

# Crime Scene

## 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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## EDITORS' NOTE

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Welcome CJS members to the second issue of the newsletter for this year. Your feedback on the previous issue was appreciated, and we seem to be back in full swing with submissions! You'll find special features, briefs, and columns that highlight the range of experience, and knowledge of our Section members. Thank-you to all of those that have contributed to the return of *Crime Scene*. Please take special notice as you read through the newsletter for the call for papers for the NACCJPC, and how to nominate a CJS member for a CPA award, to be presented at the annual convention.

## VIEW FROM THE TOP, by Mark Olver, Ph.D., Chair

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At this past CPA convention in Winnipeg, criminal justice psychology had a small but spirited presence in the form of a small collection of posters and presentations and awards conferred to Drs. Robert Hare (D.O. Hebb Award), Christopher Webster (Career Contribution Award), and Zoe Hilton (Significant Achievement Award). Congratulations are also in order for student poster winners Carrie Tanasichuk, University of Saskatchewan (Graduate Student Poster Prize) and Andrew Gray, Carleton University (Undergraduate Student Poster Prize). Although conference attendance was down, the quality of our Section's contributions was commendable and our reception seemed to be heartily enjoyed by all. As well, at this past conference, a criminal justice psychology prong was created as part of a collaborative Task Force for Psychology in the Public Service, joining hospital and school psychology. One focus of the criminal justice prong of the task force will be on advocacy for professional psychology in Canadian corrections. The criminal justice psychology task force membership is currently being established with some interested parties having joined to assist with this important initiative.

At this juncture, we are fast approaching the second North American Correctional and Criminal Justice Psychology Conference (NACCJPC-2) hosted at next year's annual convention in Toronto. Building on the tremendous success, quality contributions, and high turnout from researchers, practitioners, and students nationally and abroad in the first NACCJPC in Ottawa in 2007, Dr. Jeremy Mills and the Conference Committee Executive have been working in earnest to ensure the success of NACCJPC-2. I would like to take the opportunity here to briefly mention some of the details for the upcoming conference.

First, as recently announced on the Section listserv, the submissions portal is now open. Please visit: <https://web.cpa.ca/submissions2011/index.php?page=login3>. The deadline for submissions is November 15, 2010. A Facebook page for the conference has been up and running for a while now and links to the conference can be found on our Section website.

There is an esteemed lineup of international keynote speakers who will be presenting on a range of criminal justice topics including Drs. Joel Dvoskin (University of Arizona), Karl Hanson (Public Safety Canada), Sheilagh Hodgins (King's College, University of London, UK and Maria-Ungdom Research Centre, Stockholm, Sweden), Jennifer Skeem (University of California, Irvine), and Paula Smith (University of Cincinnati).

In addition to the concurrent presentation venues scheduled around the keynotes, new to the NACCJPC-2 will be a "Research Exchange" in which leading researchers will make themselves available for 2 hours at a table to meet with interested parties and speak to their program of research (there will be approximately half a dozen tables with researchers at each). The *Research Exchange*, in turn, will provide a structure to give attendees an opportunity to speak to the leading researchers in the field rather than the "hit and miss" that usually happens at a conference. The APA refereed journal *Psychological Services* will also have a presence, as will the delegates from the Division of Forensic Psychology of the British Psychological Society.

Finally, the NACCJPC-2 poster session will also take place independent of CPA's program. During the first NACCJPC, the posters were divided into two sessions and mixed in with posters from other sections. This time all NACCJPC-2 posters will be presented during a timeslot on the first day (Thursday) when the symposium program has finished for the day. This, in turn, will allow all attendees the opportunity to view the posters and give the student poster raters a full day to grade and award the poster prizes.

The first NACCJPC convention boasted an excess of 350 attendees and over 200 submissions. The exciting lineup of keynote presenters and new developments promise to build on the success of the last convention. I would also like to take this opportunity to thank Jeremy Mills and the Conference Committee Executive for their outstanding work on this enormous undertaking to help ensure the success of NACCJPC-2.

Don't forget to make your submissions!  
Best regards,  
Mark

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## **COLUMN: IN THE TRENCHES, by Dorothy Cotton, Ph.D., Director-At-Large, Police Psychology**

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The Police Sector Council:

Ah...if only I had known all this stuff in my younger days!!! One of the dilemmas of working in the area of police psychology is that basically, there is no such area. There are no graduate courses that really prepare you for this kind of work, no internships, and really not much of a structure to guide you. Yeah, we have a special interest group here within the Criminal Justice Section, and sometimes we have sessions at the annual CPA conference--but to a large extent, you are on your own in this field. It is therefore not surprising that practice is variable--and probably nowhere is it more variable than in the area of pre-employment assessment of police officers. On the one hand that is probably the most common type of psychological service that police services make use of--but on the other hand, it does present challenges to the providers. Pre-employment assessments represent a curious interface between I/O psychology on the one hand, and clinical psychology on the other. Depending on the police service and the type of structure they have in place for hiring, the assessment may lean in one direction or the other. As a clinical psychologist myself, I know I was a little short on understanding the I/O end of things when I started in this business. If only I had known...

Actually, what I wish I had known was about a group called the Police Sector Council (<http://www.policecouncil.ca>).

*The Police Sector Council (PSC) is a centre for HR information, tools and networks. It supports horizontality in policing - a vision of a sector that is informed about HR issues and challenges, integrated in HR planning and management, and aligned and networked to improve policing "sector-wide".....The Police Sector Council (PSC) is a national initiative to identify common human resource challenges and to find innovative solutions to urgent human resource issues in the policing community. ....The PSC is a federally-funded, initiative to identify workable solutions to the top human resource priorities for Canadian police at a national level. These priorities include recruiting, retention, e-learning, training, and leadership development along with other key initiatives to improve police productivity, performance, and long-term sustainability.*

I am not sure I quite know what "horizontality" is--must be one of those police buzzwords--but I do know that the Police Sector Council and its website and publications provide a goldmine of information for those of us doing pre-employment assessments. If you read through that paragraph above (admittedly pieced together from website bits) there are a lot of words in there that should resonate with psychologists.

One of the parts I like the best is the competency framework and job analysis that they have developed. Most of us who are doing pre-employment screenings are not police officers, and we are largely left to our devices to figure out what the essential competencies for a police officer might be. Some larger police services have developed their own sets of competencies--and some share these with the psychologists who do the assessment. But some police services do not have their own well developed competency framework, and some don't share it with their psychologists; and some of us don't know to ask. It can be a little difficult to determine whether someone is suitable for a given job if you don't really know what the job is. Sure, we can probably do a reasonable job of identifying the people who have severe psychological problems which render them undesirable as police candidates. The highly impulsive person with an anger management problem, the overly timid and shy person who has difficulty taking control of a situation...these are not great bets for policing. But once you get past the obvious, what competencies does a person need?

Well, if you ask the PSC, it appears that there are nine critical competencies:

1. Adaptability
2. Problem solving
3. Interactive communications
4. Organizational awareness
5. Risk management
6. Stress tolerance
7. Teamwork
8. Written skills
9. Ethical accountability and responsibility

## COLUMN: IN THE TRENCHES, Con't

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It becomes much easier to conceptualize the pre-employment assessment if one thinks in terms of “does this candidate display the essential competencies to be a police constable?” Some of these, you (or the police service) can assess directly. You can actually SEE if a person can write—by asking them to write. But in other cases, one must infer. What can we tell about a person’s general adaptability, their stress tolerance, and their ethics, from a psychological assessment? Well, as it turns out, we can tell a great deal. We have tests that assess specific aspects of psychopathology that might suggest a person is not likely to act ethically. We can look at Big Five tests that can predict to some extent whether a person is adaptable, whether they can work as part of a team.

The good news about a competency profile (such as the PSC provides) is that at the end of day, if we assess and address these characteristics, we can go to sleep knowing that the conclusions we draw are likely defensible, and they likely address BFOR’s—bona fide occupational requirements.

So have a look at the Police Sector council website. It’s good stuff. If you do pre-employment assessment for a police service and you don’t have access to their competency profile—then ask for them. Or ask if your police service has a document called, “*A Guide to Constable Selection: A Best Practice Approach and Research Update.*” If the police services you work with don’t have a copy, ask the PSC for a copy of their extremely helpful materials. You can reach Portia Dewhirst, the Director of Programs at the PSC at... [pdewhirst@policecouncil.ca](mailto:pdewhirst@policecouncil.ca)

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## COLUMN: TRAINING IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE PSYCHOLOGY, by David Simourd, Ph.D., Director-at-Large, Clinical & Training

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This is my first column in *Crime Scene* as the Director of Training, having taken over from Mark Olver, who took over from Andrew Starzomski. I’m very pleased to be part of the *Crime Scene* family once again. For those who don’t know me, I have been in the criminal justice field for quite some time. I graduated from Carleton University in 1992 and became a Registered Psychologist in 1993. I worked as a psychologist at Collins Bay Penitentiary in Kingston for almost 10 years before becoming the clinical director of the forensic program at what was commonly referred to as the Kingston Psychiatric Hospital. After two years, I entered the world of full-time private practice and consulting, which I have done for the past seven years. I am no stranger to CPA or *Crime Scene*, however. I have attended all but three CPA conventions since 1986. At the dawn of a new age in the criminal justice section, Franca Cortoni and I were the original editors of the newsletter. Now that you are sufficiently bored, I’ll leave my introductory remarks and move on to the topic of my column.

In my 18 years of field work in criminal justice psychology I have come to appreciate that being a good psychologist is based on the two essential ingredients of: 1) Base knowledge, and 2) Skill Application. Base knowledge consists of the essential information required for the job whereas skill application reflects the implementation of psychological knowledge into real world contexts such that clients (individuals, organizations, lay public) can maximally benefit from our words of wisdom. These essential ingredients sound a lot like scientist-practitioner, don’t they?

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## COLUMN: TRAINING Con't

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From a training point of view, I see the accumulation of base knowledge following different tracks for two different types of psychologists in criminal justice; what I may jokingly refer to as newbies and geezers. Newbies are essentially students who obtain the necessary credentials and become practicing psychologists. Geezers are established psychologists who switch from one area into criminal justice psychology later in their careers. The base knowledge training track for newbies consists of formal education through graduate school training. We have heard in previous *Crime Scene* columns by Mark Olver and the current issue by Leslie Helmus regarding where the university action is with respect to educational opportunities in Canadian universities. For Geezers, however, returning to the classroom is not a viable option. How do these individuals gain the necessary base knowledge to perform sufficiently in the real world? The simple answer is through structured educational opportunities (i.e., reviews of relevant literature, conference attendance, etc.) and through collegial contact (i.e., formal or informal supervision/advice from others in criminal justice).

Skill application is an equal partner to base knowledge to being a good psychologist. Skill application is garnered through a combination of clinical experiences, personality style, and maturity. The old saying: 'there is no substitute for experience' certainly has merit in our business. I would also offer that there is no substitute for criminal justice experience from multiple contexts/settings. It is not uncommon for clients (e.g., offenders, organizations, lawyers, lay people) to be un-accepting/suspicious/antagonistic to the information or message we deliver.

Clinical experience allows us to deal with this reaction in the best way possible. From a training perspective, clinical experience normally comes from internships and practica, which is mainly a domain for the newbies. For geezers, trial-by-fire seems to be the standard clinical experience although this can be enhanced through collegial contact. Personality style is also relevant to the skill application part of the equation. Offering opinions is what psychologists do, and these opinions can affect many people in many ways. It is one thing for a financial advisor to misread the stock market and have clients gain paltry returns, but it is quite another story for a psychologist to drop the ball on an opinion of a client that causes harm to the community. Psychologists can't become paralyzed with indecision and must feel comfortable with the opinions they form, the decisions they make, and the consequences that arise from their efforts. Between the personality style of overly cautious to overly cavalier lies a good criminal justice psychologist.

Having criminal justice experience in multiple contexts/settings and being in private practice full-time, I may have a different perspective on criminal justice psychology than my Director of Training predecessors. I hope to share these with readers of *Crime Scene* in upcoming columns. Until then, I think I will read another article and interview another client.

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## RECENTLY DEFENDED DISSERTATIONS AND THESES

### **The Offence Progression in Sexual Offenders: An Examination of the Self-Regulation Model of the Offence Process**

Drew Kingston  
University of Ottawa

The self-regulation model is an offence process model designed specifically for sexual offenders. It was developed as a result of theoretical and practical problems with the traditional relapse prevention approach to sexual offender treatment and from empirical evidence identifying variability in the offence chain among sexual offenders. The self-regulation model is a nine-phase process with four distinct pathways to sexual offending that represent the combination of offence-related goals (approach versus avoidance) and self-regulatory strategies selected to achieve the goal (passive/automatic versus active/explicit). In the present study, I evaluated the validity and utility of the self-regulation model in a sample of 275 adult male sexual offenders treated within the Correctional Service of Canada (CSC). First, the concurrent validity of the study variables utilized as part of the overall assessment battery was examined in order to elucidate the relationships among the various treatment needs targeted by the CSC's sexual offender programs. Following this, differences among individuals following diverse self-regulation pathways were investigated, as was, within-treatment change following participation in CSC's sexual offender programs. Results showed that self-regulation pathway was differentially associated with risk to re-offend and several treatment needs. Finally, in terms of post-treatment change, moderate to large sized improvements were noted for dynamic risk assessment measures as well as several self-reported treatment targets. These changes were, in some cases, differentially associated with self-regulation pathway, suggesting that offence pathway is a clinically relevant variable when evaluating treatment change and in conceptualizing sexual offender treatment. Implications of these findings for the effective assessment and rehabilitation of sexual offenders are discussed.

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## RECENTLY DEFENDED DISSERTATIONS AND THESES Con't

### **Instrumental and Reactive Violence: The Role of Mental Health Factors and Maltreatment History in the Manifestation of Violent Offending**

Rebecca Lynn Douglas  
Dalhousie University

Researchers have consistently identified two distinct types of aggression: A “hotblooded”, impulsive, reactive form of aggression, and a “cold-blooded”, premeditated, instrumental form of aggression. Despite the relevance of psychopathology to the prediction of violent offending, there has been limited research on the role of mental health factors in subtypes of severe criminal violence. Childhood maltreatment history has also demonstrated associations with both psychopathology and violence, yet has not been investigated in subtypes of severe violence in adults. In the current study, the relationships between mental health history, substance use, personality pathology, maltreatment, and subtypes of criminal violence were examined in a sample of 144 incarcerated male offenders. Domain-specific multinomial logistic regression analyses indicated that the likelihood of reactive violence was predicted by the severity of alcohol use history and polysubstance intoxication at the time of the offence. Whereas there was a trend for stimulant use history to be predictive of reactive violence, stimulant intoxication at the time of offence was exclusively associated with instrumental violence. Severity of opiate use history revealed a trend for association with the likelihood of instrumental violence. Specific Axis I mental health problems, personality pathology, and maltreatment history were not predictive of violence subtype. Although psychopathy was not a significant individual predictor of violence subtype, the interaction between substance intoxication and specific psychopathic traits contributed significantly to the prediction of violence subtype. A final logistic regression model identified stimulant intoxication, polysubstance intoxication, and alcohol use history as key predictors of violence subtype. This model allowed for the prediction of subtype of violence at a rate higher than chance. In addition to risk-factor analyses, person-focused analyses identified four clusters of offenders in the current sample: A High Psychopathology cluster, a Low Psychopathology cluster, an Antisocial cluster, and a Moderate Schizoid Traits cluster. Clusters differed significantly on psychopathology profiles, and were marginally different on maltreatment history. However, clusters demonstrated limited association with subtype of violence. Findings from this research have important implications for violence risk prediction, offender profiling, and developing targeted intervention services.

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### **A Neuropsychological Study of Traumatic Brain Injury among a Canadian Sample of Male Federal Offenders**

Karen Todd  
University of Regina

Traumatic brain injury (TBI) is a leading cause of disability, and an extensive literature base exists in relation to TBI sequelae and risk factors among the general population. Much less is known about TBI among offenders, a segment of the population considered a high risk for TBI. Developing greater understanding about TBI among offenders has implications for the management of offenders while they are incarcerated, as well as for community reintegration efforts. The present study assessed self-reported TBI among a sample of Canadian Federal offenders, and addressed research questions related to the psychological, neuropsychological and behavioral attributes of the sample; the attribute differences between identified TBI groups; and the implications of the results for correctional practice. The sample consisted of 105 intake offenders from Saskatchewan Penitentiary, a multi-level security Canadian Federal institution. An assessment battery was administered to participants that included neuropsychological, psychological, and behavioral measures, along with a TBI screen. Of the 105 participants, 65 (61.9% of the sample) were classified as reporting some to strong evidence of TBI, with this number broken down into 14 participants (13.3% of the sample) reporting strong evidence and 51 participants (48.6% of the sample) reporting some evidence of TBI. Forty participants (38.1% of the sample) were classified as reporting no evidence of TBI. Multivariate analyses revealed significant differences between TBI groups on two major neuropsychological measures, the Repeatable Battery for the Assessment of Neuropsychological Status (RBANS) and the Neuropsychological Impairment Scale (NIS). The NIS and RBANS emerged as robust neuropsychological measures with substantial potential to be useful as TBI screening tools for offender populations. Additional TBI research is needed with Canadian Federal offenders to further establish prevalence rates and responsive interventions, the latter of which can contribute to community reintegration efforts and ultimately public safety.

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**WE WANT YOUR ABSTRACT! SEND US YOUR COMPLETED  
DISSERTATION OR THESIS**

## SPECIAL FEATURE

### New Standards for Psychological Services in Correctional and Forensic Settings

Jean Folsom, Ph.D.

The International Association for Correctional and Forensic Psychology has recently published a special issue of *Criminal Justice and Behavior* (2010) that is devoted to delineating new correctional and forensic standards: *Standards for Psychology Services in Jails, Prisons, Correctional Facilities and Agencies* (IACFP's Standards). The most obvious question is – do we really need another set of standards? The Canadian Psychological Association already has both Practice Guidelines for Providers of Psychological Services (Canadian Psychological Association, 2001) and a Code of Ethics (Canadian Psychological Association, 2000). In Ontario, we also have Standards of Professional Conduct published by our regulatory body (College of Psychologists of Ontario, 2005). Is there really an additional need for more guidance? Or, with the addition of another set of standards, do we run the risk of creating confusion or potential conflicts between the various standards?

At the outset of IACFP's Standards, it is noted that they are guidelines. They are not intended to replace existing provincial or national standards by professional or regulatory bodies but rather to augment them. That being said, it is also the belief of the authors that working in jails, prisons, and correctional facilities presents additional ethical and practice concerns that go beyond those presented in most other working environments and therefore further guidance is required. Such specific issues include how we deal with offenders with mental health problems in segregation and the issue of psychologists being asked to play a role in the punishment and torture of prisoners. In a more general sense, though, with rising costs of incarceration and with the increase in the number of offenders with mental health problems, psychologists are often unable to meet all the demands placed on them, and may not be able to provide optimal services in all instances. The Standards offer advice about how to deal with these situations.

A significant component of IACFP's Standards addresses the "big picture" in the provision of psychological services in a correctional or forensic setting. This follows from the Standards' administrative mission which is "to provide the highest quality psychological services to the seriously mentally ill detainee, inmate, or resident, and, as possible, to other mentally ill individuals entrusted to their care, in keeping with human rights, international treaties, civil (or comparable) rights, applicable legislation, and community standards." (p. 760). Thus, there is also advice for administrators - such as suggesting that they need to ensure that there are sufficient numbers of qualified staff to provide competent psychological services to offenders with serious mental illnesses. They also speak to the role that psychologists need to play in advocating for an appropriate level of services at their work setting. The Standards also contain a section on ethics, which guides the rest of the document. Thus, these Standards are more all-encompassing than CPA's Code of Ethics or Practice Guidelines or the standards of a regulatory body.

The IACFP's Standards have been designed to help practitioners deal with three major challenges that face them in their work in correctional and forensic settings. Although these challenges spring from issues that exist in the United States, to a lesser extent, they will be familiar to anyone who works in a correctional or forensic setting. The first one is the increasing numbers of offenders with mental health problems arriving in a system that has been focusing on "getting tough on crime". Offenders with mental health problems are seen as criminals first and as mentally ill second, if at all, and advocating for services for them can be viewed as being "soft on crime". The second issue relates to the funding available for mental health services. In the United States, there has been a large increase in the prison population over the past few decades, which has led to correctional budgets struggling to meet even the basic needs of offenders. This makes it very difficult to fund high quality psychological services. Lastly, in the United States, there has been an increase in costly civil rights litigation against corrections departments for their failure to provide adequate mental health care to offenders with mental illnesses, which is a violation of their constitutional rights. IACFP's Standards assist with these challenges by setting internationally accepted levels of service that can guide administrative and mental health staff and can provide some protection against civil rights litigation.

So how do these Standards compare with CPA's Code of Ethics and Practice Guidelines and the College of Psychologists of Ontario's Standards of Professional Conduct? The ethical principles in IACFP's Standards are very similar to CPA's. They speak to respecting the dignity of the person, to responsible caring in terms of maximizing good and minimizing harm and to having some responsibility to society in keeping abreast in one's areas of competencies and by educating the public about psychology issues. They do not speak so directly to the integrity of relationships but there is nothing in them that is inconsistent with this CPA ethical principle. The standards themselves are quite consistent with CPA's Practice Guidelines and the College of Psychologists Standards of Professional Conduct, with which they overlap to a large extent, i.e. addressing issues around documentation, informed consent and confidentiality.

## SPECIAL FEATURE Con't

### New Standards for Psychological Services Con't

The most striking difference is in the amount of time spent on issues related to working in correctional or forensic organizations as opposed to issues that arise in one's private practice. For example, they discuss issues with the operation of a psychology department and the integration of that department within the organization as opposed to client billing and fees for service.

One significant difference between the IACFP's Standards and the Canadian ones is in the terminology used for service providers. At least for the purpose of simplifying terminology in this document, they make a distinction between a "psychologist" and a "licensed psychologist". A "psychologist", in these Standards, is someone who has completed the education and training necessary to become a psychologist but is not yet licensed. In Ontario, and probably most of Canada, the term "psychologist" is legally protected and can only be used by someone who is registered with a regulatory body.

IACFP's Standards also differ from our Canadian ones in their international focus and in the breadth of their scope. They aspire to be guidelines that would be applicable in any country, and in this way, they could be very valuable for smaller countries where there may not be the critical mass to develop their own standards. They provide guidance not only to psychologists but also to other mental health professionals such as social workers and to adjunct mental health care providers. Finally they offer guidance to administrators in order to help them to develop a high-quality psychological service and to thereby avoid civil court challenges related to inadequate care.

ACFP's Standards clearly have no legal authority and are self-described as aspirational, yet they do offer additional advice and guidance to a wide range of people working in correctional and forensic settings. They may be of assistance in guiding the organization of a psychology department and in supporting requests for an appropriate level of service for offenders. IACFP's Standards are a welcome addition to the list of references on the delivery of professionally accepted mental health services.

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## SPECIAL FEATURE

### Extremism, Terrorism and Middle Eastern Honour Killings: Is there a Connection?

Wagdy Loza, Ph.D., C.Psych

Canadians will soon hear about the trial of a man and his son for the alleged honour killings of three teenage sisters and a 50-year-old woman who were close relatives of the accused pair. This crime occurred in Kingston, Ontario, in the summer of 2009. If this incident proves to be an honour killing then it will be the fifth known reported case of its kind in Canada during the past decade. This figure, however, may be an underestimate. With the increase in the number of immigrants from middle-eastern origin, I expect that this type of killing will increase.

Similar to the home grown terrorists phenomenon, there is a paucity of psychological research, if any, that has been completed on the subject of "honour killing". Considering that this phenomenon is relatively new in the western countries including Canada, my goal is to shed some light on this phenomenon. The majority of my references are mainly from Arabic sources, rendering them inaccessible to the majority of readers of this newsletter. For specific references, please contact the writer.

Honour killing is a cultural act in which (typically) males kill female family members as a means to "keep the honour of the family" or "to wash the shame" that these females are believed to have caused the family. Essentially, it is a form of cleansing dishonour with blood. It usually involves fathers, husbands, or brothers killing their daughters, wives, or sisters. In societies where it is practiced, honour killings are deemed to be a form of sacrifice in which the offending female family member is sacrificed for the family to remain accepted in society. It is important to understand that controlling the behaviour of women is not only typical, but required. Accordingly, by the sacrificial killing of a close female relative, the family can appeal to society to accept them again. In other words, it is a way of purifying the family's name brought into disrepute by the offending behaviour and reclaiming their honour.

An honour killing is usually triggered by female involvement in a "forbidden" sexual relationship such as committing adultery, engaging in premarital sexual intercourse, falling in love with or seen in the company of another man, especially an "outsider", and perhaps incomprehensively from a Western perspective, being the *victim* of a sexual assault. It is common for women to be blamed for being raped. Additional "benefits" accruing from honour killing include preserving the honour of other women in the family and avoiding persecution for incest in the family (i.e., the man kills his victim to avoid being discovered). Honour killings have also occurred as a result of marrying a man from another religion or denomination, for marrying a man without the prior approval of her family, and finally even for chatting on Facebook with a male.

Several reasons have been proposed to explain this type of behaviour, including the existence of religions and cultures that promote the superiority of men over women (women are property of their men and not to be trusted). Examples of these practices exist in most middle-eastern countries that perhaps most poignantly demonstrate the inferior status of women to men. In these societies, women's testimony in courts is worth only half the weight of testimony provided by a male. Females cannot travel or obtain a passport without a husband or guardian providing written consent. On perhaps a more mundane but extremely constricting level, women are not allowed to drive cars in Saudi Arabia. Intrinsicly, ideologies that promote the man as the owner imply absolute control over his wife's being (i.e., body and soul). Some attribute this misogyny to extremist political Islam, noting that this ideology was spawned in societies that have no tradition of democracy, or Western conceptualization of human rights and tolerance of others with different beliefs about religion or politics. Equality for women is but one example of numerous issues that remain stuck in thousand year old sand. Others note that disturbingly, some Middle Eastern societies have regressed from relatively egalitarian structures and practices to the traditions of the tribal, and desert behaviour. Another factor is extremist religious justification for sanctioning honour killing. The importing of these lingering attitudes in the West, including Canada, often reflects the unwillingness of many Middle Eastern immigrants to adopt Western cultural attitudes and consistent non-discriminatory behaviour towards females. For example, a man convicted in Germany for honour killing justified the killing by saying that his victim "lived like a German".

One only needs to refer to the predicted prevalence of honour killings to understand the magnitude of this problem. It is estimated that as many as 5000 women and girls are victims of honour killing by family members each year across the world. For example, in Yemen, it is estimated that approximately 500 women are killed each year. A judge in one Middle Eastern country estimated that honour killing comprise 40% of all killings in his country. In Jordan, it is reported that 25% of murder crimes are related to honour killing. In Syria the average number of reported honour killings in 2006 and 2007 was 37 cases. In Iraq in 2006, the number was estimated at 47. In Turkey, honour killings have been reported to occur weekly.. Also, it is estimated that 40-50 women are killed each year in Lebanon; 36 - 48 women are killed each year in Gaza Strip and 36 – 48 women are killed each year in Jordan.

## SPECIAL FEATURE

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### Extremism, Terrorism and Middle Eastern Honour Killings Con't

The “exporting” of this heinous practice is captured by data from Europe. For example, in Germany, 40 instances of honour killings have occurred since 1996 and at least a dozen such killings were reported in the United Kingdom between 2004 and 2005. Disturbingly, social scientists have warned us that these reported statistics are not entirely accurate. Similar to the case that occurred in Kingston, Ontario last summer, often the killing is made to look like an accident or suicide. Disturbingly, the honour killing defense sometimes is invoked to take advantage of an expected lenient sentence meted out by misguided courts. Inaccurate statistics may regrettably accrue from the fear of being accused of being culturally insensitive which prevents authorities from identifying it as honour killing.

Relaxed laws are blamed for the continuation of this phenomenon in Middle Eastern countries. These laws allow reduced sentences for those convicted of honour killings. For example, in some countries there are laws that give a man the privilege of washing his shame by himself. Additionally, men are given reduced sentences for honour killing, crimes of passion or crimes that occur during “fit of fury”. It is reported that these laws allow men sentences as light as six months in jail for this type of crime. These relaxed laws for men are not extended to women. A true life sentence would follow for a woman, if she killed her husband in response to his committing adultery in her own house.

Like most extremists and terrorists, the majority of honour killers are not mentally ill, and are not personality disordered, psychopathic, or otherwise criminal. They do not harbor anti-social feelings, anti-social attitudes, anti-social behaviour, or anti-social beliefs. Conversely, they are conforming to their society’s code of honour and “dominant ideology”.

Typically, honour killers do not feel remorse for their actions because culturally, they are not doing anything wrong. This is demonstrated by a case where a man convicted of killing his daughter stated that “honour is more precious than my own flesh and blood”. Similarly, another elderly man who had killed his wife stated “do you want me to be a sinner who would go to hell. I will do it over and over again”. Finally, another man said “those people who protect their wives’ honour goes to heaven.”

Suggestions to deal with this phenomenon in Western countries include providing shelters, protection and counselling for women at risk. The acculturation of immigrants into Western values must be not only encouraged but pursued and society must provide measures to deal with the ideological, religious, psychological, and sociological roots of honour killings that are not compatible with living in Western countries. Religious tolerance does not imply pure and naïve tolerance, for then we would have to allow human sacrifices for immigrants from societies where such practices might still be extant. Mormons had to abandon multiple marriages for Utah to achieve statehood in the early 1920’s. The advantages derived from evolved Western values and culture are many. This is best achieved by coordinating contributions from key disciplines within the social sciences. Psychology should play a dominant role in this important social endeavor.

I encourage psychologists, particularly those from Middle Eastern backgrounds who understand the culture and the ideology behind this phenomenon, to lead the way in research, and program development for vulnerable communities and those who come into conflict with the law. Honour killing is an especially virulent and insidious form of domestic violence, requiring special training and programs to protect women. It has been reported that in some European countries under the idea of giving leeway to different cultures and political correctness encourages and abets violence perpetrated on women by family members who are predominantly but not exclusively men. I hope that this does not happen in Canada.

Acknowledgment: Many thanks to Dr. M. Kuriychuk for her help in the editing of the first draft. I also appreciate Dr. D. Nussbaum’s very useful comments and contributions.

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## SPECIAL FEATURE Cont'd

### Forensic Psychology Opportunities in Canadian Graduate Programs: An Update of Simourd and Wormith's (1995) Survey

Leslie Helmus<sup>1</sup>, Kelly M. Babchishin<sup>1</sup>, Joseph A. Camilleri<sup>2</sup>, & Mark E. Olver<sup>3</sup>

1. Carleton University, 2. Westfield State University, 3. University of Saskatchewan

Although it is a recent field, forensic psychology has undergone enormous growth in recent decades (Bersoff, Goodman-Delahunty, Grisso, Hans, Poythress, & Roesch, 1997; Grisso, Sales, & Bayless, 1982; Ogloff, 2000; Poythress, 1979; Watkins, 1992), and Canadians in particular have made considerable contributions to the field. Forensic psychology has witnessed marked increases in specialized textbooks, journals, and professional associations. In universities, forensic psychology courses continue to be popular (Bersoff, 1999; Bersoff et al., 1997) and surveys identify high student interest in this field (Morgan, Beer, Fitzgerald, & Mandracchia, 2007; Pietz, DeMier, Dienst, Green, & Scully, 1998).

Despite the strong student interest, however, correctional psychology positions have been chronically understaffed (Olver, Preston, Camilleri, Helmus, & Starzomski, 2008; Watkins, 1992) and many authors have noted that the training of students has been insufficient to meet the needs of the field (Bersoff et al., 1997; Grisso et al., 1982; Ogloff, 1990; Ogloff, 2004; Porter, 2004; Watkins, 1992). Despite the clear need for more formal training opportunities, little attention has been paid to this issue, particularly in Canada (Ogloff, 1990, 2000).

Simourd and Wormith (1995) conducted a survey to examine the availability of forensic psychology opportunities in Canadian universities with psychology graduate programs. Of the 28 universities that responded (82% response rate), just over half ( $n = 15$ ) reported having some form of forensic training (typically informal opportunities as opposed to a structured forensic program).

The purpose of our study (Helmus, Babchishin, Camilleri, & Olver, 2010) was to investigate whether opportunities for forensic psychology graduate training in Canada have changed since Simourd and Wormith's (1995) survey and to provide students with a potential resource for identifying forensic training and education opportunities. The methodology and major findings of our paper are summarized below.

#### Method

We used the same survey as Simourd and Wormith (1995), with minor changes in the wording, order, and number of questions for clarity. The survey was also translated into French for francophone universities. Responses were received between January and July, 2008, representing the 2007/2008 academic year.

#### Results

Overall, 36 universities participated in the survey (92% response rate), of which 24 (67%) reported at least one forensic opportunity, defined as any faculty member or student involved in forensic research or any forensic courses/internships/practica available (these universities are listed in Table 1).

Of the universities with forensic content, 4 (17%) indicated that they had a structured forensic psychology program with core requirements (Carleton, Dalhousie, Québec à Trois-Rivières, and Simon Fraser). The remaining universities would therefore be considered self-directed (i.e., students could independently pursue forensic content). The six universities with the largest forensic psychology programs (defined by summing the number of forensic faculty, students, courses, and the presence to internships) were Carleton, New Brunswick, Ottawa, Québec à Trois-Rivières, Saskatchewan, and Simon Fraser.

To assess changes in the availability of forensic psychology content at Canadian universities, the results were compared with the 1995 survey (Simourd & Wormith, 1995). Fourteen universities were identified as having forensic psychology content both in 1995 and in the current survey, although eight of these universities decreased the size of their programs. Forensic opportunities were available at ten new universities, and one university with forensic content in 1995 was not surveyed in the current study (the Ontario Institute of Secondary Education).

## SPECIAL FEATURE Cont'd

### Forensic Psychology Opportunities in Canadian Graduate Programs Con't

#### Discussion

The current study suggests that 67% of graduate psychology programs in Canada offer some forensic opportunities. Despite the overall increase in forensic psychology content, it is surprising that 8 of 14 universities decreased the size of their forensic program since 1995. This finding might suggest that calls for more formal forensic psychology educational opportunities in Canada have not been sufficiently addressed (Bersoff et al., 1997; Ogloff, 2004; Porter, 2004). For forensic psychology to thrive, however, more specialized training is needed and greater attention should be paid to this issue (Ogloff, 1990; Porter, 2004; Poythress, 1979).

It is our hope that the findings of our survey provide a useful resource about the availability of graduate opportunities in forensic psychology at Canadian universities. Students should keep in mind, however, that these responses were current as of 2008 and some fluctuations since the time of the survey would be expected (e.g., faculty retiring or relocating, new faculty hires). In addition, the study is descriptive and therefore cannot be used to judge the quality of forensic psychology training across universities.

Nonetheless, we hope the survey can assist students who are contemplating graduate training in forensic psychology. Although many students may be aware of the universities with larger forensic programs, this study highlights the diverse forensic training opportunities throughout the country, hopefully illuminating options that some students may not have considered. One next step in establishing resources for students would be to create a list of each faculty member involved in forensic research or practice and to specify what are their research/clinical interests. Such a list is currently being developed by the student representatives of the Criminal Justice Section of CPA (Leticia Gutierrez and Joanna Hessen) and should hopefully be posted on the CPA Criminal Justice Section website in the near future.

Table 1

#### *Canadian Universities with Forensic Psychology Graduate Training*

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University
Acadia (NS)
British Columbia (BC)
Carleton (ON)
Dalhousie (NS)
Guelph (ON)
Lakehead (ON)
Lethbridge (AB)
Memorial (NF)
Montréal (QC)
New Brunswick (NB)
Ottawa (ON)
Québec à Trois-Rivières (QC)
Queen's (ON)
Regina (SK)
Saint-Mary's (NS)
Saskatchewan (SK)
Sherbrooke (QC)
Simon Fraser (BC)
Toronto (ON)
Victoria (BC)
Western (ON)
Wilfrid Laurier (ON)
Windsor (ON)
York (ON)

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## SPECIAL FEATURE Cont'd

### Forensic Psychology Opportunities in Canadian Graduate Programs Cont't

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Note: This is a summary of an article submitted for publication. For more information, please contact [lesliehismus@yahoo.ca](mailto:lesliehismus@yahoo.ca). The first, third, and fourth authors conducted this study through their involvement in the Criminal Justice Section Executive of the Canadian Psychological Association.

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## SPECIAL FEATURE

### Increasing Confidence in the Criminal Justice System Through Public Education<sup>1</sup>

Carrie L. Tanasichuk & J. Stephen Wormith  
University of Saskatchewan

Public opinion polls conducted around the world have shown low rates of public confidence in the criminal justice system (CJS; Latimer & Desjardins, 2007; Roberts, 2004; Tyler & Huo, 2002). Recent polls suggest that less than half (46%) of Canadians are confident in the CJS as a whole (Roberts, 2004). When asked to differentiate between various components, differing levels of confidence are found for the different facets of the CJS: Canadians report the highest confidence in the police followed by the courts and corrections (Latimer & Desjardins, 2007; Roberts, 2004).

Low levels of public confidence are problematic, as the CJS relies on public support in order to function effectively (Casey, 2008). Members of a society are more likely to comply with rules and regulations when they see legal authorities as being legitimate (Tyler & Huo, 2002). Furthermore, individuals who are not confident in the CJS are less likely to report crimes, to provide police with helpful information, or to testify as a witness in court trials (Indermaur & Hough, 2002; Roberts, 2004; Roberts & Edwards, 1989). There are also implications for social cohesion (Roberts, 2004). Statistics Canada (2003) found that people who have higher levels of confidence in the CJS were more likely to report a greater sense of belonging to Canada. In a similar vein, Tyler and Blader (2000) found that participants in the United States reported less rule-breaking behaviour (such as illegal activities) when respondents were more engaged in their communities and community activities.

A major source of dissatisfaction found in public opinion polls is that the public sees the CJS as being too lenient on offenders. This is hardly surprising, as there is a high level of ignorance regarding the CJS, with most members of the public being unaware of average sentence lengths for particular offences and not being informed of alternatives to incarceration (e.g., community sentences; Cullen, Fisher, & Applegate, 2000; Doob, 2000; Indermaur & Hough, 2002; Hough & Park, 2002; Stalans & Diamond, 1990). Canadians also have a poor knowledge of crime trends. Canadians tend to believe that crime rates are increasing, over-estimate recidivism rates, as well as over-estimate the number of offenders who are granted parole (Roberts, 2004). Furthermore, laypersons typically overestimate the severity of typical offences that appear in court (Stalans & Diamond, 1990). This misinformation lends itself to negative attitudes and lowered confidence in the CJS (Roberts, 2004). Perceptions and attitudes based on misinformation may be problematic, as policymakers base decisions regarding crime and criminal justice on public opinion (Casey, 2008; Latimer & Desjardins, 2007).

Public education is one method of increasing public confidence in the CJS. Laypersons typically do not have an accurate perception of crime trends or of the typical cases heard in courts (Roberts, 2004; Stalans & Diamond, 1990). If the public was educated on national crime trends and sentencing practices, perhaps this would increase satisfaction and confidence in the CJS. Although increasing public confidence in the CJS has not been researched extensively, a few attempts have been made to increase confidence by educating the public. Much of this research has occurred in the United Kingdom, where raising public confidence in the CJS is a goal of the government. Generally, these studies have found that public education can result in an increase in confidence; however, a recent study by Singer and Cooper (2009) found that although all participants showed an increase in CJS knowledge, only participants who were actively engaged (in this case by discussing the subject matter with the researcher) were found to have an increase in confidence.

In the field of education, 'active learning' was popularized by Bonwell and Eison (1991) and has received increased attention over recent years as an alternative to traditional, passive teaching methods. Although there is no universally accepted, specific operationalization of active learning, Prince (2004) offered the following general definition:

*Active learning is generally defined as any instructional method that engages students in the learning process. In short, active learning requires students to do meaningful learning activities and think about what they are doing. While this definition could include traditional activities such as homework, in practice active learning refers to activities that are introduced into the classroom. The core elements of active learning are student activity and engagement in the learning process. Active learning is often contrasted to the traditional lecture where students passively receive information from the instructor. (p. 1)*

<sup>1</sup>This paper is based upon the first author's dissertation research. For more information: [carrie.tanasichuk@usask.ca](mailto:carrie.tanasichuk@usask.ca)

## SPECIAL FEATURE Cont'd

### Increasing Confidence Con't

Although Singer and Cooper (2009) do not specifically address the constructs of active and passive learning, the authors evaluated whether actively engaging participants in the material was effective in increasing CJS knowledge and confidence. Explaining the material to the participant may be considered encouraging active engagement, as the participant is engaged in a dialogue about the material. This active versus passive distinction was addressed in the current study.

#### Overview of Study

In order to increase public confidence, participants were provided with factual information regarding crime and justice in Canada. A control group was presented with information regarding health care in Canada. Participants were further divided into active and passive learning conditions. The active learning condition included group discussion. Participants in the passive learning condition simply listened to an informational presentation. Therefore, there were four conditions in total: a CJS active learning group, a CJS passive learning group, a health care active learning group, and a health care passive learning group. After information was presented, participants completed a survey in order to assess CJS knowledge as well as confidence in and attitudes toward the CJS. It was hypothesized that participants in both CJS information conditions would show increased knowledge and more positive attitudes; however, it was hypothesized that this increase would be greater for participants in the active learning condition. The specific hypotheses were as follows:

- 1) *Participants who receive CJS information will score significantly higher on the CJS knowledge questions than participants who receive health information. Participants in the active learning CJS information condition will score significantly higher than participants in the passive learning CJS information condition.*
- 2) *Participants who receive CJS information will score significantly higher on the Attitudes toward Law, Courts, and Police (ALCP) scale (i.e., have more positive appraisals) than participants who receive health information. Participants in the active learning CJS information condition will score significantly higher than participants in the passive learning CJS information condition.*
- 3) *Participants who receive CJS information will score significantly higher on CJS confidence ratings than participants who receive health information. Participants in the active learning CJS information condition will score significantly higher than participants in the passive learning CJS information condition<sup>2</sup>.*

#### Method

##### Participants

A total of 140 students were recruited from the Introductory Psychology participant pool at the University of Saskatchewan.

##### Measures

**Knowledge of Criminal Justice System.** Participants were asked to answer seven questions about their knowledge of crime and the Canadian CJS. Participants were also asked to rate their confidence in their answer, ranging from 1 = *not at all confident* to 5 = *extremely confident*.

**Attitudes towards Law, Courts and Police (ALCP).** Participants also completed the ALCP subscale of the *Criminal Sentiments Scale* (CSS). The CSS, developed by Andrews and Wormith (1984), consists of three subscales: Attitudes toward the Law, Courts, and Police (ALCP), Tolerance for Law Violation (TLV), and Identification with Criminal Others (ICO). Respondents were asked to rate their agreement with 41 statements, ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. Lower ALCP scores indicate a more negative attitude towards the justice system.

**Criminal Justice System Attitudes.** Participants were also asked to rate their confidence in the various facets of the CJS. Participants responded on a 5-point scale where 1 = *not at all confident* and 5 = *extremely confident*. Participants were also asked to rate their satisfaction with the various criminal justice institutions. These items are from Tufts (2000) and ask participants to rate the police, courts, and corrections on various dimensions.

<sup>2</sup>It should be noted that this hypothesis was made before the publication of Singer and Cooper in December, 2009. As such, the researcher was unaware of their finding that the increase in CJS knowledge did not differ between the active and passive conditions.

## SPECIAL FEATURE Cont'd

### Increasing Confidence Con't

#### Procedure

Participants were randomly assigned to one of four conditions. In two of the conditions, participants received information about the CJS. The presentation included information concerning crime trends in Canada as well as information about the police, the courts, and corrections. In one of the CJS conditions active learning was induced by encouraging group discussion (Lorenzen, 2001). Participants were asked to comment on their perceptions of crime and the CJS and to discuss how the information presented differed from or corroborated their previous views. The other CJS condition utilized passive learning: Participants listened to a presentation of the information but did not engage in discussion. There were also two control conditions. Each of these conditions received information regarding the health care system in Canada. The health care system was chosen as a similar format could be followed. Participants were presented with information concerning health in Canada, as well as information about the three facets of the system (i.e., Health Canada, provincial/territorial health, and regional health authorities). Once again, there was an active learning control condition and a passive learning control condition. After the presentation of educational material, a survey was distributed to participants containing the measures discussed above.

#### Results

#### Knowledge of the CJS

Possible scores on the questionnaire assessing knowledge of the CJS range from zero to seven. Overall, the mean score was 4.24 ( $SD = 2.28$ ). It was hypothesized that participants in both of the CJS learning conditions would have higher knowledge scores than participants in the control conditions. In order to assess this prediction, a 2 (Learning: Active vs. Passive)  $\times$  2 (Information: CJS vs. Health) between-groups ANOVA was run on knowledge scores. The main effect of Information was significant,  $F(1,136) = 122.81, p < 0.001, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.48$ . Analysis of the simple effect of type of information showed that participants who received CJS information scored significantly higher than participants who received health information,  $t(138) = 11.12, p < 0.001, d = 1.88$ . The main effect of learning (active vs. passive) was not significant,  $F(1,136) = 0.74, p = 0.39, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.01$ . Knowledge scores did not differ depending on whether or not participants were assigned to active or passive learning conditions. The interaction effect was also nonsignificant,  $F(1,136) = 0.43, p = 0.51, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.003$ .

#### Attitudes towards Law, Courts, and Police (ALCP)

It was hypothesized that participants receiving CJS information would score higher on the ALCP than participants receiving health system information. Furthermore, it was hypothesized that participants in the CJS active learning condition would score higher than participants in the CJS passive learning condition. As such, a 2 (Learning: Active vs. Passive)  $\times$  2 (Information: CJS vs. Health) between-groups ANOVA was run on ALCP scores. The main effect of information was significant,  $F(1,136) = 18.39, p < 0.001, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.12$ . Analysis of the simple effect of type of information showed that participants who received CJS information had significantly higher ALCP scores than participants who received health system information,  $t(138) = 4.25, p < 0.001, d = 0.72$ . The main effect of learning was not significant,  $F(1,136) = 2.11, p = 0.15, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.02$ . The interaction effect between information and learning was also nonsignificant,  $F(1,136) = 2.22, p = 0.14, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.02$ . However, several planned *a priori* comparisons were run. These comparisons revealed that the difference in ALCP scores between participants in the active learning CJS condition ( $M = 95.14, SD = 10.38$ ) and participants in the passive learning CJS condition ( $M = 90.51, SD = 8.49$ ) was marginally significant,  $t(138) = 2.04, p = 0.05, d = 0.49$ .

#### CJS Attitudes

Participants were asked to rate their confidence in various CJS institutions, ranging from 1 = *not at all confident* to 5 = *extremely confident*. The overall average rating was 3.61,  $SD = 0.57$ . Participants were most confident in the RCMP, followed by the Supreme Court of Canada. However, the difference between these two institutions was negligible. When confidence values for specific groups were collapsed into police, courts, and corrections, it was found that participants were equally confident in the police ( $M = 3.80, SD = 0.65$ ) and the courts ( $M = 3.80, SD = 0.71$ ), followed by the correctional system ( $M = 3.24, SD = 0.74$ ). The difference between confidence in the police and courts as compared to the correctional system was significant,  $t(139) = 9.13, p < 0.001, d = 0.77$ .



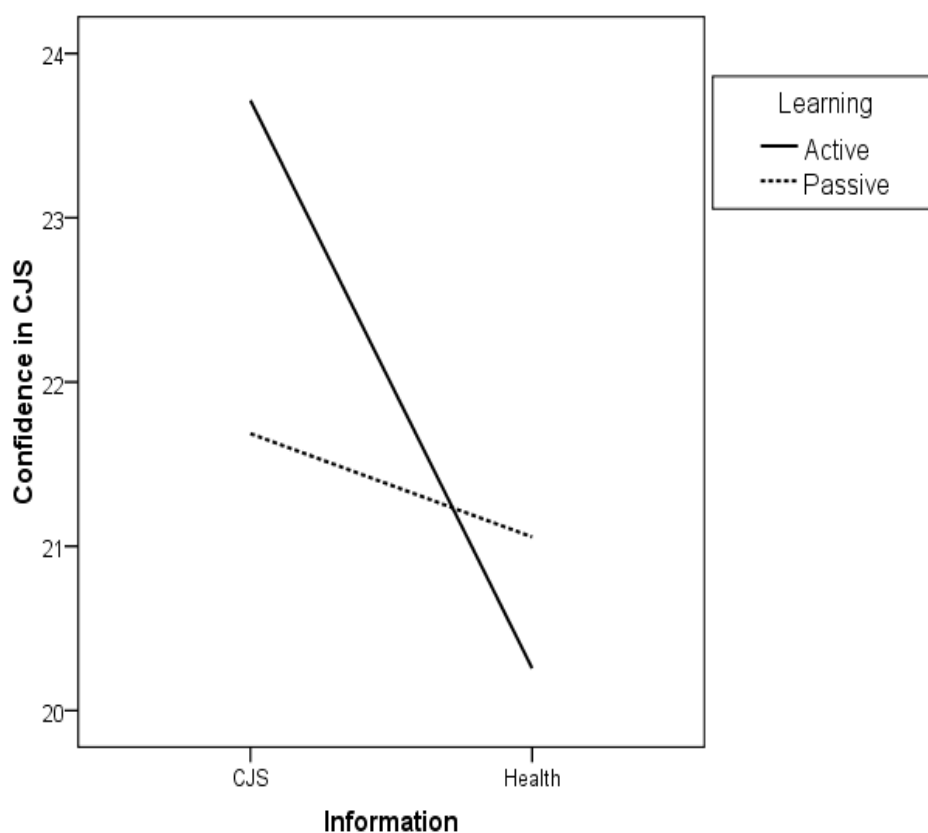
## SPECIAL FEATURE Cont'd

### Increasing Confidence Con't

It was hypothesized that participants receiving CJS information would have higher confidence ratings than participants receiving health system information. Furthermore, it was hypothesized that participants in the CJS active learning condition would score higher than participants in the CJS passive learning condition. As such, a 2 (Learning: Active vs. Passive) x 2 (Information: CJS vs. Health) between-groups ANOVA was run on confidence ratings. The main effect of information was significant,  $F(1,136) = 14.12, p < 0.001, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.09$ . Analysis of the simple effect of type of information showed that participants who received CJS information were significantly more confident in their answers to the CJS knowledge questions,  $t(138) = 3.68, p < 0.001, d = 0.60$ .

The main effect of learning was not significant,  $F(1,136) = 1.28, p = 0.26, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.01$ . The interaction effect between information and learning was significant,  $F(1,136) = 6.77, p = 0.01, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.05$ . In order to further investigate this interaction, follow-up  $t$ -tests were run. It was found that the type of learning (active vs. passive) had an effect on participants' confidence in the CJS for participants receiving CJS information,  $t(68) = 2.77, p = 0.01, d = 0.66$ , but not for participants receiving health information,  $t(68) = -1.00, p = 0.32, d = -0.24$ . These results are displayed in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Confidence in CJS by Condition



### Discussion

The first hypothesis of the current study was that participants who received CJS information would score significantly higher on the CJS knowledge questions than participants who receive health system information. This was confirmed: whereas participants receiving CJS information had an average score of 5.80 (where a 7.00 represents a perfect score), participants receiving health system information had an average score of 2.67. It was further hypothesized that participants in the active learning CJS information condition would score significantly higher than participants in the passive learning CJS information condition. This was not the case. There were no significant differences between participants in the two CJS information conditions. Active learning did not increase the amount of CJS knowledge acquired. However, there is evidence elsewhere that active learning may increase long-term retention of information (e.g., Moreno & Mayer, 2000).

## SPECIAL FEATURE Cont'd

### Increasing Confidence Con't

Although a follow-up was not included in the current study, future research should address this. It is possible that although differences between the active and passive learning conditions were not evident immediately following the presentation of CJS information, significant differences may emerge at a follow-up test.

The second hypothesis was that participants who received CJS information would score significantly higher on the *Attitudes toward Law, Courts, and Police* (ALCP) scale. This hypothesis was supported: Participants receiving CJS information had significantly higher ALCP scores, indicating more positive attitudes. This difference was also found when attitudes toward the three institutions (i.e., law, courts, and police) were analyzed separately. It was further hypothesized that participants in the active learning CJS information condition would score significantly higher than participants in the passive learning CJS information condition. This was somewhat supported: The difference in ALCP scores between the CJS-active and the CJS-passive conditions was marginally significant ( $p = 0.05$ ). However, the effect size (as measured by Cohen's  $d$ ) was 0.49, which is near the suggested 0.50 cut-off for a medium-sized effect (Cohen, 1992).

The third hypothesis was that participants who received CJS information would have significantly higher levels of confidence in the CJS than participants who received health system information. It was further hypothesized that participants in the CJS-active condition would be more confident than participants in the CJS-passive condition. This hypothesis was partially supported. Participants in the CJS-active condition scored significantly higher in CJS confidence than participants in the CJS-passive condition. However, participants in the CJS-passive condition did not score significantly different than participants in either of the two control conditions. When levels of confidence for the six CJS institutions assessed were analyzed separately, it was found that participants in the CJS-active condition scored significantly higher than participants in the CJS-passive condition for four of the institutions (i.e., the RCMP, the Saskatoon Police Service, the correctional system, and the National Parole Board). No significant differences were found for the Supreme Court of Canada or courts in Saskatchewan. This finding is interesting as it suggests that active learning only had an effect on confidence in the police and corrections, not in the court system. Although the educational material presented contained equal information pertaining to the police, courts, and corrections and discussion was promoted throughout the presentation (in the CJS-active condition), it is the perception of the researcher<sup>3</sup> that participants were more engaged in the material concerning police and corrections and that this material promoted more discussion than the material concerning the courts. This could account for the lack of a significant difference in confidence in the courts. Perhaps if more discussion concerning the courts had transpired the participants would have been more actively engaged and an increase in confidence would have been found.

The current study found that while participants in both the passive and active learning conditions increased knowledge when presented with CJS information, only participants in the active learning condition showed increased levels of confidence and satisfaction. This is similar to results obtained by Singer and Cooper (2009). These findings suggest that there is something about active learning that goes beyond rote learning to induce attitude change. Benware and Deci (1984) found that students in both active and passive learning conditions scored equally as well in terms of rote learning. However, students in the active learning condition had more positive attitudes toward the learning activity and scored higher in terms of conceptual learning. The lack of differences in regards to rote learning (i.e., recalling CJS information that was just presented in order to complete a CJS knowledge quiz) is not surprising as the sample was comprised of undergraduate university students. Generally speaking, this is a population in which rote learning skills are required for academic success. Students are accustomed to being presented with information in a lecture format as well as being asked to recall this information on a quiz or test. The passive learning condition in the present study was very similar to a typical university lecture. However, this rote learning does not appear to result in attitude change. It appears as though the increased processing and engagement required for active learning is necessary for attitude change.

Given the low levels of confidence in the CJS found in Canada and around the world, it is surprising that such little research has examined how to improve confidence. The current study demonstrated that confidence can be increased when participants are actively engaged in information pertaining to the CJS. However, while the current study had a high degree of internal validity, this was at the expense of external validity. Participants were brought into a room and viewed an educational presentation. It is not feasible to implement this procedure on a wide-scale basis with members of the general public. Therefore, it is recommended that future research examine cost-effective interventions in the 'real-world' such as has been suggested previously.

## SPECIAL FEATURE Cont'd

### Increasing Confidence Con't

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**Congratulations to Carrie L. Tanasichuk— 2010 Graduate Student  
Poster Prize Winner of the Criminal Justice Section of CPA.**

## RESEARCH BRIEF

### Risk Assessment with Aboriginal Sex Offenders

Julie Blais, Leslie Helmus, & Kelly M. Babchishin  
Carleton University & Public Safety Canada

The overrepresentation of Aboriginal offenders within the Canadian criminal justice system continues to be a serious problem, even with attempts by the federal government to lessen this disparity (Canadian Criminal Code § 718.2(e); *R. v. Gladue*, 1999). Although Aboriginals represent 3.7% of the Canadian adult male population (Statistics Canada, 2008) they disproportionately represent 19.2% of incarcerated men in Canada (Public Safety Canada, 2009) and 18% of men incarcerated for sex offences (Correctional Service Canada, 2008). Despite the continued overrepresentation of Aboriginal offenders within the criminal justice system, the effective management of Aboriginal offenders is made difficult due to a general lack of knowledge regarding the similarities and differences between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal offenders in general, and within specific offender populations, such as sex offenders.

Although there is a lack of research examining characteristics of Aboriginal sex offenders, the available studies have identified similar findings to those of Aboriginal general offenders (e.g., see Dell & Boe, 2000; Holsinger, Lowenkamp, & Latessa, 2003). First, Aboriginal sex offenders have been found to endorse more risk factors compared to their non-Aboriginal counterparts. For example, Aboriginal sex offenders are significantly younger and have lengthier criminal histories compared to non-Aboriginal sex offenders (e.g., Hills, 2002). Also consistent with the literature on general Aboriginal offenders (Statistics Canada, 2006), Aboriginal sex offenders are more likely to have lower educational achievement, higher rates of unemployment, and a history of substance abuse (Ellerby & MacPherson, 2002; Hills, 2002).

When looking at risk factors specific to sexual offending, however, Aboriginal sex offenders have been found to exhibit fewer risk factors than non-Aboriginal sex offenders, such as fewer sexually deviant interests (e.g., violent sexual fantasies) and paraphilias (e.g., exhibitionism; Ellerby & MacPherson, 2002; Hills, 2002). They are also less likely to have male victims (Ellerby & MacPherson, 2002; Nahanee, 1996; Rastin & Johnson, 2002; Rojas & Gretton, 2007).

Considering the observed differences between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal sex offenders, there is much concern about the extent to which risk assessment tools designed to predict sexual recidivism are equally effective for both groups. Preliminary research on the predictive validity of Static-99 has been mixed with one study suggesting that Static-99 is equally predictive of sexual recidivism for Aboriginal ( $n = 109$ ) and non-Aboriginal offenders ( $n = 254$ ;  $AUC = .67$  for both groups; Nicholaichuk, 2001) while another study found that the scale was not predictive of sexual recidivism for either Aboriginals ( $n = 6$ ) or non-Aboriginals ( $n = 14$ ; Hills, 2002).

In an attempt to advance the literature on the predictive validity of risk scales with Aboriginal sex offenders, we conducted two studies which focused on both stable and static risk factors. In our first study, we (Helmus, Babchishin, & Blais, 2010) examined the predictive validity of the STABLE-2007 (a dynamic risk scale designed to predict sexual recidivism). Results indicated that Aboriginal sex offenders ( $n = 89$ ) scored significantly higher on the STABLE-2007 total score as well as on items indicative of general antisociality (i.e., cooperation with supervision, impulsivity, lack of concern for others, and poor problem-solving) compared to non-Aboriginal sex offenders ( $n = 520$ ). There were no differences between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal sex offenders on social influence items or sexual self-regulation items. In the second part of this study, we examined differences in the predictive validity of both STABLE-2007 item scores and total score. Despite the fact that Aboriginal sex offenders scored, on average, higher on the risk factors measuring general criminality compared to non-Aboriginal sex offenders, these items were significantly less predictive for Aboriginals. In contrast, items assessing sexual self-regulation, social influences, and relationship stability predicted similarly for both groups.

These findings are surprising considering research findings on general offenders, albeit few, have found risk factors indicative of antisociality and general criminality to be equally predictive for both Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal offenders (B.C. Public Safety & Solicitor General, 2004; Bonta, 1989; Bonta, LaPrairie, & Wallace-Capretta, 1997). In order to further examine differences between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal sex offenders on a wider range of risk markers, we (Babchishin, Blais, & Helmus, 2010) conducted a second study comparing Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal male sex offenders on item and total scores of Static-99R and Static-2002R. We also examined the predictive accuracy for sexual recidivism of these scales. The study included five independent Canadian samples with Static-99R scores (319 Aboriginals and 1,269 non-Aboriginals), three of which also had Static-2002R scores (209 Aboriginals and 955 non-Aboriginals). We found that Aboriginal sex offenders scored significantly higher than non-Aboriginal sex offenders on total scores (both scales) and items indicative of general criminality (e.g., prior sentencing occasions), and tended to score lower on items indicative of sexual deviancy (e.g., presence of male victims).

## RESEARCH BRIEF

### Risk Assessment with Aboriginal Sex Offenders Con't

With minor exceptions, Static-99R total score and items predicted recidivism with similar accuracy for both Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal sex offenders. In contrast, significant differences were found for Static-2002R total score and several of its items, with lower predictive accuracy for Aboriginals. The results suggest that at least some items of the Static scales are not as predictive for Aboriginal than non-Aboriginal sex offenders, with most differences found on Static-2002R rather than Static-99R. Similar to the findings in the first study, it was the general criminality items of Static-2002R that appeared to be less predictive for Aboriginals.

The results of the two studies have clear implications for the future direction of research on the applicability of risk assessment tools for Aboriginal offenders. First, research should explore the extent to which Aboriginal status moderates the predictive accuracy of other risk scales designed to assess sexual recidivism. In addition, future research should focus on exploring the possibility of culturally specific risk factors. Given that Aboriginals are not a homogenous group, research should also focus on exploring the applicability of risk assessment tools across Aboriginal groups (e.g., Aboriginals living on/off reserve). Finally, more research is needed to understand what underlying propensities are related to sexual offending and to explore optimal ways of measuring these constructs for both Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal offenders. If the items on current risk assessment scales are not valid indicators of these constructs, it may be necessary to identify better indicators, such as self-report questionnaires or implicit tasks.

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This article is a summary of two research studies submitted for publication. The views expressed are those of the authors and not necessarily those of Public Safety Canada.

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## SECTION BUSINESS

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### CJS Business Meeting

June 4, 2010

Mark called the meeting to order and the reports of the executive were presented and accepted.

The major decisions at the meeting were as follows:

Following presentation by Jeremy Mills, \$12,000 was committed to the NACCJPC conference in 2011, Toronto. Of the \$12,000, \$8,000 had previously been committed, much of it from revenue from the previous NACCJPC conference. Currently, we have assets of \$18,647.19 and projected annual revenues of \$4,500; consequently, even with the NACCJPC commitment, the section still has flexibility in its spending plans.

Spending options that were discussed included banquet subsidies for students and travel costs for award winners. Steve Wormith indicated that the U. of Saskatchewan could be a potential source of travel support for award winners and invited speakers.

The 2010 policy for student prizes was a \$250 prize (each) to the best undergraduate and the best graduate student poster. For NACCJPC 2011, it was agreed that prizes would be award to the best (\$250) as well as 2<sup>nd</sup> (\$100) and 3<sup>rd</sup> (\$100) best posters at both the graduate and undergraduate level (6 prizes totals, for a total of \$900). In subsequent (regular) years, we would return to the two prizes (graduate and undergraduate of \$250 each).

It was agreed that the Criminal Justice Section would join the CPA Task Force for Psychology in the Public Service. Criminal Justice would be one of three prongs along with Hospital and School Psychology. Mark would take the lead on organizing our participation.

The Executive remained unchanged, with the exception that Tanya Rugge has left her position as Director-at-Large NACCJPC Liaison. Consequently, the executive is as follows:

Mark Olver (Chair)  
 Jean Folsom (Past Chair)  
 Karl Hanson (Secretary/Treasurer)  
 Leticia Gutierrez and Joanna Hessen (Student Representatives)  
 Natalie Jones (Membership Coordinator)  
 Leslie Helmus (Director-At-Large Conference Program)  
 Steve Wormith (Director-At-Large NAACJ)  
 Dave Simourd (Director-At-Large Clinical/Training)  
 Garry Fisher (Director-At-Large Psychology in the Courts)  
 Dorothy Cotton (Director-At-Large Police Psychology)  
 Joe Camilleri (Director-At-Large Website Coordinator)  
 Ainslie Heasman (Managing Editor, *Crime Scene*)  
 Leah Todd (Review Editor, *Crime Scene*)

## SECTION BUSINESS

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### CPA NAACJ Report, J. Stephen Wormith, Ph.D.

During the 2009-2010 year, the undersigned continued to represent the Canadian Psychological Association on the National Associations Active in Criminal Justice (NAACJ), which is an 'umbrella' organization for various voluntary sectors and professional organizations that are national in scope and have a particular interest in Canada's justice system. NAACJ is funded by an operating grant from the federal Ministry of Public Safety and currently consists of 18 organizations.

Much of the focus of NAACJ over the last year has focused on the federal government's "law and order" agenda and the numerous pieces of legislation that it has introduced to Parliament or is planning to do so in the near future. This includes the creation of more mandatory minimum sentences, revisions to parole and release from custody, and changes to the criteria and procedures for offenders to obtain pardons, as well as some operational announcements from the Correctional Service of Canada (CSC).

There was a recent controversial decision to eliminate prison farms, which are minimum secure facilities scattered across the country with active farm program for inmates. There is a very real concern that they are being phased out to make room for new "mega-prisons," which will be required to accommodate the increase in inmate population that is anticipated with the proposed changes to the criminal justice system. On a related matter, members from NAACJ, including Dr. Karen Cohen on behalf of CPA, attended a Liberal Forum on Community Safety that was sponsored by the Liberal Party of Canada and included comments by Michael Ignatieff.

A related activity within the Correctional Service of Canada that remains of interest to and is being monitored by NAACJ is an initiative that has been dubbed the Transformation Agenda. NAACJ members continue to advocate for CSC to increase its focus on community corrections. Mental health issues, both in the community and institutions, remain another area of concern. CSC's plans for an Integrated Corrections Program Model that collapses the current plethora of national programs is seen as an interesting development in service delivery but raises concerns about the abandonment of need-specific intervention. These issues were the focus of CSC's consultation with NAACJ in March, 2010.

There has been no indication or any word from the Correctional Service of Canada about the Advisory Committee of Research having a meeting for 2010. These meetings were resurrected in 2008 by Dr. Brian Grant, the Director-General, Research Services, CSC. This is an important forum as it allows corrections researchers both from various levels and departments of government and academics to review the research landscape and to address operational issues between government and academics in terms of facilitating corrections-based research.

This year's consultation meeting with the Departments of Justice and Public Safety Canada, entitled *Mental Health in Canada's Justice System: Connecting the Dots*, was held in March, 2010. Speakers included psychologists, Dr. Jim Bonta, from Public Safety Canada and Dr. Ivan Zinger from the Ombudsman's Office, as well as Justice Edward Ormston, Chair, Mental Health and the Law Advisory Committee, Mental Health Commission of Canada.

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## RECENT PUBLICATIONS

**Babchishin, K. M., Hanson, R. K., & Hermann, C. A. (in press). The characteristics of online sex offenders: A meta-analysis. *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research and Treatment*.**

There is much debate as to whether online offenders are a distinct group of sex offenders or if they are simply typical sex offenders using a new technology. A meta-analysis was conducted to examine the extent to which online and offline offenders differ on demographic and psychological variables. Online offenders were more likely to be Caucasian and were slightly younger than offline offenders. In terms of psychological variables, online offenders had greater victim empathy, greater sexual deviancy, and lower impression management than offline offenders. Both online and offline offenders reported greater rates of childhood physical and sexual abuse than the general population. Additionally, online offenders were more likely to be Caucasian, younger, single, and unemployed compared with the general population. Many of the observed differences can be explained by assuming that online offenders, compared with offline offenders, have greater self-control and more psychological barriers to acting on their deviant interests.

## RECENT PUBLICATIONS

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**Hanson, R. K., Helmus, L., & Thornton, D. (2010). Predicting recidivism amongst sexual offenders: A multi-site study of Static-2002. *Law and Human Behavior*, 34, 198-211.**

The predictive accuracy of Static-2002 (Hanson & Thornton, Notes on the development of Static-2002 (Corrections Research User Report No. 2003-01), 2003) was examined in eight samples of sexual offenders (five Canadian, one U.S., one U.K., one Danish; total sample of 3,034). Static-2002 showed moderate ability to rank order the risk for sexual, violent and general (any) recidivism (AUCs of .68, .71, and .70, respectively), and was more accurate than Static-99. These findings support the use of Static-2002 in applied assessments. There were substantial differences across samples, however, in the observed sexual recidivism rates. These differences present new challenges to evaluators wishing to use actuarial risk scores to estimate absolute recidivism rates.

**Kingston, D. A., Seto, M. C., Firestone, P., & Bradford, J. M. (2010). Comparing indicators of sexual sadism as predictors of recidivism among sexual offenders. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 78, 574-584.**

**Objective:** This longitudinal study compared the predictive validity of a psychiatric diagnosis of sexual sadism with three behavioral indicators of sadism: index sexual offense violence, sexual intrusiveness, and phallometrically-assessed sexual arousal to depictions of sexual or nonsexual violence.

**Method:** 586 adult male sexual offenders were assessed between 1982 and 1992 and were followed for up to 20-years post-release using official criminal records. Assessment information included DSM diagnosis, offense characteristics, phallometric assessment results, and an actuarial risk measure (the Sex Offender Risk Appraisal Guide).

**Results:** Predictive validity was demonstrated in univariate analyses for the behavioral indicators of sexual sadism (AUCs from .58 to .62) but not psychiatric diagnosis (AUC = .54). Cox regression analyses revealed that phallometrically-assessed sexual arousal to violence was still significantly associated with violent (including sexual) recidivism after controlling for actuarially-estimated risk to reoffend. A psychiatric diagnosis of sexual sadism, in contrast, was unrelated to recidivism.

**Conclusions:** The results support the use of more behaviorally operationalized indicators of sexual sadism, especially phallometric assessment of sexual arousal, and suggest the DSM criteria for sexual sadism require further work.

**Mann, R. E., Hanson, R. K., & Thornton, D. (2010). Assessing risk for sexual recidivism: Some proposals on the nature of psychologically meaningful risk factors. *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research and Treatment*, 22(2), 191-217.**

Risk assessment and treatment for sexual offenders should focus on individual characteristics associated with recidivism risk. Although it is possible to conduct risk assessments based purely on empirical correlates, the most useful evaluations also explain the source of the risk. In this review, the authors propose that the basic requirements for a psychologically meaningful risk factor are (a) a plausible rationale that the factor is a cause of sexual offending and (b) strong evidence that it predicts sexual recidivism. Based on the second of these criteria, the authors categorize potential risk factors according to the strength of the evidence for their relationship with offending. The most strongly supported variables should be emphasized in both assessment and treatment of sexual offenders. Further research is required, however, to establish causal connections between these variables and recidivism and to examine the extent to which changes in these factors leads to reductions in recidivism potential.

**Melnyk, T., Bennell, C., Gauthier, D. J., & Gauthier, D. (2010). Another look at across-crime similarity coefficients for use in behavioural linkage analysis: An attempt to replicate Woodhams, Grant, & Price (2007). *Psychology, Crime & Law*. Advance online publication. doi: 10.1080/10683160903273188**

In the absence of physical evidence, investigators must often rely on offence behaviours when determining whether several crimes are linked to a common offender. A variety of factors can potentially influence the degree to which accurate linking is possible, including the similarity coefficient used to assess across-crime similarity. The current study examines the performance of two similarity coefficients that have recently been compared to one another, Jaccard's coefficient ( $J$ ) and the taxonomic similarity index ( $\Delta_s$ ), using samples of two crime types, serial homicide ( $N = 237$ ) and serial burglary ( $N = 210$ ). In contrast to previous research, the results indicate that  $\Delta_s$  does not significantly outperform  $J$  with respect to linking accuracy. In addition, both coefficients lead to higher levels of linking accuracy in cases of serial homicide compared to serial burglary. Potential explanations for these findings are presented and their implications are discussed.



## RECENT PUBLICATIONS

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Otto, R. K. & Douglas, K. (Eds.) (2010). *Handbook of violence risk assessment*. Milton Park, UK: Routledge.

This book contains review chapters written by the authors of the major risk assessment instruments commonly used in forensic mental health and corrections.

Seto, M. C., Hanson, R. K., & Babchishin, K. M. (in press). *Contact sexual offending by men with online sexual offenses*. *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research and Treatment*.

There is much concern about the likelihood that online sexual offenders (particularly online child pornography offenders) have either committed or will commit offline sexual offenses involving contact with a victim. We address this question in two meta-analyses: the first examined the contact sexual offense histories of online offenders, while the second examined the recidivism rates from follow-up studies of online offenders. The first meta-analysis found that approximately one in ten online offenders (10%) have an officially known contact sexual offense history at the time of their index offense ( $k = 21, N = 4,464$ ). Approximately one in two online offenders admitted to a contact sexual offense in the six studies that had self-report data ( $N = 523$ ). The second meta-analysis revealed that 4.6% of online offenders committed a new sexual offense of some kind during a 1.5 to 6 year follow-up ( $k = 9, N = 2,630$ ); 2.1% committed a contact sexual offense and 3.4% committed a new child pornography offense. The results of these two quantitative reviews suggest there may be a distinct subgroup of online-only offenders who pose relatively low risk of committing contact sexual offenses in the future.

Thornton, D., Hanson, R. K., & Helmus, L. (2010). *Moving beyond the Standard Model for Actuarial Assessment for Sexual Offenders*. *California Coalition on Sexual Offending, CCOSO Quarterly Newsletter, Perspectives, Issue: Spring 2010*. Available at <http://ccoso.org/newsletter.php>.

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## MEMBERS ON THE MOVE

Dr. Howard Barbaree has accepted a position as Interim Vice-President of Research and Academics at the Mental Health Centre Penetanguishene

Dr. Jean Folsom has accepted a position with the Department of Corrections in Bermuda.

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**Interested in Submitting Something for the  
Next Edition of *Crime Scene*? Deadline for the  
May Edition is April 1, 2011**

## UPCOMING CONFERENCES

Association for the Treatment of Sexual Abusers  
29<sup>th</sup> Annual Conference  
October 20-23, 2010 Phoenix, Arizona, United States  
[www.atsa.com](http://www.atsa.com)

Toronto Police Service  
3rd Canadian Police Psychology Forum  
"Providing Psychological Support to Police Officers  
Serving on the Front Line"  
November 4 and 5, 2010 Toronto, Ontario, Canada  
[www.torontopolice.on.ca](http://www.torontopolice.on.ca)

The American Society of Criminology Annual Meeting  
November 17-20, 2010 San Francisco, California,  
United States  
[www.asc41.Org](http://www.asc41.Org)

1<sup>st</sup> International Conference of the South Asian Society  
of Criminology and Victimology  
January 15-17, 2011 Jaipur, Rajasthan, India  
[www.sascv.org](http://www.sascv.org)

American Correctional Association 2011 Winter  
Conference  
January 28-February 2, 2011 San Antonio, Texas,  
United States  
[www.aca.org](http://www.aca.org)

The 4th International Congress on Psychology and the  
Law  
March 2-5, 2011 Miami, Florida, United States  
[www.ap-ls.org](http://www.ap-ls.org)

Canadian Psychological Association 72nd Annual  
Convention  
June 2-4, 2011 Toronto, Ontario, Canada  
[www.cpa.ca](http://www.cpa.ca)

North American Correctional and Criminal Justice  
Psychology (NACCJP) Conference  
June 2-4, 2011 Toronto, Ontario, Canada

Please send us conference  
information that may be of  
interest to Section members!

### 2<sup>nd</sup> North American Correctional & Criminal Justice Psychology Conference

June 2-4, 2011 | Toronto, Ontario, Canada  
*An International Meeting of Minds for Correctional Psychology Excellence*

## CALL FOR PAPERS

To submit your abstract, go to:

<https://web.cpa.ca/submissions2011/index.php?page=login3>

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LISTINGS**

## UPCOMING WORKSHOPS

PAID ADVERTISEMENT

# Coming to Toronto: Workshop on Law Enforcement

### Workshop Title:

**Personality Assessment for Law Enforcement Selection: Using the Four Dimensions**

### Learning Objectives:

1. Understand the validation research of the Four Dimensions used on the 16PF® Questionnaire and the PsychEval Personality Questionnaire
2. Be able to use the Four Dimensions in the context of pre-employment hiring and specialty assignments.
3. Know how the Four Dimensions are used in international civilian-criminal justice programs.

## Register today!

**Date:** November 6, 2010 (Saturday)  
**Time:** 8:30 a.m. to 3:30 p.m.  
**Location:** Courtyard Marriott (downtown Toronto)  
**Fee:** \$150.00 (U.S.)

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# ATTENTION STUDENTS!

**NAAJPC-2 WILL BE AWARDING 6 CASH PRIZES FOR THE BEST STUDENT POSTERS, RANGING FROM \$100-\$250**

## STUDENTS' WATER COOLER

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### One Person's Criminal Behaviour is Another's Research Opportunity? How Practical Experience can Help Streamline Research Interests

Holly Wilson  
Carleton University

"What are you interested in researching?" This seemingly harmless question has sent shivers down the spine of many future graduate students who instinctively answer "everything". With the high number of undergraduate courses offered in criminology and psychology, it's easy to take an interest in multiple, and diverse, research topics; the difficulty lies in finding those one or two areas for which you are truly passionate. It's common for students interested in forensic psychology to successfully complete both undergraduate and graduate degrees without ever having the opportunity to work with a forensic population. Practical experience provides an ideal forum to explore theories and material you've been taught throughout your education. By immersing yourself into your field of interest, you will gain considerable knowledge beyond that learned from a textbook and an experience that will help drive your research.

A month after completing my undergraduate degree in Criminal Justice and Public Policy, with a minor in Social Psychology, I applied, on a whim, for a position as an Assistant Probation and Parole Officer through the Ontario Government's summer student program. Two months into the job, I won a 1-year contract as a full time Probation and Parole Officer. I was thrust into the position quickly, completing 5 weeks of in-house training, handing in multiple out-of-semester assignments, learning a full caseload of 85 clients, and grappling with the idea of not only gaining respect from predominantly male offenders as a 23 year-old female, but finding some way to foster rapport with them while enforcing their supervision orders. I supervised roughly 150 different offenders and had the pleasure of working with an incredibly diverse group of probation officers. I encountered cases I had never expected to see on community supervision and worked with offenders whose profiles could have easily been found in criminology textbooks. Throughout this entire experience, there were two people who stood out the most.

Within the first month of my contract, a heterosexual couple was assigned to my caseload. The male client was convicted of multiple domestic-related offences against the female client, who was convicted of an unrelated offence. Their relationship was marked by substance abuse, power and control issues, and emotional and physical aggression. They were extremely high needs, requiring a great deal of attention. I regularly reviewed my training material on working with domestic violence offenders, sought out articles discussing risk factors associated with intimate aggression, and consulted with colleagues on dealing with this type of case. I second-guessed the decisions I had made on more than one occasion and was often forced to change my approach with them.

Their high number of risk factors and criminogenic needs aside, building a relationship with them was challenging. Both engaged in considerable denial and were extremely distrustful. While she became receptive to our appointments and increasingly easy to work with in only a few months, the male client took much longer.

He challenged me at every appointment – my skills as a motivational interviewer, my strength as an enforcer, my knowledge of domestic violence and the associated risk factors and consequences. He was the type of client that required you take a deep breath before letting him into your office. He was angry and resented being put into a situation where he was forced to account for his behaviour. I spent a considerable amount of time listening to him - rant, calmly discuss things, cry. I learned early on when and how far he could be challenged and worked hard to capitalize on those moments. It was only after directing him to report twice a month for 4 months that he finally stopped opening our appointments with an argument.

During his supervision period, he continued abusing his girlfriend and using drugs and alcohol regularly. But, over time, he started seeing a psychologist and contacting the domestic violence prevention counselling group he was directed to attend. Our conversations also became more one-sided, with him doing most of the talking. While only some of his negative behaviours appeared to be changing, I noticed significant changes in his demeanor during our appointments. It has now been two years since I was first assigned that couple and I still think about them. I left that position with more questions about domestic violence than answers. These questions, firmly rooted in one of the most difficult cases I supervised, motivate me to pursue research on intimate aggression throughout my graduate career.

## STUDENTS' WATER COOLER

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### One Person's Criminal Behaviour is Another's Research Opportunity Con't

Being at the frontline is an experience that cannot be reproduced by reading about it in a textbook (or a student submission to a psychological association's journal) or participating in a classroom. Completing a risk assessment based on case notes or a one-on-one interview with the original offender are very different experiences that could lead to very different viewpoints on assessing risk of re-offending or how risk scales are actually used by people in the field. Coupled with academic learning, working in an applied setting is a valuable way to gain a unique perspective and an applied understanding of your area of interest. Sign up for a practicum, volunteer, or find work in your field – look for opportunities to work with the very population you plan to study. You may just find that dysfunctional couple that tugs at your heartstrings.

## INTERNSHIP OPPORTUNITIES

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### CSC (Ontario Region) Launches New Pre-Doctoral Internship Program

Dorothy Cotton, Ph.D., C.Psych

As the largest employer of psychologists in Canada, the Correctional Service of Canada (CSC) has always played an integral part in the education and training of future psychologists. Many institutions and community correctional offices host students carrying out practica and other applied placements, and many students conduct research using the vast resources that CSC has at its disposal. Starting in the fall of 2011, there is one more training component available to students in clinical or similar doctoral programs whose intent it is to train people eligible for registration as psychologists.

CSC (Ontario Region) is offering two one year internship positions, which offer training in clinical/correctional psychology. These positions are based in Kingston, Ontario, and include choices from about a dozen different rotations. While there are many unique aspects to working in a correctional facility, much of the work of psychologists is main-stream clinical and counselling psychology. Indeed, much of the focus of this internship is on mental health assessment, treatment for mood disorders, adjustment disorders, and a full range of other personality and psychotic disorders. There is also opportunity for more focussed work in the areas of cognitive and neuropsychological assessment, risk assessment, sex offender assessment and treatment, and crisis management as well. Thus the internship provides a solid opportunity for students to increase skills in the fundamentals of clinical psychology, skills which will be applicable to a wide range of future employment settings--hospitals, mental health clinics, and private practice settings, as well as institutional and community based correctional and forensic settings.

The CSC (Ontario region) boasts over 80 psychologist positions--twelve of these staff are involved in the internship program.

These positions will be offered through the Association of Psychology Postdoctoral and Internship Centres (APPIC) matching program which coordinates the majority of psychology internships in North America ([www.appic.org](http://www.appic.org)). Applications are being accepted until November 15, 2010.

For a copy of the brochure or further details, please email:

[cottondh@csc-scc.gc.ca](mailto:cottondh@csc-scc.gc.ca)