MANCHESTER METROPOLITAN UNIVERSITY

THE INVESTIGATION, ASSESSMENT AND FORMULATION OF STRANGER SEXUAL VIOLENCE

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THE INVESTIGATION, ASSESSMENT
AND FORMULATION OF
STRANGER SEXUAL VIOLENCE

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I also wish to thank my employer, Greater Manchester West Mental Health NHS Foundation Trust, not only for allowing me time off here and there to attend supervision meetings or to return library books, but also for allowing access to data on 'Mark' for paper nine. Naturally of course, I wish my gratitude to 'Mark' to be known. His was a tragic and complex case, which taught me so much about the assessment of high risk offenders. Similarly, my involvement with 'John' over the years needs acknowledging. Although one of the most disturbing cases I have ever encountered, interviewing and assessing John has been a fascinating and informative experience, which triggered my interest in sexual homicide. Indeed, I am equally indebted to countless other offenders who I have met over the years but who must remain nameless. Although many had engaged in acts of serious violence, the experience of interviewing and assessing them in prisons and secure hospitals has been an education which cannot be replicated.

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ABSTRACT

Stranger sexual violence remains a matter of public concern. A key challenge which confronts criminal justice personnel dealing with such crimes is to understand the causes of the attacks and their meaning for the perpetrator. This thesis presents a portfolio of published works which address this challenge.

Firstly, the diverse nature of some very rare and distinctive sex offender subtypes is explored. These include those with a mental illness, a personality disorder and/or those who sexually assault adult female strangers, including rape and sexual homicide. This is achieved by examining case files from high and medium secure forensic services, official data held by the National Crime Agency, and the latest research in this area. Using quantitative and qualitative research methods, important difference in relation to offender previous histories, offence behaviours and offence motivation are highlighted, as well as the differing contexts and circumstances in which stranger sexual violence occurs. These findings suggest that although rare, sex offender types have many similarities to other offenders, knowledge and understanding of these important 'within-group' differences are required by criminal justice personnel.

Secondly, a new development in forensic clinical practice is presented. Referred to as 'index offence analysis' this is a formal and structured analysis of a crime, which helps to capture different offence behaviours and motivations, to ensure they are included in the assessment process and the final case formulation.

This thesis therefore suggests important 'within group' differences exist among men who engage in similar types of stranger sexual violence and such differences can be identified by a detailed analysis of their offending. Consequently, knowledge of such violence is required in order to understand how and why an offence occurred where and when it did. The findings of this thesis have important implications, not only for clinical practice but criminal investigations.
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<td>ANOVA</td>
<td>Analysis of Variance</td>
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<tr>
<td>APD</td>
<td>Antisocial Personality Disorder</td>
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<td>CCM</td>
<td>Crime Classification Manual</td>
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<tr>
<td>DI</td>
<td>Diversity Index</td>
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<tr>
<td>DSM-IV-TR</td>
<td>Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 4th Edition, Text Revision</td>
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<td>DSM-5</td>
<td>Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 5th Edition</td>
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<td>DSPD</td>
<td>Dangerous and Severe Personality Disorder</td>
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<td>HCR-20</td>
<td>Historical, Clinical, Risk 20</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICD-10</td>
<td>International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems, 10th Edition</td>
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<tr>
<td>IPP</td>
<td>Indeterminate Sentence for Public Protection</td>
</tr>
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<td>NHS</td>
<td>National Health Service</td>
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<td>MAPPA</td>
<td>Multi-Agency Public Protection Arrangements</td>
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<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>Mathematical Mean</td>
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<tr>
<td>MDS</td>
<td>Multidimensional Scaling</td>
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<tr>
<td>MTC:R3</td>
<td>Massachusetts Treatment Centre Rapist Typology Version 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>Number of Participants</td>
</tr>
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<td>NCA</td>
<td>National Crime Agency</td>
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<td>NWSCCT</td>
<td>NHS Northwest Specialised Commissioning Team</td>
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<td>ONS</td>
<td>Office for National Statistics</td>
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<td>PCL-R</td>
<td>Psychopathy Checklist Revised</td>
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<td>RSVP</td>
<td>Risk for Sexual Violence Protocol</td>
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<tr>
<td>SIO</td>
<td>Senior Investigating Officer</td>
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<td>SOTP</td>
<td>Sex Offender Treatment Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>SCAS</td>
<td>Serious Crime Analysis Section</td>
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<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
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<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for Social Scientists</td>
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<td>ViCLAS</td>
<td>Violent Crime Linkage Analysis System</td>
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<td>WTC</td>
<td>World Trade Centre</td>
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<tr>
<td>3Ds</td>
<td>Drivers, Destabilisers and Dis-inhibitors formulation model</td>
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<tr>
<td>5Ps</td>
<td>Problem, Predisposing, Precipitating, Perpetuating and Protective Factors formulation model.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9/11</td>
<td>September 11th, 2001</td>
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GLOSSARY OF TERMS

Antisocial personality disorder: A personality disorder (see below) often associated with a disregard for and violation of the rights of others.

Classification: Arrangement of phenomena into classes or categories.

English high security hospitals: Ashworth in Merseyside, Broadmoor in Berkshire and Rampton in Nottinghamshire.

Expressive violence: Violence which is excessive, gratuitous and evidencing emotional states such as rage, anger or frustration

Gatekeepers: Individuals within organizations who control access to research participants or to secondary sources of data.

Heterogeneity: Diverse or varied in character or context.

Homogeneous: Uniform in character or context or otherwise of the same kind.

Idiographic: Relating to or concerned with individuals with the aim of understanding uniqueness.

Index offence analysis: The formal and structured analysis of an index offence (see paper 9).

Instrumental violence: Violence which is aimed at achieving a specific goal and which is secondary to that goal.

Investigative psychology: A branch of psychology which focuses on criminal behaviour and criminal investigations.

Mental disorder: Any disorder or disability of the mind (Mental Health Act 1983) which in this thesis generally refers to mental illness and personality disorder.

Mental illness: In this thesis this generally refers to serious disorders of the mind such as schizophrenia and psychosis.

Multidimensional scaling: A statistical technique that analyses the correlation between variables, the strength of which are represented as distances between points in graphical space (see paper1).

Modus operandi: An offender's method of operation, i.e. how they commit the crime.
**Nomothetic:** The study of classes or groups of individuals which the aim of developing 'laws' of human behaviour.

**Paraphilia:** Sexual interest in atypical behaviours (e.g. Inflicting harm) or targets (e.g. Children), which is enduring, persistent and necessary for sexual enjoyment.

**Paraphilic disorder:** A paraphilia whose activities cause distress, impairment or harm to the individual or others.

**Personality disorder:** Personality difficulties which are problematic, persistent and pervasive.

**Psychopathy:** A severe form of antisocial personality disorder which often includes narcissistic, paranoid, sadistic and emotionally unstable traits.

**Rape:** Sexual intercourse without consent.

**Risk assessment:** The process of determining an individual's potential to engage in violent offending in the future and to determine what steps, if any, can be taken to prevent this.

**Sexual homicide:** When the crimes of homicide and sexual violence coalesce into one single act or during one single assault (see paper 7).

**Sex offender treatment programme:** A therapeutic intervention delivered within the criminal justice system, aimed at people with a current or previous sex offence conviction.

**Sexual violence:** In this thesis, this term relates to unlawful sexual behaviour.

**Static-99:** A risk assessment tool designed to estimate the probability of future sexual or violent offending among male sex offenders.

**Stranger:** A type of victim-offender relationship which generally refers to them not knowing each other.

**Typologies:** Systematic grouping of offenders or their offences based on one or more shared characteristics.
PUBLICATIONS ARISING FROM THIS THESIS
(JOINT AUTHORSHIP CONTRIBUTION)

security hospitals. *Journal of Sexual Aggression, 13*(2), 151-167. (60/40)
the mentally ill: implications for understanding and treatment. *Sexual and
Relationship Therapy, 22*(3), 323-337. (70/30)
Greenall, P. V., & Marselle, M. (2007). Traumatic research: Interviewing survivors of
West, A. G., & Greenall, P. V. (2011). Incorporating index offence analysis into
forensic clinical assessment. *Legal and Criminological Psychology, 16*(1), 144-159. (50/50)
Greenall, P. V. (2012). Understanding sexual homicide. *Journal of Sexual Aggression,
18*(3), 338-354.
Greenall, P. V., & Richardson, C. (2014). Adult Male-on-Female Stranger Sexual
Homicide: A Descriptive (Baseline) Study from Great Britain. *Homicide
Studies, OnlineFirst Article*, 1-20. (Second author was my PhD supervisor)
Sexual Killers. *The Journal of Forensic Psychiatry and Psychology, Online
Article*, 1-18. (Second author was my PhD supervisor)
PRESENTATIONS ARISING FROM THIS THESIS


N.B.

At the time of writing two further presentations have been agreed:

1. Poster Presentation; ‘*Stranger Sexual Homicide: A Summary of Findings from Great Britain*’.

2. Oral presentation; ‘*Incorporating Index Offence Analysis in Forensic Clinical Assessment*’.

Both will be delivered at the European Association of Psychology & Law conference in Nuremberg, in August 2015.
ABOUT THE AUTHOR

As this thesis is inevitably informed by my professional experiences, they are noted here. During 1989-2002 I was an administrator at Ashworth Hospital near Liverpool. Although not a clinical role, it nevertheless provided experience of interviewing mentally disordered offenders and knowledge of their offences and previous histories. I later spent two years at Ashworth as a post-graduate researcher, exploring the psycho-social needs of patients who did not require conditions of high security and then conducting research into risk assessment and psychopathy. These projects involved clinical interviews and case file reviews. During 1999-2005 I was a member of the Independent Monitoring Board at HMP Garth in Lancashire, where I conducted inspections of this category ‘B’ prison. Then during 2005-08 I was a research psychologist at the University of Liverpool where as part of a team, I explored the evacuation experiences of a sample of people who escaped from the Twin Towers of the World Trade Centre on September 11th, 2001. This involved interviewing these individuals during field trips to New York City.

Presently, I am employed by an NHS Mental Health Trust, in a forensic medium secure unit and a female prison. At the medium secure unit I undertake assessments of high risk offenders who are detained in prisons and other secure hospitals, and who are considered to have a personality disorder. Additionally, I co-facilitate group based interventions including sex offender treatment and thinking skills programmes. Within the prison I provide a Forensic Psychology input to the mental health in-reach team, primarily around the areas of risk formulation. In addition to my clinical work, I deliver academic teaching on various topics (e.g. sexual offending, risk assessment, personality disorder, index offence analysis) to post-graduate students at universities in Liverpool, Manchester and Huddersfield. I also periodically assist clinical psychologist colleagues in the provision of evidence based psychological formulations for Detectives investigating (live or cold) cases of stranger sexual violence and homicide. Finally, I am presently working towards registration as a Practitioner Forensic Psychologist with the Health and Care Professions Council.
FOREWORD

Stranger sexual violence remains a matter of public concern and a challenge to criminal justice agencies. However, through the publication of peer reviewed research the forensic behavioural sciences can increase our understanding of this phenomenon. I truly hope the collection of papers presented here make a positive contribution in this regard. If so, it will be due in no small part to the influence of four key individuals, whom I have been fortunate to have known during my career.

Dr (later Professor) Malcolm MacCulloch: As an office junior in 1989 I worked for Dr MacCulloch who was then Medical Director of Park Lane (now Ashworth) Hospital. Administering the correspondence that flowed through his office provided my first insight into the systematic consideration of the criminal mind and it inspired me to attend university to study it. Several years later, I consulted Dr MacCulloch's seminal text on sadistic fantasy\(^1\) and this remains one of the most influential papers I have ever read. Moreover, this thesis opens with a quote from another of his classic papers, which first impressed upon me the need to consider the criminal act from the offender's perspective, however unpleasant that may be.

Professor David Canter: During 2005-08 I was Professor Canter's Research Assistant at the Centre for Investigative Psychology, at the University of Liverpool. This experience led me to consider Professor Canter to be one of the most impressive and insightful individuals I have ever met. His approach to the study of human behaviour remains a significant influence on me, both as a researcher and in my clinical practice.

Dr Adrian West: I have known Dr West for over 15 years. He helped me through my under and post graduate studies; I have learned a great deal from working with him at the Edenfield Centre and on some police cases which he has kindly shared with me; and two of the papers in this thesis are collaborations between us. His knowledge and clinical experience and his ability to draw on both to aid criminal investigations, are extremely impressive and he has proven to be a very generous mentor and a valued friend.

**Dr Caroline Logan:** I have known Dr Logan for over a decade and I remain deeply indebted to her for introducing me to the fascinating topics and debates around personality disorder, psychopathy and risk assessment, all of which have influenced this thesis. Moreover, her generosity in my personal and professional development has gone way beyond anything I could have imagined. Dr Logan is a very impressive lady indeed and it will be a travesty if one day she is not made a Professor.

Collectively, these individuals have inspired and influenced me over the years, such that this thesis would not exist if I had not had the privilege of knowing them. If the papers presented here make a positive contribution to the investigation, assessment and formulation of stranger sexual violence, then in the words of Sir Isaac Newton "if I have seen further, it is by standing on the shoulders of giants."

**Paul V. Greenall**  
Westhead,  
Lancashire.  

February 2015
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

"Perhaps the single most important task which challenges forensic clinicians is that of understanding the causes of attacks and their meanings for the perpetrator"
(MacCulloch, Bailey, & Robinson, 1995, p.43)

When confronted with serious interpersonal violence, victims, witnesses, criminal justice personnel and sometimes the media, seek explanations for such behaviour. However, as indicated by the opening quote from MacCulloch et al. (1995), determining why an individual engages in serious violence remains a significant undertaking. Despite the forensic behavioural sciences providing theories for various types of criminal behaviour (Helfgott, 2008), the best we can achieve is an evidence based formulation of the case (Sturmey & McMurrnan, 2011). However, when violence is of a sexual nature or is carried out to satisfy sexual needs, the task of understanding such conduct and its meaning for the perpetrator, becomes more complex. Moreover, when sexual violence is committed by a stranger or results in the victim's death, the complexity of this task increases. It is therefore essential for police officers and clinicians working in prisons, secure hospitals or probation settings, to have an evidence base from which to draw, to enhance their understanding and inform their practice.

AIMS OF THE THESIS

This thesis is primarily concerned with behavioural and motivational diversity (or 'heterogeneity') among similar types of offenders, which can be identified by a detailed analysis of their offending. This is the focus of three volumes of published works. Although each volume makes a contribution to the knowledge base in its own right, the volumes are linked by the fact that they have developed sequentially, with the latter volumes building on the findings of the former. The aims of this thesis therefore are:
1. To illustrate how the sex offender heterogeneity hypothesis applies to some rare and distinctive sex offender sub-types. These include those with a mental illness, a personality disorder and/or those who sexually assault adult female strangers, including rape and sexual homicide.

2. To illustrate how information relating to the index offence can be included in clinical assessments so the context, circumstance, causes and meanings of interpersonal violence can be understood and inform the case formulation.

3. To consider how aims one and two can assist criminal investigations and forensic clinical practice.

To achieve these aims the thesis utilises quantitative and qualitative research methods, with the aim of assisting the process of idiographic formulation, within both investigative and clinical settings. Crucially, although stranger sexual violence is the main focus of this thesis, it is not the exclusive focus. Consequently, as illustrated later in this thesis (see paper 9), the findings will apply to other types of (non-sexual) violent crime. Finally, because this thesis does not mark the end of my academic and developmental journey, the thesis closes by indicating areas of future research.

**Structure of the Thesis**

Before these aims can be undertaken some important concepts need to be considered and this will be achieved within the following chapters.

Chapter two examines stranger sexual violence. This involves consideration of the law on sexual offending; the concept of sexual deviancy and the role and function of physical violence in such assaults. The chapter closes by introducing an important obstacle to our understanding of sexual violence, namely sex offender heterogeneity.

Chapter three considers how the concept of sex offender heterogeneity has been addressed. Primarily this has been via the classification of sexual offenders and/or their offences, with the aim of assisting criminal investigations and clinical practice. Classification however, is not an exact science and research continues.
Chapter four summarises the methodologies employed by this thesis and some wider issues are explored. These relate to the distinction between nomothetic and idiographic research; gaining access to data and the role of ‘gatekeepers’ and the challenges presented by the peer review process.

Chapter five presents a portfolio of six peer reviewed academic papers which form a major part of this thesis. These papers address the first aim of this thesis and are arranged in two volumes:

**VOLUME 1: HETEROGENEITY IN MENTALLY DISORDERED SEX OFFENDERS**

- **Paper 1. Greenall and West (2007):** Highlights the diverse previous histories, offence behaviours and motivations among a sample (n=41) of mentally disordered stranger rapists from the English high security hospitals.

- **Paper 2. Greenall and Jellicoe-Jones (2007):** Explores the motivational themes and future risk of a sample (n=11) of sex offenders from a regional forensic service, most of whom offended in the context of a mental illness.

- **Paper 3. Greenall (2007):** Explores research into the link between sexual offending and antisocial (psychopathic) personality disorder.

**VOLUME 2: HETEROGENEITY IN SEXUAL HOMICIDE**

- **Paper 4. Greenall (2012):** Explores research on sexual homicide, the various definitions used and illustrates the diverse contexts and circumstances in which this crime occurs.

- **Paper 5. Greenall and Richardson (2014):** Presents a descriptive profile of adult male-on-female stranger sexual homicide in Great Britain (n=81) and is the baseline for paper nine, as well as future studies into this crime.

- **Paper 6. Greenall and Wright (2015):** Explores the criminal histories of 81 stranger sexual killers, to establish what this information can tell us about the relationship between previous offending and stranger sexual homicide.
Chapter six addresses the second aim of this thesis by introducing the concept and process of index offence analysis, as well as its development and aims. This is underpinned by three further peer reviewed academic papers and a specially designed assessment protocol (see appendix 1, 2, 3 and 4). Two of them (i.e. papers 8 and 9) relate to the clinical assessment of violent offenders, the other (paper 7) relates to a previous social psychological research experience. The absence of a forensic focus meant paper seven was originally not scheduled for inclusion within this thesis. However, upon reflection this paper is included, because the experience it describes was crucial to the development of index offence analysis. The three papers which underpin this chapter are as follows:


- **Paper 8. Greenall (2009):** Describes the process of assessing high risk offenders; the need to include information from multiple sources in such assessments, and it introduces the concept of index offence analysis.

- **Paper 9. West and Greenall (2011):** Formally introduces and explains the concept and process of index offence analysis in forensic clinical practice.

Chapter seven examines the implications of this thesis. Principally, this involves considering how the findings benefit criminal investigations and clinical practice. The chapter concludes this thesis, by considering some critical issues and personal reflections, and offers proposals for future research.

**INVESTIGATION, ASSESSMENT AND FORMULATION**

Three concepts mentioned throughout this thesis require definition. Firstly, 'investigation' refers to the activities of police officers and is "an effective search for material to bring an offender to justice" (Association of Chief Police Officers, 2012,
Such investigations focus on crimes that have been committed, ascertain whether a crime has been committed or the belief that a crime may be committed (Association of Chief Police Officers, 2012). Secondly, 'assessment' is a similar concept which refers to “the process of gathering information for the use in decision making” (Douglas, Hart, Webster, & Belfrage, 2013, p.4) and is undertaken by clinicians working with offenders in prisons, secure hospitals or community settings. Thirdly, 'formulation' relates to a clinical process which involves “the preparation of an evidence-based explanation of a person’s difficulties” (Hart, Sturmey, Logan, & McMurran, 2011, p.118). A formulation is essentially a hypothesis which is subject to revision as new information becomes available (Sturmey & McMurran, 2011). In this thesis formulation also applies to the development of investigative hypotheses during criminal investigations (Cook & Tattersall, 2010).

**CONCLUSION**

As Nye (2000) states when writing about humanistic phenomenology, people react not on the basis of objective reality, but on how they view that reality. The same applies to criminal behaviour and consequently, the quote by MacCulloch et al. (1995) which opens this chapter, remains a big influence on my clinical practice, where the need to understand the causes and meanings of criminal behaviour is fundamental. In relation to sexual violence, the complexity of this task is marked by the diversity of such offences and those who commit them. The aim of this thesis is to assist criminal justice personnel to address this complexity and the following chapters explain how this can be achieved.
CHAPTER 2
STRANGER SEXUAL VIOLENCE

“You have two options - you can give me what I want and you tell nobody what has happened, or tonight is the night you die”
(A stranger rapist to his victim, from Perry, 2014, online)

Sexual violence involves “actual, attempted, or threatened sexual contact with another person that is nonconsensual” (Hart & Boer, 2010, p.269). When the victim and assailant have no prior relationship, such assaults are examples of ‘stranger sexual violence’. As this chapter will show, within such attacks, various sexual acts can be attempted or completed and some assaults evidence sexual deviancy. Additionally, violence can be utilised by the offender to subdue the victim or to satisfy various psychological needs. On some occasions, violence can escalate and result in a sexual homicide.

This chapter introduces the concept of stranger sexual violence, and three issues crucial to our understanding of this crime, namely sexual offending, sexual deviancy and the role and function of physical violence. The chapter then concludes by introducing a concept which hinders our understanding of this crime, namely sex offender heterogeneity.

SEXUAL OFFENDING
Following a review of existing legislation (Home Office, 2000), sexual offences are defined under English Law by the Sexual Offences Act 2003. Within this Act, sexual offences are grouped into various categories. These include offences defined by the absence of consent, such as rape and sexual assault; offences where victims are unable to give consent, such as children or those with a mental disorder; the abuse of a position of trust for sexual purposes, such as teachers with pupils; familial sex offences, such as sexual activity with a child family member; preparatory offences, such as sexual grooming and trespass with intent; other sexual offences, such as exposure and
voyeurism; and exploitation offences, such as child pornography, indecent photographs and trafficking (Stevenson, Davies, & Gunn, 2004). Offences most relevant to this thesis are those involving physical contact, such as rape and sexual assault.

The Sexual Offences Act 2003 does not define ‘stranger’ so various (unofficial) definitions exist. For example, Harris and Grace suggest stranger rapes are “where the suspect had no contact with the complainant prior to the attack” (1999, p.2). Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary divide stranger sexual assaults into ‘stranger one’ cases, where the suspect is completely unknown and ‘stranger two’ cases where:

“the victim and suspect have met for the first time ... or are known on first-name terms only or are known only through third parties such as mutual friends” (ibid., 2007, p.49).

The crucial feature of stranger sexual violence is the context in which it occurs. Whilst sexual violence can occur in the context of various pre-existing interpersonal relationships (e.g. acquaintances, current/former intimates, friends etc.), in stranger sexual violence, contact between offender and victim is largely limited to when the assault occurs (Dedel, 2011). Such offenders, therefore, intentionally victimise strangers to satisfy their needs, wants or desires and in so doing, evidence a risk factor for future violence (Hanson & Thornton, 1999; Thornton et al., 2003).

**Prevalence**

Official figures for England and Wales (Office for National Statistics [ONS], 2014) report that in the 12 months to March 2014 there were 12,299 rapes of females aged 16 or over and 17,380 sexual assaults of females aged 13 or over. Although the number of sexual assaults have remained fairly stable in recent years, rapes have risen sharply (see figure 2.1). Many sexual offences however, go unreported (Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary, 2014). Matheson (2013) for example, found one in twenty adult females report being a victim of serious sexual violence (i.e. rape or sexual assault by penetration) since the age of 16, this figure rose to one in five when less serious offences (i.e. sexual threats, unwanted touching, indecent exposure) were included. From these figures, Matheson (2013) estimated around 85,000 adult females are the victims of serious sexual violence each year.
In relation to the victim-offender relationship, a large body of research both from Britain (Feist, Ashe, Lawrence, McPhee, & Wilson, 2007; Harris & Grace, 1999; Kelly, Lovett, & Regan, 2005; Matheson, 2013; Myhill & Allen, 2002; Ruparel, 2004; Walby & Allen, 2004) and overseas (Astion, 2008; Dedel, 2011; Harrell, 2012; Jones, Wynn, Kroeze, Dunnuck, & Rossman, 2004) suggests strangers account for a minority (circa 8%-36%) of serious sexual assaults. Although difficult to draw solid conclusions, using ONS (2014) figures (12,299) and assuming strangers account for 20% of cases, would mean about 47 stranger rapes occur in England and Wales each week. However, using Matheson's (2013) figures (85,000) and their finding that strangers accounted for 10% of serious sexual assaults, would mean about 163 females are the victims of serious stranger sexual violence each week.

The absence of official statistics on sexual homicide means knowledge of the extent of this crime is limited. Despite this, paper four suggests only a small minority (circa 1%-5%) of homicides are sexual, whilst paper five suggests the research is equivocal on whether strangers account for a majority or a minority of cases. In 2013/14 there were 197 female homicides in Great Britain (i.e. 183 in England and Wales - ONS, 2015; 14 in Scotland - The Scottish Government, 2014). If 2.5% were sexual (Francis et al., 2004) and if 50% involved strangers, this would suggest less than three stranger sexual homicides of females occurred in Great Britain that year. Put simply,
these estimates suggest female stranger sexual homicide is an extremely rare phenomenon.

Notwithstanding the relative rarity of stranger sexual violence, Stern (2010) suggests these are the sort of incidents most often reported by the media.

**STRANGER SEXUAL VIOLENCE IN THE MEDIA**

Greer (2003) suggests an emphasis on stranger sexual violence is a prominent feature of media reporting. Such reports generally include an account of the ‘violence’, an implicit ‘warning’ that such assaults can happen to anyone and that sexual offences are occurring ‘on your doorstep’. The presence of ‘violence’, ‘speculation’ and ‘proximity’ are, according to Greer (2003), central to establishing that ‘shock factor’. The shock factor and media interest increases when stranger sexual violence includes homicide. Indeed, as Grover and Soothill (1996) report, although the number of sexual homicides in Britain is comparatively small, the amount of space devoted to them in the media is disproportionately large. Almost twenty years later in our multi-media age, this disproportionality will be amplified. One factor likely to ensure this is the presence of sexual deviancy, as the prospect of offenders who as Thomas (2005) reports, are often portrayed by the media as ‘monsters’, ‘beasts’ and ‘sex fiends’ being on the loose, is always a matter of concern.

**SEXUAL DEVIANCY**

Definitions of sexual deviancy depend on prevailing societal norms, as illustrated by the changing status of homosexuality over the years. Whilst laypeople may regard deviant sexual behaviour as ‘perverse’, the official psychiatric term ‘paraphilia’ illustrates the deviation (’para’), relates to the source of erotic attraction (’philia’) (Blackburn, 1993). A paraphilia is a sexual interest in atypical behaviours (e.g. inflicting harm) or targets (e.g. children), which is enduring, persistent and necessary for sexual enjoyment. When such activities cause distress, impairment or harm, the behaviour becomes a ‘paraphilic disorder’ (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Although the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-5: American Psychiatric Association, 2013) details eight paraphilic disorders (see table 2.1) others are included, e.g. telephone scatologia (obscene phone calls), necrophilia (corpses), zoophilia (animals),
corprophilia (faeces), klismaphilia (enemas) and urophilia (urine). Paraphilic disorders however, may not exist in isolation as Heil and Simons (2008) found individuals can possess multiple disorders.

**Table 2.1 - Paraphilic Disorders and Prevalence Rates (as per DSM-5)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Label</th>
<th>Behavioural Focus</th>
<th>Prevalence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exhibitionism</td>
<td>Exposing the genitals</td>
<td>2%-4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fetishism</td>
<td>Non-living objects or non-genital body parts</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frotteurism</td>
<td>Touching or rubbing against non-consenting individuals</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paedophilia</td>
<td>Sexual focus on children</td>
<td>3%-5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masochism</td>
<td>Undergoing humiliation, bondage, or suffering</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sadism</td>
<td>Inflicting humiliation, bondage, or suffering</td>
<td>2%-30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transvestism</td>
<td>Sexually arousing cross-dressing</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voyeurism</td>
<td>Spying on others in private activities</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although the secretive nature of sexual deviancy means the prevalence of paraphilic disorders are unknown, research suggests they are rare. For example, Table 2.1 shows DSM-5 prevalence rates for the eight main paraphilic disorders among adult males range from 2% for exhibitionism up to 30% for frotteurism (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). In a study of psychiatric inpatients Marsh et al. (2010) found 13.4% had a diagnosed paraphilia, the most common being voyeurism (8%), exhibitionism (5.4%) and masochism (2.7%). However, other researchers (e.g. Grubin, 1994; Langevin, Ben-Aron, Wright, Marchese, & Handy, 1988; Prentky et al., 1989; Proulx & Sauvêtre, 2007) have found higher rates of paraphilias among offenders who have committed serious sexual assaults, including sexual homicide. This suggests some paraphilic disorders may be relevant to our understanding of some cases of serious sexual violence.

**SEXUAL DEVIANCY AND SEXUAL VIOLENCE**

Although sexual offending and sexual deviancy can exist in isolation, they can combine in various ways. For example, the satisfaction of some paraphilic disorders can involve unlawful violence (e.g. sadism - Proulx, Blais, & Beauregard, 2006 or masochism - R.
vs. Brown, 1994); some paraphilic disorders contravene the Sexual Offences Act 2003 (e.g. exhibitionism, pedophilia, voyeurism) and in some cases lawful paraphilic disorders can be associated with criminal behaviour, such as transvestism and burglary (Brankley, Goodwill, & Reale, 2014; Schlesinger & Revitch, 1999). Finally, sexual deviancy has been identified as an important risk factor for future violence (Hanson & Bussière, 1998; Hanson & Morton-Bourgon, 2004) and is included in some of the most advanced structured professional risk assessment protocols, including the sexual violence risk-20 (Boer, Hart, Kropp, & Webster, 1997) and the risk for sexual violence protocol (Hart et al., 2003).

**ROLE AND FUNCTION OF PHYSICAL VIOLENCE**

A final consideration to understanding sexual violence is that many assaults also include physical violence and injuries (Feist et al., 2007; Kelly et al., 2005; Myhill & Allen, 2002; Walby & Allen, 2004). When sexual violence involves strangers, physical violence, injuries and weapons are common features (Astion, 2008; Jones et al., 2004; Stermac, Du Mont, & Kalemba, 1995). As illustrated later in this thesis, understanding the role and function of physical violence is important as it can help to determine motive. For example, violence can be functional and aimed at restraining an unwilling victim or it can satisfy psychological needs of an angry or sadistic nature (Groth & Birnbaum, 1979; Knight & Prentky, 1990a). In some cases, violence can escalate and result in a sexual homicide. Again, as illustrated later in this thesis, the context and circumstances in which sexual homicide occurs is diverse and understanding the role and function of physical violence can assist the formulation. In some cases, homicide can be unintended or aimed at avoiding detection; in other cases homicide is intended and satisfies angry or sadistic needs (Keppel & Walter, 1999; Kerr, Beech, & Murphy, 2013).

**CONCLUSION**

Perhaps more than any other crime, sexual violence is a serious public issue, not least because of concerns about how such assaults are investigated and prosecuted (Criminal Justice Joint Inspection, 2012; Stern, 2010). Although strangers account for a minority of sexual assaults, as Greer (2003) suggests, stranger sexual violence involves the
creation of a pathological criminal identity and 'speculation' about possible further attacks. It is, therefore, understandable why the prospect of stranger sexual violence might keep some women in a state of fear (Brownmiller, 1975).

This chapter has examined sexual violence and illustrated how it presents in many different ways and along a continuum. At one extreme sexual violence can involve contact acts such as rape or sexual assault\(^2\). At the other extreme, it can involve non-contact acts such as exhibitionism and voyeurism. Sexual deviancy can be evidenced in some cases whilst crimes such as burglary can contain a sexual element and be formulated differently. Sexual violence can also include physical violence. This again exists on a continuum, with minor violence or threats at one extreme and serious, gratuitous and ultimately lethal violence at the other. The diverse nature of sexual violence means sexual offenders are a heterogeneous group and this hinders our understanding of this phenomenon (Grubin & Kennedy, 1991). How this challenge has been addressed is the focus of the next chapter.

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\(^2\) An example of stranger sexual violence involving sexual assault occurred in Manchester during 2013. As reported by Kirby (2013) Greater Manchester Police were investigating a series of sexual assaults in the Wythenshawe area of the city. The assailant believed to be in his early 20s had approached several lone females walking in secluded areas, smacked them on the bottom and ran off. Police assured women in the area that they were taking these assaults very seriously and urged others who may also have been assaulted in this way, but who may not have taken the incidents seriously, to come forward.
CHAPTER 3
ADDRESSING SEX OFFENDER HETEROGENEITY

“One central research question, then, is to identify the behaviourally important facets of offences, those facets that are of most use in revealing the salient psychological processes inherent in the offence”
(Canter, 2000, p.31)

As illustrated in Chapter Two, sex offenders are a heterogeneous group by virtue of the range of unlawful sexual behaviours they engage in. As Helfgott (2008) argues, sex offender heterogeneity makes it difficult to draw conclusions necessary to deal with such offenders, as criminal investigations, correctional supervision, and treatment all depend on a clear understanding of who sex offenders are, the nature of their offending, the factors and developmental pathways that shape their behaviour, and the propensity for future offending. In response, various classification schemes have classified sexual (and other) offenders into more homogeneous sub-groups. Such classifications have been developed for clinical and investigative purposes based on offence behaviours and motivation and this has led to the development of various ‘typologies’.

The exploration of sex offender heterogeneity is a central feature of this thesis. After introducing various classification schemes, this chapter considers some critical issues which leads to a brief review in the next chapter, of the methods employed by the research that underpins this thesis.

CLASSIFICATION AND CRIMINAL DIFFERENTIATION
Classification is a means by which scientists make sense of the world and just as biologists classify plants and zoologists classify animals, psychologists classify mental disorders, and criminologists classify crimes (Helfgott, 2008). Within clinical practice, DSM-5 (American Psychiatric Association, 2013) classifies a range of mental disorders and provides criteria to aid diagnosis. In relation to crime, Canter (2000) suggests classification can be used to examine classes of crime (e.g. against property or person) and types of crime (e.g. arson, burglary, rape). However, more complex systems such as
the ‘Crime Classification Manual’ (CCM - Ressler, Douglas, Burgess, & Burgess, 1992) have been developed. The CCM is a DSM-type classification of criminal behaviour, which differentiates offences into homicide, arson, and rape and sexual assault. Like DSM-5, the CCM provides descriptions of offences to aid classification. Similarly, other researchers have classified homicide (Brookman, 2005), parricide (Heide, 1992), arson (Canter & Fritzon, 1998), stalking (Mullen, Pathé, & Purcell, 2000), serious violence (MacCulloch et al., 1995), child abduction (Erikson & Friendship, 2002), offender attitudes (Beech, Fisher, & Ward, 2005), future risk (Thornton et al., 2003) and sexual violence.

**Classifying Sexual Violence**

Beech (2010) suggests sexual offenders can be classified based on type of engagement with and status of the victim, and labels such as exhibitionists, Internet offenders, child sexual abusers, rapists and sexual murderers are applied. Although such classifications are useful in relation to how sex offenders are understood and reported in the media, they have little investigative or clinical utility, as research suggests important differences exist among similar types of sex offender. This was illustrated several decades ago when Groth, Burgess and Holmstrom (1977) reported:

“one of the most basic observations one can make about rapists is that they are not all alike. Similar acts are performed for different reasons or different acts serve similar purposes” (1977, p.1240).

Although several rapist typologies existed prior to Groth's (for a review see Wilson & Alison, 2005), it was his work (Groth & Birnbaum, 1979; Groth et al., 1977) which produced one of the most important classifications of sexual violence, and which became the basis for subsequent research.

**Clinical Classifications**

Groth et al. (1977) initially categorised rape into two types. In power rapes, sex is used to express power and control over the victim, and can involve the rapist 'asserting' their mastery and dominance or seeking 'reassurance' about his sexual self-doubt. In anger rapes, sex is used to express anger and hatred for the victim, and can involve
'retaliation' towards women or 'excitation' derived from their suffering. Groth and Birnbaum (1979) refined this typology and proposed three patterns of rape - anger (discharging anger and rage), power (expressing mastery, control, authority) and sadistic (fusion of sex and aggression) - based on the interaction of sexual and aggressive acts. Of most relevance to this thesis is the Massachusetts Treatment Centre Rapist Typology Version 3 (MTC:R3) developed by Knight and Prentky (1990a). This scheme proposes four primary motivations for rape based on historical factors and offence behaviours (see Greenall & West, 2007, p.152-3).

Clinical classifications of sexual homicide differentiate this crime based on whether offenders followed an angry or sadistic pathway (Beauregard, Proulx, & St-Yves, 2007); their criminal attitudes (Beech, Fisher, et al., 2005); whether sexual homicides were compulsive or catathymic (Schlesinger, 2004); or by suggesting most cases reflect angry, sadistic or sexual (witness elimination) motivations (Beech, Oliver, Fisher, & Beckett, 2005; Kerr et al., 2013; Proulx, 2008). In addition to being clinically useful, clinical classification schemes such as the MTC:R3 may have investigative potential. For example, Knight, Warren, Reboussin and Soley (1998) found crime scene behaviours were good predictors of some aspects (e.g. adult antisocial behaviour, expressive aggression) of the MTC:R3. However, because further research into the investigative utility of clinical classification schemes is required (Wilson & Alison, 2005), researchers have sought to develop classification schemes specifically for use within criminal investigations.

**INVESTIGATIVE CLASSIFICATIONS**

One of the most popular investigative classification schemes is the FBI's organised/disorganised dichotomy of sexual homicide. This suggests crime scene behaviours reflect offender characteristics, so organised crime scenes reflect organised offenders and visa-versa (Ressler, Burgess, & Douglas, 1988). Later the FBI developed the earlier ‘Groth typology’ (Groth et al., 1977) as an investigative tool with two objectives. Firstly, to determine whether the attacker intended the assault to be ‘pseudo-unselfish’ (reassuring, complimentary, non-profane, apologetic) or ‘selfish’ (verbally and sexually selfish, physically abusive, no victim concern); secondly, to classify the motivation using Groth's power assertive, power reassurance, anger retaliatory and
anger excitation types (Hazelwood, 2001). Subsequently, the ‘Groth typology’ (Groth et al., 1977) was incorporated into the CCM (Ressler et al., 1992), used by Keppel and Walter (1999) as a basis for classifying sexual homicide and developed by Turvey (2002) into a ‘behaviour motivational typology’.

In contrast to inferring motivation, researchers from the Investigative Psychology paradigm (Canter & Youngs, 2009) have conducted a series of studies examining offender actions, in order to explore the interpersonal nature of serious crime. The seminal study by Canter and Heritage (1990) used multidimensional scaling to explore the offence behaviours exhibited by 27 sexual offenders. The results identified five behavioural themes or ‘modes of interaction’ between offenders and victims suggesting stranger rapists treat their victims as an object of no concern, as a victim to be aggressively controlled, as a sexual object, as a source of criminal activity, and as a person with whom a pseudo-relationship is desired (Canter, 1995). As illustrated in paper one, a number of studies have emulated Canter and Heritage (1990) and identified various behavioural themes within rape. Examples include ‘intimacy, sadism, aggression, criminality’ (House, 1997) and ‘involvement, control, hostility, theft’ (Canter, Bennell, Alison, & Reddy, 2003). However, paper one sought to link investigative and clinical research by suggesting the actions of stranger rapists primarily reflect the sexual and violent themes traditionally emphasised by motivational typologies such as Groth’s (Groth & Birnbaum, 1979; Groth et al., 1977) and the MTC:R3 (Knight & Prentky, 1990a). The usage of statistical methods such as multidimensional scaling illustrate a desire by Investigative Psychologists to bring a scientific approach to the psychological investigation of crime (Canter, 1994).

**Critical Issues**

Classification aims to generate homogeneous sub-types of the phenomena in question. Some classification schemes adopt a categorical approach and place individuals into discrete, mutually exclusive categories. Examples include Groth (Groth & Birnbaum, 1979; Groth et al., 1977) and the MTC:R3 (Knight & Prentky, 1990a) as they classify offenders as one type or another. However, within-group differences arise when classification requires only a few ‘prototypical’ features shared by some group members, or from ‘polythetic’ classification whereby group members possess only some of the
defining features. The classification of psychopathy using the Psychopathy Checklist Revised (PCL-R - Hare, 2003) illustrates this point. As Salekin, Rogers and Sewell (1996) report, the polythetic nature of the PCL-R means there are over 15,000 possible variations of psychopathy for scores equal to or greater than the diagnostic cut-off of 30. So, even when an internationally recognised classification protocol is used, within-group differences still exist. Within many classification schemes therefore, homogeneity becomes relative and requires group members to be similar to each other rather than identical (Blackburn, 1993). Indeed, as Canter suggests:

"assigning criminals or crimes to one of a limited number of ‘types’ will always be a gross oversimplification ... [and therefore] ... it will also be highly problematic to determine what ‘type’ they belong to" (2000, p.31).

Mindful of this, not only do Investigative Psychologists identify themes rather than types, but other classification schemes adopt a dimensional rather than a categorical approach. Here the differences between types are viewed as resting on continua, where the boundaries between types are less defined (Blackburn, 1993). Indeed, some of the latest attempts to classify sexual violence now recognise this fact. For example, Knight (2010) has presented a dimensional model of rape within a circumplex, based around three major components; impulsivity, sexualisation and violence. Within this model, the MTC:R3 motivational types are accommodated, but further work is required before it can be applied in clinical settings.

CONCLUSION
To address the problem of sex offender heterogeneity, various clinical and investigative classifications have been developed in order to enhance our understanding of sexual violence. Such schemes examine offender actions during the crime and/or their motivations. Although not an exact science, classification has nonetheless enabled researchers to formulate hypotheses about the nature of sexual violence. As illustrated in Chapter Five, classification is a central feature of a number of papers in this thesis. The methodologies employed to achieve this is the focus of the next chapter.
CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

"The criminological research agenda often requires us to collect data from and about individuals and to pay attention to their actions and to the subjective processes which influence them"
(Jupp, 1989, p.131)

Having introduced the key concepts of sexual violence, sex offender heterogeneity and offender classification, this chapter considers some relevant methodological issues. These primarily relate to the distinction between nomothetic and idiographic approaches, gaining access to data and the role of ‘gatekeepers’ in this process, and the challenges presented by the process of publication. The latter is especially important for PhDs such as this. Consideration of these factors will set the scene for the presentation of the published works in Chapter Five.

METHODOLOGY
Where appropriate, each of the papers presented in this thesis explain the methodology adopted and relevant limitations and so they will not be repeated here in much detail. In summary, however, various quantitative and qualitative methods as well as two clinical protocols, were utilised. The methods employed reflect an important debate within psychology, relating to the difference between nomothetic and idiographic approaches.

NOMOTHEtic AND IDIOPHraphic Approaches
Nomothetic research is concerned with identifying 'laws' of human behaviour. This allows researchers to make predictions about how 'people' are likely to behave in given situations (Hayes, 2000), by seeking universal principles that exceed the confines of the study (Brysbaert & Rasstle, 2000). Nomothetic approaches typically involve quantitative methods, such as descriptive and inferential statistics (Coolican, 2009). These were used in this thesis to summarise the data (e.g. criminal histories) and to facilitate hypotheses (e.g. link between criminal pathways and offender attributes).
However, the difficulty with nomothetic research is the fact that because science is concerned with generalities, means and probability statements, the aggregate findings may not reflect individual cases. Indeed, as Valentine reports:

"according to the old adage: scienta non est individuorum - that is, science does not deal with individual cases" (1992, p.187).

By contrast, idiographic research is concerned with exploring uniqueness by examining what is relevant to the individuals being studied (Brysbaert & Rasstle, 2000). The idea is that gaining a thorough understanding of a few people will lead to a more general understanding of others (Hayes, 2000). Idiographic approaches typically involve qualitative methods such as content analysis (Noaks & Wincup, 2004), and thematic analysis (Howitt, 2013). These were used in this thesis to examine case records, to explore offence motivation and the link between mental illness and sexual violence. Additionally, a single case study design (Davies & Sheldon, 2011) was used to illustrate the concept and process of index offence analysis.

Along with traditional research methods, formal protocols and complex statistical analysis was used to explore the phenomenon of stranger sexual violence:

- In paper one offence motivation was explored using the MTC:R3 (Knight & Prentky, 1990a). This classifies rapists based on historical factors such as previous antisocial conduct, and offence behaviours such as sexual and violent acts (see: Greenall & West, 2007, p.154). Consideration of these factors help to locate offenders into the most appropriate motivational category (Knight & Prentky, 1990b).

- In paper two future risk was explored using Static-99 (Hanson & Thornton, 1999). This is an actuarial risk assessment instrument designed for use with adult male sexual offenders who are at least 18 year of age. Future risk is predicted based on the absence or presence of ten items relating to sexual deviancy, victim status, previous offending and the offender's age (see: Greenall & Jellicoe-Jones, 2007, p.326). Static-99 is reportedly the most widely used sex offender risk assessment instrument in the world (source: www.static99.org).
• In paper six criminal diversity was explored using the diversity index (DI). This is a measure of specialisation over a fixed period, during which the proportion of each offence type committed is determined (Soothill, Fitzpatrick, & Francis, 2009). Mazerolle, Brame, Paternoster Piquero and Dean (2000, p.1154) illustrate the application of the DI with three hypothetical offenders who have each committed three offences (i.e. violence, property damage or drugs.) The maximum DI depends on the number of offence categories and is calculated with the formula \((k-1)/k\) where \(k\) equates to the number of offence categories. With three offence categories the maximum DI score would be 0.67 (i.e. \((3-1)/3 = 0.67\)). Mazerolle et al’s first offender committed three property offences. As all crimes (100%) are from one category s/he is a specialist offender and receives a DI score of zero (i.e. \(1-(0.0\,\text{violence})+(1.0\,\text{property})+(0.0\,\text{drugs})=0\)). The second offender committed two violent offences and one drugs offences. As two crimes (66.6%) are from one type s/he evidences less specialism and receives a greater DI score (i.e. \(1-(0.67\,\text{violence})+(0.0\,\text{property})+(0.33\,\text{drugs})=0.44\)). The third offender committed one offence from each type and is therefore a generalist offender. As each crime falls into a different category (33%) s/he would receive the maximum DI score (i.e. \(1-(0.33\,\text{violence})+(0.33\,\text{property})+(0.33\,\text{drugs})=0.67\)).

The exploration of motive in papers one and two was aided by the fact that full access to hospital files was allowed and they contained a great deal of information about the research participants. This was especially useful in relation to paper one when applying the MTC:R3. In this respect the present author was in a similar position to previous researchers (e.g. Groth & Birnbaum, 1979; Groth et al., 1977; Knight & Prentky, 1990a) who drew on their clinical experience with offenders when designing classification schemes. However, Canter and Heritage (1990) correctly highlight the difficulty of undertaking a similar task without having access to the offender:

“there remains the primary question of what variations in offence behaviour can be reliably identified without any knowledge of the person who committed them” (ibid., 1990, p.188).
Although Canter and Heritage were referring to criminal investigations and the search for an unknown suspect, a similar challenge can be found within academia when face-to-face access to research participants is not possible. To deal with this challenge, researchers from the Investigative Psychology paradigm (Canter & Youngs, 2009) have undertaken several studies into sexual violence based on crime scene data, which they have analysed using multidimensional scaling (e.g. Alisson & Stein, 2001; Canter, 1994; Canter & Heritage, 1990; Canter et al., 2003; Häkkänen, Lindlöf, & Santtila, 2004; House, 1997; Kocsis, Cooksey, & Irwin, 2002a). This is a statistical technique that analyses the correlations between variables, the strength of which are represented as distances between points in a visual space. Within this space each point represents a variable under investigation and the shorter the distance between each variable the higher the correlation and vice-versa. As Canter and Youngs (2009) argue, although related to factor analysis and cluster analysis and likely to produce broadly similar results, multidimensional scaling has the advantage of representing the relationship between variables in a visual way, which is easier to interpret. A central principle of this interpretation is the ‘regionality hypothesis’. This involves variables with similar thematic meanings being located closer together within the configuration, whilst items with low inter-correlations appear in different regions, thereby indicating thematic dissimilarity (Canter & Youngs, 2009). The usage of multidimensional scaling facilitates hypothesis generation about the interpersonal nature of sexual violence, based on how samples of sex offenders interacted with their victims. In an attempt to bridge clinical and investigative research, in parallel to exploring motive using the MTC:R3, an Investigative Psychology approach was used in paper one to explore the interpersonal nature of stranger rape, among a distinctive sample. As shown in paper one, the clinical and investigative findings complimented each other.

However, before any of these methods could be employed, a process of negotiation had to be undertaken with various official bodies to access their data.

**Negotiating Access to Criminological Data**

As illustrated by several authors (e.g. Davies, Francis, & Jupp, 2011; Jupp, 1989; Noaks & Wincup, 2004), forensic research can utilise similar methodologies and data sources (e.g. surveys, observation, official statistics and interviews) to other types of
psychological research. The primary focus of this thesis was official data, as five of the papers presented are based on data obtained from various official bodies. These include secure NHS hospitals (papers 1, 2 & 9) and the National Crime Agency (papers 5 & 6). Over time, such organisations become the custodians of a large volume of data. Noaks and Wincup (2004) call this 'restricted access' data as it effectively 'belongs' to the organisations concerned. However, subject to various research/ethical procedures, this data can be made available to facilitate academic research. Consequently, organisations holding such data and in some cases (i.e. 'Mark' in paper 9) the participants themselves, ultimately decide who can access the data and for what purpose. In so doing, they assume the role of gatekeepers.

**GATEKEEPERS**

Several researchers (e.g. Davies et al., 2011; Jupp, 1989; Noaks & Wincup, 2004) refer to the concept of gatekeepers. These are individuals within organisations who control access to research participants or to secondary sources such as organisational records and statistics (Jupp, 1989). Gatekeepers can, according to Jupp (1989), prevent the start of any research project and/or steer it in a particular direction. Consequently, a process of 'negotiation' is required to access official data. Although focusing on police research, Reiner and Newburn (2008) suggest the data researchers can obtain is influenced by who they are and their relationship to the police. Citing the work of Brown (1996) and again focussing on the police, Reiner and Newburn (2008) distinguish four possible relationships between researchers and gatekeepers:

- ‘inside insiders’ are police officers conducting police research and problems of data access are eased, especially if the research is sanctioned.

- ‘outside insiders’ are police officers who conduct police research after leaving the police. Although no longer serving officers, their previous inside experience provides unique advantages compared to complete outsiders.
• ‘inside outsiders’ are non-police personnel, such as civilian employees, who conduct police research. Similar to inside insiders, such researchers may find it easier to overcome the hurdles of gaining access to data.

• ‘outside outsiders’ are not employed or commissioned by the police. Examples include university academics, and because they have no official status that mandates formal co-operation, they face the greatest barriers in gaining access to data (Reiner & Newburn, 2008).

Whilst undertaking the research for this thesis, more than of the above relationships was experienced. In relation to paper one, as an employee of Ashworth Hospital my status was akin to an ‘inside insider’ when accessing Ashworth data but an ‘inside outsider’ when accessing Broadmoor and Rampton data; for paper two my status was akin to an ‘inside outsider’ as although an NHS employee, I was not employed by Lancashire Care NHS Trust; and for paper nine my status was akin to an ‘inside insider’ as I was employed by my NHS Trust. On all three occasions my ‘inside’ status did not afford any (obvious) advantages as my request to access NHS data was considered by the relevant research/ethics committees. By contrast, in relation to papers five and six my status was akin to an ‘outside outsider’ as I am not employed by or have any association with the National Crime Agency and they did not commission the research. Once again, this status did not afford any (obvious) disadvantages as my request to access their data was considered by their research/ethics committee. However, my status as an ‘outside outsider’ was evidenced by the fact that I was not allowed to know what data was held by the National Crime Agency until my research proposal had been accepted. Even then, I was not allowed to access their data-base, but was allowed to ask questions about the type of variables held.

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3 In the case of paper one the research proposal had to be considered by three research/ethics committees, as Ashworth, Broadmoor and Rampton hospitals each had their own committee.

4 The process of negotiation did not end there as during the early stages of my analysis of the National Crime Agency data, I realised it would be beneficial to have more detail about the location of the homicides. Accordingly, after a further process of negotiation the National Crime Agency provided an extra variable from their database which identified those cases where the homicide occurred in the victim’s home. Several months later I entered into another process of negotiation as I wanted to explore the distances between the offender’s residence and the crime scene. Following this process of negotiation the National Crime Agency provided the required distance data. Both of these further requests could have
Once access to data was granted by the relevant gatekeepers, the research was undertaken. However, that was not the end of what Davies et al. (2011) call 'the politics of criminological research' as the final negotiations revolved around the process of publication.

**PROCESS OF PUBLICATION**

As Davies et al. (2011) state, the process of publication takes researchers into another arena in which they must satisfy the differing demands and expectations of various agencies. For example, all nine papers in this thesis were subject to the peer review process typical of academic journals. However, prior to this, some of the manuscripts (papers 1, 2, 5, 6 & 9) were reviewed by the relevant research/ethics committees who had originally granted access to the data. In another case (paper 8) the manuscript was reviewed by my Line Manager to ensure it provided an accurate account of the clinical team it describes. As Davies et al. (2011) suggest, it is highly probable that organisations involved in the publication process, which in my case were gatekeepers and journal editors, will have distinct, differing expectations. Accordingly, this presented a significant challenge which resulted in what became akin to an ‘academic tennis match’ involving manuscripts going back and forth between the gatekeepers, journal editors and myself, until each were satisfied with the end result. Inevitably therefore, there was a difference between the original manuscript and the published paper following the peer review process. Here however, would-be researchers need to take heed as sometimes this process can be very personally challenging. Whilst the comments of most journal reviewers were positive, one or two were very negative. Researchers therefore, need to have a thick skin. Although getting one's work published is challenging, success brings a stamp of validation and acceptance by one's peers.

**CONCLUSION**

As Jupp (1989) argues, the objects of criminological inquiry are not inanimate, but individuals with feelings, emotions, values and interests, and their actions are endowed

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been made at the initial stages of the research had I known what type of data the National Crime Agency held. Although both of these additional pieces of data will form the basis of future research, it begs the question; what other types of data might the National Crime Agency hold which would be useful to my research but which I do not know about?
with meanings and definitions. As summarised in this chapter, forensic research requires gaining access to data held by various official bodies, which requires a process of negotiation with gatekeepers. These individuals not only have the power to grant access to data, but they can influence the outcome, as can the peer review process.

A key aim of the differing methodological approaches employed by this thesis, was to address the challenge described by MacCulloch et al. (1995) at the beginning of chapter one, namely 'understanding the causes of attacks and their meanings for the perpetrator'. How this was achieved is presented in Chapters Five and Six.
CHAPTER 5
(PORTFOLIO OF PUBLISHED WORKS, VOLUMES 1 & 2)
EXPLORING THE SEX OFFENDER HETEROGENEITY HYPOTHESIS

VOLUME 1: HETEROGENEITY IN MENTALLY DISORDERED SEX OFFENDERS


VOLUME 2: HETEROGENEITY IN SEXUAL HOMICIDE

http://hsx.sagepub.com/content/early/2014/04/21/1088767914530555.abstract


This volume contains three papers published in 2007, which highlight important differences among some distinctive sex offender samples, namely those with a mental disorder and/or who target strangers. This is achieved by exploring the relationship between sexual offending and mental disorder and by highlighting differences in pre-offence histories, offence behaviours and motivations. The findings of this volume not only have important implications for our understanding of sexual violence, but it was the experience of undertaking this research, in particular the exploration of motive and the context and circumstances in which offences occurred, that inspired the rest of this thesis.

**BACKGROUND**

As illustrated in Chapters Two and Three, sex offenders are a heterogeneous group. Although an established fact, this concept became a hypothesis which this volume explored further. This does not mean the existing research was disregarded, rather the aim was to determine whether the sex offender heterogeneity hypothesis could be applied to some distinctive sex offender sub-types. This avenue of research was pursued for two reasons. Firstly, some authors suggested further research was required into the relationship between sexual offending and mental illness (Sahota & Chesterman, 1998) and personality disorder (Porter et al., 2000). Secondly, because only a minority of rapes are committed by strangers, few studies (e.g. Canter & Heritage, 1990; Canter et al., 2003; Davies & Dale, 1995; Davies, Wittebrood, & Jackson, 1998) had examined this sub-group of sexual offenders in any detail. Accordingly, the sex offender heterogeneity hypothesis is explored in this volume in three ways:
1. Paper One examined the case files of 41 stranger rapists from the English high security hospitals. Multidimensional scaling was used to analyse previous histories and offence behaviours, and motivational differences were explored using the MTC:R3.

2. Paper Two examined the case files of 11 sex offenders from a regional forensic service. Thematic analysis was used to explore motivational themes and future risk was illustrated using the Static-99 actuarial risk measure.

3. Paper Three examined the relationship between sexual offending and antisocial (psychopathic) personality disorder by reviewing the research in this area.

CONCLUSION AND CONTRIBUTION
The papers in this volume suggest important within-group differences exist among these samples of sex offenders, as follows:

1. Previous histories; in accordance with previous research (e.g. Craissati & Beech, 2004; Scully, 1990), papers one and two suggest many sex offenders originate from troubled backgrounds. However, paper one suggests the pre-offence histories of stranger rapists primarily reflect sexual and violent themes.

2. Offence behaviours; in accordance with previous research (e.g. Canter & Heritage, 1990; Canter et al., 2003) behavioural differences were found among men who sexually assault female strangers. Such differences reflected sexual and violent themes, as some assaults were more sexual than others, whilst some were more violent.

3. Offence motivation; in accordance with previous research (Groth & Birnbaum, 1979; Groth et al., 1977; Knight & Prentky, 1990a), motivational differences were found among men who sexually assault female strangers. Paper one found motivational differences between and within mentally ill and personality disordered sub-samples; paper two found differing motivational themes
underpin sexual violence by the mentally ill; and paper three hypothesised three motivational sub-groups of ‘sexual psychopath’.

The papers in this volume therefore illustrate how the sex offender heterogeneity hypothesis applies to some rare and distinctive sex offender sub-types, including those with a mental disorder and/or who target strangers. These findings are important as they highlight the need for criminal justice professionals to understand that even rare sex offender types can present in different ways. Consequently, this volume helps to dispel the myth that men who sexually assault and/or rape female strangers, are ‘sex pests’ driven to offend by a desire to satisfy their sexual needs. Whilst sexual desire may explain the actions of some stranger sexual offenders, this volume clearly shows that other cases contain differing motivational dynamics (e.g. anger or hatred). The clinical implications of these findings are fundamental, as they suggest factors beyond sexual desire and mental disorder may need to be considered when delivering therapeutic interventions, even to mentally disordered sex offenders. Similarly, the investigative implications of these findings are also fundamental. Although most stranger sexual offenders have previous convictions, only a minority of these offences are sexual. Therefore, detectives may need to extend their enquiry beyond known sex offenders and recognise that the stranger sexual offender they are pursuing, may have a varied criminal repertoire, especially if their sexual offence was particularly violent.

At the time these papers were published I was a researcher at the University of Liverpool. Later, in my current post in an NHS medium secure unit, the experience of assessing cases of sexual homicide led me to consider exploring whether the sex offender heterogeneity hypotheses applied to this rare and devastating form of sexual violence. This process and the results obtained, are presented in volume two.
VOLUME 2:
HETEROGENEITY IN SEXUAL HOMICIDE

“That day I just reached critical mass and something had to give and when everything exploded, it got everything out of my system, which sounds horribly fatuous considering a girl had to lose her life”
(A sexual killer explaining his offence to West, 2000b, p.171)

This volume contains three papers published during 2012-15 from work undertaken so far, in what is an ongoing project. The papers build on volume one by applying the findings to a distinctive and extreme form of sexual violence. The volume begins with an exploration of sexual homicide in general, before focussing on sexual homicides involving strangers. The findings of this volume have important implications for our understanding of this crime as it suggests the sex offender heterogeneity hypothesis applies, even to this rare form of sexual violence.

CLINICAL ASSESSMENT OF SEXUAL HOMICIDE
The impetus for this volume came from my clinical assessment of four mentally disordered sex offenders. Three were sexual killers but crucially, their offences were quite different. One man suffocated and raped an elderly woman during a burglary; another anally raped a woman he had just beaten to death in an isolated location; and the third ('John') killed a woman with a knife, sexually assaulted her, then dressed in her clothes. Along with consulting the research, my understanding of sexual homicide was aided by my clinical involvement with a fourth man, who had raped and severely beaten a female prostitute, such that she almost died. This case provided a practical example of Beech et al’s (2005) point that the difference between sexual violence and sexual murder may be due to circumstance, or as suggested in paper four, in some cases "the line between sexual violence and homicide can easily be crossed" (Greenall, 2012, p.347). Paper four presents the results of my attempt to understand this crime, to aid my clinical practice. This paper established ‘sexual homicide’ as the preferred label and it presented a working definition of this crime:
"at its most basic level, sexual homicide can be viewed as resulting from the crimes of homicide and sexual violence coalescing into one single act or during one single assault" (Greenall, 2012, p.342).

Moreover, paper four suggests important differences exist within sexual homicide and among sexual killers, due to the various contexts and circumstances in which this crime can occur, and the motivations which underpin them. Subsequent studies were inspired by several researchers (e.g. Beauregard et al., 2007; Chan & Heide, 2009; Proulx, Cusson, & Beauregard, 2007) who suggest many sexual homicide studies include multiple victim types. Consequently, stranger sexual homicide (of adult females) had not received adequate research attention. This important finding prompted research into this particular type of sexual homicide.

**STRANGER SEXUAL HOMICIDE**

Paper five provides a description of stranger sexual homicide in Great Britain in recent decades and suggests the heterogeneity hypothesis applies even to this rare form of sexual violence. This is evidenced by the existence of ‘overt’ and ‘covert’ sexual groups, the various methods of killing and levels of injuries inflicted. Paper six examines the criminal histories of this sample and heterogeneity was found here also. This is evidenced by the fact that their criminal histories were found to reflect various 'pathways' hypothesised by Canadian researchers (Cusson & Proulx, 2007).

**CONCLUSION AND CONTRIBUTION**

Building on the findings of volume one, this volume suggests the sex offender heterogeneity hypothesis applies to sexual homicide in general and stranger sexual homicide in particular:

1. *Contexts and circumstances:* sexual homicide can occur in various scenarios which appear to reflect more than angry, sadistic or sexual (witness elimination) motivations (Beech, Oliver, et al., 2005; Kerr et al., 2013; Proulx, 2008).
2. *Criminal histories:* the criminal histories of stranger sexual killers divide into two basic groups, i.e. those with and those without previous convictions. Although most stranger sexual killers are generalist offenders (Soothill, Francis, Sanderson, & Ackerley, 2000), closer analysis reveals their criminal histories reflect violent, sexual, marginality and over control pathways (Cusson & Proulx, 2007).

3. *Offence behaviours:* the existence of 'overt' and 'covert' sexual groups among stranger sexual killers suggests some stranger sexual homicides are more sexual than others. The various methods of killing; the usage of excessive violence resulting in extreme injuries; and weapons being obtained from the crime scene or brought by the offender, suggests some stranger sexual homicides are more violent than others and that homicidal violence can be opportunistic or pre-meditated.

This volume builds on previous research (see: Proulx, Beauregard, Cusson, & Nicole, 2007) by suggesting stranger sexual killers are largely similar to other sex offenders in various ways. Having said that, Healy, Beauregard, Beech and Vettor (2014) suggest sexual killers are not a homogeneous group and it is mistaken to consider them as being a special group of sex offenders, as this could mask the different dynamics involved in such crimes. This volume supports and builds on Healey et al's findings, as important within group differences were found, even among stranger sexual killers.

The implications of this and the previous volume, form the basis of further discussion in the final chapter of this thesis. Before that however, a means of identifying the important behavioural and motivational differences highlighted in this chapter will be introduced.
CHAPTER 6
DEVELOPMENTS IN FORENSIC PRACTICE

“To proceed with clinical management in the absence of an assessment which takes into account all explanatory factors renders treatment outcome subject to the vagaries of chance”
(MacCulloch et al., 1995, p.55)

Having illustrated in Chapter Five, that the sex offender heterogeneity hypothesis applies to some rare and distinctive sex offender sub-types, this chapter will address the second aim of this thesis. This involves illustrating how behavioural and motivational differences can be captured and included in clinical assessments, so the context, circumstance, causes and meanings of an offence can be understood and inform the case formulation. This process represents a new and important development in forensic psychology practice, namely index offence analysis.

To introduce this new approach, the chapter will draw upon three final peer reviewed papers published during 2007-11 (see appendix 1-3). Two papers have a forensic focus as they deal with the clinical assessment of violent offenders. The third provides a reflective account of a previous research experience. Collectively, they contribute to the goal of ensuring the index offence is included within clinical assessments, after being analysed in a formal and structured manner. To understand how these papers form a coherent narrative and make an important contribution to forensic practice, we need to begin at the end and work backwards.

BACKGROUND: ‘THE PROBLEM’

Paper nine was the culmination of a process of learning and reflection based on my research and subsequent clinical experience. Essentially, the paper addresses a problem identified by West (2000a):

“Many clinicians, whatever their professional background, do not routinely review crime scene data or witness depositions during the course of their involvement with offender/patients...” (ibid., p.220).
My experience of secure hospitals led me to concur with West’s (2000a) observation. Although it cannot be said that crime scene information and victim/witness depositions are never available to clinicians, from my experience they are not a common feature. Moreover, from my experience accounts of the index offence are often ‘cut and pasted’ from previous reports without any evidence of the accuracy of the original account being confirmed. This led me to believe West’s further observation may be correct:

“all too often it is easier to believe the offender than to read the witness depositions or observe the crime scene” (2000a, p.220).

These issues were brought into focus in my current post. Paper eight summarises the assessment of high risk offenders and highlights the need to combine information from clinical interviews with collateral sources. This point is based on good practice, as Hart et al. (2003, p.24) advise clinicians undertaking violence risk assessments to gather information from multiple sources. This recognises that offenders often minimise or deny their offences and an over-reliance on a particular source of information, particularly uncorroborated statements by an offender, can result in an incomplete and biased assessment (ibid.). To address this, a colleague and I developed ‘index offence analysis’ and although formally presented in paper nine, it was first introduced in paper eight along with a suggestion that it “should be a core task of any forensic clinician engaged in the assessment of high risk offenders” (Greenall, 2009, p.17).

INDEX OFFENCE ANALYSIS
The development of index offence analysis had three influences and aims: Firstly, to emulate the structured professional approach to risk assessment (Hart & Boer, 2010) and develop a protocol (see appendix 4) to aid the analysis of the index offence. Secondly, based on the MTC:R3 which requires detailed knowledge of an offender and their offence (Knight & Prentky, 1990a), and the detailed examinations of offender actions by Investigative Psychologists (e.g. Canter & Heritage, 1990; Canter et al., 2003; Häkkänen et al., 2004; House, 1997), a similarly detailed approach to the analysis of an offence was adopted in order to facilitate evidence based hypotheses which could inform the final case formulation (Sturmey & McMurran, 2011). Thirdly, inspiration came from a research experience summarised in paper seven. During interviews with
'9/11' survivors participants were asked to describe their evacuation experience and their free-flow account was followed by a series of questions to clarify the nature of their experience, principally at three key time points:

2. What were they doing and where, prior to the impact of American Airlines Flight 11 into the North Tower at 8:46am.

3. How did they experience the first impact at 8:46am, i.e. what did they hear, see and feel and what did they think had happened.

4. How did they respond following the first impact at 8:46am, including their experience of evacuating from their Tower.

Based on this experience, index offence analysis obtains the offender’s free-flow account of their offence and analyses this and information from collateral sources, at three stages. In paper eight these stages were ‘before, during and after’ the offence and ‘pre-crime, crime and post-crime’ phases in paper nine.

**CONCLUSION AND CONTRIBUTION**

The quote from MacCulloch et al. (1995) which opens this volume highlights the importance of undertaking thorough assessments of violent offenders. Indeed it was my belief that the offence was part of MacCulloch et al’s (1995) ‘all explanatory factors’ but too often it was omitted from clinical assessments, which inspired the development of index offence analysis. The resulting tool which aids the process, seeks to emulate the structured professional approach to risk assessments (Hart & Boer, 2010). A key achievement of index offence analysis is its ability to produce an evidence based formulation which recognises the heterogeneous nature of interpersonal violence, and which includes hypotheses relating to the three phases of the crime. As such, this chapter and the papers that support it, represent an important advancement within forensic practice, which build directly on the findings of Chapter Five.

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5 Similar questions were also asked of those in the South Tower, both in relation to the first impact at 8:46am, plus how they experienced and reacted to the impact of United Airlines Flight 175 when it hit their building at 9:03am.
CHAPTER 7
CONCLUSIONS AND REFLECTIONS

"Even the most violent people spend most of their lives not committing violence, so we must ask ourselves, why did they choose to commit specific acts of violence against specific people at specific times, but not other kinds of violence against other people at other times?"
(Hart & Logan, 2011, loc 2909)

If one sentence could capture the rationale behind this thesis, the above quote would achieve this. Whether in criminal investigations or clinical practice, this quote illustrates the importance of recognising that no matter how serious, a violent offence constitutes but one aspect of an offender's life, and not even the most violent, deviant or prolific offenders engage in such acts every minute of every day. Therefore, the challenge for senior investigating officers (SIO)\(^6\) and clinicians is to understand how and why an offence occurred, where and when it did. This moves us beyond global (nomothetic) theorising with questions like "why do people commit sex offenses ...?" (Stinson & Becker, 2013, p.vii)\(^7\) to individualised (idiographic) investigations and assessments which formulate ‘why this person committed this sexual offence against this victim at this time and in this location’. This position mirrors criminal investigations which consider sexual offences easier to assess when viewed from the offender’s perspective (Hazelwood, 2001) and it returns us to where this thesis began, namely understanding the causes of attacks and their meanings for the perpetrator (MacCulloch et al., 1995). To aid this process, this thesis has highlighted important differences in relation to previous histories, offence behaviours and motivation among some distinctive sex offenders, and introduced a means by which these differences can be identified to inform the final case formulation.

This chapter concludes this thesis by reflecting on some methodological issues, presenting an option for theoretical development, and by highlighting areas of future

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\(^6\) The senior investigating officer is the “lead investigator in cases of homicide, stranger rape, kidnapping or other complex investigations” (Association of Chief Police Officers, 2006, p.25).

\(^7\) Stinson and Becker (2013) ask this in the opening sentence of the Preface to their book.
research. Firstly however, the third and final aim of this thesis, namely considering how the findings can assist criminal investigations and clinical practice, will be addressed. In doing this, reference will be made to ‘John’ a real but anonymised case\textsuperscript{8} who developed my interest in stranger sexual homicide.

\textit{Box 6.1 - ‘John’ a Stranger Sexual Killer}

John is a middle-aged married man with two young children. He did not experience any childhood difficulties; his parents were happily married and he succeeded academically at school. He has been continuously employed since leaving school and has secured promotion on several occasions. Prior to the index offence John had one conviction for burglary and was experiencing some marital difficulties.

Whilst attending a business meeting away from home, John was arrested for the murder of a female stranger. She had sustained several knife injuries to her neck and chest and had been sexually assaulted. John was later arrested wandering nearby dressed in female clothing, later identified as belonging to the victim. A pile of men’s clothes found near to the victim were later identified as belonging to John. When John’s hotel room was searched, police found a knife, alcohol, and pornographic magazines. John had purchased these items earlier that day.

\textbf{Investigative and Clinical Formulation}

As stated in several of the papers in this thesis, research suggests many sex offenders and sexual killers have previous convictions, often for a range of offences and are therefore ‘generalist’ offenders (Soothill et al., 2000). This thesis suggests the same applies to men who engage in stranger sexual violence, including rape and/or sexual homicide. Consequently, the usage of labels like ‘sex offender’ and ‘sexual killer’ miss a fundamental point. The fact that most stranger sexual offenders have previous convictions means many possess multiple criminal identities. So whilst they could equally be regarded as ‘violent offenders’, ‘arsonists’ or in John's case a 'burglar', in reality this disparate group of offenders are known by the one thing they have in common, namely they have committed a sexual offence. Moreover, the fact that the criminal histories of stranger sexual killers reflect various pathways (Cusson & Proulx, 2007) suggest even this rare group of sexual offenders possess multiple criminal

\textsuperscript{8} ‘John’ is a pseudonym and this case example is presented here with the knowledge and consent of my NHS clinical supervisor, Dr Caroline Logan, who was satisfied that sufficient details have been altered to protect the identity and confidentiality of this patient, in accordance with regulatory guidelines (van der Gaag, 2012).
identities. The investigative and clinical implications of this finding are simple but nonetheless fundamental. Although SIOs may be investigating a stranger sexual offence, it does not follow that they are looking for a 'sex offender' as he almost certainly would have committed other types of crimes before or since. Consequently, information on most suspects will be available to SIOs via the Police National Computer and be used to narrow the suspect pool (Alison, Goodwill, Almond, van den Heuvel, & Winter, 2011; Cole & Brown, 2011). However, this thesis suggests SIOs should not limit their attentions to known sexual offenders. Indeed, recommendation one of a recent review into the investigation and prosecution of rape suggested police forces:

“should initially consider every 'stranger' rape to be part of a pattern of serial offending, so that investigating officers consider the wider links to other crimes” (Criminal Justice Joint Inspection, 2012, p.6).

Similarly, because the 'sex offender treatment programme' (SOTP) accommodates offenders with a current or previous sexual offence conviction (Beech, Oliver, et al., 2005), SOTP staff will invariably deal with offenders who have previous convictions for crimes beyond sexual violence, and their index offence and future risk may not be of a sexual nature⁹. Notwithstanding this, consideration of previous offending has clinical utility. Within my assessment of John for example, his previous burglary conviction was a matter of much attention. Was it for example, irrelevant or could it have been sexually motivated (e.g. Brankley et al., 2014; Harris, Pedneault, & Knight, 2012; Pedneault, Harris, & Knight, 2012; Schlesinger & Revitch, 1999; Vaughn, DeLisi, Beaver, & Howard, 2008) and therefore a precursor (MacCulloch, Snowden, Wood, & Mills, 1983) to a pre-meditated sexual homicide? Indeed, the dangers of clinicians not considering previous convictions was highlighted by Hanson (2014). When a French prison doctor who prescribed Viagra to a high risk Paedophile who rapidly re-offended, gave evidence in court, he advised:

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⁹ Indeed, from my experience of co-facilitating an SOTP within an NHS medium secure unit, most of the patients I have dealt with have had varied criminal histories and not all of their index offences were of a sexual nature.
“prison doctors do not have access to the criminal history records of prisoners and I do not want to know ... that is not the reason I became involved in prison medicine” (Hanson, 2014, p.7).

Along with highlighting criminal diversity among stranger sexual offenders, this thesis builds on previous research which suggests they are heterogeneous in terms of offence behaviours (Alison & Stein, 2001; Canter & Heritage, 1990; Canter et al., 2003; Gerard, Mormont, & Kocsis, 2007; Häkkänen et al., 2004; House, 1997; Kocsis et al., 2002a; Kocsis, Cooksey, & Irwin, 2002b) and motivation (Groth & Birnbaum, 1979; Groth et al., 1977; Kerr et al., 2013; Knight & Prentky, 1990a; Schlesinger, 2004). Once again, these important findings have clinical utility, especially when assessing mentally disordered offenders, as they suggest clinicians need to look beyond an individual’s clinical diagnosis to fully understand their offence. On the one hand, these findings are unremarkable, as the idea of factors beyond a mental disorder being relevant when assessing sex offenders, is supported by current structured risk assessment protocols, which require various factors to be considered when conducting such assessments (Hart & Boer, 2010). On the other hand, the main contribution of volume one of this thesis is to demonstrate that behavioural and motivation heterogeneity exists, even among mentally disordered sex offenders who target female strangers. However, the clinical contribution of this thesis does not end there, because volume two suggests behavioural and motivational heterogeneity exists even among stranger sexual killers.

Consideration of such differences can inform clinical assessments by providing clinicians with a greater understanding of the circumstances in which stranger sexual violence occurs and by highlighting the fact that such assaults are not solely motivated by sexual desire. This point can be illustrated by reference to John. It appears the violence inflicted by him was pre-meditated and expressive in nature (Meloy, 2006; Salfati, 2000) as he purchased the knife that day and used it to inflict injuries beyond what was necessary to cause death. We can therefore hypothesise this was not a sexual (witness elimination - Beech, Oliver, et al., 2005; Kerr et al., 2013; Proulx, 2008) killing, that is John did not kill the main witness to a sexual assault. Rather, his offence appears to be an example of what paper four describes as a ‘scenario two’ killing, which generally reflect angry or sadistic motivations (Keppel & Walter, 1999; Kerr et al., 2013). The identification of such motives are important as within clinical practice, areas
such as deviant sexual arousal (Mann & Fernandez, 2006) and anger management (Polaschek, 2006) are important treatment targets. Moreover, as I discovered with John, risk formulations and subsequent interventions can be influenced by hypotheses that an apparent random motiveless killing, was in fact a pre-meditated sexual homicide.

Highlighting behavioural and motivational differences however, is insufficient so long as clinicians have no formal and structured means of identifying them. This leads to the second contribution of this thesis, the importance of which will now be considered.

**INDEX OFFENCE ANALYSIS: THE MISSING JIGSAW PIECE**

Formulation is a key aspect of clinical practice (Sturmey & McMurran, 2011) and the ‘5Ps’ model (Weerasekera, 1996) is a popular approach. Logan (2014) suggests this model is an attractive way of organising risk information, as it highlights the problem (i.e. risk of what?), predisposing (or vulnerability) factors, precipitating factors (or triggers), perpetuating (or maintenance) factors, and protective factors (see figure 6.1).

*Figure 6.1: Formulation of Risk using the 5Ps Model*

![Image of the 5Ps model](designed_by_and_reproduced_with_the_permission_of_dr_caroline_logan)

Within clinical practice various protocols (e.g. Boer et al., 1997; Douglas et al., 2013; Hart et al., 2003) can identify predisposing, precipitating and perpetuating factors, as well as protective factors (e.g. de Vogel, de Vries Robbé, de Ruiter, & Bouman, 2011).
However, there does not appear to be a protocol for the clinical assessment of the original problem (i.e. the index offence). A similar argument applies to the '3Ds' (i.e. drivers, destabilisers, dis-inhibitors) formulation model (Logan, 2014), as whilst the same protocols (e.g. Boer et al., 1997; Douglas et al., 2013; Hart et al., 2003) can identify dis-inhibitors and destabilisers, without a thorough examination of the index offence, the drivers may not be adequately understood. Returning to John for example, we have already hypothesised the violence was expressive and indicative of anger or sadism, but what drove the post-crime cross-dressing? Was it an irrelevant act or like some other sexual killers (Langevin et al., 1988; Prentky et al., 1989; Proulx & Sauvêtre, 2007), did John cross-dress? Moreover, was he indulging a darker fantasy involving wearing the clothes of a sexual homicide victim (e.g. see case 2 - MacCulloch et al., 1983, p.25)?

Logan (2014) suggests clarity about the answer to the 'risk of what?' question is the essential first step when using the 5Ps formulation model and open answers such as ‘violence’ are to be avoided in favour of more specific statements about potential victims (e.g. intimate partners and/or care providers). Although accepting this argument, this thesis suggests even more specific statements about the nature of an individual's future risk can be provided by undertaking a formal and structured analysis of the index offence (i.e. the problem) and having a better understanding of the interpersonal and motivational dynamics of the crime. This explains why papers eight and nine argue index offence analysis should be a routine task within forensic/clinical practice. Indeed, just as Hart (1998) suggests a failure to consider psychopathy when undertaking a risk assessment may constitute professional negligence, forensic/clinical assessments should be considered incomplete without an index offence analysis. In addition to clinical practice however, a key argument of this thesis and one made previously (Greenall, 2014), is that index offence analysis can also assist criminal investigations.

A STRUCTURED PROFESSIONAL INVESTIGATIVE PROTOCOL?

The field of risk assessment includes clinical, actuarial and structured professional approaches (Douglas et al., 2013; Hart et al., 2003). However, the related field of ‘offender profiling’ only appears to include clinical (Badcock, 1997; Britton, 1997) and actuarial approaches (Canter, 1994; Canter & Youngs, 2009), as it does not yet (to the
best of my knowledge) appear to have embraced the structured professional approach (Hart & Logan, 2011). Cook and Tattersall (2010) suggest criminal investigations contain decisions and problem solving and central to this task is the gathering of information. Cook and Tattersall (2010) suggest this task is aided by following the “5 x WH + H method - who, what, when, where, why + how” (2010, p.37). In this formula the ‘who’ (victim details), ‘what’ (details of the incident), ‘when’ (time) and ‘where’ (location) can be answered from crime scene assessments and witness statements. However, the ‘why’ (motive) and the ‘how’ (modus operandi) require the development of investigative hypotheses (Cook & Tattersall, 2010) and in this task, SIOs evidently require some assistance. Cole and Brown (2011) for example, found that along with background characteristics (e.g. age, ethnicity, previous convictions etc.), other types of information such as crime scene interpretation (i.e. sequence of events, offender-victim interactions) and motive are requested by SIOs investigating serious crimes. As such, the behavioural and motivational heterogeneity of stranger sexual offenders highlighted in this thesis, also has investigative utility. However, like their clinical counterparts, SIOs or ‘Behavioural Investigative Advisers’ working for them (Rainbow & Gregory, 2011) need a means of identifying such differences to enhance their knowledge of the offence and the offender (Copson, 1995).

Although my experience of assisting the police is limited, when I have done so I have applied an index offence analysis approach. This has allowed me to conduct a structured examination of the offence(s) based on the available information, and to formulate evidence based hypotheses, not just about the crime itself, but the pre-crime, crime and post-crime stages (Greenall, 2014). This has facilitated discussions over issues such as opportunism vs. premeditation, instrumental vs. expressive violence, motive, crime linkage and forensic awareness, and the feedback has been positive\(^\text{10}\). My hypothesis therefore, is that criminal investigations into serious stranger violence can be assisted if an index offence analysis approach is utilised when assessing the crime and the circumstances in which it occurred. The strength of this approach is that it draws together the relevant research and professional experience and in so doing, it aims to

\[^{10}\text{In one of the first cases I was involved in, my colleague Dr Adrian West and I utilised an index offence analysis approach to analyse a stranger sexual assault of an elderly woman. When the case was closed following the arrest and conviction of the assailant, the SIO in charge of the investigation commented that our input "give us new areas of 'suspect generation' that we may not have got round to as quickly if at all. So in that respect it was extremely useful".}^\]
emulate the structured professional approach to risk assessment (Douglas et al., 2013; Hart et al., 2003).

**Critical Reflections**

Several of the papers in this thesis include a section where critical issues or limitations are discussed. This narrative however, would be incomplete if one or two other potential shortcomings were not considered. Although such issues arguably place extra limitations on the findings of this thesis, they have informed my thinking about alternative ways to conceptualise stranger sexual violence.

The first area of concern relates to the MTC:R3 and its opportunistic classification. Such rapes are impulsive, sexually motivated assaults which do not evidence gratuitous violence or anger (Knight & Prentky, 1990a). Although opportunistic offenders engage in various types of crimes, is opportunism a motivation? My experience suggests opportunism is not a motivation but a description of a type of person who sometimes engages in serious violence. Indeed, within clinical practice the related concept of impulsivity is but one aspect of antisocial, borderline and psychopathic personality disorders (American Psychiatric Association, 2013; Hare, 2003). Moreover, opinion is divided as to the nature of opportunistic rapes as whilst Knight and Prentky (1990a) and others (e.g. Beech, Oliver, et al., 2005) regard them as sexual, other researchers (e.g. Barbaree, Seto, Serin, Amos, & Preston, 1994; Eher, Neuwirth, Fruehwald, & Frottier, 2003) regard opportunistic rapes as non-sexual. MacCulloch et al. (1995) classify violent assaults as premeditated (planned), unpremeditated (unplanned) and premeditated opportunistic (prior intent but dependent on circumstance). Within this taxonomy opportunism is not a motive because:

> "in the case of unpremeditated attacks, it is scarcely correct to talk of motivation; trigger(s) is a better description of what is meant...[because]...the attack literally erupts directly out of circumstances which are actually provoking or which are perceived as provoking by the aggressor" (MacCulloch et al., 1995, p.45).

As papers one and five show, many sex offences occur in the victim's home. Whilst rape may be an 'unexpected bonus' during burglary (Scully, 2001) and therefore be
opportunistic in nature (i.e. had the victim not been home it could not have occurred), what if the subsequent rape evidences behaviours indicative of angry or sadistic motivations? Indeed, when conducting an index offence analysis, considerations about pre-meditation or opportunism occur in the pre-crime phase, before the full analysis is complete. My concern therefore, is that by classifying rapists as opportunistic, the MTC:R3 risks missing the real meaning behind the attacks.

The second area of concern relates to multidimensional scaling. Turvey (1999) criticises this approach for placing every example of a particular variable into the same thematic region, regardless of the context in which it occurred. Within paper one Turvey's (1999) critique is illustrated by the location of every act of biting, holding victims by the throat and abandonment within the violent thematic region, as such acts could have been aimed at satisfying other needs/wants/desires, such as sadism or avoiding detection. This leads to a further difficulty, whereby various multidimensional scaling studies of sexual violence have been inconsistent over the role/function of some actions. For example, fellatio has been associated with both sexual (Canter & Heritage, 1990) and violent (Alison & Stein, 2001; Canter et al., 2003; Häkkänen et al., 2004; House, 1997) themes; anal penetration has been associated with sexual (Canter & Heritage, 1990), sadistic (House, 1997), violent (Alison & Stein, 2001; Canter et al., 2003) and criminal (Häkkänen et al., 2004) themes; and cunnilingus has been associated with sexual (Canter & Heritage, 1990; Canter et al., 2003), criminal (House, 1997) and violent (Alison & Stein, 2001; Häkkänen et al., 2004) themes. Such inconsistencies suggest Groth (Groth & Birnbaum, 1979; Groth et al., 1977) was correct all those years ago; certain behaviours can have different meanings to different offenders and the same behaviour can serve different purposes. These inconsistencies are important because they clearly show that what is required is an alternative conceptualisation of stranger sexual violence; a model which aids the idiographic formulation of such assaults, and which addresses the shortcomings of the MTC:R3 and multidimensional scaling.

**Theoretical Development**

A key hypothesis of this thesis is that sexual offence behaviours reflect sexual and violent themes. In paper one, it was suggested this finding:
“allows, indeed invites, future research and theoretical conceptualisations of stranger rape, to consider how these two factors may interact in this crime” (Greenall & West, 2007, p.160).

A further key hypothesis of this thesis is that because physical and sexual violence are dimensional factors independent of each other, individual stranger sexual assaults can evidence high or low levels of either, neither or both. A useful way to capture the interaction of independent dimensional factors like sex and violence is to utilise the interpersonal circle. Originating from Leary (1957) an interpersonal circle is a two-dimensional representation of an interaction between two or more factors (Blackburn, 1993). Knight (2010) utilised this approach and found the MTC:R3 types could be accommodated around three major components; impulsivity, sexualisation and violence. Using an interpersonal circle this thesis suggests a simpler conceptualisation of stranger sexual violence (including stranger sexual homicide) can be developed. Moreover, such a model acknowledges that sexual and violent acts can have different meanings and serve different purposes. Groth and Birnbaum (1979) suggested three patterns of rape - anger, power, sadism - are distinguishable from the interaction of sexual and aggressive acts and other researchers (Beech, Oliver, et al., 2005; Kerr et al., 2013; Proulx, 2008) suggest three motivations - anger, sadism, sexual (witness elimination) - account for most sexual homicides. However, when sex and violence are arranged on two orthogonal axes within an interpersonal circle, the interaction of these factors create a dimensional representation of stranger sexual violence, containing four broad motivational patterns (see figure 6.2).
Within this model, the ‘sex’ continuum on the vertical axis is not simply concerned with the number of sexual acts inflicted, but their purpose and meaning for the perpetrator. The ‘violence’ continuum on the horizontal axis is differentiated between expressive and instrumental levels.

1. **Sexual/pseudo-intimacy**: These assaults contain an overt and obvious sexual component, coupled with instrumental violence (Meloy, 2006; Salfati, 2013). Such assaults may reflect a sexual motivation (Knight & Prentky, 1990a) and indicate a desire for an erotic experience which in extreme cases, manifests itself as a search for pseudo-intimacy (Canter & Heritage, 1990; House, 1997). Although the sexual component is overt, the violence is aimed at victim control. Such violence however, can result in homicide, either accidentally or to avoid detection (Greenall, 2012; Kerr et al., 2013).

2. **Impersonal/callousness**: These assaults contain a covert sexual component, coupled with instrumental violence. Although violence in such assaults satisfies the same functions and may produce the same outcome as sexual/pseudo-intimacy cases, the

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**Figure 6.2 - A Dimensional Model of Stranger Sexual Violence**

![Diagram of the Dimensional Model of Stranger Sexual Violence](image-url)
reduced sexual component suggests these assaults contain an impersonal dynamic (Canter & Heritage, 1990). In extreme cases, this may amount to a callous disregard for the victim who is akin to an instrument of masturbation (Simon, 2008).

3. **Anger/misogyny:** These assaults contain a covert sexual component coupled with expressive violence (Meloy, 2006; Salfati, 2013). Although the sexual component may reflect the same dynamics as impersonal/callousness cases, the gratuitous violence which may result in homicide, suggests these assaults reflect anger (Kerr et al., 2013; Knight & Prentky, 1990a) which in extreme cases, manifests itself as misogyny (Beech, Fisher, et al., 2005; Beech, Oliver, et al., 2005). As such, whilst various sexual acts may be perpetrated, their primary aim is to humiliate and demean the victim, rather than sexually gratify the offender.

4. **Sadism:** These assaults contain an overt and obvious sexual component similar to sexual/pseudo-intimacy cases, coupled with expressive violence similar to anger/misogyny cases. In such assaults, the combination of high levels of sex and violence may reflect (covert or overt) sadism (Beech, Oliver, et al., 2005; Groth & Birnbaum, 1979; Kerr et al., 2013; Knight & Prentky, 1990a; Proulx, 2008).

Although the above model is theoretical, it illustrates how the dynamic interaction of sex and violence can lead to different types of sexual assault. To utilise this model SIOs, behavioural investigative advisers or clinicians must:

1. Determine the level of violence within the offence, taking into account any victim resistance, i.e. was the level of violence sufficient to obtain victim compliance (i.e. sexual/impersonal) or was it gratuitous (i.e. anger/sadism);

2. Determine the subjective needs satisfied by any sexual acts perpetrated by the offender, i.e. were they perpetrated for erotic (i.e. sexual/sadism) or non-erotic (i.e. impersonal/anger) purposes;
3. Determine the subjective aspect of any non-violent, non-sexual acts. For example, was theft from the victim sexually motivated (i.e. her underwear etc.); impersonal (i.e. stole money after simply asking for it) or designed to humiliate (i.e. stole money and told the victim she might as well pay for his services).

Essentially, rather than relying on a computer programme to facilitate hypothesise about the meaning behind offender actions based on correlations, this model allows SIOs, behavioural investigative advisers or clinicians, to use their knowledge/experience and the research, to locate each aspect of an offender's actions within the most appropriate thematic section of the above model. This thesis suggests an index offence analysis approach will aid this task and provide an evidence based enhanced understanding of the motivation behind the offence and the offender in question. In John’s case for example, the expressive violence suggests it reflected anger/misogyny or sadism. Determining which one, would require further details about the nature, purpose and meaning of the sexual violence.

**Future Directions**

Although this thesis has highlighted important differences in some distinctive sex offender types and presented a means by which this can be identified to inform the final case formulation, some questions remain and will form the basis of future research into stranger sexual homicide:

1. Having shown that the criminal histories of stranger sexual killers reflect four offence pathways, paper six suggests "a key investigative question is whether SIOs can determine which pathway an unknown suspect originates from, based on crime scene information" (p.15).

2. Having suggested that heterogeneity exists in the sexual and violent actions of stranger sexual killers, would a multidimensional scaling analysis of their offender actions evidence a sexual/violent dichotomy (Greenall & West, 2007) and/or reflect the angry, sadistic and sexual (witness elimination) motivations (Beech, Oliver, et al., 2005; Kerr et al., 2013; Proulx, 2008)?
3. If ‘yes’ to number two, to what extent could stranger sexual killers be assigned to these motivational themes and would they be related to certain types of previous convictions (Salfati, 2000; Salfati & Canter, 1999)?

More specifically, will the following findings replicate among stranger sexual killers:

- **Violence**: will high levels of physical violence indicate a greater likelihood of the stranger sexual killer having previous convictions for violence (Davies et al., 1998; House, 1997; Jackson, van den Eshof, & de Kleuver, 1997)?

- **Location**: if a sexual homicide occurs in the victim’s home will this indicate a greater likelihood of the offender having previous convictions for burglary (Davies et al., 1998; Jackson et al., 1997; Schlesinger & Revitch, 1999)?

- **Burglary**: will stranger sexual killers with previous convictions for burglary have longer criminal careers (Harris et al., 2012)?

- **Geography**: are stranger sexual killers ‘marauders’ (Canter & Larkin, 1993) who offend within a couple of miles of their home (Davies & Dale, 1995)?

Having obtained additional data on the sample of stranger sexual killers (i.e. distance data), the above research questions will be explored to determine whether these findings apply to this rare group of sexual offenders. If so, this would provide an evidence base for the development of specific investigative hypotheses and make an important contribution to current and cold case investigations into such killings. Additionally, clinicians would have a greater understanding of these offenders and their histories.

**CONCLUSION**

Dedel (2011) suggests that rather than being determined by a single factor, sexual violence results when a motivated offender meets a vulnerable victim in a suitable location. Whilst this thesis has touched on victims and locations, its main focus has
been the offenders. Although stranger sexual violence is relatively rare, an important contribution of this thesis is to illustrate why it is wrong to consider stranger sexual offenders (including stranger sexual killers) a distinctive and homogeneous population, as important ‘within group’ differences have been shown to exist among them. This thesis suggests that such differences need to be identified by police officers and those working in prisons, secure hospitals or probation settings, and the presentation of a new method of achieving this (index offence analysis) represents an important development in forensic practice. A key aim of this thesis has been to assist the process of evidence based idiographic formulation both in investigative and clinical settings. Research suggests applying group based findings to individuals can be problematic (Hart, Michie, & Cooke, 2007) and so ideas for an idiographic conceptualisation of stranger sexual violence has been presented. Finally, avenues of future research have been proposed and will be pursued at a later date.

To investigate a crime, assess an offender or develop an investigative or clinical formulation, a knowledge and understanding of the crime in all its manifestations is an essential requirement. The findings of this thesis are presented therefore, to assist those charged with the complex task of the investigation, assessment and formulation of stranger sexual violence.
REFERENCES


A. Nicole (Eds.), Sexual Murderers: A Comparative Analysis and New Perspectives (pp. 51-69). Chichester: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.


APPENDIX – VOLUME 3: DEVELOPMENTS IN FORENSIC PRACTICE


ADULT FORENSIC PSYCHOLOGY SERVICE:
EDENFIELD CENTRE

INDEX OFFENCE ANALYSIS TOOL

Please complete as many sections of this form as possible
and list all sources of information.

N.B.
Please do not amend without the permission of the authors.

Dr Adrian G. West (Adrian.West@gmw.nhs.uk)
Paul V. Greenall (Paul.Greenall@gmw.nhs.uk)
Section 1: Demographics

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Name:</th>
<th>Present Location:</th>
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<tr>
<th>Date of Birth:</th>
<th>Legal Status:</th>
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<tr>
<th>ICIS Number:</th>
<th>Index Offence:</th>
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</table>

1.2 Patient/ Offender Background
Provide brief background information to introduce the offender/patient:

Section 2: Index Offence Details
This section is concerned with obtaining the offender/patient’s own account of and explanation for, their index offence.

Offender/patient’s Narrative of the Index Offence: Please provide an account of the offender/patient’s own view of their index offence.

Please list all of the external documentation that have been obtained and used in the subsequent analysis. This information is critical in allowing a comparison between the offender/patient’s self report and other collateral sources.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Documents Obtained &amp; Reviewed</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abbreviation:</td>
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<td>Full Title:</td>
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</table>
**Section 3: Pre-Crime Phase**

This section examines the offender/patient’s behaviour(s) prior to the index offence being committed. It examines the situational context of the offence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Location:</strong> Where was the offender/patient immediately prior to committing the index offence? For example, in a public place such as a street or public house etc. or a private location such as a place of residence or work etc?</th>
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</thead>
</table>

<table>
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<tr>
<th><strong>Situational Context:</strong> What was the offender/patient doing immediately prior to committing the index offence? For example, were they engaged in any offence related behaviours like stalking/cruising or waiting for a particular victim/opportunity? Were they engaged in another type of crime like burglary? Were they involved in apparently non-crime related activities such as shopping or just out walking etc?</th>
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<tr>
<th><strong>Triggers:</strong> Were there any incidents or occurrences immediately prior to the index offence that might have influenced the offender/patient to commit it? For example, did a particular victim come into view? Was the offender/patient engaged in another activity (including another crime) which produced the opportunity to commit the index offence etc?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

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<tr>
<th><strong>Planning:</strong> Was the offence pre-planned to any degree or was it an impulsive act? Please give reasons for your explanation.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Section 4: Crime Phase**

This section examines the actions and behaviours exhibited by the offender/patient during the commission of the crime. This includes the choice of victim, the level of violence used and whether or not the crime contained a sexual element.

**4.1 Victimology**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Victim’s Gender:</th>
<th>Victim’s Age:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What was the relationship between the offender/patient and victim and what (if anything) can be inferred about this relationship?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| What role (if any) did the victim play in the life of the offender/patient? |

| Had the offender/patient previously threatened the victim? |
Was the victim targeted?

If so, what might this targeting indicate about the offender/patient’s preferences with regard to the age, appearance, and lifestyle of the victim?

In what other ways did the victim’s lifestyle, psychological characteristics, or activity attract the offender/patient?

### 4.2 Offence Behaviours: Sexual and Violent

In what location did the offence take place (i.e. in a public or private place etc.) and what choices and decisions did the offender/patient make in choosing it?

If a homicide offence, are these choices different for the initial encounter with the victim, the attack site, the murder site, and the final deposition of the body site?

If the crime occurred in a private place, what factors encouraged the offender/patient to enter the particular premises?

What was the form of the initial contact with the victim (e.g. surprise, blitz, con etc.) and what might this indicate about the offender/patient’s social competence?

Was any violence used and if so, was it instrumental in nature (i.e. only used to restrain the victim) or expressive (i.e. over and above what was needed to restrain the victim).

What was the pattern and distribution of any injuries to the victim?

Was a weapon brandished or used? If so, what type of weapon was it and was it already in the offender/patient’s possession or was it acquired at the crime scene?

Did the offender/patient have a history of collecting weapons?

What was the force and focus of any injuries? i.e. were they defensive wounds around the arms/hands
or were the wounds located around particular parts of the body e.g. face, vagina, breasts, legs etc.

If this was a sexual attack, how quickly did contact between the victim and offender/patient become sexualized?

What kind of sexual activities did the offender/patient force upon their victim?

Did the offender/patient restrain their victim in any way e.g. with bindings or a gag? And if so, for what purpose, namely, were the restraints functional or indicative of sadistic intent?

### 4.3 Other Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Did the offender/patient steal anything from the victim?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did the offender/patient compliment their victim, apologise for their actions or request a further meeting?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was the offender/patient intoxicated by alcohol and/or drugs at the material time?</td>
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</table>

### Section 5: Post-Crime Phase

This section examines the actions and behaviours exhibited by the offender/patient after the crime was committed.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Question</th>
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<tr>
<td>Did the offender/patient spend any time with their victim after the crime and if so, what activities did they engage in during this time? For example, did they escort the victim away from the crime scene? Did they engage the victim in any conversations etc?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What if anything did the offender/patient do to avoid detection?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How forensically aware was the offender/patient? i.e. did they attempt to destroy or contaminate evidence or wear a condom etc?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
If a homicide, did the offender/patient move the body to another location?

If a homicide and crime scene photos are available, did the offender/patient leave the body in a particular way either to convey a message and/or ensure discovery or was the body concealed to prevent discovery?

Section 6: Explaining the Crime
This section examines the index offence in relation to the research literature. The aim here is to try and make sense of the crime by determining the offence motivation, i.e. why did the offender/patient commit this offence in this particular way?

6.1 Thematic Analysis & Offence Linkage
Within the literature various ‘typologies’ are available to help us understand the rationale behind a given crime. Such ‘typologies’ are available for sexual offences (Knight & Prentky, 1990), arson (Fritzon, 2000), stalking (Mullen, Pathe & Purcell, 2000) homicide (Brookman, 2005), sexual homicide (Schlesinger, 2004) and child abduction (Erikson & Friendship, 2002). Can any of these ‘typologies’ be used to explain the index offence? Are there other literature sources that help us understand / explain the offence behaviour?

What relationship might this offence have with previous offending? For example are there any relevant precursor offences that suggest previous behavioural “tryouts” of parts of previous fantasies i.e. other previous similar crimes? If a sexual offence, has the offender/patient any previous convictions for burglary etc?

6.2 Index Offence Conclusion: Please provide a psychological formulation of the index offence based on the findings of the analysis above. In the formulation, please account for any significant discrepancies between the offender/patient’s account of his actions and motivation and that based on your analysis above.

References

