



Crime Scene

Spring 2017

Psychology Behind Bars and in Front
of the Bench



The Official Organ of the
Criminal Justice Section of the
Canadian Psychological
Association

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Word from the Chair

By Jim Cheston, Ph.D., C.Psych.

During the Annual General Meeting at the CPA convention in Victoria last year the Executive Committee stated an intention to support the Fourth North American Correctional and Criminal Justice Psychology Conference (NACCJPC4, or N4), which will be held in Halifax in conjunction with the 2019 CPA convention. In the Fall of 2016 your Executive decided to allocate up to \$15,000 to support the financial requirements of N4. This has allowed the N4 Steering Committee to start planning the event with the assurance that the costs will be covered regardless of how much other potential funding for the conference materializes. The NACCJP Conference is considered a priority for this Executive, as it has become the most noteworthy conference of its type.

Another decision made at the 2016 AGM was to create a grant fund to support CJPS members in carrying out activities that are consistent with the mandate of the CJPS. A number of submissions were received and a little over \$5,000 was allocated to forensic psychology conferences at St. Mary's University in Halifax, at St. Francis Xavier University in Antigonish, Nova Scotia, and at Ryerson University in Toronto. All three of these grants are supporting the development of academic programmes that will promote Criminal Justice Psychology in Canada. It seems there are substantial Criminal Justice developments taking place in the Maritimes...

Last year the CPA facilitated a survey on the CPA website for our Section to explore the issue of Forensic Psychologists being authorized to conduct Fitness to Stand Trial assessments. The report from that survey was distributed to our membership earlier this year. Based on the findings of the survey, the

Executive Director of CPA, Dr. Karen Cohen suggested that this would be a worthwhile professional issue for which CPA could advocate. An Advisory Committee has been created to provide expert input to CPA, so our national association can develop an advocacy strategy to advance this position. The Advisory Committee consists of psychologists in our Section from coast to coast who have expertise in Fitness Assessments. One of our Section Executive Committee Members-at-Large, Dr. Joanna Hessen Kayfitz, has been appointed to manage the Advisory Committee and maintain effective communications between the Advisory Committee, CPA and our Executive Committee. We will keep you informed of how this advocacy effort progresses. Many thanks to Joanna and the other members of the Advisory Committee for taking this on for the Section!

The advocacy campaign for qualified forensic psychologists to be able to conduct Fitness to Stand Trial Assessments is one of the things we will be watching over the coming year. Another exciting development is that one of our Section members, Dr. Patrick Baillie, is becoming the President of CPA for 2017/2018. You might remember that Patrick reported to our AGM in Victoria last year on his attendance at a roundtable discussion with Justice Minister, the Honourable Jodi Wilson-Raybould. We wish him a most enjoyable and rewarding term as CPA President.

This year's CPA annual convention in Toronto (June 8-10) will offer another opportunity for our Section members to meet, socialize, network, and discuss topics of interest. I have heard that there may be an informal meeting held to discuss further development of shared understandings and perhaps to explore establishing standards of practice for the subspecialty area of Police Psychology. **Our Section's Annual General Meeting will be held in the Royal York Hotel's Confederation 5 room on Thursday June 8 from 4:15 to 5:15, with a reception to follow at 5:30.** I sincerely hope we will have a large turnout of Section members in Toronto and that I will see many of you there.

4th North American Correctional and Criminal Justice Psychology Conference is set for Halifax, 2019!

**By
Joseph Camilleri, Ph.D.**

On behalf of the Steering Committee for the 4th North American Correctional and Criminal Justice Psychology Conference (we're mercifully referring to it as N4), I would like to share a few updates with you. First, the Steering Committee has grown to reflect the diversity of our professional interests and growing attendance from international scholars and practitioners. We have welcomed Ruth Mann, Zoe Hilton, and Joanna Kayfitz-Hessen as new members, and welcome back Daryl Kroner, Femina Varghese, Jim Cheston, Guy Bourgon, and Jeremy Mills, whose experience I rely on. It is an honour to be working with such an esteemed group of individuals.

We are very excited to announce that the conference will take place in beautiful Halifax, 2019. This is a significant change because it is the first time the conference will take place outside Ontario. We believe that a single venue (rather than having to

travel between buildings) will promote collegiality and improve networking opportunities.

The conference tag-line is *Evidence and Innovation in Criminal Justice Psychology*, which represents what our attendees value at this conference: cutting edge research, professional development, networking opportunities, new collaborations, and inspiring ideas for future studies. Our approach to selecting keynote speakers will continue this tradition. We are inviting scholars who provide broad appeal, have made significant career contributions, allow us to think outside the box, and will share current findings from special topics in criminal justice psychology.

Lastly, we are in the process of forming our marketing committee. If you would like to volunteer for this wonderful conference, the marketing committee is a great way to participate. Please contact me (jcamilleri@westfield.ma.edu) so I can add you to the list.

For updates, if you have not done so yet, like us on Facebook (search for North American Correctional & Criminal Justice Psychology Conference, we're the only one!) and/or follow us on twitter (@NACCJPC), and share this with anyone who might be interested.

Sincerely,

Joe Camilleri
Steering Committee Chair, N4 2017

Translating Intimate Partner Violence Research into Evidence-Based Policing Practices

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Author Note: As this submission was co-authored, some aspects or viewpoints within this article may not necessarily represent the views of the Edmonton Police Service.

Evidence-based policing refers to using police and criminal justice research to help develop, implement, and evaluate proactive crime-fighting strategies (Sherman, 2013). It is also known as intelligent policing, and it is driven by data and scientific evidence that demonstrates needs and highlights priorities for policing services (Bradley & Nixon, 2009). An ultimate goal of using evidence-based policing practices is to ensure police services are as effective as possible in the

reduction of crime, to better allocate resources, and to develop defensible strategies in policing that are supported by the empirical science. In order to do that, law enforcement services need to permit themselves to be vulnerable to uncompromising scrutiny of what they do and be receptive to change and/or improvement.

Engel and Whalen (2010) assert that if the world of academia approached policing in a positive fashion with an offer to meet them where they are and assist them to where they want to be, the chances of mutual success increase exponentially. When academic researchers focus on their own agenda (e.g., want to look at whether homicides are mostly drug-related) without forethought on how this might directly benefit the police service (e.g., use data to draw attention to violence-reduction strategies among drug traffickers), it is unlikely a partnership is established. From a U.S. national survey, Rojek et al. (2012) concluded that, although police executives valued research, it was less used to inform their decisions on policy development and operations. In fact, other research has noted that police officers seemed to value experience more than research to guide their practices. Through the lenses of an academic researcher and a police detective, past research and research engagement can skillfully be translated into practice within a Canadian police context. Our recent experience offers an example of how police collaborations can work. This is a specific research partnership between MacEwan University and the Edmonton Police Service (EPS) that led to service-wide implementation.

Conducting Research with Police

Initial discussions with the Edmonton Police Service (EPS) were focused on the first author's perspectives on violence reduction, but this discussion led to the interest on the police service to carry out research looking at factors relevant to the commission of

homicide, intimate partner violence, and sexual assaults. One of the research projects focused on intimate partner violence. The application of psychological risk assessment research to routine police practices can be effectively seen in the field of risk prediction of intimate partner violence (Hilton et al., 2004; Hilton, Harris, Rice, Eke, & Lowe-Wetmore, 2007). In the province of Alberta, an investigative tool was implemented for use by law enforcement to collect information pertinent in the 24-hour window following an intimate partner violent incident. The tool was used to address questions and information required for bail hearings, provide information for sentencing considerations, and provide Crown prosecutors with a quick overview of cases; furthermore, police services often used the tool to determine the allocation of resources. However, the validity of using this homegrown instrument for these purposes had never been examined.

The research with EPS focused on a number of things that included examining the demographic description of intimate partner violence cases in Edmonton, but also included finding ways to better use their resources more effectively. The use of the Alberta-developed investigative tool, the Family Violence Investigative Report (FVIR), was examined, along with the use of two published measures, the Spousal Assault Risk Assessment Guide (SARA) and the Ontario Domestic Assault Risk Assessment (ODARA)—the latter of which has already been used by the Ontario Provincial Police. This research found that the validated measures were useful in predicting intimate partner violence, along with general violence, but the FVIR did not reliably predict violent recidivism (Jung & Buro, in press). Given historical experience in law enforcement (Engel & Whalen, 2010), one could expect that law enforcement agencies would not welcome such research. However, this was not the case with executive members of the Serious Crimes Branch and the Office of Strategy Management at EPS. They were receptive to the findings from the


research and advocated for its dissemination to police executives and the police commission. They also immediately put together an implementation team that involved members of other law enforcement agencies to determine the next step of using this data. The primary question the researcher received in response to this research was what are the practical recommendations stemming from these findings. What happened next in this partnership involved the work of a committed detective to work towards implementation of evidence-based practice.

Police-Implementation of Research

The second author was mandated by the Edmonton Police Service to integrate threat and risk assessment into domestic violence investigations. Initially, the focus was on the specialized unit of the Domestic Offender Crimes Section (DOCS), which deals with the most serious of domestic offences.

In considering the available assessment instruments, the ODARA was chosen as the most effective and appropriate tool for police officers to use for a number of reasons. The ODARA is easy to learn, administer and gives concrete results for recidivism estimates. DOCS was the first area of the police service to receive training. This was a critical first step as DOCS members are the experts in domestic violence within the service and were instrumental in testing the new procedure. DOCS utilizes a multi-agency approach to addressing domestic violence and as such, embedded within the unit are social workers with their primary focus being safety planning for victims. All civilians, including criminal intelligence analysts and the social workers were trained on the ODARA. One key outcome was that everyone started using consistent language, one that was directly connected to risk assessment. This allowed for the instant understanding and triaging of high risk files within DOCS.

However, as threat assessment is focused on prevention, it was critical to expand risk



assessment beyond the DOCS unit so that high risk files could be identified prior to a serious assault or homicide occurring. To accomplish this, this author first audited the available resources and structures in order to determine how to integrate risk assessment without the need for additional resources. The Edmonton Police Service (EPS) has six Divisional Domestic Violence Coordinator positions, one for each division, in addition to having two Victim Support Team (VST) members on each patrol squad. The VST members are responsible for safety planning for victims of domestic violence. This structure was quickly determined to be the most effective route to integrating risk assessment as these members have already expressed interest in domestic violence investigations and most have received additional training in the area.

A case plan was drafted and sent through the Chain of Command for comments and approval. It was rapidly met with a positive response as it fulfilled the identified areas of concern outlined by the researcher's findings. However, obtaining buy-in from all areas of the service was critical. One significant area of concern was raised by the Bureau in charge of the patrol divisions. They were concerned about further taxing an already busy front line staff with an additional task. To address this concern, a one-month pilot project was conducted in two squads, one in each of two divisions. The VST members of those squads were trained on the ODARA and administered them on the domestic violence calls taken by themselves and their squad mates. The Divisional Coordinator from one of the divisions was also trained. The result of the pilot project was overwhelmingly positive. Front line police saw great value in this type of risk assessment, saw far-reaching future

benefits and recommended it be implemented service wide. The critical question of how much time it would take to administer was answered to the satisfaction of upper management and it was deemed to be a small investment of time for a much larger outcome and benefit. As such, the phase in which the ODARA is rolled out service wide is about to begin. The ODARA trained members of each squad will operate like pre-existing "breath tech" positions (i.e., police members who are specially trained breath technicians to support impaired driving investigations). Hence, when a member has a domestic violence call, an ODARA-trained police member will be contacted to assess the offender. The ODARA assessment on the offender will determine how the file is triaged, and triaging allows for police to make decisions according to the Risk, Needs, and Responsivity principles. According to the Risk Principle, the higher the risk, the more resources need be allocated to those offenders and the associated victims. The lower the risk, the less resources needed. This principle allows for effective allocation of limited police resources and makes it possible to develop a strategic policing plan to tackle domestic violence, which has been a difficult task to date, given the complexity of this societal problem.

In order to handle the anticipated identified high risk offenders, the Divisional DV Coordinators will be also be trained on the following structured professional judgment (SPJ) tools: Spousal Assault Risk Assessment (SARA), Guide for Stalking Assessment and Management (SAM) and the HCR-20-V3. Training in these tools will allow for more strategic case management for offenders. It is thought that the combination of an actuarial instrument for initial front line assessment with SPJ tools for more advanced case management would be an effective and comprehensive approach to domestic offenders.

Without the initial empirical research conducted (Jung & Buro, in press), it would

have been difficult to advocate for these recommendations given limited police resources.

Conclusion

Much can be gained from forming and cultivating police–academic partnerships. The benefits for both sides are plentiful. The reader may think it makes sense that police administrators consider the work that is generated by the academic community, but it is equally important that academics do a better job of listening to and understanding police and helping police determine feasible approaches to implement change (Engel & Whalen, 2010).

It is important to mention that there were some fortunate elements that facilitated this successful partnership discussion. The first author spent a year on sabbatical immersed at police headquarters and had more exposure to the police culture than she would have if she had merely come to EPS to collect data. Attending occasional morning meetings, sitting in various units, watching the behind-the-scenes media coverage, etc. was tremendously helpful to seeing how complex the police system really is. In addition to giving her a tremendous amount of appreciation for the work that law enforcement does, it also gave her an understanding of how to translate research to be relevant to their work. Another relevant and critical element is the role and background of the second author. Not only is she a police detective at the police service, but also she is a certified threat and risk assessor (Integrated Threat and Risk Assessment Center) and therefore, she was already integrating evidence-based decisions in her police work. She attended academic conferences and meetings regularly, and maintained competency in the empirical literature on violence risk assessment. The combination of these elements may make this partnership unique, but the absence of these elements is not necessarily problematic in establishing a strong academic and police collaboration to promote evidence-based policing practices.

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Standardized Risk/Need Levels for Corrections

By

Kelly M. Babchishin, Ph.D., Daryl G. Kroner, Ph.D., and R. Karl Hanson, Ph.D.

Author note: The views expressed are those of the authors and not necessarily those of Public Safety Canada

In corrections, risk assessment tools provide guidance for sentencing, dosage of treatment programs, and community supervision conditions (Andrews & Bonta, 2010). There are a number of validated risk tools available, and each works similarly well at discriminating between offenders who reoffend and those who do not reoffend (Hanson & Morton-Bourgon, 2009; Yang, Wong, & Coid, 2010). Effective risk communication, therefore, should communicate risk similarly across risk tools. As it turns out, however, communicating the results of risk scales reliably and consistently is not as simple as it seems (see our previous *Crime Scene* article; Babchishin & Hanson, 2009).

Currently, evaluators and decision-makers prefer to communicate offender risk/needs in terms of a limited number of categories or

levels, such as “low,” “moderate,” and “high” risk (Evans & Salekin, 2014, 2016; Heilbrun, NewSham, & Pietruszka, 2016; Kwartner, Lyons, & Boccaccini, 2009). Unfortunately, these labels are inconsistently interpreted across professionals (Hilton, Carter, Harris, & Sharpe, 2008; Hilton, Scurich, & Helmus, 2015). The commonly used risk tools have different numbers of levels and different names for the levels (Bourgon, Mugford, Hanson, & Coligado, 2017). Even when the level has the same name (e.g., “high risk”), it can be defined differently on different tools or even different versions of the same tool (Bourgon et al., 2017; Hanson, Babchishin, Helmus, Thornton, & Phenix, 2016). For example, the LSI-OR and LSI/CMI both have five levels (“very low,” “low,” “medium,” “high,” and “very high”) and use the same cut-off scores to place offenders in these categories. However, offenders who score “medium” risk on the LS/CMI are in the middle of the risk distribution (around the median value) whereas a “medium” score on LS-OR is associated with recidivism rates that are 1.6 times higher than the middle of the risk distribution.

Consequently, it is unsurprising that different risk tools provide discordant information for the same offenders (e.g., Barbaree, Seto, Langton, & Peacock, 2001). The lack of standardization makes it difficult to use scale-based risk categories (unstandardized) to inform interventions and management strategies in a consistent matter. Without a standardized definition of offenders’ risk to reoffend, why should we expect risk tools to provide consistent definitions of risk?

A standardized definition of offenders’ risk would ensure that, regardless of the risk tool used, the vocabulary used to describe risk would be consistent. Risk tools can be revised and improved, and evaluators can continue to use their risk tool(s) of choice. However, we would all describe the density of offenders’ risk and needs in the same way. Importantly, a common language would

increase consistency of decisions rules regarding interventions and management strategies.

To advance standardization, the National Reentry Resource Center of the United States (US) and Public Safety Canada, along with the US Justice Center (Council of State Government) formed a partnership to develop, with consultations of various experts, a common language of offender risk that would apply across the numerous risk tools currently available (see Hanson et al., 2017). Recognizing the large number of existing risk tools, and their diverse uses, a five-level system was proposed. This system does not require new risk tools; instead, all that is required are new thresholds and new labels.

This five-level system is intended to apply to all offender risk/need assessments in corrections, whether they are conducted by actuarial risk tools, structured professional judgment (SPJ), or even unstructured professional judgment. It is intended to be a broadly applicable description of the individuals in the criminal justice system on characteristics that are most relevant for decisions concerning treatment, correctional responses, and prognosis (see Table 1). Given our sympathy for empirically derived actuarial methods, we have proposed an algorithm that can be used to estimate the five levels for most of the commonly used actuarial risk tools (see Figure 1). Although this algorithm should be of interest to researchers and scale developers, the use of this algorithm is not required to use the standardized risk levels. Given the lack of consensus on what these risk level should be named, the levels were labeled using Roman numerals ranging from Level I (lowest risk/needs) to Level V (highest risk/needs). One of the advantages of this common language is that is based on characteristics of offenders, which are independent of any particular risk tool. Placement in a specific

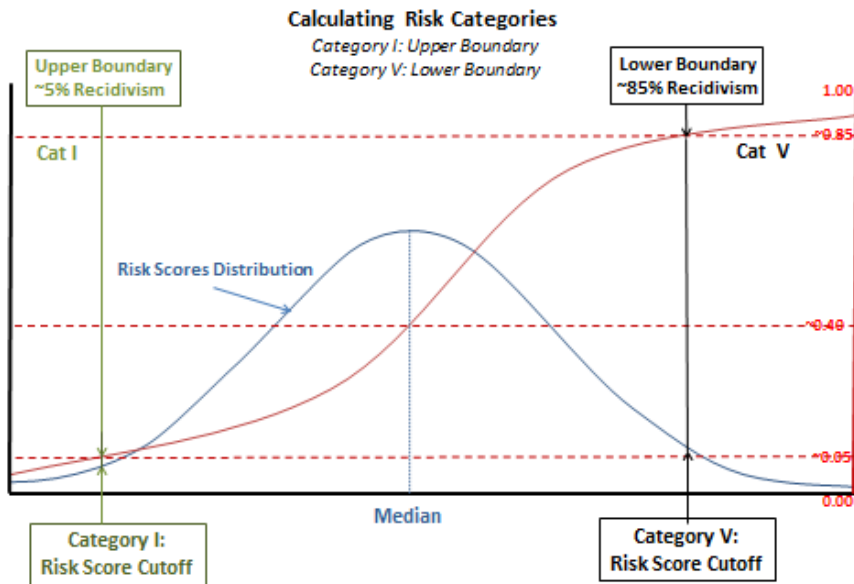
level implies a distinctive criminogenic need profile and management strategy (see Table 1). Not all samples would be expected to contain all five levels: probations samples may not have any offenders falling in Level IV, whereas a civil commitment setting should not have any Level I.

Andrews, Bonta and Hoge's (1990) Risk/Need/Responsivity principles are now integrated in routine practice of all correctional systems in Canada, and many throughout the world. Of the three principles, the Need principle has the most empirical support; there are numerous studies and meta-analyses that identify risk-relevant propensities, and demonstrate that interventions that target these criminogenic needs reduce recidivism (Andrews & Bonta, 2010). The current initiative to standardized risk levels advances our understanding of the Risk Principle, which remains underdeveloped (as is the Responsivity principle, but that is another article). Although there is general empirical support that programs that include higher risk offenders are most likely to show recidivism reductions than are programs that only involve lower risk offenders, there is little empirical guidance concerning how much intervention should be given at which risk level. Until now, it has been difficult for knowledge to accumulate because the individual studies have used diverse definitions of riskiness. With the standardized risk levels, researchers and meta-analysts now have a common yardstick by which to examine dose-response studies. With a common language of riskiness, practice guidelines concerning the intensity of correctional treatment can evolve rapidly.

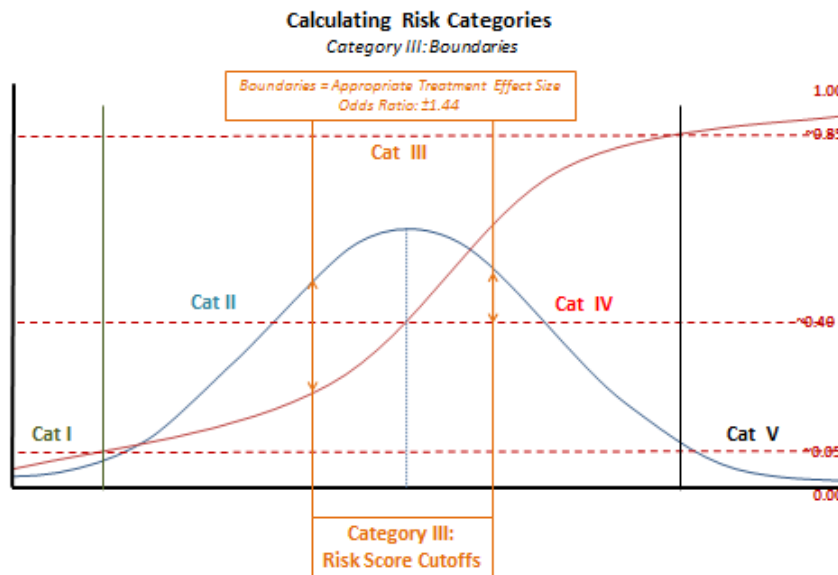
Table 1
Definition of the Five-Level Risk and Needs System

	Criminogenic Needs	Profile and 2-year Recidivism without Intervention	Supervision Dose	Correctional Treatment Dose	Treatment Effect	Prognosis following Intervention
I	None or few – if any, mild and/or transitory	Non-offending profile: similar to people with no criminal record Average = 3% Range = less than 5%	Minimal or no monitoring	None – if needed, refer to community services	Risk so low that it will not be reduced further	Excellent, will stay in Level I
II	A few – some mild and transitory, or possibly acute	Vulnerable prosocial profile: higher risk than non-offending profile but lower than average Average = 19% Range = 5%–29%	Some – monitor for compliance, provide some change-focused interventions	Minimal – if any, very short term, refer to community services if needed	Risk so low that intervention can only have a minor impact	Very good, most move from Level II to I
III	Multiple – some severe	Average offending profile: the middle of the risk and needs distribution Average = 40% Range = 30%–49%	Considerable – monitor for compliance and provide change-focused interventions	Significant – 100–200 hours	Intervention impact is significant and can meaningfully reduce reoffending	Good, many will move from Level III to II
IV	Multiple – some chronic and Severe	Persistent offending profile: chronic and lengthy involvement in crime Average = 65% Range = 50%–84%	Intensive – monitor for safety and compliance, provide change focused interventions	Very significant – 200–300 hours	Intervention impact can be significant but reduction will not quickly result in the lowest levels of risk	Improvement, some will move from Level IV to III, and as low as II after a significant period of time (i.e., 10+ years)
V	Multiple – chronic, severe, and entrenched, likely across psychological, interpersonal, and lifestyle domains	Entrenched criminal profile: virtually certain to reoffend Average = 90% Range = 85% or higher	Very intensive – monitor for safety and compliance, provide long-term and intensive change-focused interventions	Extensive – well over 300 hours, provided over years	Intervention can have an impact but initial risk so high that emphasis is on treatment readiness and behavioral management	Initial risk so high that reoffending will still be above average, some will move to Level IV or III, possibly as low as II in advanced age

Source: Hanson et al. (2017)



(b) Recidivism rates are used to define the cut-offs for Category I and V.



(a) The median \pm treatment effect (odds ratio = 1.44) is used to define the cut-offs for Category III. Category II and IV are the remaining values.

Figure 1. Computational Definition of the Five-Level System. See Hanson, Babchishin, Helmus, Thornton & Phoenix (2016) for further information on analytical steps.

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Domestic Violence Risk Appraisal Guide Can be Scored with PCL-R Facet 4

By

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The Psychopathy Checklist Revised (PCL-R; Hare, 2003) has been the foundation of some of the most extensive research and clinical literature in criminal justice psychology. It has made inquiry possible into the continuous or taxonic character of psychopathy and its relation to antisocial personality disorder (e.g., Skilling, Harris, Rice, & Quinsey, 2002) and contributed formatively to the understanding and measurement of risk for recidivism (e.g., Harris, Rice, Quinsey, & Cormier, 2015). There has also been empirical investigation of the structure of the PCL-R itself (e.g., Weaver, Meyer, Van Nort, & Tristan, 2006). Elucidation of the factors and facets of the PCL-R has helped simplify violent offender risk assessment, such as in the Violence Risk Appraisal Guide-Revised (VRAG-R; Rice, Harris, & Lang, 2013).

The VRAG-R eliminates the need for items that require clinical diagnostic criteria and for using two separate tools to assess offenders with violent or sexual index offenses (VRAG and SORAG; Harris, Rice, Quinsey, & Cormier, 2015). It also permits risk to be assessed using only five items from the PCL-R representing Antisociality, or Facet 4: poor

behavior controls, early behavior problems, juvenile delinquency, revocation of conditional release, and criminal versatility. The VRAG-R predicted dichotomous violent recidivism over an average 22-year follow up of 613 men assessed or treated in an inpatient forensic unit with the same discriminative validity as the original VRAG (Rice et al., 2013).

While revising a review of the VRAG-R and its related instruments (Hilton, Rice, Harris, Judd, & Quinsey, submitted), we wondered whether the Domestic Violence Risk Appraisal Guide (DVRAG; Hilton, Harris, Rice, Houghton, & Eke, 2008) could also be scored using the PCL-R Facet 4 items. The DVRAG was originally constructed for its ability to increase predictive accuracy over an existing brief actuarial tool used by police officers and other first responders to intimate partner violence. We (Hilton, Harris, & Rice, 2010) have recommend the DVRAG's use in cases identified as relatively high risk on the other assessment, the ODARA, provided that a score on the PCL-R can be obtained (i.e., there is sufficient case information and an assessor qualified to use the PCL-R). In fact, the DVRAG involves an algorithm for scoring the ODARA items with weights plus an item score based on the PCL-R total. The PCL-R was selected on the basis of its ability to improve prediction over the ODARA in a construction sample; in cross-validation the DVRAG was a small improvement over the ODARA (Hilton et al., 2008). Elsewhere, the ODARA and DVRAG have shown comparable discriminative validity (Gray, 2012).

In this reanalysis we tested a modification of the DVRAG in which we replaced the PCL-R item with another weighted item derived from the Facet 4 score. Each of the five Facet 4 items is scored 0-2 for a total score range of 0-10.

Method

The original data (Hilton et al., 2008) were coded from police and criminal records pertaining to men who had a police report of

a physical assault (or credible threat of death with a weapon in hand in the presence of the victim) against a current or previous female marital or cohabiting partner. All cases also had a probation or other corrections record providing sufficient information to score the PCL-R score from the documented information. In the construction sample of 303 men, the mean ODARA score was 4.05 (the fifth of seven categories of increasing risk) and 49% committed domestic violence recidivism leading to a police report or criminal charge in an average 5 year follow up. Facet 4 scores for the construction sample were $M = 3.06$ ($SD = 2.47$), range 0-9.

For the present analysis, we created a modified DVRAG by scoring the first 13 items with the original weights as reported by Hilton and colleagues (2008) and a fourteenth item using weights for the Facet 4 score calculated by the same procedure as had been done for the original DVRAG items; i.e., giving a weight of plus or minus one point for each (rounded) 5% difference from the sample base rate observed for a given score or range of scores in the construction sample. The weights were as shown in Table 1.

We tested the modified DVRAG in the original cross-validation sample. This sample of 346 mean had a mean ODARA score of 3.54, a domestic violence recidivism rate of 41%, and a mean Facet 4 score of 3.08 ($SD = 2.47$). As previously reported, in the cross-validation sample the ODARA AUC = .651, 95% CI = [.590, .711].

Results

In the construction sample, the modified DVRAG mean score was 3.08 ($SD = 9.93$) and predictive accuracy was AUC = .709 ($SE = .029$), 95% CI = [.652, .767]. In cross-validation, $M = 1.58$ ($SD = 9.75$), AUC = .727 ($SE = .027$), 95% CI = [.674, .781].

Discussion

The modified DVRAG, scored using PCL-R Facet 4 items in lieu of the PCL-R total score,

produced a large predictive effect size that represents a significant improvement over the ODARA. In light of the item substitution we dub this modification the DVRAG-4.

Further research with this easier-to-use tool could test its validity when Facet 4 items are scored by file review plus interview, as per the PCL-R instructions for clinical use, rather than by file review alone as in the present study. In addition, research exploring the calibration of the instrument's risk category outcomes in different populations has yet to be conducted.

Table 1.
Items Weights for Facet 4 in the DVRAG-4

Facet 4 Score	DVRAG-4 Item Weight
0	-4
1	-2
2	0
3	+1
≥ 4	+4

Note: The 13 other DVRAG-4 items are: Number of prior domestic assaults (0 = -1, 1 = 0, ≥2 = +5), Number of prior nondomestic assaults (0 = -1, ≥1 = +5), Prior correctional sentence of 30 days or more (No = 1, Yes = +2), Failure on prior conditional release (No = 1, Yes = +2), Threat to harm or kill anyone at the index assault (No = 0, Yes = +1), Confinement of the index partner at the index assault (No = 0, Yes = +1), Victim concern about possible future domestic assault (No = 0, Yes = +2), Number of children (≤1 = -1, (No = 1, ≥2 = +1), Victim's number of biological children from a previous partner (0 = -1, 1 = 0, ≥2 = +2), Violence against nondomestic victims (No = 0, Yes = +8), Substance abuse score (≤1 = -2, ≥2 = +2), Assault on index victim when pregnant (No = 0, Yes = +5), Number of barriers to victim support (0 = -1, 1 = 0, ≥4 = +4). For detailed scoring criteria for these items, see Hilton et al. (2010) or ODARA 101: The Electronic Training Program at <http://odara.waypointcentre.ca/>

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Out of Poverty

An Investigation of Young Offenders and Their Families

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**Funding provided by the Ontario
Government's Poverty Reduction Strategy
Office and overseen by Ontario Trillium
Foundation for the Treasury Board
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The focus of Ontario's Poverty Reduction strategy is framed by the following:

"Fighting poverty is part of the government's economic plan to build Ontario up and deliver on its number-one priority to grow the economy and create jobs.... [its] aim is to find out what makes a difference for those living in poverty, share knowledge and use the evidence gathered from projects to expand successful solutions across the province".
(Ontario Treasury Board Secretariat, 2014).

The impact of poverty is very individualized, ranging from homelessness, malnutrition, challenges to physical and mental health, an absence of educational and vocational opportunities, social unrest, life expectancy, to child and adult mortality. Poverty also cycles through families, with subsequent generations experiencing the legacy of the previous generation's challenges to escape its impact. Bird (2007) acknowledged that being a poor child increases the chances of being a poor adult. However, this is not always the case, and other factors operate independently to affect the well-being over the life-course for each child in unique ways. Bird's influential review, while in the context of the United Kingdom, pertains equally to our concerns in Ontario. That is, differentiated access to and control of certain resources, unequal investment in human capital, systematic inequalities within and between households, higher rates of adolescent pregnancy, poorer early child care and development practices, domestic violence, household decision-making, livelihood and survival strategies, service uptake, exposure to specific vulnerability to risk and resilience and an ability to cope, combine to conspire against certain individuals to escape the impact of poverty.

What is Poverty?

Relative poverty. Poverty is a continuum best understood not in its absolute sense through an income cut off but rather in its

relative impact. Hence the term *relative poverty* is more fitting as a functional reflection of the impact of poverty; in other words, the severity of poverty matters where the effects of poverty are the strongest at the lowest levels of income (De Boer, Rothwell, & Lee, 2013). For example, relative poverty is considered in relation to how income levels relate to an individual's ability to meet *basic needs* (The Fraser Institute), or in the *market basket* of purchasing a "basket" of goods and services considered to represent the "standard of consumption for a reference family of two adults and two children [that] includes the costs of food, clothing, shelter, transportation, and other goods and services that are determined for different regions across Canada (Human Resources Development Canada) (Collin & Campbell, 2015).

Rate of poverty in Canada. Canadians will be familiar with *Campaign 2000*, the goal of then Prime Minister Jean Chretien who committed our country in 1980 to end poverty by the year 2000. This was in part a response to data that continues to appear reflected in the publication by The United Nations (2007) that ranked Canada 17th out of 23 industrialized countries – seventh from the bottom – when it comes to addressing child poverty in the more advanced economies. This data recognized that on average:

"One in every ten children in Canada struggles to have their basic needs met. In First Nations and Inuit communities, one in every four children grows up in poverty. Canada's child poverty rate of 15 percent is three times as high as the rates of Sweden, Norway or Finland. Every month, 770,000 people in Canada use food banks. Forty percent of those relying on food banks are children." (Canadian Make Poverty History Campaign, 2015) **Canadian Children's Rights Council**

What Does Poverty Relate To?

What poverty relates to, and these findings have been replicated across numerous studies includes the following¹:

1. **Negative Health Effects.** Poverty increases the chances of poor health. Poor health in turn traps communities in poverty.
2. **Malnutrition.** A family on a very small budget is much more likely to purchase food that is less nutritious.
3. **Literacy and Education.** Literacy rates in countries with high poverty levels indicate that these two are inextricably linked.
4. **Employment.** Without an education, people are unlikely to find a paying job.
5. **Inadequate Housing and Homelessness.**
6. **Family Violence and Childhood Abuse.** When child abuse does happen anywhere, in any social class, it is overwhelmingly more frequent in poorer families.

Of specific interest in the current study is the relevance of poverty to crime.

Relevance of Poverty to Youth Justice and Child and Family Service Delivery

The goal of human service research as reflected in the current study is to further articulate: 1. The conditions under which specific groups experience distress; 2. Assess the degree to which those conditions are amenable to change; 3. Account for the context in which certain conditions are experienced; and 4. Ensure that current systems are supported to deliver the most effective services targeting the most relevant risks and needs at the required time.

¹ This listing is largely drawn from the following: *The Brogen Project*, An innovative, national campaign that works with U.S. leaders to improve their response to the global poverty crisis; The World Health Organization [WHO]; The Association for School and Curriculum Development.

What is also relevant in this context is research showing that if the conditions of effective service are followed, the best predictor of a successful outcome is *completion of the treatment process*. The best evidence of this statement is reflected in the *Multi Systemic Therapy* literature that indicated even when the most effective treatments are provided, if the course of therapy or the *dosage of treatment* is inadequate, positive results will not occur (Henggeler, Pickrel, Brondino, & Crouch, 1996). In other words, even within the most effective service delivery system, if clients are not connected, engaged and supported to completion of the treatment or intervention process, a positive outcome will not occur.

Relevance to Enhancing Service Delivery

The goal of this study was to identify the nature of the youth and their families in relevant ways to inform the nature of what services can provide to assist in maximizing positive outcomes.

The London Family Court Clinic (LFCC) has identified the need of a system navigator to support the assessment process in ensuring those young persons and their families who are recommended certain services are connected, supported and engaged in the process of intervention. This intervention focus draws on the broad based research findings underscoring that a risk and needs based intervention decision matched with certain service allocations is the most effective framework within which services can be articulated.

Service targets related to poverty. This study focused concern on the connection to poverty of the youth and their families who are referred to the LFCC. However, before commenting on the specific nature of these poverty related concerns, it must be stated that this sample of justice involved youth are challenged in multiple ways *regardless of their socio economic status*. These concerns relate to educational attainment, mental health status, addiction, and victimization,

all of which have shown relevance to youth and adult outcomes in predicting future offending and a decreased likelihood of positive life outcomes including educational and vocational success (Leschied, Chiodo, Nowicki & Rodger, 2008).

The clear majority of these youth experience one if not multiple mental health concerns, and a significant number of youth who experience some mental health disorder commit offenses that are directly related to their disorder, such as thefts supporting a drug addiction. Similarly, in regards to social relationships and the social determinants of health, certain challenges appear recurrently in the lives of these youth and their families. Specific to poverty, system navigators will want to be aware of the following:

1. Over half of these youth experience two or more mental health diagnoses, and as the number of diagnoses increases so too does the rate of offending.
2. A higher level of poverty is related to an increased likelihood of a youth experiencing a persistent mental health concern, the onset of which occurs prior to their 12th birthday.
3. A higher level of poverty is associated with higher levels of involvement in a negative peer environment.
4. The likelihood of gang affiliation increases with a youth and family's poverty level.
5. Significant differences emerge in the condition and quality of a youth's family experience dependent on the level of poverty including the lack of parental involvement, witnessing domestic violence, and child welfare involvement.

6. Youth living in moderate levels of poverty are characterized by the lowest rate of school attendance and a higher rate of grade failure *even within a general youth justice sample whose school success rate is severely compromised.*
7. A high prevalence of no social ties to the community are noted for all offenders regardless of their poverty level.
8. Females who are experiencing poverty are more likely to have been homeless, or birthed to a teen mom, and have a primary caregiver receiving financial assistance.
9. Almost half of the females have been sexually victimized and are more likely to have been neglected and physically abused relative to their male counterparts.
10. Over 90% of these young women have been or are currently involved in the child welfare system.
11. Almost half of these females have been formally diagnosed with Post Traumatic Stress Disorder.
12. One third of these females are involved in some form of risky sexual behaviour.

A Final Comment

It is critical that as a follow-up to the court process, system navigators form supportive relationships with the youth and their families in helping facilitate the engagement process to make the connections with appropriate treatment services and offer advocacy within a system that too often is overly complicated and burdensome to individuals who are already struggling to cope with the challenges of living in economically compromising conditions. In this context the role of the system navigator

could be critical to ensuring that the aforementioned barriers to services are overcome.

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Incest: A Review of Promising Distal and Proximate Causes

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Author note: I would like to thank Dr. Michael Seto & Dr. Kelly Babchishin not only for their helpful comments on earlier versions of this article, but also for their continued support and encouragement throughout the progression of my dissertation and as I begin to approach the end of my graduate studies.

There is a solid foundation for understanding the causes of child sexual abuse (see Seto, 2008, for a review) and key motivational factors that have been highlighted are: atypical sexual interests (e.g., pedophilia), a general antisocial orientation (e.g., lack of empathy, impulsivity), and, to a lesser extent, interpersonal deficits (e.g., emotional congruence with children). These factors have been implicated in the initiation and persistence of sexual offending against children (Hanson & Morton-Bourgon, 2005). Much less is known about the causes of

incest within nuclear family members (e.g., father-daughter, brother-sister). From a social and moral perspective, the universal condemnation of sex with a close relative (known as the incest taboo) should strongly inhibit this behavior (Wolf & Durham, 2004). From a biological perspective, selection pressures should have promoted the evolution of psychological mechanisms to avoid incest (known as incest avoidance) because incest reduces evolutionary fitness. Briefly, (1) fitness is the probability that an individual's genes will remain in the population; (2) relatives share common genes; (3) behaviors that damage a relative's fitness also damage the fitness of the perpetrator; and (4) offspring born from incestuous unions experience greater morbidity/mortality that would reduce the fitness of both parents (known as inbreeding depression; see Seemanová, 1971). As such, incestuous offenders must "overcome" not only the moral stigma associated with incest, but also the biological cost of incest.

To overcome incest taboo and incest avoidance, we would expect incestuous offenders to endorse more atypical sexual interests and antisocial orientations. However, a recent meta-analysis found that incestuous sexual offenders against children are *less* problematic on measures of atypical sexual interests (e.g., pedophilia) and antisociality (e.g., offense supportive attitudes, psychopathy) compared to sexual offenders against unrelated children (Seto, Babchishin, Pullman, & McPhail, 2015). Furthermore, although it is often legally considered incest, sexual behavior involving a sociolegally related child (e.g., stepchild) is not incest from a biological perspective. Hence, we would expect sociolegal incest offenders to exhibit risk factors that are similar to the risk factors associated with offending against unrelated children. Indeed, another recent meta-analysis found that sociolegal incest offenders were more antisocial (e.g., self-regulation, impulsivity, substance use) and had more difficulty with sexual self-regulation, compared to biological

incest offenders (Pullman, Sawatsky, Babchishin, McPhail, & Seto, 2017). These meta-analytical reviews suggest that the factors known to explain sexual offending against unrelated children are not sufficiently present or robust in incestuous offenders to overwhelm inhibitory biological mechanisms and social mores. We can predict then that there are other factors that help to explain incestuous sexual behavior.

Investigating these “other factors” can be accomplished at multiple levels of the etiological hierarchy. On the distal plane, we can investigate why incest avoidance mechanisms are not functioning sufficiently in incestuous sexual offenders to ensure they avoid such behavior. On the proximate plane, we can investigate the psychological mechanisms that facilitate incest avoidance and, conversely, if those same mechanisms are defective in those who commit incest.

Westermarck (1891/1921) postulated a promising distal explanation for incest avoidance. Genetic relatedness is not a trait that can be directly observed. Hence, in order to facilitate indirect fitness, we must have evolved mechanisms that allowed us to distinguish kin from non-kin. Based on this premise, Westermarck suggested that close physical proximity (especially during childhood) facilitates sexual indifference because physical proximity is a cue to our kin-detection system that we are genetically related. Therefore, family members who do not have close physical proximity with one another are theorized to be at an increased risk of incestuous behavior, because this incest avoidance mechanism has not been activated. This theory has found support, especially for sibling incest avoidance. For example, multiple studies have found that genetically unrelated children who are raised together from birth (e.g., on kibbutzim) are unlikely to develop romantic and sexual relationships (e.g., Shepher, 1971; Spiro, 1958; Talmon, 1964). Furthermore, Wolf (1995) found that children who were not genetically related but were raised together

from a young age and were compelled to marry as adults had fewer children and more divorces, compared to arranged marriages where couples did not co-reside during childhood. Relatedly, Bevc and Silverman (1993/2000) found that siblings who were separated during the first few years of their life were more likely to engage in behavior that could lead to reproduction (i.e., vaginal intercourse) compared to siblings who were not separated.

Although not originally intended to be applied to father-daughter relationships, the Westermarck (1891/1921) hypothesis may have implications for this form of incest as well. Very little research, however, has been conducted. Parker and Parker (1986) found that non-incestuous fathers were more likely to be present in the home during their daughters’ early childhood compared to incestuous fathers. Conversely, Williams and Finkelhor (1995) did not find a meaningful difference in the time spent at home, although they did find that incestuous fathers spent less time caregiving (e.g., changing diapers, washing, playing) compared to non-incestuous fathers.

At the proximate level, reactions to the idea of incest typically do not involve conscious thought. Indeed, no one thinks to themselves, “*I’m going to avoid sexual behavior with this person because it is maladaptive*”. Instead, the idea of sex with a close relative typically evokes a strong emotional response, primarily disgust. Disgust is an emotional and physical reaction that has been shown to promote the avoidance of objects, situations and behaviors that may be harmful to evolutionary fitness (see Tybur, Lieberman, & Giskevicius, 2009, for a review). Once the kin-detection system has been triggered (via close proximity), a disgust response develops toward the idea of sex with that particular individual. Lieberman, Tooby, and Cosmides (2007) found that in the absence of other cues of genetic relatedness, co-residence duration with an opposite-sex

sibling significantly predicted multiple measures of disgust toward incest. The more co-residence between siblings, the more disgust they felt toward sibling incest. This hypothesis, however, has not been explored in father-daughter incest.

At the distal level, we would expect a lack of co-residence and physical proximity between individuals who engage in incestuous sexual behavior (e.g., fathers towards their daughters, or between siblings) prior to when the behavior began. At the proximate level, we would expect individuals who engage in incestuous sexual behavior to experience less disgust toward the idea of a sexual relationship with their relative, also prior to when the behavior began. By investigating both distal and proximate causes, we can start to build a foundation for understanding the scientific puzzle that is incestuous sexual behavior.

My doctoral dissertation will focus on examining the Westermarck (1891/1921) hypothesis and the mediating role of disgust in both a sample of fathers who have daughters, and opposite-sex siblings. This study is part of a larger program of research undertaken by my supervisors (Dr. Michael Seto & Dr. Kelly Babchishin) and I, to examine other proximate and distal causes of incestuous sexual behavior using a variety of methods (in-person, online), in a variety of settings (correctional, community) and in a variety of samples (father-daughter, brother-sister). Continued examination of both distal and proximate causes of incest not only provides valuable information about human evolutionary history, but can also assist in the prevention, assessment, and treatment of this behavior.

Note: Financial support for my dissertation stems from multiple sources: a Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council Insight Grant (Seto & Babchishin, 2015-2019), a University Medical Research Fund Grant (Babchishin, Seto, Montayne, Pullman, & Skilling, 2016-2017), and a Pre-Doctoral

Research Grant from the Association for the Treatment of Sexual Abusers (Pullman & Seto, 2015-2017).

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7th Annual Sexual Behaviours Clinic Education Event – Save the Date

By Ainslie Heasman, Ph.D.,
C.Psych.

The Sexual Behaviours Clinic (SBC) at the Centre for Addiction & Mental Health (CAMH) in Toronto, ON is pleased to announce the **7th Annual Education Event on November 2 & 3, 2017**. The SBC has been providing assessment and therapeutic services to the community for decades. We provide services to adult men and women on provincial probation for a sexual offence, as well as individuals who identify problematic sexual interests or behaviour. In recent years, we have been providing increased access to services for individuals who identify with pedophilic and hebephilic interests.

Part of the aim of the SBC is to educate the public at large about sexual offending, paraphilic interests, and primary prevention. Over the last several years we have been proud to host leaders in the field to help educate and train students, clinical and legal professionals, law enforcement and probation/parole officers. This year, we look forward to hosting our two-day conference again in Toronto, ON.

To be kept up-to-date on the speakers for this amazing event, please email sbceducationday@camh.ca to be added to our distribution list

Current Issues Related To The Assessment Of Sexual Deviance In Special Sex Offender Populations

By

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The assessment of sexual deviance among sex offenders represents a mature and robust field of study, and yet there are particular offender populations that have received relatively little empirical attention and that were the focus of the current project. The present studies were archival in nature and utilized offender data from the Regional Treatment Centre (RTC) in Kingston, Ontario. Participants were adult male federal sex offenders who had been referred to the RTC for intensive sex

offender treatment. As a requisite component of the program, participants completed a standardized assessment battery, which included interviews, phallometric testing, and the administration of various psychometric instruments. Study 1 examined potential differences in phallometric responding based on participant ethnicity and phallometric stimulus type (i.e., visual or auditory). It was found that both White and visible minority offenders demonstrated greater deviant responding to auditory stimuli relative to visual stimuli, with no other significant differences in responding based on stimulus type between the two groups of offenders. These results suggested that both White and visible minority offenders were likely able to imagine their ideal victim when being exposed to auditory stimuli, which may have been influenced by a variety of victim characteristics including, but not limited to, victim ethnicity. Study 2 examined potential correlations between social desirability, IQ, and phallometric responding. The majority of the study hypotheses were not supported, although there was some evidence for the influence of social desirability on phallometric responding. Overall, the results of the study demonstrated the effectiveness of using differential and/or ratio transformations of penile plethysmography (PPG) data in order to accommodate the influence of extraneous variables on phallometric responding. Finally, Study 3 examined the influence of age on phallometric responding and the utility of an alternative measure of sexual deviance, the Multiphasic Sex Inventory (MSI). Age was generally found to be negatively correlated with phallometric responding, and as with Study 2, the results illustrated the importance of using PPG data transformations in order to control for the effects of variables such as age. The study also offered promising findings for the utility of the MSI as a measure of sexual deviance. Strengths, limitations, and implications are discussed.

Creation of Participant Relaxation Training Manuals for Facilitators & Adult Male Offenders with Symptoms of Anxiety

By
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For more information on the **Honours
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<http://bit.ly/2phiVrx>

The prevalence of anxiety disorders is significantly higher in incarcerated populations, in comparison to the general population in Canada. This suggests that there is a need for effective treatments to target symptoms of anxiety in offenders. However, a review of the current research, identified a gap in the research literature pertaining to treating symptoms of anxiety in offenders using evidence-based treatment methods; specifically designed to meet the needs of this population. In addition, there is a gap in the use of relaxation training as a stand-alone treatment for anxiety (i.e., without CBT) and in the use of a combination of the three specific relaxation techniques, outlined in this thesis. Therefore, this thesis sought to develop a comprehensive treatment manual for correctional staff to use with clients with anxiety, using three effective relaxation techniques. Thus, permanent products in the form of a facilitator relaxation training manual and a participant relaxation manual were created. The primary skills described in the manuals are progressive muscle relaxation, cognitive imagery, and mindfulness meditation. These skills were chosen based on an extensive literature review, input from correctional staff, and input from offenders. It was hypothesized that these manuals would allow staff members to later treat symptoms of anxiety in their clients. However, due to time constraints, the author was not able to formally evaluate the effectiveness of the manuals. Therefore, this thesis focuses on the development of the treatment manuals, guided primarily by current research. Furthermore, strengths, limitations, multilevel challenges to service implementation, and recommendations for future research are discussed.

For more information on this thesis:
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Recent Publications

Brouillette-Alarie, S., Proulx, J., & Hanson, R. K. (2017). Three Central Dimensions of Sexual Recidivism Risk: Understanding the Latent Constructs of Static-99R and Static-2002R. *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research and Treatment*. Advance online publication. doi:10.1177/1079063217691965

Abstract

The most commonly used risk assessment tools for predicting sexual violence focus almost exclusively on static, historical factors. Consequently, they are assumed to be unable to directly inform the selection of treatment targets, or evaluate change. However, researchers using latent variable models have identified three dimensions in static actuarial scales for sexual offenders: Sexual Criminality, General Criminality, and a third dimension centered on young age and aggression to strangers. In the current study, we examined the convergent and predictive validity of these dimensions, using psychological features of the offender (e.g., antisocial traits, hypersexuality) and recidivism outcomes. Results indicated that (a) Sexual Criminality was related to dysregulation of sexuality toward atypical objects, without intent to harm; (b) General Criminality was related to antisocial traits; and (c) Youthful Stranger Aggression was related to a clear intent to harm the victim. All three dimensions predicted sexual recidivism, although only General Criminality and Youthful Stranger Aggression predicted nonsexual recidivism. These results indicate that risk tools for sexual violence are multidimensional, and support a shift from an exclusive focus on total scores to consideration of subscales measuring psychologically meaningful constructs.

Jung, S., & Buro, K. (2017). Appraising risk for intimate partner violence in a police context. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 44, 240-260. doi: 10.1177/0093854816667974

Abstract

This study examines the predictive accuracy of three risk assessment approaches for intimate partner violence (IPV) among a sample of 246 male perpetrators who were charged for offenses against their intimate partners. The sample was followed up for an average of 3.3 years, and any new general, violent, and IPV charges and convictions were recorded. The Ontario Domestic Assault Risk Assessment (ODARA) and a modified 14-item version of the Spousal Assault Risk Assessment Guide (SARA) demonstrated large effects in their ability to predict any reoffending or any violent reoffending and moderate predictive accuracy for IPV offending behaviors. The regionally used approach, Family Violence Investigative Report (FVIR), showed good predictive validity for any future offending but poorly predicted any of the violent-specific recidivism outcomes. Results of the study show that the ODARA was significantly better at predicting violence risk over the FVIR, but paired comparisons did not reveal statistical differences with the SARA.

Recent Publications

Jung, S. (2017). Sexual Violence Risk Prediction in a Police Context. *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research and Treatment*. Advance online publication. doi: 10.1177/1079063216681563

Abstract

Adoption of evidence-based approaches by police services offers a practical and scientific solution to ensure public safety and proper allocation of resources. Advances in the field of sexual violence risk prediction have the potential to inform policing practices. The present study examines the validity of existing actuarial measures to predict the future sexual violence behavior of 290 identified male perpetrators of sexual assault against adult victims (ages 16 and older). The Static-99R and Static-2002R were coded from police documentation, and the sample was followed up for at least 1 year with an average of 3.6 years. Both measures showed large effects for predicting any offending, violent offending, and sexual offending in the form of charges and convictions. The findings suggest that existing sex offender research can extend to police practice, and criminogenic factors used to predict recidivism among convicted offenders may apply to assessing the risk posed by perpetrators of police-reported sexual assaults.

Mills, J. F. (2017). Violence risk assessment: A brief review, current issues, and future directions. *Canadian Psychology/Psychologie canadienne*, 58, 40-49.

Abstract

A little over 11 years ago, I was invited to look forward and anticipate what areas in violence risk assessment would see more study (Mills, 2005). The areas identified at that time related to (a) increased clarity on the similarities and differences between structured professional judgment and actuarial approaches to risk assessment and the associated implications, (b) advancing our understanding of risk communication and risk management, (c) including dynamic change in actuarial risk assessment, and (d) the need to recalibrate frequently used risk appraisal instruments. This brief look back at my looking forward includes what we have learned from meta-analytic studies and that a review of the progress in the 4 areas identified above lead directly or indirectly to the need for a much greater understanding in the area of criminal justice risk communication. In matters of risk communication, we need to be clear in what we say and we need to understand how it will be perceived and employed by those who hear that message.

Upcoming Conferences

European Association of Psychology and Law Conference

May 28-31, Mechelen, Belgium

<https://www.eaplconference2017.com/>

Canadian Psychological Association 78th Annual Convention

June 8-10, 2017, Toronto, Ontario

<http://cpa.ca/Convention/>

17th Annual Meeting of the International Association of Forensic Mental Health Services

June 13-15, 2017, Split, Croatia

<http://www.iafmhs.org/2017-Conference>

British Society of Criminology Conference

July 4-7, 2017, Sheffield Hallam University

<http://www.bsc2017.org.uk/>

American Psychological Association Annual Convention

August 3-6, 2016, Washington, DC

<http://www.apa.org/convention/>

29th Annual Crimes Against Children Conference

August 7-10, 2017, Dallas, Texas

<http://www.cacconference.org/>

15th International Association for the Treatment of Sexual Offenders

August 28-31, 2017, Vilnius, Lithuania

<https://www.iatso.org/>

36th Annual Research and Treatment Conference

October 25-28, 2017, Kansas City, Missouri

<http://www.atsa.com/conference>

27th National Organization for the Treatment of Abusers – Annual International Conference

September 2017, Cardiff, UK

<http://www.nota.co.uk/conference/>

Canadian Domestic Homicide Prevention Conference

October 18-19, 2017, London Ontario

<http://www.cdhpi.ca/canadian-domestic-homicide-prevention-conference>

Submit abstracts at <http://www.cdhpi.ca/call-proposals-submission-form>

International Conference: Safer Communities, Safer Relationships

October 4-6, 2017, Prato, Italy

www.swin.edu.au/prato2017



Mechelen, Belgium



Toronto, ON



Split, Croatia