_____ Research Report _____

Examining Gender Differences in Institutional Offences

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Examining Gender Differences in Institutional Offences

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Executive Summary

Key words: Institutional offences, institutional misconduct, women offenders, gender.

One of the strategic priorities of the Correctional Service of Canada is to ensure the safety and security of staff and offenders in our institutions and in the community. For incarcerated offenders, this includes an emphasis on preventing offender misconduct, which can jeopardize the environment and lead to negative consequences at an individual and operational level. Research in this area, however, has been predominantly focused on men and not enough is known about how women offenders behave during incarceration in comparison. Given the rising number of federal women offenders over the past decade in a population that has a diverse range of needs, the institutional environment, and women's behaviour within it, is an issue that warrants further investigation. Accordingly, the purpose of the current study was to examine gender differences in institutional offences within a Canadian federal correctional context.

This study included the assessment of archival data for all women admitted into federal custody on a new warrant of committal between April 1, 2008 and March 31, 2011 (n = 951) and a randomly selected sample of 951 men admitted during the same time period, stratified and matched on security classification. Gender differences in misconduct were assessed by comparing the frequency of institutional offences, patterns and predictors of offences over time, and the qualitative nature of violent offences. All quantitative analyses were conducted with the offenders grouped by security level.

Although there were no gender differences within minimum or maximum security, gender was predictive of offending within medium security, with more women committing offences in comparison to men. This was especially evident for minor misconduct where women were nearly three times more likely to commit a minor offence in comparison to men. Women in medium security were also more likely to engage in an offence earlier in their incarceration in comparison to men in medium security. Again, differences were more evident for minor offences.

Offender characteristics were assessed as potential predictors for both men and women separately. Age predicted time to first offence for both groups in all security levels with an increase in age relating to a decrease in the risk of offending. The only unique predictor for women was criminogenic need. In comparison to the high need group, the low need group was at only one-third the risk of offending and the medium need just over half the risk of offending. The only unique predictor variable for men was reintegration potential. In comparison to the men rated as high reintegration potential, the risk of offending for the low reintegration potential men was three times higher while the risk of the medium group was only 1.3 times higher.

Qualitative analysis of violent offence reports highlighted several gender differences regarding the nature of the offence. For example, men were more likely to use a weapon than women and men were more likely to engage in misconduct for instrumental reasons and to target staff as victims. In contrast, women were more likely to target other women as victims primarily for relational/retaliation reasons.

The results provide a platform for further investigation of misconduct to fully understand gender differences in institutional behaviour and identify the appropriate operational responses.

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Introduction

One of the strategic priorities of the Correctional Service of Canada (CSC) is to ensure the safety and security of staff and offenders in all federal correctional institutions and in the community. For incarcerated offenders, this includes an emphasis on preventing misconduct, especially violent and assaultive behaviours (CSC, 2012b). Offender misconduct within a correctional facility can jeopardize the institutional environment and pose a safety risk to both staff and offenders. It can lead to negative consequences that hinder rehabilitation (e.g., increased security level, restrictions to programs and services) and potentially have an impact on an offender's long-term correctional plan (e.g., additional criminal sanctions, lengthened sentences, reduced likelihood of parole). Given these potential operational and individual impacts, it is important to understand misconduct within the institutional setting. The majority of research in this area, however, is male-dominated and little is known about how women offenders behave in comparison.

Although certain gender-neutral perspectives (e.g., the risk-need-responsivity model, RNR; Andrews, Bonta & Hoge, 1990) view men and women's criminal behaviour through the same lens, gender-responsive literature has argued the existence of gender differences in the predictors and patterns of criminal behaviour. Gender responsive theoretical perspectives, such as the Relational Cultural Theory (Miller, 1986) and Feminist Pathways theory (Daly, 1992; Reisig, Holtfreter & Morash, 2006) have consistently maintained that women offenders are inherently different from their male counterparts in regard to the onset of criminal behaviour, the frequency and nature of offending, and the criminogenic needs that represent targets for intervention.

In this vein, understanding women's behaviour within the correctional environment based on male-centred data is insufficient. Women display varying levels of need and a wide range of issues within the institutional setting (e.g., mental health issues, substance abuse, and past victimization) that potentially set them up for poor institutional adjustment (Belknap, 2007; Blackburn & Trulson, 2010). Consequently, it is argued that women's adjustment and misconduct is different from that of men – a discrepancy which carries considerable implications regarding operational practices and policies.

Given the rising number of federal women offenders over the past decade in a population

that has a diverse range of needs (e.g., substance abuse, adjustment problems, and mental health issues), the institutional environment, and women's behaviour within it, is an issue that warrants further investigation. Accordingly, the goal of the current report is to examine gender differences in institutional offences within the Canadian federal correctional context.

Institutional Misconduct

Frequency and severity. The majority of research indicates that institutional misconduct is far more common among men in comparison to women, especially when considering serious forms of violations such as assaults on staff or offenders (Craddock, 1996; Harer & Langan, 2001; McClellan, 1994; Sorensen & Cunningham, 2010; Sorensen, Cunningham, Vigen, & Woodes, 2011). Although dated, Craddock (1996) demonstrated that the most prominent gender difference was that approximately half of the men's sample had incurred rule violations while only a third of the women had. Frequency differences were also prominent with 90% of the men and women having fewer than 15 violations and 10 violations on file, respectively. Overall, men were more likely than women to have violent infractions whereas women were more commonly sanctioned for less serious infractions. Interestingly, however, nonviolent sexual offences and minor assaults were slightly more common among the women, while fighting was more common among men. Craddock suggests that these findings are likely due to differences in sanctioning practices rather than behavioural patterns. It is proposed that staff may view women's assaultive and sexual behavior as being more deviant and thus requiring formal sanctions. Additionally, there is the possibility that staff view men's assaultive behaviour as more typical and expected in comparison to women's. Despite potential similarities in actions, the behaviour may be designated as a "fighting" incident among the men, which is less serious than assault (Craddock, 1996).

The more recent findings of Harer and Langan (2001) also support the theory that women are less violent than men during incarceration and, additionally, that the nature of women's violence is different. For example, the rate for serious violent offences[1] was 0.144 per 100 for women and 1.770 per 100 for men. The rates for less serious violent offences[2] were 5.060 and

[1] Serious violent offences consisted of homicide or attempted homicide, serious assault, and possession of a weapon (Harer & Langan, 2001).
[2] Less serious violent offences consisted of fighting, threatening bodily harm, and minor assault (Harer & Langan, 2001).

7.798 per 100 for women and men, respectively. Only 3% of the overall rate for women was due to serious violent offences, compared to 19% of the overall rate for men. Additionally, results demonstrated that women were less likely to use a dangerous weapon (i.e., sharp or pointed object) than men (2% vs. 5 %, respectively). Consequently, none of the offences committed by women resulted in serious injury to the victim, whereas 6.3% of men's violent offences resulted in moderate to major victim injury, including two deaths. Harer and Langan (2001) therefore suggest that the extent of violent behaviour may be predicted by gender.

In sum, these studies illustrate that women's behaviour while incarcerated tends to mirror what has been found in overall offence rates; that is, women offend less frequently and are less violent than men. There are still, however, some research findings that do not demonstrate such a distinct division. Some studies suggest that the rates of misconduct among women may be comparable to the rates of misconduct found with men. For example, Camp, Gaes, Langan, and Saylor (2003) found that women only differed significantly from men when assessing drug-related incidents, in that women were less likely to engage in this type of misconduct. After controlling for individual variables (age, misconduct history, custody, and time at risk) and aggregate variables (crowding, racial composition index, average age of offenders, staff characteristics, and average custody level), women did not differ significantly from men in their likelihood of engaging in other forms of misconduct.

In summary, marked inconsistencies continue to permeate the misconduct literature. Frequency and severity patterns are conflicting and clarity surrounding distinct gender differences is still lacking. Furthermore, studies have predominantly taken a quantitative approach to assess differences and details regarding the qualitative context and nature of misconducts are rarely explored. Our understanding of the etiology of misconduct is therefore still in its infancy.

Predictors of misconduct. Evidently, being able to identify factors that indicate increased risk of misconduct while incarcerated would be important. There is a general agreement that certain factors, such as age and criminal history, are predictive of both male and female behaviours (e.g., Gendreau, Goggin & Law, 1997; Gover et al., 2008; Harer & Langan, 2001), with some conflicting evidence which may be indicative of gender-specific/salient predictors.

Several studies have highlighted a range of variables that have predicted institutional

misconduct among men and women. For example, a meta-analysis by Gendreau, Goggin, and Law (1997) found that institutional factors (e.g., security level, offender turnover, offender-staff ratio) demonstrated a much stronger correlation with misconduct among men in comparison to personal domains (e.g., age, antisocial attitudes, criminal history) or situational factors (e.g., overcrowding). Additional studies have found that prior incarceration, index offence, medium-maximum security level, and length of current stay are significantly associated with increased misconduct among men while institutional employment is related to a decrease in misconduct (e.g., Craddock, 1996; Gover et al., 2008).

Similar research with women has also highlighted several predictors of misconduct. For example, age (younger), ethnicity (Caucasian), higher education, length of sentence, length of incarceration (Craddock, 1996; Gover et al., 2008), as well as previous misconduct, involuntary segregation, and offender progress/motivation (Blanchette & Taylor, 2005) have been linked to an increase in institutional misconduct. Variables linked with a reduction in misconduct have included perception of safety and a history of previous incarcerations (Gover et al., 2008).

***Gender-responsive predictors*.** Some researchers contend that solely assessing the aforementioned gender-neutral variables overlooks factors related to women's adjustment. Wright and colleagues argue that gender-responsive needs (e.g., mental health, victimization, relationships) are more relevant in the consideration of institutional adjustment in comparison to the demographic and historical variables that are typically used in prediction practices (Wright, Salisbury, & Van Voorhis, 2007). For example, childhood abuse, depression or anxiety, current psychosis, and involvement in unsupportive relationships have been linked to increased prevalence and incidence rates of serious institutional misconduct among incarcerated women. Additional research has also supported a similar link between past victimization and poor institutional adjustment (e.g., Islam-Zwart & Kit, 2004; Salisbury, Van Voorhis & Spiropoulos, 2009; Steiner & Wooldredge). Although mental health is not necessarily women-specific, the mental health needs of women offenders differ substantially from those of men both quantitatively and qualitatively (Bloom, Owen, & Covington, 2003; Leschied, 2011). Evidence supporting the negative impact that mental health has on institutional adjustment has been supported with both adult women and justice involved youth (Belknap, 2007; Blackburn & Trulson, 2010; Steiner & Wooldredge, 2009). Overall, authors have concluded that combining both gender-neutral and gender-responsive factors would provide the most comprehensive

understanding of women's adjustment to incarceration.

Based on the literature reviewed, it is evident that although research regarding women's experiences in correctional facilities has begun to accumulate, results are conflicting and there are gaps in several areas that need to be addressed to further our understanding of gender differences in institutional behaviours. The concept of adjustment is often ambiguous and can be operationalized using a wide range of measures. Furthermore, when looking specifically at misconduct, the selection of predictors and measures of frequency and severity vary as well. Given these issues, inconsistencies have emerged in the literature.

Study samples are also frequently male-dominated and the research is predominantly based in the United States, which is a significant factor to consider given the distinct correctional environments and practices in Canada. An additional methodological gap includes the lack of both female samples and male comparison groups in most studies, thus the notion of gender *differences* has still only been preliminarily explored.

Research consisting of samples from all security categories is also limited, and gender differences have not sufficiently been assessed within each level. As VanVoorhis and Presser (2001) aptly state, despite designated custody levels, "high-risk females may be quite different from high-risk males" (p.5), suggesting that institutional behaviours may still vary by gender within the same security classification and that behaviours should be considered separately by gender, across similar custody levels and risk designations (Harer & Langan, 2001).

Finally, research in the area tends to be quantitative in nature. Although this approach provides statistical support, there is little qualitative research regarding the nature and context of misconduct. Several studies argue that the nature of women's offending and the context in which female violence occurs differs from the offence patterns seen in males (e.g., Greenfeld & Snell, 1999; Kong & AuCoin, 2008; Koons-Witt and Schram, 2003; Steffensmeier, 2001). Understanding the etiology of misconduct using a multi-method approach may further highlight differences in behaviour patterns (Blanchette and Taylor, 2005; Craddock, 1996).

Current Study

The goal of the current study is to expand our knowledge of gender differences in institutional misconduct within a Canadian federal correctional context. Accordingly, with the inclusion of a male comparison group and a mixed-method design, the objective is to address

gaps and methodological issues found in the current literature, while contributing knowledge relevant to operational practices. This is done by focusing on gender differences in institutional offence rates, offences over time, and predictors of offences. In supplementing this information with a qualitative understanding of serious institutional offences, the ultimate goal is to further our understanding of offender behaviour and potentially inform correctional intervention strategies and practices.

Research Questions

Research question 1: Are there gender differences in the rates of offences among federally incarcerated offenders by security level? Based on a review of the literature, it is hypothesized that gender is associated with offender misconduct (institutional offences), with the rate of offenders committing offences being higher within the men offender sample. It is expected that this will hold true even when comparing by gender within each of the three security levels (minimum, medium, maximum). Additionally, as demonstrated in the American research, it is expected that the proportion of men committing serious offences will be higher than that for women.

Research question 2: Are there gender differences in the patterns and predictors of time to first offence among federally incarcerated offenders by security level? To further understand differences in behavioural patterns within the institution, this research question will be assessed by examining variations in time from admission to first offence, based on gender and custody level. Given that research is limited and inconsistent in this area, this question is considered exploratory in nature.

Predictor variables of the risk of committing an offence over time will also be assessed. Based on previous literature, core demographic and offender-related measures will include age, race, offence type, aggregate sentence length, and risk, need, motivation and reintegration levels. It is broadly hypothesized that all factors will have some degree of impact on misconduct, with some variables as stronger predictors for women (e.g., race, criminogenic need, sentence length) and others as stronger predictors for men (e.g., index offence, static risk).

Research question 3: Do serious offences differ qualitatively based on perpetrator gender? It is expected that gender differences will be found in the nature of serious institutional offences based on a qualitative analysis of violent offence reports. Although the analysis is predominantly exploratory and for descriptive purposes, it is expected that differences in offence

factors, such as victim type, relationship to the victim, weapons used, and the degree of injury inflicted, will be associated with perpetrator gender. For example, it is expected that women's violence will be more relational in nature with minimal victim injury whereas men's violence will be more acquisitive in nature, will include the use of weapons, and will result in more serious victim injury.

Method

Sample

The final sample consisted of 1,902 adult offenders (*n* = 951 women, *n* = 951 men) admitted into federal custody between April 1, 2008 and March 31, 2011 on a new warrant of committal.[3] All women who met the admission criteria (i.e., admitted on new warrant of committal) within the timeframe were included in the current study. Using the same admission criteria, the sample of men was then randomly selected, stratified and matched by security level with the women. To answer the third research question, a sub-sample of 28 women with a violent offence on file was randomly selected, and a sub-sample of 28 men with a violent offence on file was also randomly selected and matched by security level with the women.

The mean age at admission was 37 (*SD* = 13*)* for the men and 35 (*SD* = 10) for the women, with a range of 18 to 74 years for women, and 18 to 86 years for men. The majority of women were Caucasian (58%) as was the case with the men (66%). Although the other categories were also relatively similar between men and women, a notably higher portion of the women was identified as being Aboriginal (28%) in comparison to the men (15%).

The mean length of aggregate sentence (days) for men was *M* = 1156 (approximately 3 years*; SD* = 632 days) while the mean length of aggregate sentence for the women was shorter (*M* = 1034, *SD* = 568; approximately just under 3 years). On average, the male sample was incarcerated for 434 days (*SD* = 248) during the study timeframe[4] while the mean number of days incarcerated for the women was 341 (*SD* = 205). There was an approximately equal number of men and women at each security level: maximum (*n* = 55 men, *n* = 55 women); medium (*n* = 400 men, *n* = 399 women); and minimum (*n* = 497 men, *n* = 496 women).[5] Additional details regarding demographic and incarceration characteristics are provided in Appendix A.

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[3] Offenders admitted for conditional release revocations during the timeframe were excluded given the likelihood of data quality issues and shorter time spent within the institution.

[4] The number of days incarcerated were only calculated for the designated timeframe: from admission until (1) first release, (2) security reclassification, (3) March 21, 2012.

[5] The slight difference in group size was due to issues with offenders having additional sentences on file and security information that did not correctly correspond to the sentence in question. The error was adjusted for by inputing the correct data from offender file information for the original sentence, thus resulting in a change of security level for one case.

Data Source

The data used for this study are archival in nature and were retrieved from the CSC's Offender Management System (OMS). OMS is an automated database of offender file information containing all computerized records pertaining to federal sentences. Extracted data related to offender demographic information, incarceration characteristics (e.g., security level, sentence length), level of risk and need, as well as institutional misconduct (e.g., institutional offences).

Analytic Approach

All data were analysed using SAS 9.2. Descriptive statistics were used to present sample characteristics and information related to offence type, incarceration and criminogenic factors, as well as institutional offences for both the men and women. For the first research question, logistic regression was used to examine the relationship between gender and misconduct, while controlling for time spent within the institution. The adjusted odds ratio[6] was used to identify the degree to which gender was predictive of involvement in minor and serious institutional offences.

For the second research question, survival analysis was used to assess gender differences in length of time between offender admission and first offence. This technique was appropriate given the nature and timeframe of the study and the probability of censored data (i.e., offenders who do not engage in misconduct within the period of study). Using the Kaplan-Meier procedure, survival analysis plots were used to assess the time to first offence (serious/minor) for both men and women at all three security levels. The non-parametric log-rank test (also known as the Mantel-Haenszel test) was then used to test for gender differences in survival curves within each level of security (Allison, 1995).

A Cox regression survival analysis (also referred to as a proportional hazards model) was conducted to assess potential predictors of offence for both men and women. The predictor variables included: age, ethnicity (Aboriginal, non-Aboriginal), offence type upon admission (violent, non-violent), aggregate sentence length, and risk, need, motivation and reintegration

[6] The odds ratio is defined simply as "an indicator of the change in odds resulting from a unit change in the predictor" (Field & Miles, 2010, p.238). In this case, it indicates a change in the likelihood of committing an offence based on gender. If the value is greater than 1, then it indicates that gender (female) increases the odds of the outcome event (i.e., institutional offence). If the value is less than 1, then it indicates that gender (female) decreases the odds of the outcome event.

levels. The purpose was to identify which predictors significantly increased or decreased the risk of committing an institutional offence for men and women individually. Each model was tested against the global null hypothesis that all coefficients are equal to 0 using the likelihood-ratio test. Upon receiving significant findings for the overall model, the Wald chi-square test was used to test the specific null hypothesis that each coefficient is equal to zero. The hazard ratio[7] was used to identify the degree to which each variable was predictive of involvement in minor and serious institutional offences. Unless otherwise indicated, the reference group for all RNR variables (i.e., static risk, dynamic risk, motivation and reintegration) was designated as "High". Given the number of tests used for all of the aforementioned quantitative analyses, alpha was set at p =.008 (p = .05/6) to control for Familywise error.

For the qualitative portion of the current study, a coding manual (Appendix B) was developed by the primary researcher based on available OMS data.[8] All reports were coded by the primary author who was blind to gender. Ten percent (n = 6) of the reports were coded by both the author and a research assistant to establish inter-rater reliability. Interclass correlation coefficients (ICC) were computed for assessing continuous variables (e.g., severity rating) and kappa coefficients were calculated for categorical variables (e.g., offender role). The reliability criterion was set *a priori* at .70 and the resulting ratings were considered acceptable and all variables were consequently retained. Given the small sample size and the limited detail provided in the reports, the analysis was conducted between men and women to provide an overall representation of the findings (i.e., offenders were not separated by security level). Results consist of frequencies and percentages for each theme based on the number of cases where relevant information was available in the reports. Due to the small sample size and the primary focus being on the qualitative nature of the data, tests of significance (e.g., chi-square) were not conducted.

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[7] Rather than assessing the percentage of the sample that doesn't offend over time (as conducted in survival analysis), the proportional hazards model examines the risk (i.e., hazard) of an event occurring (e.g., offence) as a function of time and predictor variables. With Cox regression, each individual has his or her own hazard rate, based on not offending until a given point. A hazard ratio of 1.0 would indicate no impact, while a ratio greater than 1 would indicate an increase in the hazard of misconduct, and a ratio less than 1 would suggest a decrease in hazard.

[8] There is an OMS report template that institutional staff typically follow to provide sufficient detail regarding incidents of misconduct.

Measures

Demographic characteristics (e.g., age, ethnicity) and incarceration characteristics (e.g., offence type, sentence length) were provided to describe the current sample (for further detail regarding these items, please see Appendix C). Several variables were also taken from information collected during the Offender Intake Assessment[9] (OIA) process (see Appendix C for a full description). These variables included static risk, dynamic risk, motivation and reintegration potential levels; all of which can be categorized as being low, medium, or high. Security level was also accessed from the OIA and was the basis of all analyses in the current study given that that all tests were conducted with men and women grouped by security level (minimum, medium, maximum). Only an offender's first security designation upon admission up until the end of the study period was used in the current study (i.e., information following security reclassification was not considered).

Institutional misconduct. Misconduct is defined as an institutional offence that results in a formal charge process (as opposed to "incidents" which warrant documentation on an offender's case file, but may not result in a formal charge). These offences are classified as being either serious or minor in severity when the charges are laid. Only those offenders who were found guilty were included for analysis.

Time at risk. This variable indicates the amount of time each offender is incarcerated during the study timeframe. It is defined as the number of days incarcerated from offender admission until the end of the study period (i.e., first release, first security reclassification, or March 31, 2012). Given that days incarcerated indicates the amount of time an offender has the opportunity to commit an institutional offence, it was designated as the time at risk.

Qualitative Materials

Coding Manual. A coding manual was used for the collection of qualitative information from the offence reports. Researchers coded for such items as offence type, offence severity, offender role, victim involved, relationship with the victim, method/weapon used, and degree of harm inflicted (refer to Appendix B for the full coding manual).

Institutional offence reports. Offence reports completed by institutional staff were

[9] The OIA is conducted upon an offender's arrival and official admission into the federal correctional system to collect all pertinent offender information (e.g., risks, needs, immediate concerns).

accessed via OMS to complete the qualitative component of this study. Given the emphasis CSC's strategic policies place on preventing violent/assaultive behaviour within the institution due the potential harm and negative implications, only serious offence reports involving assaults were considered (i.e., all minor offences and all serious offences that were not violent or assaultive in nature were excluded.)

Results

The total number of institutional offences for the full sample was 3,300 (2,390 minor and 910 serious). For descriptive purposes, the proportions of offenders with offences are outlined in Table 1 by gender, security level, and offence type. As the Table demonstrates, the proportions of men and women in minimum security with a minor, serious, or any offence are relatively comparable. A similar pattern is shown for maximum security, although the proportion of women with minor offences was slightly higher (65% vs. 60%). The most prominent difference is evident in medium security, where the proportion of women with a minor (62% vs. 44%) or any offence (66% vs. 51%) is notably higher than the men. Finally, Table 1 also indicates that half of the female sample had at least one offence (serious or minor) in comparison to 41% of the male sample.

Table 1

Proportion of Offenders with Offences by Gender, Security Level, and Offence Type

	Minimum Security		Medium Security		Maximum Security		All	
Offence Type	Women *n* = 497 % (*n*)	Men *n* = 496 % (*n*)	Women *n* = 399 % (*n*)	Men *n* = 400 % (*n*)	Women *n* = 55 % (*n*)	Men *n* = 55 % (*n*)	Women *n* = 951 % (*n*)	Men *n* = 951 % (*n*)
Serious	8(40)	6 (28)	33 (133)	28 (113)	45 (25)	47 (26)	21 (198)	18 (167)
Minor	30 (149)	28 (141)	62 (246)	44 (174)	65 (36)	60 (33)	45 (431)	37 (348)
Any	34 (167)	31 (152)	66 (265)	51 (204)	73 (40)	69 (38)	50 (472)	41 (394)

The means, medians, standard deviations, and ranges for each type of offence are presented for all offenders by gender, and for men and women by security level, in Table 2. Overall, it is evident that the most common number of offences was 0, suggesting that a small portion of offenders accounted for the majority of offences. Table 2 also shows that the mean number of offences was consistently higher for women in comparison to men, especially when looking at minor offences, and for those offenders incarcerated in medium security.

Table 2

Mean Number of Institutional Offences for Men and Women at each Security Level

Security Level	Offence Type	Women			Men		
		Mean (*SD*)	Median	Range	Mean (*SD*)	Median	Range
All[a]	Serious	0.6 (1.8)	0	0-23	0.4 (1.3)	0	0-16
	Minor	1.6 (2.8)	0	0-18	1.0 (2.0)	0	0-22
Minimum[b]	Serious	0.1 (0.6)	0	0-11	0.1 (0.4)	0	0-3
	Minor	0.6 (1.3)	0	0-10	0.5 (1.1)	0	0-9
Medium[c]	Serious	1.0 (2.3)	0	0-23	0.7 (1.6)	0	0-16
	Minor	2.6 (3.5)	1	0-18	1.4 (2.4)	0	0-22
Maximum[d]	Serious	0.1 (0.6)	0	0-11	0.1 (0.4)	0	0-3
	Minor	0.6 (1.3)	0	0-10	0.5 (1.1)	0	0-9

Note. [a]*N* = 951 women and *N* = 951 men. [b]*n* = 497 women and *n* = 496 men. [c]*n* = 399 women and *n*= 400 men. [d]*n* = 55 women and *n* = 55 men**.**

Gender and Offence Prediction

Logistic regressions were performed to examine gender differences in the prevalence of serious and minor offences while controlling for number of days incarcerated. As demonstrated in Table 3, although there were no gender differences in minimum or maximum security, differences were found in medium security for both types of offences.

For medium security, gender significantly predicted whether an offender committed a minor offence (*OR* = 2.7, Wald χ^2 = 40, p <.001), after controlling for time at risk. In this group, women were nearly three times more likely to commit a minor offence in comparison to men (see Table 3). For serious offences in medium security, gender also significantly predicted whether an offender committed an offence (*OR* = 1.6, Wald χ^2 = 9, p = .003), after controlling for time at risk. In this case, women were nearly twice as likely to commit a serious offence in comparison to men.

Table 3

Logistic Regression Results: Gender Predicting Minor and Serious Offences within each Security Level

	Minor Offence		Serious Offence	
Security Level	Adjusted *OR* (95% CI)	Overall likelihood ratio test (*df*)	Adjusted *OR* (95% CI)	Overall likelihood ratio test (*df*)
Minimum Women vs. Men	1.3 (1.0-1.7)	31 (2)	1.8 (1.1-3.1)	13 (2)
Medium Women vs. Men	2.7 (2.0-3.6)**	58 (2)	1.6 (1.2-2.3)*	37 (2)
Maximum Women vs. Men	1.4 (0.6-3.1)	7 (2)	1.0 (0.5-2.1)	5 (2)

Note. OR = Odds ratio (adjusted to control for time at risk). CI = confidence interval. *df* = degrees of freedom. A Bonferroni adjustment was made and the alpha was set at $p = .008$ ($p = .05/6$).
*$p < 0.008$. **$p < 0.001$.

Gender Differences in Time to First Offence.

To assess gender differences in length of time to first offence, Kaplan-Meier analyses were conducted, which control for time-at-risk. As presented in Table 4, the largest proportions of offenders failed at higher levels of security. Although there were no significant gender differences in minimum or maximum security, differences were present in medium security. For serious offences, the majority of offenders did not commit an offence (67% of women and 72% of men). Nevertheless, the average time to first offence was significantly different by gender, with the mean number of days to first offence being 274 for men and 179 for women (see Table 4). As for minor offences, men again demonstrated a longer mean time to first offence ($M = 224$) in comparison to their female counterparts ($M = 129$).

Table 4

Gender Differences in Time to First Serious or Minor Offence by Security Level

Security Level		*N* = 1,902 n	Failed % (*n*)	*M* Time without Offence (days)	*M* Time with Offence (days)	χ^2
Minimum	Serious					
	Women	497	8 (40)	257	152	6
	Men	496	6 (28)	338	229	
	Minor					
	Women	497	30 (149)	247	132	6
	Men	496	28 (141)	316	186	
Medium	Serious					
	Women	399	33 (133)	383	179	11**
	Men	400	28 (113)	487	274	
	Minor					
	Women	399	62 (246)	357	129	61**
	Men	400	43 (174)	482	224	
Maximum	Serious					
	Women	55	46 (25)	520	200	0
	Men	55	47 (26)	544	190	
	Minor					
	Women	55	65 (36)	486	183	1
	Men	55	60 (33)	525	164	

Note. χ^2 = Log Rank test. A Bonferroni adjustment was made and the alpha was set at p = .008 (p = .05/6).
* p <.008, ** p <.001;

Figures 1 and 2 are graphical representations of the Kaplan-Meier survival curves which display the proportion of offenders "surviving" (i.e., not committing an offence) over the number of days at risk. Figure 1 presents the curves for serious offences within medium security and displays a gap between the lines, with the women committing an offence earlier in their incarceration in comparison to the men. Figure 2 demonstrates the curves for minor offences in medium security. Again, there is a prominent gap between the lines, with the women committing a minor offence earlier in their incarceration in comparison to the men.

Figure 1. Survival Analysis Examining Time to First Serious Offence for Men and Women in Medium Security

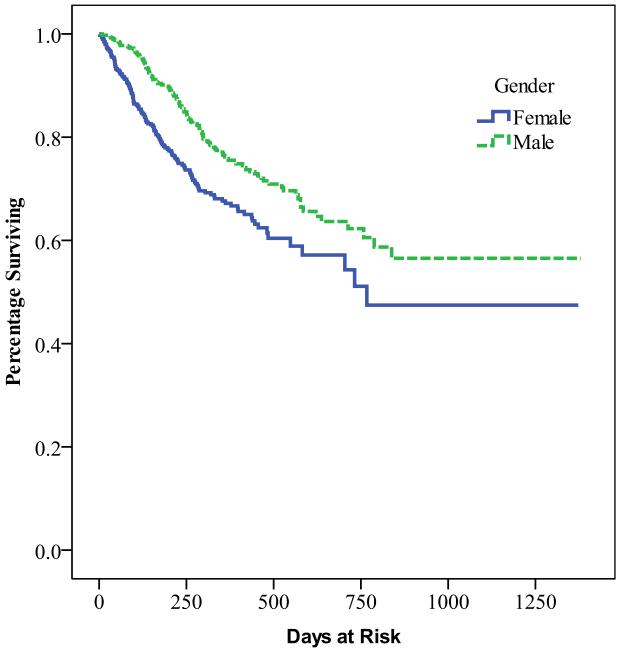
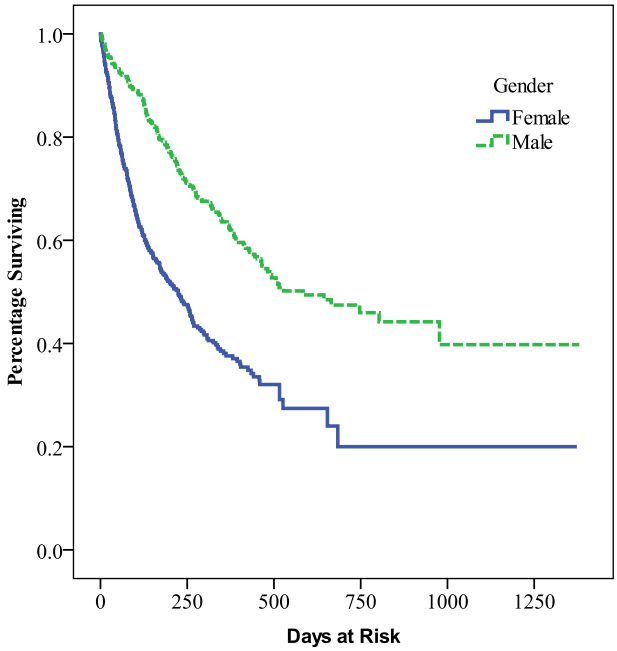


Figure 2. Survival Analysis Examining Time to First Minor Offence for Men and Women in Medium Security



Cox Regression: The Proportional Hazards Model

Cox regression survival analyses were performed to assess the potential predictors of the risk of committing an offence over time for men and women separately and at each security level. Table 5 outlines the results from the overall model as well as the individual variables. Those that were not significant are designated with an ‘x’, while those that were significant are designated with a check mark. For the most part, age was consistently a significant predictor for both men and women, both offence types, and in all three security levels. Results indicated that for every one year increase in age, there was a 4% to 7% decrease in the risk of committing an offence for men and a 2% to11% decrease for women.

The only unique predictor variable for women was dynamic risk (i.e., criminogenic need) which was a significant predictor of minor offences in minimum security. The risk of offence for those rated as low need was only one-third the risk of the high need group, while the medium need group was just over half the risk of the high need group. The only unique predictor variable for men was reintegration potential which was a significant predictor for serious offences in medium security. In comparison to the men rated as high reintegration potential, the risk of the

low reintegration group was three times higher while the risk of the medium reintegration group was only 1.3 times higher.

Table 5

Cox Regression Results: Overall Model and Predictor Variables in Relation to Institutional Offences

	Minimum Security				Medium Security				Maximum Security			
	Women		Men		Women		Men		Women		Men	
Offence Type	S	M	S	M	S	M	S	M	S	M	S	M
Predictor Variables												
Overall Model	×	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	×	×
Age	×	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	×	×	✓
Ethnicity	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Offence	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Sentence	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Risk	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Need	×	✓	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	--
Motivation	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Reintegration	×	×	×	×	×	×	✓	×	×	×	×	--

Note. × = not significant. ✓ = significant. S=Serious institutional offence. M=Minor institutional offence.— indicates the sample size was too small for analyses. A Bonferroni adjustment was made and the alpha was set at $p = .008$ ($p = .05/6$).

Gender Differences in the Nature of Offence

The following section presents a selection of overarching themes and corresponding results for the qualitative report analysis. Areas that will be addressed include offender role, offence type, weapon used, staff intervention, victim selection, victim injury, motivation, and overall severity. Unless otherwise indicated within the text, all categories were mutually exclusive. Additional results and frequencies for each theme separated by gender are provided in a table in Appendix D. Frequencies are provided based on the number of cases where relevant information was available for each section.

Offender role. All 28 of the men and 27 of the women were coded as being instigators, with only one woman identified as an associate to the incident. For the most part, offenders acted alone, with only one man and two women acting with an accomplice.

Offence type. All 56 cases were coded for type of offence. Almost half of the women (46%) engaged in physical altercations (e.g., pushing, shoving), and another 46% engaged in physical assault (e.g., punching, kicking). The remaining 8% were charged for uttering threats. The men followed a relatively similar pattern with the majority being involved in physical altercations (43%) and assaults (35%), with a small portion (11%) being charged for uttering threats. Only men engaged in assault using bodily fluids (11%; e.g., throwing urine at correctional officers).

Offender method. Information on method/weapon was available for all 56 cases. Each category was classified based on whether or not the instigator used the method/weapon to make contact with the victim or to threaten the victim. The primary method used during offences was physical force for both men (64%) [10] and women (93%). That being said, women relied more on methods that were purely physical force while men tended to vary in their methods to a wider degree. For example, unlike women, men used bodily fluids to harm (11%) and threaten (7%) individuals, while just over 14% threw an object at their intended victims to harm them (e.g., chairs). There were also 2 cases (7%) where an object was used to threaten someone.

Use of force. The degree of force[11] used by the staff to bring the situation under control was also assessed. The degree of intervention should typically reflect the severity of the offence (i.e., the more serious the incident, the more serious the use force; see Appendix E for the Use of Force guideline chart). The potential categories of force included (in order of seriousness): none, verbal instruction, negotiation, minor physical handling, restraint equipment, major physical handling, inflammatory sprays/chemical agents,[12] intermediary impact weapons, the Emergency Response Team (ERT), and finally, the use of firearms.[13]

Unfortunately, there were several cases where information regarding the use of force was not provided in the report for both men (n = 7/28) and women (n = 9/28). Results are presented

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[10] Percentages may exceed 100% given that offenders could use more than one method during the offence.
[11] By definition, use of force is "any action by staff on or off institutional property, that is intended to obtain the cooperation and gain control of an inmate" (CSC, 2009a, p. 2).
[12] OC Spray is not carried by staff in men's minimum security facilities, or women's minimum and medium security facilities.
[13] Firearms are not carried by any staff within any of the women's facilities.

based on the number of known cases. Coding results demonstrated that 37% of the offences for women did not require any use of force by the staff. For the most part, the presence of staff was sufficient to defuse the situation, or in some cases, staff were only informed of the misconduct after its occurrence and force was not necessary. The second most common method (32%) used with women involved minor physical intervention (e.g., stepping between offenders to separate them, escorting them away from the situation). In three cases (16%) verbal warnings were sufficient to terminate the offence while two cases (10%) required major physical handling (e.g., physically restraining the offender, reacting in self-defence). Only one case (5%) resulted in the use of chemical agents to deter the offender (e.g., the deployment of powdered Oleoresin Capsicum (OC) Inflammatory Spray).

In contrast, the most common method of force used with men involved inflammatory sprays/chemical agents (33%). Only four cases (19%) did not require use of force while other methods included negotiation (10%), minor physical involvement (10%) and use of restraint equipment such as a body belt (10%). Only individual cases (5%) warranted major physical handling, use of the ERT, or staff firearms. Additional results based on the full samples are provided in Appendix D.

Victim selection. The most notable difference in the nature of offence between men and women involved the victim selection. Information for all 56 cases was available. Although offenders were the most common victims for both groups, men clearly selected staff members more frequently than the women did (43% versus 14%). In contrast, women were more likely to select another offender in comparison to men (89% versus 57%).[14] In all four cases where women were involved in an offence with a staff victim, the individuals were correctional officers, as was the case for the majority of the mens' victims.

Although the original goal was to identify the connection between a perpetrator and his/her offender victim, insufficient report information resulted in limited findings. Out of all of the reports where the victim was an offender (n = 16 for men, n = 25 for women), only two cases for the men and nine cases for the women provided relevant information. The relationship identified for the men were related to a friendship and/or acquaintance. Several of the offender victims in the female sample were identified as being the instigator's cell/house mate (67%)

[14] The percentages may exceed 100 given that cases could involve both a staff and inmate victim.

while only two were identified as having an intimate relationship with their perpetrator (22%). The remaining report involved an acquaintance/friend as a victim (11%; refer to Appendix F for examples of qualitative excerpts).

The final victim-related factor that was coded for was the degree of physical harm/injury inflicted on the victim. The score ranged from 1 (no physical harm) to 7 (death) with 4 (moderate physical harm) as a middle point (refer to Appendix B for further details regarding the rating categories). For the men, the mean rating was 2.5 (SD = 1)[15] while the mean rating for women was only slightly lower (M = 2, SD = 0.6)[16].

Offender motivation. Offender motivation was another theme that would have provided pertinent information; however, inadequate information lead to limited findings (n = 5 for the men, n = 15 for the women). All five identifiable cases for the men were coded as having instrumental or acquisitive purposes. Although still limited, the reports referring to female perpetrated offences tended to be somewhat more informative. In contrast to the men, only 7% of cases were identified as being instrumentally driven, while 20% were as a result of a relational dispute. Just over 26% committed an offence as a form of retaliation or in response to being provoked. Finally, nearly half of the reports (47%) were coded as having 'other' motivations with the most common being issues regarding living space and having to share space with other women (refer to Appendix F for examples of qualitative excerpts).

Offence severity. The final qualitative coding pertained to the overall severity rating of the offence. This coding consisted of a general assessment of the incident, as opposed to the severity of physical harm previously discussed. A combination of factors had to be considered to provide a rating: the offence type, the degree of harm inflicted, the degree of staff response, and the overall safety of the institution. The rating ranged from 1 (not severe) to 5 (extremely severe). For further details regarding the severity ratings, refer to Appendix B. The mean rating for male-perpetrated offences was 3 (SD = 0.8)[17] while the mean rating for the female-perpetrated offences was 3 (SD = 0.7)[18]. Examples of excerpts related to offence severity are provided in Appendix F.

Overall, the qualitative results highlighted several gender differences, the most notable

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[15] This is based on 20 known ratings. The remaining 8 cases did not provide sufficient information to select a rating.
[16] This is based on 19 known ratings. The remaining 9 cases did not provide sufficient information to select a rating.
[17] This is based on 25 known ratings. The remaining 3 cases did not provide sufficient information to select a rating.
[18] This is based on 27 known ratings. The remaining 1 case did not provide sufficient information to select a rating.

being that men were more likely to use a weapon and to target staff as victims. Although the data was limited, what was available also suggested that men were more likely to engage in misconduct for instrumental reasons. In contrast, women were less likely to use a weapon and were more likely to target other women as victims, primarily for relational/retaliation reasons.

Discussion

The current study was conducted to extend the gender debate into the misconduct literature while addressing several gaps. Accordingly, the purpose of the present study was to examine gender differences in institutional offences within security levels in a Canadian federal correctional context using a male comparison group and a mixed-methods design. The results will be reviewed and discussed in relation to the research questions and hypotheses.

Gender and Offence Patterns

For the first research question, it was hypothesized that the gender would predict offences, with men being more likely to commit an offence at every security level. This hypothesis was not supported regardless of the type of analysis conducted. After controlling for time at risk, gender was only found to be a significant predictor of offences within medium security and higher offence rates were found in women rather than men. In comparison to men, women were approximately two and three times more likely to commit a serious and minor offence, respectively. It was also hypothesized that the proportion of men with a serious offence would be higher in comparison to women. Again, this hypothesis was not supported as the proportion of offenders with serious offences was comparable between men and women.

Although the results regarding gender predicting minor offences were not originally hypothesized, they are not completely unexpected and may simply highlight the presence of more problematic behaviours among women. Findings in the literature have been conflicting and clear gender distinctions have not yet been established. Despite research suggesting that women overall commit fewer offences, some contrasting studies have also demonstrated that if women do in fact engage in criminal behaviour more often than men while incarcerated, their behaviour tends to be of a less serious nature (e.g., Bosworth, 2007; Lindquist, 1980). Craddock (1996) for example found that women offenders tend to commit more minor infractions in comparison to men. Even when looking at only women, Casey-Acevedo and Bakken (2004) found that only a small portion of women engage in serious behaviours, while the majority engage in far more frequent and minor misconducts. The findings of the current study may simply indicate that women, specifically those designated as medium security, engage in more minor offence behaviours in comparison to men.

In addition to the explanation that women simply commit more minor offences, other

explanations for misconduct differences have been offered in the literature as well. Many argue that disciplinary practices are, to a certain extent, subjective and this may lead to disparity in the sanctions used with men and women offenders. Four main reasons for discrepancies have been proposed: (1) staff biases; (2) differences in staff training; (3) differences in the formal charge process; and (4) differences in institutional environments.

Research by McClellan (1994) found differences in disciplinary practices as a function of gender, with women being cited for a greater number of minor rule violations. In contrast, comparable behaviours found in men were often overlooked. Craddock (1996) also supports these findings, suggesting that significant differences in minor misconduct may be in part due to sanctioning practices rather than behavioural patterns. It is argued that staff tend to view women's confrontational and assaultive behaviour (e.g., swearing, fighting) as being more deviant (i.e., not conforming to a "stereotypical" gender role), thus requiring formal sanctions. In contrast, staff may view comparable behaviour in men as being expected within the male gender role and, therefore, do not discipline as frequently.

The dynamic in women's institutions may also lead to staff being more aware of women's actions and misconduct. CSC women-centered training emphasizes the importance of increased staff involvement and contact with women to facilitate a positive community environment (CSC, 2006). Recent research looking at women offenders' perspectives of dynamic security and working alliances with staff showed that correctional officers are cited as being the most involved and interactive with the women – having to maintain regular contact and visibility at all times (Harris, Taylor, Brown, & Booth, in press). Although this is a very positive finding that may facilitate a more cohesive or rehabilitative environment, it may also increase the likelihood of misconduct being detected, and thus create an appearance of a higher number of misconducts among women.

Finally, a more operational explanation may also apply. The current study only included analysis of offences that go through a formal charge process that requires disciplinary hearings and a finding of guilt. This formal charge process is in contrast to an incident, which is merely recorded on file but may not undergo a formal charge procedure. The charge process requires more paperwork, increased resources, and increased staff involvement. There is the potential that, given the smaller population of women offenders and the more "hands on" approach staff initiate in women's institutions, the formal charge process may be accessed and utilized more

frequently within the women's system. Findings from the McClellan (1994) study showed that three-fourths of women's infractions were processed formally, while less than half of the men's infractions went through the same process and the majority were dealt with informally. Future research should look at practices of formal versus informal processing in Canadian corrections while taking into account the staff-offender ratio and the availability of resources.

As for the evident difference within medium security, in comparison to the non-significant findings in minimum and maximum security, an explanation of environmental differences may offer some insight. The correctional structure and environment is comparable between men and women at minimum security (typically based on a residential-style infrastructure), and men and women at maximum security (structured, high static security environment). In contrast, women in medium security reside in residential-style housing while men in medium security typically reside in a more traditional correctional facility setting with separated cells and more static security (Blanchette, 2000; CSC, 2010). The situation for women requires living with other offenders in a housing unit in an environment that is perhaps less structured in comparison to men's. The medium security environment may, therefore, provide more opportunities for women to engage in minor offences in comparison to men.

Gender and Survival Patterns

To examine the first part of the second research question, survival analysis was used to assess gender differences in time from admission to first offence. Analysis of serious offences in medium security demonstrated that although the majority of offenders did not fail, women still demonstrated a significantly shorter time to first offence compared to their male counterparts. The largest noted difference in the length of time was evident when assessing minor offences in medium security, with women again committing offences earlier in their incarceration in comparison to men.

Given that this analysis was exploratory in nature, an outcome was not hypothesized. That being said, results suggest that evidence of maladjustment seems to manifest itself sooner among women in medium security. Some authors argue that women's adjustment to correctional facilities and the institutional environment is different than men's and may lead to different behavioural patterns and difficulty in adjusting (e.g., Van Tongeren & Klebe, 2010; Warren, Hurt, Loper, & Chauhan, 2004). Wright et al., (2007) explain that women's needs (e.g.,

backgrounds of victimization, mental health issues, parenting and relationships) are qualitatively different from men's needs and lead to increased risk of maladjustment upon admission into custody. Thompson and Loper (2005) for example, argue that poor adjustment to the institutional environment is likely exacerbated by distance from, and limited contact with, family members and children. Women's needs regarding mental health may be especially relevant as well, given that related issues have been linked to poor adjustment problems and misconduct among women (Drury & Delisi, 2010) and women offenders are far more likely than male offenders to be diagnosed with mental health problems upon admission (Public Safety Canada, 2009).

For the second part of this research question, Cox regression survival analysis was used to identify potential predictors of institutional offences for men and women separately. For both men and women, and both types of offence, age was consistently a strong predictor, with older offenders showing a reduced risk of institutional offences. This finding was not surprising given that age has been identified as one of the strongest predictors of offender behaviour (e.g., Blackburn & Trulson, 2010; Craddock, 1996; Steiner & Wooldredge, 2009). The only other significant findings were related to dynamic risk and reintegration potential. Dynamic risk was significant among minimum security women for minor offences; the only variable unique to women. Although the other factors that are assessed during the Offender Intake Assessment process did not prove to be significant (e.g., static risk), the findings regarding dynamic risk support part of the hypothesis and are consistent with previous research that links criminogenic need to offending behaviour (e.g., Andrews & Bonta, 2010). Reintegration potential level was the only variable unique to men in regards to serious offences, with men designated as low reintegration potential having a significantly higher risk in comparison to those with a high potential. Given that this item assesses the risk an offender poses to the community and the probability of successful reintegration into society, it is not surprising that low reintegration potential among male offenders is indicative of poor institutional behaviour. However, interpreting this finding as an indication that reintegration plays a role with men and not for women is cautioned. The overall reintegration potential is calculated differently for non-Aboriginal men in comparison to Aboriginal offenders and women offenders. Certain measures used to designate reintegration level (i.e., the Statistical Information on Recidivism-Revised Scale) are not used on the women offender population (CSC, 2012a). Although this finding may warrant further investigation, firm conclusions cannot be drawn at this point.

Gender and Nature of Assault

For the final research question, institutional offence reports were coded to assess whether the nature of the offences varied qualitatively based on the gender of the perpetrator. It was originally hypothesized that differences would emerge in regards to victim selection, weapon use, and degree of harm inflicted. In this case, the hypothesis was only partially supported. Although small in scope, certain patterns emerged that may highlight areas that warrant further investigation. Both men and women predominantly engaged in physical altercations and assault. Although the majority of men and women used physical force in their misconduct, it was evident that women predominantly relied on purely physical methods, while men tended to be more varied in their approach (e.g., used or threatened to use bodily fluids during their assault, used available or homemade objects as weapons for harming and/or threatening their victims). This finding has been supported in previous literature (e.g., Harer & Langan, 2001).

In reviewing the degree of force required to cease the misconduct, it was also evident that the majority of women's cases required what would be considered less serious methods (i.e., no force, verbal warning, or minor physical handling). The methods used with men tended to vary to a greater degree, with the most common method being sprays/chemical agents.[19] Other frequent methods included no force, negotiation, minor physical handling, and restraint equipment. Although only consisting of individual incidents, the Emergency Response Team was only used with men. Firearms were also presented with males, but given operational differences and the prohibited use of firearms in women's facilities, comparisons cannot be made.

Interestingly, the most notable difference found from the coding was regarding victim selection. Although offenders were overall the most common victim, women were far less likely to target staff in comparison to men. From the information that was available, women's victims were often a housemate, friend, or partner. In addition, women's motivations revolved around retaliation, relational issues, and conflicts arising from sharing space with other women. Unfortunately, these details were rarely provided in the men's reports and the only notable finding was that where motivation was identified, it was consistently coded as being instrumental

[19] It is important to note that differences in regulations regarding the use of chemical agents in men and women's institutions need to be considered when interpreting these findings. Sprays are used in both medium and maximum security institutions for the men, but are only permitted within maximum security for the women's facilities.

(e.g., paying debts, gaining privileges). This finding is fairly consistent with literature regarding gender differences in the nature of offending (e.g., Greenfeld & Snell; Koons-Witt and Schram, 2003). Women typically know their victims well (e.g., other offenders, housemates), and are motivated by interpersonal issues (e.g., retaliation, relational disputes). Men, on the other hand, follow a more predatory pattern involving victims they are not close to (e.g., correctional officers) and are often instrumentally motivated (Greenfeld & Snell, 1999).

The final two themes that were coded for involved degree of harm inflicted on the victim, and the overall severity of misconduct. Although it was hypothesized that men would inflict more harm and have a higher offence severity, the severity of offence and the degree of harm ratings tended to be similar between the groups and within the low to moderate range.

Although it may seem that certain ratings were similar for both groups, there were also patterns that highlighted evident differences, suggesting that the nature of offences may still vary based on gender and could potentially require different methods of intervention.Overall, the qualitative results offered preliminary insight into potential gender differences that warrant further investigation.

Limitations and Future Research

Given that certain aspects were beyond the scope of the current study, there are several areas that should be addressed for future research. Although archival data is beneficial in that it allows access to extensive information and large sample sizes, which are not easily accessible (especially in regards to women offenders), there are some drawbacks. First, the use of archival data in the current study did not allow for the primary researcher to access information that may have been pertinent to this study. Instead, analysis was based on the information that was available. For example, the offence reports varied extensively in the amount of detail available which resulted in some incomplete results. Second, the researcher had no control over what was reported and what was omitted. Despite policies and guidelines, the practice of recording institutional offences can still vary widely by region, institution, and staff. There is also the chance that some offences are unreported, as is often the case with official offence records (e.g., Perreault & Brennan, 2009).

To obtain more detailed information regarding institutional offences, future research should include the collection of qualitative data by interviewing both offenders and staff to better

understand factors surrounding offences that may not be available via archival records. Interviewing offenders (both perpetrators and victims) would also potentially identify cases that go unreported in the system.

As previously noted, reasons for staff over- or under-reporting offences may also vary based on staff biases and perspectives. Subsequent research should investigate gender differences in disciplinary sanctions used within the correctional system. It would also be beneficial to investigate what a typical correctional staff response would be to a given misconduct situation and whether or not the response or disciplinary reaction differs by gender of the perpetrator. Additional research should identify if staff biases exist and attempt to control for them.

Another potential aspect to consider in future research would be to control for additional incarceration and demographic characteristics. For example, given that Aboriginal offenders are overrepresented in the system, especially in the women offender population (Public Safety Canada, 2011), it would be beneficial to further investigate institutional offences by conducting analyses separately for Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal offenders.

In addition to differences in demographic and incarceration characteristics, a significant factor that should be taken into consideration is mental health. Mental health has been repeatedly linked to poor adjustment problems and institutional misconduct among female youth and adult offenders (Blackburn & Trulson, 2010; Drury & Delisi, 2010; Steiner & Wooldredge, 2009). Although obtaining and assessing this information was beyond the scope of the current study, it would be beneficial to investigate mental health issues and the role mental health plays in men and women's adjustment to incarceration. This issue is especially relevant given that the number of federal women offenders identified at admission with mental health problems has significantly increased over the past decade (CSC, 2009b) and women offenders are twice as likely as males to have a mental health diagnosis upon admission into custody (Public Safety Canada, 2009).

Given the nature of the data, the current study relied on behavioural misconduct records in relation to offender adjustment. Depending on how adjustment is defined, there are often other aspects that are considered in the literature. Future research could also incorporate such factors as overall offender well-being (via adjustment measures, mental health measures), correctional facility infrastructure (especially in regards to the multi-level nature of women's institutions), available institutional resources (e.g., staff to offender ratio), and overcrowding/double-bunking. To incorporate gender-specific variables, future analysis could also include such factors as

victimization, mental health, and parenting, similar to previous research (e.g., Wright et al., 2007).

Collectively, the results of the current study contribute to the gender debate and suggest that there are some gender differences in institutional offences. The findings demonstrated that the most distinct difference was for minor offences among medium security offenders, with women receiving more charges than men and committing offences earlier than men. These results may suggest that maladjustment manifested itself differently and earlier among this group of incarcerated women. This disparity may also be indicative of several other factors, most importantly, the fact that the institutional environment differs between men and women within the medium security level. Although these findings have the potential to eventually inform operational practices, knowledge in this area is still in its infancy and additional research is necessary. As demonstrated with the potential future directions, there are still many other aspects to consider. The present study provides a platform for further investigation of misconduct to fully understand gender differences in institutional behaviour and potentially identify the appropriate operational responses.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Demographic and Incarceration Characteristics

Table A1

Demographic and Incarceration Characteristics of the Current Sample

	Women *N* = 951 % (*n*)	Men *N* = 951 % (*n*)
Ethnicity		
Caucasian	58 (552)	66 (630)
Aboriginal[a]	28 (267)	15 (143)
Black	7 (67)	9 (85)
Other/Unknown[b]	7 (65)	10 (93)
Marital Status		
Single/Widowed/Divorced	64 (613)	53 (500)
Married/ Common Law	34 (319)	45 (428)
Other/Unknown	2 (19)	2 (23)
Length of Aggregate Sentence		
3 Years or Less	72 (684)	63 (601)
More than 3 Years	25 (240)	35 (329)
Life Sentence	3 (27)	2 (21)
	N = 950[c]	*N* = 946[d]
Type of Offence[e]		
Homicide	9 (86)	6 (54)
Sexual Offence	2 (21)	13 (123)
Robbery	16 (150)	13 (118)
Assault	9 (84)	7 (70)
Drug Related	32 (306)	30 (284)
Property	18 (173)	16 (150)
Other Violent	5 (49)	5 (51)
Other Non-Violent	9 (81)	10 (96)

Note. [a]This category included Inuit, Métis, and First Nations; [b]This included several categories collapsed together due to small *n*'s (e.g., East Indian, Hispanic, Chinese, Latin American); [c]*n* = 1 missing; [d]*n* = 5 missing; [e]Most serious offence on the offender's sentence.

Table A2

Static Risk, Dynamic Risk, Motivation, and Reintegration Potential of the current Sample as Assessed upon Admission

	Women *N* = 949[a] % (*n*)	Men *N* = 951 % (*n*)
Static Risk Level		
Low	36 (345)	24 (224)
Medium	41 (385)	43 (408)
High	23 (219)	33 (319)
Dynamic Risk Level		
Low	15 (143)	17 (167)
Medium	42 (394)	38 (358)
High	43 (412)	45 (426)
Motivation Level		
Low	4 (36)	11 (99)
Medium	41 (289)	64 (611)
High	55 (524)	25 (241)
Reintegration Potential		
Low	17 (158)	23 (216)
Medium	43 (413)	29 (277)
High	40 (378)	48 (458)

Note. [a]*n* = 2 missing.

Appendix B: Coding Manual

PERPETRATOR INFORMATION

1. What was the offender's role in the incident?

[1] ☐ Instigator

[2] ☐ Associate

[88] ☐ Unknown/unclear (not indicated)

2. Was the offender working with another offender during the incident?

[1] ☐ No

[2] ☐ Yes

[88] ☐ Unknown (not indicated)

2.1 If yes, how many other offenders were involved?

[1] ☐ One

[2] ☐ Two

[3] ☐ Three or more

[88] ☐ Unknown (not indicated)

[99] ☐ Not Applicable

INCIDENT DETAILS

3. What was the incident type?

[1] ☐ Threat/verbal assault

[Displays aggressive/threatening behaviour, but no contact is made]

[2] ☐ Fighting/minor assault/physical altercation

[Contact is made, but non-serious e.g., pushing, shoving, slapping]

[3] ☐ Physical Assault using force

[Serious contact is made e.g., punching, kicking, weapons]

[4] ☐ Physical Assault using bodily fluids

[5] ☐ Sexual assault

[6] ☐ Hostage-taking

[7] ☐ Hostage-taking with sexual assault

[8] ☐ Forcible confinement

[9] ☐ Forcible confinement with sexual assault

[10] ☐ Homicide/attempted homicide

[11] ☐ Other (please specify): _____

4. Where did the incident take place?

[1] ☐ Cell/Living Unit/Pod

[2] ☐ Range

[3] ☐ Control/security post (including reception post)

[4] ☐ Segregation cell

[5] ☐ Interview room

[6] ☐ Administrative offices

[7] ☐ Kitchen/dining area

[8] ☐ Stores/canteen distribution area

[9] ☐ School/program rooms

[10] ☐ Washroom

[11] ☐ Visiting area

[12] ☐ Recreational/common area (e.g., yard, gym, library)

[13] ☐ Medical services area

[14] ☐ Other (please specify): _____

[88] ☐ Unknown (not indicated)

5. What was the primary weapon/method used?

[Check all that apply – offender can punch/kick and then resort to sharp object. Can also indicate if weapon is found on person or during post incident search – just include it under threaten]

[1] ☐ Sharp object <u>used to harm victim</u> (e.g., knife, razor, home-made shank)

[2] ☐ Sharp object used to threaten/control victim

[3] ☐ Blunt object <u>used to harm victim</u> (e.g., club, pipe, tools)

[4] ☐ Blunt object used to threaten/control victim

[5] ☐ Restraints <u>used to harm victim</u> (e.g., rope, belt)

[6] ☐ Restraints used to threaten/control victim

[7] ☐ Physical force used to harm victim (e.g., kicking, punching, physically restrain/hold)

[8] ☐ Physical force used to threaten/control victim

[9] ☐ Fluids used to harm victim (e.g., spraying/throwing urine, blood, excrement, spit)

[10] ☐ Fluids used to threaten/control victim

[11] ☐ Objects thrown to harm the victim (e.g., chair)

[12] ☐ Threat of throwing object

[13] ☐ Other (please specify): _____

[88] ☐ Unknown (not indicated)

6. What was the degree of staff intervention (i.e., Use of Force) needed in order to bring the situation under control?

[These are ordered by severity/seriousness of force required. Choose the most serious when a combination of tactics is used].

[1] ☐ None (offender ceases actions on his/her own, staff are only informed of the incident after it's occurrence, staff presence on unit is enough to end incident).

[2] ☐ Verbal intervention/Conflict resolution

[3] ☐ Negotiation (staff engage in negotiation or an actual negotiator is brought in)

[4] ☐ Minor physical handling (physically intervene, step between, separate & escort away from the situation)

[5] ☐ Restraint equipment (handcuffs, leg irons, body belt)

[6] ☐ Major physical handling (physically restrain/subdue, self defend)

[7] ☐ Inflammatory and/or chemical agents

[8] ☐ Use of batons or other intermediary impact weapons

[9] ☐ Emergency Response Team

[10] ☐ Use of firearms

[11] ☐ Not indicated

VICTIM INFORMATION

7. How many victims were involved in the incident?

[0] ☐ 0

[1] ☐ 1

[2] ☐ 2

[3] ☐ 3 or more

[4] ☐ Unclear/not indicated

8. Who was the victim in the incident? (Check more than one if additional victims are in a different category)

[1] ☐ Staff

[2] ☐ Another offender

[3] ☐ Visitor

[4] ☐ Unknown (not indicated)

8.1 If the victim(s) was a staff member, indicate their staff position (Check more than one if there is more than one victim with a different position).

[1] ☐ Correctional Officer

[2] ☐ Parole Officer

[3] ☐ Program facilitator

[4] ☐ Psychology staff (e.g., psychologist, counsellor)

[5] ☐ Medical Staff (e.g., nurse, doctor)

[6] ☐Administrative or functional/services staff (e.g., clerical staff, kitchen/canteen staff)

[88] ☐ Unknown/not indicated

[99] ☐ Not Applicable

9. What was the perpetrator's relationship to the victim?

9.1 If the victim was another offender:

[1] ☐ Cell/house mate

[2] ☐ Friend/ Acquaintance

[This may seem like it overlaps with the above category, only check this if

it is specifically stated that they are friends or associate frequently. If it just states they are housed together, select #1]

[3] ☐ Partner (indicates intimate relationship with the victim)

[4] ☐ Rival gang member

[5] ☐ No relationship – random selection

[6] ☐ Other (please indicate): _____

[88] ☐ Unknown (not indicated)

[99] ☐ Not Applicable (i.e. victim was staff)

10. **A**. On a Scale of 1 to 7, what was the degree of physical harm/injury inflicted on the victim?

[1] ☐ 1. No physical harm inflicted. No assault/contact

[This would likely be a case where an offender threatens a victim and is verbally aggressive]

[2] ☐ 2. None to minor harm inflicted: contact made without injury

[Assault without injury: contact is made but there is little physical impact. E.g., pushing/shoving]

[3] ☐ 3. Minor physical harm inflicted

[Superficial injuries would require some first aid treatment (ice, bandages) but would not require serious medical attention. E.g., small cuts, bruises,]

[4] ☐ 4. Moderate physical harm inflicted

[Injuries require more serious medical attention (e.g., cast, stitches) but the victim is still relatively functional post event i.e., not life-threatening or extensively long lasting. E.g., broken limb]

[5] ☐ 5. Moderate to severe physical harm

[Immediate physical injuries are not severe, but the nature of the assault is potentially life-threatening & long lasting. This will mainly apply to use of bodily fluids – potential for contracting serious illness or infectious diseases (HIV/AIDS, Hepatitis). Another potential example would include breaking skin with potential contagious object (e.g., needle)]

[6] ☐ 6. Severe physical harm inflicted [physical injuries are severe and the nature of the assault is potentially life-threatening & long lasting [*violent sexual assault, serious head injury, spinal injury]*

[7] ☐ 7. Death

[88] ☐ Unclear/not indicated [if minimal to no information is provided]

10. **B.** If there was a **second victim** - on a Scale of 1 to 7, what was the degree of physical harm/injury inflicted on this victim?

[1] ☐ 1. No physical harm inflicted. No assault/contact

[This would likely be a case where an offender threatens a victim and is verbally aggressive]

[2] ☐ 2. None to minor harm inflicted: contact made without injury

[Assault without injury: contact is made but there is little physical impact. E.g., pushing/shoving]

[3] ☐ 3. Minor physical harm inflicted

[Superficial injuries would require some first aid treatment (ice, bandages) but would not require serious medical attention. E.g., small cuts, bruises,]

[4] ☐ 4. Moderate physical harm inflicted

[Injuries require more serious medical attention (e.g., cast, stitches) but the victim is still relatively functional post event i.e., not life-threatening or extensively long lasting. E.g., broken limb]

[5] ☐ 5. Moderate to severe physical harm

[Immediate physical injuries are not severe, but the nature of the assault is potentially life-threatening & long lasting. This will mainly apply to use of bodily fluids – potential for contracting serious illness or infectious diseases (HIV/AIDS, Hepatitis). Another potential example would include breaking skin with potential contagious object (e.g., needle)]

[6] ☐ 6. Severe physical harm inflicted [physical injuries are severe and the nature of the assault is potentially life-threatening & long lasting [*violent sexual assault, serious head injury, spinal injury]*

[7] ☐ 7. Death

[88] ☐ Unclear/not indicated [if minimal to no information is provided]

MOTIVATION

11. What was the offender(s) motivation(s) for the incident?

[1] ☐ Instrumental (acquisition of property/goods, status/power, privileges)

Please specify: _____

[2] ☐ Expressive (wanting to be heard, wanting attention)

Please specify: _____

[3] ☐ Relational (has a relation to the victim, e.g., result of a dispute)

[4] ☐ Sexual

[5] ☐ Gang-related

[6] ☐ Retaliation/in response to being provoked

[7] ☐ Psychological distress (Offender is unstable & acting out – needs to clearly be specified, i.e., offender is seen by medical staff afterwards & this assessment is made)

[8] ☐ Escape

[9] ☐ Other (please specify): _____ [88] ☐ Unknown (not indicated)

OVERALL SEVERITY RANKING

12. On a scale of 1-5, what was the degree of severity of the incident?

[Refer to following section for detailed instructions]

☐ 1 Not severe

☐ 2 Somewhat severe

☐ 3 Moderately severe

☐ 4 Very severe

☐ 5 Extremely severe

☐ 6 Not enough information to provide answer

NOTE:

Need to look at this as an overall assessment of the incident, as opposed to #10 which only refers specifically to the degree of physical harm of the victim. For example, a confinement/hostage taking situation may not result in much contact/harm, but overall it is a serious form of misconduct. There is a combination of factors to consider: the act itself, the harm inflicted, staff response and the safety of the institution.

1. Not severe
Offender behaviour: Likely more of a minor verbal resistance, disciplinary issue. No contact made
Harm inflicted: None
Staff response: Verbal intervention is sufficient to de-escalate the situation.
Safety: Safety of institution not at serious risk.

2. Somewhat severe
Offender behaviour: Verbally aggressive/assaultive, threatening violence, not cooperative & verbally resistive. Minimal to no contact made.
Harm inflicted: None
Staff response: Verbal intervention/negotiation is needed.
Safety: Safety of institution not at serious risk.

3. Moderately severe
Offender behaviour: Fighting, minor assault, physical contact is made. Offender is physically uncooperative.
Harm inflicted: minor
Staff response: Verbal intervention- negotiation. Minor physical staff involvement – staff physically intervene, step between offenders, escort offender away from the situation, standard restrain equipment used.
Safety: Safety of the institution at minor risk.

4. Very severe
Offender behaviour: Moderate assault, physical contact is made and/or weapon is used.
Harm inflicted: Moderate to major but not life-threatening/long-term.
Staff response: Major physical handling required (staff actions are to physically restrain offender or are in self-defence). Chemical sprays/agents may be used.
Safety: Safety of institution at moderate risk.

5. Extremely severe
Offender behaviour: Serious assault/attempted homicide, attempted escape
Harm inflicted: Grievous bodily harm - injuries are significant and potentially life-threatening/long term.
Staff response: Major physical handling required, chemical sprays/agents used, ERT brought in, impact weapons/lethal force required.
Safety: Safety of institution at serious risk.

Appendix C: Measures & Materials

Demographics

Several demographic characteristics were examined and were included to provide an overall description of the sample.

Age. This variable indicates the offender's age upon admission into federal custody for the sentence being examined. This variable was derived by subtracting the offender's date of birth on file from the date of their actual admission.

Ethnicity. This variable was categorized into four main groups: Caucasian, Aboriginal (which consisted of Inuit, Métis, and First Nations), Black and Other[20]/Unknown for the demographic results. For Cox regression analysis, this variable was collapsed into two categories: Aboriginal (Inuit, Métis, and First Nations) and Non-Aboriginal (all other groups).

Relationship status. This variable was divided into three groups: with partner (married, common-law), single (which includes separated, divorced, and widowed) and unknown/missing (no designated status available).

Incarceration Characteristics

Several incarceration characteristics were included to assess group differences and to measure whether these factors were associated with institutional behaviour.

Offence type. An offender's most serious offence type on his/her sentence was categorized into the following eight dichotomous variables: homicide (e.g., murder or attempted murder), sexual offence, robbery, assault, drugs (e.g., drug possession, trafficking and importing), property (e.g., break and enter, possession of stolen property), other violent (e.g., kidnapping, abduction, weapons and explosives and other non-violent (e.g., public order offence, administration of justice, impaired driving).

Aggregate sentence length. This variable represented the total length of an offender's sentence in years. The variable was both continuous and categorical, and offenders were categorized into three groups: aggregate sentence length of three years or less, greater than three years, and indeterminate sentence (i.e., life sentence).

Time at risk. This variable indicated the amount of time each offender was incarcerated during the study timeframe. It is defined as the number of days incarcerated from offender

[20] This consisted of several categories collapsed together due to small *n*'s (e.g., East Indian, Hispanic, Chinese, Filipino, Latin American etc…)

admission until the end of the study period (i.e., first release, first security reclassification, or March 31, 2012). Given that days incarcerated indicates the amount of time an offender has the opportunity to engage in misconduct, it was designated as the 'time at risk'.

Offender Intake Assessment. Data pulled from OMS included information taken from the Offender Intake Assessment (OIA) database. The OIA is conducted upon an offender's arrival and official admission into the federal correctional system to collect all pertinent offender information (e.g., risks, needs, immediate concerns). The OIA consists of two core components: the Assessment of Static Factors and the Assessment of Dynamic Factors. The static portion focuses on historical factors (e.g., history, offence severity) and the probability of future re-offending. The dynamic portion consists of the Dynamic Factors Identification Analysis (DFIA) which is comprised of the seven dynamic factor domains (employment, marital/family, associates, substance abuse, community functioning, personal/emotional, attitude; Brown & Motiuk, 2005). These factors are significantly related to the prediction of an offender's risk to recidivate and are also related to reductions in reoffending if targeted through correctional treatment. Where available, the following variables were obtained and used for the current analysis: 1) *overall static risk*: assessed as low, medium, or high risk based on and assessment of static and historical criminal factors; 2) *overall dynamic risk*: criminogenic needs which are indicative of an offender's required level of intervention and can be modified through treatment(these are assessed as low, medium or high based on the number and severity of identified needs); 3) *motivation level*: assessed as low, medium, or high based on an offender's motivation to complete his/her correctional plan; 4) *reintegration potential*: assessed as low, medium, or high; indicating the probability of successful offender reintegration back into the community. This rating is based on the Custody Rating Scale (Solicitor General of Canada, 1987), the Revised Statistical Information on Recidivism (SIR-R1; Nuffield, 1982) and the Static Factor Rating for non-Aboriginal male offenders (Brown & Motiuk, 2005; CSC, 2012a). For Aboriginal and women offenders, this level is determined by using the Custody Rating Scale, the Static Factor Rating, and the Dynamic Factor Rating (Brown & Motiuk, 2005; CSC, 2012a).

Research has shown that the DFIA demonstrates strong to moderate concurrent validity (Brown & Motiuk, 2005) with correlations between risk level and the Criminal Risk Assessment components (r = .17 to r = .49). Internal consistency of the domains have also demonstrated acceptable to superior results with men, women, and Aboriginal offenders with Cronbach's alpha

ranging from .62 to .96 (Brown & Motiuk, 2005). Although inter-rater reliability has not been discussed in the literature, it is important to note that there are strict guidelines, staff training initiatives, and operational reviews that are in place to ensure consistency and proper administration of the OIA process (CSC, 2012b).

Offender security level. As part of the OIA process, offenders are assigned a security classification upon admission into federal custody. The classification is based, in part, on the results of the Custody Rating Scale (CRS; Solicitor Gender of Canada, 1987) which assesses an offender's institutional adjustment and security risk. The measure provides an overall score, with higher scores being indicative of higher classification recommendation. There are designated score cut-off points which indicate if an offender should be placed in minimum, medium, or maximum security. Although the CRS was originally developed based on male offender samples, it has demonstrated sufficient reliability and validity when used with both women and Aboriginal offenders (Blanchette, Verbrugge, & Wichmann, 2002). Security level was the basis of all analyses in the current study given that that all tests were conducted with men and women grouped by security level. Only an offender's first security designation upon admission up until the end of the study period was used in the current study (i.e., information following security reclassifications was not considered).

Predictor variables. The predictor variables for the second research question were based on an amalgamation of several variables previously discussed. These include the following: age upon admission, ethnicity (Aboriginal, non-Aboriginal), aggregate sentence, major admitting index offence (violent, non-violent), previous incarcerations, as well as static risk, dynamic risk, reintegration potential, and motivation level.

Institutional offences. For the current study, the misconduct variable measured was institutional offences. An institutional offence was defined as an event of misconduct which resulted in a formal charge process (as opposed to incidents which warrant documentation on an offender's case file, but do not generally result in a formal charge). These are classified as being either serious or minor in severity when the charges are laid. Only those offenders designated as instigators or associates were selected, and only those offenders who were found guilty were considered for analysis.

Coding manual. A coding manual was used for the collection of qualitative information from the misconduct reports. Researchers coded for such items as misconduct type, misconduct

severity, offender role, victim involved, and relationship with victim, method/weapon used and degree of harm inflicted (please refer to Appendix B for the full coding manual).

Misconduct reports. Misconduct reports completed by institutional staff were accessed via OMS to complete the qualitative component of this study. Reports provided information pertaining to individual incidents, including details regarding the nature of the incident, the victim involved, use of weapons, and degree of harm. Given the emphasis CSC strategic policies place on preventing violent/assaultive behaviour within the institution due the potential harms and negative implications, only serious misconduct reports involving assaults were considered.

Appendix D: Additional Qualitative Results

Table D1

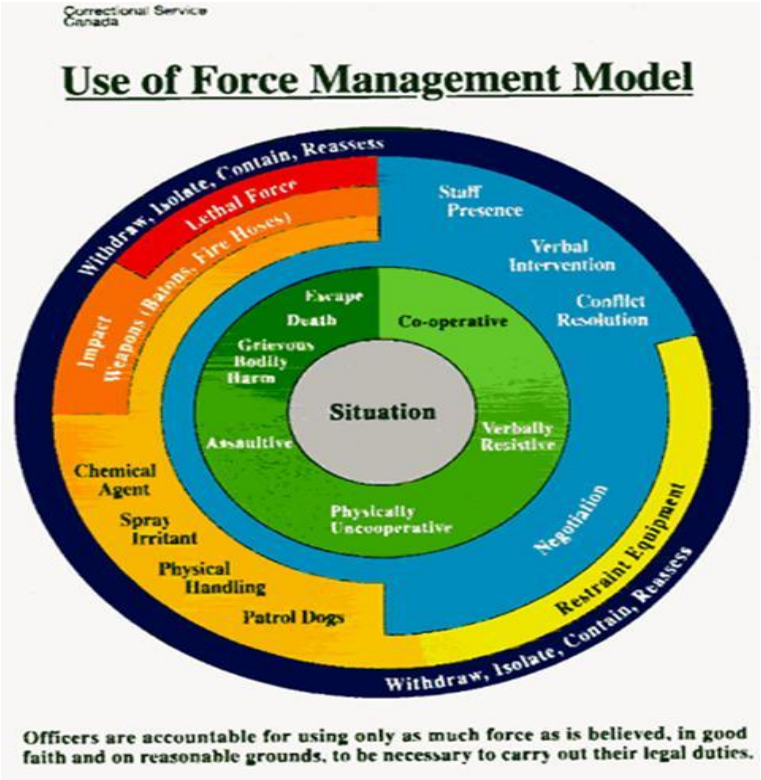
Qualitative Results by Gender

	Men *N* = 28 % (*n*)	Women *N* = 28 % (*n*)
Offender Role		
Instigator	100 (28)	96 (27)
Associate	0 (0)	4 (1)
Accomplice (Yes/No)	4 (1)	7 (2)
Misconduct Type		
Threat	11(3)	8 (2)
Physical altercation	43 (12)	46 (13)
Physical assault	36 (10)	46 (13)
Assault with Bodily Fluids	11 (3)	0 (0)
Misconduct Location		
Cell	7 (2)	54 (15)
Range	25 (7)	4 (1)
Kitchen	14 (4)	4 (1)
Programs	0 (0)	7 (2)
Washroom	7 (2)	0 (0)
Common area	25 (7)	14 (4)
Medical services	7 (2)	4 (1)
Unknown	14 (4)	14 (4)
Method/Weapon[a]		
Harm – Blunt object	4 (1)	4 (1)
Threaten – Blunt object	0 (0)	4 (1)
Harm – Physical force	64 (18)	93 (26)
Threaten – Physical force	11 (3)	4 (1)
Harm – Bodily fluids	11 (3)	0 (0)
Threaten – Bodily fluids	7 (2)	0 (0)
Harm – Throw object	14 (4)	4 (1)
Use of Force		
None	14 (4)	25 (7)
Verbal	4 (1)	11 (3)
Negotiation	7 (2)	0 (0)
Minor physical	7 (2)	21 (6)
Restraint equipment	7 (2)	0 (0)
Major physical	4 (1)	7 (2)
Sprays/chemical agents	25 (7)	4 (1)
ERT	4 (1)	0 (0)
Firearms	4 (1)	0 (0)
Unknown	25 (7)	32 (9)

Victim Number		
1	89 (25)	86 (24)
2	0 (0)	7 (2)
3 or more	7 (2)	4 (1)
Unclear	4 (1)	4 (1)
Motivation		
Instrumental	19 (5)	4 (1)
Relational	0 (0)	11 (3)
Retaliation/provoked	0 (0)	14 (4)
Other	0 (0)	25 (7)
Unknown	82 (23)	46 (13)
Victim – Offender (Yes/No)	57 (16)	89 (25)
Relation to Offender Victim	*n* = 16	*n* = 25
Cell/house mate	0 (0)	24 (6)
Friend/acquaintance	13 (2)	4 (1)
Partner	0 (0)	8 (2)
Unknown	88 (14)	64 (16)
Victim – Staff (Yes/No)	43(12)	14 (4)
Staff Position	*n* = 12	*n* = 4
Correctional Officer	75 (9)	100 (4)
Other	25 (3)	0 (0)

Note. Percentages may not sum to 100% due to rounding. [a] percentages exceed 100% as categories of weapon/method are not mutually exclusive

Appendix E: Use of Force Management Model



The diagram shows schemata of the Use of Force Management Model. It is a circular diagram with inner and outer circles indicating the chosen use of force for a given situation. Officers must use only as much force as is required to carry out legal duties. The outside rim specifies that officers withdraw, isolate, contain, and reassess for all situations. The next layer specifies different options in each section of the layers: the upper left quadrant specifies lethal force, the larger section next to it specifies impact weapons, batons, and fire hoses in response to situations involving escape, grievous bodily harm, and death. The lower quadrant specifies chemical agent, spray irritant, physical handling, and patrol dogs in response to assaultive behaviour and non cooperation. The lower right quadrant specifies restraint equipment for non cooperative offenders. The next section is the largest section of the model and it specifies negotiation, conflict resolution, verbal intervention, and staff presence for offenders who are verbally resistant or cooperative.[21]

[21] Diagram and description are taken directly from Appendix A as provided in: Varrette, S. & Archambault, K. (2011). *A review of use of force in three types of correctional facilities.* Report R-236. Ottawa ON: CSC.

Appendix F: Qualitative Excerpts

Examples of identified relationships between instigator and victim:

M-MIN07[22]: Staff had opened all cells for uncleared offenders to go to the gym; staff noticed a physical altercation had begun outside [the] cell […] It should be noted that both offenders stated that they were from [the same city]and had spent time in the community centre and did allude to knowing each other on the street.

F-MED51: **F/O A**[23] stated that she and F/O_B were not in a relationship but did have sexual encounters. **F/O A** stated that F/O_B became very jealous of everyone and would follow **F/O A** around. **F/O A** gave F/O_B the silent treatment for a couple of days.

Example of instrumental motivation:

M-MED41: Staff noticed **F/O A** and F/O_B fighting. Staff removed a bundle [of bacon] from **F/O A**'s right pocket […] **F/O A** said the fight was over smuggling meat out of the kitchen […] Staff asked if **F/O A** is in debt and if taking the bacon was to pay his debt off. [**F/O A**] wants to speak to inmate committee regarding his debt.

Examples of relational motivation.

F-MED21: **F/O A** and F/O_B were observed to be in an altercation, a staff member observed inmate **F/O A** strike F/O_B several times in the face/chest area and kicked her in the back area. Both inmates separated without further incident, subsequent interviews indicated that the contributing factor was a relationship that had ended.
An example of motivation related to problems with living space.

F-MED54: Officers witnessed **F/O A** shove someone on the North side living unit of the

[22] The number refers to the report ID and the letters preceding it refer to the gender of the offender (F = female, M = male) and their security level (MAX = maximum, MED = medium, MIN = minimum).
[23] Offender names are replaced with the term F/O (Federal Offender) and a corresponding generic letter as an identifier in each report. The offender being coded for is always underlined and bold.

SLE[24] […] When asked what was going on **F/O A** explained that there were various unit issues but the main issue was that food was going missing and many of her items had been stolen.

Example of a Level 2 offence severity rating:

F-MED36: On this date staff walking in the compound heard shouting coming from living unit 4. As they approached the Unit they heard a female voice yelling "I'm going to take a rock and smash you in the head you [expletives]!" As staff entered the Unit they found **F/O A** in her room. They asked if she had been the one yelling and she admitted she was but would not divulge the name of the person to whom she was yelling the threat. When reminded of the seriousness of uttering threats, **F/O A** shrugged her shoulders and stated "Yeah, I said it". **F/O A** was removed from the Unit and placed in Segregation.

Example of a Level 3 offence severity rating:

M-MED14: **F/O A** […] observed another inmate being escorted down the breezeway towards SIS[25] on his release go-round. **F/O A** grabbed at the inmate that was being escorted and tried to pull him away from the escorting officer. **F/O A** then sucker punched the inmate in the left cheek, as the officer separated them; two other officers arrived there and escorted **F/O A** to the Correctional Managers office. F/O_B was escorted to Health care to be assessed where the nurse noted redness to the left cheek with no swelling or other injuries to report. F/O_B was escorted back to his cell. **F/O A** was placed in segregation for his actions and institutionally charged.

[24] SLE = Structure Living Environment: this is a separate unit for high need women requiring specific mental health interventions and who cannot be managed within the general population (Sly & Taylor, 2005).
[25] SIS = Supervisor of Institutional Services.