

Linguistic analysis of suspected child sexual offenders' interactions in a dark web image exchange chatroom

Emily Chiang, Dong Nguyen, Amanda Towler, Mark Haas and Jack Grieve

Abstract

Child sexual offenders convene in dark web spaces to exchange indecent imagery, advice and support. In response, law enforcement agencies deploy undercover agents to pose as offenders online to gather intelligence on these offending communities. Currently, however, little is known about how offenders interact online, which raises significant questions around how undercover officers should 'authentically' portray the persona of a child sexual offender. This article presents the first linguistic description of authentic offender-offender interactions taking place on a dark web image exchange chatroom. Using move analysis, we analyse chatroom users' rhetorical strategies. We then model the move sequences of different users and user types using Markov chains, to make comparisons between their linguistic behaviours. We find the predominant moves characterising this chatroom are Offering Indecent Images, Greetings, Image Appreciation, General Rapport and Image Discussion, and that rhetorical strategies differ between users of different levels of offending and dark web image-sharing experience.

KEYWORDS: DARK WEB, CHILD SEXUAL ABUSE, INDECENT IMAGES OF CHILDREN, MOVE ANALYSIS, RHETORICAL STRUCTURE, UNDERCOVER POLICE

1. Introduction

Child sexual abuse (CSA) has received increasing attention from researchers since at least the 1980s (e.g., Finkelhor 1984; Marshall and Barbaree 1990); much of this work in recent decades focuses specifically on online contexts (e.g., O’Connell 2003; Craven, Brown and Gilchrist 2007; Briggs, Simon and Simonsen 2011; Black, Wollis, Woodworth and Hancock 2015; Kloess, Hamilton-Giachritsis and Beech 2017; Grant and MacLeod 2018; Chiang and Grant 2019). Traditionally the domain of psychology, there is a growing body of CSA research from linguistics, much of which focuses on computational methods of language analysis aiming to detect and classify ‘grooming’ conversations (e.g., Pranoto, Gunawan and Soewito 2015; al-Khateeb and Epiphaniou 2016; Gunawan, Ashianti, Candra and Soewito 2016; Cardei and Rebedea 2017). So-called ‘grooming’ conversations seem to have taken centre-stage in online CSA research from all domains, in part because of the wealth of data available from sites like *perverted-justice.com*, which display transcripts of interactions between convicted child sex offenders and adult ‘decoys’ posing as child victims (see, e.g., Black et al. 2015; Pranoto, Gunawan and Soewito 2015; Chiang and Grant 2017). Aside from the various limitations of working with data featuring adult decoys rather than genuine victims (most notably the inexact representation of actual victims and the impact of this on offending strategies), the overwhelming focus on offender–victim interactions has obscured other important types of online interaction that serve to facilitate CSA – namely, offender–offender interactions.

There is growing acknowledgment that adults with a sexual interest in children regularly convene in online spaces to exchange indecent imagery of children (IIOC), as well as to give advice and support regarding abusive behaviours and practices (Davidson and Gottschalk 2011; Westlake and Bouchard 2016). The ‘dark web’ – a collection of encrypted websites including chatrooms and fora that enables users to retain anonymity – facilitates interactions between offenders and grants a new level of protection against detection by law enforcement (MacLeod and Grant 2017). Combating the problem is therefore extremely difficult, particularly because tech-savvy offenders are able to move quickly across different fora, switching between any number of usernames and identities. In response, law enforcement agencies globally are increasingly using

undercover officers (UCs) to pose as offenders online (Urbas 2010; Mitchell, Wolak, Finkelhor and Jones 2012; MacLeod and Grant 2017). This permits the gathering of intelligence and evidence on the individuals operating in these spaces and the illegal activities they might be engaging in (e.g., producing and consuming IIOC), which in turn supports the disruption of offending networks and prosecution of suspected offenders.

One consequent challenge to this approach is that CSA-focused dark web communities tend to be highly suspicious of potential law enforcement infiltration (MacLeod and Grant 2017), and so it is paramount that UCs tasked with posing as offenders are able to do so as 'authentically' as possible (Grant and MacLeod 2020). Furthermore, UCs' freedom to perform as child sexual offenders is hindered by various operational constraints. For UCs in the UK (and other jurisdictions), one of the most significant of these – especially in communities in which IIOC exchange is an expected practice – is that they are not legally sanctioned to possess or share IIOC (Martellozzo 2015). It is easy to see how this could hamper the attempt to perform as interested and enthusiastic CSA offenders.

In online environments where few paralinguistic cues are available, the success of UCs is largely dependent on their careful use of language. As such, there is a clear need for linguists to help law enforcement combat crimes in this area. In particular, we know very little about how offenders interact with each other online, so our understanding of how UCs might attempt to communicate as offenders is limited. Of course, abuse-focused interactions between CSA offenders typically do not occur in open, clear web spaces, which makes access difficult. To our knowledge, only two such studies have analysed dark web interaction between CSA offenders. McManus, Almond, Cubbon, Boulton and Mears (2016) explored the themes of conversations between child sexual offenders using content analysis methods, finding dominant themes of child sexual interest and rapport, as well as adult relationships, the media and the sexual self. The authors compared the use of these themes between offenders who had engaged in contact abuse and those who perpetrated online abuse exclusively and found no significant differences between the two groups. Chiang (2018) had a slightly narrower focus, exploring through a form of discourse analysis known as move analysis (Swales 1981, 1990) a corpus of forum posts written by self-identifying

'newbies' attempting to join existing communities of CSA offenders on various dark web sites. Chiang found performances of competence and expertise in relation to offending behaviours to be a central element of newbies' attempts to persuade other forum users into granting community membership.

Understanding how language is used in these dark web spaces provides a basis for supporting UCs in the task of performing as CSA offenders online. Studies on adult-child interactions dominate research in this domain, while linguistic behaviours of whole CSA communities remain poorly understood. Greater insight into CSA interactions at the community level can support the disruption of large groups of offenders, a task which is not well addressed by analysing texts involving a single offender. Primarily, we provide the first description of the common rhetorical strategies used in online interactions between suspected child sexual offenders, based on a move analysis (Swales 1981, 1990) of a sample of chat-logs from a single chatroom. These chat-logs provide a rare opportunity to gain insight into how groups of suspected CSA offenders (who we refer to as either 'suspected offenders' or (chatroom) 'users') interact with each other online, making them a clear area of interest for law enforcement, particularly in the undercover context. We also compare the rhetorical strategies used by different types of users to better understand the communicative landscape in the chatroom and the different persona types encountered in this community. Two particularly important groups comprise those offenders who offer images and those who exert authority, as these users are likely among the most harmful in terms of perpetuating illegal image-sharing (and, therefore, contact abuse), and the most influential on the community as a whole. Our specific research questions are as follows:

1. What are the rhetorical moves used by suspected CSA offenders in group interactions and how frequently are they used?
2. What are the common move sequences of suspected CSA offenders in group interactions?
3. What are the differences in move sequences of image offerers and other users?
4. What are the differences in move sequences of authority figures and other users?

In the remainder of this article, we describe our dark web corpus and the methods used to describe the rhetorical structures observed and to compare the rhetorical strategies used by different user types. In addition to introducing move analysis, we will describe techniques for quantifying the rhetorical structures characterising different user types by measuring transition probabilities between moves and then for visualising, examining and comparing these transition matrices, using Markov chains. We then present the results of our analysis, including our full move system for this domain, and the comparison of image offerers and image non-offerers and authority figures and non-authority figures using these visualisation techniques. Finally, we consider the practical consequences of our results for law enforcement agencies conducting undercover investigations in this domain and offer some tentative take-home messages.

2. Methods and materials

2.1 Data

Our dataset consists of transcripts of chat-logs scraped from a single dark web chatroom focused on the exchange of IIOC, posted between 2015 and 2016. While exploring multiple chatrooms would have allowed us to observe language across a wide range of online CSA-related environments, this preliminary, small-scale project provides a starting point for better understanding general offender-offender chat, and our methods are applicable to any chatroom under investigation. The data were collected by Hyperion Gray (<https://www.hyperiongray.com>), who, notably, stripped all illegal content (i.e., images, videos, gifs) from the database, eliminating risk of exposure to researchers during analysis. We have chosen not to provide any real detail about the chatroom itself, other than to note that its primary purpose is to facilitate the exchange of IIOC. We have not named the chatroom, nor made our dataset publicly available. All textual examples we provide to illustrate the moves observed have been carefully selected so as to avoid giving any identifying or explicit/disturbing details. This means that examples may have been clipped from longer utterances or be generic approximations of actual utterances. All usernames, victim names, dark website names, place names and image links

(already disabled by the data provider) have been removed and replaced with descriptive terms, e.g., *subject name*, *site name*, *link* etc.

We extracted 200 samples from the site by collecting the content of every fiftieth chat-log page, working backwards from the most recent page. Chat-log pages each consist of 100 consecutive time-stamped conversational turns, except for the final page which has 79 turns, and often involve ten or more users. In total, our corpus contains a total of 5,590 users, 19,974 turns and 21,770 transcript lines.

This systematic approach to data sampling enabled us to build a broad general picture of the conversational topics and linguistic strategies employed in these group interactions, which is important to our primary goal of providing an overall linguistic description of the chatroom for undercover investigative purposes. However, we recognise certain limitations with selecting our data in this way: for example, 200 consecutive chat-log pages would have enabled us to account better for patterns of ongoing interaction including issues of turn-taking and topic management. Having said this, systematic sampling still allows us to trace individual users' linguistic strategies and consider the more typical moves and move transitions of users of various 'types'.

2.2 Move analysis

Move analysis is a linguistic framework for discourse analysis that seeks to capture the discrete communicative functions performed by particular segments of language in given communicative contexts (Swales 1990). Moves represent the overall goals of a text and may be broken down into lower-level goals (termed 'strategies' (Bhatia 1993)) which work to achieve those moves. The method was originally developed to describe academic genres for pedagogical purposes (Moreno and Swales, 2018), the most famous example being set out in Swales's (1990) Create A Research Space (CARS) model, which illustrates the moves and strategies of introductory sections of academic papers, e.g. establishing a niche and occupying the niche.

Move analysis has since gained popularity in numerous areas of research and been applied to a diverse range of genres, including online genres like product reviews (Skalicky 2013), LinkedIn profiles (Bremner and Phung 2015) and crowdfunding discourse (Liu and Deng 2016). It is still most

commonly applied to monologic texts, but its focus on the functions or actions performed by language means it also serves as a useful method for exploring how conversational goals are pursued dialogically. For example, Chiang and Grant (2017) observed that a commonly identified move in online child grooming conversations is rapport-building, which may be achieved through strategies such as giving compliments and eliciting statements of trust. The goal-oriented nature of move analysis makes it especially useful in forensic contexts where the communicative goals in question are often highly specific and unlawful.

Following methods used in Chiang and Grant (2017, 2019), our approach to developing a system for move analysis in this domain involved a manual turn-by-turn interpretation of the most likely function(s) of each user utterance. Identified functions were then grouped into higher-level moves and lower-level strategies. The data-driven coding system was developed iteratively as chat-logs were coded and re-coded, functions grouped and re-grouped, and new data continually introduced. The main advantage to this intuitive approach is that our analysis is based on careful linguistic judgment and expertise, which has allowed us to develop a system which we believe captures communicative functions in detail while remaining reasonably simple to use, and to train others in using. A downside, however, is that this sort of manual analysis is time-consuming (which is why our dataset was limited to 200 transcript pages). In the interest of simplicity, we also decided to focus on what we perceived to be the most pertinent function of each utterance (while recognising that there may be additional functions). Additionally, we line-separated individual turns where a sequence of two or more functions was clearly being realised in a single turn (turns split in this way were still counted as single turns). We also included a category for marking 'unclear' moves, which was used in cases where an utterance conceivably had more than one possible interpretation, but it was unclear which was dominant, or where an utterance had no clear interpretable function at all. This approach resulted in a system of 20 moves, including moves such as *Greetings*, *Offering IIOC* and *Image Discussion* (for the full system see Section 3.1 below).

Following initial coding of the full dataset by the first author, we conducted an inter-rater reliability test on a subset of the

data (543 lines or 2.5%). We acknowledge this sample size is a limitation, but our intention was to keep the test dataset small in order to offer some level of reassurance regarding the reliability of our analysis while limiting our team members' exposure to sensitive and disturbing data. Our test showed two coders (Author 1 and Author 2) reached 84% agreement regarding the primary functions of each utterance. This is well within the satisfactory range of agreement (see Stemler 2004) and, we believe, sufficient for this exploratory study, especially given the relative complexity of our system and of this domain in terms of numbers of active users at any point, and considering the lack of information denoting interactional structure as is characteristic of online fora (e.g., Reddit), as opposed to chatrooms. Where discrepancies arose, these were typically around distinguishing between expressions of rapport-building, image appreciation and user appreciation, as well as how minimal responses should be coded. These issues are addressed further in the results section, though it is worth noting that some amount of overlap between moves, especially in dialogue, is to be expected (see Chiang and Grant 2017, 2019).

2.3 Comparison of move sequences for different user types

Based on this linguistically coded data, we compared the move sequences that characterise the communicative repertoires of users, both individually and in the aggregate. To this end, we extracted all turns from each user in each of the samples and then represented each of these user instances (users may occur in multiple samples) as a string of moves. For example, a user might be represented as a sequence of three moves, ignoring intervening moves: *Greeting, Offering IIOC, Sign Off*.

To model user move sequences, for all 3,881 user instances consisting of at least two moves, we computed transition probabilities – the likelihood of one move being followed by another in one user's move sequence (sequences of a single move would not provide any transition probabilities). For example, if one move is always followed by a second move across all users' move sequences, then the transition probability between those two moves is 1, whereas if one move is followed by a second move half the time and a third move half the time, then the transition probabilities between the first move and the second and the third move is 0.5. Computing the transition probabilities between all pairs of moves across one or more

user instances yields a probability transition matrix for that sample of move sequences.

Our basic assumption is that such a probability transition matrix provides valuable information about the rhetorical strategies of the user or users they represent. Furthermore, we assume that, by comparing the transition matrices for different users or different sets of users (e.g., image offerers vs other users), we can better understand different rhetorical strategies of user ‘types’ in this online community.

We have focused on visualising these matrices by generating Markov chains (Spedicato, Kang, Yalamanchi, Thoralf, Yadav, Cordón, Jain and Giorgino 2019; Csárdi 2019), which are common stochastic models that describe a sequence of events where the likelihood of any given event occurring depends solely on the previous event in the sequence (Gagniuc 2017). In a Markov chain, each state – in this case a move – is represented by a vertex, and non-zero transitions between moves are represented by an arrow extending from the first vertex to the second vertex. By representing transition matrices as Markov chains, we are able to better understand the complex discourse patterns in the language of the different user types, facilitating comparisons between user types and how they tend to navigate rhetorically through this chatroom. For simplicity, across all the Markov chain visualisations we have trimmed any transitions less than .1, to facilitate interpretation by allowing us to focus on more common transitions. Notably, our visualisations do not depict the strength of transition probability, e.g., a 0.2 transition and a 0.5 transition are both indicated with a line (see Figures 1–5).

We recognise that our approach limits our study in at least two ways. Most importantly, we do not consider intervening turns from other users in this analysis: we simply model each user as an ordered string of their own turns. We made this decision because it is very difficult to reconstruct who is talking to whom in these chatrooms, which often involve ten or more users engaged in multiple conversations taking place simultaneously. Similarly, we only measured transition probabilities between pairs of turns and therefore did not consider how further preceding turns from the same user might affect use. Despite these issues, we believe our exploratory analysis provides a valuable description of the data and demonstrates for the first time how move analysis and Markov

models can be combined to describe discourse structure, and in this case to better understand the nature of CSA chatroom data. Crucially, given our results, as reported in the rest of this article, we highlight areas for further research in this domain, including the adoption of more complex methods for modelling move sequences using a considerably larger dataset.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 The move system

We identified a total of 20 moves (plus the ‘unclear’ category) across the 200 chat-log pages, which offer a simplified model of the language observed in this forum. Table 1, which is organised thematically, summarises these moves and presents basic information on their frequencies across the dataset (i.e., percentage of conversational turns in which they are observed). Themes or ‘Move types’ arose by observing those moves which seemed to naturally group together to describe a more general function. We recognise that other groupings may be interpreted; ours are presented merely to aid the summary of identified moves rather than being central to our analysis. We also briefly discuss a few very rare moves of potential interest to law enforcement. A table illustrating the full move system in order of frequency, including strategies and examples can be found in the appendix. Textual examples (often generic approximations) are provided where possible.

Table 1: Rhetorical moves of chatroom users

Move type	Move	Abbreviated name	Frequency (%)
Rapport	Greeting	Greet	15.84
	General Rapport	Rapport	8.81
	Sign Off	Leave	0.86
IIOC Exchange	Offering IIOC	Offer	30.19
	Requesting IIOC	Request	3.40
Image Discussion & Appreciation	Image Discussion	Img Dis	7.44
	Image Appreciation	Img App	12.89

	User Appreciation	User App	1.58
Assistance	Seeking Assistance	Seek Help	4.04
	Providing Assistance	Give Help	2.92
	Denying Assistance	Deny Help	0.06
Other Less Common	Expressing Opinion/Preference	Opinion	2.21
	Describing Experience	Experience	2.18
	Exerting Authority	Authority	2.43
	Showing Deference	Defer	0.26
	Judging Character	Judge	0.38
	Seeking User/Interaction Type	Seek User	1.94
	Law Enforcement Authority (LEA) Accusation	Accuse	0.03
	Meeting Planning	Meet	0.04
	Law Discussion	Legal	0.16
Unclear			2.33

A general noteworthy point is that, as seems common in dialogue-based move analyses (see Chiang and Grant 2017, 2019), there is a certain amount of strategy overlap across the moves. This is because a single utterance may perform different functions in different contexts. A simple ‘yes’, for example, could function to express agreement with another user, in which case it would be seen as a strategy of *General Rapport*, whereas if used in response to an inquiry about, say, efficient download methods, it would function as a strategy of *Providing Assistance*. Furthermore, one of the biggest difficulties of applying move analysis to dialogue (particularly multi-user dialogue) is that it is not always clear how utterances are functioning from the conversational context. This is especially problematic in relation to minimal positive responses like ‘cool’, ‘nice’, ‘sweet’ and ‘thanks’, which occur at a relatively high frequency and which are largely used without specification of what they might refer to (e.g., an image, comment, story, piece of advice etc.). In some cases, the distinction lies in the force of the utterance, e.g., warnings or instructions issued about community rules could function either as *Providing Assistance* or *Exerting Authority*.

The coder must interpret the most likely function of the utterance based on whatever contextual information is available. It is these sorts of difficulties that make the 'unclear' category necessary.

3.1.1 Rapport moves

Greeting moves are used to indicate a user's presence in the chatroom, to initiate interaction with other users and to respond to other greetings. These mostly involve typical greeting terms, such as 'hey', 'hi' and 'hello', and users may or may not address the group as a whole, for example 'hello all', 'hi room'. This move type accounts for 15.84% of all utterances and is the second most common move observed across the dataset.

General Rapport moves function to facilitate the building and maintenance of social relationships and the smooth/cooperative exchange of IIOC, and involves strategies like well-wishing, e.g., 'hope you're all well', politeness terms, e.g., 'sorry, i haven't got those pics' (emphasis added), and positive minimal responses, e.g., 'cool', 'lol', 'ok haha'. This move type accounts for 8.81% of utterances, making it the fourth most common move across the dataset. We acknowledge that various other identified moves (e.g., *Providing Assistance*, *Offering IIOC*) also likely work towards the development of rapport, so this move accounts for the more general conversational strategies involved in rapport-building.

Taken together, these two moves account for nearly a quarter of all user utterances and seem in themselves unremarkable in the online chat context. But in working to initiate, facilitate and sustain continued interaction between users, they provide an important background context against which the more specific goals associated with IIOC exchange are pursued, making them highly important aspects of this communicative context.

Finally, **Sign Off** moves function in a similar way to these other two rapport moves and, like *Greetings*, tend to be realised by typical sign off terms (e.g., 'bye', 'later all'). However, they are far less common, occurring in only 0.86% of utterances, indicating that it is more important to announce your presence in this chatroom than to signal your departure. This likely reflects a formal rule of user behaviour in this particular chatroom; some conversations in our data indicate that regular verbal contributions are required in order to sustain chatroom access.

3.1.2 IIOC Exchange

Offering IIOC is the move by which users either provide a link to indecent material (most commonly a still image or gif) or (far less frequently) make a verbal offer to provide such a link, e.g., ‘wanna see something?’ Offers may be to the group in general or a specified user. Accounting for nearly a third of all utterances (30.19%), this is the most common move observed, situating *Offering IIOC* as the central activity and primary function of the chatroom. While this overriding purpose may have been clear from the outset, the sheer volume of image offers we observed – 6,550 in just the relatively small proportion of dialogue we analysed – demonstrates what a serious problem chatrooms of this type pose.

Requesting IIOC moves function to directly request images of a specific type, e.g., ‘any *subject name*?’ or indirectly express general interest in receiving images, e.g., ‘who here likes to share?’ IIOC requests are far less frequent than offers, accounting for only 3.4% of utterances, suggesting that *Offering IIOC* may be a more effective approach to obtaining further material than merely requesting it. The relatively low frequency of this move suggests it is not an effective strategy for the acquisition of IIOC or for general social cohesion, and this is reflected in users’ responses to this move which frequently involve some form of reprimand.

3.1.3 Image Discussion and Appreciation

Image Discussion moves function to describe and discuss the images being exchanged in the immediate interaction. The focus of this move is on more objective details than positive evaluations. Prominent strategies include describing the content or subject of images, e.g., ‘red head’, and providing meta-information regarding image posting, e.g., ‘last one for today *link*’. This move accounts for 7.44% of utterances, making it the fifth most common move.

Image Appreciation moves account for those utterances which work to express a sense of appreciation or gratitude specifically in relation to posted imagery. Prominent strategies include complimenting images or victims, e.g., ‘*subject name* is perfect’, positive evaluations of images or victims, e.g., ‘hot’, ‘nice’, ‘cute’ and expressing sexual pleasure or physical arousal derived from image consumption, e.g., ‘mmmm’. This move is the third most common, accounting for 12.89% of all user

utterances. The high frequency of this move and of *Image Discussion* reflects the strongly social nature of this community, that is, images are not exchanged in a straightforward, business-like fashion, rather, they are typically consumed and enjoyed together as a social practice.

User Appreciation moves are similar but refer only to users themselves rather than imagery. They are far rarer than *Image Appreciation* moves, accounting for 1.58% of utterances, suggesting that these interactions tend to focus more on the images in question than individual users.

These three move types often proved difficult to tease out from each other, with many utterances overlapping. While they could have been grouped into a single more general 'Discussion' move, overall, it was deemed important to be able to demonstrate the more specific functions of each move where they were clearly observable.

3.1.4 Assistance

Seeking Assistance moves are used to obtain help, support or advice from other users in a range of areas. Common strategies include inquiring about the content or subject of an image, e.g., 'anyone know this girl's name?', how to locate and access imagery, e.g., 'can anyone help me find vids?', and about technical details of imagery, e.g., 'anyone happen to know what set # this is?' Other common strategies involve inquiring about the safety and security of the chatroom and similar online environments, e.g., 'is *site name* safe?', and inquiring about common practices and rules to which users are expected to adhere, e.g., 'can I make a request here?' This move accounts for 4.04% of utterances, making it the sixth most common.

Providing Assistance moves are not quite as frequent, accounting for 2.92% of utterances. Common strategies of this move include addressing inquiries about image content, chatroom rules and security, warning or advising about potentially risky behaviours, e.g., 'no names', and suggesting image access locations and methods, e.g., 'click the links button'. The less frequent use of this move compared with *Seeking Assistance* is likely because requests for assistance are often met with other more prominent moves, e.g., *Offering IIOC* and may involve *Providing Assistance* but as more of a secondary move.

Denying Assistance moves are far less common than either of the two previous moves, accounting for only 0.06% of

utterances in our dataset. This suggests that in general, users are motivated to assist each other in participating in the chatroom and accessing imagery. It would be interesting, however, to isolate from a larger dataset instances of *Denying Assistance*, to explore the methods of requesting help that might provoke this move.

3.1.5 Other Less Common Moves

A range of other observed moves (in descending order of frequency) include *Exerting Authority*, *Expressing Opinion/Preference*, *Describing Experience*, *Judging Character*, *Showing Deference*, *Law Discussion*, *Meeting Planning* and *LEA Accusation*.

Expressing Opinion/Preference moves are used to express opinions, preferences and stances, and debate issues which are not directly related to the immediate images being shared. They account for 2.21% of utterances. **Describing Experience**, which accounts for 2.18% of utterances, is similar in that it gives some sort of information about the user (whether this information is true or fabricated) but is wider reaching, functioning in a number of ways. First, it is used to share previous, current and planned sexual/abusive experiences and events (again, whether real or imagined). Second, it serves to demonstrate levels of (in)experience, (in)competence or (in)expertise regarding CSA offending, chatroom use and IIOC image exchange practices. Finally, it works to share personal information regarding users' lives, activities, technological practices and aspects of identity. Both moves work to tell us something about the users, and so combined, they may be the most useful in terms of building user profiles. Having said this, together they account for only 4.39% of the utterances observed, showing that users are not particularly forthcoming with regard to personal information, which is expected given the high level of risk and low level of trust in this environment.

Some moves give potential clues about users' roles and statuses within the chatroom community. **Exerting Authority** moves (2.43%), for example, are principally about challenging other users or being generally uncooperative. This may be done at a group level, by issuing orders about chatroom practices and behaviour, or by challenging the behaviour of an individual user. Less common is **Showing Deference** (0.26%), a move approximately opposed to *Exerting Authority*. Its main functions

include deferring to or complying with other users' commands, judgments and instructions, and showing extreme admiration or respect towards others. It is easy to see how the former might be associated with users of greater experience in both CSA offending in general and chatroom use/IIOC exchange, and the latter with less experienced, newer chatroom users. **Judging Character** (0.38%) is also related to these moves, as its main function is to gauge information about other users (which may or may not indicate relative experience or status), particularly regarding interests, experiences, histories, behaviours and tendencies. Characterised by inquiries, this move often functions reciprocally with *Describing Experience*. Another related move is **Seeking User/Interaction Type** (1.94%), by which users seek out and initiate interaction with a user of specified characteristics, experiences or interests.

Certain moves identified, even very rare ones, may be of particular interest in the investigative context. **LEA Accusation** is perhaps the most important in terms of undercover tasks; clearly having some understanding of what triggers users to accuse others of having involvement with law enforcement authorities would be extremely useful for UCs assuming offender identities online. Unfortunately, its scarcity in our dataset (0.03%) means we cannot investigate this in any detail, but its presence is nonetheless interesting. In future work we aim to target these accusations as a point of interest across both chatroom and forum data in order to explore accusation triggers explicitly. Other rare moves of interest are **Meeting Planning** (0.04%), which might provide an indicator of those individuals making genuine plans to co-offend in offline abusive events, and **Law Discussion** (0.16%), which can provide insights into how law enforcement goals and methods are perceived by suspected CSA offenders online.

3.1.6 Move analysis outcomes

The majority of moves identified (15/20) each make up only a small percentage of the total content of the interactions (between 0.03% and 4.04%), although some of them certainly seem worthy of closer examination in the investigative context. The five most common moves (*Offering IIOC*, *Greetings*, *Image Appreciation*, *General Rapport* and *Image Discussion*) account for over 75% of all conversational contributions, and most clearly characterise these interactions in general. It seems fair

to assume, then, that the successful participation in this particular community would likely involve at least some of these moves. This has positive and negative implications for covert operations. Arguably it is beneficial that the majority of interactional work undertaken by these chatroom users involves just a small set of somewhat straightforward linguistic behaviours; users will enter the chatroom, greet other users, possibly share some indecent material, comment on images shared by others, and use general rapport strategies to ensure they maintain a positive relationship with the community. For undercover agents, perhaps with limited time to prepare for such an assignment, it is therefore probably possible to 'pass' as a genuine chatroom user by focusing just on some subset of these five high-frequency moves, without having to expend lots of time learning how and when it might be appropriate to use the rarer, more nuanced moves. Of course, the biggest difficulty is that the single most common move (*Offering IIOC*) is often legally unavailable to UCs and depends on jurisdiction. It is possible then that UCs would have to make up for this in other ways, perhaps by increasing their use of moves which demonstrate rapport building, gratitude and interest in others' posted content, so that they can still provide some kind of valuable contribution to the community.

3.2. Comparison of rhetorical strategies

3.2.1 All users

We first explored typical move transitions of the user group as a whole, before looking to describe different user types. This provided a basis for more focused comparisons to understand how various defined user types differ from the general communicative patterns we have discovered in this domain. It also allowed us to compare how the communications of different user types vary from this general model. Figure 1 illustrates common move transitions of all 3,881 users across the 200 chat-log samples (labels used in the figures are abbreviated descriptive approximations of the full move names).

[FIGURE 1 NEAR HERE]

Figure 1: Common move transitions of all users (transition under .10 trimmed).

This Markov chain illustrates common move transitions for all user instances (3,881 in total). For example, users commonly follow *Image Requests* with the moves *Image Appreciation*, *Offering IIOC* or a further image request, but not with, say, *Image Discussion*. What is immediately clear from this visualisation is that, while some moves might typically follow a small number of moves, others tend to follow a very wide range of moves with very little constraint on when they are used, thereby occurring in a central position in our Markov chains. We refer to these moves as *attractors* and we believe they reveal something about the central communicative strategies of the user or users being represented.

The strongest examples here are *Image Appreciation*, *Offering IIOC* and *General Rapport*, all of which tend to follow a wide range of different moves. To some extent these moves act as attractors for other moves because of their frequency: these are three of the top four most common moves across the dataset. However, *Greeting* is the second most common move and does not act as an attractor, and the same is true of *Image Discussion*, which is the fifth most common move. These results demonstrate that these three attractor moves are employed with more freedom than others as they can follow many other moves, whereas *Image Discussion*, for example, tends to only follow an *Offering IIOC* or itself.

A second notable point is that some moves commonly repeat themselves, i.e., users may employ the same move over two or more consecutive utterances. In the visualisations, these are represented as loops (which we refer to as 'move loops'). From Figure 1 we can see that loops occur with all moves except *Sign Off*, *User Appreciation*, and *Law Discussion*. It makes sense that *Sign Offs* would not typically be followed by further *Sign Offs*, but there is no inherent reason for the lack of looping with the other two moves.

Overall, the Markov chain visualisation shows that *Offering IIOC* and *General Rapport* are the most fundamental rhetorical goals for users of this chatroom, with *Image Appreciation* also functioning as an important auxiliary move. This supports the theory that, in this particular chatroom, it is the norm to approach the goal of sharing and consuming IIOC in a friendly, discursive manner.

3.2.2 Image offerers and image non-offerers

Because it is of investigative value to understand which users are sharing IIOC, and because undercover agents working in the UK and many other jurisdictions are not legally permitted to share IIOC themselves, we are particularly interested in looking at users who offer imagery compared with those who do not. For undercover agents it seems especially useful to observe how image non-offerers tend to participate in this community. Searching just for user instances consisting of at least two moves where at least one of these moves involves *Offering IIOC* identified 1,313 user instances in total across the dataset. Associated move transitions for these users are illustrated in Figure 2.

[FIGURE 2 NEAR HERE]

Figure 2: Move transitions of suspected offenders who used the *Offering IIOC* move.

Again, one of the first things we notice are the main attractors, which tend to follow a wide range of different moves. Because we are searching only for user instances of *Offering IIOC* here, it is not surprising that this move follows the highest number of other moves, especially given the overall model presented in Figure 1. Nevertheless, the centrality of this move is still notable, especially because only two moves in our entire system do not regularly precede an offer, *Meeting Planning* and *LEA Accusation*, which are the two least frequent moves overall. They are not included in Figure 2 because they do not reach the transition probability threshold of 0.1 with any other moves in these user samples. Every other move in our system regularly occurs before image offers (i.e., they tend to be followed by image offers at least 10% of the time) across these 1,313 user instances.

The main interpretation of this result is that *Offering IIOC* can be used extremely freely – essentially after any other move observed in our data. This makes sense, as we know that obtaining IIOC is the main goal for all users, and so the *Offering IIOC* move is unlikely to draw complaints wherever it may feature in a user's string of moves. It is also effectively impossible to predict when this move will be used based on a user's previous turn.

In addition to *Offering IIOC*, other common attractor moves for these user instances include *Image Discussion* and *General Rapport*. This indicates that behaviours associated with offering and discussing images and building rapport are particularly prominent for those who share imagery and that the deployment of these moves is relatively unconstrained. The bidirectional transitions between *Offering IIOC* and *Image Discussion* are also notable as this demonstrates that these users frequently discuss their own uploaded images, not just those of other users. This usually occurs in the form of some commentary on the image in question, either immediately before or after it is posted. Like the group as a whole, image offerers also engage in move loops of various kinds. Moves which tend not to appear in users' consecutive turns include *Law Discussion*, *Providing Assistance*, *Judging Character*, *Greeting*, *Sign Off*, *User Appreciation* and *Image Discussion*. Surprisingly, image offerers were also seen to use the *Requesting IIOC* move, and even loops of this move. It is possible that those who offer IIOC are socially sanctioned to request material to a greater degree than those who do not.

Perhaps surprisingly, we observed a higher number of user instances in which no image offers occur (2,568), although this is because we are looking at only short strings in this instance (i.e., two or more consecutive user turns); had we looked at only users with longer turns (e.g., at least 10), then image non-offerers are very much in the minority. This shows that users are typically expected in this chatroom to contribute IIOC as well as to consume it.

[FIGURE 3 NEAR HERE]

Figure 3: Move transitions of suspected offenders who did not use the *Offering IIOC* move.

Alternatively, the rhetorical structure for users who did not offer images, as visualised by the Markov chain presented in Figure 3, is very different to the rhetorical structure we observed for image offerers. Not only is there necessarily a lack of the offer move, which was central in the previous model, but the most significant attractor moves to surface for these users are *General Rapport* and *Image Appreciation* and, to a lesser extent, *Describing Experience*. For a group who essentially take on the role of image consumer rather than image offerer, these

moves and transitions are understandable, but it is important to confirm that these patterns are supported by the data. In particular, it points to the importance of commenting on images, expressing appreciation and building general rapport in this community if one does not engage directly in picture sharing.

From a practical standpoint, this is important information that can inform the behaviour of UCs who cannot share indecent images online. For example, it appears that these users are characterised by the prominent use of moves depicting rapport building, expressions of gratitude and the sharing of experience, which facilitates their successful participation in this community. The frequent use of experience moves appears to be especially notable: if users do not share images, it appears that they should at least share experiences in order to demonstrate their engagement with these illegal activities, presumably in part to establish their credibility with community members. This type of information could certainly inform UCs' performance as genuine CSA offenders online. It is also reassuring from an investigative perspective that such a large number of users seem to participate in this community without sharing imagery, although as we noted above, unfortunately this number drops dramatically if we focus on more active users.

Additionally, it is notable that these users also make requests for imagery, and that these are typically followed by further image requests, *Image Appreciation* or *General Rapport*. Crucially, based on the coded transcripts, we know that direct requests for imagery are often met with the *Exerting Authority* move, typically in the form of reprimands and reminders that the purpose of the chatroom is not to request images. It is easy to imagine that users who request imagery, particularly without engaging in the more socially positive behaviours related to rapport and appreciation, might not be so successful in their engagements with this community.

Overall, the most important differences between the two groups seem to be the *Image Appreciation* and *Describing Experience* moves, both of which feature centrally for non-offerers and only minimally for offerers. An interesting similarity is that both *Requesting IIOC* and *Exerting Authority* are used by both groups and appear to have roughly equal status (i.e. neither is more 'central' to either group), whereas it would be reasonable to expect these moves to discriminate between

offerers and non-offerers in some way.

As well as providing information on the rhetorical structures around image offering, our dataset also provides an interesting opportunity to gather statistical information on offending behaviours of potential investigative value. According to Section 160 of the Criminal Justice Act (Home Office 2003) it is against UK law to possess, take, make (including downloads), distribute or share IIOC (Home Office n.d). From our coded data, we found that out of 3,881 user instances consisting of at least two turns, 1,313 (34%) used the *Offering IIOC* move and 1,421 (37%) used the *Image Appreciation* move, which shows users' positive reactions to the IIOC being shared, suggesting that these users have clicked the offered links and thus become consumers of the material. Overall, 2,510 of the user instances in our dataset have used at least one of these two moves, providing evidence that a majority of these users (65%) have plausibly engaged in illegal behaviours. Furthermore, these numbers rise drastically if we focus on user instances characterised by longer turn sequences. For example, if we look at the 377 user instances with at least 10 turns, then 314 (83%) provide pictures, suggesting that, over time, most highly active users will eventually engage in illegal activity online. Of course, these are just indicators of user offence rates rather than robust evidence, but they nevertheless provide a useful starting point for understanding the rates of criminal activity that are facilitated by these sorts of online communities and environments.

3.2.3 Authority figures and non-authority figures

Another important consideration is the comparative move sequences of users who employ the *Exerting Authority* move (which is used to challenge another user in some way) and those who do not. We informally refer to users of the move as 'authority figures' but recognise that its mere use does not necessarily indicate that a user holds the status of authority figure within the group. By isolating those who use this move, however, we are able to capture the move transitions of a group of users who are at least more likely to occupy this position. Authority figures are interesting from an investigative perspective and are a useful target group for UC identity assumption because they likely have a greater influence on the community and its practices than non-authority figures; a small number of these users, often referred to as 'mods' (moderators)

or ‘admins’ (administrators) by other users in our samples, hold official gatekeeping roles and work to monitor user behaviour and generally uphold the rules that govern the chatroom. Also, it is plausible that authority figures have acquired such status, at least in part, through the demonstration of offending experience, including the provision of large amounts of IIOC, making this group an investigative priority.

Figures 4 and 5 illustrate typical move transitions for authority and non-authority figures. Notably, there are relatively few users who make authority moves – only 292 user instances out of the 3,881 user instances consisting of two or more moves (8%), as opposed to 3,589 user instances who do not use authority moves. Overall, in addition to the presence and absence of the *Exerting Authority* move, these two sets of users are quite different from each other. In particular, the Markov chain for authority figures is quite distinctive from the other chains presented thus far, whereas the Markov chain for non-authority figures is very similar to the Markov chain for the complete set of users as presented in Figure 1. This is unremarkable, as these two chains are based largely on the same user sets, as there are so few authority figures. We therefore focus primarily on interpreting the Markov chain for authority figures.

[FIGURE 4 NEAR HERE]

Figure 4: Move transitions of suspected offenders who used the *Exerting Authority* move.

[FIGURE 5 NEAR HERE]

Figure 5: Move transitions of suspected offenders who did not use the *Exerting Authority* move.

In terms of similarities between the two groups, both *General Rapport* and *Offering IIOC* feature as central attractor moves, although interestingly, *Offering IIOC* tends to follow a greater range of moves for non-authority figures. This may indicate that non-authority figures need to a greater extent to establish credibility by offering images, whereas there is not so much pressure in this regard for those who adopt an authoritative position in the community. In fact, out of the 292 user instances that contain the *Exerting Authority* move, only 84 also contain

an image offer (29%), whereas out of the 3,589 user instances that do not contain the *Exerting Authority* move, 1,229 contain offer moves (34%). This offers a potentially important insight for UCs: if they are unable to share pictures, an alternative way to establish an authentic offender persona may be to adopt the role of an authority figure. It seems highly likely, however, that this kind of role must be built up through extended interaction and relationship building with and within the community, including the provision of IIOC, so this strategy is perhaps more useful for UCs attempting to assume the identities of specific known offenders rather than a more generic offender persona. Understanding the typical communicative strategies of authority figures can also assist in a more general investigative assessment of the community and its goals and users, especially in terms of those with the most influence who may pose the highest risk.

Another clear difference between the two groups concerns the *Image Appreciation* move, which is a stronger attractor for non-authority figures than for authority figures. It seems reasonable to expect those more likely to occupy a lower group status to engage more in behaviours around expressing appreciation towards other users, much as we found for image non-offerers. Again, this has important ramifications for UCs: whereas regularly expressing appreciation is an important part of acting authentically if one is to adopt the persona of an image non-offerer, the opposite is true if one is to adopt the persona of an authority figure. Understanding these subtle differences in the different personae is potentially crucial for UCs to construct authentic offender identities in these communities.

Another less obvious difference is a stronger tendency for move sequences to lead to *Providing Assistance* in authority figures, compared with a stronger tendency for move sequences to lead to *Seeking Assistance* in non-authority figures. This result is consistent with the assumption that higher-status authority figures have more experience in using this chatroom and are therefore better equipped to help other users, whereas non-authority figures with less experience would be more likely to need and request some form of help. This finding echoes Chiang (2018), who noted that around a quarter of her sample of 'newbie' suspected offenders used a move identified as *Seeking Support* in their introductory forum posts to existing offending communities, whereas no move pertaining to the

provision of support or assistance was observed.

Overall, we see clear differences between authority figures and non-authority figures in this community, which we believe offer some practical guidance for UCs attempting to adopt these different offender personas online. This approach, however, is just one method of testing the possible differences between high- and low-status users, and empirical testing with data featuring users of 'known' status is needed in order to make any strong claims regarding this issue. Further work needs to be undertaken to truly understand the different linguistic behaviours of high- and low-status CSA offenders, but our analysis has demonstrated one way that assumptions about user behaviour might be operationalised and tested.

9. Conclusions and recommendations for law enforcement

It has previously been shown that linguistic analysis can have a positive impact on law enforcement practices in the online undercover context (see Grant and MacLeod 2016, 2018; MacLeod and Grant 2017). In this study, we have aimed to build on this work by addressing some important questions around how CSA offenders interact with each other online. While we have only just scratched the surface, we have described a discourse in an important domain that has received very little attention in the past, and we believe our findings could have a number of practical implications for agents working undercover in online CSA-focused environments.

By describing the rhetorical strategies used by suspected offenders through a novel combination of move analysis and Markov models, we have captured a sense of the interactional goals they strive to achieve, as well as some of the ways they go about doing so. Quantifying the overall move frequencies has demonstrated that most of the interactional work taking place in this chatroom involves just a small number of moves. The sobering conclusion is that the most common and most freely employed move is *Offering IIOC*, which is entirely unavailable to UCs. However, we have also seen some of the rhetorical structures employed by those users who did not offer imagery, and our descriptions of these move patterns can be used as a basis for UCs aiming to construct discourse in this environment authentically as image non-sharing offenders. Additionally, it is important to note that the remaining 19 moves are available to

UCs, and while many of these will certainly prove demanding in various ways, some of the most common seem fairly straightforward to employ (i.e., those associated with greeting the group, rapport building and expressing appreciation). We have also identified some far rarer moves such as *Meeting Planning* and *LEA Accusation*, which could be extremely important in the investigative context. At the very least, they warrant closer investigation in the future if we are to better understand both the rhetorical steps that can lead to offline meetings between offenders and the linguistic triggers that raise suspicion around chatroom users' potential involvement in law enforcement.

Looking at the common moves of the chatroom users in general also gives us an idea of which moves tend to follow others, and, perhaps most importantly, which moves tend to feature as the centralised attractors of the interactions. From Figure 1, we saw that offers of imagery, expressions of appreciation and rapport-building work are perhaps the most fundamental and freely used moves in this particular chatroom. Understanding the most integral moves and move sequences could provide UCs with a basic awareness of the nature of the chatroom, its functions and its users' linguistic behaviours – and expectations about the linguistic behaviours of others.

Potentially, one of our most important findings regarding undercover work is that there were many user instances in which no IIOC offers were made. It would make sense, then, that UK UCs tasked with performing as CSA offenders would be best to emulate this style of image non-sharing offender communication and focus their efforts on these particular moves and move sequences. Our findings indicate that important moves for this group include *General Rapport*, *Image Appreciation* and *Describing Experience*.

Finally, we explored some discursal differences between possible authority and non-authority figures. This analysis was merely a test of our assumptions as to the likely linguistic behaviours of the two user types. Having a sense of how authority figures interact could help UCs not only to identify and prioritise the most prolific offenders, but also to learn the linguistic behaviours (besides *Offering IIOC*) that contribute to users' successful ongoing community participation, and even the maintenance of high status and respect within the community. Further to this, understanding and emulating the

way newer or less-experienced users participate in these interactions could be equally useful because UCs who are tasked with performing as CSA offenders without actually sharing any of the relevant experience may find it a simpler, less cognitively and emotionally demanding task to approach such an online community as an inexperienced but 'interested' party, rather than one with substantive experience of abusing. Better understanding of the differences between authoritative, experienced users and non-authoritative, inexperienced users could be useful for both offender prioritisation and online identity assumption in investigative police work, and in future work we plan to test the issue with users of known status, i.e., those identifying as and identified by others as chatroom moderators and administrators.

By exploring these issues, we have further demonstrated the utility of linguistic and computational methods of analysis in the online investigative context, and we have begun to address the current gap in our understanding of offender-offender interactions. The fact that this chatroom exists around the exchange of IIOC perhaps makes it operationally one of the most difficult online environments for UCs to participate in, and feedback from law enforcement agencies on this work has been positive. We hope that our research will provide a basis for the development of training materials which can be delivered to law enforcement agencies, particularly in the areas of online identity assumption and offender prioritisation.

Specifically, on the basis of this research we tentatively offer the following take-home messages for undercover law enforcement agents posing online as child sexual offenders in image exchange chatrooms and fora:

- High-frequency available moves, e.g., *Greetings*, *Image Appreciation*, *General Rapport*, *Image Discussion*, may be the easiest way to 'blend in' with the crowd. In particular, *Image Appreciation* and *General Rapport* are used most freely, i.e., these moves can follow most others and are especially important for image non-offerers.
- *Requesting IIOC* is likely to be an unsuccessful move in general, but particularly for image non-offerers, likely to provoke reprimand, especially when used without more socially positive moves like *General Rapport* and *Image Appreciation*.
- *Describing Experience* may be a useful strategy for

demonstrating credibility in lieu of offering imagery.

- Few users employ *Exerting Authority* moves, but authority figures may be under less pressure to provide imagery than non-authority figures.
- *Providing Assistance* was more strongly associated with authority figures, and *Seeking Assistance* was more strongly associated with non-authority figures.
- Overall, users of this forum approach the exchange of IIOC as a friendly, discursive and social practice, not as a straightforward business-like transaction.

We have presented a novel approach to examining typical rhetorical structures of CSA-focused image-exchange chatroom interactions on the dark web. Our methods have enabled us to test assumptions regarding how individuals use this sort of chatroom, and to better understand users' linguistic behaviours, rather than relying on assumptions alone. Building on this work in the future, we aim to conduct more in-depth analyses regarding the questions proposed in this article, and to continue investigating dark web fora in CSA and other domains. We also aim to expand on our analytical methods, enabling us to focus on other aspects of the language, such as specific lexical items, interactional patterns and matters of turn-taking and topic control. This wider range of methods will enable us to build a fuller picture of the linguistic behaviours of online offenders, help us to better understand how UCs should interact over longer stretches of discourse and enable us to make more confident and detailed recommendations for undercover agents in this and other dark web domains.

Acknowledgements

About the authors

Emily Chiang is a postdoctoral research associate at the Aston Institute for Forensic Linguistics. She explores linguistic expressions of identity in online sexual abuse interactions. Current research interests include self-styled 'paedophile-hunting' groups and linguistic variation over the lifespan.

Dong Nguyen was previously a Fellow at the Alan Turing Institute, and is now an assistant professor at Utrecht University.

She has worked on various topics in Natural Language Processing and Information Retrieval, and is especially interested in computational text analysis for research questions from the social sciences.

Amanda Towler is a computer security analyst at Hyperion Gray.

Mark Haas is a senior engineer at Hyperion Gray.

Jack Grieve is a professor of corpus linguistics at the University of Birmingham. His research interests include corpus linguistics, sociolinguistics, and forensic linguistics.

References

- al-Khateeb, H. M. and Epiphaniou, G. (2016) How technology can mitigate and counteract cyber-stalking and online grooming. *Computer Fraud & Security* 1: 14–18. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1361-3723\(16\)30008-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1361-3723(16)30008-2)
- Bhatia, V. K. (1993) *Analysing Genre: Language Use in Professional Settings*. Abingdon, Oxon: Pearson Education.
- Black, P. J., Wollis, M., Woodworth, M. and Hancock, J. T. (2015) A linguistic analysis of grooming strategies of online child sex offenders: implications for our understanding of predatory sexual behaviour in an increasingly computer-mediated world. *Child Abuse & Neglect* 44: 140–149. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2014.12.004>
- Bremner, S. and Phung, B. (2015) Learning from the experts: an analysis of résumé writers' self-presentation on LinkedIn. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication* 58(4): 367–380. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TPC.2016.2519319>
- Briggs, P., Simon, W. T. and Simonsen, S. (2011) An exploratory study of Internet-initiated sexual offenses and the chat room sex offender: Has the Internet enabled a new typology of sex offender? *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research and Treatment* 23(1): 72–91. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1079063210384275>
- Cardei, C. and Rebedea, T. (2017) Detecting sexual predators in chats using behavioral features and imbalanced learning. *Natural Language Engineering* 23(4): 589–616. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1351324916000395>
- Chiang, E. (2018) Rhetorical moves and identity performance in online child sexual abuse interactions. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Centre for Forensic Linguistics, Aston University, Birmingham.
- Chiang, E. and Grant, T. (2017) Online grooming: moves and strategies. *Language and Law/Linguagem e Direito* 4(1): 103–141.

- Chiang, E. and Grant, T. (2019) Deceptive identity performance: offender moves and multiple identities in online child abuse conversations. *Applied Linguistics* 40(4): 675–698. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amy007>
- Craven, S., Brown, S. and Gilchrist, E. (2007) Current responses to sexual grooming: implication for prevention. *The Howard Journal of Criminal Justice* 46(1): 60–71. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2311.2007.00454.x>
- Csárdi, G. (2019) *igraph: Network Analysis and Visualization*. R package version 1.2.4. Retrieved in March 2019 from: <https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/igraph/index.html>
- Davidson, J. and Gottschalk, P. (2011) Characteristics of the Internet for child sexual abuse by online groomers. *Criminal Justice Studies* 24(1): 23–36. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1478601X.2011.544188>
- Finkelhor, D. (1984) *Child Sexual Abuse: New Theory and Research*. New York: Macmillan.
- Gagniuc, P. A. (2017) *Markov Chains: From Theory to Implementation and Experimentation*. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119387596>
- Grant, T. and MacLeod, N. (2016) Assuming identities online: experimental linguistics applied to the policing of online paedophile activity. *Applied Linguistics* 37(1): 50–70. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amv079>
- Grant, T. and MacLeod, N. (2018) Resources and constraints in linguistic identity performance: a theory of authorship. *Language and Law/Linguagem e Direito* 5(1): 80–96.
- Grant, T. and MacLeod, N. (2020) *Language and Online Identities: The Undercover Policing of Internet Sexual Crime* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108766425>
- Gunawan, F. E., Ashianti, L., Candra, S. and Soewito, B. (2016)** Detecting online child grooming conversation. *Proceedings from the 11th International Conference on Knowledge, Information and Creativity Support Systems, 2016*. Yogyakarta, Indonesia. <https://doi.org/10.1109/KICSS.2016.7951413>
- Home Office. (n.d.) *Indecent Images of Children: Guidance for Young People*. [Online]. Retrieved in February 2019 from: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/indecent-images-of-children-guidance-for-young-people/indecent-images-of-children-guidance-for-young-people>
- Home Office. (2003) *Criminal Justice Act 2003*. Retrieved in February 2019 from: <https://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/2003/44/contents>
- Kloess, J. A., Hamilton-Giachritsis, C. E. and Beech, A. R. (2017) Offense processes of online sexual grooming and abuse of children via internet communication platforms. *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research and Treatment* 31(1): 1–24. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1079063217720927>
- Liu, J. and Deng, L. (2016) A genre analysis of web-based crowdfunding

- discourse. *Asian ESP Journal* 12(2): 171–202.
- MacLeod, N. and Grant, T. (2017) ‘go on cam but dnt be dirty’: linguistic levels of identity assumption in undercover online operations against child sex abusers. *Language and Law/Linguagem e Direito* 4(2): 157–175.
- Marshall, W. L. and Barbaree, H. E. (1990) An integrated theory of the etiology of sexual offending. In W. L. Marshall, D. R. Laws and H. E. Barbaree (eds) *Handbook of Sexual Assault: Issues, Theories, and Treatment of the Offender* 257–275. New York: Plenum.
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4899-0915-2_15
- Martellozzo, E. (2015) Policing online child sexual abuse – the British experience. *European Journal of Policing Studies* 4(1): 32–52.
- McManus, M. A., Almond, L., Cubbon, B., Boulton, L. and Mears, I. (2016) Exploring the online communicative themes of child sex offenders. *Journal of Investigative Psychology and Offender Profiling* 13(2): 166–179.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/jip.1450>
- Mitchell, K. J., Wolak, J., Finkelhor, D. and Jones, L. (2012) Investigators using the Internet to apprehend sex offenders: findings from the Second National Juvenile Online Victimization Study. *Police Practice and Research* 13(3): 267–281. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15614263.2011.627746>
- Moreno, A. and Swales, J. (2018) Strengthening move analysis methodology towards bridging the function–form gap. *English for Specific Purposes* 50: 40–63. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2017.11.006>
- O’Connell, R. (2003) A typology of cyber sexploitation and online grooming practices. Preston, England: Cyberspace Research Unit, University of Central Lancashire. Retrieved in February 2019 from:
http://netsafe.org.nz/Doc_Library/racheloconnell1.pdf.
- Pranoto, H., Gunawan, F. E. and Soewito, B. (2015) Logistic models for classifying online grooming conversation. *Procedia Computer Science* 59: 357–365. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procs.2015.07.536>
- Skalicky, S. (2013) Was this analysis helpful? A genre analysis of the Amazon.com discourse community and its ‘most helpful’ product reviews. *Discourse, Context & Media* 2(2): 84–93.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dcm.2013.04.001>
- Spedicato, G. A., Kang, T. S., Yalamanchi, S. B., Thoralf, M., Yadav, D., Cordón, I., Jain, V. and Giorgino, T. (2019) *markovchain: Easy Handling Discrete Time Markov Chains*. R package version 0.6.9.14. Retrieved in March 2019 from:
<https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/markovchain/index.html>
- Stemler, S. E. (2004) A comparison of consensus, consistency, and measurement approaches to estimating interrater reliability. *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation* 9(4): [pages?](#).
- Swales, J. (1981) *Aspects of Article Introductions: Aston ESP Research Reports No. 1*. Language Studies Unit, Aston University, Birmingham.
- Swales, J. (1990) *Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research Settings*.

Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Urbas, G. (2010). Protecting Children From Online Predators: The Use of Covert Investigation Techniques by Law Enforcement. *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice*, 26 (4): 410--425.

Westlake, B. and Bouchard, M. (2016) Liking and hyperlinking: community detection in online child sexual exploitation networks. *Social Science Research* 59: 23–36. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssresearch.2016.04.010>

Appendix: Table illustrating full move system

Table 2: Moves observed in online offender–offender interactions around the exchange of IIOC

Move	Abbreviated name	Frequency (%)	Function(s)	Common strategies
Offering IIOC	Offer	30.19	To offer or provide IIOC to chatroom users (in general or specific user)	Providing links to IIOC Offering to provide IIOC links
Greeting	Greet	15.84	To indicate user's presence in chatroom To initiate interaction	Generic greeting terms (and variants) Greeting term + gif or emoji
Image Appreciation	Img App	12.89	To simultaneously discuss imagery and express appreciation/gratitude	Complimenting images/victims General positive evaluations of image/victim Expressing sexual pleasure/physical arousal derived from image consumption
General Rapport	Rapport	8.81	To facilitate the building of positive social relationships and smooth/cooperative exchange of IIOC To sustain continued interaction/conversation flow	Well-wishing Politeness terms Positive minimal responses Discussing topics outside of IIOC/CSA Supporting sexual narrative with questions/comments Indicating/explaining temporary absences
Image Discussion	Img Dis	7.44	To describe or opine about images being exchanged in immediate interaction	Describing content/subject(s) of images

				Expressing preferences for particular images/victims
				Providing meta-info regarding image posting
Seeking Assistance	Seek Help	4.04	To obtain help, support or advice (e.g., technical issues, accessing IIOC/victim, moral issues)	Inquiring about image content/subject Inquiring about image access/location methods Inquiring about safety and security of IIOC exchange Reporting moral issues/struggles associated with CSA offending
Requesting IIOC	Request	3.40	To request/express interest in receiving IIOC from chatroom users	Directly requesting IIOC (general or specific) Indirectly requesting IIOC (general or specific) Accepting offered imagery
Providing Assistance	Give Help	2.92	To provide help, support or advice (e.g., technical issues, accessing IIOC/victim, moral issues)	Explaining rules and norms of chatroom use/technical aspects of IIOC exchange Suggesting image access/location methods Offering advice/encouragement about offending behaviour
Exerting Authority	Authority	2.43	To demonstrate authority/status over other user(s) To challenge another user's opinion, assertion, belief, practice, behaviour. To be uncooperative.	Instructing/commanding /warning user(s) about community rules and practices Disagreeing/arguing with user Addressing user(s) as variant of 'newbie'
Expressing Opinion/ Preference	Opinion	2.21	To express opinions/preferences and debate on non-image related issues To express wishes, desires and fantasies	Expressing preferences for particular victim or offender attributes/types Expressing moral stances on issues of CSA and IIOC Expressing wishes, intentions or fantasies

				Predicting/describing future offending experiences or lifestyles
Describing Experience	Experience	2.18	To share previous and current sexual/abusive experiences and events (real or imagined)	Reporting/describing previous or current experiences of CSA/IIOC Reporting planned abuse events
			To demonstrate (in)experience, (in)competence or (in)expertise regarding CSA offending, chatroom use and image exchange practices	Describing current home/family life Reporting aspects of own identity
			To share personal information regarding life and activities	
Seeking User/ Interaction Type	Seek User	1.94	To initiate interaction with user of specified characteristics, interests or experience	Seeking individual user for private chat Seeking user of particular ethnicity/language background Seeking user of particular interests/experience
User Appreciation	User App	1.58	To indicate appreciation of/gratitude towards individual users or whole group (directed at users rather than imagery)	Thanking users Complimenting users Complimenting whole group/online environment in general
Sign Off	Leave	0.86	To indicate imminent departure from chatroom	Generic sign-off terms (and variants) Well-wishing Explaining departure
Judging Character	Judge	0.38	To assess the interests/history/experiences/tendencies of another user	Inquiring about previous online CSA experience Inquiring about personal information, home and family life

				Inquiring about opinions/preferences
Showing Deference	Defer	0.26	To defer to/comply with other users'/offenders' judgment or instruction/command	Complying with instructions or commands
			To express extreme admiration/respect for another user	Apologising for breaching rules
				Expressing eagerness for input from a particular user
Law Discussion	Legal	0.16	To discuss legalities around CSA/IIOC offending and law enforcement agencies/practices	Discussing personal experiences of LEA interaction
				Discussing others' legal cases and posting links to relevant news articles
				Warning users of suspected LEA-run sites
Denying Assistance	Deny Help	0.06	To refuse or resist offering/providing help, support or advice	Directing user to cease request
				Deliberately unhelpful/joke responses
Meeting Planning	Meet	0.04	To arrange/organise an offline meeting with another user	Requesting contact/location details
				Providing contact/location details
				Discussing details of meeting
LEA Accusation	Accuse	0.03	To accuse another user of being associated with law enforcement agency/operation	Direct accusations
				Inquiries/suggestions of user involvement with LEA
				Declaring/suggesting particular sites/webtools are involved in entrapment methods
Unclear		2.33		

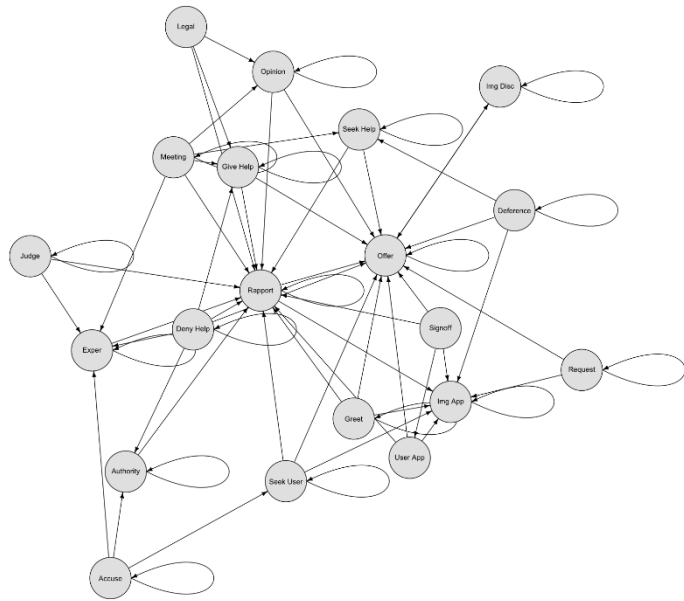


Figure 1. Common move transitions of all users (transition under .10 trimmed).

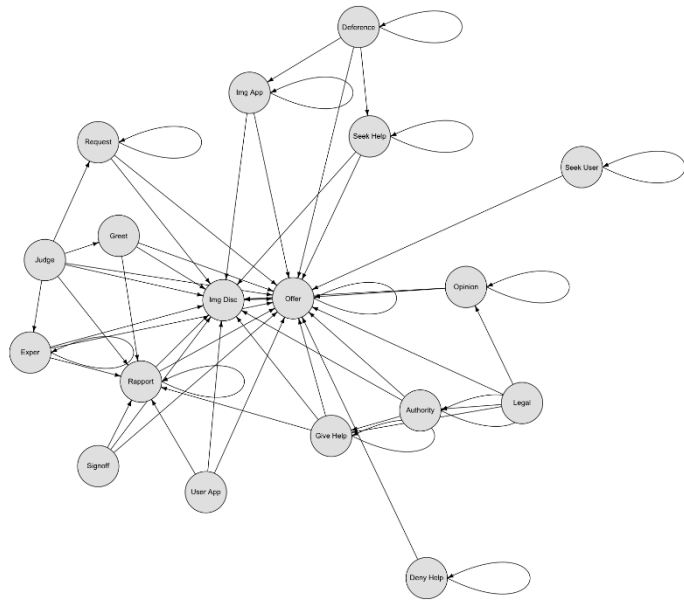


Figure 2. Move transitions of suspected offenders who used the *Offering IIOC* move.

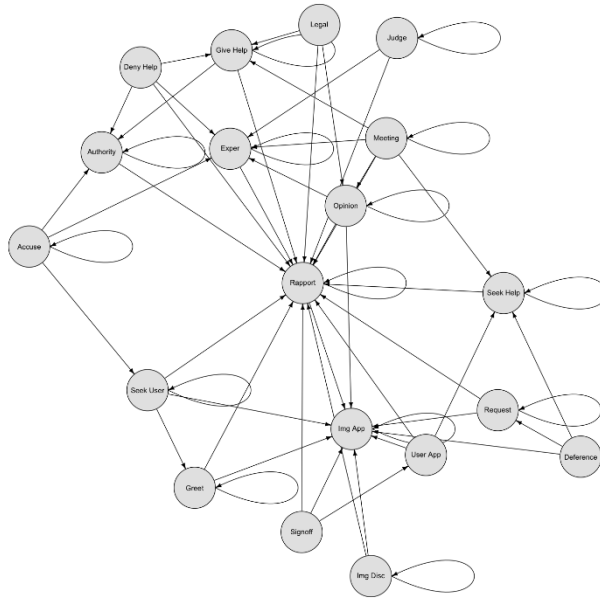


Figure 3. Move transitions of suspected offenders who did not use the *Offering IIOC* move.

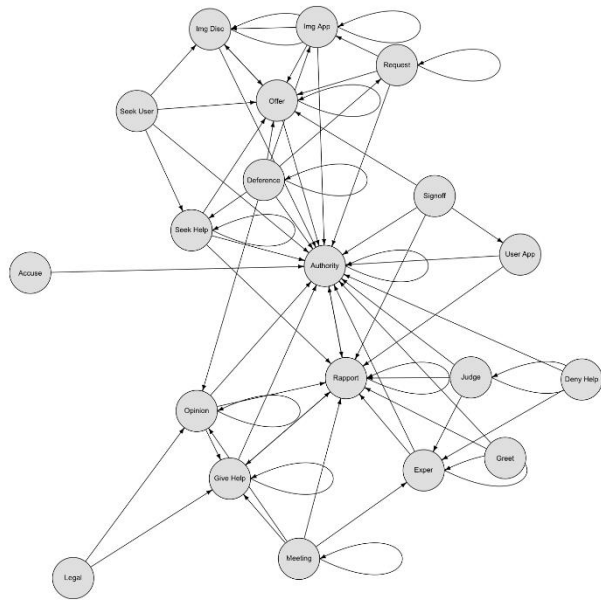


Figure 4. Move transitions of suspected offenders who used the *Exerting Authority* move.

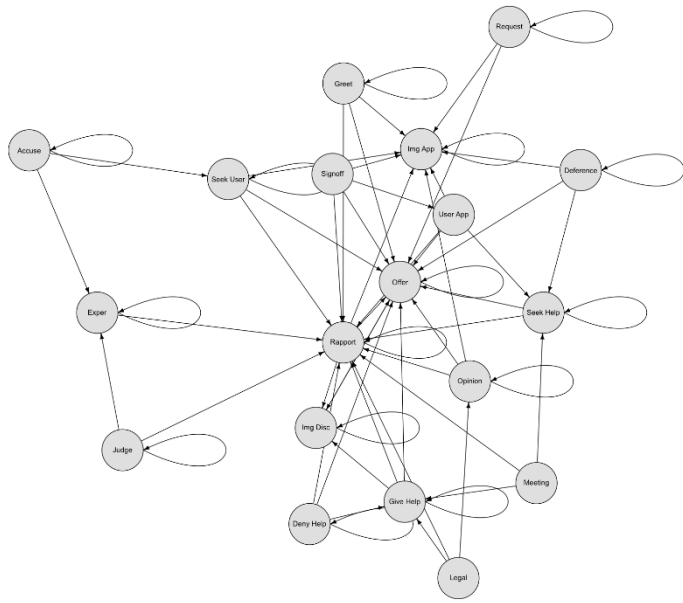


Figure 5. Move transitions of suspected offenders who did not use the *Exerting Authority* move.