2006) the routine activities theory directly applies. The offender has unlimited access to a pool of victims that are consistently in the nodes of their routine activities. The study will test this applicability, and if there is a gender difference though the hypotheses measuring if women are more likely to have a prior relationship to their victim and that they are more likely to have child care duties for their victim(s) than their male counterparts.

Figure 1 RAT Pathways and Nodes Where Crimes are Most Likely to Occur



Eck & Weisburd, 1995

A pre-existing relationship and seemingly unlimited access to potential victims are variables that suggest the situation or environment in which these offenses occur is important to the commission of the crime. Thus, a change in that environment would be a plausible prevention measure, and links female sexual offending to the Situational Crime Prevention Theory. Situational crime prevention (SCP) techniques are based upon the premise that a change in the environment surrounding an offender will ultimately decrease opportunities for crime. According

to Felson and Clarke (1998), opportunities play a role in causing all crime. If there is an increase in the amount of opportunities, there will be an increase in the amount of crime. Environments can then provide both the motivation and the opportunity to offend (Wortely, 2003).

According to Cornish and Clarke (1986) situational crime prevention techniques rely on the premise that offenders will rationally weigh the costs and benefits of an offense (Terry & Ackerman, 2008). And with the assumption that an offender is a person who will make rational decisions, consideration of the situation in which an offense can occur is important in the prevention process. If the situation is no longer conducive to committing an offense, the less likely the offender will be to engage in that behavior because the benefits no longer outweigh the risks. It is common for offenders to use their environment to assist in the commission of a crime; however, the evaluation of offenders' routine activities combined with situational crime prevention strategies will reduce the likelihood of crime by minimizing or removing situations that facilitate those behaviors (Leclerc et al., 2008; Terry & Ackerman, 2008; Wortley, 2003; Wortley, 2001; Wortley & Smallbone, 2006).

The SCP approach, along with RAT, supports Mathew et al.'s (1989) teacher/lover typology and Vandiver and Kercher's (2004) heterosexual nurturer, female sexual predator, and young adult exploiter typologies. For women categorized into these typologies typically have childcare duties of, a teaching or mentoring relationship with, or are related to their victims. Therefore, their environments, routine activities and everyday situations provide unlimited and unrestricted access to victims, fostering an environment conducive to abuse and repeated abuse. This will be tested in the study through the hypothesis that situational characteristics of offenses will *not* vary across the genders.

Considering that female sex offenders already know their victims, and are either related to, or the primary caregiver (Denov, 2003; Johansson-Love & Fremouw, 2005; Nathan & Ward, 2002; Vandiver & Kercher, 2004; Vandiver 2006), this pre-existing relationship can eliminate or reduce having to overcome the child's resistance to sexual abuse. Especially since female sex offenders have a substantial population of victims that are unable to report due to their age. The combination of a pre-existing relationship creating an environment that fosters child sexual abuse, the implementation of the denial of responsibility and a victim, along with elements of SCP, Finkelhor's final pre-condition will be met and theoretically supported for female sex offenders.

Overcoming the Child's Resistance to Sexual Abuse

Female sex offenders must also overcome a child's resistance to sexual abuse, similar to Finkelhor's fourth pre-condition for male sex offenders. Offenders that fall into Mathews, et al (1989) teacher/lover typology and Vandiver and Kercher's (2004) heterosexual nurturer typology, combined with techniques of neutralization, view themselves as in a "relationship" with the child and that the relationship is mentoring or educational. In other words, they use this perception to justify their behavior is not wrong convincing both themselves and the child there is no need to resist. Also, women having such a close, pre-existing relationship to their victims (family members, care taking duties, etc.) is the equivalent of unlimited access to victim(s)/a pool of potential victims. These "situations" not only provide the opportunity, but given female-perpetrated acts of abuse appear under the guise of care taking duties, SCP supports another manner in which the female sex offender can overcome the child's resistance. For this is an example of when a child would be too young to report the abuse, or too young to recognize the behavior is wrong/abuse. Thus, resistance is never present or quickly eliminated.

Additional research indicates that women also use similar grooming techniques as their male counterparts (Bennell, Alison, Stein, Alison & Canter, 2001; Elliot, Browne & Kilcoyne, 1995; Nicaise, Bois, Fariclough, Amrose & Cogerino, 2007; Shakeshaft, 2003; Sullivan & Beech, 2002) to gain compliance of the child and to maintain secrecy. The use of similar grooming and sexual desensitization techniques will lower external inhibitions and resistance of the child. For example, women also target victims that are vulnerable, isolated, and/or emotionally needy (Elliot, Browne, & Kilcoyne, 1995). They also rely on the victim's natural sexual curiosity (Sullivan & Beech, 2002). Overall, there is the same exploitation of the adult-child power balance in order to create a special relationship between the offender and the child and ultimately gain their trust (Nicaise, Bois, Fairclough, Amorose, & Cogerino, 2007).

Later, other models were developed to expand on Finkelhor's (1986) four-factor model. Marshall and Barbaree (1990) sought to explain the sexual abuse of a child from the onset, and Hall and Hirschman (1991) also used a four component model to explain child sexual abuse. Lastly, Ward and Siegert (2002) combined specific components of Finkelhor, Marshall and Barbaree, and Hall and Hirschman models and theories to create the Pathways Model.

Other Models Explaining Sexual Abuse

Other models and integrated theories have been developed over time to expand on Finkelhor's four-factor model. These models, although based upon Finkelhor's model, can also be applied, along with the theoretical integration, to explain female perpetrated child sexual abuse. The first is Marshall and Barbaree's Integrated Theory (1990).

Marshall and Barbaree's Integrated Theory. Marshall and Barbaree's (1990) integrated theory was developed as a more general theory to explain sexual offending from the onset, to the development, and then the continuation or maintenance of child sexual abuse. The onset is

described as when negative childhood experiences deprive an offender of the necessary social competence to establish and maintain heterosexual relationships. It is this point in an offender's life that is the most critical to developing sexual preferences and behaviors that accompany those preferences (Marshall & Barbaree, 1990). Development is the period in an offenders' life is marked by a large increase in sex hormones and the salience and potency of sexual cues. Some individuals are more susceptible to adverse effects of these hormonal and biological changes due to a lack of effective self-regulation and social competence. Resulting in meeting one's sexual needs in a deviant manner, and by meeting one's needs in a deviant manner, the acceptance of socio-cultural messages that enforce this deviant behavior is more likely to occur (Marshall & Barbaree, 1990). Continuation or maintenance occurs after an offender has developed this type of cognitive distortion combined with the reinforcing effect of deviant sexual activity either a positive (e.g. a sense of power) or negative (e.g. reduction of low mood) reinforcing effect occurs (Marshall & Barbaree, 1990; Ward & Siegert, 2002).

According to Marshall and Barbaree (1990), offenders can also offend depending on their circumstances. In other words, if an offender displays a vulnerability such as extreme weakness, lower levels of stressors are needed to drive the occurrence of a sexual offense. Therefore, situational factors will need to be a strong, if not the most prominent, factor to overpower inhibitions against committing a sexual offense (Ward & Siegert, 2002).

Mayer's (1992) explanation of female sexual offending follows a similar framework to Marshall and Barbaree's theory. The "onset" is similar to the first explanation of the reenactment of an earlier trauma, placing the female sex offender at a disadvantage for developing and maintaining relationships, stunting their development and fostering the development of inappropriate attractions to children. The second explanation of emotional disdain and the third

explanation of narcissism are similar to the continuation or maintenance of child sexual abuse. Those offenders suffering from emotional disdain are motivated by self-centered feelings, including jealousy, a desire for power, and feelings of hate (Mayer, 1992). Those suffering from narcissism tend to molest their own daughters because the daughters are seen as extensions of the offenders. This offender has a poor sense of boundaries between herself and others (Mayer, 1992). This allows the offender continued and unlimited access to the victim, and fostering the perfect environment and relationship to continue and maintain an abusive relationship.

Testing for the presence of a co-offender, and the context or the situation surrounding the offense(s) across the genders in the study will also test the applicability of this integrated theory to female sex offenders.

Hall and Hirschman's Quadripartite Model. Hall and Hirschman's quadripartite model consists of four components: physiological sexual arousal (e.g. displaying equal or greater arousal to rape stimuli versus consenting stimuli), cognitions justifying sexual aggression (e.g. women deserve to be raped because they are hostile toward men), affective discontrol (e.g. depressive states that drive men to sexually offend against children) and personality problems (e.g. antisocial behavior, authority problems, family conflicts, etc.). These components are multifunctional as they can serve as motivation that increases the likelihood of sexually aggressive behavior and they can define offender types and offense subtypes based upon the prominence of each component (Hall & Hirschman, 1991; Ward & Siegert, 2002).

The main component of Hall and Hirschman's (1991) theory is that while the four components may contribute to a sexual offense, each offender will have one component that is more prominent and will be their primary motive. That component will have a greater influence on the offender ultimately driving him to commit the offense. This primary component can then

serve to define a particular type of child molester, driving potential treatment in a specific direction (Ward & Siegert, 2002).

There is no empirical research to date that supports the application of Hall and Hirschman's quadripartite model to female sex offenders; however, the study and the theoretical integration will link this model to female sex offenders that will be useful for future research. For example, the incorporation of techniques of neutralization as a theoretical basis will support female sex offenders as having cognitive justifications for their sexually abusive behavior. In regard to affective dyscontrol, female sex offenders come from abusive backgrounds and tend to have psychological disorders stemming from that abuse and unstable households (Terry, 2006). Female sex offenders also have a more severe and more longstanding history of both physical and sexual abuse; have difficulties in intimate relationships and/or an absence of intimate relationships (Nathan & Ward, 2002; Vandiver & Kercher, 2004). This history contributes to personality problems, that can lead to a depressive state that motivates women sexually abuse children. The above histories and problems can also support the presence of a co-offender, a variable that is unique to female sex offenders. These problems and history of abuse can also motivate a woman to facilitate a spouse or partner sexually abusing her child or a child she has access to. Therefore, Hall and Hirschman's (1991) model will be tested in conjunction with the techniques of neutralization theory and corresponding parts of Finkelhor's (1984) four-factor model.

Pathways Model. The pathways model developed five distinct pathways emerging from a base of vulnerability. Variables such as one's family environment, learning history, biological factors, and cultural issues all contribute to the presence and intensity of one's vulnerability. From this vulnerability, an offender can be further categorized into one of four common clusters:

deviant sexual arousal, intimacy deficits, inappropriate emotions, and cognitive distortions. Then, based on the combination of vulnerabilities, common clusters, and the interaction of situational triggers an offender will take one "pathway" leading to a sexual crime (Ward & Siegert, 2002).

Pathway 1: Multiple Dysfunctional Mechanisms. The first pathway consists of distorted sexual scripts, idealized relationships, dysfunctional ideas about children's sexuality, deviant sexual arousal by sexual scripts, and increased self esteem based on perceived legitimacy of actions. Female sex offenders would take this path if they fall into the teacher/lover and predisposed offender typologies (Mathews et al., 1989) and Vandiver and Kercher's (2004) heterosexual nurturer typology. The teacher/lover has a level of regression and perception of a romantic or sexually mentoring relationship that is not criminal or wrong, and the predisposed offender has deviant sexual fantasies and psychological difficulties. The heterosexual nurturer also believes they are in a non-abusive "relationship" with their victim(s).

Pathway 2: Deviant Sexual Scripts and Relationship Schema. The second pathway consists of distorted sexual scripts *plus* dysfunctional relationship schema, sex and/or intimacy confusion, a vulnerability that translates to a sexual need, relationships perceived in sexual terms, and relationships that are unsatisfying, non-lasting and that lead to periods of rejection. Female sex offenders that fall under the explanation of emotional disdain (Mayer, 1992), and male-coerced (Mathews et al., 1989), and non-criminal homosexual (Vandiver & Kercher, 2004) typologies would take this pathway of to offending. Those categorized under Mayer's (1992) emotionally disdain typology are motivated by self-centered feelings, jealousy, hate, and a desire for power. Male-coerced offenders are passive and dependent with a sexual abuse history and

relationship difficulties; including fearing abandonment. The non-criminal homosexual offenders tend to act with a male accomplice in order to maintain or repair a dysfunctional relationship.

Pathway 3: Intimacy Deficits. This pathway contains normal sexual scripts, insecure attachments resulting in problems with adult relationships, the development of maladaptive strategies to avoid unsuccessful adult relationships, intimacy deficits *plus* feelings of loneliness, and an individual that substitutes a child as a surrogate partner. Female sex offenders that are categorized in the following explanation and typologies: narcissism (Mayer, 1992), pre-disposed offender (Mathews et al., 1989), and young-adult child exploiters (Vandiver & Kercher, 2004) would take pathway 3 to the sexual abuse of a child. According to Mayer (1992) female sex offenders who are narcissistic tend to molest their own children, have a poor sense of boundaries between her and others, and are insecure. The predisposed offender has a history of incestuous sexual victimization and tends to victimize their children or other young children within their families. The young-adult child exploiters have young victims often related to them, to include their own children.

Pathway 4: Emotional Disregulation. The fourth pathway also has normal sexual scripts, problems with emotional regulation, emotional structures that are both unidentified and uncontrolled, an early established link between sex and emotional well-being, and the use of sex as a soothing strategy. This pathway also consists of the inability to mobilize social supports when stressed, increased anger and emotional disdain, and the use of a child to satisfy sexual needs and/or to punish a current partner. Pathway 4 can be linked to female sex offenders categorized in the male-coerced (Mathews et al., 1989) and pre-disposed offender (Mathews et al., 1989) typologies.

Pathway 5: Antisocial Cognitions. The final pathway consists of normal sexual scripts, pro-criminal attitudes and beliefs, general antisocial tendencies, and patriarchal attitudes. Offenders on pathway 5 also have a sense of superiority, a disregard of social norms re children and sex, and exploitations of opportunities to self gratify (Connolly, 2004). Female sex offenders that fit the narcissism (Mayer, 1992) explanation, and Vandiver and Kercher's (2004) non-criminal homosexual typology can be linked to pathway 5.

All the above pathways have been linked to the corresponding female sex offender typologies. These links indicate this model will also be tested while testing the applicability of the criminological theories and Finkelhor's (1984) model explained in previous sections. Thus, the pathways model will be additional support, or alternative support for current female sex offender typologies and/or the hypotheses outlined in the next section.

Research Question and Hypotheses

Research Questions. The study seeks to understand how child sexual abuse takes place, and whether that differs by males and females. The research questions are:

1. Are there differences between male and female sexual offenders? And

2. Do women sexually abuse children because they have the opportunity to offend, or do they create the opportunity to offend?

To test these questions, measures of substance abuse history, sexual thoughts, urges, and fantasies, relationship to the victim, presence of a co-offender, situational characteristics of offenses, substance abuse history, and victim presence will be tested through the hypotheses explained below and summarized in Table 1.

Hypotheses:

Current literature states that in comparison to non-sexual offenders, sex offenders (both male and female) reported less history of alcohol and drug abuse and female sex offenders reported alcohol and drug abuse histories at a higher rate than male sex offenders. Female sex offenders also have a higher rate of substance use during the commission of a crime (Hislop, 2001) and utilize similar grooming and sexual desensitization techniques to lower external inhibitions and resistance of the child. However this has not been compared across gender within the same sample. To further test this, and compare substance abuse history between male and female sex offenders within the same sample, this study hypothesizes:

HR1: Women are more likely than men to have a history of substance abuse.

The use of drugs or alcohol by the offender will serve to lower internal inhibitions and providing drugs or alcohol to the potential victim would serve as a means of maintaining compliance from the child.

It has been found that female sex offenders have less sexual thoughts, urges, and fantasies consistent with paraphilic interests than their male counterparts, although it can be found in a small group of female sex offenders according to Mathews, et al (1989). Physiological theories indicate men are driven by the innate drive over the situation/routine activities, but there is no research to determine if this holds true for female sex offenders. This implies a true difference, yet to be studied in female sex offenders and the following hypothesis:

HR2: Male sex offenders are more likely than female sex offenders to exhibit thoughts, urges, and fantasies consistent with paraphilic interests.

Female sexual offenders have a pattern of offending against their own children or those they have unlimited access to (Denov, 2003; Johansson-Love & Fremouw, 2005; Terry, 2006). A

prior relationship, biological or other, between the victim(s) and a female offender suggests the environment within which a female offender lives and/or works facilitates access to victim(s) and fosters a situation that facilitates the commission of a sexual offense. This study will be the first to test the offender-victim relationship between the genders using a theoretical foundation. This will add to the theoretical foundation and the applicability of male-centered models of female offenders. Thus, the third research hypothesis is:

HR3: Women are more likely than men to have a prior relationship or be known by their victim(s).

As previously discussed, female sexual offenders tend to know their victim(s) and are more often biologically related to their victims than their male counterparts (Denov, 2003; Denov, 2004; Ford, 2006; Vandiver & Teske, 2006). The presence of a co-offender is also suggested to be a distinct characteristic for female sex offenders (Wakefield & Underwagner, 1991). In contrast, male sex offenders have the tendency to act alone (Araji & Finkelhor, 1985; Freeman and Sandler, 2008). This variable could provide implications for criminal charges, sentencing, and treatment of female sex offenders (Johansson-Love & Fremouw, 2009). Also adding to the techniques of neutralization theory, the following is the fourth research hypothesis:

HR4: Women are more likely than men to have a co-offender

Female sex offender literature and the theoretical foundation of this study supports the notion that the victims are often selected based upon ease or level of access. For example, female sex offenders seemingly base their victim choice and offenses on having a prior or biological relationship with their victim(s), committing offenses in their home, and being in a care-taking role (Denov, 2003; Denov, 2004; Ford, 2006; Johansson-Love & Fremouw, 2005; Terry, 2006; Vandiver & Teske, 2006). In other words, offenders are regularly in situations with, or

encounter victims through their routine activities. These situations may occur naturally, or via the effort of the offender.

These elements combined with the appropriate female sex offender characteristics will support and add to the routine activities, rational choice and situational crime prevention theories and the following research hypothesis:

> HR5: Women are more likely than men to abuse a child with whom they have child care duties.

If there is support for the above hypothesis, situational crime prevention methods will be a successful method in reducing female perpetrated sexual offenses. One of the main components of the opportunity structure and situational crime prevention is the reduction of opportunity. Change in the offenders' routine activities, or target hardening within those situations will lead to the reduction or elimination of these offenses.

Male sex offenders are said to have different offense motivations and characteristics. The proposed study will serve as further analysis of this. Therefore, the situational characteristics of the offense(s) will be analyzed in accordance with the sixth hypothesis:

> HR6: Situational characteristics of sexual offenses will not vary across genders.

A history of sexual abuse is an offender variable that has received a large amount of empirical support (Johansson-Love & Fremouw, 2009) and found as an explanation of female sexual offending (Mayer, 1992). Allen (1991) and Johansson-Love and Fremouw (2009) both determined female sex offenders to have experienced sexual victimization at higher rates than both male sexual offenders and other female offenders. Also, reenactment of an earlier trauma was one of Mayer's three explanations of why women sexually abuse children. However, incarcerated populations and data collection from sex offender files were the primary source of

data for those researchers. The study will utilize data collected through self-report measures and provide expanded analyses of female sexual offenders through the use of situational variables.

Therefore, the study will analyze the gender differences, if any, in regard to a history of sexual abuse and if this has any impact on victim preference/selection through the following two hypotheses:

HR7: Women will be more likely than men to have a history of sexual abuse.

HR8: History of sexual abuse will impact victim preference (part of the offenders' family or not).

Table 1 Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Question(s)	**Theory/Concept**	**Source**
Research Questions: 1. Are there differences between male and female sex offenders? 2. Do women sexually abuse children because they have more access to potential victims than male sex offenders?	Matthews, et al. (1989) and Vandiver & Kercher (2004): Typologies of female sexual offenders.	Denov (2003), FBI (2006), Ford (2006), Lewis & Stanley (2000), Nathan & Ward (2002), Snyder & Sickmond (2006), Terry (2005), US DOJ (2002), Vandiver & Kercher (2004).

Hypotheses	**Theory/Concept**	**Measure/Variables**	**Source**
HR1: Female sex offenders are more likely than male to have a history of substance abuse.	Mayer (1992) Explanation of female sexual offending. Routine Activities Theory (RAT) Techniques of Neutralization	**Independent Variables (IV): (0 = male, 1 = female)** Gender **Dependent Variables (DV): (0 = no, 1 = yes)** -Drink alcohol or use drugs? -Taken an illegal substance. -Bought an illegal substance.	Mayer (1992), Denov (2003), FBI (2006), Ford (2006), Lewis & Stanley (2000), Nathan & Ward (2002), Snyder & Sickmond (2006), Terry (2006), US DOJ (2002), Vandiver & Kercher (2004), Vandiver & Teske (2006).
HR2: Male sex offenders are more likely than female sex offenders to exhibit thoughts, urges and fantasies consistent with paraphilic interests.	Mathews et al (1989), Terry (2006) RAT Situational Crime Prevention (SCP)	**IV:** Gender **DVs: (0 = no, 1 = yes)** -Felt the urge to act out sexually? -I had sexual thoughts about violence? -I had sexual thoughts about someone under the age of 18? -I had sexual thoughts about a child? -I had the urge to flash someone? -I wanted to watch someone get undressed when they didn't know I was looking -Had a sexual fantasy that other people might consider deviant or wrong?	Mathews et al (1989), Terry (2006)
HR3: Female sex offenders are more likely than male sex offenders to have a prior relationship or be known by their victim(s).	Power-control theory (PCT), RAT, and SCP	**IV:** Gender **DV:** -Overall my victims were… (0 = part of my family, 1 = not part of my family) -How did you meet your victim? (0 = friend/family, 1 = stranger)	Denov (2003), Johansson-Love & Fremouw (2005), Terry (2006).
HR4: Female sex offenders are more likely than male sex offenders to have a co-offender.	RAT, SLT, PCT	**IV:** Gender **DV:** -When I engaged in this act I (0 = acted alone, 1 = acted with someone else)	Felson (2003), Ford (2006), Lewis & Stanley (2000), Nathan & Ward (2001).
HR5: Female sex offenders are more likely	Routine activities theory (RAT) and	**IV:** Gender	Denov (2003), Denov (2004), Ford (2006), Freeman & Sandler (2008), Johansson-Love &

to abuse a child with whom they have child care duties.	Situational crime prevention (SCP)	**DV:** -Overall the people or person involved in the act was (0 = male, 1 = female) -Most often the offense(s) occurred -Overall my victims were… -How did you meet your victim?	Fremouw (2005), Johnston & Johnston (1997), Terry (2006), Terry & Ackerman (2008), Vandiver & Kercher (2004), Vandiver & Teske (2006).
HR6: Situational characteristics of sexual offenses will not vary across genders.	Matthews, et al. (1989) and Vandiver & Kercher (2004): Typologies of female sexual offenders, RAT, SCP	**IVs:** Gender **DV:** -Most often the offense(s) occurred -Overall my victims were… -How did you meet your victim?	Denov (2003), FBI (2006), Ford (2006), Lewis & Stanley (2000), Nathan & Ward (2002), Snyder & Sickmond (2006), Terry (2006), US DOJ (2002), Vandiver & Kercher (2004).
HR7: Female sex offenders will be more likely than male sex offenders to have a history of sexual abuse.	Mayer (1992) Explanation of female sexual offending and Social learning theory (SLT)	**IV:** Gender **DV:** -Have you ever been the victim of sexual assault or sexual abuse? (0 = no, 1 = yes) -If yes, what age did this happen at? (open-ended) -What was your relationship to the offender? (0 = part of the family/friend, 1 = stranger) -What was the gender of your abuser? (0 = male, 1 = female)	Mayer (1992), Terry (2006)
HR8: Female sex offenders are more likely to have their history of sexual abuse impact victim preference.	Routine activities theory (RAT) and Situational crime prevention (SCP)	**IV:** Gender **DV:** -Have you ever been the victim of sexual assault or sexual abuse? -If yes, what age did this happen at? -What was your relationship to the offender? -What was the gender of your abuser? -Overall my victims were… -Age of victims?	Freeman & Sandler (2008), Johansson-Love & Fremouw (2005), Johnston & Johnston (1997), Terry & Ackerman (2008), Vandiver & Kercher (2004).
			-***Control Variables*** -***Age*** -***Marital status*** -***Race*** -***Risk level*** -***Current Job Status*** -***Education***

Chapter 3. Methodology, Data, and Analysis

Methodology

To examine the differences between male and female-perpetrated sexual offenses, data collected by Ackerman (2009) were used. The original study was designed to assess the collateral consequences[1] of sex crimes legislation, and their effects on offenders with regard to recidivism. Ackerman (2009) built a survey based upon Levinson and Cotter's 2005 survey to assess the impact of community notification on sex offenders. The original survey was modified to add various scales to include the Beck Depression Inventory [BDI-II] and the Beck Hopelessness Scale (BHS). The survey was then mailed to a random sample of 4500 offenders listed on registries in Kansas, Montana and Nebraska, as these states were similar in populations and demographics, to compare the collateral consequences of registered sex offenders (Ackerman, 2009).

The original study (Ackerman, 2009) measured collateral consequences both pre- and post- registration. Included in these measures were substance abuse history, physical and sexual abuse histories, deviant sexual thoughts, urges, and fantasies, victim characteristics (to include relationship to the offender), and situational characteristics of their offenses. This study will measure if male and female sex offenders differ on those measures pre-registration, as it is assumed a registered offender will not commit subsequent offenses post-registration.

[1] Collateral consequences are defined as the impact Registration and Community Notification Laws (RCNL) have on the registered sex offender. Beck and Travis (2003) stated that these collateral or unintended consequences can be evidenced in various realms, including: housing, employment, and interpersonal relationships (Ackerman, 2009).

Procedures and Missing Data. The fully redacted dataset provided by Ackerman (2009) yielded a usable sample of 283 registered offenders, 9% (N=27) of which are female. Fitzgerald and Cox (2002) found a 10% response rate to be typical with mailed questionnaires, and Mercado et al. (2008) reported a 9.5% response rate for sex offenders. Ackerman (2009) had a 6.3% response rate; however, both the original study and this study are exploratory in nature, making this small sample usable for this research and as a foundation for future research. Also, self-report measures are found to be a reliable measure for the comparison of male and female sex offenders as supported by Thornberry and Krohn (2000), and Eck (2006).

Overall, there was a high volume of missing data. This could be attributed to refusal to answer, over-looking or forgetting to answer (this is very common with surveys), the information is unknown or unavailable, and/or not applicable (Allison, 2001). The most common way to handle missing data is to omit those cases with missing data. Thus, only those cases with data recorded for the variables being tested were included in analyses. However, before any cases were deleted from the dataset and individual hypotheses were tested, t-tests were run on all variables in the data set to measure for any overall differences between genders. No significant differences were found.

Since omitting cases with missing data would severely diminish an already small sample, tests were run to determine if the data were missing completely at random (MCAR), missing at random (MAR), ignorable or non-ignorable. The study seeks to measure the differences, if any, between male and female sex offenders, and what variables may impact those differences. Therefore, control variables such as age, marital status, risk level, current job status and education level were selected, based on current literature, to determine if the significant differences found were truly due to gender or if any of the control variables impacted

significance. T-tests were run controlling for the above variables individually and all at once. The presence of the control variable, in combination or alone, did not impact significance; therefore, the data were determined to be MCAR, meaning the probability of missing data in a variable is unrelated to the value of that variable itself or to the values of any other variable in the data set (Allison, 2001). Because of this, listwise deletion was the method chosen to address missing data as it can be used for any kind of statistical analysis and no special computational methods are required (Allison, 2001).

Measures

Substance Abuse History. Previous research has found that, in comparison to non-sexual offenders, both male and female sex offenders reported a history of alcohol and drug abuse at a lower rate. And in regard to sex offenders alone, females reported alcohol and drug abuse histories at a higher rate than males (Hislop, 2001). Female sex offenders have a higher rate of substance use during the commission of a crime than all offenders (Hislop, 2001) and use grooming and sexual desensitization techniques (such as alcohol and drugs) to lower external inhibitions and resistance of the child (Bennell, Alison, Stein, Alison, & Canter, 2001; Elliot, Browne, & Kilcoyne, 1995; Nicaise, Bois, Fairclough, Amorose, & Cogerino, 2007; Shakeshaft, 2003; & Sullivan & Beech, 2002). To replicate these findings with the theoretical foundation of techniques of neutralization, the study seeks to test if female sex offenders are more likely than male sex offenders to have a history of substance abuse. This will support the theoretical integration of techniques of neutralization and the use of grooming techniques by female sex offenders.

Three variables were used in analyses to determine if having a history of substance abuse varied across the genders of sexual offenders:

- "Did you drink alcohol or used drugs?"
- "Have you taken an illegal substance?" and
- "Have you bought an illegal substance?"

The original dataset coded the above variables with categories indicating the frequency of occurrence, for example 0 = Never, 1 = 1-3 times, etc. The current study dichotomously recoded each variable as 0=No, 1=Yes for logistic regression analysis. This will measure if gender is a statistically significant predictor of women in the sample reporting a history of substance abuse more often than the men in the sample.

Thoughts, Urges, and Fantasies Consistent with Paraphilic Interests. Previous research has found that female sex offenders have less thoughts, urges, and fantasies consistent with paraphilic interests than their male counterparts (Allen, 1991; Terry, 2006). Although Mathews, et al (1989) found these thoughts in a small group of female sex offenders, the study seeks to test for differences in deviant sexual thoughts, urges, and fantasies between the men and women in this sample to further support Mathews et al.'s (1989) typologies as well as treatment methods. Previous research indicates that the deviant sexual thoughts, fantasies, and urges that are present among male sexual offenders, are not found among their female counterparts (Bennell, Alison, Stein, Alison, & Canter, 2001; & Elliot, Browne, & Kilcoyne, 1995). This is not limited to regressed male sexual offenders (sexual offenders that are typically attracted to adults, but abuse children as a reaction to negative triggers in their lives (Johnston & Johnston, 1997)), but the male sexual offender population as a whole (Nicaise, Bois, Fairclough, Amorose, & Cogerino, 2007; Shakeshaft, 2003; & Sullivan & Beech, 2002).

Measuring the presence of thoughts, urges, and fantasies consistent with paraphilic interests among female sex offenders is limited to date. And of those studies finding the presence of these deviant sexual thoughts, urges, and fantasies; there is no comparison of these thoughts to

those of their male counterparts. Thus, the following questions/variables were used to test hypothesis 2 in order to determine if deviant sexual thoughts, urges, and fantasies consistent with paraphilic interests are a characteristic exclusive to male sex offenders:

- "I felt the urge to act out sexually."
- "I had sexual thoughts about violence."
- "I had sexual thoughts about someone under the age of 18."
- "I had sexual thoughts about a child."
- "I had the urge to flash someone."
- "I wanted to watch someone get undressed when they didn't know I was looking."
- "Had a sexual fantasy that other people might consider deviant or wrong."

Originally coded: 0=Never; 1 = Once; 2 = 2-3 times; 3 = 4-5 times; 4= 6-10 times; 5= 10 times or more, these variables were also dichotomously recoded 0 = "No" and 1 to 5 = "Yes" to set up logistic regression models to determine if any differences existed between male and female sex offenders in support of previous research.

Relationship to the Victim. Patterns found in the literature show that women who commit sexual offenses tend to prey on those younger, smaller and weaker than themselves, and those to whom they have easy and/or unlimited access. Female sex offenders have a tendency to commit offenses against persons whom they are related to or those well known to them (Nathan & Ward, 2002; Vandiver & Kercher, 2004). Victimization of those related to the offender is more common in women; however, both men and women are likely to be known by their victim. This level of access and opportunity for female sex offenders suggests that they are more likely to be known to or have a prior relationship with their victims than their male counterparts.

The victim-offender relationship is yet to be empirically tested, with theoretical support, on a sample of female sex offenders with a male sex offender control group. Thus,

to test if the relationship to the victim varied across the genders the following variables were tested:

- "Overall my victims were…" and
- "How did you meet your victim?"

Both variables were open-ended survey questions with limitless responses. Participants indicated victim(s) were a child, step-child, friends of their children, a child they coached, etc. Participants also indicated they met their victim in several ways such as through their children, they took care of them, were introduced through family members or friends, etc. The study sought to measure a prior relationship with less specificity, focusing on if the offender was a stranger, or known to the victim, and if the victim was related to the offender. Thus, considering the wide range of possible responses the variables were recoded, 0 = "family/friend" and 1 = "Stranger" and 0 = "Part of my family" or 1 = "Not part of my family" respectively. The test of this hypothesis will add to the limited, empirical testing on the opportunity and access to victims of female sex offenders.

Presence of a Co-Offender. The fourth hypothesis that will be examined focuses on the presence of a co-offender. Current literature reveals that acting with co-defendants frequently occurs among female sex offenders (Ford, 2006; Lewis & Stanley, 2000; Nathan & Ward, 2001), and they are more likely to commit sex offenses with men, either in concert with a male or as a result of coercion (Grayston & De Luca 1999; Wakefield & Underwagner, 1991). Overall, females are more likely to be coerced into "any" criminal activity by a co-offender than males, and they justify their behavior by having an accomplice. Male sex offenders tend to offend alone (Finkelhor & Williams, 1988; Solomon 1992). This study will be one of the first to test this element unique to female sex offenders within the same sample. Additionally, this study will use the findings from this test to support the

application of the social learning theory, techniques of neutralization, and power control theories as the foundation of the etiology of female-perpetrated sexual offenses.

The variable used for this analysis was

- "When I engaged in this act I: acted alone, acted with another male or acted with another female (select only one option)."

Responses were dichotomously recoded into 0 = "Alone" and 1 = "With someone else." It should be noted that 71% of the male offenders in the sample reported that they engaged in sexual offenses 'with another female' (n = 179). Further examination of the data revealed that 64% of the male offenders (n = 161) also reported that their victims were female as well. This is an indicator that respondents may have misunderstood the questions and considered those "engaging" in the act to *include* the victim as well as the offenders. However, if the question was *not* misinterpreted, this would refute current literature and the idea that the presence of a co-offender is unique to female-perpetrated sexual offenses and that co-offending is not a result of threat or coercion, but potentially a general sex offender preference.

Access to Victims and Situational Characteristics of Offenses. Additional variables were added to the above hypothesis on the presence of a co-offender to create a fifth hypothesis to address female sex offenders and their opportunities to offend. The fifth hypothesis will test if female sex offenders in the sample are more likely to abuse a child with whom they have child care duties than their male counterparts testing the applicability of the routine activities and situational crime prevention theories. The literature indicates that female sex offenders tend to be in care taking roles, teacher or mentor positions, or in some profession that allows unlimited access to children/a potential pool of victims (Denov, 2003; Johansson-Love & Fremouw, 2005; Terry, 2006). To test this, the following variables were added:

"Overall the people or person involved in the act was: male, female, or both." (Select one option)

"Most often the offense(s) occurred." (Open-ended)

"Overall my victims were." (Open-ended)

"How did you meet your victim(s)?" (Open-ended)

The survey question "Most often the offense(s) occurred" yielded responses such as in my home, in a park, in a car, in the victim's home, etc. Participants then responded to the relationship they had to their victim(s) such as friend of the family, friend of my child's, I took care of my victim, etc. Lastly, participants responded to how they met their victim(s). Participants met their victim(s) through their children, child care responsibilities, through family members, and/or friends as also indicated in the hypothesis measuring the relationship to the victim(s). For the logictic regression analysis, responses to these questions were dichotomously recoded 0 = "My home or the victim's home" and 1 = "Other location," 0 = "family/friend" and 1 = "Stranger," and 0 = "Part of my family" or 1 = "Not part of my family" respectively. The various responses were grouped accordingly to broadly identify access to victims and relationship to victims. If significant differences were found between how male sex offenders and female sex offenders access and were related to their victim(s), then further analyses would be conducted to determine if the exact relationship and location(s) were also statistically significant.

Female-perpetrated offenses have a pattern of being incestuous and are sexual acts against children that can fall under the guise of routine care taking activities (Denov, 2003; Johansson-Love & Fremouw, 2005; Terry, 2006). The majority of offenses occur in the victims' homes, and a babysitting situation is common for female-perpetrated sexual

offenses. Weapons are not often used, but in the low number of instances a weapon was used to threaten or coerce, not for actual violence (Lewis & Stanley, 2000).

Yet, the situational contexts of the offenses are not variables considered in female sex offender research. Block (1981) suggested that in order to understand crime event outcomes (e.g., the sexual offense), it is important to consider the situational factors that surround the offense. This enables criminologists to complete a script of what happens prior to the offense, supporting current typologies and identifying implications for prevention. This further supports the suggestion that the behaviors and characteristics before the offense, and the situation in which the offense occurred—in other words, how the opportunity to offend exists or was created--are important variables in the study of female sex offenders. Thus, the sixth hypothesis examined will test if the situational characteristics of sexual offenses vary across genders.

In addition to the variables measuring how a respondent met their victim and their relationship to the victim, the following question was included: "Most often the offense(s) occurred" (refer to previous coding explanation). was added to the model as measurements of situational characteristics and to determine if these measures vary across the genders.

Sexual Abuse History. Female sex offenders also have a higher likelihood of past sexual and ongoing, physical victimization than their male counterparts (Ford, 2006; Lewis & Stanley, 2000; Nathan & Ward, 2001). Their offending behavior is, in many cases, associated with abusive backgrounds and/or psychological disorders stemming from a longstanding history of various types of abuse and unstable households (Terry, 2006).

A majority (studies show percentages ranging from 50% to 95%) of female sex offenders experienced physical (nonsexual) abuse (Allen, 1991; Kaplan & Green 1995;

Miccio-Fonseca, 2000) and Lewis and Stanley (2000) reported that 80% of female sex offenders experienced physical abuse later in life by a male sexual partner or had been threatened with it. This trend lead to the formulation of hypothesis seven in order to expand on previous research with empirical testing and the application of a theoretical framework: female sex offenders will be more likely than male sex offenders to have a history of sexual abuse.

To test hypothesis 7 the following variables were used:

- "Have you ever been the victim of sexual abuse or sexual assault?" (coded 0 = "No," and 1 = "Yes")
- "If yes, at what age did this happen?" (coded 0 = "Child" or 1 = "Teen")
- "What was your relationship to the offender?" (coded 0 = "Friend/Family" and 1 = "Other") and
- "What was the gender of the abuser?" (coded 0 = "Male" and 1 = "Female")

Victim Preference. Several variables play an important role in victim selection. According to Terry (2006), the percentage of sex offenders that are women increases as the victims' age decreases, and Mayer (1992) suggests that female-perpetrated sexual offenses are a reenactment of past sexual abuse. If true, the females will be more likely to choose a victim of the same age and from the same type of relationship as when she was sexually abused as a child. And like their male counterparts, victim selection in female perpetrated sexual abuse is not only impacted by compliance and secrecy, but also by the ability to control the victim (Shakeshaft, 2003).

To date, research has mixed findings on the victim preference of female sex offenders. The study will expand this research in effort to establish any victim preference of female sex offenders, and compare this to their male counterparts. This will also be the first study to date to assess the impact of previous sexual abuse on victim selection in registered female sex offenders.

Combining characteristics of an offenders' sexual abuse history, with victim preference lead to the formulation of an eighth hypothesis adding the questions "Overall my victims were" and "Age of Victims" to hypothesis 7 (refer to Chapter 2, Table 1).

Independent Variable

The study will test for any differences between male and female sex offenders (gender) on the key variables listed in the previous section. Sex offender research has expanded in its examination of female sex offenders; however, comparison research is lacking for adult populations. Additionally, situational characteristics of the offenses are not considered. Therefore the independent variable is Gender, coded 0 = "male" and 1 = female.

Control Variables

Research has shown that female sex offenders are most commonly Caucasian with an age range between 26-36 years of age (Nathan & Ward, 2002). They exhibit a history of childhood sexual victimization, mental health symptoms, including personality disorders, have substance abuse problems, difficulties in intimate relationships or an absence of intimate relationships, have a tendency to commit offenses against persons whom they are related to or those well known to them (Nathan & Ward, 2002; Vandiver & Kercher, 2004) and tend to be less violent in nature (Terry, 2006). They also tend to have lower educational levels and lower paying jobs than non-offending females (Lewis & Stanley, 2000).

Considering the above profile created through previous research and current literature, the following control variables will be included in analyses: Age (continuous variable), Marital Status (coded 0 = "Married," 1 = "Not married"), Race (coded 0 = "White," 1 = "Not White"), Income (continuous variable), Job Status (0 = "Not employed,"

1 = “Employed”), and Education (continuous variable). The inclusion of these control variables will determine if any statistically significant differences found are truly because of gender and not some extraneous variable. As the descriptive statistics in Table 2 and Table 3 show; a male offender in this sample is most likely to be 44 years old, employed full-time with an approximate annual income of $23,000, and married or cohabitating. A female offender in this sample is most likely to also be Caucasian, approximately 42 years old, employed full-time with an approximate annual income of $12,000, and married or cohabitating. The women in this sample are consistent with the current literature in terms of having a lower average annual income than their male counterparts, and race (Caucasian); however, this sample contradicts current literature with the female sex offenders in the sample having education levels similar to their male counterparts and full-time employment.

Table 2 Average Age, Education and Income of Respondents by Gender

Variable	**Male**	**Female**
Age	44.09	41.46
Education	4.42	4.41
Income	$22,925.52	$12,367.28

Note: No significant differences found between men and women
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 3 **Percentage of Respondents that are Employed, White, and Married by Gender**

Variable	**Male**	**Female**
Employed	61.26%	52%
White	18.52%	12.10%
Married	29.03%	33.33%

Note: No significant differences found between men and women
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 4 Descriptive Statistics Presented in the Analysis (N = 278)

Key Variables	**Male**	**Female**
Gender	251	27
Use Alcohol or drugs	41.43% (103)	40.74% (10)
Taken an Illegal Substance	47.81% (120)	44.44% (12)
Bought and Illegal Substance	37.45% (94)	29.63% (8)
Reported the urge to act out sexually	35.86% (90)	7.41% (2)
Reported having deviant sexual thoughts	12.4% (31)	0 (0)
Reported having sexual thoughts about someone under 18	45.02% (113)	14.81% (4)
Reported having sexual thoughts about a child	24.60% (61)	0 (0)
Reported the urge to flash someone	9.56% (24)	0 (0)
Reported the urge to watch someone undress w/out them knowing	31.47% (79)	3.70% (1)
Reported sexual fantasies that another would view as deviant	41.04% (103)	14.81% (4)
Overall my victims were part of my family	17.26% (43)	29.41% (7)
How did you meet your victim(s)?	64.60% (162)	90% (24)
When I engaged in this act I acted with someone else	18.37% (46)	31.25% (8)
A co-offender was present	87.75% (220)	66.67% (18)
Most often the offense(s) occurred in my home or the victims' home	32.31% (81)	31.25% (8)
Has been the victim of sexual assault	42.74% (107)	42.31% (11)
Was the victim of a sexual assault as a child	47.57% (119)	45.45% (12)
Participant was related to the person who sexually abused them	46.30% (116)	36.36% (10)
Participants' abuser was male	28.57% (71)	7.69% (2)
Participants' victims were children	69.74% (175)	60% (16)

Note: No significant differences found between men and women
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Data Analysis Strategy

All measures were dichotomously re-coded and logistic regression techniques were employed to answer the question of how gender and the key variables are related, or if there is

any relationship between them. All hypotheses were tested without the inclusion of any control variables, after which several models were set up, adding control variables individually. The control variables will be used to determine if any significant differences are based on gender alone or if significance is impacted by the control variables either alone or in combination with one another.

Chapter 4. Results

Demographics and Representativeness

In November 2008 Ackerman created a database of the names and addresses of all registered sex and violent offenders in Kansas, Nebraska, and Montana. This database created a group of 6,443 offenders to sample from, 96.5% of which were male and 2.8% were female. Regarding race, Whites comprised 83.3% of the overall database and 87.5% of the sample. Blacks comprised 11.3% of the database and 2.9% of the sample. Native Americans comprised 3.6% of the database and 2.9% of the sample. The database did not account for Hispanic/Latino individuals; however, 5.0% of the sample reported being Hispanic. Descriptive analyses indicate the sample is not generalizable of the population (Ackerman, 2009).

Logistic Regression Models[2]

Logistic regression was used to assess if gender was a statistically significant predictor of whether or not a registered sex offender in the sample would report having a substance abuse history, thoughts, urges, and fantasies consistent with paraphilic interests, a prior relationship with the victim(s), the presence of a co-offender, access to victims, certain situational characteristics of the offense(s), having a history of sexual abuse, and victim preference. Other variables, often cited in the literature as differences between male and female sex offenders, were then introduced as control variables in additional models as described in the previous chapter. Due to a disparity across the categories in the variable

[2] All models were conducted with dummy variables for race, education, and marital status. State, risk level, and registration were also introduced as control variables. These variables were not significant and did not increase the strength of the model – these models are not reported.

Race, it was recoded into 0 = White, and 1 = Non-White to determine any statistical significance, if any, between the genders while controlling for race. A final regression model was also run controlling for all the above variables simultaneously. [3]

Substance Abuse History. As shown in tables 5, 6, and 7, tests of the first hypothesis regarding substance abuse were not significant. In other words, gender did not predict the presence of a substance abuse history. Table 5 shows there were age differences in that as age increased, offenders in the sample were more likely to report having taken, bought or consumed an illegal substance. However, men and women in the sample reported having a history of substance abuse at approximately the same rate rejecting Hypothesis 1. Additionally, the inclusion of the control variables had no effect on the predictive ability of gender.

[3] The difference in the number of cases across the models reflects listwise deletion of missing cases in all variables.

Table 5 Logistic Regression Predicting Access to the Victim(s) While Controlling for Gender

	Gender			*Age*			*Employment*		
VARIABLES	Taken	Bought	Consumed	Taken	Bought	Consumed	Taken	Bought	Consumed
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Female	-0.0287	-0.135	-0.352	-0.0941	-0.135	-0.357	0.206	-0.220	-0.456
	(0.412)	(0.407)	(0.441)	(0.431)	(0.417)	(0.448)	(0.442)	(0.429)	(0.470)
Age				0.0463***	0.0198**	0.0185*			
				(0.0109)	(0.00978)	(0.0102)			
Part-time							0.499	0.316	0.0823
							(0.452)	(0.444)	(0.458)
Full time							-0.510*	0.0793	0.109
							(0.305)	(0.301)	(0.313)
Welfare							1.307**	0.0531	0.00992
							(0.563)	(0.484)	(0.508)
Other Job							-1.366	-0.313	0.140
							(1.144)	(0.945)	(0.947)
Constant	-0.346***	0.0877	0.513***	1.675***	0.800*	0.303	-0.0206	0.0926	0.545**
	(0.128)	(0.126)	(0.130)	(0.484)	(0.448)	(0.460)	(0.243)	(0.243)	(0.253)
Observations	278	278	278	273	273	273	247	247	247

Note: Employment reference group - Unemployed
Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 6 Logistic Regression Predicting a History of Substance Abuse While Controlling for Race and Education

	Race			Race (recoded)			Education		
VARIABLES	Taken	Bought	Consumed	Taken	Bought	Consumed	Taken	Bought	Consumed
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Female	0.0110	-0.168	-0.444	-0.0458	-0.142	-0.355	-0.0431	-0.154	-0.366
	(0.424)	(0.416)	(0.456)	(0.413)	(0.410)	(0.444)	(0.413)	(0.409)	(0.442)
Black	1.469*	0.701	1.168						
	(0.827)	(0.742)	(0.745)						
Native American	-0.885	0.448	0.973						
	(0.819)	(0.691)	(0.698)						
Latino	0.525	0.993	0.162						
	(0.572)	(0.615)	(0.587)						
Other	-1.014	-1.218	-0.787						
	(1.126)	(1.126)	(1.127)						
White				0.201	0.479	0.485			
				(0.364)	(0.366)	(0.367)			
							-0.0829	-0.150*	-0.0673
Education							(0.0871)	(0.0872)	(0.0887)
Constant	-0.372***	-0.169	-0.600***	-0.367***	-0.171	-0.607***	0.0330	0.589	-0.204
	(0.137)	(0.135)	(0.141)	(0.137)	(0.135)	(0.141)	(0.404)	(0.406)	(0.410)
Observations	275	275	275	275	275	275	276	276	276

Note: Race reference group - White
Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 7 Logistic Regression Predicting a History of Substance Abuse While Controlling for Income and Marital Status

	Income			Marital Status		
VARIABLES	Taken	Bought	Consumed	Taken	Bought	Consumed
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Female	-0.147	-0.438	-0.660	-0.132	-0.163	-0.371
	(0.436)	(0.433)	(0.473)	(0.426)	(0.413)	(0.448)
Income	-4.95e-07	-1.38e-05**	-1.08e-05			
	(5.04e-06)	(6.79e-06)	(6.83e-06)			
Divorced/Widowed				-0.102	0.439	0.438
				(0.318)	(0.310)	(0.330)
Single				0.213	0.345	0.604*
				(0.317)	(0.314)	(0.331)
Cohabitating				1.338**	0.590	0.759
				(0.541)	(0.505)	(0.516)
Constant	-0.253	0.366*	-0.154	-0.464**	-0.357	-0.887***
	(0.184)	(0.203)	(0.202)	(0.233)	(0.231)	(0.250)
Observations	223	223	223	275	275	275

Note: Marital Status reference group - Married
Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Thoughts, Urges, and Fantasies Consistent with Paraphilic Interests. Gender was a statistically significant predictor of the variables measuring thoughts, urges, and fantasies consistent with paraphilic interests shown in Table 8. Specifically, the urge to act out sexually: (χ^2 (1), = 11.20, p=.009), having a sexual thought about someone under the age of 18: (χ^2 (1), = 10.38, p=.005), having the urge to watch someone get undressed without them knowing: (χ^2 (1), = 12.54, p=.016), and having a sexual thought others would consider deviant: (χ^2 (1), = 8.11, p=.012) supporting the second hypothesis, as well as current literature, in that women are less likely than men to report deviant sexual thoughts, urges, and/or fantasies (consistent with paraphilic interests). No woman in the sample reported having deviant sexual thoughts, sexual thoughts about a child, or the urge to flash someone highlighted in Table 8. Thus, these analyses were dropped from the model. Tables 9 and 10 show that when controlling for race, education and marital status; gender is the only predictor variable that remains significant ($p<.05$), strengthening the predictive ability of gender on deviant sexual thoughts, urges, and/or fantasies. However, controlling for job status, education and marital status affected significance in other parts of the model. There were differences in White shown in Table 9, differences in Cohabitation shown in Table 10 and also differences in Welfare as shown in Table 11.

Table 8 Logistic Regression Predicting the Presence of Thoughts, Urges, and Fantasies Consistent with Paraphilic Interests While Controlling for Age

	Gender				Age			
VARIABLES	Urge to act out sexually (1)	Sexual thought under 18 (2)	Watch someone undress (3)	Deviant sexual thought (4)	Urge to act out sexually (5)	Sexual thought under 18 (6)	Watch someone undress (7)	Deviant sexual thought (8)
Female	-1.950***	-1.557***	-2.486**	-1.393**	-1.889**	-1.464***	-2.432**	-1.312**
	(0.747)	(0.556)	(1.028)	(0.557)	(0.749)	(0.560)	(1.029)	(0.560)
Age					0.0141	0.0151	0.00912	0.0157
					(0.0103)	(0.00994)	(0.0107)	(0.0100)
Constant	-0.575***	-0.193	-0.772***	-0.356***	-1.191**	-0.880*	-1.171**	-1.056**
	(0.132)	(0.127)	(0.136)	(0.128)	(0.479)	(0.458)	(0.495)	(0.464)
Observations	277	277	277	277	272	272	272	272

Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 9 Logistic Regression Predicting the Presence of Thoughts, Urges, and Fantasies Consistent with Paraphilic Interests While Controlling for Race

	Race				Race (recoded)			
VARIABLES	Urge to act out sexually (1)	Sexual thought under 18 (2)	Watch someone undress (3)	Deviant sexual thought (4)	Urge to act out sexually (5)	Sexual thought under 18 (6)	Watch someone undress (7)	Deviant sexual thought (8)
Gender	-2.045***	-1.593***	-2.613**	-1.388**	-1.952***	-1.555***	-2.506**	-1.392**
	(0.753)	(0.562)	(1.036)	(0.561)	(0.747)	(0.558)	(1.029)	(0.558)
Black	0.173	-1.738	0.440	-1.559				
	(0.763)	(1.083)	(0.769)	(1.083)				
Native American	0.317	-0.179	0.635	-0.629				
	(0.774)	(0.757)	(0.793)	(0.836)				
Latino	-0.607	-0.287	0.0511	0.215				
	(0.678)	(0.592)	(0.627)	(0.579)				
Other		-1.295		-1.108				
		(1.126)		(1.126)				
White					-0.379	-0.668*	0.0372	-0.493
					(0.417)	(0.403)	(0.410)	(0.402)
Constant	-0.510***	-0.0912	-0.757***	-0.278**	-0.513***	-0.0932	-0.759***	-0.278**
	(0.140)	(0.135)	(0.145)	(0.137)	(0.140)	(0.135)	(0.145)	(0.137)
Observations	274	274	274	274	274	274	274	274

Note: Race reference group - White
Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 10 Logistic Regression Predicting the Presence of Thoughts, Urges, and Fantasies Consistent with Paraphilic Interests While Controlling for Education and Marital Status

	Education				Marital Status			
VARIABLES	Urge to act out sexually (1)	Sexual thought under 18 (2)	Watch someone undress (3)	Deviant sexual thought (4)	Urge to act out sexually (5)	Sexual thought under 18 (6)	Watch someone undress (7)	Deviant sexual thought (8)
Gender	-1.966***	-1.575***	-2.498**	-1.415**	-1.916**	-1.717***	-2.520**	-1.545***
	(0.747)	(0.557)	(1.028)	(0.559)	(0.749)	(0.581)	(1.032)	(0.576)
Education	0.108	0.102	0.0506	0.173*				
	(0.0944)	(0.0894)	(0.0968)	(0.0924)				
Divorced or Widowed					0.363	0.253	0.239	0.205
					(0.340)	(0.324)	(0.358)	(0.324)
Single					0.392	0.386	0.430	-0.0148
					(0.341)	(0.325)	(0.355)	(0.330)
Cohabitating					0.264	1.501***	0.735	1.236**
					(0.564)	(0.561)	(0.561)	(0.540)
Constant	-1.044**	-0.630	-0.985**	-1.114**	-0.856***	-0.504**	-1.044***	-0.512**
	(0.444)	(0.417)	(0.452)	(0.435)	(0.255)	(0.239)	(0.267)	(0.239)
Observations	275	275	275	275	274	274	274	274

Note: Marital Status reference group - Married
Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 11 Logistic Regression Predicting the Presence of Thoughts, Urges, and Fantasies Consistent with Paraphilic Interests While Controlling for Income and Employment Status

	Income				Employment			
VARIABLES	Urge to act out sexually (1)	Sexual thought under 18 (2)	Watch someone undress (3)	Deviant sexual thought (4)	Urge to act out sexually (5)	Sexual thought under 18 (6)	Watch someone undress (7)	Deviant sexual thought (8)
Gender	-2.128***	-1.624***	-2.690***	-1.524***	-2.527**	-1.701***	-2.353**	-1.593**
	(0.755)	(0.567)	(1.034)	(0.567)	(1.034)	(0.636)	(1.034)	(0.635)
Income	-1.09e-05	-3.46e-06	-1.10e-05	-1.77e-06				
	(6.96e-06)	(5.21e-06)	(7.31e-06)	(5.10e-06)				
Part-time					-0.172	-0.131	-0.501	-0.309
					(0.474)	(0.456)	(0.510)	(0.462)
Full-time					-0.330	-0.446	-0.342	-0.398
					(0.322)	(0.311)	(0.330)	(0.311)
On Welfare					-1.327*	-1.126**	-0.783	-1.009*
					(0.678)	(0.571)	(0.618)	(0.571)
Other Job					-1.074	0.320	0.916	0.446
					(1.146)	(0.946)	(0.949)	(0.946)
Constant	-0.186	0.00779	-0.359*	-0.112	-1.089	0.387	0.961	0.531
	(0.204)	(0.185)	(0.209)	(0.184)	(0.741)	(0.832)	(0.676)	(0.231)
Observations	222	222	222	222	246	246	246	246

Note: Employment reference group - Unemployed
Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Relationship to the Victim(s). As shown in Tables 12, 13, and 14, gender was not a statistically significant predictor of having a relationship to one's victims at the 0.05 level; rejecting Hypothesis 3, current literature and past research that female sex offenders are more likely to have a prior relationship with or be known by their victim than male sex offenders.

Table 12 Logistic Regression Predicting a Previous Victim-Offender Relationship While Controlling for Age and Employment

	Gender		Age		Employment	
VARIABLES	Prior relationship with victim (1)	How did you meet your victim? (2)	Relationship with victim (3)	How did you meet your victim? (4)	Relationship with victim (5)	How did you meet your victim? (6)
Female	1.243	1.571	1.300	1.122	1.402	1.430
	(0.681)	(1.067)	(0.702)	(1.080)	(0.718)	(1.081)
Age			0.00590	-0.0448***		
			(0.0169)	(0.0140)		
Part-time					0.671	-0.370
					(0.832)	(0.651)
Full time					1.208**	-1.043**
					(0.613)	(0.465)
Welfare					1.167	-1.036
					(0.860)	(0.698)
Constant	-1.649***	0.626***	-1.911**	2.650***	-2.510***	1.421***
	(0.218)	(0.169)	(0.790)	(0.668)	(0.554)	(0.395)
Observations	165	165	165	165	146	146

Note: Employment reference group - Unemployed
Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 13 Logistic Regression Predicting a Previous Victim-Offender Relationship While Controlling for Race and Education

	Race		Race (recoded)		Education	
VARIABLES	Prior relationship with victim (1)	How did you meet your victim? (2)	Prior relationship with victim (3)	How did you meet your victim? (4)	Prior relationship with victim (5)	How did you meet your victim? (6)
Female	1.277*	1.614	1.277*	1.614	1.320*	1.536
	(0.688)	(1.069)	(0.688)	(1.069)	(0.691)	(1.068)
Black	2.376*					
	(1.248)					
Latino	-0.397	0.110				
	(1.087)	(0.730)				
Other	0.990	0.110				
	(1.248)	(1.238)				
Native American		-0.178				
		(0.930)				
White			0.297	0.264		
			(0.607)	(0.520)		
Education					0.293	-0.116
					(0.186)	(0.130)
Constant	-1.683***	0.583***	-1.683***	0.583***	-3.019***	1.174*
	(0.238)	(0.180)	(0.238)	(0.180)	(0.933)	(0.624)
Observations	161	161	164	164	164	164

Note: Race reference group – White
Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 14 Logistic Regression Predicting a Previous Victim-Offender Relationship While Controlling Income and Marital Status

	Income		Marital Status	
VARIABLES	Prior relationship with victim (1)	How did you meet your victim? (2)	Prior relationship with victim (3)	How did you meet your victim? (4)
Female	1.385**	1.691	1.226*	1.520
	(0.701)	(1.073)	(0.697)	(1.078)
Income	2.79e-06	2.59e-06		
	(7.14e-06)	(6.54e-06)		
Divorced or Widowed			-0.649	-0.373
			(0.528)	(0.404)
Single			-0.230	0.734
			(0.518)	(0.478)
Cohabitating			-0.714	0.606
			(0.853)	(0.722)
Constant	-1.819***	0.480**	-1.323***	0.551*
	(0.309)	(0.235)	(0.343)	(0.297)
Observations	132	132	163	163

Note: Marital status reference group - Married
Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Presence of a Co-Offender and Access to Victim(s). Hypothesis 4 and 5 sought to test if gender could predict presence of a co-offender and if female sex offenders are more likely to have victims with whom they have child care duties over than male sex offenders respectively. This would test current literature and theory in that female sex offenders are more likely than male sex offenders to act with a co-offender and encounter their victims within their routine activities. Tables 15 and 16 indicate these models were not statistically significant, rejecting Hypothesis 4 that female sex offenders in the sample are more likely to offend with a co-offender.

Table 15 Logistic Regression Predicting the of Presence of a Co-Offender While Controlling for Gender, Age, Employment, and Race

	Gender	Age	Employment	Race	Race (recoded)
VARIABLES	Presence of a co-offender	Presence of a co-offender	Presence of a co-offender	Presence of a co-offender	Presence of a co-offender
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Female	0.703	0.670	0.748	0.503	0.627
	(0.570)	(0.572)	(0.587)	(0.619)	(0.577)
Age		-0.0107			
		(0.0142)			
Part-time			-0.669		
			(0.699)		
Full time			-0.417		
			(0.423)		
Welfare			-0.285		
			(0.663)		
Native American				2.070**	
				(0.901)	
Latino				0.504	
				(0.705)	
White					0.490
					(0.491)
Constant	-1.492***	-1.025	-1.221***	-1.535***	-1.546***
	(0.184)	(0.641)	(0.321)	(0.197)	(0.197)
Observations	212	212	188	203	211

Note: Employment reference group - Unemployed
Note: Race reference group - White
Note: Participants not reporting on the above variables were listwise deleted resulting in some groups being dropped from analyses
Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 16 Logistic Regression Predicting the of Presence of a Co-Offender While Controlling for Education, Income, and Marital Status

	Education	Income	Marital Status
VARIABLES	Presence of a co-offender (1)	Presence of a co-offender (2)	Presence of a co-offender (3)
Female	0.725	0.452	0.596
	(0.573)	(0.625)	(0.584)
Education	-0.160		
	(0.121)		
Income		-3.85e-06	
		(8.16e-06)	
Divorced or Widowed			-0.735
			(0.459)
Single			-0.181
			(0.434)
Cohabitating			0.164
			(0.666)
Constant	-0.812	-1.420***	-1.220***
	(0.552)	(0.270)	(0.295)
Observations	210	169	210

Note: Marital Status reference group - Married
Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

The models shown in Tables 17 through 24 were also not significant, rejecting Hypothesis 5, that female sex offenders in the sample would report offending against those with whom they have child care duties more so than the male sex offenders in the sample.

Table 17 Logistic Regression Predicting Access to the Victim(s) While Controlling for Gender

	Gender			
VARIABLES	People involved in offense (1)	Location of Offense (2)	Victim part of offender's family (3)	How did you meet your victim? (4)
Female	-0.965	0.801	0.653	1.336
	(0.859)	(0.730)	(0.850)	(1.083)
Constant	2.064***	-0.801***	-1.751***	0.610***
	(0.265)	(0.181)	(0.236)	(0.176)
Observations	150	150	150	150

Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 18 Logistic Regression Predicting Access to the Victim(s) While Controlling for Age

	Age			
VARIABLES	People involved in offense (1)	Location of Offense (2)	Victim part of offender's family (3)	How did you meet your victim? (4)
Female	-1.366	0.736	0.520	0.748
	(0.912)	(0.746)	(0.871)	(1.102)
Age	-0.0317	-0.00607	-0.0130	-0.0507***
	(0.0210)	(0.0148)	(0.0196)	(0.0153)
Constant	3.524***	-0.533	-1.185	2.901***
	(1.043)	(0.673)	(0.875)	(0.727)
Observations	150	150	150	150

Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 19 Logistic Regression Predicting Access to the Victim(s) While Controlling for Job Status

	Employment			
VARIABLES	People involved in offense (1)	Location of Offense (2)	Victim part of offender's family (3)	How did you meet your victim? (4)
Female	-0.914	0.763	0.611	1.289
	(0.866)	(0.736)	(0.894)	(1.096)
Part-time	0.412	-0.0605	1.532	-0.539
	(0.876)	(0.639)	(1.262)	(0.675)
Full time	0.455	0.358	2.406**	-1.036**
	(0.601)	(0.442)	(1.056)	(0.492)
Welfare	0.0597	0.0672	2.396**	-1.053
	(0.894)	(0.703)	(1.210)	(0.713)
Constant	1.737***	-0.943***	-3.653***	1.443***
	(0.453)	(0.362)	(1.017)	(0.420)
Observations	134	134	134	134

Note: Employment reference group - Unemployed
Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 20 Logistic Regression Predicting Access to the Victim(s) While Controlling for Race

	Race			
VARIABLES	People involved in offense (1)	Location of Offense (2)	Victim part of offender's family (3)	How did you meet your victim? (4)
Female	-0.944	0.718	0.722	1.409
	(0.864)	(0.733)	(0.857)	(1.085)
Black	-1.350	0.0247	2.514**	
	(1.257)	(1.240)	(1.252)	
Native American		0.718		0.561
		(1.018)		(1.170)
Latino	0.0364	-1.362	-0.259	0.156
	(1.098)	(1.078)	(1.092)	(0.732)
Other			1.128	0.156
			(1.252)	(1.239)
Constant	2.043***	-0.718***	-1.821***	0.537***
	(0.284)	(0.193)	(0.261)	(0.188)
Observations	146	146	146	146

Note: Race reference group – White
Note: Participants not reporting on the above variables were listwise deleted
Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 21 Logistic Regression Predicting Access to the Victim(s) While Controlling for Race (Recoded)

	Race (recoded)			
VARIABLES	People involved in offense (1)	Location of Offense (2)	Victim part of offender's family (3)	How did you meet your victim? (4)
Female	-0.944	0.718	0.722	1.409
	(0.864)	(0.733)	(0.857)	(1.085)
White	0.0970	-0.604	0.499	0.492
	(0.800)	(0.595)	(0.620)	(0.554)
Constant	2.043***	-0.718***	-1.821***	0.537***
	(0.284)	(0.193)	(0.261)	(0.188)
Observations	149	149	149	149

Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 22 Logistic Regression Predicting Access to the Victim(s) While Controlling for or Education

	Education			
VARIABLES	People involved in offense (1)	Location of Offense (2)	Victim part of offender's family (3)	How did you meet your victim? (4)
Female	-0.991	0.864	0.739	1.308
	(0.863)	(0.741)	(0.864)	(1.084)
Education	-0.205	0.367**	0.413*	-0.118
	(0.217)	(0.157)	(0.221)	(0.135)
Constant	3.021***	-2.517***	-3.728***	1.173*
	(1.083)	(0.780)	(1.135)	(0.651)
Observations	149	149	149	149

Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 23 Logistic Regression Predicting Access to the Victim(s) While Controlling for Income

	Income			
VARIABLES	People involved in offense (1)	Location of Offense (2)	Victim part of offender's family (3)	How did you meet your victim? (4)
Female	-0.696	0.879	0.693	1.418
	(0.892)	(0.743)	(0.865)	(1.090)
Income	2.96e-05	8.28e-06	6.20e-06	2.08e-06
	(2.15e-05)	(8.14e-06)	(8.29e-06)	(8.13e-06)
Constant	1.537***	-0.964***	-1.857***	0.506**
	(0.425)	(0.268)	(0.327)	(0.256)
Observations	120	120	120	120

Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 24 Logistic Regression Predicting Access to the Victim(s) While Controlling for Marital Status

	Marital Status			
VARIABLES	People involved in offense (1)	Location of Offense (2)	Victim part of offender's family (3)	How did you meet your victim? (4)
Female	-1.119	0.999	0.630	1.278
	(0.930)	(0.779)	(0.863)	(1.099)
Divorced or Widowed	-1.990*	-1.049**	-0.121	-0.256
	(1.093)	(0.457)	(0.580)	(0.421)
Single	-2.531**	-0.335	0.108	0.921*
	(1.083)	(0.444)	(0.585)	(0.502)
Cohabitating	-1.201	-1.557*	-0.00761	0.488
	(1.476)	(0.859)	(0.892)	(0.745)
Constant	3.869***	-0.267	-1.726***	0.454
	(1.019)	(0.303)	(0.416)	(0.310)
Observations	148	148	148	148

Note: Marital Status reference group - Married
Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Situational Characteristics of the Offense(s). Tables 25 through 27 indicate the models testing Hypothesis 6 were not statistically significant. For this sample of registered sex offenders, the situational characteristics of their offenses were not predicted by gender. Thus, Hypothesis 6 was accepted in that the situational characteristics of the offenses did

not vary across the genders. This may be due to the fact that women in the sample did not have child care duties for their victims (s), and both men and women in the sample had a previous relationship with/to their victim(s). Considering they did not differ on these measures, the situational characteristics or the situations that would facilitate these offenses would not differ either. Thus, the men and women of this sample would seemingly have the same environments in which to commit their offenses, and to meet and groom their victim(s).

Table 25 Logistic Regression Predicting the Situational Characteristics of the Offense(s) While Controlling for Age

	Female			Age		
VARIABLES	Location of offense (1)	Victim part of offender's family (2)	How did you meet your victim? (3)	Location of offense (4)	Victim part of offender's family (5)	How did you meet your victim? (6)
Female	0.595	1.044	1.506	0.561	1.008	0.946
	(0.694)	(0.744)	(1.074)	(0.710)	(0.767)	(1.091)
Age				-0.00332	-0.00353	-0.0502***
				(0.0143)	(0.0185)	(0.0148)
Constant	-0.818***	-1.737***	0.573***	-0.671	-1.581*	2.855***
	(0.179)	(0.231)	(0.172)	(0.659)	(0.849)	(0.706)
Observations	156	156	156	156	156	156

Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 26 Logistic Regression Predicting the Situational Characteristics of the Offense(s) While Controlling for Employment and Race

	Employment			Race			Race (recoded)		
VARIABLES	Location of offense (1)	Victim part of offender's family (2)	How did you meet your victim? (3)	Location of offense (4)	Victim part of offender's family (5)	How did you meet your victim? (6)	Location of offense (7)	Victim part of offender's family (8)	How did you meet your victim? (9)
Female	0.596	1.205	1.387	0.506	1.099	1.560	0.506	1.099	1.560
	(0.700)	(0.793)	(1.088)	(0.697)	(0.752)	(1.077)	(0.697)	(0.752)	(1.077)
Part-time	-0.00727	0.889	-0.549						
	(0.637)	(1.053)	(0.675)						
Full time	0.342	1.717**	-1.098**						
	(0.439)	(0.792)	(0.488)						
Welfare	0.124	1.749*	-1.065						
	(0.701)	(0.991)	(0.712)						
Black				0.0359	2.485**				
				(1.239)	(1.251)				
Native American				0.324		-0.114			
				(0.932)		(0.931)			
Latino				-1.350	-0.288	0.174			
				(1.078)	(1.091)	(0.731)			
Other					1.099	0.174			
					(1.251)	(1.239)			
White							-0.657	0.405	0.328
							(0.590)	(0.614)	(0.522)
Constant	-0.985***	-3.070***	1.451***	-0.729***	-1.792***	0.519***	-0.729***	-1.792***	0.519***
	(0.363)	(0.745)	(0.420)	(0.190)	(0.255)	(0.184)	(0.190)	(0.255)	(0.184)
Observations	138	138	138	152	152	152	155	155	155

Note: Employment reference group – Unemployed
Note: Race reference group - White
Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 27 Logistic Regression Predicting the Situational Characteristics of the Offense(s) While Controlling for Education, Income, and Marital Status

	Employment			Income			Marital Status		
VARIABLES	Location of offense (1)	Victim part of offender's family (2)	How did you meet your victim? (3)	Location of offense (3)	Victim part of offender's family (4)	How did you meet your victim? (5)	Location of offense (6)	Victim part of offender's family (7)	How did you meet your victim? (8)
Female	0.864	0.739	1.308	0.879	0.693	1.418	0.999	0.630	1.278
	(0.741)	(0.864)	(1.084)	(0.743)	(0.865)	(1.090)	(0.779)	(0.863)	(1.099)
Education	0.367**	0.413*	-0.118						
	(0.157)	(0.221)	(0.135)						
Income				8.28e-06	6.20e-06	2.08e-06			
				(8.14e-06)	(8.29e-06)	(8.13e-06)			
Divorced or Widowed							-1.049**	-0.121	-0.256
							(0.457)	(0.580)	(0.421)
Single							-0.335	0.108	0.921*
							(0.444)	(0.585)	(0.502)
Cohabitating							-1.557*	-0.00761	0.488
							(0.859)	(0.892)	(0.745)
Constant	-2.517***	-3.728***	1.173*	-0.964***	-1.857***	0.506**	-0.267	-1.726***	0.454
	(0.780)	(1.135)	(0.651)	(0.268)	(0.327)	(0.256)	(0.303)	(0.416)	(0.310)
Observations	149	149	149	120	120	120	148	148	148

Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

History of Sexual Abuse and Victim Preference. Hypotheses 7 and 8 tested if female sex offenders were more likely than male sex offenders to have a history of sexual abuse, and if that sexual abuse would have any impact on victim preference respectively. These models were not statistically significant, and there was no variation on the variable measuring if the respondent was a victim of sexual assault; thus, it was dropped from the analysis as shown in the tables 28 through 34.

Table 28 Logistic Regression Predicting a History of Sexual Abuse History and Victim Preference While Controlling for Gender

	Gender				
VARIABLES	Victim part of offender's family	Age of participant sexual assault	Participant relationship to abuser	Gender of participant's abuser	Age of participant's victim(s)
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Female	1.253	-1.253	-0.110		-0.112
	(1.210)	(1.142)	(0.942)		(0.944)
Constant	-2.639***	-0.134	-0.295	-0.944***	0.518**
	(0.463)	(0.231)	(0.233)	(0.257)	(0.239)
Observations	80	80	80	75	80

Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 29 Logistic Regression Predicting a History of Sexual Abuse History and Victim Preference While Controlling for Age

	Age				
VARIABLES	Victim part of offender's family	Age of participant sexual assault	Participant relationship to abuser	Gender of participant's abuser	Age of participant's victim(s)
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Female	1.575	-0.881	0.0110		-0.309
	(1.295)	(1.158)	(0.956)		(0.961)
Age	0.0306	0.0437**	0.0140	0.0117	-0.0220
	(0.0363)	(0.0195)	(0.0182)	(0.0200)	(0.0188)
Constant	-4.029**	-2.034**	-0.905	-1.456	1.482*
	(1.790)	(0.883)	(0.827)	(0.919)	(0.865)
Observations	80	80	80	75	80

Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 30 Logistic Regression Predicting a History of Sexual Abuse History and Victim Preference While Controlling for Employment

	Employment				
VARIABLES	Victim part of offender's family	Age of participant sexual assault	Participant relationship to abuser	Gender of participant's abuser	Age of participant's victim(s)
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Female	2.175	-1.379	-0.308		0.0160
	(1.677)	(1.158)	(0.968)		(1.016)
Part-time		0.137	-0.0864	1.224	0.405
		(0.849)	(0.833)	(1.122)	(0.939)
Full time	17.70	-0.144	-0.697	1.486*	-0.222
	(0)	(0.552)	(0.555)	(0.822)	(0.572)
Welfare	19.47***	-0.141	-0.369	1.447	-1.610*
	(1.171)	(0.898)	(0.882)	(1.144)	(0.957)
Constant	-20.76***	0.0193	0.125	-2.140***	0.692
	(0.761)	(0.450)	(0.447)	(0.748)	(0.473)
Observations	67	75	75	70	75

Note: Employment reference group - Unemployed
Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 31 Logistic Regression Predicting a History of Sexual Abuse History and Victim Preference While Controlling for Race

	Race				
VARIABLES	Victim part of offender's family	Age of participant sexual assault	Participant relationship to abuser	Gender of participant's abuser	Age of participant's victim(s)
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Female	1.338	-1.108	-0.127		0
	(1.231)	(1.146)	(0.947)		(0.947)
Native American		0.972	-0.414		
		(1.250)	(1.250)		
Other	2.031	-0.414		0.345	0.288
	(1.329)	(1.250)		(1.257)	(1.251)
Latino			0.972	1.731	
			(1.250)	(1.257)	
Constant	-2.725***	-0.279	-0.279	-1.038***	0.405
	(0.516)	(0.250)	(0.250)	(0.282)	(0.253)
Observations	73	76	76	71	73

Note: Race reference group - White
Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 32 Logistic Regression Predicting a History of Sexual Abuse History and Victim Preference While Controlling for Race (Recoded)

	Race (recoded)				
VARIABLES	Victim part of offender's family	Age of participant sexual assault	Participant relationship to abuser	Gender of participant's abuser	Age of participant's victim(s)
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Female	1.338	-1.108	-0.127		-0.268
	(1.231)	(1.146)	(0.947)		(0.947)
White	0.527	1.126	-0.127	0.633	0.981
	(1.174)	(0.734)	(0.692)	(0.705)	(0.830)
Constant	-2.725***	-0.279	-0.279	-1.038***	0.405
	(0.516)	(0.250)	(0.250)	(0.282)	(0.253)
Observations	80	80	80	75	80

Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 33 Logistic Regression Predicting a History of Sexual Abuse History and Victim Preference While Controlling for Education

	Education				
VARIABLES	Victim part of offender's family	Age of participant sexual assault	Participant relationship to abuser	Gender of participant's abuser	Age of participant's victim(s)
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Female	1.216	-1.250	-0.0616		-0.0938
	(1.214)	(1.143)	(0.946)		(0.946)
Education	0.116	-0.00681	-0.124	0.258	-0.0495
	(0.331)	(0.160)	(0.160)	(0.199)	(0.165)
Constant	-3.163**	-0.103	0.248	-2.113**	0.737
	(1.594)	(0.742)	(0.741)	(0.963)	(0.772)
Observations	80	80	80	75	80

Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 34 Logistic Regression Predicting a History of Sexual Abuse History and Victim Preference While Controlling for Income

	Income				
VARIABLES	Victim part of offender's family	Age of participant sexual assault	Participant relationship to abuser	Gender of participant's abuser	Age of participant's victim(s)
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Female	2.380	-1.236	-0.620		-0.0994
	(1.530)	(1.175)	(0.985)		(0.986)
Income	3.49e-05	1.45e-06	-2.84e-05*	2.16e-05	4.34e-06
	(3.25e-05)	(1.52e-05)	(1.66e-05)	(1.65e-05)	(1.59e-05)
Constant	-3.855***	-0.153	0.284	-1.307***	0.494
	(1.114)	(0.388)	(0.397)	(0.453)	(0.401)
Observations	69	69	69	64	69

Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Chapter 5. Discussion and Conclusion

Key Contributions

The present study contributes to female sex offender research and traditional criminological theory. The study is one of the first to use self-report data from a non-judicial, clinical, and/or treatment sample. Registered sex offenders voluntarily provided data at a point in time when it could bear no perceived impact on sentencing or treatment. The study also compared adult female sex offenders to their male counterparts on measures not previously compared across the genders. Previous literature comparing male and female sex offenders focused primarily on juvenile samples, and of those studies that used adult samples, situational characteristics of the offenses and the impact of their sexual abuse history on victim selection were not measured (Johansson-Love & Fremouw, 2005; Miccio-Fonseca, 2000; Vandiver & Teske, 2006; Vandiver 2010).

The present study contributed to the literature in four ways. First, no known study has empirically tested traditional criminological theories and male-specific models and integrated theories on female sex offenders or established a theoretical foundation for the etiology of female perpetrated sexual offenses. In 2010, Gannon, Rose, and Ward developed a pathways model for female sex offenders, but utilized a grounded theory methodology, versus a theoretical foundation. Specifically, the study tested, and found support for the applicability of the routine activities and situational crime prevention theories to female sex offenders when combined with Finkehor's (1984) overcoming external factors and the child's resistance to sexual abuse preconditions-one component of the study's theoretical foundation explained in Chapter 2.

The findings of the study support the routine activities theory, in that female sex offenders in the sample are accessing victims and committing their offenses in direct proximity

of the nodes of their routine activities. The victims of these female-perpetrated sexual abuse are their own children or children they have unlimited access to and their offenses occurred predominately in the home of the victim or the offender. The findings also supported the situational crime prevention theory in that female sex offender environments reported by the sample are target rich and facilitate the commission of their offenses. These offenders reported consistent exposure to potential victims, they are in some type of role to disguise offending behavior, and are in positions in which they can exploit the power balance in their relationships with children. According to the situational crime prevention theory in, changing the situations in which these female sex offenders are in will decrease their opportunity to offend. And the applicability of these male-tested, criminological theories across additional and previously untested groups and situations strengthens both theories as well.

Second, most comparisons of male and female sex offenders have relied on adolescent samples; this study adds to the literature on adult sex offenders by using an adult sample of registered sex offenders. Male and female sex offenders have been studied separately on measures of substance abuse history (Hislop, 2001), thought, urges, and fantasies consistent with paraphilic interests (Mathews, et al, 1989), victim-offender relationship (Denov, 2003; Johansson-Love & Fremouw, 2005; Terry, 2006), the presence of a co-offender (Denov, 2003; Denov, 2004; Ford, 2006; Vandiver & Teske, 2006), having a history of sexual abuse (Allen, 1991; Johansson-Love & Fremouw, 2009; Mayer, 1992) and victim preference (Grayston & De Luca, 1999; Hunter, Becker, & Lexier, 2006). Little to no research has compared these measures on a sample of offenders with a comparison group and only one other study has compared the situational offense characteristics of male and female sex offenders (Johansson-Love & Fremouw, 2009).The study contributed to the literature by being one of the first to empirically

test these measures on adult, female sex offenders with their male counterparts as a comparison group, and with a theoretical foundation. A finding of particular interest amongst these comparisons was gender not predicting the presence of a co-offender. If male and female sex offenders report the presence of a co-offender at the same rate as the sample suggests, is this a variable that is truly unique to female sex offenders or a variable that is simply lacking in male sex offender research? This will be discussed at length further later in the chapter.

Being one of a few studies to compare the situational characteristics of sexual offenses across the genders is another contribution of the study. This finding not only indicates a similarity between male and female sex offenders, but also theoretical support and provides insight on the limited study of opportunity and motivation in female sex offenders. As explained previously, the lack of statistical significance for this hypothesis indicates men and women may be committing their sexual offenses in the same, or a similar way, contrary to what the literature currently states. This similarity suggests that similar prevention measures will be effective on female-perpetrated sexual offenses, especially when using situational crime prevention techniques.

This finding also addresses the opportunity and motivation of female sex offenders. The majority of the sample had a previous relationship with their victim and committed their offense(s) either in their home or the victim's home. Based on these variables, it can be concluded that offenders in the sample are most likely encountering their victims within their routine activities, and consistently have access to an environment that facilitates the sexual abuse of a child. This conclusion then ties directly to the research question asking if women create the opportunity to offend, or offend because the opportunity is consistently there. The findings at this point in time suggest that both women and men consistently have the opportunity to offend, but

it is unclear what impact that has on their motivation to offend. However, further comparison of the situational characteristics along with measures of motivation will support the application of male-centered methods to female sex offenders to address the same motivations and cognitions.

Lastly, few studies use subjective measures of sexual offenses. The current body of literature on female sex offenders focuses on clinical, judicial, and/or treatment samples (Denov, 2004; Hislop, 2001). Of those studies that rely on interviews or other self reported measures, and have no theoretical or empirical basis/analyses. The present study utilized anonymous, self-reported data capturing data yet to be empirically tested on female sex offenders. With these data, the study found female sex offenders to have more similarities than differences from their male counterparts, expanding the current body of literature.

Key Findings

The present study aimed to compare male and female sex offenders on eight hypotheses; all of which were rejected with the exception of Hypothesis 2 testing the reporting of thoughts, urges, and fantasies consistent with paraphilic interests and Hypothesis 6 testing if the situational characteristics of sexual offenses varied across genders. These hypotheses were created based upon female and male sex offender literature; specifically the differences between the two groups in offender and offense characteristics. Research has continued to build on female sex offenders, but none have tested traditional criminological theories or male-centered models and integrated theories as an explanation for their offending. Research has adequately determined that female sex offenders are a heterogeneous group and that they merit research separate from their male counterparts (Becker et al., 2001; Grayston & De Luca, 1999; Hunter, Becker, & Lexier, 2006; Johansson-Love & Fremouw, 2006). But this same research has always focused on testing these groups of offenders *separately* on their offenses and offending patterns. Findings

from the present indicate that female sex offenders may be quite similar to their male counterparts as few to no differences were found in the sample.

Table 35 List of Hypotheses and Analytical Outcomes

HR1: Female sex offenders are more likely than male sex offenders to have a history of substance abuse.	Reject
HR2: Male sex offenders are more likely than female sex offenders to exhibit thoughts, urges and fantasies consistent with paraphilic interests.	Accept
HR3: Female sex offenders are more likely than male sex offenders to have a prior relationship or be known by their victim(s).	Reject
HR4: Female sex offenders are more likely than male sex offenders to have a co-offender.	Reject
HR5: Female sex offenders are more likely to abuse a child with whom they have child care duties.	Reject
HR6: Situational characteristics of sexual offenses will not vary across genders.	Accept
HR7: Female sex offenders will be more likely than male sex offenders to have a history of sexual abuse.	Reject
HR8: Female sex offenders are more likely to have their history of sexual abuse impact victim preference.	Reject

The second hypothesis of the study, that female sex offenders are less likely than male sex offenders to exhibit thoughts, urges, and fantasies consistent with paraphilic interest, was accepted. This model was statistically significant, even when controlling age, race, and income. This model also maintained significance when controlling for job status, education, and marital status. But with the small sample size, and volume of missing data, these results should be interpreted with caution. The women in this sample may have lied or minimized the presence of these thoughts, urges, and fantasies. If one reports committing a sexual offense against a child, one can logically conclude some thoughts regarding the offense existed prior to the action; thus, the presence of thoughts, urges, and/or fantasies consistent with paraphilic interests. Future research, discussed at length later in the chapter, should address this component, specifically a

female offenders' definition of a deviant sexual thought, urge or fantasy, and variables that impact the willingness to admit such thoughts.

Hypothesis 6 was the only other hypothesis accepted. The study hypothesized that the situational characteristics of the sexual offenses would not vary across the genders. This model was not statistically significant, indicating no difference in the situation characteristics of offenses between the men and women in this sample. This could be due to sample size, or inadequate measure of the situational characteristics of the offenses, but what if there is more behind these findings? Considering applicability of male-centered models, theories, and typologies to female offenders—why would their offense characteristics differ? A major finding in the present study is that male and female sex offenders are not as different as the literature suggests, giving reason as to why the characteristics of their offenses will be more similar than different. This finding also lends strength to the routine activities and situational crime prevention theory. Their applicability has been extended to a previously untested population of offenders and will be useful in policy implications and prevention measures for female sexual offenses.

With the exception of thoughts, urges, and fantasies, consistent with paraphilic interests, female sex offenders in this sample are quite similar to their male counterparts. There were some consistencies with the literature, for example the women in the sample had lower income and education levels, but in regard to their offenses they are quite similar. They reported sexual and substance abuse histories at approximately the same rate, there was no difference in the presence of a co-offender, and no difference in access to victim, relationship to the victim(s), and victim preference.

The lack of differences across the genders has several implications. The similarities imply the applicability of male-centered theories, preventions measures, and treatment methods. For example, accepting hypothesis six implies that female sex offenders are committing their offenses, accessing victims, and employing similar offense techniques as male sex offenders. This speaks to their motivation, cognitions, and methods; meaning the same prevention measures and treatment methods will also apply to female sex offenders. While this lack of statistical significant is critical for future research, the next section will first account for the limitations that can also explain the above findings.

Limitations

This study, like many others, has limitations. While other studies have successfully used self-report data and it has been found to be an accurate predictor of criminal behavior (Junder-Tas, 1999; Thornberry & Krohn, 2000; Eck, 2006), the use of official offense or arrest data would have added to the study. This additional data would have verified some of the reported data and reduced the volume of missing data. It is also important to consider that this population may have secondary motives for how they respond to certain questions in the survey. Concerns for true anonymity, attempts to respond in a desirable manner, or the perception that participation will affect their sentence, collateral consequences, etc. will impact how a participant answers the questions in the survey limiting reliability. One way to address this limitation would have been the use of multiple data collection methods. The combination of self-report data, official data, and semi-structured interviews would have strengthened the data. Bolstering the data would have reduced the volume of missing data, and allow for more rigorous and complex statistical analyses.

Sample size is another limitation of the study. Cited by various other authors (Faller, 1995; Lewis & Stanley, 2000; Denov, 2003; Wijkmand, Bijleveld, & Hendricks, 2010) as a limitation, this study is no exception (n=283) with female offenders representing only 9.5% (n=27) of the sample. No incentive to participate in the original study was given (only the chance to have one's experiences heard); possibly affecting response rates. The study would have benefitted from a larger and more representative sample, especially of female offenders. This would have increased reliability and generalizability of the findings.

The demographic characteristics of the sample were also a limitation of the study. Regarding race, Whites comprised 87.5% of the sample. Blacks and Native Americans each comprised 2.9% of the sample, and 5.0% of the sample reported being Hispanic. While this is consistent with the currently body of literature, it reduces generalizability, and maintains this methodological limitation. A more diverse sample, especially more information on the Native American population of female sex offenders, would lead to an entirely untapped avenue of research that can study racial and cultural differences among sex offenders.

Lastly, missing data was a limitation of the present study. Due to the volume of missing data, listwise deletion was used to address this issue, varying the number of observations by hypothesis and at times reducing the number of observations to approximately half the sample size. Missing data could be caused by a variety of external factors, for example the question does not apply, forgetting to answer, the answer is unknown, misunderstanding the question, etc. (Allison, 2001). A larger sample could have alleviated the volume of missing data or provided more cases with all the necessary data for analyses. Multiple data collection methods would also have addressed this limitation.

Policy Implications

The most notable implication of the study is that female sex offenders may not be as different from male sex offenders are the current body of literature suggests. Overall offender research, not just sex offender research, treat female offenders separately as though they are significantly different from and merit different approaches, theories and deterrents. The present study suggests otherwise.

For example, various researchers in the criminal justice realm have supported the use of routine activities, rational choice and situational crime prevention in sex offender research (Wortley, 2003; Terry & Ackerman, 2008; Wortley & Smallbone, 2006). Wortley (2003) examined the spatial analysis of deviant behavior to determine "stress-points" in the one's routine, or points that place a higher level of strain making deviant or "misbehavior" likely. The situational interventions he suggests would address the motivations for misbehavior as a target for intervention, reducing the need to alter any physical structures (Wortley, 2003). This is applicable to the study in that female sex offenders are more likely to encounter victims throughout their routine activities, considering the care-taking relationship they tend to have with their victims. If one is able to identify the "stress points" or parts of their routine that facilitates/makes offending look attractive, measures can be implemented to alter that routine/situation.

Terry & Ackerman (2008) and Wortley & Smallbone (2006) found that the incorporation of situational crime prevention methods were beneficial in the prevention of child sexual abuse and the creation of safe environments for these children. Through researching the situational characteristics of male offenders, four opportunity-reducing techniques were suggested: Increasing effort, increasing risk, controlling prompts and reducing permissibility (Leclerc, et al.,

2008; Terry & Ackerman, 2008; Wortley & Smallbone, 2006). Increasing effort makes opportunities more difficult in hopes of deterring the act. This is accomplished through controlling tools such as controlling access to facilities, target hardening and/or teaching potential victims how to recognize potentially dangerous situations (Wortley & Smallbone, 2006). Increasing risk is raising the likelihood of being caught committing a specific act. For example, by educating parents and guardians on appropriate and effective supervision tactics or how to identify behaviors that may be inappropriate, dangerous or indicative of abuse, reduction or prevention measures can be implemented. Controlling prompts is the reduction of situational triggers, such as situations where the offender perceives the victim as being vulnerable or provocative (Wortley & Smallbone, 2006). Triggers for abuse are often the result of bonds and attachments to children, but vary across individuals. Lastly, reducing permissibility involves clarifying the role the offender plays in the abusive behavior (Wortley & Smallbone, 2006). It is crucial for the offender to understand their behaviors are harmful. This induces taking responsibility for ones' actions instead of displacing it onto others or the child, for example perceiving the child enjoys the acts of abuse, or the child seduced the offender. This education for both offenders and children will reduce the permissibility of such behaviors (Terry & Ackerman, 2008). One way to apply these methods to female sex offenders would begin by identifying their grooming techniques. As discussed previously, women tend to groom their victims in the same manner as male sex offenders. Identifying these techniques in women would be a critical step in preventing the sexual abuse of a child. For being able to identify grooming methods would prevent inappropriate behaviors, stop the development of inappropriate relationships and ultimately stop an offender from attempting to overcome a child's resistance to abuse. Another method would be the edification of parents, family members, employers and co-

workers to identify grooming behaviors as well as other offending behaviors disguised by routine child care activities. Being able to identify such behaviors would incorporate situational crime prevention measures toward stopping and/or preventing the sexual abuse of a child.

Future Research

Future research should address several avenues. First, the comparison of female and male sex offenders should be incorporated into more sex offender research. Such a longstanding assumption has considered female offenders so different than males, important similarities may be overlooked. The present study, although exploratory in nature, establishes a foundation for further research using models and theories once developed solely for male offenders.

Future female sex offender research should also incorporate more measures on motivation and what role opportunity plays in motivating that offender. Previous studies have supported that women are known to/have a previous relationship with their victim(s), have child are duties, and commit their offending behavior under the guise of routine child-care activities (Denov, 2003; Johansson-Love & Fremouw, 2005; Terry, 2006). In other words, female sex offenders have the potential to have more access to victims than their male counterparts and almost unlimited opportunities to offend. Thus, future research should focus on whether female sex offenders place themselves in these situations out of a motivation to offend, or do they develop this motivation based on constantly being in these situations. Underlying psychological issues, previous trauma, etc are variables that can establish motivation, but is it the opportunity or situation that acts as the catalyst of acting on that motivation?

Considering previous trauma, previous sexual abuse histories and substance abuse histories, future research should account for what impact, if any; previous sexual abuse has on both motivation and victim preference. This would test Mayer's (1992) explanation of reenacting

an earlier trauma, and the idea that the social learning theory applies to female sex offenders in that they learn to offend in the future by those who committed these acts on them in the past, or from a co-offender. The idea of coercion to commit acts of sexual abuse from an offenders' parent should also be included in future research. The literature states that co-offenders tend to be lovers or significant others, but what about coercion from the parent of an offender to gain access to a person's children? Fear of abandonment may drive this type of co-offending in female sex offenders and should also be addressed. This would also support the applicability of the social learning theory and power-control theory.

The presence of thoughts, fantasies, and urges consistent with paraphilic interests in female sex offenders requires additional research as well. The idea that the reenactment of a previous trauma or that offending behavior is learned, also implies the acceptance of these thoughts, fantasies, and urges within these individuals. And the convergence of all these elements, along with the appropriate situation to offend, leads to the sexual abuse of a child. Therefore, future research should include more ways to measure the presence of deviant sexual thoughts, urges and fantasies (similar to pharaphillic interests in their male counterparts) in female offenders.

Lastly, future research should strive for larger, more diverse samples, not only for generalizability as noted previously, as well as multiple data collection methods. This will allow researchers to incorporate more complex statistical analyses. Reliance on frequencies, percentages and means for reporting and conclusions forces researchers to reach past the true statistical findings and incorporate their clinical experience and judgment to reach their conclusions (Mathews et al., 1989; Lewis & Stanley, 2000; Nathan & Ward, 2002; Vandiver & Kercher, 2004).

Appendix A

DO NOT PUT YOUR NAME ANYWHERE ON THIS PACKET *If you have any comments to make, feel free to write on the back of these sheets of paper before mailing them back!*			
Please check the box that best describes whether the following things happened to you BEFORE you were placed on your state's offender registry.	**No**	**Yes**	**Don't know- N/A**
I had lost a job.	☐	☐	☐
I had not received a raise or promotion.	☐	☐	☐
I had lost (or been denied) a place to live.	☐	☐	☐
I had been evicted from my home.	☐	☐	☐
I had been evicted from my home more than once.	☐	☐	☐
I had to move out of my home or apartment because my neighbors complained.	☐	☐	☐
I had been treated rudely in a public place.	☐	☐	☐
I had lost a spouse.	☐	☐	☐
I had lost a significant other.	☐	☐	☐
I had lost a friend.	☐	☐	☐
I had been asked to leave a business or restaurant.	☐	☐	☐
I had been threatened or harassed by neighbors.	☐	☐	☐
I had been physically assaulted.	☐	☐	☐
My property had been damaged.	☐	☐	☐
I had received harassing/threatening mail.	☐	☐	☐
I had received harassing/threatening telephone calls.	☐	☐	☐
I had financial hardships.	☐	☐	☐
I lived far from family/friends.	☐	☐	☐
I worried about the safety or well being of my family and/or friends.	☐	☐	☐
I had no contact with my family.	☐	☐	☐
I had limited/reduced contact with my family.	☐	☐	☐
I lived far from employment opportunities.	☐	☐	☐
I had limited/reduced contact with co-workers	☐	☐	☐
People in my neighborhood had limited contact with me.	☐	☐	☐
People in my neighborhood had no contact with me.	☐	☐	☐
Please check the box that best describes whether you had any of the following experiences since being on the state registry.	**No**	**Yes**	**Don't know-N/A**
I have lost a job.	☐	☐	☐
I have not received a raise or promotion.	☐	☐	☐
I have lost (or been denied) a place to live.	☐	☐	☐
I have had to move out of my home or apartment because my neighbors complained.	☐	☐	☐
I have been treated rudely in a public place.	☐	☐	☐
I have lost a spouse.	☐	☐	☐
I have lost a significant other.	☐	☐	☐
I have lost several significant others.	☐	☐	☐
I have lost a friend.	☐	☐	☐
I have lost several friends.	☐	☐	☐
I have been asked to leave a business or restaurant.	☐	☐	☐
I have been threatened or harassed by neighbors.	☐	☐	☐
Someone has physically assaulted me.	☐	☐	☐
My property has been damaged.	☐	☐	☐
I have received harassing/threatening mail.	☐	☐	☐
I have received harassing/threatening telephone calls.	☐	☐	☐
Someone I know was threatened, harassed, assaulted, injured, or suffered property damage.	☐	☐	☐
I now have financial hardships.	☐	☐	☐
I live father from family/friends.	☐	☐	☐

I worry about the safety or well being of my family and/or friends.	☐	☐	☐
I have no contact with my family.	☐	☐	☐
I have limited/reduced contact with my family.	☐	☐	☐
I live farther from employment opportunities.	☐	☐	☐
I have limited/reduced contact with co-workers	☐	☐	☐
Co-workers no longer interact with me.	☐	☐	☐
There is more stress in my life.	☐	☐	☐
I am afraid for my safety.	☐	☐	☐
I have less hope for the future now.	☐	☐	☐
People in my neighborhood now have limited contact with me.	☐	☐	☐
People in my neighborhood will not have contact with me.	☐	☐	☐

Please answer the following questions about the ways that RESIDENCE RESTRICTIONS have impacted your life. If you are NOT subject to RESIDENCE RESTRICTIONS please SKIP the next 7 questions.	**No**	**Yes**	**Don't Know**
I had to move out of a house that I <u>owned</u> because it was too close to a school, bus stop, or playground.	☐	☐	☐
I had to move out of a home that I <u>rented</u> because it was too close to a school, bus stop, or playground.	☐	☐	☐
I was unable to live with supportive family because they lived too close to a school, bus stop, or playground.	☐	☐	☐
I have found it difficult to find an affordable place to live that was not too close to a school, bus stop, park, or playground.	☐	☐	☐
Because of housing restrictions, I live farther away from employment opportunities.	☐	☐	☐
Because of housing restrictions, I live farther away from social services and/or mental health treatment.	☐	☐	☐
Because of housing restrictions, I live farther away from supportive family and/or friends.	☐	☐	☐

Think about the way that community notification and registration impacts your life, please check the box that best describes how you handle the stress of the issue(s). (*1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Moderately Disagree; 3=Neither Agree Nor Disagree; 4=Moderately Agree; 5=Strongly Agree, 6=Don't know)*	1	2	3	4	5	6
I use more alcohol/drugs now.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel angry.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sometimes I feel hopeless – *"no one believes I can change so why even try?"*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel alone and isolated.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I ignore it and think about good things in my life.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I tend to focus on it even more.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I know it is not my fault.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I know I should have tried harder to fix it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I try to figure out where I went wrong so that I can fix it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I try to avoid dealing with it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I try to get physical exercise to make myself feel better.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I try talking to family or friends about it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I want to hurt the people who I feel have hurt me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I try writing in a journal to make myself feel better.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I try talking to a therapist to make myself feel better.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

I am likely to withdraw from friends and family and spent most of my time alone until I feel better.	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Think about the last time you had a problem because of the Registry that you felt you couldn't handle by yourself. During that time, how often did you: (Please check the box for the answer that best explains your feelings) (*0= Never; 1= Hardly Ever 2= Not too Often; 3= Fairly Often; 4=Very Often*)

	0	1	2	3	4
Fight or argue with other people?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Drink alcohol or use drugs?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Try to put the problem out of your mind?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Keep busy by doing other things (like watching television or reading a book)?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Feel lonely?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Feel like you "couldn't get going"?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Feel depressed?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Feel jumpy or jittery?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Have a poor appetite?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Cry easily or have crying spells?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Have a hard time sleeping?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Get angrier than you were willing to admit?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Boil inside, but not show it?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Feel physically sick?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Lose your temper?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Have problems with a significant other?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Have problems with your children?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Have money problems?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Have problems with your job?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

How often have you done any of the following activities since being placed on the Registry?
(0=Never; 1 = Once; 2=2-3 times; 3= 4-5 times; 4=6=10times; 5=10 times or more)

	0	1	2	3	4	5
1Taken an illegal substance (drugs).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2Bought an illegal substance (drugs).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3Taken something worth less than $50 that didn't belong to you?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4Went on to someone's property or house when you weren't supposed to be there?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5Went into someone's home to take something when you weren't supposed to be there?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6Set fire to someone's property on purpose?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7Damaged someone's property on purpose?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8Taken something from a store without paying for it?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9Taken a car from someone when you weren't supposed to?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10Taken something that didn't belong to you that was worth more than $50?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11Got into a physical fight with someone?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12Got something by telling a person that something bad would happen if you did not get what you wanted?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13Hurt someone badly enough to need bandages or a doctor?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14Used a knife or gun (or something like it) to get something you wanted from a person?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15Felt the urge to act out sexually?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16I had sexual thoughts about violence?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17I had sexual thoughts about someone under the age of 18?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18I had sexual thoughts about a child?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19I had the urge to flash someone?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20I wanted to watch someone get undressed when they didn't know I was looking	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21Engaged in a sexual act that was against the law?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22Had sex with someone who did not want to have sex?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23Had a sexual fantasy that other people might consider deviant or wrong?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24Engaged in a sexual act with someone under the age of 16?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

25Engaged in a sexual act with someone under the age of 18?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

How often have you done any of the following activities BEFORE being placed on the Registry? *(0=Never; 1 = Once; 2=2-3 times; 3= 4-5 times; 4=6=10times; 5=10 times or more)*	0	1	2	3	4	5
Taken an illegal substance.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Bought an illegal substance.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Taken something worth less than $50 that didn't belong to you?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Went on to someone's property or house when you weren't supposed to be there?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Went into someone's home to take something when you weren't supposed to be there?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Set fire to someone's property on purpose?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Damaged someone's property on purpose?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Taken something from a store without paying for it?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Taken a car from someone when you weren't supposed to?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Taken something that didn't belong to you that was worth more than $50?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Got into a physical fight with someone?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Got something by telling a person that something bad would happen if you did not get what you wanted?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Hurt someone badly enough to need bandages or a doctor?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Used a knife or gun (or something like it) to get something you wanted from a person?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Felt the urge to act out sexually?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I had sexual thoughts about violence?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I had sexual thoughts about someone under the age of 18?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I had sexual thoughts about a child?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I had the urge to flash someone?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I wanted to watch someone get undressed when they didn't know I was looking	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Engaged in a sexual act that was against the law?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Had sex with someone who did not want to have sex?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Had a sexual fantasy that other people might consider deviant or wrong?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Engaged in a sexual act with someone under the age of 16?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Engaged in a sexual act with someone under the age of 18?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please check the box that best describes how you feel about each of the following statements. (*1= Strongly Disagree; 2= Moderately Disagree; 3= Neither Agree Nor Disagree; 4= Moderately Agree; 5=Strongly Agree, 6=I don't know)*	1	2	3	4	5	6
I am a useful person to have around.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel I am a person of worth.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel I can't do anything right.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel that my life is not very useful.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel I don't have much to be proud of.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel happy with life these days.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please check the box that best applies. (*1= Not at all/Never; 2= A little; not often 3= Some; sometimes 4=Quite a bit; quite often 5= A great deal; all the time)*	1	2	3	4	5
I feel supported by my father.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel supported by my mother.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel supported by other family members.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel supported by friends.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
If I fell and broke my leg I could find help dealing with it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
If I needed to borrow someone's car, I could find someone to help me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
If I needed to borrow 100 dollars, I could find a friend to lend it to me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
If I needed someone to talk to, I could find a friend to listen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
If I needed a place to stay for a few days, I could find a friend to stay with.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Think of friends you feel free to talk to about issues – would you say you have…	No friends		Few	Some	Many

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements? Please check the box that best explains your feelings. (*1= Strongly Disagree; 2= Moderately Disagree; 3= Neither Agree Nor Disagree; 4= Moderately Agree; 5=Strongly Agree, 6=I don't know)*	1	2	3	4	5	6
Registration and community notification stops people from committing new	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

offenses.						
Registration and community notification stop people from committing new sex offenses.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Registration and community notification stop people from committing new violent offenses.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Registration and community notification stops me from committing new offenses.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
If I violate the conditions of registration I know I will get in trouble with the law.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
If I violate the conditions registration the punishment will be severe.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
If I violate the conditions of registration, nothing with happen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I know other people will be punished for not complying with registration.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Nobody gets in trouble for not complying with registration.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am afraid to live my life because of registration requirements.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I understand why people want there to be a Registry.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I think that the Registry is a good thing.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I think that the Registry is a good thing for other people, but not for me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I do not believe my behavior should be considered criminal.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel being on the Registry unfairly punishes me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I never committed the offense I was convicted of.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I committed the offense, but it shouldn't be considered a crime.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The offense I was convicted of should not be considered a registerable e.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I believe that having my picture on the Registry is going too far.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I lost a job because I am a registered offender and it is unfair.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I lost my house because I am a registered offender and it is unfair.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I lost my spouse/partner because I am a registered offender and it is unfair.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I lost a friend(s) because I am a registered offender and it is unfair.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have been physically assaulted and it is unfair.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My property has been damaged and it is unfair.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I worry about my safety and it is unfair.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I worry about the safety of my family and friends and it is unfair.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I now have financial hardships and it is unfair.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I believe that having my address on the Registry is going too far.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I believe that having my name on the Registry is going too far.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I believe that having my date of birth on the Registry is going too far.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I believe that having my physical description on the Registry is going too far.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I believe that having my employer on the Registry is going too far.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I believe that having my work address on the Registry is going too far.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I believe that having a description of my crime(s) on the Registry is going too far.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Registration and community notification are so unfair that I feel like lashing out.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

GENERAL INFORMATION
Please give the best answer for each question below

How old are you?
_____

What year were you born in?
_____

How older were you when you were first convicted of an offense?
_____

What year were you placed on the state registry?
_____

How many years have you been on the state registry?
_____

How older were you when you were first convicted of a sex offense?

_____
What was the conviction for? _____
What is your gender? Male Female
What state are you registered in? Nebraska Kansas Montana
Are you registered as a sex offender or a violent offender? Sex Violent
What is your marital status? Married Divorced Widowed Single Living w/ someone Never Married
What is your race? White Black Native America Hispanic/Latino Other
Highest level of education completed? 8th Grade GED Some High School High School Some College College Degree
What was your income last year? _____
Have you ever attended treatment, support groups or counseling programs **specifically** for sex offending? Yes No
Are you currently attending treatment, support groups or counseling programs **specifically** for sex offending? Yes No If currently in treatment, how long have you attended? _____
Have you ever attended general treatment, support groups or counseling programs that are **not specific** to sex offending? Yes No
If currently in treatment, how long have you attended _____
What is the longest time you were in prison or jail (at one time)? ____years + _____ months
What is the longest you have been on probation or parole (at one time)? ____years + _____ months
How long has it been since you last had a negative experience because of the registry? _____
Do you feel you have a supportive family or group of friends? Yes No
Are you currently on probation? Yes No
Are you currently on parole? Yes No
If you have been charged or convicted of a sex offense, or if you have ever engaged in a sexual act that is considered illegal that you were not arrested for, please circle the answer that best fits.
Overall, the people or person involved in the act was: Male Female Both Male & Female
When I engaged in this act I: Acted alone with another male with another female
I have engaged in these behaviors that are against the law: (Circle all that apply) Molestation of a minor Sexual Assault Peeping Exposing myself Viewing Child Pornography Other computer related offenses
How many times in your life have you been arrested for a sex crime? _____
How many times in your life have you been arrested for something other than a sex crime? _____
My assigned risk level is: Low Risk Medium Risk High Risk
Most often the offense(s) occurred: (Circle all that apply) My Home The victim's home My car The victim's car In a park At a party At a hotel At a school The Internet
Overall my victims were: Part of my family Not part of my family A stranger Both in and out of my family
How did you meet your victim?

_____
Overall my victims have been: Over 18 12 – 17 Younger than 12 Adults & teens Adults & children Children & teens Children, Adults, & Teens
These next questions ask whether you have ever been the victim of sexual and physical abuse. Please circle the answer that best describes your experiences.
Have you ever been the victim of sexual abuse or sexual assault? Yes No
If yes, what age did this happen at? _____
What was your relationship to the offender? (Circle all that apply) Family member Friend of family Neighbor Teacher Stranger Clergy Sports coach Other_____
What was the gender of your abuser? Male Female
Have you ever been the victim of physical abuse? Yes No
If yes, what was your relationship to the abuser? Spouse Boyfriend Girlfriend Family Member Other _____
As an adult, have you ever been in an abusive relationship? Yes No
If yes, what type of abuse? (Circle all that apply) Sexual Physical Emotional Other_____ If yes, how many abusive relationships have you been in? _____ How long did these relationships last (on average) _____ What is your current job status? Unemployed Part-time Full-time Income-assistance
Have you ever had to wear an electronic monitoring device? Yes No
Since being on the registry, how many times have you moved? _____
How long has it been since you moved? _____
How far do you now live from family and friends? _____
What county do you currently reside in? _____

Bibliography

Abel, G., Becker, J. V., Cunningham-Rathner, J., Renlean, J., Kaplan, M., & Reid, J. (1984). *The Treatment of Child Molesters.* New York: Sexual Behavior Clinic.

Ackerman, A. (2009). *Registered sex offenders in the community: A test of Agnew's general strain theory*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, The Graduate Center, City University of New York.

Adshead, G., Howett, M., & Mason, F. (1994). Woman who sexually abuse children. *Journal of Sexual Aggression, 1*, 45–56.

Akers, R.L. (1985). *Deviant Behavior: A Social Learning Approach.* Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Allen, C. M. (1991). *Women and men who sexually abuse children: A comparative analysis*. Orwell: Safer Society.

Allison, P.D. (2001). *Missing Data.* USA. Sage Publications, Inc.

Anderson, P.B. and Struckman-Johnson, C. (1998). *Sexually Aggressive Women: Current Perspectives and Controversies.* USA. Guilford Press.

Ayers, S. (2006). Special feature: Women as perpetrators of crime: Newfound religion: Mothers, god and infanticide. *Fordham Urban Law Journal, 33*, 335-340.

Bader, S. M., Welsh, R., & Scalora, M. J. (2010). Recidivism among female child molesters . *Violence & Victims, 2010, Vol. 25 Issue 3*, p349-362.

Ball, H. N., & Fowler, D. (2008). Sexual offending against older female victims: An empirical study of the prevalence and characteristics of recorded offences in a semi-rural english county. *Journal of Forensic Psychiatry & Psychology, 19*(1), 14-32.

Barbaree, H.E., Marshall, W.L. and Hudson, S.M. (1993). *The Juvenile Sex Offender*. New York. Guilford Press.

Bard, et al. (1987). A descriptive study of rapists and child molesters: Developmental, clinical, and criminal characteristics. *Behavioral Sciences & the Law, 5 (2),* 203-220.

Beauregard, E., Proulx, J., Rossmo, K., Leclerc, B., & Allaire, J.F. (2007).Script analysis of the hunting process of serial sex offenders. Criminal Justice and Behavior, 34, 1069-1084.

Becker, J., Hall, S., & Stinson, J. (2001). Female sexual offenders: Clinical, legal and policy issues. *Journal of Forensic Psychology Practice, 1*, 29-50.

Becker, J. and Murphy, W. (1998). What we know and don't know about assessing and treating sex offenders. *Psychology, Public Policy and Law, 4*, 116-137.

Beech, A.R., Parrett, N., Ward, T., & Fisher, Dawn. (2009). Assessing female sexual offenders' motivations and cognitions: an exploratory study. *Psychology, Crime & Law, 15,* 201-261.

Bennell, C., Alison, L. J., Stein, K. L., Alison, E. K., & Canter, D. V. (2001). Sexual offenses against children as the abusive exploitation of conventional adult–child relationships. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 18(2),* 155–171.

Block, R. (1981). Victim-offender dynamics in violent crime. *Journal of Law & Criminology, 72(2),* 743-761.

Bottcher, J. (2001). Social practices of gender: How gender relates to delinquency in the everyday lives of high-risk youth. *Criminology, 39,* 893-931.

Briere, J. & Runtz, M. (1989). University males sexual interest in children: Predicting potential incidences of "pedophilia" in a nonforensic sample. *Child Abuse and Neglect, 13,* 65-75.

Bumby, N. H., & Bumby, K. M. (2004). Bridging the gender gap: Addressing juvenile females who commit sexual offences. In G. O'Reilly, W. L. Marshall, A. Carr, & R. C. Beckett (Eds.), The handbook of clinical intervention with young people who sexually abuse (pp. 369–381). New York, NY: Brunner-Routledge.

Bunting, L. (2007). Dealing with a problem that doesn't exist? Professional responses to female perpetrated child sexual abuse. *Child Abuse Review, 16,* 252-267.

Bureau of Justice Statistics. (2009). Crime and victim statistics (Web site). http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/bjs/cvict.htm, accessed March 29, 2010. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Statistics.

Bureau of Justice Statistics. (2006). Crime and victim statistics (Web site). http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/bjs/cvict.htm, accessed March 29, 2010. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Statistics.

Bureau of Justice Statistics. (2003). Crime and victim statistics (Web site). http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/bjs/cvict.htm, accessed March 29, 2010. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Statistics.

Burgess, R.L. and Akers, R.L. (1966). A differential association-reinforcement theory of criminal behavior. *Social Problems, 14,* 128-147.

Byers, E. S. & O'Sullivan, L. F. (1998). Similar but different: Men's and women's experiences of sexual coercion. In P. B. Anderson & C. Struckman-Johnson (Eds.). Sexually aggressive women: Current perspectives and controversies (pp. 144-168). New York: Guilford.

Center for Sex Offender Management. (2007). Female sex offenders. Office of Justice Programs, U.S. Department of Justice. Retrieved online: www.csom.org/pubs/female_sex_offenders_brief.pdf, March 1st, 2008.

Chow, E. W. C., & Choy, A. L. (2002). Clinical characteristics and treatment response to SSRI in a female pedophile. *Archives of Sexual Behavior, 31*(2), 211.

Christiansen, A. R., & Thyer, B. A. (2002). Female sexual offenders: A review of empirical research. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment, 6*(3), 1-37.

Christopher, K., Lutz-Zois, C., & Reinhardt, A. R. (2007). Female sexual-offenders: Personality pathology as a mediator of the relationship between childhood sexual abuse history and sexual abuse. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 31*(8), 871-883.

Clarke, R. V. (1995). Situational crime prevention. *Crime and Justice, 19*, 91-150.

Cohen, L. E. & Felson, M. (1979). Social change and crime rate trends: A routine activity approach. *American Sociological Review, 44*, 588-605.

Cornish, D. (1994). The procedural analysis of offending and its relevance for situational prevention. *Crime Prevention Studies, Volume 3*, Monsey NY: Criminal Justice Press.

Cortoni, F., Hanson, R.K. & Coache, M. 2010. The recidivism rates of female sexual offenders are low: A meta-analysis. *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research and Treatment, 22,* 387-401.

Deering, R., & Mellor, D. (2007). Female-perpetrated child sex abuse: Definitional and categorisational analysis. *Psychiatry, Psychology and Law, 14*(2), 218-226.

Deering, R., & Mellor, D. (2010). What is the prevalence of female-perpetrated child sexual abuse? a review of the literature. *American Journal of Forensic Psychology, 28*(3), 25-53.

Denov, M. (2003). The myth of innocence: Sexual scripts and the recognition of child sexual abuse by female perpetrators. *The Journal of Sex Research, 40(3),* 303-314.

Denov, M. S. (2003). To a safer place? victims of sexual abuse by females and their disclosures to professionals, *Child Abuse & Neglect,* 27(1), 47-61.

Denov, M. (2004). *Perspectives on Female Sex Offending: A Culture of Denial*. Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

Denov, M., & Cortoni, F. (2006). Women who sexually abuse children. In C. Hilarski & J.S. Wodarski (Eds.), *Comprehensive mental health practice with sex offenders and their families* (pp.71-79). Binghamton, NY: The Haworth Press.

Duncan, K. A. (2010). *Female sexual predators: Understanding them to protect our children and youths*. Santa Barbara, CA US: Praeger/ABC-CLIO.

Eck, J.E., (2006). When is a bologna sandwich better than sex? A defense of small-n case study evaluations. *Journal of Experimental Criminology, 2,* 345-362.

Eck, J.E., & Weisburd, D. (Eds.) (1995). *Crime and Place*. Monsey, NY: Criminal Justice Press and Washington, DC: The Police Executive Research Forum.

Elliot, M., Browne, K., and Kilcoyne, J. (1995). Child sexual abuse prevention: What offenders tell us. *Child Abuse and Neglect, 19(5),* 579-594.

Elliott, I. A., & Ashfield, S. (2011). The use of online technology in the modus operandi of female sex offenders. *Journal of Sexual Aggression, 17*(1), 92-104.

Faller, K. C. (1995). A clinical sample of women who have sexually abused children. *Journal of Child Sexual Abuse, 4(3),* 13-29.

Federal Bureau of Investigation. (2006). Crime in the United States, 2005: Uniform Crime Reports. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigation.

Felson, M. (2003). The process of co-offending. *Crime Prevention Studies, 16,* 149-167.

Felson, M. & Clarke, R. V. (1998). Opportunity makes a thief: Practical theory for crime prevention. Policing and Reducing Crime Unit: Police Research Series.

Ferguson, C. J., & Meehan, D. C. (2005). An analysis of females convicted of sex crimes in the state of florida. *Journal of Child Sexual Abuse, 14*(1), 75-89.

Finkelhor, D. 1994. Current information on the scope and nature of child sexual abuse. *The Future of Children: Sexual Abuse of Children 4(2):*31-53.

Finkelhor, D. (1984). *Child Sexual Abuse*. New York: Free Press.

Finkelhor, D. & Araji, S. (1986). Explanations of pedophilia: A four factor model. *The Journal of Sex Research, 22 (2),* 145-161.

Finkelhor, D., Williams, L., & Burns, N. (1988). Nursery crimes: Sexual abuse in day care. . Newbury Park: Sage Publications.

Fitzgerald, J.D. and Cox, S.M. (2001). *Research Methods and Statistics in Criminal Justice: An Introduction,* 3rd ed. Chicago: Nelson-Hall.

Ford, H. (2006). *Women Who Sexually Abuse Children.* West Sussex, England: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Freeman, N. J., & Sandler, J. C. (2008). Female and male sex offenders: A comparison of recidivism patterns and risk factors. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 23(10),* 1394-1413.

Frei, A. (2007). Media consideration of female sex offenders: A content analysis of U.S. newspaper reports from 1975-2006. *Conference Papers -- American Society of Criminology*, 1-45.

Freund, K., Heasman, G., Racansky, I. G., & Glancy, G. (1984). Pedophilia and heterosexuality vs. homosexuality. *Journal of Sex and Marital Therapy, 10,* 193-200.

Gakhal, B. K., & Brown, S. J. (2011). A comparison of the general public's, forensic professionals' and students' attitudes towards female sex offenders. *Journal of Sexual Aggression, 17(1),* 105-116.

Gannon, E. J. (2006). Equal opportunity: Treatment for female sex offenders. *PsycCRITIQUES, 51*(38), 12-26.

Gannon, T. A., Rose, M. R., & Ward, T. (2008). A descriptive model of the offense process for female sexual offenders. *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research & Treatment (Sage), 20*(3), 352-374.

Gannon, T., Rose, M. R., & Ward, T. (2010). Pathways to female sexual offending: Approach or avoidance? *Psychology, Crime & Law, 16*(5), 359-380.

Glaze, L. & Bonczar, T. (2006). *Probation and Parole in the United States, 2005.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Statistics.

Grayson, J. (1989). Female sex offenders. *Interchange: A cooperative newsletter of the adolescent perpetrator network.* Denver: The C. Henry Kempe National Center for the Prevention and Treatment of Child Abuse and Neglect.

Grayston-Alana-D, & De-Luca-Rayleen-V. (1999). Female perpetrators of child sexual abuse: A review of the clinical and empirical literature. *Aggression & Violent Behavior, 4*(1), 93-106.

Groth, N.A. (1990). Rape: Myths and realities. *Men Who Rape*. New York: Plenum Press.

Groth, A. N., & Birnbaum, H. J. (1979). Men who rape: The psychology of the offender. New York: Plenum Press.

Groth, A. N., Longo, R. E., & McFadin, J. B. (1982). Undetected recidivism among rapists and child molesters. *Crime and Delinquency, 23*, 450-458.

Hagan, J. (1989). *Structural Criminology.* New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press.

Hall, G.C.N. & Hirschman, R. (1991). Toward a theory of sexual aggression: a quadripartite model. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 59(5),* 662-669.

Harrison, K. (2011). Female sexual offenders theory, assessment and treatment. *Prison Service Journal,* (194), 45-47.

Hetherton, J. (1999). The idealization of women: Its role in the minimization of child sexual abuse by females. *Child Abuse and Neglect, 23(2),* 161-174.

Hislop, J. (2001). *Female sex offenders: What Therapists, Law Enforcement and Child Protective Services Need to Know.* Ravensdale, WA: Issues Press/Idyll Arbor.

Holmes, W.C., M.D., MSCE, Slap, G.B., M.S., M.S. (1998). Sexual abuse of boys. *Journal of the American Medical Association, 280, (1),* 1855-1862.

Hunter, J. A. (2006). Understanding diversity in juvenile sexual offenders: Implications for assessment, treatment, and legal management. In R. E. Longo & D. S. Prescott (Eds.), *Current Perspectives: Working with Sexually Aggressive Youth and Youth with Sexual Behavior Problems* (pp. 63-77). Holyoke, MA: NEARI Press.

Hunter, J. A., Becker, J. V., & Lexier, L. J. (2006). The female juvenile sex offender. In H. E. Barbaree & W. L. Marshall (Eds.), *The Juvenile Sex Offender* (2nd ed.) (pp. 148–165). New York: Guilford Press.

Jennings, Kathryn Tracey (2000). Female sex offenders: an exploratory study. *Dissertation Abstracts International Section A: Humanities and Social Sciences, Vol 60(10-A),* pp. 3802.

Johansson-Love, J. & Fremouw, W. (2005) A critique of the female sexual-perpetrator research. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 11,* 12-26.

Johansson-Love, J. & Fremouw, W. (2009). Female sex offenders: A controlled comparison of offender and victim/crime characteristics. *Journal of Family Violence, 24,* 367-376.

Johnston, F.A. & Johnston, S.A. (1997). A cognitive approach to validation of the fixated-regressed typology of child molesters. *Journal of Clinical Psychology, 54 (4),* 361-368.

Junder-Tas, J. (1999). The self-report methodology in crime research. *Crime and Justice, 25,* 291-367.

Kaplan, M.S. and Green, A. (1995). Incarcerated female sex offenders: A comparison of sexual histories with eleven female nonsexual offenders. *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research and Treatement, 7,* 287-300.

Knight, R. A. & Prentky, R. A. (1990). Classifying sexual offenders: the development and corroboration of taxonomic models. In W. Marshall, D. Laws & H. Barbaree (Eds.), *The*

Handbook of Sexual Assault: Issues, Theories, and Treatment of the Offender (pp. 23-52). New York: Plenum Press.

Knoll, J. 2010. Teacher sexual misconduct: Grooming patterns and female offenders. *Journal of Child Sexual Abuse, 19,* 371-386.

Lanning, K. V., & US Dept, O. J. (1992). Child molesters: A behavior analysis for law enforcement officers investigating cases of child sexual exploitation, third edition. *Child Molesters: A Behavior Analysis for Law Enforcement Officers Investigating Cases of Child Sexual Exploitation, Third Edition,* US Dept of Justice. 76p.

Lawson, L. (2008). Female sex offenders' relationship experiences. *Violence & Victims, 23(3),* 331-343.

Leclerc, B., Proulx, J., & Beauregard, E. (2009). Examining the modus operandi of sexual offenders against children and its practical implications. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 14,* 5-12.

Leclerc, B., Beauregard, E., & Proulx, J. (2008). Modus operandi and situational aspects in adolescent sexual offenses against children: A further examination. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology, 52,* 46-61.

Levenson, J. S. & Cotter, L.P. (2005). The impact of sex offender residence restrictions: 1000ft from danger or one step from absurd? *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology, 49(2),* 168-178.

Levenson, J.S. & Hern, A. (2007). Sex offender residence restrictions: Unintended consequences and community re-entry. *Justice Research and Policy, 9,* 59-73.

Lewis, M.D., C.F. & Stanley, L.C.S.W., C.R. (2000). Women accused of sexual offenses. *Behavioral Sciences and the Law, 18,* 73-81.

Lowenstein, L. (2006). Aspects of young sex abusers--A review of the literature concerning young sex abusers (1996-2004). *Clinical Psychology & Psychotherapy, 13(1),* 47-55.

Lussier, P., LeBlanc, M., & Proulx, J. (2005). The generality of criminal behavior: A confirmatory factor analysis of the criminal activity of sex offenders in adulthood. *Journal of Criminal Justice, 33,* 177-189.

Maddan, S. (2008). *The Labeling of Sex Offenders: The Unintended Consequences of the Best Intentioned Public Policies.* Lanham, Maryland: University Press of America.

Marshall, W.L. (1996). Assessment, treatment and theorizing about sex offenders: Developments during the past twenty years and future directions. *Criminal Justice and Behavior, 23(1),* 162-199.

Marshall, W. L. & Barbaree, H.E. (1990). An integrated theory of the etiology of sexual offending. In W.L. Marshall, D. R. Laws & H.E. Barbaree (Eds.), *Handbook of Sexual Assault: Issues, Theories, and the Treatment of the Offender* (pp. 257-275). New York: Plenum.

Marshall, W. L., Serran, G. A., & Marshall, L. E. (2006). Situational and dispositional factors in child sexual molestation: A clinical perspective. In R. Wortley & S. Smallbone (Eds.), *Situational Prevention of Child Sexual Abuse* (Crime Prevention Studies Vol. 19, pp. 37-64). Monsey, NY: Criminal Justice Press.

Mathews, R., Matthews, J. K., & Speltz, K. (1989). *Female Sexual Offenders: An Exploratory Study*, Orwell, VT: Safer Society Press.

Mathis, J. L. (1972). *Clear thinking about sexual deviations: A new look at an old problem.* Chicago, IL: Nelson-Hall.

Matravers, A. (2008). Narratives of women sex offenders. *Conference Papers -- American Society of Criminology, Annual Conference*.

Matthews, J. K., Mathews, R., & Speltz, K. (1991). Female sexual offenders: A typology. In M. Q. Patton, & M. Q. Patton (Eds.), *Family Sexual Abuse: Frontline Research and Evaluation.* (pp. 199-219). Thousand Oaks, CA US: Sage Publications, Inc.

Mayer, A. (1992). *Women Sex Offenders.* Holmes Beach, FL: Learning Publications.

McAlinden, A. (2006). Managing risk: From regulation to the reintegration of sexual offenders. *Criminology and Criminal Justice, 6(2),* 197-218.

McCartan, L. M., & Gunnison, E. (2010). Individual and relationship factors that differentiate female offenders with and without a sexual abuse history. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 25*(8), 1449-1469.

Mercado, C. C., Alvarez, S., & Levenson, J. S. (2008). The impact of specialized sex offender legislation on community re-entry. *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research & Treatment, 20(2),* 188-205.

Metzner, J. (1988). Adolescent sex offender: an overview. *Interchange: A Cooperative Newsletter of the Adolescent Perpetrator Network*. Denver: The C. Henry Kempe National Center for the Prevention and Treatment of Child Abuse and Neglect.

Miccio-Fonseca, L. (2000). Adult and adolescent female sex offenders: Experiences compared to other female and male sex offenders. *Journal of Psychology & Human Sexuality, 11*(3), 75-88.

Miletski, H. (1995). *Mother-Son Incest: The Unthinkable Broken Taboo; An Overview of Findings*, Brandon VT: Safer Society Press.

Miller, H.A., Turner, K., & Henderson, C.E. (2009). Psychopathology of sex offenders: A comparison of males and females using latent profile analysis. *Criminal Justice & Behavior, 36*(8), 778-792.

Morey, L.C. (1991). *Personality Assessment Inventory - Professional Manual*. Florida, USA: Psychological Assessment Resources, Inc.

Muskens, M., Bogaerts, S., van Casteren, M., & Labrijn, S. (2011). Adult female sexual offending: A comparison between co-offenders and solo offenders in a dutch sample. *Journal of Sexual Aggression, 17(1),* 46-60.

Nathan, P., & Ward, T. (2001). Females who sexually abuse children: Assessment and treatment issues. *Psychiatry, Psychology and Law, 8(1),* 44-55.

Nathan, P., & Ward, T. (2002). Female sex offenders: Clinical and demographic features. *Journal of Sexual Aggression, 8(1),* 5-21.

Nelson, A. (2004). Incarcerated female sex offenders' perceptions of consent. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering, 64*(8-B), pp. 4054.

Nicaise, V., Bois, J., Fairclough, S., Amorose, A., and Cogerino, G. (2007). Girls' and boys' perceptions of physical education teachers' feedback: Effects on performance and psychological responses. *Journal of Sports Science, 25(8),* 915–926.

Oliver, B.E. 2007. Preventing female-perpetrated sexual abuse. *Trauma, Violence & Abuse, 8(1),* 19-32.

Pallet, K. C. (1987). Women who sexually abuse children. *Violence & Victims, 2*(4), 263-276.

Peter, T. (2009). Exploring taboos: Comparing male- and female-perpetrated child sexual abuse. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 24 (7),* 1111-1128.

Pflugradt, D. M., & Allen, B. P. (2010). An exploratory analysis of executive functioning for female sexual offenders: A comparison of characteristics across offense typologies. *Journal of Child Sexual Abuse, 19(4),* 434-449.

Poels, V. (2007). Risk assessment of recidivism of violent and sexual female offenders. *Psychiatry, Psychology & Law, 14(2),* 227-250.

Prentky, R.A. & Burgess, A.W. (2000). *Forensic Management of Sexual Offenders*. New York, NY: Kluwer Academic/Plenum Press.

Robertiello, G., & Terry, K. J. (2007). Can we profile sex offenders? A review of sex offender typologies. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 12,* 508-518.

Rosencrans, B. (1997). *Last secret: Daughters Sexually Abused by Mothers.* Brandon VT: Safer Society Press.

Rudin, M. M., Zalewski, C., & Bodmer-Turner, J. (1995). Characteristics of child sexual abuse victims according to perpetrator gender. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 19(8),* 963-973.

Saleh, F.M., Grudzinskas, Jr., A.J., Bradford, J.M., and Brodsky, D.J. (2009). *Sex Offenders: Identification, Risk Assessment, Treatment, and Legal Issues.* New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Sandler, J., & Freeman, N. J. (2011). Female sex offenders and the criminal justice system: A comparison of arrests and outcomes. *Journal of Sexual Aggression, 17(1),* 61-76.

Sandler, J. C., & Freeman, N. J. (2009). Female sex offender recidivism: A large-scale empirical analysis. *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research & Treatment (Sage), 21(4),* 455-473.

Sandler, J. C., & Freeman, N. J. (2007). Typology of female sex offenders: A test of Vandiver and Kercher. *Sex Abuse, 19,* 73-89.

Saradjian, J. (1996). *Women Who Sexually Abuse Children: From Research to Clinical Practice.* Chichester: Wiley.

Sarrel, P. & Masters, W. (1982). Sexual molestation of men by women. *Archives of Sexual Behavior, 11(2),* 117-131.

Scarpellino, R. (1998). Female and male adult sex offenders: A comparison of their key psychological dynamics. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering, 59,* 4-24.

Senjo, Scott R. (2006). "Sex Offending and Fear: A review of Sexual Offenses and Offenders: Theory, Practice, and Policy" by Karen J. Terry. *Sexual Addiction & Compulsivity, 13(1),* 121-125.

Shakeshaft, C. (2003). Educator Sexual Abuse. *Hofstra Horizons*, 10-13.

Snyder H., and Sickmund M., *Juvenile Offenders and Victims: 2006 National Report.* Washington, DC: Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Solomon, J.C. (1992). Child sexual abuse by family members: A radical feminist perspective. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research, 27, (9-10),* 473-485.

Soothkill, K., Francis, B., Sanderson, B., & Ackerley, E. (2000). Sex offenders: Specialits, generalists—or both? *British Journal of Criminology, 40,* 56-67.

Strickland, S. M. (2008). Female sex offenders. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 23*(*4),* 474-489.

Sullivan, J. and Beech, A. (2002). Professional perpetrators: sex offender who use their employment to target and sexually abuse the children with whom they work. *Child Abuse Review, 11 (3),* 153-167.

Syed, F. and Williams, S. (1996). *Case Studies of Female Sex Offenders in the Correctional Service of Canada.* Ottawa: Correctional Service Camada.

Sykes, G.M. and Matza, D. (1957). Techniques of neutralization: A theory of delinquency. *American Sociological Review, 22 (6),* 664-670.

Terry, K. J. (2006). *Sexual Offenses and Offenders: Theory, Practice and Policy*. Belmont California: Wadsworth Publishing.

Terry, K. J. & Ackerman, A. (2008). Child sexual abuse in the Catholic church: How situational crime prevention strategies can help create safe environments. *Criminal Justice and Behavior, 35, 5* 643-657.

Tewksbury, R. (2004). Experiences and attitudes of registered female sex offenders. *Federal Probation, 68(3),* 30-33.

Tewksbury, R. (2005). Collateral consequences of sex offender registration. *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice, 21(1),* 67-81.

Thornberry, T.P. & Krohn, M.D. (2000). The self-report method for measuring delinquency and crime. In Duffee, D., Crutchfield, R.D., Mastrofski, S., Mazerolle, L., McDowall, D., & Ostrom, B. (eds.), *Criminal Justice*: *Innovations in Measurement and Analysis.* Washington, DC: National Institute of Justice.

Tjaden, P. & Thoennes, N. (2006). Extent, nature, and consequences of rape victimization: *Findings from the National Violence Against Women Survey, Special Report*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice, & the Centers for Disease Control Prevention.

Tsopelas, C., Spyridoula, T., & Athanasios, D. (2011). Review on female sexual offenders: Findings about profile and personality. *International Journal of Law & Psychiatry, 34(2),* 122-126.

Travin S, Cullen K, Protter B. (1990). Female sex offenders: Severe victims and victimizers. *Journal of Forensic Sciences 35,* 140-150.

Turner, K., Miller, H. A., & Henderson, C. E. (2008). Latent profile analyses of offense and personality characteristics in a sample of incarcerated female sexual offenders. *Criminal Justice & Behavior, 35(7),* 879-894.

United States Department of Justice. Bureau of Justice Statistics. 2008. *National Crime Victimization Survey, 2002* Ann Arbor, MI: Inter-university Consortium for Political and Social Research.

Valios, N. (2002). Teacher sex allegations expose flaws in regulation of supply agencies. *Community Care, 1409,* 18-32.

Van Dam, C., Ph.D. (2001). *Identifying Child Molesters: Preventing Child Sexual Abuse by Recognizing the Patterns of the Offenders*. Binghamton, NY, US: Haworth Maltreatment and Trauma Press/The Haworth Press.

Vandiver, D. M., & Walker, J. T. (2002). Female sex offenders: An overview and analysis of 40 cases. *Criminal Justice Review (Georgia State University), 27(2),* 284-300.

Vandiver, D. M. (2003). Female sex offenders: An analysis of offending patterns and judicial processing characteristics. *Humanities and Social Sciences, 63(7),* 275-293.

Vandiver, D.M. & Kercher, G. (2004). Offender and victim characteristics of registered female sexual offenders in Texas: A proposed typology of female sexual offenders. *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research and Treatment, 16(2),* 121-137.

Vandiver, D. M. (2006). Female sex offenders. In R. D. McAnulty, M. M. Burnette, R. D. McAnulty & M. M. Burnette (Eds.), *Sex and Sexuality, Vol 3: Sexual Deviation and Sexual Offenses.* (pp. 47-80). Westport, CT US: Praeger Publishers/Greenwood Publishing Group.

Vandiver, D.M. 2006. Female sex offenders: A comparison of solo offenders and co-offenders. *Violence and Victims, 21(3),* 339-354.

Vandiver, D. M. (2010). Assessing gender differences and co-offending patterns of a predominantly "male-oriented" crime: A comparison of a cross-national sample of juvenile boys and girls arrested for a sexual offense. *Violence & Victims, 25(2),* 243-264.

Vandiver, D.M., & Teske, R. (2006). Juvenile female and male sex offenders: A comparison of offender, victim, and judicial processing characteristics. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology, 50(2),* 148-165.

Wakefield, H., & Underwagner, R. (1991). Female child sexual abusers: a critical review of the literature. *The American Journal of Forensic Psychology, 9(4),* 43–69.

Ward, T. (2000). Sexual offenders' cognitive distortions as implicit theories. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 5(5),* 491-507.

Ward, T. and Hudson, S.M. (1998). A model of the relapse process in sexual offenders. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 27,* 2391-2414.

Ward, T., Hudson, S.M., and Keenan, T. (1998). A self-regulation model of the sexual offense process. *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research, 10(2),* 141-157.

Ward, T. and Kennan, T. (1999). Child molesters' implicit theories. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 14 (8),* 821-838.

Ward, T. & Siegert, R.J. (2002). Toward a comprehensive theory of child sexual abuse: a theory knitting perspective. *Psychology, Crime & Law, 8,* 319-351.

West, S. G., Friedman, S. H., & Kim, K. D. (2011). Women accused of sex offenses: A gender-based comparison. *Behavioral Sciences & the Law, 29(5),* 728-740.

Whelan, C., Farr, C., & Hammond, S. (2010). Evaluation and validation of the revised thorne sex inventory: Implications for female sexual offenders. *Journal of Forensic Psychiatry & Psychology, 21(5),* 721-736.

Wijkman, M., Bijleveld, C., Hendricks, J. 2010. Women don't do such things! Characteristics of female sex offenders and offender types. *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research and Treatment, 22(2),* 135-156.

Wijkman, M., Bijleveld, C., & Hendriks, J. (2011). Female sex offenders: Specialists, generalists and once-only offenders. *Journal of Sexual Aggression, 17(1),* 34-45.

Wolfe, F. A. (1985). Twelve female sexual offenders. Paper presented at Next Steps in Research on the Assessment and Treatment of Sexually Aggressive Persons (Paraphiliacs), St. Louis, MO.

Wortley, R. (2001). A classification of techniques for controlling situational precipitators of crime. *Security Journal, 14,* 63-82.

Wortley, R. (2003). Situational Crime Prevention and Prison Control: Lessons for Each Other. *Crime Prevention Studies, 16,* 97-117.

Wortley, R. and Smallbone, S. (2006). *Situational Prevention of Child Sexual Abuse.* Monsey, New York: Criminal Justice Press/Willow Tree Press.