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Who commits what? An evaluation of offenders convicted of domestic violence and sexual abuse in Iowa

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Who commits what? An evaluation of offenders convicted of domestic violence and sexual abuse in Iowa

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The student author and the program of study committee are solely responsible for the content of this thesis. The Graduate College will ensure this thesis is globally acceptable and will not permit alterations after a degree is conferred.

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DEDICATION

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

v

LIST OF FIGURES

Page

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF APPENDIX TABLES

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this analysis is to evaluate the criminal histories of a cohort of offenders in Iowa who have been newly admitted to prison on a most serious domestic or sex offense. Moreover, addressing whether offenders convicted of domestic violence and sex abuse have intersecting, specialized, or versatile criminal histories. Data was collected from the Justice Data Warehouse and offenders newly admitted to prison during FY2015 on a most serious domestic violence or sex crime, as well as a matched comparison group, were assessed. Analyses by logistical regression and receiver operating characteristic curves examined the criminal histories of these offenders between FY2005-FY2015. Results showed that domestic violence offenders who had prior assault and drug possession histories were more likely to have their current conviction be for domestic violence. Similarly, sex offenders who had prior sex abuse histories were significantly more likely to have their current conviction be for sexual abuse. Current sex offenders also had prior burglaries and/or property offense histories as indicators of a sex conviction. As the findings implicated, while some domestic violence and sex offenders may be specialized, they too displayed versatile criminal histories with prior non-violent charges and convictions. Thus, knowledge can be provided to interested stakeholders on how to reassess offender treatment and prediction measures within Iowa's criminal justice system. Overall, creating a system that acknowledges the predictive factors of prior charges and convictions, which will help to keep the most vulnerable victims and society safe.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

"Domestic and sexual violence affect[s] individuals, families and communities across all socio-economic, racial, ethnic, cultural, and spiritual spectrums of society; and is prevalent worldwide" (Gorman, 2012, p. 9). In fact, as of 2010, "approximately 1 in 7 women and 1 in 25 men [in the United States alone] were injured as a result of [intimate partner violence] that included rape, physical violence, and/or stalking by an intimate partner" (Basile, Black, Breiding, Chen, Merrick, Smith...Walters, 2011, p. 55). Other statistics note that a partner will physically assault nearly 20% of women and 11% of men during their lifetime (Breiding, Black & Ryan, 2008; Richards, Jennings, Tomsich & Gover, 2013, p. 644). Research conducted in different countries also found similar statistics within their population-based surveys regarding physical violence and sexual assault (Gorman, 2012, p. 9). These surveys reported that between 10% and 71% of women experienced violence by an intimate partner within their lifetime, and between 3% and 59% of the respondents reported sexual violence by a partner (Ansara & Hindin, 2010; Garcia-Moreno, Jansen, Ellsberg, Heise, & Watts, 2006; Gorman, 2012, p. 9; Iverson, Jimenez, Harrington & Resick, 2011).

Statistics like these, found nationally and world-wide, display the need we have as a society and criminal justice system to predict and/or identify the overall profile of a domestic violence or sexual abuse offender, and more particularly their offense and recidivism patterns. However, some approaches are easier said than done, which is why there has been a continual debate on how this type of research should look. Specifically,

researchers have repeatedly disagreed on if time and resources should be spent addressing the specialization or versatility debate of offenders independently; if some recognition should be placed on specialization within types of offenses or offenders; or if there are underlying social and cultural reasons behind their offending that studies have not assessed in conjunction with an offender's criminal activity.

Nevertheless, regardless of the approach taken, a variety of criminologists have agreed with the claim that "the best predictor of crime is prior crime" (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 2003, p. 12). And while most researchers have addressed how prior drug offenses lead to further drug offenses, there appears to be a gap in this research exploring violent offenders. Harris, Mazerolle and Knight, stated that by focusing on more serious criminals, like domestic and sex offenders, it provides researchers with the advantage that "no one can dispute the gravity of their offenses" (2009, p. 1065; Soothill & Gibbens, 1978). For instance, if a property offender has a criminal history that includes prior burglaries one might not be surprised. On the other hand, if a sexual offender also displays a criminal history that includes burglaries, one may begin to question the real motives behind their property charges and convictions. Lastly, it makes sense to understand groups of chronic and persistent offenders, as they provide "a sound empirical understanding of more serious offenses" (DeLisi, 2001; Harris, Mazerolle & Knight, 2009, p. 1065; Piquero, 2000). Specifically, it is important to understand those who are convicted of domestic and sexual offenses since they are of interest in the media, legislation, and the criminal justice system.

However, domestic violence and sexual abuse have not always been on the forefront of interest. In fact, the criminal justice system's response to domestic violence

as a societal, and not marital or family-related issue, was only brought into light approximately 25 years ago (Olson & Stalans, 2001; Richards et al., 2013, p. 645). Subsequently, the same can be said regarding sex offense laws. "Brownmiller (1975), Guttmacher (1963), Schlesinger & Revitch (1997), and others contended that rape laws were originally an extension of property laws established only to protect women in their position as men's property" (Harris, Pedneault & Knight, 2012, p. 3). Therefore, as society has grown and changed, predominately in regards to women's rights, researchers and others have become much more interested in defining the types of offenders that tend to commit domestic and sexual violence offenses.

Particularly as "research studies from across the globe demonstrate domestic and sexual violence are associated with adverse effects on morbidity and mortality rates, health and wellness, emotional and social well-being, education and employment outcomes, parenting practices, and are predictors for youth and adult offending behaviours, adult revictimization and polyvictimization" (Gorman, 2012, p. 2). Focusing mainly on these offenses as predictors for youth and adult offending, this research seeks to understand what the criminal histories of domestic and sexual offenders looks like. More importantly, it hopes to examine the specialization versus versatility debate as prior research has been mixed on whether domestic and sex offenders are truly unique offenders, like the specialization argument suggests, or if these types of offenses are a part of a more diverse, and versatile, criminal career.

In regards to the specialization versus versatility debate, Simon (1997a, 2000) and Lussier (2005) noted that the discussion is particularly important for sex offenders as the criminal justice system has come to treat them as "a special kind of offender in need of a

specific intervention," which may or may not be true (Lussier, 2005, p. 269). The same thought process also applies to domestic violence offenders as laws, such as mandatory minimums, have been proposed which would increase their prison time for convictions of third or subsequent domestic violence offenses. Both suggesting that unlike previous research has shown, domestic and sexual abuse offenders may be especially likely to commit these specific types of crimes.

Additionally, as if the two offenses have not accumulated enough publicity and proposed laws on their own, there is also research that suggests the offenses may in fact co-occur. Researchers suggest that "an intersectionality approach to domestic and sexual violence [may] help inform our understanding of risks, causes, experiences, consequences of, and responses to violence" (Brownridge, 2009, p. 13; Gorman, 2012, p. 19). The intersectionality approach acknowledges that some domestically violent situations may have sexual coercive intentions, and vice versa. Particularly noting that most of these criminal acts may be due in part to exposure as a child; putting them at a greater risk for perpetrating similar types of violence later in life (Gorman, 2012; Latzman, Viljoen, Scalora, Ullman, 2011). Thus, while looking at criminal histories can provide insight into the types of crimes these offenders commit, Logan & Cole (2011) also argue that "not acknowledging these sexually abusive experiences or only counting forced sex as the indicator of sexual abuse, leaves a gap in the full narrative of violent victimization experiences" (p. 905; Gorman, 2012, p. 26).

Furthermore, White, McMullin, Swartout, Sechist and Gollehon (2008) claimed that, "reporting on the prevalence rates and exploring correlations between the two types of aggression has the potential to increase knowledge as to why and when various

patterns of aggressive behavior occur" (Gorman, 2012, p. 26). Since, others have stressed, "it is critical to better understand sexual violence within the context of violent relationships because the consequences of physical and sexual violence have been found to be even worse than the consequences from physical violence without sexual violence" (Gorman, 2012, p. 28; Logan, Cole & Shannon, 2007, p. 89). Noting again that research must not rule out the societal and individual factors that may play a crucial role in an offender's criminal behavior. Thereby, not only is intersectional research important to determining the overall profile of an offender, but it is also useful in helping determine which types of offenders tend to utilize both forms of aggression in their criminal acts. Nevertheless, before an intersection is determined, researchers must first address what each offense is separately and whether domestic violence and sex abuse offenders specialize in them.

Domestic Violence

Nationally, "nearly 36.2 million women in the United States [have] been slapped, pushed or shoved by an intimate partner at some point in [their] lifetime" (Basile et al., 2011, p. 43). Until recently in Iowa, the victim had to be living with, have children with, or be married to or divorced from his/her abuser, for the offender to be charged with domestic violence. Now, the addition of an "intimate partner relationship within the past year of the assault" has been added to the definition of domestic abuse. This is a crucial step since women between the ages of eighteen and twenty-four tend to be the most common victims of domestic violence (NCADV, 2015).

Domestic violence and domestic abuse are used interchangeably throughout this research, and are more specifically defined by Iowa Code 236.2 which states that,

"Domestic Abuse" means committing assault as defined in Section 708.1 under any of the following circumstances:

a. The assault is between family or household members who resided together at the time of the assault.

b. The assault is between separated spouses or persons divorced from each other and not residing together at the time of the assault.

c. The assault is between persons who are parents of the same minor child, regardless of whether they have been married or have lived together at any time.

d. The assault is between persons who have been family or household members residing together within the past year and not are residing together at the time of the assault.

e. (1) The assault is between persons who are in an intimate relationship or have been in an intimate relationship and have had contact within the past year of the assault. In determining whether persons are or have been in an intimate relationship, the court may consider the following nonexclusive list of factors:

    a. The duration of the relationship.

    b. The frequency of interaction.

    c. Whether the relationship has been terminated.

    d. The nature of the relationship, characterized by either party's expectation of sexual or romantic involvement.

(2) A person may be involved in an intimate relationship with more than one person at a time.

Iowa Code 708.1. Assault Defined. (Iowa Legislature, 2016).

An assault as defined in this section is a general intent crime. A person commits an assault when, without justification, the person does any of the following:

1. Any act which is intended to cause pain or injury to, or which is intended to result in physical contact which will be insulting or offensive to another, coupled with the apparent ability to execute the act.

2. Any act which is intended to place another in fear of immediate physical contact which will be painful, injurious, insulting, or offensive, coupled with the apparent ability to execute the act.

3. Intentionally points any firearm toward another, or displays in a threatening manner any dangerous weapon toward another.

Further, per Mince-Didier of the "Criminal Defense Lawyer" (2016):

> Domestic abuse in the <u>first offense</u> is a simple misdemeanor if no other laws apply, a serious misdemeanor if the victim suffers bodily injury or mental illness, and an aggravated misdemeanor if there was the use of a weapon or the intent was to inflict serious injury.

> Domestic abuse in the <u>second offense</u> depends upon what the first offense was charged as. For instance, if the first offense is classified as a serious misdemeanor, then the second offense is an aggravated misdemeanor.

> Lastly, domestic abuse in the <u>third offense and beyond</u> is a class D felony. Additionally, treatment, typically in the form of a batterer's program, can be imposed on a defendant convicted of domestic abuse. However, if the victim and the offender have only dated, and are not living with, have children together, or married and/or divorced, then it is up to the court to decide whether or not treatment may be ordered.

Due to the scrutiny of these charges, the court's discretion, and the supposed rise in domestic violence rates, current lobbyists are still bidding to pass violent habitual offender bills. In fact, bills continue to be introduced into legislation regarding domestic violence offenders. Reiterating the importance and interest legislators have in examining domestic violence, despite what appears to be currently stable trends of domestic violence on a national level and declining violent domestic violence crimes, per the 2014 National Crime Victimization Survey (Truman & Langton, 2015). For instance, HF2399 was introduced in 2016, and a very similar bill was introduced again this legislative session, HF263. Portraying the persistence in proposing violent habitual offender bills that would create conviction enhancements for repeat offenders convicted of a third or subsequent domestic violence crime.

Thus, with these bills, the goal is to protect the most vulnerable of victims from the highest degree of domestic violence abusers. Particularly since past research has concluded that an average of nearly seventy-eight percent (78%) of females aged

eighteen to forty-nine indicated that they had previously been victimized by the same offender, and an average of thirty-eight percent (38%) of females aged twelve to seventeen indicated the same offender had previously committed a crime against them as well (Catalano, 2015). However, "little progress has been made in understanding other features of the criminal careers of domestic violence offenders, such as the mix of offenses in which they are involved" (Piquero, Brame, Fagan & Moffitt, 2006, p. 410).

With that in mind, the following study examines the prior charges and convictions of convicted domestic violence offenders over the span of ten years to examine whether they specialize in domestic violence. More importantly, the study aims to show the entirety of their prior criminal histories considering the specialization versus versatility argument. Answering the first two research questions:

Does having prior domestic violence charges or convictions increase the odds that the next offense will be for domestic violence?

What are the variations in criminal histories for domestic violence offenders?

Through analyzing these questions, the hope is to provide interested stakeholders such as Iowa Legislators, Criminal Justice Agencies, the Department of Corrections, Domestic Violence Agencies, and treatment providers, with information on how to better identify, process, and treat high-risk offenders for domestic violence reoffending.

Sexual Abuse

The 2010 survey report mentioned earlier further concluded that in Iowa alone, nearly 198,000 women noted a lifetime prevalence of being the victim of rape. Additionally, 389,000 women and 222,000 men noted being the victim of some form of sexual violence other than rape during their lifetime (Basile et al., 2011, p. 68-70).

Nationally, "22 million women and 1.6 million men in the United States have been raped at some point in their lives, including completed forced penetration, attempted forced penetration, or alcohol/drug facilitated completed penetration," covering only a small portion of what constitutes as sexual abuse (Basile et al., 2011, p.18).

Sexual abuse is defined as "unwanted sexual contact between two or more adults or two or more minors; any sexual contact between an adult and a minor; any unwanted sexual contact initiated by a youth toward an adult; or sexual contact between two minors with a significant age difference between them" ("United States", 2008, p. 1). Sexual violence can also include instances that have no physical contact such as using the internet to view illegal pornography or videotaping/photographing victims without their knowledge and consent. Specifically, sexual abuse and/or violence, both of which are used interchangeably throughout this research, is defined by Iowa Code 709.1, which states that,

> "Sexual abuse" is defined, as any sex act between persons is sexual abuse by either of the persons when the act is performed with the other person in any of the following circumstances:
> 1. The act is done by force or against the will of the other. If the consent or acquiescence of the other is procured by threats of violence toward any person or if the act is done while the other is under the influence of a drug inducing sleep or is otherwise in a state of unconsciousness, the act is done against the will of the other.
> 2. Such other person is suffering from a mental defect or incapacity which precludes giving consent, or lacks the mental capacity to know the right and wrong of conduct in sexual matters.
> 3. Such other person is a child.

However, differing from domestic violence, the ability to capture these offenders, even with well-defined and extensive laws and definitions is a difficult task (See *Appendix A)*. Most "research has clearly demonstrated that many sex offenses are never

reported to authorities" (Przybylaski, 2014, p. 90). In fact, in 2004, the Federal Bureau of Investigations (FBI) (2005) stated that "sex offenses represent under 1% of all arrests." Thus, it is not only difficult to then obtain a profile of offenders, but it is even more difficult to draw "conclusions about the extent of sex offender recidivism and the propensity of sex offenders to reoffend over the life course," because official records underestimate their criminal activity as "the observed sexual recidivism rates of sex offenders range from about 5 percent after 3 years to about 24 percent after 15 years" (Przybylaski, 2014, p. 101). Therefore, to assess the affects prior sexual charges or convictions have on an offenders' current offending accurately, either a very long longitudinal study would need to take place, or else the data analyzed would need to account for a long enough time-span for multiple charges and/or convictions to occur. Fortunately, for this study, being able to examine charges and convictions over the last ten years should suffice.

Regardless, researchers have still found that sex offenders tend to have lower rates of recidivism (12 to 24%), especially for another sexual or violent offense, making it even more difficult to determine the overall effect that their prior sexual charges and convictions has on their current offending ("United States", 2008, p. 3). Hence, it can be argued that measures taken to enhance public safety, such as the Sex Offender Registry, may not be as effective because most sex offenders are not reported to authorities and/or caught. Additionally, to those that are convicted, the registry could also be more detrimental to offenders than helpful as most of them—who may never sexually offend again—are left with a life of restrictions and an inability to reintegrate into society properly (Eker & Mus, 2016; Jennings, Zgoba & Tewksbury, 2012; Levenson & Cotter,

2005; Levenson, University & Hern, 2007). Therefore, recommending that measures should be taken to shift the focus of treatment to a more generalized, violent offenders approach (Simon, 1997a, p. 43).

Thus, this analysis hopes to shed further light onto the criminal histories and offending patterns of sexual offenders, and how that evidence may further enhance public policies by answering the next two research questions:

Does having prior sexual abuse charges or convictions increase the odds that the next offense will be for sexual abuse?

What are the variations in criminal histories for sexual abuse offenders?

Again, as with domestic offenders, through analyzing these various questions, the hope is to provide interested stakeholders such as Iowa Legislators, Criminal Justice Agencies, the Department of Corrections, Sex Abuse Agencies, and treatment providers, with information on how to better identify, process, and treat high risk offenders for sexual reoffending.

Intersection between Domestic Violence and Sexual Abuse

Furthermore, some research suggests that there is also an intersection between the two offenses. For example, one study found that "at least 20% of the rapists and child molesters admitted that they beat wives or partners" (Simon, 1997a, p. 43). Others concluded that domestic violence is indeed another etiological variable that is linked to sexual offending. However, no scientific evidence has founded this to necessarily be the cause (Faupel, 2014, p. 46). Lastly, researchers Hass and Killias found that among incidents of different crimes committed by serial and serious offenders, 30% of the criminal incidents committed by frequent bodily injury offenders were for any sex

offenses, while 83% of frequent rapists' incidents involved any violence offenses (2003, p. 256). Overall displaying the interaction between these two offenses specifically, but while generally concluding that "offenders [within this cohort] seldom specialize[d] in one type of delinquency, [indicating that Gottfredson and Hirschi were right,] 'crime predicts crime'" (Hass & Killias, 2003, p. 256).

Nevertheless, there is not one type of offender, nor one set of current factors that explain why some offenders commit both forms of aggression and why others do not. However, what has had continual support is that offender's prior histories tend to predict their future offenses. Therefore, regardless of if these offenders commit domestic and sexual violence acts concurrently or not, the research is still mixed on if offenders specialize in either violent or non-violent crimes in general (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2307). All of which informs the last four research questions:

Are prior violent charges and convictions predictive of a current domestic violence offense?

Are prior non-violent charges and convictions predictive of a current sex offense?

Does having prior sex abuse charges or convictions increase the odds that the next offense will be for domestic violence?

Does having prior domestic abuse charges or convictions decrease the odds that the next offense will be for sex abuse?

Moreover, the purpose of this analysis is to evaluate the criminal histories of a cohort of offenders in Iowa who have been newly admitted to prison on a most serious domestic or sex offense during FY2015. This analysis also intends to address whether offenders convicted of domestic violence or sex abuse have intersecting criminal histories

or if they are versatile offenders. After examining both, researchers hope to see that if by looking at their prior criminal histories, we are better able identify high-risk offenders for either domestic violence, sexual abuse offenses, or the intersection of them both. Additionally, they hope to further the knowledge surrounding the specialization or versatility debate by examining if there are trends in the offender's criminal history, while also determining if there are specific predictors such as race, sex, or age, that play a part in differentiating those offenders who seem to specialize against those who do not. Each of which will be further informed based upon other national studies of specialization and versatility within this group of offenders, found in Chapter 2.

Although this research is unable to fully address the experiences behind each offense, it does examine the criminal histories of a diverse cohort of offenders, which per some researchers, is crucial. For instance, Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) "explicitly recommend that researchers incorporate samples that provide adequate variation on crime-related dependent variables" (Ha & Beauregard, 2016, p. 63). Displaying its importance here, as this study includes a variety of prior offenses as independent variables, and utilizes a matched comparison group of current offenders as a dependent variable (Ha & Beauregard, 2016, p. 63; MacDonald, Haviland, Ramchand, Morral & Piquero, 2014, p. 52). This allows for the analyses to draw inferences upon the general population of offenders as well. Even though this study does not explicitly look at the full narratives of these offenses, it still addresses the relationship between the two at the charge and conviction level. This will provide a greater understanding of the causes, pathways, and predictors that could help enhance treatment efforts and further public safety.

Overall, the outcomes of this study are important to society as safety is always key. This research will be used accordingly to provide knowledge to interested stakeholders, such as Iowa Legislators, Criminal Justice Agencies, the Department of Corrections, Domestic and Sex Abuse Agencies, and treatment providers, on how to reassess how these offenders are processed and treated within the criminal justice system. In essence, doing them both justice. Most importantly, the following research also aims to better predict the offending patterns of these offenders by looking at the specialization or generality of their prior offenses. Through doing so, the hope is to improve the way domestic violence and sex abuse offenders are treated within the criminal justice system by reassessing how the offenders are passed through the system, and questioning the effectiveness of currently imposed, or projected, policies as these offenders may not be as unique as they generally have been thought to be. Thus, whether these efforts provide further questions for lobbyists and legislators, modified sex offender laws, or more generalized programming efforts afforded to the domestic violence and sex offender population, this research will contribute to a variety of stakeholders. Through assessing this information, they can not only better serve domestic violence and sex offenders, but will also help keep the most vulnerable victims and society safe.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Policies such as mandatory minimums for habitual domestic violence offenders and sex offender registries and restrictions, tend to fall in line with the system's belief that criminals do specialize in offending. In fact, some laws, prevention programs, treatments, and even criminal investigations employ or embrace the idea that the offenders they are dealing with are only committing one type of crime throughout their criminal career (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2296). However, whether this is true or not has been a debate among criminologists for quite some time as empirical evidence has been found in support of both specialization and versatility. Nevertheless, there is still the need to determine the causes, persistence, and predictors of criminals and their offenses, especially violent offenses such as domestic violence and sexual abuse. Therefore, this study hopes to aid in bridging the gap between the ends of the spectrums outlined below.

Specialization

"The notion of specialization in criminal offending refers to the extent to which an offender tends to repeat the same specific offense or offense type on successive criminal events" (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2295). Additionally, other researchers have defined criminal specialization "by [an offenders'] preferences for a specific offense or specific categories of offenses grouped by researchers a priori, or what Cohen (1986) referred to as 'offense clusters'" (Blumstein, Cohen, Das & Moitra, 1988; Deane, Armstrong & Felson, 2005; DeLisi, Beaver, Wright, Wright, Vaughn & Trulson, 2011; Farrington, 1986; Kempf 1987; Lattimore, Visher & Linster, 1994; MacDonald et al.,

2014, p. 44; Osgood & Schreck, 2007; Piquero, Paternoster, Mazerolle, Brame & Dean, 1999; Raudenbush, Christopher & Sampson, 2003; Tracy & Kempf-Leonard, 1996; Wolfgang, Figlio & Sellin, 1972). More specifically, "specialist offenders [have generally been defined as] those who come to specialize in particular crime [types] and tend to engage in that behavior repeatedly and frequently" (Harris, Mazerolle, & Knight, 2009, p. 1051; Peterson & Braiker, 1980, cited in Simon, 1994). This definition is discussed in more detail later as the frequency part of that definition may have its limitations as well. In terms of the research being analyzed here, specialization will be viewed "as the probability of repeating the same type of crime when next arrested," while acknowledging that an offender's level of specialization may vary (Blumstein, Cohen, Roth & Visher, 1986; Lussier, 2005, p. 270). Thus, this review of the literature strives to provide findings for two constructs as Farrington, Snyder and Finnegan (1988) argued "one should distinguish between… specialists and specialization" (Lussier, 2005, p. 270).

To begin, researchers suggest that support for this belief can be found when looking at older offenders. As offenders age out, they tend to commit fewer crimes and specialize in the types of crimes they still commit (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2296). Particularly, research conducted on a cohort of Pittsburg boys ages seven to twenty-five, found that as age increased, specialization did as well, until desistance occurred as part of the curvilinear relationship (Loeber, Farrington, Stouthamer-Loeber & White, 2008; Piquero, Jennings & Barnes, 2012, p. 174). The same study also found a similar increase in violence specialization for the older adult offenders (Loeber et al., 2008, p. 130; Piquero, Jennings & Barnes, 2012).

Additional support in regards to the increase in violence specialization itself has been found by several researchers including Deane and her colleagues (2005), Osgood and Schreck (2007), Lynam, Piquero, and Moffitt (2004), and DeLisi et al. (2011) (MacDonald et al., 2014, p. 46). Each of these researchers found some evidence for violent offending specialization, at least in the short-term, by utilizing individual-level-based methods (MacDonald et al., 2014, p. 46). Others have also found that "levels of specialization increase as the ages of offenders increase," because as offender's age, some claim they tend to "gain other capitals, [a job, a marriage,] and start to make rational choices" (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2303).

This age specialization correlation was recently confirmed for domestic violence offenders as research found that "individuals who were older at their first arrests, and women, were more likely to specialize in domestic violence" (Bouffard & Zedaker, 2016, p. 14). Criminologists have concluded similar beliefs in congruence with Sutherland's theory of differential association, which claims "individuals copycat others' crimes and continue committing [the] same crimes" (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2298, 2307; Tumminello, Edling, Liljeros, Mantegna & Sarnecki, 2013, p. 2). Some offenders may specialize with age as they grow up and become involved with peers that are more deviant.

Likewise, research in offense clustering has found that criminals tend to focus on certain types of crime so that they can develop a justification for why they committed said crime. For instance, Hass and Killias (2003) found additional support for offense clustering in their study of 21,314 Swiss Army recruits, as they found several specialists, particularly in crimes such as property, arson, sexual and violent offenses. Providing

evidence of justification as offenders may steal because they need money, or abuse because they bring in the money (Dempsey & Day, 2011, p. 424).

Furthermore, if the recruits were in offender categories for "violent offenders who committed bodily injury, [or] rapists," then they were also "candidates for meeting the criteria for a specialized type of delinquent, if they exist" (Haas & Killias, 2003, p. 255). However, it could be argued that those who were considered specialists in this group also had higher frequencies of those reported offenses. Thus, it has been argued, "violent offenders are merely frequent offenders, and there is limited evidence to suggest that violent specialists exist" (Brennan, Mednick & John, 1989; Loeber et al., 2008; Piquero, Jennings & Barnes, 2012, p. 177). Aiding to prior research that has examined serious violent offenders and found they are also frequent offenders. Overall, implying that their high frequencies could account for a disproportionality in the large number of reported offenses (Elliott, Huizinga & Morse, 1986; Piquero, Jennings & Barnes, 2012, p. 176).

Nevertheless, specialization has a place in sex offender research as well. "The specialization hypothesis states that sexual offenders are a special case of offender, having a specific propensity to commit sexual crimes" (Lussier, 2005, p. 270). Particularly, research has shown that "sex offenders specialize in some subtypes of sex crimes because of their personality traits," concluding that child molesters, specifically, are more likely to specialize in their offenses, whereas rapists are more likely to commit a variety of crimes (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2316; Harris, Mazerolle & Knight, 2009). In fact, most "results seem to suggest that the level of specialization varies across types of sexual offenders, being lower for [rapists] and higher for [child molesters]," as aggressors of children have been shown to display a criminal history that includes more sex offenses

(Lussier, 2005, p. 274; Lussier, LeBlanc, & Proulx, 2005). Some research suggests that since child molesters are generally less versatile, "if specialist, persistent offenders exist, the extra familial child molester is likely the most stereotypical type" (Harris, Mazerolle & Knight, 2009, p. 1052; Smallbone & Wortley, 2004; Weinrott & Saylor, 1991).

Additionally, research has found that although sex offenders tend to have the lowest recidivism rate, "they are more likely to return to prison for a violent crime (54.8%), [rather] than another sex crime (28.6%)" (Schwaner, 1998, p. 7). The same study also found that violent offenders generally return to prison on subsequent violent offenses. Furthering the overall belief of offense specialization. However, the most common "perception about sex offenders is that they specialize in sex crimes because 'they are motivated by some mental disorder, usually deviant sexual arousal,' therefore, the probability of recommitting another sex crime is more likely" (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2311). Specifically, the specialization side of the debate argues, "sex offenders commit sexual offenses persistently and exclusively (or at least predominately) throughout their criminal career" (Harris, Mazerolle & Knight, 2009, p. 1051; Lussier & Brassard, 2015; Simon, 1997a, 1997b).

Conversely, research has also found that this sexual motivation may drive criminal activity in other offenses as well. Research regarding sex burglary has noted that burglary may be a "'stepping stone' in the development of a sexual criminal career, as an additional motive may be gaining access to victims" (DeLisi & Scherer, 2006; Harris, Pedneault & Knight, 2012, p. 1, 2; Horning, Salfati & Crawford, 2010 LeBlanc & Frechette, 1989; Schlesinger & Revitch, 1998; Vaugh, DeLisi, Beaver & Howard, 2008). Thus, "the more severe forms of burglary are usually referred to as 'sexual burglary'

because the motivation of the offender is rape, [kidnapping and murder,] and not any potential material gain from theft of property" (DeLisi, Beauregard & Mosley, 2017, p. 4; DeLisi & Walters, 2011, p. 151). In fact, Harris et al., (2012) found burglary co-occurred with rapists, not child molesters, which is consistent with the idea rapists are more versatile offenders, while child molesters are more specialized. The same study also noted that "burglary emerged as an expression of versatility in child molesters, yet these offenses generally occurred long before the sex offenses" (p. 13, 14; Amirault & Lussier, 2011; Harris, 2008; Harris, Mazerolle & Knight, 2009; Lussier, 2005; Simon, 2000; Smallbone & Wortley, 2004). Therefore, there could be some of the same underlying motivations within the earlier burglary offenses.

Nonetheless, most researchers argue that while offenders may not specialize in one crime, they do believe that they specialize in either violent or nonviolent offenses. For instance, researchers believe that "personal deficits, [such as] low self-control, impulsivity, irritability, and low IQ, do not cause versatility; [instead] they cause violent crimes" (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2313). Some researchers have found that "violent offenders, as a whole, also recidivated for violent crimes, property offenders recidivated for property offenses, and drug offenders recidivated for drug offenses" (Schwaner, 1998, p. 3). Yet, others such as strain theorists believe that "there are ample reasons derived from previous studies to claim that offenders will commit both [violent and non-violent crimes] at the same time with the exception of criminals who suffer from biological deficits" (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2316). This relates back to Mazerolle et al.'s claim "that offenders' specialization in either violent or nonviolent crimes will be determined by the characteristics of the neighborhood where they live and with the 'class position' to which

they belong" (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2308; Mazerolle, Brame, Paternoster, Piquero & Dean, 2000).

Regardless, there has been continual support for specialization, particularly in violent and non-violent crimes. Pertaining to the analysis here, research on specialization in violent crimes has further concluded that factors such as race, time served, age at release, and prior violent felony convictions are all related to violent specialization (Schwaner, 1998, p. 4, 12). Additionally, conclusions of a study done by Pedneault, Harris and Knight, also found evidence for prior violent offenses, predicting future violent offenses, and prior sex offenses, predicting future sex offenses (2012, p. 283). Indicating, that depending on the results founded here, this cohort may have similar specialization findings. Nevertheless, Simon's notion of specialization has survived as a trend in criminal offending, despite the contrary support for versatility (1997a, 1997b; Harris, Mazerolle & Knight, 2009).

Versatility

Most criminological literature believes "that criminal specialization is a rarity" (Simon, 1997a, p. 45). A meta-analysis of thirty-three criminal behavioral studies done by Klein (1984) only revealed four studies that indicated support for specialization (Richards et al., 2013, p. 646). Thus, further research has been done on an offender's versatility as well. Versatility is defined by most researchers as "those [offenders] who do not satisfy the definition of specialization," and in turn commit a wide variety of crimes over their criminal career (Harris, Mazerolle & Knight, 2009, p. 1052). Moreover, criminologists who "are in favor of offender versatility argue that empirical results that support the existence of specialization are admittedly weak" (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2296;

Jennings, Zgoba, Donner, Henderson & Tewksbury, 2014, p. 185). In fact, most criminologists have reached the conclusion that "although some evidence of specialization commonly is found, the overwhelming weight of evidence supports the idea of versatility or generality of criminal offending" (Simon, 1997a, p. 37).

A main argument for versatility lies within the personal factors pertinent to individuals who have low levels of social and self-control, which addresses the fact that offenders commit all types of crimes if the opportunity presents itself (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2296; Tumminello et al., 2013, p. 2). Indicating "offenders tend to commit 'simple and easy' crimes that provide 'immediate benefits,'" rather than controlling themselves and waiting for an opportune time to commit (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2298). However, as with child molesters who were noted for specialization above, this notion could be contradicted since they are rarely caught and tend to be strategic in their offenses.

Alternatively, versatility also utilizes Sutherland's differential association theory, but claims instead that peers provide the offender with more knowledge and opportunities for committing different crimes (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2299; Thomas, 2016). Further, researchers claim that due to "changing situations and contexts over the life-course, their offending profiles aggregate to versatility over the criminal career" (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2301; McGloin, Sullivan, & Piquero, 2009, p. 243). Conversely, research has also found support that over a lifetime offenders may become more specialized as was mentioned before (Loeber et al., 2008; Piquero et al., 2012, p. 130).

Therefore, like proponents for specialization in violent and non-violent criminal offending, researchers have found support for this claim in regards to versatility as well. Piquero et al., found in an analysis of data from the Spouse Assault Replication Program

that while a few offenders specialized exclusively in violence, a majority had official criminal histories including violent and non-violent offenses (2006, p. 417). Providing evidence that "such violent arrests are likely to be embedded in long careers dominated by arrests for non-violent crimes" (Simon, 1997a, p. 37). Olson and Stalans (2001) also "support the notion of generalization among domestic violence offenders" as they saw no significant differences for prior violent crime convictions (Richards et al., 2013, p. 647). Particularly, these findings further "emphasize[d] the importance of considering varying criminal histories within domestic offender treatment standards" (Olson & Stalans, 2001; Richards et al., 2013). Especially since all of Snyder's findings in 1998 concluded that if a "violent offender" exists, it is rare and they are "not restricted to specifically violent acts" (Piquero, Jennings & Barnes, 2012, p. 175).

However, versatility was not always the thought when it came to domestic violence. In fact, domestic violence offending tended to lean towards the specialization side, but researchers have "found little evidence of specialization in violence and instead concluded that the commission of a violent offense during one's criminal career is a function of offense frequency" (Bouffard & Zedaker, 2016, p. 2). Thus, prior "evidence is consistent with the research on general criminal offenders, indicating that offenders who commit domestic violence crimes are generalists who commit a wide variety of offenses against intimates and non-intimates" (Simon, 1997a, p. 39). This is supportive of White and Straus (1981) who found that "men who are violent towards their wives are arrested or convicted for property or violent crime[s] against a stranger at almost twice the rate of non-violent spouses" (Simon, 1997a, p. 39). Concluding "individuals with more arrests overall, [represented] a greater degree of generality in offending," and furthering the

results of Osgood and Schreck who concluded in 2007, "males 'specialize in violence'" (Bouffard & Zedaker, 2016, p. 13; Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2305). Each relating back to the assertion of versatility as their criminality can involve various forms of violence and violent crimes (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2305).

Additionally, as it was previously mentioned in regards to sex offenders, there is further support for versatility as rapists "are more likely to possess conviction records for nonsexual crimes" (Lussier, 2005; Lussier, LeBlanc & Proulx, 2005; Pham, Debruyne, & Kinappe, 1999; Simon, 1997a, p. 42). For instance, a study of males convicted of their first sex crime "found that 50% of these offenders had a prior criminal history of property and non-sexual violent crimes" (Simon, 1997a, p. 43). Actually, research has found that sex offenders not only have higher rates of general recidivism than sexual recidivism, but that they also engage in sexual and non-sexual criminal behavior (Broadhurst & Maller, 1992; Hanson, Scott & Steffy, 1995; Przybylaski, 2014). Even "specialized" child molesters may be general offenders, as Hanson, Steffy and Gauthier (1993) found that "42% of a sample of treated child molesters were reconvicted for sexual crimes, violent crimes, or both," lending support to both the specialization and versatility arguments (p. 646; Simon, 1997a, p.45). Support that was also found in a study that evaluated treated and untreated sex offenders, along with a group of nonsexual offenders. This is supportive of Gottfredson and Hirschi's (1990) generality deviance hypothesis in regards to sex offending (Cleary, 2004; Harris, Mazerolle & Knight, 2009).

Each reiterating again the necessity behind establishing why some offenders specialize and others do not. Nevertheless, "most of the researchers who studied versatility in offenders agree that 'the pure sex offender is a rarity; instead, sex offenses

are single and infrequent and often are embedded in an extensive criminal history of property and violent crimes'" (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2311; Lussier, LeBlanc & Proulx, 2005; Pedneault, Harris & Knight, 2012; Simon, 2000, p. 283; Soothill, Francis, Sanderson & Ackerley, 2000). In fact, additional research on sex offending "concluded that the general conception of offending provided a sound explanation of adult sexual offending" (Harris, Mazerolle & Knight, 2009, p. 1053; Lussier, Proulx & LeBlanc, 2005). Thus, the overall "generality of crime hypothesis suggests that sexual offenders are not a special case of offender… [and they] do not restrict themselves to one particular type of crime" (Lussier, 2005, p. 275).

Moreover, instead of supporting either, some researchers have taken a stance on supporting both. Developmental theorists "occupy the middle ground between theories that emphasize offense specialization and those that implicate greater versatility in offenders and make complex assumptions in degrees of specialization of different offender subgroups" (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2299; Mazerolle et al., 2000, p. 1146). For instance, Lussier & Brassard (2015) stated that "while there is a subgroup of individuals who may present life-long deficits that may persist in sexual offending over long periods across several life stages," they are the minority (p. 18). Hence, "policies as well as prevention and intervention programs should accommodate the presence of multiple pathways and trajectories of sex offending" (Lussier & Brassard 2015, p. 18). Especially as most approaches to studying sex offenders "do not acknowledge the possibility that generality and specialization can co-occur within the same criminal career" (Loeber & Waller, 1988; Lussier, 2005, p. 284).

Developmental theorists also argue that "offenders' behaviors are not that simple because they are affected by different variables throughout their life; thus, they present 'a combination of specialized and generalized criminal behaviors'" (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2299; Richards et al., 2013, p. 646). Particularly, they focus on life-course theory and suggest that, "life-course-persistent offenders will exhibit great versatility in their offending behavior" (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2300; Mazerolle et al., 2000, p. 1146). Furthering the notion that life-course theory should be studied with sex offenders more.

Nevertheless, "the above-mentioned debates and researches highlight that determining 'whether offenders specialize in a certain crime' and 'understanding why specialization does or does not occur' is a 'central problem for criminology as well as crime prevention, selective detention, and targeted treatment' policies" (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2296; Guerette, Stenius & McGloin, 2005, p. 86; Tumminello et al., 2013, p. 2). Thus, the biggest issue is not whether domestic, sex, or any type of offender specializes or not. In fact, most empirical research finds evidence for "small specialization in huge versatility" (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2318). As a review of empirical findings regarding sex offenders has shown, their criminal behavior "is characterized by a certain tendency to specialize in sexual crime over time against the backdrop of much versatility" (Lussier, 2005, p. 288).

In conclusion, Guerette et al. (2005), argues that "specialization researchers would make more contributions to policy makers and practitioners if they focus[ed] on understanding why or why not specialization occur[s], rather than only determining whether it exists" (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2317). Especially since findings have provided support for general criminal offending, along with evidence that criminal behavior does

not need to develop in any type of progression (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Laub & Sampson, 2003; Loeber, Keenan & Zhang, 1997; MacDonald et al., 2014). However, researchers are also not completely excluding "the possibility of finding clusters of typical forms of delinquency" (Hass & Killias, 2003, p. 259). So, although contemporary research has found some evidence of offender-based specialization, most criminologists still support the versatility notion for even chronic offenders (DeLisi et al., 2011; Farrington, Snyder & Finnegan, 1988; Lattimore, Visher & Linster, 1994).

Theoretical Background

There are many theoretical implications that can be inferred regarding why offenders commit the crimes that they do, in the frequency that they do, and whether they specialize in those offenses or not, but two theoretical bases have continually found strong support: social learning, including differential association theory, and life-course theory. Before diving into each, it is important to note that when measuring crime on a large scale, and using official records, most of the time "these records do not contain much psychological data or individual information," which could be useful in determining a theoretical base for offending (Haas & Killias, 2003, p. 250). Thus, even though the purpose of the analysis here is not to delve into a theoretical analysis on specialization or versatility in offenders, nor does the data utilized allow researchers to do so, it is still noteworthy to mention some of the theoretical backgrounds that could be addressed in future analyses regarding domestic violence and sex offenders.

Social learning theory

First, as it was mentioned during the specialization review, "the notion of specialization in criminal offending refers to the extent to which an offender tends to

repeat the same specific offense or offense type on successive criminal events" (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2295). Research by Spelman (1994) found that some chronic offenders might specialize as they "progress into more serious forms of offending," and further, "acquire skills at committing certain crime types for which they have had a successful history of evading detection" (MacDonald et al., 2014, p. 46). Both of which support the theoretical idea that offenders are learning such behaviors, and then sticking to what works. Moreover, others argue that this 'learning process through interactions' with other criminals [is what] lead[s] to [a] 'specialization in specific types of crimes'" (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2295, 2307; Jennings et al., 2014, p. 185; Tumminello et al., 2013, p. 2). Correlating with the bases of social learning theory, which are sought to believe that offenders commit crimes through exposure, observation, and/or learning the acts of their deviant parents, peers or environments.

More specifically, differential association theory, a branch of social learning theory speculates, "individuals develop internalized, [socialized] definitions that are favorable or non-favorable towards violating the law" (Alarid, Burton Jr. & Cullen, 2000, p. 180; Sutherland & Cressey, 1955). Therefore, as individuals are exposed to criminal behavior, their own "likelihood of criminal involvement also increases" (Alarid et al., 2000, p. 180). As a matter of fact, numerous studies have found support for differential association theory in that "criminal behavior is influenced primarily through exposure to other individuals [who hold] definitions [that are] favorable toward[s] violating the law" (Akers, Krohn, Lanza-Kaduce & Radosevich, 1979; Alarid et al., 2000, p. 183; Cressey, 1953; Dull, 1983; Griffin, B. & Griffin, C., 1978; Jaquith, 1981; Johnson, Marcos & Bahr, 1987; Short, 1960; Tittle, Burke & Jackson, 1986). This provides further support

for social learning theory as well, as individuals learn which laws to violate from their deviant counter-parts. Further, Alarid et al., (2000) also indicated that criminal friends and other's definitions "significantly predicted both male and female involvement in crime," again confirming social learning concepts in terms of specialization, as these individuals make those definitions their own (p. 185). The same study concluded that all three of their differential association variables "were significantly and directly correlated with property, violent and drug offenses," particularly for male offenders (Alarid et al., 2000, p. 183, 185). Overall, offering significant support for differential association theory among incarcerated felons and offenders (Alarid et al., 2000; Burton, 1991; Macdonald, 1989).

Subsequently, social learning theory can be applied to the versatility side of the debate as well. Proponents of this view believe that the more deviant peers or interactions an individual has with deviant peers, the greater their likelihood of having more diverse criminal behaviors. For example, Moffitt (1993) described what she calls 'social mimicry.' Social mimicry involves the process of adolescents achieving "status and power in their social world by mimicking the behaviors of their life-course persistent counter parts" (Piquero, Jennings & Barnes, 2012, p. 172). Again, adding to the idea that offenders learn and are socialized into their criminality by others in their life. In fact, research suggests that these aggressive behaviors are learned through observing and imitating role models, and/or through operant conditioning which either punishes or rewards the individual for the deviant acts. Similarly, "many [offenders] described abusive fathers or male role models [in their life,] and expressed the belief [that] this was

the model from which they learned about relationships" (Dempsey & Day, 2011, p. 420-421).

Additionally, the idea of social mimicry is also pertinent for sex offenders as specific research conducted by several scholars found support for social learning in that "sexual deviations are learned responses to possibly accidental experiences with sexually deviant behavior" (Harris, Mazerolle & Knight, 2009, p. 1054; Laws & Marshall, 2003; McGuire, Carlisle & Young, 1965; Schwartz & Cellini, 1996; Ward, Polaschek & Beech, Ward & Fisher, 2006). Other research has found further support for the fact that offenders learn their behaviors from their environment as nearly 30-80% of offenders were abused as children ("Theories of Sex Offending," 2016). However, scholars also note that many sex offenders were never exposed to and/or abused as a child. Therefore, social learning theory could suggest that these offenders may still learn new behaviors through exposure to other forms of violence such as illegal pornography. This is also true for domestic violence offenders as some abusers commit domestic violence as "a result of male entitlement—and feel justified to abuse when they do not have the control they have been socialized to believe they deserve—" whether they learned it through their parents, other social institutions, or the media (Belknap, 2007; Schechter, 1982, p. 219). Arguing that the focus should be on the violent cultures that produce violent offenders, not the violent offenders themselves (Belknap, 2007, p. 63; Handwerker, 1998, p. 206). A thought process that highly supports the components of social learning theory, as these offenders are learning to be violent somewhere.

Life-course theory

Nevertheless, the question then becomes will this behavior continue throughout the lifetime, or are these offenders more adolescent-limited? Although this cohort only examines adult offenders, life-course theory in regards to those with criminal careers can still be addressed. Particularly since proponents of the life-course theory suggest that the propensity to engage in a variety of crimes "tends to decline naturally with age, as suggested by the age crime curve" (Lussier, 2005, p. 286). Thus, if this is true, then within these analyses, as the offender ages, they should be less likely to commit their current and future offenses.

Moreover, life-course theory is a paradigm that "represents a way of thinking about the inter-related issues of development, timing, social context, human agency, and continuity and change in human behavior" (Elder, 1994; MacDonald et al., 2014, p. 43). Notably, "prior research has resulted in [the] general agreement that offending patterns often progress overtime into more serious, [arguably specialized,] forms of criminal offenses" (LeBlanc & Frechette, 1989; Loeber, Farrington, Strouthamer-Loeber & Van Kammen, 1998; MacDonald et al., 2014, p. 43). Implying that as offender's age, frequency decreases, involving some desistance from certain crime types and increased specialization in others (Lussier, 2005; Piquero et al., 1999; Piquero, Brame, Mazerolle & Haapanen, 2002). Research by Piquero et al. (1999) also found further evidence that offense specialization may increase with age when assessing the 1958 Philadelphia Birth Cohort by suggesting that persistent offenders criminal activity may indeed become specialized overtime (MacDonald et al., 2014, p. 47).

For sex offenders, results from Stander, Farrington, Hill & Altham's research in 1989 further "suggested that [there is a] presence of two types of sexual crime specialists: one [with] low conviction numbers, but they are mainly for sex crimes, and those who have versatile criminal offenses that "tend to become more specialized in sexual crime overtime" (Lussier, 2005, p. 274). The latter coinciding with the life course perspective. However, some research suggests that using life-course theory to assess sexual crimes should be done with caution. Mainly, the one reason why life-course theory, or any theoretical basis of sex offending for that matter has not been established, is because of the "limited information about the cumulative or lifetime official prevalence of sexual offending" (Lussier & Brassard, 2015, p. 4). In fact, "Mathesius and Lussier (2014) estimated a seven-year gap, on average, between the actual and official onset of sex offending using various source[s] of information in a correctional sample of adult sex offenders" (p. 7).

For domestic offenders, life-course theory has also concluded that in regards to a criminal career, men with prior violent convictions had more offenses and longer criminal careers than non-violent offenders did (Piquero, Farrington & Blumstein, 2007; Piquero, Jennings & Barnes, 2012). Implying these offenders acquire a criminal history that is versatile throughout their lifetime. Specifically, LeBlanc and Loeber (1998), along with Moffitt (1993), found that offenders who persist, "typically engage in more frequent and often times more serious offenses over the life course" (MacDonald et al., 2014, p. 44). Incidentally, this does not necessarily infer specialization as other researchers have found that "the pathway to serious offending may reflect a general propensity for crime

that reflects a diverse array of offending behaviors" (MacDonald et al., 2014; Moffitt, 1993; Sampson & Laub, 1993).

Ultimately, Moffitt, Caspi, Harrington and Milne (2002) found that by the age of 26, "10% of their cohort, defined as long-term persistent offenders, [were] responsible for 62% of convictions of sexual and physical violence against women" (Lussier, 2005, p. 282). Thus, as the frequency of offending increases, so does the risk of committing a sex offense within a lifetime. However, as it was mentioned before, the lack of criminologists ability to examine sex offenders distinctively, has made it difficult to determine whether the age variable, which is so important to life-course theory, is positively or negatively related to sex offenders' specialization or versatility (Belknap, 2007). Additionally, this reluctance is also attributed to criminology's "inability to reconcile such crimes, [domestic violence or sexual abuse,] within its sociological framework of offending" (Harris, Mazerolle & Knight, 2009, p. 1052; Simon, 2000). As Soothill and others (2000) observed, this is due in part to a lack of discussion between sociological criminology and psychology. Even so, many researchers still believe that "a thorough theoretical explanation of sex offending [would] incorporate both perspectives," and after reviewing said explanations, along with domestic violence offending as well, researchers here agree (Cleary, 2004; Harris, Mazerolle & Knight, 2009, p. 1052; Lussier, 2005; Parkinson, Shrimpton, Oates, Swanston & O'Toole, 2004; Simon, 2000).

Nevertheless, while each of these theories provide implications for why an offender may commit the crimes they do, they are not without their critiques. First and foremost, most theories lack explanations regarding female offending. However, this lack is not without effort. Instead, it is because the current prison population is typically

assessed, just as it is here, and in Iowa especially, women only make up nine percent (9%) of the prison population overall (Belknap, 2007; "Iowa Department of Corrections," 2016). Therefore, with such small sample sizes, it makes it hard to assess a theoretical background for them, even though researchers should (Alarid et al., 2000; Leonard, 1982; Messerschmidt, 1993; Naffine & Gale, 1989, Smart, 1976). Regardless, "the most significant contributions to understanding why people offend in recent years [have been] the 'pathways' and similarly designed studies that incorporate a more inclusive 'whole-life' experience" (Belknap, 2007, p. 468).

Although this analysis cannot directly assess any of the theoretical assumptions mentioned above, it could denote whether the findings below align with a certain perspective. Thus, by first analyzing the prior criminal histories, the hope is to be able to start to infer why specialization occurs for some and not for others. Secondly, the analysis hopes to find patterns in their offending, which will not only aid in the drawing of connections, but it will also further assist in treatment and policy implications moving forward.

Prior Research

Prior research by Fineran and Barry (2017) examined the profiles of 375 newly admitted offenders in Iowa whose most serious offense included a sex or domestic violence conviction during SFY2015. Through manually coding multiple variables specific to the offender, the victims, and the current offense, researchers were hoping to distinguish some similarities between the two types of offenders. Instead, they found that they are largely dissimilar.

An analysis of prior convictions for a smaller randomized sample of the total cohort (N=107) found that there were low proportions of domestic and sex intersection. There were three domestic violence prison admissions convicted on a prior sex crime, and three sex offender prison admissions convicted of previous domestic violence crime (Fineran & Barry, 2017, p. 18). Therefore, it is due to the low proportion of intersection that additional analyses were performed to further examine the differences between the two groups of offenders.

However, a few limitations may have attributed to this low proportionality. First, prior convictions were examined using the FBI's Computerized Criminal History database. When pulling criminal history information from this national database, a researcher must have a clear path of the convictions they are looking for in mind. For example, Fineran and Barry specifically pulled for prior convictions for violent and non-violent felony and misdemeanors, along with prior sex and domestic violent felonies and misdemeanors (2017, p. 17). While this provides them with some information regarding the offender's criminal behaviors, it is limited. Second, the researchers only examined the criminal histories of a smaller randomized sample of the cohort, which again could contribute to the low proportions, as the rest of the cohort may have more intersecting offenders. Lastly, it only examined the offender's prior convictions, which may not paint the entire picture, as most offenders are not convicted of the offenses they are charged for, or even convicted at all.

Thus, the current analysis will return to the low proportion of intersection and utilize the prior charge and conviction histories of all domestic violence and sexual abuse prison admissions during FY2015. Additionally, the criminal histories will be pulled

from the Justice Data Warehouse, which allows for the ability to pull any charge or conviction during a selected period. For this specific analysis, researchers will be looking at simple misdemeanors or higher over a ten-year span. Overall, examining the entire cohort to see if there are more distinguishable or intersecting factors between the two types of offenses.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

To find continual support for our work, and in an attempt to fill the literature gaps between what types of offenders specialize, the following study aims to examine the prior criminal histories, including ten years' worth of charges and convictions for domestic violence and sex offenders in Iowa. The study examines a nonprobability sample of Iowa offenders convicted with criminal domestic violence and sex crimes during FY2015, along with a matched comparison group. Then, the following methodology will involve computing logistical regressions and Receiver Operating Characteristic curve (ROC curve) analyses to assess whether specific prior crimes further predict the current offense in both groups of offenders.

Definitions

Definitions of common terms used throughout this study are described below for further clarification (Legal Dictionary, 2003-2016; Google-Automated Definition, n.d.):

Charged: a person accused of committing a crime.

Crime: an action or omission that constitutes an offense that may be prosecuted by the state and is punishable by law.

Criminal Justice System: the system of law enforcement that is directly involved in apprehending, prosecuting, defending, sentencing and punishing those who are suspected or convicted of criminal offenses.

Comparison Group: includes any offender who was not newly admitted to prison during FY2015 on a most serious domestic violence or sex abuse offense.

Combined Group: includes the entire cohort of offenders used in this study.

Convicted: declaring someone to be guilty of a criminal offense by the verdict of a jury or the decision of a judge in a court of law.

Disposed Charge or Conviction: the case is over via a plea deal, trial or dismissal.

Disposition: the sentencing or other final settlement of a criminal case.

Domestic Violence/Abuse: defined by Iowa Code 236.2 [see *Chapter 1, p. 5-6*]; involves any abusive, violent, coercive, and forceful or threatening act or word inflicted by one member of a family or household on another.

Fiscal Year: any yearly period without regard to the calendar year, at the end of which a firm, government, etc., determines its financial condition. A fiscal year in this context runs July 1st to June 30th. (i.e. FY2015= July 1, 2014- June 30, 2015).

Habitual Offender: a person convicted of a new crime and was previously convicted of a similar or different crime(s).

Intimate Relationship: a significant romantic involvement that need not include sexual involvement. Does not include casual social relationships or associations in a business or professional capacity.

Most Serious: [see *Appendix B*]

Non-violent Crime: those offenses which do not involve a threat of harm or an actual attack upon a victim [property, drug and public order offenses].

Offender: an accused defendant in a criminal case or one convicted of a crime— or—a person who commits an illegal act.

Offense Class: categorization of felonies and misdemeanors into a ranked system, with the most serious charges and convictions being Class A Felonies [see *Appendix B*].

Offense Sub-Type: categorization of offenses into more detailed groups [see *Appendix B]*.

Offense Type: categorization of offenses at a broad level including violent, property, drug, public order and other.

Prison Admit: the number of people who enter prison annually [differentiated by new court commitments and returns].

> *New Court Commitments:* Offenders who entered prison for a new offense during a specific time period (i.e. during FY2015).

Recidivism: behavior of a repeat/habitual criminal, relapsing back into crime, often after receiving sanctions or undergoing intervention for a previous crime.

Sex*Burglary: an interaction effect indicating that an offender had a prior sex and prior burglary charge or conviction within their criminal history.

Sexual Abuse/Violence: defined by Iowa Code 709.1 [see *Chapter 1, p. 9]*, involves any illegal sex acts performed against a minor by a parent, guardian, relative, or acquaintance.

Study Group: includes any offender who was newly admitted to prison during FY2015 on a most serious domestic violence or sex abuse offense.

Violent Crime: those offenses that involve force or threat of force [murder; non-negligent manslaughter; forcible rape; robbery; aggravated assault].

Research Hypotheses

As mentioned previously, the study aims to answer several research questions regarding the variation in the criminal histories of domestic and sex offenders, and if certain prior charges and convictions, specifically for domestic or sex abuse crimes, predict future offenses. This research will use logistical regression and Receiver Operating Characteristic curve (ROC curve) analyses to distinguish if prior crimes are predictive of their current prison admission, and future offenses. Specifically, the following hypotheses will be addressed based off the literature examined previously:

Domestic violence

H1: *Domestic violence offenders previously charged or convicted of domestic violence crimes will be more likely to be currently admitted to prison on a domestic violence offense.*

H2: *Domestic violence offenders will have more prior offenses as significant predictors of their current domestic violence offense due to the versatility in their offending.*

Sexual abuse

H3: *Sexual abuse offenders previously charged or convicted of sexual abuse crimes will be more likely to be currently admitted to prison on a sexual abuse offense.*

H4: *Sexual abuse offenders will have fewer prior offenses as significant predictors of their current sexual abuse offense due to the specialization in their offending.*

Intersection between domestic violence and sexual abuse

> H5: *Domestic violence offenders will have higher proportions of prior violent charges and convictions.*
>
> H6: *Sexual abuse offenders will have higher proportions of prior non-violent charges and convictions.*
>
> H7: *Having prior sexual abuse charges or convictions will increase the odds that the current offense is for domestic violence.*
>
> H8: *Having prior assault charges or convictions will decrease the odds that the current offense is for sexual abuse.*

To reiterate, each hypotheses, particularly for domestic violence and sex abuse, were designed to test support for either specialization or versatility by examining the two separate questions. Additionally, the hypotheses proposed regarding the intersection between domestic violence and sexual abuse, and their intersections with violent and non-violent offenses more broadly, were created to test variations in the literature. For instance, Hypothesis Five will be used to test Eker & Mus's concept of violent specialization (2016, p. 2307). Hypothesis Six will then test the notion that sex offenders also have prior non-violent charges and convictions (Simon, 1997a, p. 43). Lastly, Hypothesis Seven and Eight examine the intersection between the two offenses. Specifically, Hypothesis Seven supports versatility in that convicted domestic offenders may have prior charges and/or convictions for sexual abuse as well, while Hypothesis Eight tests a more specialized notion in that as assault charges or convictions increase, the odds of a being a "specialized" sex offender being decreases.

Data Sources

The data for this study was collected from the Justice Data Warehouse (JDW), a secondary administrative data source. The Justice Data Warehouse is the "central repository of key criminal and juvenile justice information from the Iowa Court Information System (ICIS) and the Iowa Correctional Offender Network System (ICON)" ("Justice Data Warehouse," n.d.). The JDW currently stores adult criminal data, including court, corrections and criminal history records. Specific to this analysis, the cohort's prior charges and convictions during FY2005-FY2015 (7/1/05-6/30/15) were extracted, along with the demographics of the sample, which includes their sex, race and age. While the JDW does not provide a 'complete' criminal history (as it does not include any national charges or convictions an offender may have, or arrest data) pulling ten years' worth of an offender's criminal activity does yield enough information to explore the proposed research hypotheses.

A prior charge or conviction in this analysis will be any charge or conviction that was disposed prior to the sex or domestic violence conviction that resulted in prison entry. Prior charges and convictions will be pulled for simple misdemeanors and higher to exclude priors for traffic offenses.

Once the data is pulled, these official, offender criminal history records will be used to access the criminal histories of these offenders, as well as the intersection between domestic violence and sex charges and convictions. Specifically, they will be used to access the prevalence of similar, or dissimilar, crimes in the criminal histories associated with the domestic violence and sexual abuse cohort, as well as the comparison cohort. This analysis utilizes official records rather than self-reported data for three

reasons. First, research has noted that official data is more useful in capturing "sequences of offenses," and second, it will be more useful for policy and criminal justice interventions if the findings are reporting on official charges and convictions (Eker & Mus, 2016, p. 2305). Third, utilizing criminal history records versus interviews, survey data collection or others is preferred due to the sensitivity of the nature of the data, and the need for complete and unbiased information to be obtained. Although official criminal records do not paint the entire picture of an offender's criminal behavior, they can still be indicative of those who are being caught. Regarding the purpose of this analysis, they are more useful when pertaining to legislation, registrations, predictions, and the overall treatment of convicted offenders. Thus, the JDW provides the necessary data required to analyze disposed charges and convictions for further evaluation of whether the prior criminal histories of these offenders are specialized or versatile.

Data Collection

The cohort of offenders was established by first pulling all new prison admissions for FY2015 from the JDW. Once those offenders were distinguished, researchers filtered out any offender entering prison on a new, most serious domestic violence or sexual abuse offense. These offenders comprised the study group of 383 offenders. Next, the rest of the new prison admissions for FY2015 were included in the comparison group and matched to the study group on age, race and sex. *Appendix C* provides additional detail on how the matched comparison group was created. This step was important as the researchers did not want the age, race or sex variables affecting the differences found between the two groups within the analyses.

To ensure representativeness of the two cohorts, z-tests were utilized to examine sample differences. The outcomes of this analysis are in Table 1: Cohort Representativeness. Specifically, once the cohort of 426 offenders was established, the percentage each group comprised of the total had to equal a similar percentage that was comprised of that group within the study group, and then result in a z-score that was not statistically significant at a confidence level of 95%. All categories were not significant at a 95% confidence level, indicating that the two groups' demographics did not differ from each other significantly.

Table 1. Cohort Representativeness

	Study Group		Comparison Group		
	N	%	N	%	Significance[1]
Sex					
Female	16	4.18%	28	6.57%	No
Male	367	95.82%	398	93.43%	No
Race					
Caucasian	294	76.76%	320	75.12%	No
African-American	84	21.93%	100	23.47%	No
Other	5	1.31%	6	1.41%	No
Age Range					
18-29	165	43.08%	184	43.19%	No
30-39	106	27.68%	126	29.58%	No
40-49	67	17.49%	69	16.20%	No
50+	45	11.75%	47	11.03%	No
Total	**383**	--	**426**	--	--

[1]Statistical significance was calculated at a 95% confidence interval for this analysis

Once the cohort was established, prior charges and convictions were pulled for the entire cohort of offenders (N=809). The query for the cohort's prior charges and convictions was ran to include disposed charges and convictions for simple misdemeanors and higher, with no traffic offenses. For these disposed charges and convictions, the case ID, crime code, description, type, sub-type, offense class,

disposition type and disposition date were pulled. The offense date was also pulled for the prior charges only. While mainly the crime type, sub-type and class variables were used when analyzing their prior criminal histories, the rest aided in the coding of prior crimes.

The disposition date was used to calculate the number of days between a prior charge or conviction disposition date and the offenders' date of prison entry. Thus, if the disposition date was prior to the date of prison entry, and met one of the following guidelines, then it was either considered a prior crime, or removed for this analysis:

Kept convictions:
1. The case ID, or offense description, was different than the current offense and
   a. The disposition date was before prison entry.
2. The case ID, or offense description, were the same as the current offense but
   a. Upon researching on Iowa Courts Online, it was determined that they were different convictions or counts.

Removed convictions:
1. Both the current offense and the prior offense matched perfectly on all variables.
2. If the current offense and the prior offense matched, but the number of prior days exceeded 50+.
   a. Upon researching on Iowa Courts Online, it was determined that they were part of the same conviction or counts.
3. If the current offense and the prior offenses matched perfectly and there were multiple counts for said offense, all counts were removed.
4. If the number of prior days equaled zero, indicating that the prior disposition date and the current prison entry date matched, then they were removed upon assumption that they were all a part of the current offense.

Kept charges:
1. The case ID, or offense description, was different than the current offense and
   a. The disposition date was before prison entry.
   b. If the number of prior days equaled zero, indicating that the prior disposition date and the current prison entry date matched, but
      i. The offense date was prior to prison entry and the offense description was different.
2. The case ID, or offense description, were the same as the current offense but
   a. The charges had a different offense dates, in which case the oldest were kept.

Removed Charges:
1. Both the current offense and the prior offense matched perfectly on all variables.
2. If the prior charge was an enhancement or plea of the current offense
   a. I.e. Current offense was for Domestic 3rd (FELD), the prior charge was for Domestic 2nd (AGMS), and the number of prior days was close (under 20) or it was determined by looking up the case ID on Iowa Courts Online.
3. If the current offense and the prior charges matched, and the prior charges had multiple counts and the same offense date, then all counts were removed with the assumption that they were all a part of the current offense.

After the data set was cleaned of any offenses that were, or pertained to, the offenders' current prison admission, it was then numerically coded in Excel for an easy conversion into the statistical programming that would be used for analysis.

Data Coding

Due to the size of the file, and for efficient coding purposes, the data set was split into two Excel files: one for the study group, and another for the comparison group. Both Excel files were coded identically so that they could be converted into STATA and later combined. Additionally, it must be noted that when the prior charges and convictions were added to the cohort, each prior offense was not totaled for each offender individually. For example, if an offender had 23 prior charges, then that offender's information would be inputted in 23 rows, only differing for the prior offense columns. Therefore, while this does affect the analysis models in terms of creating (N) offenders, it does not affect the overall goal of the analysis here, as researchers chose to examine the prior charges and convictions as events themselves, rather than as an offender's specific offense.

Although keeping the data set like this has its limitations, the researchers left the data this way so that they could analyze the varying counts and events within the cohort's

criminal histories, while accounting for time. Through doing so, researchers can provide a different perspective on the effects of prior charges and convictions. Specifically, by looking at the data through an event-based, rather than offender-based, lens, this analysis can provide information on the events that show up in these types of offender's criminal histories, and provide predictive insight onto how the current offense may have been prevented.

For instance, recently in the news there has been several stories regarding domestic violence and sex offenders and the need there is as a society to better predict who these offenders are. For example, just since the first of the year, there have been offenders who have beat their girlfriends with a bat, while instructing their girlfriend's daughter to do the same ("Police: Man beats girlfriend," 2017); former pastors and foster parents who have been charged with child molestation and repeatedly sexually abusing a 13 year old girl (Rood, 2017); the estranged husbands who cut their wife's throat only to then commit suicide themselves (Maricle, 2017); or dads who fatally beat their eight month old child to death (Hickman, 2017). Each story happened close to home, and reiterated the need that the system must stop these types of offenses from occurring.

To do so, the public and practitioners generally become concerned with defining who these offenders are individually. However, by examining the prior charges and convictions that occur within their criminal histories, rather than the variables specific to the offender themselves, researchers can gain more information on how to better predict future charges and convictions. This makes this analysis particularly important to stakeholders and the community in terms of increasing public safety. Thus, this unconventional analysis of an offender's criminal history strives to determine what types

of charges and/or convictions, led up to the current offense, and if the system may have been able to prevent the current conviction had they utilized varying predictive and treatment options.

Nevertheless, as coding began, any variables that would not be useful to the overall analyses were removed. This included: the date of prison entry for the current offense, the current offense code, the current offense description, the jurisdiction in which the current offense occurred, the county code for which the prior offense occurred, the case ID for the prior charges and convictions, the offense date for the prior charges, the prior offense code, the prior offense description, and the prior disposition date. Although the disposition type was coded for, the variable ended up not being utilized in the regression models, therefore, it was removed as well. Regardless of the additional information these categories may have provided, they were not deemed beneficial for the scope of this analysis. Thus, leaving the following variable categories for analysis: demographic measures, offender's current offense, and offenders' prior offenses.

Sample

The cohort used in this study consists of a nonprobability sample of individuals pulled from the JDW. Offenders included in this sample were Iowa prisoners who entered prison as a new court commitment in FY2015 (7/1/2014-6/30/2015). Since this study is looking at the prior criminal histories of these offenders, a current group of offenders was pulled so that analyses would be able to examine the prior charges and convictions from FY2005-FY2015, while still having enough time to establish a trend in offending. Specifically, the sample included any Iowa prisoner who entered prison on a most serious domestic or sexual abuse offense, as well as a comparison group that was

matched via age, race and sex. The matched comparison group acted as a control group for analyses to be ran against. More importantly, a comparison group of general offenders was necessary so that the analyses did not control for the dependent variable, allowing for the results to compare specialization across all types of offenders. Lastly, the final requirement for sample selection required that the Iowa prisoner who entered prison during FY2015 was 18 years of age or older. Anyone under the age of 18 was excluded as this study is focused only on the criminal behaviors and patterns of adult offenders.

The cohort for this study included FY2015 new prison admissions. The study sample, referred to as "Study Group," throughout the analyses included offenders whose most serious conviction was a sex or domestic violence crime (N=383). Of the 383 offenders, 193 of which were convicted of a domestic assault and 190 convicted of a sexual offense. Of the 193 domestic assaults, 11 were female. Of the 190 sex offenses, five were females. The matched comparison sample ("Comparison Group") included a more generalized sample of offenders not admitted on domestic violence or sex abuse crimes in FY2015 (N=426). Of the 426 offenders, 28 were female. The final cohort included 383 domestic violence and sexual abuse prison admissions, and a randomized sample of 426 other prison admissions (N=809). Within the analyses, any reference to the "Combined Group" infers the entire cohort of 809 offenders.

Basic descriptive characteristics for the Study Group are in Table 2: Study Group Demographics. Additionally, descriptive characteristics for the matched comparison group are in Table 3: Comparison Group Demographics.

Table 2. Study Group Demographics

	Domestic Violence		Sex Offense		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex						
Male	182	94.30%	185	97.37%	367	95.82%
Female	11	5.70%	5	2.63%	16	4.18%
Race						
Caucasian	135	69.95%	159	83.68%	294	76.76%
African-American	55	28.50%	29	15.26%	84	21.93%
Other	3	1.55%	2	1.05%	5	1.31%
Age Range						
18-29	77	39.90%	88	46.32%	165	43.08%
30-39	67	34.72%	39	20.53%	106	27.68%
40-49	38	19.69%	29	15.26%	67	17.49%
50+	11	5.70%	34	17.89%	45	11.75%
Total	**193**	--	**190**	--	**383**	--

Examination of the 383 offenders newly admitted to prison during FY2015 on a most serious domestic abuse or sex offense conviction revealed that a majority of the offenders were male (95.82%), Caucasian (76.76%), and between the ages of 18 and 39 (70.76%), with the average offender age being 34 years old. Females accounted for 4.18% of the offenders examined in this group. Of the 16 female offenders who entered prison, on either a domestic violence or sex offense, 68.75% were Caucasian. Of the 182 male offenders who entered prison on a domestic violence offense, 70.88% were Caucasian, while 28.02% were African-American. Of the 185 male offenders who entered prison on a sex offense, 83.24% were Caucasian, while 15.67% were African-American.

However, racial diversity was limited within the cohort as nearly 77% of the study group offenders were Caucasian. Although this may be more representative of the Iowa prison population, it is in "stark contrast to the typical population incarcerated in the U.S.,

where African-Americans are extremely overrepresented" (Harris, Mazerolle & Knight, 2009, p. 1056; Jenkins, 1998).

Table 3. Comparison Group Demographics

Comparison Group		
	N	**%**
Sex		
Male	398	93.43%
Female	28	6.57%
Race		
Caucasian	320	75.12%
African-American	100	23.47%
Other	6	1.41%
Age Range		
18-29	184	43.19%
30-39	126	29.58%
40-49	69	16.20%
50+	47	11.03%
Total	**426**	**--**

Nevertheless, further examination of the 426 offenders newly admitted to prison in FY2015 and in the comparison group also revealed that a majority of the offenders in this group were male (93.43%), Caucasian (75.12%) and between the ages of 18 and 29 (43.19%), with an average offender age of 33 years old. Females accounted for 6.57% of the comparison group, which is slightly more than the study group. Of the 28 female offenders examined in this group, 85.71% were Caucasian. Of the 398 male offenders, 74.37% were Caucasian, while 24.12% were African-American.

Variables

Since the JDW provides a host of information about each offender, researcher's derived complete criminal histories variables, as well as demographic variables including age, race and sex.

Dependent variable

Offender's Current Offense

Offender's current offense variables include the current offense crime class, crime type, and crime sub-type. Crime class was coded from 1-10: Other (OTHR)=1, Other Misdemeanor (OMOM)=2, Simple Misdemeanor (SMMS)=3, Serious Misdemeanor (SRMS)=4, Aggravated Misdemeanor (AGMS)=5, D Felony (FELD)=6, C Felony (FELC)=7, Other Felony Enhancement (OFOF)=8, B Felony (FELB)=9 and A Felony (FELA)=10. A class level of 10, or FELA, was the most serious. The mean class level for the current convicting offenses was 5.83 for the study group and 6.17 for the comparison group.

For current offense types and subtypes, dichotomous (1/0) values were placed in cells, within Excel, indicating whether the offense for which an offender was entering prison on was for an offense in that category or not (MacDonald et al., 2014). Specifically, offense types for the current convictions were all dichotomously measured where 1=yes and 0=no within one of the five crime type categories: other, public order, drug, property and violent. For the study group, there were only 1's placed in the violent crime type as their current offense had to be for a most serious domestic or sex abuse conviction to be included in the study group. Conversely, the comparison group could have a one in any of the five crime type categories. Offense subtypes for the current convictions were also dichotomously measured where 1=yes and 0=no. Offense Subtypes for the current convictions included the following offenses within each *crime type*:

1. *Violent*
   a. Murder/Manslaughter (Murder/Mansl.)
   b. Kidnap
   c. Robbery

    d. Assault (Study Group Only unless not Domestic Assault)
    e. Sex (Study Group Only)
    f. Other Violent
  2. *Property*
    a. Burglary
    b. Arson
    c. Forgery/Fraud
    d. Theft
    e. Vandalism
    f. Other Property
  3. *Drug*
    a. Trafficking
    b. Other Drug
  4. *Public Order*
    a. Weapons
    b. Alcohol
    c. Traffic
    d. OWI
  5. *Other*
    a. Animals
    b. Other Criminal

For the independent variable's prior offense category, some subtypes will be added or removed. For example, just like the study group would only have 1's in the violent crime type category, they will only have 1's for sex and domestic assaults as well, as these were their criterion for being in the study group. Additionally, although the domestic and sex abuse prison admissions were separated from the FY2015 cohort, the matched comparison group may still have criminal histories that include prior domestic violence or sex abuse charges or convictions that were committed prior to their current offense that sampled them as a nonsexual or domestic violence offender. Therefore, while the comparison group cannot have a current offense that is a sex offense, they could have a current offense for an assault that is not a domestic conviction as defined by Iowa Code 236.2.

An overview of the composition of the study and comparison group's current offenses is in the tables below: Table 4: Study Group Current Offense Data; Table 5: Comparison Group Current Offense Data.

Table 4. Study Group Current Offense Data

	Domestic Violence		Sex Offense		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Class						
A Felony	0	--	3	1.58%	3	0.78%
Aggravated Misdemeanor	122	63.21%	24	12.63%	146	38.12%
B Felony	0	--	27	14.21%	27	7.05%
C Felony	0	--	110	57.89%	110	28.72%
D Felony	68	35.23%	24	12.63%	92	24.02%
Serious Misdemeanor	3	1.55%	2	1.05%	5	1.31%
Type						
Violent	193	100.00%	190	100.00%	383	--
Subtype						
Assault*	193	100.00%	0	--	193	50.39%
Sex	0	--	190	100.00%	190	49.61%
Total	**193**	**--**	**190**	**--**	**383**	**--**

*Includes only criminal domestic offenses of assault as defined by Iowa Code 236.2

Examination of the current offense the study group entered prison on during FY2015 displays that the majority of the violent offenses domestic violence offenders entered prison on were aggravated misdemeanors (63.21%). Most the violent offenses sex offenders entered prison on were Class C Felonies (57.89%). Both classes drove the composition totals with aggravated misdemeanors making up the largest percentage at 38.12%, and Class C Felonies comprising the next 28.72% of the overall prison admissions for the study group. The mean class level for the study group's current offense was 5.83, which equates to a level six, or a D Felony, which would be the class level ranked between aggravated misdemeanors and class C felonies.

Table 5. Comparison Group Current Offense Data

Comparison Group	N	%
Offense Class		
A Felony	4	0.94%
Aggravated Misdemeanor	81	19.01%
B Felony	31	7.28%
C Felony	88	20.66%
D Felony	214	50.23%
Felony - Enhancement to Original Penalty	6	1.41%
Serious Misdemeanor	2	0.47%
Offense Type		
Drug	101	23.71%
Other	6	1.41%
Property	137	32.16%
Public Order	76	17.84%
Violent	106	24.88%
Offense Subtype		
Alcohol	6	1.41%
Animals	1	0.23%
Arson	5	1.17%
Assault*	53	12.44%
Burglary	52	12.21%
Drug Possession	22	5.16%
Flight/Escape	1	0.23%
Forgery/Fraud	26	6.10%
Kidnap	3	0.70%
Murder/Mansl.	20	4.69%
Other Criminal	5	1.17%
Other Drug	1	0.23%
Other Public Order	12	2.82%
Other Violent	23	5.40%
OWI	33	7.75%
Robbery	7	1.64%
Theft	48	11.27%
Traffic	10	2.35%
Trafficking	78	18.31%
Vandalism	6	1.41%
Weapons	14	3.29%
Total	**426**	--

*Does not include criminal domestic violence convictions as defined by Iowa Code 236.2

Further examination of the current offense the comparison group entered prison on during FY2015 displays that a majority of the offenses included property (32.16%) offenses, with violent and drug offenses accounting for an average of 24% of all offenses as well. Additionally, nearly half of these offenders were entering prison on a Class D Felony conviction (50.23%). Lastly, 18.31% of these offenses were for drug trafficking convictions, with assault (12.44%), burglary (12.21%) and theft (11.27%) making up the rest of the convicting offenses that resulted in the comparison group's entry into prison.

Independent variables

Demographic Measures

Demographic variables were explored in conjunction with the offender's criminal histories to see if there were any additional predictors of specialization. Demographic variables included the age, race and sex of each offender. Age is referred to as the offender's age at the time of prison entry. Age was calculated by subtracting the offender's date of birth from their date of prison entry, and was a continuous variable. Next, race and sex were dichotomously coded for White versus Non-White (African-American and American Indian or Alaska Native), where White=1, Non-White=0, and Male versus Female, where Male=1, Female=0.

Offender's Prior Offense

Offender's prior offense variables include the prior offense crime class, crime type, crime sub-type, and a total prior count. Crime class was coded from 1-10: Other (OTHR)=1, Other Misdemeanor (OMOM)=2, Simple Misdemeanor (SMMS)=3, Serious Misdemeanor (SRMS)=4, Aggravated Misdemeanor (AGMS)=5, D Felony (FELD)=6, C Felony (FELC)=7, Other Felony Enhancement (OFOF)=8, B Felony (FELB)=9 and A

Felony (FELA)=10, with a class level of 10 being the most serious. The mean class level for prior charges was 4.03 for the study group, 4.94 for the comparison group, and 4.00 for the combined group. The mean class level for prior convictions was 4.70 for the study group, 3.98 for the comparison group, and 6.04 for the combined group.

For prior offense types and subtypes, dichotomous (1/0) values were placed in cells, within Excel, indicating whether an offender had a prior charge or conviction for that specific behavior between FY2005 and FY2015 (MacDonald et al., 2014). Specifically, prior offense types for charges were all dichotomously measured where 1=yes and 0=no within one of the five crime type categories: other, public order, drug, property and violent. Prior offense types for convictions were also dichotomously measured where 1=yes and 0=no within one of the five crime type categories: other, public order, drug, property and violent.

Prior offense subtypes for charges were also dichotomously measured where 1=yes and 0=no. Offense Subtypes for prior charges included the following offenses:

1. Violent
   a. Murder/Manslaughter (Murder/Mansl.)
   b. Kidnap
   c. Robbery
   d. Assault
   e. Sex
   f. Other Violent
2. Property
   a. Burglary
   b. Arson
   c. Forgery/Fraud
   d. Theft
   e. Stolen Property
   f. Vandalism
   g. Other Property
3. Drug
   a. Trafficking
   b. Possession

       c. Other Drug
4. Public Order
       a. Weapons
       b. Flight/Escape
       c. Prostitution/Pimp (Prost/Pimp)
       d. OWI
5. Other
       a. Other
       b. Other Court
       c. Other Criminal
       d. Other Government (Other Gov't)

Offense subtypes for prior convictions included similar subtypes as the prior charges for both the study and the comparison group. However, the "Other" category was removed as a prior crime type conviction for the study group, as this analysis was interested in more serious crime types. In addition, although "Other" was coded for in the comparison group's prior convictions, it was not analyzed within the models. Moreover, the list does differ from the current offense subtypes. For instance, current offense subtypes such as "Animals," "Alcohol," and "Traffic" were removed from the prior offense list as they only pertained to a comparison group offender's current offense and were not assessed in regards to prior charges and convictions. Additionally, a few other subtypes like "Drug Possession," "Prost/Pimp," and "Stolen Property" were added as more variables that could potentially be predictors of a current offense.

Finally, the total prior count variable was a continuous count indicating the total number of prior charges or convictions the cohort had. As it was mentioned previously, there are multiple rows for an offender, in which case the same total was entered in each row for this variable (i.e. Offender A had 23 prior charges, in the total prior count column, 23 was listed in each row that pertained to Offender A). The prior charges an offender in the study group had ranged from 0-57, with a mean of 24.08. However,

remember, this mean may be slightly skewed as there was one outlier, an offender with 128 prior charges. Thus, since the mean was calculated for all offender's priors' charges and convictions on an event-based level, one offender with 128 in 128 rows may affect the overall mean, but because the mean is 24.08 within a range of 0-57, it could be assumed that the mean would be similar if those outlier's charges were removed. The prior charges the comparison group had ranged from 0-75, with a mean of 21.53. Lastly, the average number of prior charges for the combined was 22.56 total charges.

Within the convictions data files, the number of prior convictions the study group had ranged from 0-20, with a mean of 6.85. The number of prior convictions the comparison group had ranged from 0-18 with a mean of 7.25. Presenting that even though the groups comprise two very different types of current offenses, there seems to be comparable means for the number of prior charges and convictions. However, this will be further examined when the effect these prior charges or convictions have on predicting their current offense is assessed.

Lastly, the study group had 21 offenders who had no prior charges (total prior count=0), while only five offenders did not have any prior charges within the comparison group. These low numbers indicate that most convicted offenders tend to have had accumulated another prior charge within the criminal careers. On the conviction side, the numbers are quite a bit larger with the study group having 56 offenders with no prior convictions. One explanation for this rather large number could be that most sex offenders are not caught and/or there is the limitation of underreporting for sex offenders. Thus, when they are caught, this may be the first or only offense in their criminal history. Nevertheless, within the comparison group, there were only 25 offenders who had zero

prior convictions. Suggesting again that more generalized offenders have lengthier criminal histories.

Quantitative Data Analysis

As it was mentioned earlier, a prior analysis of a comparable data set found low proportions of intersection between a smaller randomized sample of FY2015 domestic violence and sex abuse offenders (Fineran & Barry, 2017, p. 18). Therefore, this analysis will also examine the intersection of criminal histories for the study group by examining the extent to which prior domestic abuse charges or convictions predict future sex offenses, and vice versa utilizing logistical regression and Receiver Operating Characteristic curve (ROC curve) analyses within STATA (Version 12.1). Additionally, the same logistical regression models and Receiver Operating Characteristic curve (ROC curve) analyses will also be used to distinguish other prior crimes that are predictive of their current prison admission, and future offenses.

First, logistical regression was utilized to measure an association between two variables. Specifically, it measured which variables within the prior offense measures were responsible for predicting change in the current offense variables. Individually, each logistical model will look at prior charges and convictions for offenders who have a current sex offense, offenders who have a current domestic violence offense, and then offenders who have a current kidnapping offense and a current assault offense, as these are the most comparable offenses within the comparison group. Through analyzing all four groups, inferences can be drawn on if certain prior charges and convictions are more or less to be associated with the current offense in each group or not.

Second, ROC curve analyses were conducted for the same four groups, except for the combined charges or convictions analyses of those offenders who had a current assault conviction, as they did not provide any additional findings. Moreover, ROC curve analyses provide a measure of the area under the curve (AUC). AUC then provides the probability that the offender's prior offense can predict the offender's current offense. The AUC statistic for this analysis will be categorized as follows, with anything close to one (1) being a stronger predictor of the current offense, and anything less than .50 being equivalent to random chance. The greater the AUC statistic, the better its classification accuracy of the current offense.

| .50-.60= | Weak | .81-.90= | Strong |
| .61-.80= | Moderate | .91+= | Best |

Last, a third analysis will be run utilizing the study group data file in Excel to examine the number of current sex offenders, who also had a prior charge for burglary, to evaluate whether they had any other prior violent charges in their criminal histories as well. Within the study group, offenders whose current offense was for sexual abuse will be filtered out. Next, offenders who also had a prior burglary within this sample were sorted out. Then, using that cohort of current sex offenders with prior burglary charges, the researcher's will manually examine the number offenders who also had prior violent charges in their criminal history as well.

This analysis was evaluated considering prior research which indicates that of those offenders who had committed burglary, six percent (6%) were "sexual predator burglars, [and they were] the most violent, had the longest criminal careers, and had a history of sexual deviance" (Pedneault, Harris & Knight, 2012, p. 279; Vaughn et al., 2008, p. 1390). Thus, although this analysis will not speak to all those findings, it can

address similar results which indicated that "versatile contact burglaries (those that involve sexual offenses plus violence and theft) [had criminal histories] preceded by a high number of violent and sexual charges" (Pedneault, Harris & Knight, 2012, p. 281).

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

From these analyses, researchers expected the findings to be consistent with previous findings mentioned in the literature review. For instance, for sex offenders, it was hypothesized that prior sex charges/convictions would be the greatest predictors of their current sex offense. It was also predicted that they would have fewer prior charges/convictions as significant predictors of their current sex offense, as implied by their specialized criminal histories. Lastly, it was hypothesized that current sex offenders would have higher proportions of prior non-violent charges/convictions as predictors of their current sex offense, and that if prior assault charges/convictions were predictors of their current sex offense, it would be a negative association.

For domestic offenders, it was hypothesized that prior domestic violence charges/convictions would be the greatest predictors of their current domestic offense. Next, it was predicted that domestic violence offenders would have more prior charges/convictions as significant predictors of their current domestic violence offense, as generalized by their versatile offending patterns (Piquero, Jennings & Barnes, 2012; Weiner, 1989). Lastly, it was hypothesized that current domestic offenders would have higher proportions of prior violent charges/convictions as predictors of their current domestic offense, and that if prior sex charges/convictions were predictors of their current domestic offense, it would be a positive association.

Overall, half of the findings were consistent with the hypothesized statements, while the other half provided some interesting contradictions and necessitate further examination.

Results

Analysis of prior charge history

Analysis of Current Sex Offense—Study Group

The first regression model (Model 1) utilized offenders who were a part of the study group and entered prison in FY2015 for a sex offense, the dependent variable. After establishing a cohort, the researchers used STATA to run a logistical regression model including the independent variables found in Table 6: Study Group Prior Charges Analyses for Current Sex Offense.

Table 6. Study Group Prior Charges Analyses for Current Sex Offense

Variables	Odds Ratio	Standard Error	z-score
Age	0.98	0.0060	-3.31***
Sex	1.06	0.2759	0.24
Race	1.54	0.1788	3.70***
Prior Sex	100.11	40.2583	11.45***
Prior Murder/Mansl.	1.68	2.0763	0.42
Prior Kidnap	1.35	0.5095	0.80
Prior Robbery	2.63	3.255	0.78
Prior Assault	0.36	0.0510	-7.21***
Prior Forgery/Fraud	2.91	0.7654	4.06***
Prior Theft	1.42	0.2435	2.07*
Prior Vandalism	0.83	0.2198	-0.70
Prior Drug Trafficking	1.78	0.6599	1.56
Prior Drug Possession	0.40	0.0951	-3.86***
Prior Weapons	1.06	0.7037	0.09
Prior OWI	0.55	0.1898	-1.73
Prior Flight/Escape	1.21	0.3725	0.62
Prior Sex*Burglary[1]	1.64	0.3778	2.14*

[1]Sex*Burglary= (Prior Sex * Prior Burglary); an interaction term across offenses
***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05
The same model was run with the combined group. Results are located in *Appendix D* for Current Sex Offense and *Appendix E* for Current Assault Offense.

It can be determined from the output located in Table 6, that a prior sex charge (OR=100.11, SE=40.2583, z= 11.45, p<.001), a prior forgery/fraud charge (OR=2.91, SE=0.7654, z=4.06, p<.001), a prior theft charge (OR=1.42, SE=0.2435, z=2.07, p<.05), and/or a prior sex*burglary (OR=1.64, SE=0.3778, z=2.14, p<.05), is significantly more likely to result in a current sex conviction. In fact, a prior sex charge indicates that the odds of committing another sex offense is nearly 9,911%, or 100 times more likely. This finding supports the notion that offenders, particularly convicted sex offenders, may be more specialized. Also, these specific findings support Hypothesis 6 in that current sex offenders do have higher proportions of prior non-violent charges as predictors of their current sex offense. Again, supporting prior literature which has found sex offenders to have non-violent criminal histories.

Further, having a prior sex charge and a prior burglary charge indicates that the odds of committing another sex offense is 64%, or 1.6 times more likely. A finding such as this provides evidence, with statistical significance at alpha .05, that some sex offenders may indeed be frequent offenders of burglaries, or "sex burglars," as well. Through running the second portion of the analysis in Excel, results found that all 15 offenders who entered prison for a current sex offense, and had prior burglary charges, had criminal histories that included violent charges as well. Thus, both the findings from the logistical regression model and the further examination of these offenders in Excel, fully supports the prior literature that suggests these two offenses may co-occur.

It is also important to note, in regards to the overall intersection between domestic violence and sexual abuse, that for those whose current offense is for a sex offense, prior assault charges (OR=0.36, SE=0.0510, z=-7.21, p<.001) are negatively associated with

predicting another sex offense. Therefore, as the number of prior assault charges increases, the odds of being convicted of sexual abuse decreases by 64%. Providing support for Hypothesis 8 which indicated that having a prior assault charge would decrease the odds that the offender's current offense was for sexual abuse. Conversely, this finding contradicts some research which suggests that prior violent charges tend to predict sex recidivism for rapists (Hall, 1988; Lussier, 2005, p. 273; Proulx, Pellerin, Paradis, McKibben, Aubut & Ouimet, 1997; Rice, Quinsey & Harris, 1990). Nevertheless, it does coincide with research that has been done on the recidivism of child molesters, and based-off the low numbers of stranger sexual assaults previously examined in prior research, it is safe to assume that most of the offenders in this analysis are not truly violent rapists (Fineran & Barry, 2017, p. 24; Firestone, Bradford, McCoy, Greenberg, Larose & Curry, 1999; Hanson, Scott & Steffy, 1995; Proulx et al., 1997, Rice, Quinsey & Harris, 1991).

Further, age (OR=0.98, SE=0.0060, z=-3.31, p<.001) also showed a significantly negative effect on whether the current offense is a sex offense. Indicating that as the study group of current sex offenders ages, they are 2% less likely to have a current sex offense. This will prove to be interesting as subsequent groups are analyzed. Additionally, this model provides evidence for offenders who have a prior drug possession charges (OR=0.40, SE=0.0951, z=-3.86, p<.001) in indicating that as their criminal histories acquire more priors for drug possessions, the odds of committing another sex offense are 60% less likely. Lastly, while race does seem to be statistically significant at alpha 0.001, the analyses were further split by race, and there were no

significant changes in the findings. Therefore, for this cohort, race and sex were not significant predictors of a current sex conviction.

Overall, Model 1 provides some evidence that not only are those convicted of sexual abuse typically sex specialists, but they may also commit non-violent property offenses such as burglary, forgery/fraud and theft. Providing strong support for Hypotheses 3, 6 and 8, but contradicting support for Hypothesis 4, as current sex offenders had five prior charges that were predictive of their current sex offense—which is greater than the number of charges found as predictors for a current domestic offense.

Additionally, an ROC curve analysis was ran using the same cohort of current sex offense offenders (Table 7: Study Group ROC Curve for Current Sex Offense Charge Analysis and/or *Figure 1*). In this analysis, further evidence was found indicating that prior sex charges (0.70) and prior sex*burglary charges (0.70) are moderate predictors of the current offense being a sex offense. Thus, reiterating the findings mentioned above regarding the association between offenders who commit sex offenses and burglaries.

Table 7. Study Group ROC Curve for Current Sex Offense Charge Analysis

Variables	ROC Area[1]	Standard Error
Prior Sex	0.6952	0.0080
Prior Sex*Burglary[2]	0.7000	0.0083

[1]ROC Area: . .50-.60=Weak; .61-.80=Moderate; .81-.90=Strong; .91+=Best
[2]Sex*Burglary= (Prior Sex * Prior Burglary); an interaction term across offenses
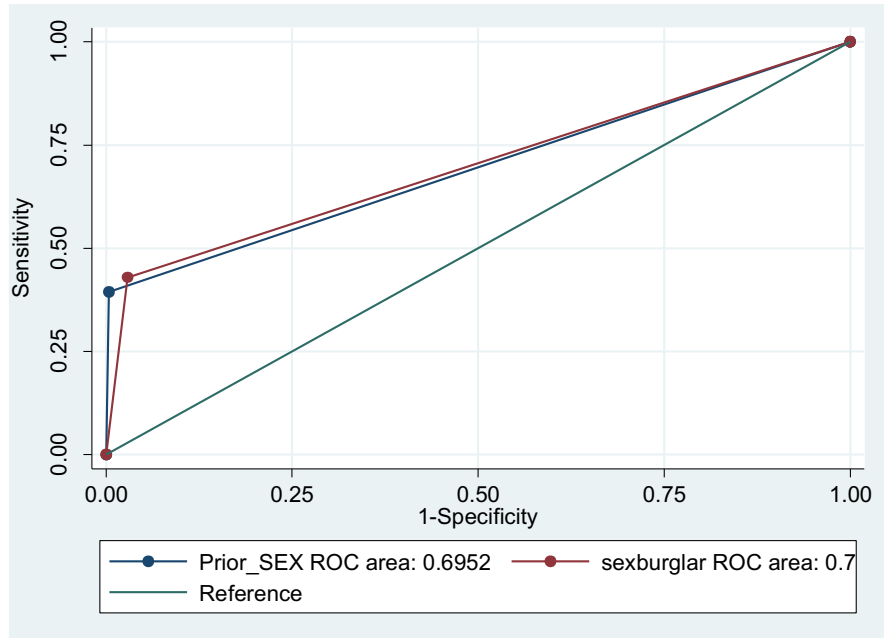
Figure 1. Study Group ROC Curve for Current Sex Offense Charge Analysis

Analysis of Current Domestic Violence Offense—Study Group

The second regression model (Model 2) utilized offenders who were a part of the study group and entered prison in FY2015 for a domestic violence offense, the dependent variable. After establishing a cohort, the researchers used STATA to run logistical regression including the independent variables found in Table 8: Study Group Prior Charges Analyses for Current Domestic Violence Offense.

Table 8. Study Group Prior Charges Analyses for Current Domestic Violence Offense

Variables	Odds Ratio	Standard Error	z-score
Age	1.02	0.0062	3.53***
Sex	0.92	0.2378	-0.33
Race	0.64	0.0741	-3.86***
Prior Sex	0.01	0.0021	-15.03***
Prior Murder/Mansl.	0.62	0.7644	-0.39
Prior Kidnap	0.77	0.2897	-0.70
Prior Robbery	0.39	0.4807	-0.76
Prior Assault	2.90	0.4078	7.56***
Prior Forgery/Fraud	0.36	0.0934	-3.93***
Prior Theft	0.73	0.1242	-1.84^
Prior Vandalism	1.25	0.3310	0.86
Prior Drug Trafficking	0.58	0.2155	-1.46
Prior Drug Possession	2.63	0.6297	4.04***
Prior Weapons	0.98	0.6514	-0.03
Prior OWI	1.89	0.6516	1.84^
Prior Flight/Escape	0.86	0.2648	-0.49

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05, ^p<.07

The same model was run with the combined group. Results are located in *Appendix D* for Current Sex Offense and *Appendix E* for Current Assault Offense.

It can be determined from the output located in Table 8, that contrary to Model 1, a prior sex charge (OR=0.01, SE=0.0021, z= -15.03, p<.001) or a prior forgery/fraud charge (OR=0.36, SE=0.0934, z=-3.93, p<.001) is significantly less likely to result in a current domestic violence conviction. Having a prior assault charge (OR=2.90, SE=0.4078, z=7.56, p<.001) or a prior drug possession charge (OR=2.63, SE=0.6297, z=4.04, p<.001) indicates that current charges are significantly more likely to include a domestic violence conviction.

Indicative of the high odds ratio for a prior assault charge, these findings lean toward the belief that convicted domestic violence offenders, may specialize. Conversely, they may also be versatile as drug possession charges became positively significant for a current domestic violence conviction whereas it had a significantly negative effect on current sex convictions (OR=2.63, SE=0.6297, z=4.04, p<.001 versus OR=0.40,

SE=0.0951, z=-3.86, p<.001). Additionally, the findings that were not significant predictors of a current domestic offense are also worth mentioning as most of them were for violent charges (prior murder/mansl.: OR=0.62, SE=0.7644, z=-0.39; prior kidnap: OR=0.77, SE=0.2897, z=-0.70; prior robbery: OR=0.39, SE=0.4807, z=-0.76), a crime type domestic violence offenders have been known to have prior criminal histories for. Contradicting Hypothesis 5 which predicted that current domestic offenders would have higher proportions of prior violent charges/convictions as predictors of their current domestic offense.

Again, in regards to the overall intersection between domestic violence and sexual abuse, for offenders whose current offense is for domestic violence, prior sex offense charges (OR=0.01, SE=0.0021, z=-15.03, p<.001) were negatively associated with predicting a current domestic violence conviction. In fact, a prior sex charge indicates that as prior sex offenses increase, the likelihood of resulting in a current domestic violence conviction decreases by nearly 99%. Again, contradicting the support for Hypothesis 7 which indicated that having prior sex abuse charges/convictions would increase the odds that the offender's current offense would result in a domestic violence conviction. Further, age also showed a significantly different effect than it did in the current sex offense model. For Model 2, age (OR=1.02, SE=0.0062, z=3.53, p<.001) showed a significantly positive effect on whether the current offense was a domestic violence conviction. Indicating that as the study group of current domestic offenders ages, they are 2% more likely to have a current domestic violence offense. Lastly, while race does seem to be statistically significant at alpha 0.001, as it was mentioned before, the analyses were further split by race and there were no significant changes in the

findings. Therefore, for this cohort, race and sex were not significant predictors of a current domestic violence offense. However, it is worth noting that in this model, race became inversely related to predicting the current domestic offense, whereas the relationship was positively related for current sex offenders.

In general, this analysis provides some evidence that those convicted of domestic violence may be specialized, but they may accrue charges for prior non-violent drug offenses, along with charges for prior alcohol related offenses such as OWI's (OR=1.89, SE=0.6516, z=1.84, p<.07) as well. First, providing evidence for Hypothesis 1 which stated that offenders who have prior domestic violence charges, are more likely to have a current domestic violence offense. Second, support was not found for Hypothesis 2 in that there were only two, potentially three prior charges examined that were predictors of a current domestic violence conviction. Again, indicating that they may be a potentially specialized group of offenders.

Finally, Hypotheses 5 and 7 were contradicted as current domestic violence offenders did not have prior violent charges as predictors of their current domestic offense, nor did having a prior sex abuse charge increase the odds that the current offense would be for domestic violence. Although contradicting, these findings are not void, as they also support previous research which has found that domestic violence specialists rarely exist. A concept that these findings could refute, but the same research also suggested that these offenders rarely specialize in violent crimes period, which is what these findings are indicating (Richards et al., 2013, p. 656). Nevertheless, it should be noted that prior assault charges could include domestic and non-domestic assaults. For

this reason, the true interpretation of whether offenders with a current domestic violence offense specialize in domestic violence offenses would have to be examined further.

Additionally, an ROC curve analysis was ran using the same cohort of current domestic violence offense offenders (Table 9: Study Group ROC Curve for Current Domestic Violence Offense Charge Analysis and/or *Figure 2*). In this analysis, further evidence was found that prior assault charges (0.61) are moderate predictors of the current offense resulting in a domestic violence conviction, while prior OWI charges (0.51) appeared to be weak predictors of the current offense being a domestic violence conviction.

Table 9. Study Group ROC Curve for Current Domestic Violence Offense Charge Analysis

Variables	ROC Area[1]	Standard Error
Prior Assault	0.6091	0.0063
Prior OWI	0.5088	0.0024

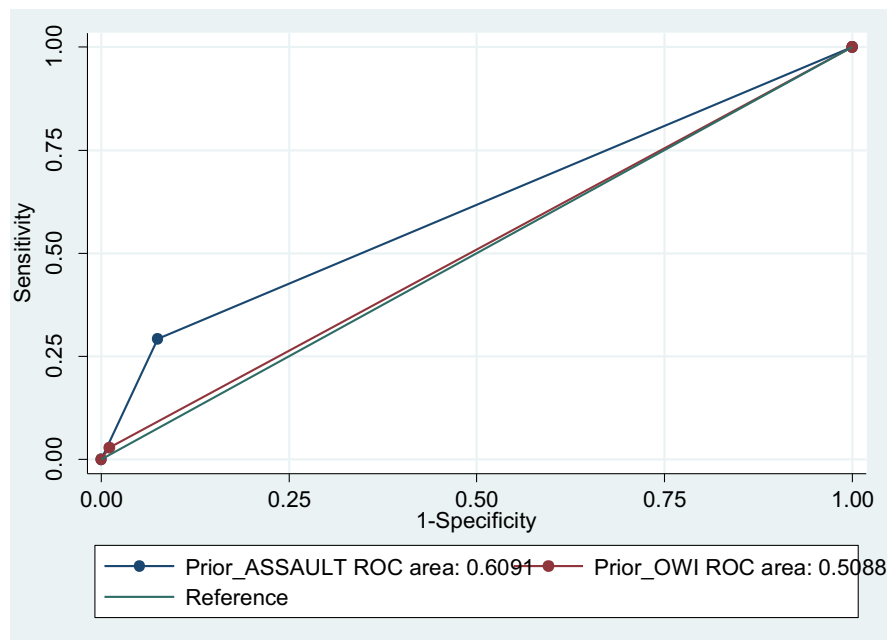[1]ROC Area: .50-.60=Weak; .61-.80=Moderate; .81-.90=Strong .91+=Best

Figure 2. Study Group ROC Curve for Current Domestic Violence Offense Charge Analysis

Analysis of Current Assault Offense—Comparison Group

The third regression model (Model 3) utilized offenders who were a part of the comparison group and entered prison in FY2015 for an assault offense, the dependent variable. After establishing a cohort, the researchers used STATA to run logistical regression including the independent variables found in Table 10: Comparison Group Prior Charges Analyses for Current Assault Offense.

Table 10. Comparison Group Prior Charges Analyses for Current Assault Offense

Variables	Odds Ratio	Standard Error	z-score
Age	0.95	0.0051	-9.14***
Sex	0.71	0.1262	-1.91^
Race	0.66	0.0639	-4.28***
Prior Sex	2.09	1.227	1.26
Prior Murder/Mansl.	0.84	0.6516	-0.22
Prior Kidnap	2.29	1.3714	1.39
Prior Robbery	1.09	0.4121	0.22
Prior Assault	2.32	0.2648	7.38***
Prior Forgery/Fraud	0.07	0.0507	-3.70***
Prior Theft	0.64	0.1087	-2.61**
Prior Vandalism	1.54	0.3689	1.79
Prior Drug Trafficking	0.27	0.0988	-3.57***
Prior Drug Possession	0.51	0.0903	-3.80***
Prior Weapons	1.22	0.4398	0.56
Prior OWI	0.34	0.1457	-2.52**
Prior Flight/Escape	0.49	0.1844	-1.89$^+$

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05, $^+$p<.06

It can be determined from the output located in Table 10, that like the findings with the domestic violence offenders in the study group, a prior forgery/fraud charge (OR=0.07, SE=0.0507, z=-3.70, p<.001) or a prior theft charge (OR=0.64, SE=0.1087, z=-2.61, p<.01) is significantly less likely to result in a current domestic violence conviction. Conversely, where having a prior sex charge was negatively associated with a current domestic offense at alpha .001, the prior sex charge variable was no longer significant for current assault offenders, and it displayed a positive correlation. Similarly,

where a prior drug possession charge indicated that current charges are significantly more likely to include a domestic violence conviction, the opposite is true for the assault offenders. In this analysis, a prior drug possession charge (OR=0.51, SE=0.0903, z=-3.80, p<.001), as well as a prior drug trafficking charge (OR=0.27, SE=0.0988, z=-3.57, p=<.001), indicates that the current charges/convictions are less likely to include an assault offense. Nevertheless, having a prior assault charge (OR=2.32, SE=0.2648, z=7.38, p<.001) was still a significant predictor of the comparison cohort's current assault.

Again, indicative of the high odds ratio for a prior assault charge, these mixed findings lean toward the belief that convicted assault offenders, may specialize. However, they may also be versatile as drug and property charges were negatively associated with the current assault offense. This indicates that their current assault offenses may be imbedded in a criminal career full on violent and non-violent charges.

Further, age also showed a significantly negative effect on whether the current offense would result in an assault conviction, which was the affect age had on current sex conviction within the study group. In regards to the affect age had on the current domestic violence study group (Model 2), it shows a significantly different effect here than it did in that model. For Model 3, age (OR=0.95, SE=0.0051, z=-9.14, p<.001) showed a significantly inverse effect on whether the current offense was an assault conviction. Indicating that as the comparison group of current assault offenders ages, they are 5% less likely to have a current assault offense.

Lastly, while race does seem to be statistically significant at alpha 0.001, as it was mentioned before, the analyses were further split by race and there were no significant

changes in the findings. As it was found with the current domestic violence study group, race again became inversely related to predicting the current assault offense. Also in contrast to Model 1, sex became inversely related, and in contrast to Model 2 with the current domestic violence study group, it became close to being statistically significant at alpha .06. Therefore, for this model, sex would need to be further examined as a predictor of a current assault offense.

In general, this analysis provides further evidence that convicted assault offenders may be specialized, yet they may also commit a variety of other offenses, as many of their prior charge predictors were negatively associated with a current assault offense. This indicates that as prior property and drug charges increase, the likelihood of committing another assault conviction declines. Overall providing some evidence for Hypothesis 2 which predicted that there were many prior charges that were significantly related to a current assault offense either positively or negatively. Conversely, the comparison group of assault offenders may be more generalized than domestic violence offenders within the study group cohort.

Additionally, an ROC curve analysis was ran using the same cohort of current assault offense offenders (Table 11: Comparison Group ROC Curve for Current Assault Offense Charge Analysis and/or *Figure 3*). Although most of the AUC values hover around 0.50, a prior assault charge does show a slightly moderate indication (0.57) that the current offense could be for assault. Moreover, even though the ROC curve ran for the study group of domestic violence offenders did not include all of these variables, the AUC values for prior assault charges and prior OWI charges are similar to what was

found with the study group. This indicates that prior charges that are predictive of

domestic violence convictions may be predictive of all assault crimes.

Table 11. Comparison Group ROC Curve for Current Assault Offense Charge Analysis

Variables	ROC Area[1]	Standard Error
Male	0.4982	0.0055
Sex	0.4347	0.0101
Prior Sex	0.5017	0.0017
Prior Murder/Mansl.	0.5002	0.0012
Prior Kidnap	0.5020	0.0016
Prior Robbery	0.5025	0.0025
Prior Assault	0.5749	0.0090
Prior Forgery/Fraud	0.4804	0.0019
Prior Theft	0.4879	0.0058
Prior Vandalism	0.5081	0.0040
Prior Drug Trafficking	0.4852	0.0027
Prior Drug Possession	0.4678	0.0055
Prior Weapons	0.5027	0.0026
Prior OWI	0.4875	0.0024
Prior Flight/Escape	0.4942	0.0025

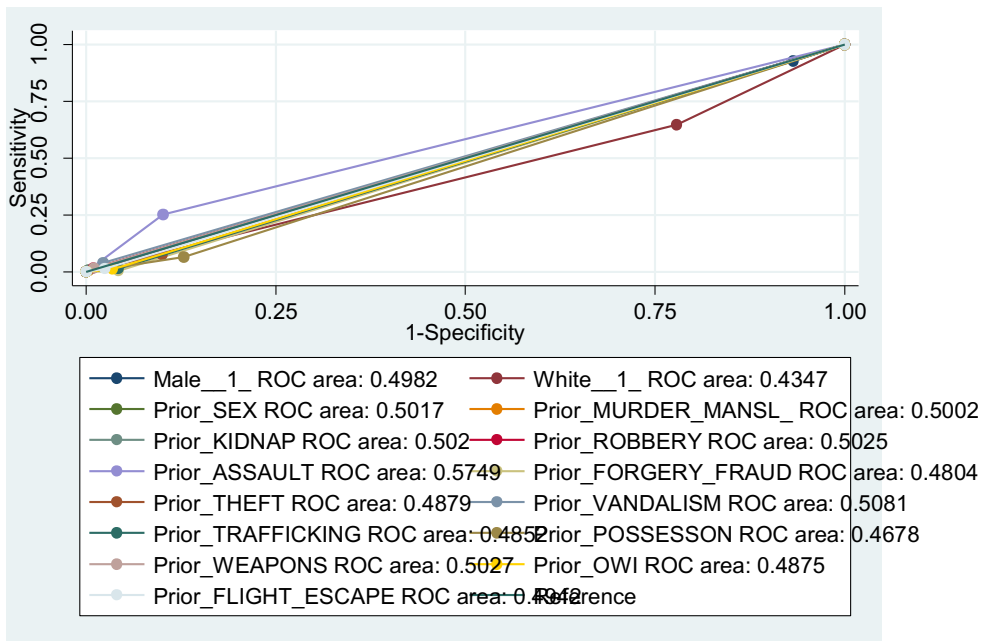[1]ROC Area: .50-.60=Weak; .61-.80=Moderate; .81-.90=Strong; .91+=Best

Figure 3. Comparison Group ROC Curve for Current Assault Offense Charge Analysis

Analysis of Current Kidnapping Offense—Comparison Group

The fourth regression model (Model 4) utilized offenders who were a part of the comparison group and entered prison in FY2015 for a kidnapping offense, the dependent variable. After establishing a cohort, the researchers attempted to use STATA to run logistical regression, like the prior analyses. However, due to the size of the cohort, logistical regressions were unable to be ran as there were only three offenders within the comparison group. To still assess the prior charge history of this group, their prior charge history was manually coded into Table 12: Comparison Group Prior Charges Analyses for Current Kidnapping Offenses (p. 73).

It can be determined from the output located in Table 12, that like the analysis ran for the current sex offenders in the study group, prior sex charges were indicative of a current kidnapping conviction, at least for Offender C, which provides further support for the high odds ratios examined in Model 1. Additionally, it can also be inferred that in comparison to the current sex offenders and their positive association with property offenses, convicted kidnapers may too, have alternative motives behind their property offenses. This is evident in Offender B, particularly since their property-related offenses fall within the violent crime type category. Lastly, Offender A, who is the youngest of the three, had one prior public order charge for "Voluntary Absence from Custody" inferring that although young, their criminal behaviors may only be beginning.

Thus, although this analysis does not provide as many comparison points as the current sex group does, it does show similar findings within such a small cohort. Further indicating that sex offenders, or individuals who commit crimes with sexual motives in mind (burglaries, kidnappings, robberies, etc.) are indeed a specialized kind of offender.

Table 12. Comparison Group Prior Charges Analyses for Current Kidnapping Offense

	Age	Race-Ethnicity	Sex	Prior Offense Description	Prior Offense Class	Prior Offense Type	Prior Offense Subtype
A	20	B-NH	M	Voluntary Absence from Custody	SRMS	Public Order	Flight/Escape
B	22	B-NH	M	Robbery 2nd Degree	FELC	Violent	Robbery
				Kidnapping 2nd Degree	FELB	Violent	Kidnap
				Robbery 2nd Degree	FELC	Violent	Robbery
				Assault	SMMS	Violent	Assault
				Consumption/Intoxication	SMMS	Public Order	Alcohol
				Disorderly Conduct—Fighting or Violent Behavior	SMMS	Public Order	Other Public Order
				Public Intoxication	SMMS	Public Order	Alcohol
C	57	W-NH	M	Dissemination/Exhibition of Obscure Material to Minors	SRMS	Public Order	Other Public Order
				Sexual Abuse 2nd Degree	FELB	Violent	Sex

Additionally, an ROC curve analysis was ran using the same cohort of convicted kidnapping offenders (Table 13: Comparison Group ROC Curve for Current Assault Offense Charge Analysis and/or *Figure 4*). Although most of the AUC values hover around 0.50, a prior sex charge does show a weak association (0.55) with a current kidnapping conviction, while a prior robbery charge shows a moderate indication (0.61) that the current conviction could be kidnapping. More evidence for this finding is noticed when looking at the prior charge history of Offender B in Table 12.

Table 13. Comparison Group ROC Curve for Current Kidnapping Offense Charge Analysis

Variables	ROC Area[1]	Standard Error
Prior Sex	0.5540	0.0556
Prior Murder/Mansl.	0.4986	0.0004
Prior Kidnap	0.4985	0.0004
Prior Robbery	0.6062	0.0735
Prior Assault	0.4958	0.0556

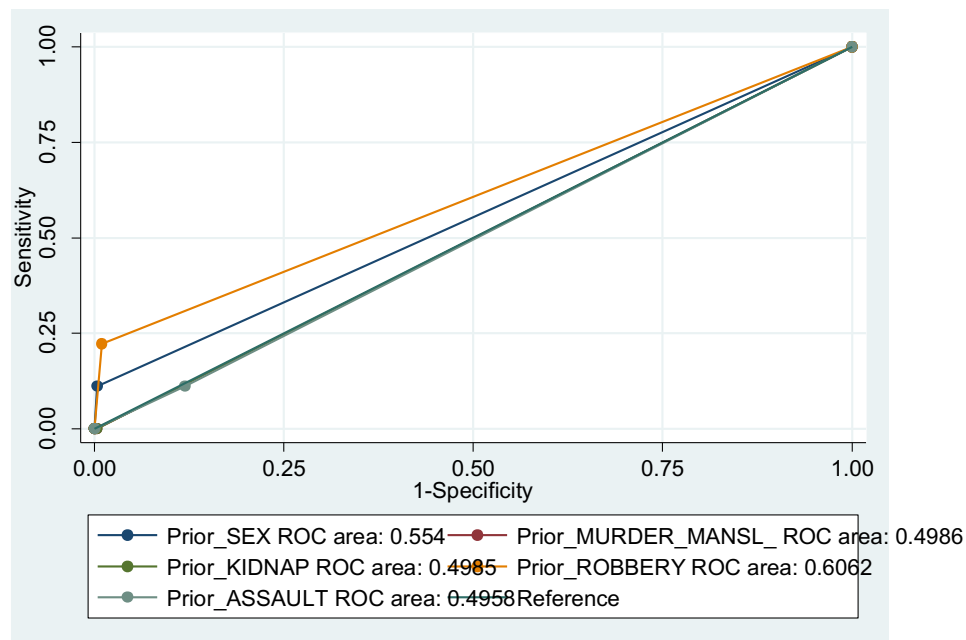[1]ROC Area: .50-.60=Weak; .61-.80=Moderate; .81-.90=Strong; .91+=Best

Figure 4. Comparison Group ROC Curve for Current Kidnapping Offense Charge Analysis

Analysis of prior conviction history

Analysis of Current Sex Offense—Combined Group

The fifth regression model (Model 5) utilized offenders who were a part of the combined group and entered prison in FY2015 for a sex offense, the dependent variable. After establishing a cohort, the researchers used STATA to run logistical regression including the independent variables found in Table 14: Combined Prior Convictions Analyses for Current Sex Offense.

Table 14. Combined Prior Convictions Analyses for Current Sex Offense

Variables	Odds Ratio	Standard Error	z-score
Age	1.02	0.0093	2.65**
Sex	2.04	1.260	1.15
Race	1.39	0.2821	1.64
Prior Sex	210.41	221.5873	5.08***
Prior Kidnap	1.79	1.0718	0.98
Prior Assault	0.15	0.0353	-8.09***
Prior Forgery/Fraud	0.84	0.3014	-0.50
Prior Theft	1.25	0.3834	0.73
Prior Vandalism	0.56	0.2252	-1.45
Prior Drug Trafficking	1.15	0.5011	0.33
Prior Drug Possession	0.12	0.0517	-4.85***
Prior Weapons	0.57	0.4726	-0.68
Prior OWI	0.22	0.0853	-3.93***
Prior Flight/Escape	0.44	0.2296	-1.57
Prior Sex*Burglary[1]	0.93	0.3196	-0.20

[1]Sex*Burglary= (Prior Sex * Prior Burglary); an interaction term across offenses
Prior Murder/Mansl. and Prior Robbery were omitted as there were not enough observations to accurately predict success/failure
***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

It can be determined from the output located in Table 14, that a prior sex conviction (OR=210.41, SE=221.5873, z=5.08, p<.001) is significantly more likely to result in a current sex offense conviction. Actually, the odds ratio nearly doubled what it was for having a prior sex charge. Indicating again that convicted sex offenders may be more specialized.

Interestingly, a prior forgery/fraud conviction (OR=0.84, SE=0.3014, z=-0.50) and/or a prior sex*burglary (OR=0.93, SE=0.3196, z=-0.20), is now significantly <u>less</u> likely to result in a current sex conviction, and the significance of these offenses was no longer present within this model. Although a prior theft conviction (OR=1.25, SE=0.3834, z=0.73) is still positively associated with a current sex offense, it is no longer significant. Reiterating again that offenders convicted of sexual abuse are either unique offenders or are rarely caught for their sexual or nonsexual criminal behaviors. In fact, in contrast to the support that was found for Hypothesis 6, once the offenders were combined with the general offenders, prior non-violent conviction predictors were no longer statistically significant. Aside from a prior drug possession conviction (OR=0.12, SE=0.0517, z=-4.85, p<.001), or a prior OWI conviction (OR=0.22, SE=0.0853, z=-3.93, p<.001), which were inversely related with a current sex offense. The finding regarding drug possession convictions was similar to the affect drug possession had in Model 1 with charges. Implying that as criminal histories accumulate more drug and OWI convictions; the less likely the current conviction is to include sexual abuse. Again, indicating that sex offenders are either more specialized, or else sexual offending decreases as criminal histories acquire more general charges and convictions.

Even when the groups are combined, prior assaults convictions (OR=0.15, SE=0.0353, z=-8.09, p<.001) are still are negatively associated with predicting a current sex offense. In Model 5, their inverse relationship is even stronger because as the number of prior assault convictions increases, the likelihood of being currently convicted of sexual abuse decreases by 85%. Providing additional support for Hypothesis 8, which indicated that having a prior assault charge/conviction, would decrease the odds that the

current offense included sexual abuse. Further, age (OR=1.02, SE=0.0093, z=2.65, p<.001) showed a significantly positive effect on whether the current offense is a sex offense, where as before, the association was inversely related. Thus, within the combined group, as the offenders age, they are 2% more likely to have a current sex offense. Providing support for the life-course theory implication that as offenders age, they become more specialized in their offending (Cline, 1980; Lussier & Brassard, 2015). Lastly, in this combined model, race and sex were not significant predictors of a current sex conviction.

Overall, this analysis provides further evidence that sex offenders, especially those convicted, are typically specialists. More so, the findings in this model provide support for Hypothesis 4 in that current sex offenders only displayed one prior conviction that was predictive of their current sex conviction and that was for prior sex convictions. There were also three prior convictions that were inversely related to having a current sex offense. Regardless, both provide support that sex offenders may be more specialized in their offending patterns.

Additionally, an ROC curve analysis was ran using the same cohort of current sex offense offenders (Table 15: Combined ROC Curve for Current Sex Offense Conviction Analysis and/or *Figure 5*). In this analysis, further evidence was found indicating that prior sex convictions (0.66) and prior sex*burglary convictions (0.67) are moderate predictors of the current offense being a sex offense. However, the predictive accuracy for prior sex*burglary deserves further exploration as a prior sex*burglary conviction was no longer statistically significant, nor positively related to predicting a current sex offense within the logistic models.

Table 15. Combined ROC Curve for Current Sex Offense Conviction Analysis

Variables	ROC Area[1]	Standard Error
Prior Sex	0.6606	0.0127
Prior Sex*Burglary[2]	0.6656	0.0136

[1]ROC Area: . .50-.60=Weak; .61-.80=Moderate; .81-.90=Strong; .91+=Best
[2]Sex*Burglary= (Prior Sex * Prior Burglary); an interaction term across offenses
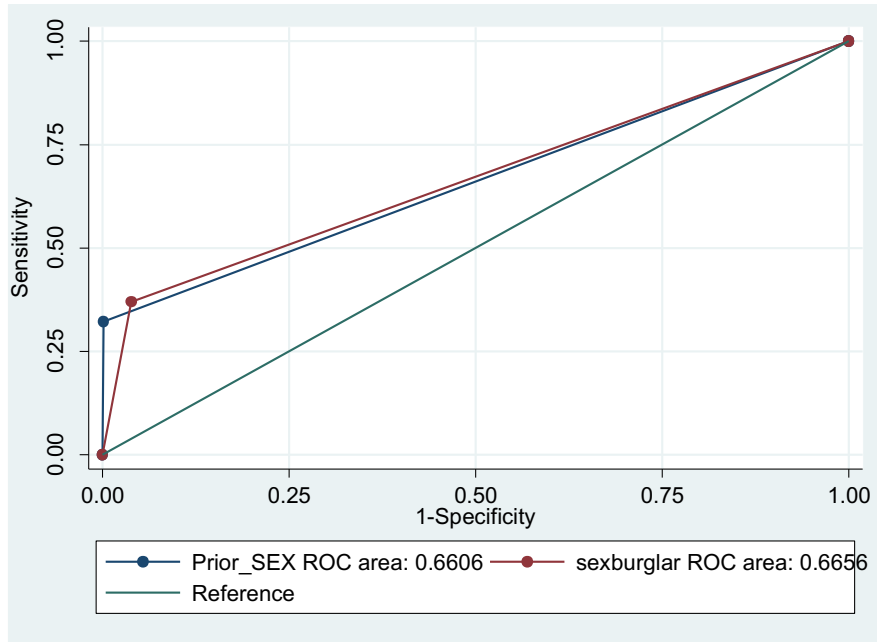
Figure 5. Combined ROC Curve for Current Sex Offense Conviction Analysis

Analysis of Current Assault Offense—Combined Group

The sixth regression model (Model 6) utilized offenders who were a part of the combined group and entered prison in FY2015 for a current assault offense, the dependent variable. After establishing a cohort, the researchers used STATA to run logistical regression including the independent variables found in Table 16: Combined Prior Convictions Analyses for Current Assault Offense.

Table 16. Combined Prior Convictions Analyses for Current Assault Offense

Variables	Odds Ratio	Standard Error	z-score
Age	0.97	0.0047	-6.06***
Sex	1.32	0.2636	1.39
Race	0.74	0.0729	-3.03**
Prior Sex	0.08	0.0479	-4.16***
Prior Kidnap	1.41	0.7604	0.63
Prior Assault	4.57	0.5625	12.33***
Prior Forgery/Fraud	0.65	0.1566	-1.79^
Prior Theft	0.57	0.1017	-3.17**
Prior Vandalism	1.96	0.4677	2.82**
Prior Drug Trafficking	0.45	0.1128	-3.18**
Prior Drug Possession	0.88	0.1294	-0.87
Prior Weapons	0.68	0.2620	-1.00
Prior OWI	1.26	0.2145	1.36
Prior Flight/Escape	1.19	0.3160	0.67
Prior Sex*Burglary[1]	0.72	0.1491	-1.57

[1]Sex*Burglary= (Prior Sex * Prior Burglary); an interaction term across offenses
Prior Murder/Mansl. and Prior Robbery were omitted as there were not enough observations to accurately predict success/failure
***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05, ^p<.07

It can be determined from the output located in Table 16, that a prior assault conviction (OR=4.57, SE=0.5625, z=12.33, p<.001), and/or a prior vandalism conviction (OR=1.96, SE=0.4677, z=2.82, p<.01) is significantly more likely to result in a current assault conviction. Interestingly, this is the first model in which a prior vandalism conviction has been statistically significant.

Nevertheless, like the findings in previous models with the domestic violence and assault offenders, having a prior forgery/fraud conviction (OR=0.65, SE=0.1566, z=-1.79; p<.07) or a prior theft conviction (OR=0.57, SE=0.1017, z=-3.17, p<.01) indicates that current convictions are less likely to include an assault conviction. Also, unlike the prior sex charge association found with Model 3, a prior sex conviction (OR=0.08, SE=0.0479, z=-4.16, p<.001) was again negatively associated with a current assault conviction, as it was with the current domestic study group. Previously, a prior drug possession charge indicated that the current convictions are significantly more likely to

include a domestic offense, and the opposite is still true for assault offenders. In this analysis, a prior drug possession conviction is no longer statistically significant (OR=0.88, SE=0.1294, z=-0.87), but, a prior drug trafficking conviction (OR=0.45, SE=0.1128, z=-3.18, p=<.01) still indicates that the current convictions are significantly less likely to include an assault conviction.

As before, these mixed findings still lean toward the belief that offenders, particularly convicted assault offenders, may specialized. They may also be versatile as most drug and property convictions were negatively associated with the current assault offense, aside from prior vandalism convictions. Overall indicating again that current assault offenses may be imbedded in a criminal career full of violent and non-violent offenses.

Further, age also showed a significantly negative effect on whether the current offense is an assault offense, which was the affect age had on current sex offenses within Model 1. However, in regards to the effect age had on the current domestic violence study group, it shows a significantly different effect than it did in that model. For the current assault model, age (OR=0.97, SE=0.0047, z=-6.06, p<.001) showed a significantly inverse effect on whether the current offense was an assault offense. Indicating that as the offenders age, they are 3% less likely to have a current assault offense. Nonetheless, these mixed findings regarding age are still interesting considering the life-course theory assumptions.

While race does still seem to be statistically significant at alpha 0.01, the convictions analyses were not split by race to determine if there were any significant changes. Therefore, future analyses should further examine the effect race may have on

predicting a current assault. Lastly, sex, although not a significant predictor, is now positively associated with a current assault whereas before, in Model 2 and Model 3, it was inversely related to a current domestic violence and assault offense.

In general, this analysis provides yet further evidence that assault offenders may be specialized, especially at the conviction level, but that they may also commit a variety of other offenses, as many of their prior conviction predictors were negatively associated with their current assault offense. This indicates that as prior convictions increase in sex, property and drug offenses, the likelihood of committing another assault declines. Adding overall support for Hypothesis 2 in that there were many prior convictions that were significantly related to a current assault offense either positively or negatively. Conversely, the comparison group of assault offenders may be more generalized than domestic violence offenders within this cohort.

Furthermore, ROC analyses were not ran for the combined conviction analysis of current assault offenders, as they did not provide any additional findings that had not already been presented with the study and comparison group separately or within the logistical model.

Discussion

The principle thesis of this research is that domestic and sex offenders are specialists in these types of offenses. Yet, as it was mentioned above, current research in the field tends to be divided on these topics with other criminologists believing that offenders are more versatile in their offenses. Thus, additional research was and is still necessary after completing these analyses.

In general, researchers hypothesized that policy implications, like legislative bills for violent habitual domestic offenders and harsh restrictions for sex offenders, may not be increasing public safety. Researchers also hypothesized that while sex offenders tend to be more specialized than their domestic violence counterparts are, they may have non-violent criminal histories as well. However, as was mentioned regarding sex burglars, these non-violent criminal histories may or may not be sexually motivated.

As the results presented, both generalized predictions were true particularly in terms of sex offenders. Research here found evidence for Hypothesis 3, which proposed that current sexual abuse offenders with prior sexual abuse charges or convictions would be more likely to be currently admitted to prison on a sexual abuse offense. The extremely high and significant, odds ratios found in Model 1 and Model 5 support this notion. Particularly for prior convictions, as the results showed, it increased the odds of the current offense resulting in a sex conviction by almost 21,000%. This finding is interesting in regards to prior research conducted by Lussier (2005) because his research suggested that sexual crimes are not more specialized than other crimes as he expected "a lower probability of sexual crime at the next arrest" (p. 275). Nonetheless, the odds ratios presented in these models for current sex offenses seem to depict a different picture. In fact, these findings contradict several prior studies. For instance, Sample and Bray (2003) found that "prospective crime specialization (being rearrested for the same crime type) is relatively limited in sex offenses" (Lussier & Brassard, 2015, p. 13). Contradicting the results presented in this analysis, as the odds ratios for prior sex charges and convictions displayed as significant predictors of a current sex offense.

Nevertheless, some prior research supports this finding. Hanson and Bussiere (1998) concluded that criminal lifestyle variables, deviant sexual interests, deviant victim choices, and specific to this study prior sexual offenses, were all predictors of sexual recidivism (p. 357). Correlating with the extremely high odds ratios found in Model 1 and Model 5 for prior sex charges/convictions ability to predict a current sex conviction (p. 357). Further, research has also been found that prior sex charges predict sex recidivism, especially for child molesters, which is similarly found here (Firestone et al., 1999; Hanson & Bussiere, 1998; Hanson, Scott & Steffy, 1995; Hanson, Steffy & Gauthier, 1995; Hildebrand, Ruiter & Vogel, 2004; Lussier, 2005, p. 273; Prentky, Knight & Lee, 1997; Proulx et al., 1997; Rice et al., 1991).

However, researchers have also noted, and it should be cautioned here as well, that child molesters tend to have a criminal career full of offenses that are more frequent, and include a higher number of victims, which lengthens their overall career (Harris, Smallbone, Dennison & Knight, 2009; Parton & Day, 2002). Thus, as was mentioned earlier, this may not be attuned to their specialization per se, and more towards the frequency of their sex offending overall. Therefore, their large count numbers could also play a role in why these models see such high odds ratios. As a result, the findings presented here in support and contradiction to prior literature, express the need there is to further determine what types of offenses these offenders are committing, who these offenders are, and what individual or societal factors lead to such high odds ratios regarding their offending behavior.

Additionally, support was also found for the notion of sex burglary. Unintentionally, it related to Hypothesis 6 which stated that sex offenders would have

higher proportions of prior non-violent charges/convictions as predictors of their current offense. This finding was supported in both Model 1's logistical regression and ROC curve analysis. Therefore, there is statistical support for the notion of sex burglary (DeLisi, Beauregard & Mosley, 2017, p.8; Harris, Pedneault & Knight, 2012; Pedneault et al., 2012; Pedneault, Beauregard, Harris & Knight, 2015a; Pedneault, Harris & Knight, 2015b). Prior researchers have also found that 29.4% of all burglaries committed by sexual offenders were indeed sexual in nature (Harris, Pedneault & Knight, 2012; Pedneault et al., 2012). Considering the research that has been done on "home-intrusion" rape, this is not necessarily that surprising. More so, research has found the combination of offenses to be a "hybrid offense—a violent crime with the opportunity structure of a property crime" (DeLisi, Beauregard & Mosley, 2017, p. 4; Warr, 1988). Implying, the motives that may drive one to commit a sex offense, are also like the motives that may drive one to commit a burglary, such as easy access, easy escape, etc. (DeLisi, Beauregard & Mosley, 2017; Warr, 1988).

Thus, these findings further support the co-occurrence between sex offenses and burglaries and heighten the importance of looking at sex offenders through a versatile lens (Harris, Pedneault & Knight, 2012). While raising questions regarding those who have found "offenders are more prone to switching rather than repeating the same offense," because as it has been found with sex burglars, they may just be switching between two similarly motivated crimes (Lussier, 2005, p. 286). However, future research should examine this notion, as prior sex*burglary was only a significant predictor of a current sex offense within Model 1, and the conviction ROC curve analysis, but not within the conviction logistical model (Model 5). This difference could

be because at the conviction level, offenders may be imprisoned for one or the other, rather than both. Hence, future research should further examine the disposition process of both prior sex and prior burglary charges.

Overall, for current sex offenses, strong support was found for Hypotheses 3, 6 and 8 within Model 1, while Hypothesis 4 lacked support within this model. However, the support for Hypothesis 6 needs to be analyzed further at the conviction level. Particularly because within Model 5, Hypothesis 6 no longer had support as the prior non-violent convictions were no longer significant predictors. Yet, drug and alcohol related offenses did provide some additional contradicting support at the conviction level, implicating that while some sex offenders, such as child molesters may be specialized, others may have a more generalized offending pattern. Nevertheless, these findings were implied by Model 5, so, large numbers of prior drug convictions, could either be skewing this finding, or implying that they do not "restrict their criminal involvement to sexual crimes" (DeLisi et al., 2011; Harris, 2008; Harris, Mazerolle & Knight, 2009; Harris, Pedneault & Knight, p. 4; Lussier, 2005; Miethe, Olson & Mitchell, 2006; Simon, 2000; Smallbone & Wortley, 2004; Soothill et al., 2000). Model 5 also provided some support for Hypothesis 4, which was refuted at the charge level, as the only prior conviction that predicted a current sex offense was a prior sex offense.

Therefore, it can be assumed with some certainty by the afore mentioned models, there is support for prior research concluding, "a history of sexual offending has consistently been shown to relate to further sexual offending, while the higher the number of offenses and the more varied the history of sexual offending, the more likely the offender is to continue his offending behavior" (Cortoni, 2009, p. 40-41; Beech, Craig &

Browne, 2009; Hanson & Bussiere, 1998; Quinsey, Harris, Rice & Cormier, 2006). Leading to the overall general conclusion that this analysis portrays convicted sex offenders to be specialized.

On the other hand, models ran against current domestic violence and current assaults did not pan out as proposed. In fact, Hypothesis 1, which suggested that prior domestic charges or convictions would be significantly more likely to result in a current domestic conviction, was the only hypothesis that found support. Thus, like it was mentioned within the current sex models, having a prior assault charge decreased the odds that the current offense would be for sexual abuse, while the inverse was not supported. Hypothesis 7 stated that having prior sexual abuse charges or convictions would increase the odds that the current offense would result in a domestic abuse conviction. As Model 2 and Model 6 showed, having a prior sex charge does decrease the odds that the current conviction includes another assault offense. In fact, this finding makes sense if the notion that sex offenders are specialized is the norm, but research supporting that sex offenders are versatile has found evidence otherwise.

For instance, prior research has found that within sex offenders, "rapists tend to resemble violent non-sexual offenders more so than child molesters" (Hanson, 2002; Hudson & Ward, 1996; Harris, Mazerolle & Knight, 2009, p. 1052; Loehrer, 1992). This finding is backed by the idea that rape is "part of a broader propensity to act in an antisocial manner" (Lussier, LeBlanc & Proulx, 2005; Smallbone, Wheaton & Hourigan, 2003). Thus, researchers proposed that the association between the two might have been greater than it was. Nonetheless, there is a lack of association between the two in this analysis, which again could be because this sample of sex offenders does not include

many violent rapists. Furthermore, it could be that Hypothesis 7 is simply not supported, overall indicating that convicted domestic violence offenders, at least in Iowa, may be more specialized.

Domestic violence specialization was also sustained in this analysis as Hypothesis 5 was not supported. Hypothesis 5 indicated that domestic violence offenders would have higher proportions of prior violent charges/convictions as predictors within their criminal histories. A prediction based off the idea that prior violent offenses predict future violent offenses. However, in Model 2, prior violent charges did not reach statistical significance and they had negative associations (Pedneault, Harris & Knight, 2012). Indicating two things: one, it could support the notion that domestic violence offenders only specialize in assaultive violent crimes; two, it could assume they are versatile offenders, as prior drug charges/convictions displayed. Therefore, these analyses may return fewer violent predictors of their current domestic offense because their criminal histories include a variety of the charges/convictions included in the model. The second assumption is supported through research done by Richards et al., (2013), who concluded that specialization is rare among domestic violence offenders, and that they commit violent and non-violent offenses (DeLisi et al., 2011; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Piquero, 2000; Piquero et al., 2002; Piquero et al., 2006; Sampson & Laub, 1993). In fact, this study specifically found that prior domestic violence or drug offenses increased the rate of being on a high risk domestic violence arrest trajectory and a low to high rate nondomestic violence arrest trajectory (Richards et al., 2013, p. 657).

Therefore, despite several negative associations and few prior violent charges/convictions as predictors, this could be because the models include quite a few

potential prior offenses that may be indicative of a current assault offense; further relating to why there was no support for Hypothesis 2 in Model 2. Model 3 did find some support for Hypothesis 2 though. Model 3's logistical regression results indicated that as their prior charges increased in property and drug offenses, the likelihood of committing another assault declines. Providing support for Piquero and colleague's research in 2012, which concluded "only a small portion of offenses committed throughout most individual criminal careers are violent" (p. 176). Thus, future research should run similar models with violent and non-violent charges and convictions separately. Lastly, Model 6 also found further evidence that assault offenders may be specialized due to the high odds ratio for assault. However, they may also commit a variety of other offenses as many prior predictors were again negatively associated with their current assault offenses.

Overall, the findings related to domestic violence specialization and versatility in this analysis still seem to be as mixed as prior findings within the field. Nevertheless, the findings may relate to research that has suggested that there may be "an alternative view: maybe sets of skills are developed through criminal experience and used in different subsequent criminal contexts," like social learning theory proclaims (Pedneault, Harris & Knight, 2012, p. 283). Indicating again, there may be some specialization among otherwise versatile offenders.

Additionally, the diverse findings regarding age within the models and their implications for the life-course theoretical approach that was mentioned in Chapter Two, lend further discussion. Specifically, these mixed results regarding the age variable are interesting considering the life-course theory assumptions, since although age is still a significant predictor within these models, it deserves further examination in regards to

why as age increases, it makes offenders more or less likely to commit their current offense.

For instance, in Model 1 age was inversely related to predicting if the current offense was a sex offense, at a significance level of alpha .001. Implying that as the study group of current sex offenders aged, their current charges were less likely to result in a sex offense conviction. However, this finding contradicts prior studies who have found that as age increases, so does their participation in sex offending (Lussier, 2005, p. 282; Cline, 1980). A concept that not only aligns with the life-course theory's relationship between age and criminal behavior, but it also makes sense when thinking about the overall profile of sex offenders. Sex offenders are usually offenders who are child molesters. Therefore, as Lussier and Brassard (2015) noted, the association between age and sex specialization may be in part because in order to commit a sex offense in a majority of the offenses, one needs to either have access to or have children of their own. In fact, Romeo and Juliet sex offense cases only comprised of 20% of the overall cases examined in 2015, whereas those including a minor comprised of 67.8% the sexual abuse cases (Fineran & Barry, 2017, p. 22 & 24).

Nevertheless, in Model 2, age had a significantly positive effect on whether the current offense was a domestic violence offense, whereas in Model 3, age was inversely related to whether the current offense was an assault, like it was in Model 1. Yet, when sex offenders were combined within the comparison, age then became positively related to whether the current offense was a sex offense at an alpha of .001, contradicting the life-course theory's notion that as offenders age, they become more specialized in their offending. Finally, in Model 6, age was still inversely related to whether the current

offense was an assault. Thus, although researchers have found age to be a statistically significant variable, this analysis provides conflicting findings. Therefore, to differentiate age's affect in comparison to prior crimes, future research should run models only including age and current offense on an offender-based cohort.

Lastly, as it was previously mentioned, race is a significant predictor in most models, but when the models were split by race, there were no changes to the overall findings. However, it is worth noting the associations presented by race within the various models. In models Model 1 and Model 5, race was positively associated with predicting a current sex offense. Inferring that Caucasian offenders were more likely to have a current sex offense conviction. In models with current domestic offenders as a dependent variable (Model 2, Model 3 & Model 6), race became inversely related to predicting a current domestic offense. Indicating minority offenders were more likely to have a current domestic offense conviction. Therefore, while splitting the model did not change the findings overall, it still provides evidence for prior research, which assumes sex offenders to be Caucasian males, and domestic violence or assault offenders to be of a minority status (Costa, et al., 2015, p. 262; Goldstein et al., 2015, p. 9).

Finally, while sex was positively related to predicting a current sex offense and the combined assault convictions, it was also inversely related to predicting assault offenses at the charge level. Suggesting that males were more likely to have a charge resulting in a sex conviction, and females were more likely to have a charge resulting in an assault conviction within this analysis. Notably though, sex was only a significant predictor in one model, Model 3, which found sex to be inversely related to predicting a current assault at alpha .056. Although this is a little above the threshold of alpha .05, it is

still worth pointing out. Nevertheless, when Jang & Krohn (1995) assessed gender differences in delinquency they found that sex differences in offending tended to peak at 15 years of age and then decline with age (Belknap, 2007). Thus, since these analyses only examine adult offenders, this could be attributing to the lack of significance for sex found within the models. Either way, even without statistical significance, the direction of the associations can still help to infer that the demographic makeup of this cohort is similar to other findings on domestic and sex offenders.

Overall, due to the clear majority of the literature concluding that these offenders are versatile, researchers expected to find similar results. Instead, as was previously mentioned, this analysis found support for <u>both</u> aspects of specialization and versatility. Ergo, future research needs conducted.

CHAPTER 5

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Limitations

Nevertheless, this analysis is not without its limitations. First, due to the nature of these data sources, some external validity may be present as the findings found within one cohort may not be generalizable to another cohort. Likewise, these analyses cannot be generalized outside the state of Iowa and/or the Midwest region. Thus, this study would need to be replicated in other states to account for the varying policies, procedures and programs implemented at the state level.

Secondly, the analysis uses official records to look at prior charges and convictions. Numerous critiques of official records have surfaced including: underreporting, police efficiency to solve crimes, recording practices and categorization of offenses (Lussier, 2005; Lynam et al., 2004; MacDonald et al., 2014; Weis, 1986); the potential for "individual frequency rates to be skewed by the presence of a small group of adult sex offenders [who are] involved in a disproportionate number of sex offenses" (Abel, Becker, Mittelman, Cunningham-Rathner, Rouleau, & Murphy, 1987; Lussier & Brassard, 2015, p. 10; Weinrott & Saylor, 1991); or only being generalizable to those offenders who are caught or reported for (DeLisi, Beauregard & Mosley, 2017; Farrington, Jolliffe, Hawkins, Catalano, Hill & Kosterman, 2003; Ha & Beauregard, 2016; Lussier & Brassard, 2015; Maxfield, Weiler & Widom, 2000; Youngs & Canter, 2014). Regardless, researchers here believe that the sample size is a large enough group of sex, domestic and generalized offenders that the use of official records should still

provide at minimum an estimate of the entirety of their criminal careers, with the caution that this data is utilized at the event-based level (DeLisi, Beauregard & Mosley, 2017; Lussier & Brassard, 2015).

However, the researchers do acknowledge that the analysis is primarily revolved around a cohort composed of offenders who were convicted of domestic violence or sexual abuse. Therefore, these offenses may be overrepresented in the findings—especially as sex offending is so vastly underreported. In fact, there may be missing data in regards to offenses in which the offender was never caught or was arrested outside the state of Iowa. Thereby, future research could examine arrests, and charges and convictions on a national level, under the suggestion that the research include all counts of each event. While most specialization studies use official data, they generally only use the most serious charge at each event. Researchers here believe that, although doing so "has the consequence of raising the level of versatility, research has also found that utilizing individual charges may actually be considered innovative and perhaps more reliable" (Brennan et al., 1989; Farrington, Snyder & Finnegan, 1988; Harris, Mazerolle & Knight 2009, p. 1057; Harris, Smallbone, Dennison & Knight, 2009; Latimore, Visher & Linster, 1994). For that reason, as this analysis chose to do, it is suggested to utilize individual charges and counts within future research as it provides a better overall picture of the offender's criminal activities. Additionally, conducting interviews with the offenders, or a similar cohort of offenders, and obtaining a self-report of their criminal activity and behavior could also shed light onto the different or similar crimes that they commit.

Furthermore, while there may be some limitations to the way the data was collected and analyzed, this research still offers as a useful indicator of what prior offenses may predict a current or future offense. Singularly, it can be used as predictive tool in regards to what prior offenses strongly coincide with an offender's current offense. Plus, given the direction of this specific study, and Iowa's current legislative bids, policies, practices and interests, researchers believe these limitations will not affect the overall use of the conclusions found here by interested stakeholders.

Future Research

In lieu of the limitations of this study and the need for a more well-rounded profile of a domestic or sex offender, it has been suggested that criminologists and sociologists alike should take advantage of the platform that the World Health Organization (WHO) has created. The WHO is an organization that strives for "a more global understanding of domestic and sexual violence by promoting empirically-based prevalence research with the goal of supporting the development of evidence-based policy directions as well as prevention and intervention strategies" (Gorman, 2012, p. 3). Therefore, through first utilizing this base, researchers around the world may be able to gain a better understanding of why some offenders specialize in these areas, and why for others it is just another deviant act. Altogether strengthening the methodologies and research conducted on these offenders.

Second, these analyses only examined the effect major subtypes within prior criminal charges and convictions had on a current offense. Future research could then run the same models with prior types of charges and convictions. Alternatively, by manually coding in Excel, researchers could examine the number of prior domestic violence

charges or convictions, the number of prior sex abuse charges or convictions, and the number of violent/non-violent charges or convictions domestic violence offenders had. Then, code for those who entered prison on a current sex offense, and analyze the number of prior sex charges or convictions, the number of domestic violence charges or convictions, and the number of violent/non-violent charges or convictions those offenders had. Statistical significance could be then determined using z-tests to evaluate if the findings found between the two groups of offenders are large enough to be statistically different and not due to chance. Overall, contributing to the literature that suggests offenders may specialize broadly in violent or non-violent crimes more so than the subtypes of crimes analyzed here.

Further, in regards to how this analysis examined prior charges and convictions, future analyses could run this same analysis with a totaled data set. Meaning that within the excel file, researchers would create a total row for each offender's prior charges and convictions, rather than keeping the rows for each offender multiplied and examining only the counts for the prior charges/convictions. In doing so, the results would permit for generalizations to be made at the offender, rather than event-based level. Allowing for more inferences to be made on what types of offenders commit these crimes, rather than the types of events that lead to the current offense as this analysis did.

Third, this analysis provided some evidence that there might be an association between sexual offending and burglary. In fact, sex burglars are found to have more criminal charges, more violent charges and more violent charges associated with a weapon (DeLisi, Beauregard, Mosley, 2017; Pedneault, Harris & Knight, 2015b). Thus, while this analysis briefly examined the sex burglars for prior violent charges, future

research could further examine those offenders and see the extent to which this finding is true, by specifically evaluating what types of additional priors they have within their criminal histories. More importantly, the finding of an association between the two displays that further "work is [still] important because it contributes to a better understanding of [sexual violence, particularly in situations] in which women are attacked, raped or murdered [in their home]" (Harris, Pedneault & Knight, 2012 p. 2). Additionally, this knowledge and future research can continue to help better the treatment programs for sex offenders by recognizing if an offender has a criminal history of burglary or not.

Fourth, while reading literature for this study, a question arose regarding specialization findings. In particular, it wondered if the finding of specialization was only the byproduct of committing a large number of offenses of all types (Haas & Killias, 2003). Thus, future research should look to account for the issues with frequency in counts and see if offenders are truly specializing in these offenses, or if the analyses are only tracking the most frequent counts within a criminal career of versatility. This is especially important when examining sex offenders, because as this analysis noted, there is usually at least one offender with 128 sexual priors. Making it important to address, acknowledge, and be on the lookout for outlying offenders.

Lastly, this study did not differentiate how the charges were disposed of. Therefore, future analyses could look at the proportions of domestic or sex abuse offender's prior charges and examine those that ended as a guilty conviction by either a jury, a court, a negotiation or voluntary plea, or other. Further analyses in this regard

could help evaluate whether these offenders are committing crimes and being penalized for them, or if they are being dismissed or not filed at all.

Moreover, although there is always more research to do and limitations to keep in mind while reading this research, it can still provide several contributions to a variety of stakeholders.

Contributions

In developing an understanding of the above-mentioned issues, this study adds to the growing body of knowledge that already exists regarding whether domestic and sex offenders are versatile or specialists in their offending. It also supports future research. Likewise, these contributions will be beneficial to Iowa legislators, criminal justice agencies, the Department of Corrections, treatment providers and domestic abuse and sex offender agencies such as the Iowa Coalitions against Sexual Abuse and Domestic Violence (ICASA, ICADV, respectively) as they too are interested in examining the extent to which domestic violence and sex crimes are unique. At the very least, researchers hope to provide them with a criminal history profile of offenders convicted of domestic violence and/or sex abuse in Iowa.

Policy implications

More broadly, the hope is that this research will influence policies and decisions regarding continually proposed legislative bills, which look to establish mandatory minimums for third strike domestic offenders, and the current registries and regulations for sex offenders in Iowa. Through doing so, the findings here may then inform best practices related to the treatment programming provided to these individuals and other offenders as well.

For instance, prior research has found that domestic violence arrests are significantly lower when the offender receives appropriate treatment, just as any offender would. Therefore, treatment, particularly of domestic violence and sex offenders, should mirror the specialized and generalized portions of their offending, as not one offender is the same (Carey, 1997; Richards et al., 2013). In fact, findings by research conducted by Haas and Killias (2003) noted that "severe violence is more likely to be determined by personal characteristics of the offender," which has bearings for the necessity for more individualized treatment plans for these offenders since they are not all as specialized as some current programs are designed for them to be (p. 269). Especially as research has continually found, and even implications here suggest, that domestic violence offenders are a heterogeneous group of offenders (Gover, 2011; Richards et al., 2013). Thus, improvement in treatment practices can be found by "recognizing the diversity among offenders" (Richards et al., 2013, p. 646).

The same is also true for sex offenders. Most policies and treatments regarding sex offenders "are fueled by the assumption that sexual offending is a distinct and specialized form of offending" (Harris, Mazerolle & Knight, 2009, p. 1065). However, researchers have continually found that "the vast majority of sexual offenders tend to be versatile in their criminal behavior" (Harris, Mazerolle & Knight, 2009, p. 1065; Lussier, LeBlanc, Proulx, 2005; Miethe, Olson & Mitchell, 2006; Simon, 2000; Smallbone & Wortley, 2004; Soothill et al., 2000). The notion of sexual burglary depicts this concept perfectly as the treatment they need differs drastically from those who molest children or obtain illegal pornography. Reiterating that findings such as these should call into

question the "universal and selective crime control policies that exclusively target known sex offenders" (Harris, 2008; Harris, Mazerolle & Knight, 2009, p. 1065; Simon, 1997a).

Nevertheless, this current analysis, in conjunction with prior findings, merely implies that there is still research to be done in regards to not only defining these offenders overall, but in further examining how prior offenses affect future offending. Therefore, since this study analyzed and examined the overall criminal history of offenders convicted of domestic and/or sex abuse in Iowa, it will be useful for researchers and proposers of legislative bills, those who make policy implications, and sociologists and criminologists alike who strive to severe the offenders, the victims, and the communities as well.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

The purpose of this analysis is to evaluate the criminal histories of a cohort of offenders in Iowa who have been newly admitted to prison on a most serious domestic of sex offense. Moreover, addressing whether offenders convicted of domestic violence and sex abuse have intersecting, specialized, or versatile criminal histories. Offenders newly admitted to prion during FY2015 on a domestic violence or sex crime, as well as a matched comparison group were assessed. Analyses by logistical regressions and ROC curves examined predictors of their current offense found within the criminal histories of these offenders between FY2005-FY2015.

Researchers hypothesized first that having prior domestic violence charges or convictions would increase the odds that the next offense would include a domestic violent offense; this was supported. Secondly, they hypothesized that domestic violence offenders would have more significant predictors of their current domestic offense, specifically violent charges or convictions, as assumed by research that suggests they are versatile offenders; this was not supported. There were less than three significant prior charges as predictors of a current domestic offense, and none of them were violent offenses. Third, it was hypothesized that having a prior sexual abuse charge or conviction would increase the odds that the next offense would include a sex offense; this was supported. Fourth, researchers suggested that sex offenders would have fewer predictors of their current sex offense as assumed by their specialized offending patterns; this was

not supported. In fact, the models predicting a current sex offense included more significant predictors, particularly non-violent charges, than the models with domestic violence and/or assault offenders did. Furthermore, supporting Hypothesis 6, which predicted higher proportions of non-violent charges/convictions would be predictors of a current sex offense. Lastly, while a prior sexual abuse charge did not increase the odds of having a current domestic offense, having a prior assault charge or conviction did decrease the odds that the offender's current offense would be for sexual abuse.

In short, results showed that domestic violence offenders who had prior assault and drug possession histories were significantly more likely to have their current offense be for domestic violence. Additionally, sex offenders who had prior sex abuse histories were significantly more likely to have their current offense be for sexual abuse. However, current sex offenders also had prior burglaries and/or property offenses as indicators of their current sex offense.

While this cohort of offenders does show some signs of specialization, other offenses have the potential to be contributing to their current offense as well. Now, whether that is due to a true association, like prior burglaries and a current sex offense, or if it is due to a frequent flyer in said offense, is left for future researchers to examine. Nonetheless, although this research assessed a lengthy criminal history for these offenders, it is still important for future researchers to address other aspects of their criminal behaviors too. Paying special attention to individual, societal, and communal factors that additionally play into not only who these offenders are, but also why they offend, and why they either desist or continue to offend throughout their lifetime.

Concluding Remarks

Overall, "results from this and other studies suggest that variation in patterns of specialization/versatility [have] important theoretical and policy implications" (Bouffard and Zedaker, 2016, p. 22). However, as researchers have noted, and this analysis acknowledges, "there are too many contextual factors that influence the likelihood of violent behavior for statistical packages to model, therefore, the context of violent [behavior] must be examined in conjunction with, and not apart from, actuarial predictors" (Schwaner, 1998, p. 14, 16).

Thus, with that in mind, the future research of domestic and sexual offending should better influence policy and practice as "the versatility of offending has tremendous implications for sexual offender registration laws and sexual predators' laws," along with current pushes for mandatory minimums for domestic offenders (Simon, 1997a, p. 46). Moreover, the information provided should clearly demonstrate the need to further educate stakeholders and the public on why some offenders specialize in offending, and why others do not. It should also further demonstrate the necessity to "break down victim reporting barriers, improve research, and build more meaningful collaborations between researchers, policymakers, practitioners, and the public" (Przybylaski, 2014, p. 103). In understanding that and bettering the system's predictive measures, we cannot only better serve offenders, but we can protect the most vulnerable victims as well.

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APPENDIX A

IOWA CODE CHAPTER 709—SEXUAL ABUSE

Referred to in §9E.2, §135L.3, §229A.2, §232.68, §232.82, §232.83, §235B.2, §235E.1, §235F.1, §237.13, §272.2, §331.307, §364.22, §701.1, §701.11, §901A.1, §901A.2, §903B.1, §903B.2, §907.3, §911.2B, §915.35, §915.36, §915.37, §915.84

709.1 Sexual abuse defined.

Any sex act between persons is sexual abuse by either of the persons when the act is performed with the other person in any of the following circumstances:

1. The act is done by force or against the will of the other. If the consent or acquiescence of the other is procured by threats of violence toward any person or if the act is done while the other is under the influence of a drug inducing sleep or is otherwise in a state of unconsciousness, the act is done against the will of the other.

2. Such other person is suffering from a mental defect or incapacity which precludes giving consent, or lacks the mental capacity to know the right and wrong of conduct in sexual matters.

3. Such other person is a child.

[C51, §2581, 2583; R60, §4204, 4206; C73, §3861, 3863; C97, §4756, 4758; C24, 27, 31, 35, 39, §12966, 12967; C46, 50, 54, 58, 62, 66, 71, 73, 75, 77, §698.1, 698.3; C79, 81, §709.1]

84 Acts, ch 1188, §1; 99 Acts, ch 159, §1
Referred to in §232.116, §600A.8, §611.23, §614.1, §668.15, §692A.101, §692A.102, §713.3, §915.40
Definition of sex act, §702.17

709.1A Incapacitation.

As used in this chapter, "incapacitated" means a person is disabled or deprived of ability, as follows:

1. "Mentally incapacitated" means that a person is temporarily incapable of apprising or controlling the person's own conduct due to the influence of a narcotic, anesthetic, or intoxicating substance.

2. "Physically helpless" means that a person is unable to communicate an unwillingness to act because the person is unconscious, asleep, or is otherwise physically limited.

3. "Physically incapacitated" means that a person has a bodily impairment or handicap that substantially limits the person's ability to resist or flee.

99 Acts, ch 159, §2

709.2 Sexual abuse in the first degree.

A person commits sexual abuse in the first degree when in the course of committing sexual abuse the person causes another serious injury.

Sexual abuse in the first degree is a class "A" felony.

[C51, §2581; R60, §4204; C73, §3861; C97, §4756; C24, 27, 31, 35, 39, §12966; C46, 50, 54, 58, 62, 66, 71, 73, 75, 77, §698.1; C79, 81, §709.2]

Referred to in §321.375, §664A.2, §692A.101, §692A.102, §709.19, §903B.10
Definition of forcible felony, §702.11
Sentencing restrictions, see §907.3

709.3 Sexual abuse in the second degree.

1. A person commits sexual abuse in the second degree when the person commits sexual abuse under any of the following circumstances:

a. During the commission of sexual abuse the person displays in a threatening manner a dangerous weapon, or uses or threatens to use force creating a substantial risk of death or serious injury to any person.

b. The other person is under the age of twelve.

c. The person is aided or abetted by one or more persons and the sex act is committed by force or against the will of the other person against whom the sex act is committed.

2. Sexual abuse in the second degree is a class "B" felony.

[C51, §2581; R60, §4204; C73, §3861; C97, §4756; C24, 27, 31, 35, 39, §12966; C46, 50, 54, 58, 62, 66, 71, 73, 75, 77, §698.1; C79, 81, §709.3]

84 Acts, ch 1188, §2; 99 Acts, ch 159, §3; 2013 Acts, ch 90, §228

Referred to in §321.375, §664A.2, §692A.101, §692A.102, §709.19, §901A.2, §902.12, §902.14,
§903B.10, §906.15
Definition of forcible felony, §702.11
Definition of sex act, §702.17
Sentencing restrictions, see §907.3

709.4 Sexual abuse in the third degree.

1. A person commits sexual abuse in the third degree when the person performs a sex act under any of the following circumstances:

a. The act is done by force or against the will of the other person, whether or not the other person is the person's spouse or is cohabiting with the person.

b. The act is between persons who are not at the time cohabiting as husband and wife and if any of the following are true:

(1) The other person is suffering from a mental defect or incapacity which precludes giving consent.

(2) The other person is twelve or thirteen years of age.

(3) The other person is fourteen or fifteen years of age and any of the following are true:

(a) The person is a member of the same household as the other person.

(b) The person is related to the other person by blood or affinity to the fourth degree.

(c) The person is in a position of authority over the other person and uses that authority to coerce the other person to submit.

(d) The person is four or more years older than the other person.

c. The act is performed while the other person is under the influence of a controlled substance, which may include but is not limited to flunitrazepam, and all of the following are true:

(1) The controlled substance, which may include but is not limited to flunitrazepam, prevents the other person from consenting to the act.

(2) The person performing the act knows or reasonably should have known that the other person was under the influence of the controlled substance, which may include but is not limited to flunitrazepam.

d. The act is performed while the other person is mentally incapacitated, physically incapacitated, or physically helpless.

2. Sexual abuse in the third degree is a class "C" felony.

[C51, §2581, 2583; R60, §4204, 4206; C73, §3861, 3863; C97, §4756, 4758; C24, 27, 31, 35, 39, §12966, 12967; C46, 50, 54, 58, 62, 66, 71, 73, 75, 77, §698.1, 698.3; C79, 81, §709.4]

89 Acts, ch 138, §3; 94 Acts, ch 1128, §1; 97 Acts, ch 78, §1; 99 Acts, ch 159, §4; 2013 Acts, ch 30, §201

Referred to in §321.375, §664A.2, §692A.101, §692A.102, §692A.121, §702.11, §709.19, §902.14, §903B.10, §906.15

Definition of forcible felony, see §702.11
Definition of sex act, see §702.17
Sentencing restrictions, see §907.3

709.5 Resistance to sexual abuse.

Under the provisions of this chapter it shall not be necessary to establish physical resistance by a person in order to establish that an act of sexual abuse was committed by force or against the will of the person. However, the circumstances surrounding the commission of the act may be considered in determining whether or not the act was done by force or against the will of the other.

[C79, 81, §709.5]

99 Acts, ch 159, §5

709.6 Jury instructions for offenses of sexual abuse.

No instruction shall be given in a trial for sexual abuse cautioning the jury to use a different standard relating to a victim's testimony than that of any other witness to that offense or any other offense.

[C79, 81, §709.6]

709.7 Detention in brothel. Repealed by 2010 Acts, ch 1043, §3.

709.8 Lascivious acts with a child.

1. It is unlawful for any person sixteen years of age or older to perform any of the following acts with a child with or without the child's consent unless married to each other, for the purpose of arousing or satisfying the sexual desires of either of them:

a. Fondle or touch the pubes or genitals of a child.

b. Permit or cause a child to fondle or touch the person's genitals or pubes.

c. Cause the touching of the person's genitals to any part of the body of a child.

d. Solicit a child to engage in a sex act or solicit a person to arrange a sex act with a child.

e. Inflict pain or discomfort upon a child or permit a child to inflict pain or discomfort on the person.

2. *a*. Any person who violates a provision of this section involving an act included in subsection 1, paragraph "a" through "c", shall, upon conviction, be guilty of a class "C" felony.

b. Any person who violates a provision of this section involving an act included in subsection 1, paragraph "d" or "e", shall, upon conviction, be guilty of a class "D" felony.

[S13, §4938-a; C24, 27, 31, 35, 39, §13184; C46, 50, 54, 58, 62, 66, 71, 73, §725.2; C75, 77, §725.10; C79, 81, §709.8]

85 Acts, ch 181, §1; 96 Acts, ch 1062, §1; 2000 Acts, ch 1165, §1; 2005 Acts, ch 158, §35; 2013 Acts, ch 30, §202; 2013 Acts, ch 43, §2, 3

Referred to in §321.375, §692A.101, §692A.102, §692A.121, §709.12, §709.19, §802.2B, §902.14, §903B.10, §906.15, §907.3

Definition of sex act, §702.17

Sentencing restrictions, see §907.3

709.9 Indecent exposure.

A person who exposes the person's genitals or pubes to another not the person's spouse, or who commits a sex act in the presence of or view of a third person, commits a serious misdemeanor, if:

1. The person does so to arouse or satisfy the sexual desires of either party; and

2. The person knows or reasonably should know that the act is offensive to the viewer.

[C79, 81, §709.9]

Referred to in §692A.102, §709.19

Definition of sex act, §702.17

Sentencing restrictions, see §907.3

709.10 Sexual abuse — evidence.

1. When an alleged victim of sexual abuse consents to undergo a sexual abuse examination and to having the evidence preserved, a sexual abuse evidence collection kit must be collected and properly stored with the law enforcement agency under whose jurisdiction the offense occurred or with the agency collecting the evidence to ensure that the chain of custody is complete and sufficient.

2. If an alleged victim of sexual abuse has not filed a complaint and a sexual abuse evidence collection kit has been completed, the kit must be stored by the law enforcement agency for a minimum of ten years. In addition, if the alleged victim does not want their name recorded on the sexual abuse collection kit, a case number or other identifying information shall be assigned to the kit in place of the name of the alleged victim.

2004 Acts, ch 1055, §1

709.11 Assault with intent to commit sexual abuse.

Any person who commits an assault, as defined in section 708.1, with the intent to commit sexual abuse:

1. Is guilty of a class "C" felony if the person thereby causes serious injury to any person.

2. Is guilty of a class "D" felony if the person thereby causes any person a bodily injury other than a serious injury.

3. Is guilty of an aggravated misdemeanor if no injury results.

[81 Acts, ch 204, §6]

2013 Acts, ch 90, §229

Referred to in §232.22, §692A.101, §692A.102, §709.19, §802.2B, §903B.10

Sentencing restrictions, see §907.3

709.12 Indecent contact with a child.

1. A person eighteen years of age or older is upon conviction guilty of an aggravated misdemeanor if the person commits any of the following acts with a child, not the person's spouse, with or without the child's consent, for the purpose of arousing or satisfying the sexual desires of either of them:

a. Fondle or touch the inner thigh, groin, buttock, anus, or breast of the child.

b. Touch the clothing covering the immediate area of the inner thigh, groin, buttock, anus, or breast of the child.

c. Solicit or permit a child to fondle or touch the inner thigh, groin, buttock, anus, or breast of the person.

d. Solicit a child to engage in any act prohibited under section 709.8, subsection 1, paragraph "a", "b", or "e".

2. The provisions of this section shall also apply to a person sixteen or seventeen years of age who commits any of the enumerated acts with a child who is at least five years the person's junior, in which case the juvenile court shall have jurisdiction under chapter 232.

[81 Acts, ch 204, §7]

85 Acts, ch 181, §2; 88 Acts, ch 1252, §4; 2013 Acts, ch 30, §203

Referred to in §692A.102, §709.19, §802.2B, §903B.10

Sentencing restrictions, see §907.3

709.13 Child in need of assistance complaints.

During or following an investigation into allegations of violations of this chapter or of chapter 726 or 728 involving an alleged victim under the age of eighteen and an alleged offender who is not a person responsible for the care of the child, anyone with knowledge of the alleged offense may file a complaint pursuant to section 232.83 alleging the child to be a child in need of assistance. In all cases, the complaint shall be filed by any peace officer with knowledge of the investigation when the peace officer has reason to believe that the alleged victim may require treatment as a result of the alleged offense and that the child's parent, guardian, or custodian will be unwilling or unable to provide the treatment.

88 Acts, ch 1252, §5

709.14 Lascivious conduct with a minor.

It is unlawful for a person over eighteen years of age who is in a position of authority over a minor to force, persuade, or coerce a minor, with or without consent, to disrobe or partially disrobe for the purpose of arousing or satisfying the sexual desires of either of them.

Lascivious conduct with a minor is a serious misdemeanor.

89 Acts, ch 105, §2
Referred to in §692A.102, §709.19, §802.2B, §903B.10
Sentencing restrictions, see §907.3

709.15 Sexual exploitation by a counselor, therapist, or school employee.

1. As used in this section:

a. "*Counselor or therapist*" means a physician, psychologist, nurse, professional counselor, social worker, marriage or family therapist, alcohol or drug counselor, member of the clergy, or any other person, whether or not licensed or registered by the state, who provides or purports to provide mental health services.

b. "*Emotionally dependent*" means that the nature of the patient's or client's or former patient's or client's emotional condition or the nature of the treatment provided by the counselor or therapist is such that the counselor or therapist knows or has reason to know that the patient or client or former patient or client is significantly impaired in the ability to withhold consent to sexual conduct, as described in subsection 2, by the counselor or therapist. For the purposes of subsection 2, a former patient or client is presumed to be emotionally dependent for one year following the termination of the provision of mental health services.

c. "*Former patient or client*" means a person who received mental health services from the counselor or therapist.

d. "*Mental health service*" means the treatment, assessment, or counseling of another person for a cognitive, behavioral, emotional, mental, or social dysfunction, including an intrapersonal or interpersonal dysfunction.

e. "*Patient or client*" means a person who receives mental health services from the counselor or therapist.

f. "*School employee*" means a practitioner as defined in section 272.1 or a person issued a coaching authorization or a transitional coaching authorization under section 272.31, subsection 1.

g. "*Student*" means a person who is currently enrolled in or attending a public or nonpublic elementary or secondary school, or who was a student enrolled in or who attended a public or nonpublic elementary or secondary school within thirty days of any violation of subsection 3.

2. *a*. Sexual exploitation by a counselor or therapist occurs when any of the following are found:

(1) A pattern or practice or scheme of conduct to engage in any of the conduct described in subparagraph (2) or (3).

(2) Any sexual conduct, with an emotionally dependent patient or client or emotionally dependent former patient or client for the purpose of arousing or satisfying the sexual desires of the counselor or therapist or the emotionally dependent patient or client or emotionally dependent former patient or client, which includes but is not limited to the following:

(a) Kissing.

(b) Touching of the clothed or unclothed inner thigh, breast, groin, buttock, anus, pubes, or genitals.

(c) A sex act as defined in section 702.17.

(3) Any sexual conduct with a patient or client or former patient or client within one year of the termination of the provision of mental health services by the counselor or therapist for the purpose of arousing or satisfying the sexual desires of the counselor or therapist or the patient or client or former patient or client which includes but is not limited to the following:

(a) Kissing.

(b) Touching of the clothed or unclothed inner thigh, breast, groin, buttock, anus, pubes, or genitals.

(c) A sex act as defined in section 702.17.

b. Sexual exploitation by a counselor or therapist does not include touching which is part of a necessary examination or treatment provided a patient or client by a counselor or therapist acting within the scope of the practice or employment in which the counselor or therapist is engaged.

3. *a*. Sexual exploitation by a school employee occurs when any of the following are found:

(1) A pattern or practice or scheme of conduct to engage in any of the conduct described in subparagraph (2).

(2) Any sexual conduct with a student for the purpose of arousing or satisfying the sexual desires of the school employee or the student. Sexual conduct includes but is not limited to the following:

(a) Kissing.

(b) Touching of the clothed or unclothed inner thigh, breast, groin, buttock, anus, pubes, or genitals.

(c) A sex act as defined in section 702.17.

b. Sexual exploitation by a school employee does not include touching that is necessary in the performance of the school employee's duties while acting within the scope of employment.

4. *a*. A counselor or therapist who commits sexual exploitation in violation of subsection 2, paragraph "a", subparagraph (1), commits a class "D" felony.

b. A counselor or therapist who commits sexual exploitation in violation of subsection 2, paragraph "a", subparagraph (2), commits an aggravated misdemeanor.

c. A counselor or therapist who commits sexual exploitation in violation of subsection 2, paragraph "a", subparagraph (3), commits a serious misdemeanor. In lieu of the sentence provided for under section 903.1, subsection 1, paragraph "b", the offender may be required to attend a sexual abuser treatment program.

5. *a*. A school employee who commits sexual exploitation in violation of subsection 3, paragraph "a", subparagraph (1), commits a class "D" felony.

b. A school employee who commits sexual exploitation in violation of subsection 3, paragraph "a", subparagraph (2), commits an aggravated misdemeanor.

91 Acts, ch 130, §2; 92 Acts, ch 1163, §119; 92 Acts, ch 1199, §2 – 6; 2003 Acts, ch 180, §65; 2004 Acts, ch 1086, §102; 2013 Acts, ch 90, §230; 2014 Acts, ch 1114, §1, 2; 2016 Acts, ch 1066, §6

Referred to in §272.2, §614.1, §692A.102, §702.11, §709.19, §802.2A, §903B.10
Sentencing restrictions, see §907.3 Subsection 1, paragraph f amended

709.16 Sexual misconduct with offenders and juveniles.

1. Any peace officer, or an officer, employee, contractor, vendor, volunteer, or agent of the department of corrections, or an officer, employee, or agent of a judicial district department of correctional services, who engages in a sex act with an individual committed to the custody of the department of corrections or a judicial district department of correctional services commits an aggravated misdemeanor.

2. *a*. Any peace officer, or an officer, employee, contractor, vendor, volunteer, or agent of a juvenile placement facility who engages in a sex act with a juvenile placed at such facility commits an aggravated misdemeanor.

b. For purposes of this subsection, a "juvenile placement facility" means any of the following:

(1) A child foster care facility licensed under section 237.4.

(2) Institutions controlled by the department of human services listed in section 218.1.

(3) Juvenile detention and juvenile shelter care homes approved under section 232.142.

(4) Psychiatric medical institutions for children licensed under chapter 135H.

(5) Facilities for the treatment of persons with substance-related disorders as defined in section 125.2.

3. Any peace officer, or an officer, employee, contractor, vendor, volunteer, or agent of a county who engages in a sex act with a prisoner incarcerated in a county jail commits an aggravated misdemeanor.

91 Acts, ch 219, §21; 98 Acts, ch 1094, §1; 2013 Acts, ch 30, §204; 2013 Acts, ch 90, §185; 2015 Acts, ch 46, §1

Referred to in §692A.101, §692A.102, §709.19, §802.2B
Sentencing restrictions, see §907.3

709.17   Repealed by 98 Acts, ch 1090, §80, 84. See §915.44.

709.18 Sexual abuse of a corpse.

1. A person commits sexual abuse of a human corpse if the person knowingly and intentionally engages in a sex act, as defined in section 702.17, with a human corpse.

2. A person who violates this section commits a class "D" felony.
96 Acts, ch 1006, §1; 2007 Acts, ch 91, §2; 2010 Acts, ch 1074, §4
Referred to in §692A.102
Sentencing restrictions, see §907.3

709.19 No-contact order upon defendant's release from jail or prison.
1. Upon the filing of an affidavit by a victim, or a parent or guardian on behalf of a minor who is a victim, of a crime that is a sexual offense in violation of section 709.2, 709.3, 709.4, 709.8, 709.9, 709.11, 709.12, 709.14, 709.15, or 709.16, that states that the presence of or contact with the defendant whose release from jail or prison is imminent or who has been released from jail or prison continues to pose a threat to the safety of the victim, persons residing with the victim, or members of the victim's immediate family, the court shall enter a temporary no-contact order which shall require the defendant to have no contact with the victim, persons residing with the victim, or members of the victim's immediate family.
2. A temporary restraining order issued under this section shall expire at such time as the court directs, not to exceed ten days from the date of issuance. The court, for good cause shown before expiration of the order, may extend the expiration date of the order for up to ten days, or for a longer period agreed to by the adverse party.
3. Upon motion of the party, the court shall issue a no-contact order which shall require the defendant to have no contact with the victim, persons residing with the victim, or members of the victim's immediate family if the court, after a hearing, finds by a preponderance of the evidence, that the defendant poses a threat to the safety of the victim, persons residing with the victim, or members of the victim's immediate family.
4. A no-contact order shall set forth the reasons for the issuance of the order, be specific in terms, and describe in reasonable detail the purpose of the order.
5. The court shall set the duration of the no-contact order for the period it determines is necessary to protect the safety of the victim, persons residing with the victim, or members of the victim's immediate family, but the duration shall not be set for a period in excess of one year from the date of the issuance of the order. The victim, at any time within ninety days before the expiration of the order, may apply for a new no-contact order under this section.
6. Violation of a no-contact order issued under this section constitutes contempt of court and may be punished by contempt proceedings.
2002 Acts, ch 1085, §1; 2003 Acts, ch 108, §113
No-contact orders, see chapter 664A

709.20 Sexual abuse — no-contact order. Repealed by 2006 Acts, ch 1101, §21. See §664A.3.

709.21 Invasion of privacy — nudity.
1. A person who knowingly views, photographs, or films another person, for the purpose of arousing or gratifying the sexual desire of any person, commits invasion of privacy if all of the following apply:
a. The other person does not have knowledge about and does not consent or is unable to consent to being viewed, photographed, or filmed.
b. The other person is in a state of full or partial nudity.

c. The other person has a reasonable expectation of privacy while in a state of full or partial nudity.

2. As used in this section:

a. "*Full or partial nudity*" means the showing of any part of the human genitals or pubic area or buttocks, or any part of the nipple of the breast of a female, with less than fully opaque covering.

b. "*Photographs or films*" means the making of any photograph, motion picture film, videotape, or any other recording or transmission of the image of a person.

3. A person who violates this section commits an aggravated misdemeanor.

2004 Acts, ch 1099, §1; 2016 Acts, ch 1082, §2; 2016 Acts, ch 1138, §30

Referred to in §692A.102
Sentencing restrictions, see §907.3
Subsection 3 amended

709.22 Prevention of further sexual assault — notification of rights.

1. If a peace officer has reason to believe that a sexual assault as defined in section 915.40 has occurred, the officer shall use all reasonable means to prevent further violence including but not limited to the following:

a. If requested, remaining on the scene of the alleged sexual assault as long as there is a danger to the victim's physical safety without the presence of a peace officer, including but not limited to staying in the dwelling unit or residence when it is the scene of the alleged sexual assault, or if unable to remain on the scene, assisting the victim in leaving the scene.

b. Assisting a victim in obtaining medical treatment necessitated by the sexual assault, including providing assistance to the victim in obtaining transportation to the emergency room of the nearest hospital.

c. Providing a victim with immediate and adequate notice of the victim's rights. The notice shall consist of handing the victim a document that includes the telephone numbers of shelters, support groups, and crisis lines operating in the area and contains a copy of the following statement written in English and Spanish; asking the victim to read the statement; and asking whether the victim understands the rights:

[1] You have the right to ask the court for help with any of the following on a temporary basis:

[a] Keeping your attacker away from you, your home, and your place of work.

[b] The right to stay at your home without interference from your attacker.

[c] The right to seek a no-contact order under section 664A.3 or 915.22, if your attacker is arrested for sexual assault.

[2] You have the right to register as a victim with the county attorney under section 915.12.

[3] You have the right to file a complaint for threats, assaults, or other related crimes.

[4] You have the right to seek restitution against your attacker for harm to you or your property.

[5] You have the right to apply for victim compensation.

[6] You have the right to contact the county attorney or local law enforcement to determine the status of your case.

[7] If you are in need of medical treatment, you have the right to request that the officer present assist you in obtaining transportation to the nearest hospital or otherwise assist you.

[8] You have the right to a sexual assault examination performed at state expense.

[9] You have the right to request the presence of a victim counselor, as defined in section 915.20A, at any proceeding related to an assault including a medical examination.

[10] If you believe that police protection is needed for your physical safety, you have the right to request that the officer present remain at the scene until you and other affected parties can leave or until safety is otherwise ensured.

2. A peace officer is not civilly or criminally liable for actions taken in good faith pursuant to this section.

2005 Acts, ch 158, §45; 2006 Acts, ch 1101, §15; 2008 Acts, ch 1068, §1; 2009 Acts, ch 133, §176, 177

APPENDIX B

DOCUMENTATION FOR CREATING THE MOST SERIOUS CHARGE FOR A CASE (ICIS DATA)

1. **Goal:** Develop Most Serious Charge (MSC) for a case ID.

Logic Steps:
1. Look at all the offense classes listed for a case (can be multiple), and choose the highest rank according to below table.

Offense Class Rank Order (1 being the first listed)
FELA
FELB
OFOF
FELC
FELD
AGMS
SRMS
SMMS
OMOM—Note: This offense class doesn't show in convicting offenses
SCHT
NSCH
OTHR
CIPN
UNKN

2. If there is a tie (two charges with the same) with offense class, then we need to look at the offense type (e.g. violent, property, drug, etc.).

3. If there is a tie with offense type, then we look at the offense subtype.

4. If there is tie with offense subtype, then we take the most recent disposition date.

5. If there is tie with disposition date, then we take the min (charge count) from the Penalty table.[1]

See next page for ranking of types and subtypes.

[1]Note: When we look at this for determining the MS Convicting Charge, the same logic will apply, but we'll use the Convicting_Charge_Class instead of Charge_Class in #1; Convicting_Offense_Type in #2, Convicting_Offense_Subtype in #3.

Table B1. Rankings of Offense Types and Subtypes

Offense Type	Offense Subtype	Rank
VIOLENT	MURDER/MANSL.	1.10
VIOLENT	KIDNAP	1.20
VIOLENT	SEX	1.30
VIOLENT	ROBBERY	1.40
VIOLENT	ASSAULT	1.50
VIOLENT	OTHER VIOLENT	1.60
PROPERTY	BURGLARY	2.10
PROPERTY	ARSON	2.20
PROPERTY	FORGERY/FRAUD	2.30
PROPERTY	THEFT	2.40
PROPERTY	STOLEN PROP	2.50
PROPERTY	VANDALISM	2.60
PROPERTY	OTHER PROPERTY	2.70
DRUG	DRUG TRAFFICKING	3.10
DRUG	DRUG POSSESSION	3.20
DRUG	OTHER DRUG	3.30
PUBLIC ORDER	WEAPONS	4.10
PUBLIC ORDER	OWI	4.20
PUBLIC ORDER	FLIGHT/ESCAPE	4.30
PUBLIC ORDER	PROST/PIMP	4.40
PUBLIC ORDER	TRAFFIC	4.50
PUBLIC ORDER	ALCOHOL	4.60
PUBLIC ORDER	NATURAL RESOURCES	4.70
PUBLIC ORDER	TOBACCO	4.80
PUBLIC ORDER	GAMBLING	4.90
PUBLIC ORDER	BOATING	4.91
PUBLIC ORDER	OTHER PUB ORD	4.92
OTHER	HEALTH/MEDICAL	5.10
OTHER	BUSINESS	5.20
OTHER	ANIMALS	5.30
OTHER	OTHER CRIMINAL	5.40
OTHER	OTHER GOVT	5.50

[1]Note: When we look at this for determining the MS Convicting Charge, the same logic will apply, but we'll use the Convicting_Charge_Class instead of Charge_Class in #1; Convicting_Offense_Type in #2, Convicting_Offense_Subtype in #3.

To be used just for comparison purposes.

Table B2. DOC Hierarchy by Offense Type/Subtype

Violent	Murder/Manslaughter
Violent	Sex
Violent	Assault
Violent	Kidnap
Violent	Robbery
Violent	Other Violent
Public Order	Weapons
Public Order	OWI
Property	Burglary
Drug	Drug Possession, Trafficking, Other Drug
Property	Arson
Property	Forgery/Fraud
Property	Vandalism
Property	Theft
Public Order	Other Public Order
Other	Anmls/Bsnss/Hlth…
Property	Stolen Property
Public Order	Flight/Escape
Property	Other Property
Public Order	Natural Resources
Public Order	Traffic
Public Order	Gambling
Public Order	Alcohol
Public Order	Prostitution/Pimping
Public Order	Tobacco

[1]Note: When we look at this for determining the MS Convicting Charge, the same logic will apply, but we'll use the Convicting_Charge_Class instead of Charge_Class in #1; Convicting_Offense_Type in #2, Convicting_Offense_Subtype in #3.

APPENDIX C

CREATION OF MATCHED COMPARISON GROUP

1. All new prison admissions in FY2015 who were not newly admitted on a most serious domestic or sexual abuse conviction were placed into SPSS.

2. SPSS was used to randomize the cohort into a 25% sample, resulting in a cohort of 624 offenders.

3. The representativeness of the cohort of 624 offenders was tested using z-tests at a confidence level of 95%.

   a. To ensure the age, race or sex variables were not affecting the differences found between the two groups, the comparison group was matched to the study group on age, race and sex.

      i. Starting with sex, the percentage females comprised within the comparison group, differed significantly from percentage they comprised in the study group.

4. Therefore, within the 624 offenders, 108 women were removed to ensure the comparison group had a similar percentage of females as the study group.

   a. The 108 women removed were randomly selected by:

      i. Filtering out the women in Excel

      ii. Coding each woman as a one (1), two (2), or three (3)

      iii. Removing the 1's and 2's; totaling the removal of 96 women.

      iv. Then, every fourth woman was removed from the 3's resulting in the removal of another 12 women

v. Totaling the removal of 108 women overall, which allowed for the rest of the demographics to return a z-score that was not statistically significant, indicating that the two groups demographics did not differ from each other significantly.

5. This randomized sample was then combined with the study group offenders, resulting in a cohort of 1007 offenders.

   a. To control for time, the cohort of 624 offenders was further reduced in SPSS to create a smaller random matched sample.

6. SPSS was used again to randomize the cohort into a 30% sample, resulting in a cohort of 426 offenders.

7. Again, the representativeness of the cohort of 426 offenders was tested using z-tests at a confidence level of 95%.

   a. Age and sex returned a z-score that was not statistically significant, indicating that the two groups did not differ in terms of age and sex.

   b. Race, however, returned z-scores that were statistically significant for Whites and African-Americans, indicating that the percentages they comprised within the comparison group differed significantly from percentage they comprised in the study group.

8. Therefore, within the 426 offenders, 19 African-American offenders were removed again to ensure the comparison group had a similar percentage of African-American offenders as the study group.

   a. The 19 African-American offenders removed were randomly selected by:

      i. Filtering out African-American offenders in Excel

ii. Selecting every sixth offender to remove.

b. Next, within the 426 offenders with the 19 African-American offenders removed, 19 Caucasian females were added back into the sample to ensure that the groups did not differ significantly by White offenders.

i. The 19 Caucasian females added were randomly selected by:

1. Filtering for the females coded as a (1) that were previously removed in Excel

2. Selecting every eighth offender to be added back into the comparison group.

After this process was completed, z-tests were then used again to ensure the representativeness of the final cohort of 426 offenders. The outcomes of this analysis are in Table 1: Cohort Representativeness. Each group returned a z-score that was not statistically significant, indicating that the two groups did not differ from each other in terms of their age, race and sex.

APPENDIX D

COMBINED PRIOR CHARGES ANALYSES FOR CURRENT SEX OFFENSES

Table D1. Combined Prior Charges Analyses for Current Sex Offense

Variables	Odds Ratio	Standard Error	z-score
Age	0.98	0.0042	-4.67***
Sex	1.06	0.1951	0.34
Race	1.54	0.1265	5.23***
Prior Sex	100.11	28.47	16.20***
Prior Murder/Mansl.	1.68	1.4681	0.60
Prior Kidnap	1.35	0.3602	1.13
Prior Robbery	2.63	2.3017	1.11
Prior Assault	0.36	0.0360	-10.20***
Prior Forgery/Fraud	2.91	0.5412	5.75***
Prior Theft	1.42	0.1722	2.92**
Prior Vandalism	0.83	0.1554	-0.99
Prior Drug Trafficking	1.78	0.4667	2.20*
Prior Drug Possession	0.40	0.0673	-5.45***
Prior Weapons	1.06	0.4976	0.13
Prior OWI	0.55	0.1342	-2.45*
Prior Flight/Escape	1.21	0.2634	0.87
Prior Sex*Burglary[1]	1.64	0.2671	3.03**

[1]Sex*Burglary= (Prior Sex * Prior Burglary); an interaction term across offenses
***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

APPENDIX E

COMBINED PRIOR CHARGES ANALYSES FOR CURRENT ASSAULT OFFENSES

Table E1. Combined Prior Charges Analyses for Current Assault Offense

Variables	Odds Ratio	Standard Error	z-score
Age	1.02	0.0044	4.67***
Sex	0.94	0.1721	-0.34
Race	0.65	0.0535	-5.23***
Prior Sex	0.01	0.0028	-16.20***
Prior Murder/Mansl.	0.59	0.5178	-0.60
Prior Kidnap	0.74	0.1973	-1.13
Prior Robbery	0.38	0.3316	-1.11
Prior Assault	2.79	0.2803	10.20***
Prior Forgery/Fraud	0.34	0.0639	-5.75***
Prior Theft	0.70	0.0849	-2.92**
Prior Vandalism	1.20	0.2252	0.99
Prior Drug Trafficking	0.56	0.1472	-2.20*
Prior Drug Possession	2.53	0.4290	5.45***
Prior Weapons	0.94	0.4424	-0.13
Prior OWI	1.82	0.4451	2.45*
Prior Flight/Escape	0.83	0.1800	-0.87
Prior Sex*Burglary[1]	0.61	0.0995	-3.03**

[1]Sex*Burglary= (Prior Sex * Prior Burglary); an interaction term across offenses
***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05