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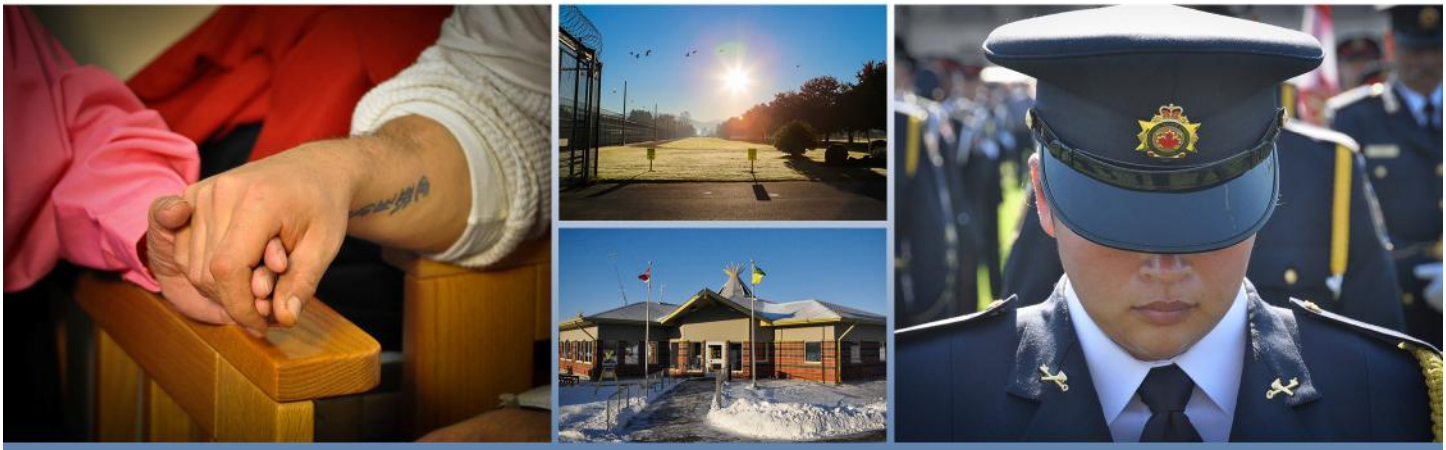

RESEARCH REPORT

Impacts of Indigenous Intervention Centre Participation on Institutional Behaviour

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Impacts of Indigenous Intervention Centre Participation on Institutional Behaviour

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2023

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Executive Summary

Key words: *Indigenous offenders, institutional behaviour, case management, culturally-responsive, culturally appropriate*

Indigenous offenders face unique challenges within the Canadian criminal justice system. The Correctional Service of Canada (CSC) acknowledges these issues and recognizes the importance of providing effective, culturally appropriate interventions and reintegration support. Indigenous Intervention Centres (IICs) were developed to streamline Indigenous resources and services; providing a culturally-responsive and integrated approach to case management. IICs aim to increase success and healing for Indigenous offenders, while ensuring CSC supports their safe reintegration into society. This research examines the impact of IIC involvement on the institutional behaviour and correctional progress of Indigenous offenders.

Indigenous offenders who were admitted to a federal institution between April 1, 2018 and March 15, 2020 and participated in IICs (N = 477 men; N = 172 women) were compared to Indigenous offenders that were eligible but did not participate (N = 297 men; N = 32 women). Offenders were examined during the first year of their incarceration following admission. Men IIC participants were older, more likely to be married, and less likely to be serving a sentence for a violent offence or to have a Security Threat Group affiliation compared to non-participants. While men non-participants were higher in dynamic and static risk and lower in reintegration potential at intake, participants were rated higher in accountability, motivation, and engagement, and less likely to have identified responsivity concerns. Fewer differences between participants and non-participants were observed in the profile for women, likely due to smaller sample sizes.

Both men and women IIC participants showed a greater interest in Indigenous opportunities at intake, which continued throughout their incarceration period with participation in various culturally-specific interventions and services (e.g., Healing Plan, initial Elder Review, Indigenous staff assigned to caseload). IIC participants were more likely to be assigned to and complete Indigenous specific correctional programs (though these findings did not reach significance for women), and men started those programs earlier than non-participants. When controlling for program assignment and motivation level, men IIC participants were 1.8 times more likely to complete their main correctional program compared to non-participants.

Both men and women IIC participants were less likely to have institutional incidents, and minor or serious disciplinary charges. When controlling for static risk and dynamic need at intake, the odds of men participants receiving a decrease in security level were 2.2 times higher than for non-participants. In addition, both men and women IIC participants were more likely to receive discretionary release than non-participants. When controlling for static risk and dynamic need at intake, the odds of men IIC participants receiving a discretionary release were 2.6 times higher than for non-participants.

This study examines an Indigenous case management strategy that has not yet been studied within a Canadian context. Findings suggest that IIC involvement has positive impacts on the institutional behaviour and correctional progress of participating Indigenous offenders. Future research will examine the impact of IIC involvement on release outcomes in the community.

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Introduction

The over-representation of Indigenous offenders within the Canadian criminal justice system is a persistent and alarming issue. While only 5% of the population in Canada identify as Indigenous, this group represent 30% of federally sentenced men and 42% of federally sentenced women in the country (Office of the Correctional Investigator, 2020). This over-representation may be attributed to a myriad of factors including systemic racism and intergenerational trauma stemming from the attempted assimilation of Indigenous peoples through residential schools, the Sixties Scoop, and an imposed colonial justice system. The Office of the Auditor General (OAG) has raised additional issues facing Indigenous offenders within the Canadian correctional system, including limited access to culturally-specific correctional programs and interventions and fewer opportunities for gradual and structured release through transfers to lower security institutions and parole (OAG, 2016b).

One of the ways the Correctional Service of Canada (CSC) has responded to these issues is through the implementation of the National Indigenous Plan to provide a national framework to transform Indigenous case management and corrections (CSC, 2019b). One aspect of the National Indigenous Plan involves streamlining existing Indigenous resources and services to ensure that those offenders choosing to access the Indigenous continuum of care interventions are prioritized for placement at sites with Indigenous Intervention Centres (IICs). The IIC model is an intake process designed to meet the needs of individual Indigenous offenders through a culturally-responsive and integrated approach to case management. Indigenous interventions are regionally coordinated across a smaller number of institutions and with specialized case management teams (CMTs) in an effort to maximize resources. In turn, this provides a more targeted approach to interventions with the necessary support and coordination to prepare Indigenous offenders serving shorter sentences for conditional release earlier in their sentences. Consistent with sections 79 to 84 of the Corrections and Conditional Release Act[1] (CCRA, 1992), these initiatives are in line with CSC's strategic priority to provide "effective, culturally appropriate interventions and reintegration support for First Nations, Métis and Inuit offenders"

[1] The corresponding sections within the CCRA outline the provisions regarding the care, custody, and release of Indigenous offenders. This includes, but is not limited to factors to be considered in making decisions affecting Indigenous offenders, Indigenous-specific programming and the involvement of Indigenous governing bodies or any Indigenous organizations.

(CSC, 2016b).

In order to participate in IICs, Indigenous men and women must meet certain eligibility criteria at intake related to sentence length, offence type, program eligibility, and willingness to participate in the Indigenous continuum of care. In particular, offenders must be: 1) serving a sentence of 6 years or less, 2) not serving a sentence for sex offences,[2] 3) have no correctional programming need or eligible for the moderate intensity Indigenous Integrated Correctional Program Model (ICPM) - Multi-Target or the Indigenous Women Offender – Moderate Intensity Program (IWO-MIP), and 4) be willing to work with an Elder/Spiritual Advisor and participate in the Indigenous continuum of care through the IIC model.

Conceptualizing Indigenous Intervention Centres

IICs are characterized by a concentration of Indigenous resources at these sites, including Elder support, Indigenous interventions staff (e.g., Indigenous Liaison Officers, Indigenous Correctional Program Officers, Indigenous Community Development Officers), as well as Pathways Initiatives.[3] Case management staff at IIC sites receive specialized training to manage Indigenous offender caseloads, including how to develop Indigenous Healing Plans and correctional plans. Certain CMT members (including Parole Officers, Managers of Assessment and Interventions, Correctional Managers and Primary Workers) are identified and trained to work specifically with Indigenous offenders, promoting the use of an Indigenous lens when managing their cases.[4] This model provides staff with the opportunity to develop and apply expertise in how Indigenous Social History (ISH)[5] factors have impacted behaviours when making correctional decisions for Indigenous offenders, as well as the impacts that traditional healing can have on mitigating risk and reintegration. It also promotes continuity of care as participants are maintained by the same members of their CMT throughout their incarceration.

[2] On January 11, 2021, the eligibility criteria for participation in IICs were amended with the removal of the restrictions on sex offences. The eligibility criteria that was used during the study timeframe will be used for the purposes of this research.
[3] Pathways Initiatives are designed to provide a healing environment for those Indigenous offenders already engaged in and committed to their personal traditional healing path with more intensive healing interventions.
[4] Dedicated CMT's do not occur at women's institutions due to the staffing model. Although not always feasible at women's institutions, all staff involved in the CMT of an IIC offender should be well versed in the IIC approach.
[5] Indigenous Social History (ISH) refers to the various circumstances that have affected the lives of most Indigenous peoples. Considering these circumstances may result in alternate options or solutions and applies only to Indigenous offenders (not to non-Indigenous offenders who choose to follow the Indigenous way of life; CSC, 2013). Following the Supreme Court of Canada's ruling that judges must consider Indigenous social history in sentencing decisions (R. v. Gladue, 1999) and subsequent updates to the CCRA in 2019, CSC has incorporated the consideration of ISH factors in decision making.

IICs are located at all multi-level women's institutions and at mostly medium-security men's institutions, though there are some regional differences in how IICs were implemented.[6] In the Pacific region, a minimum-security institution and a Healing Lodge were also designated as IIC sites. In the Atlantic region, both Springhill Institution (medium security) and Dorchester Institution (minimum/medium multi-level security) were identified as IIC sites. Indigenous interventions, including Elder services, are still available at other CSC institutions to varying degrees (e.g., some sites still have pre-Pathways, Pathways units, and/or Pathways transition units). This allows for Indigenous offenders who may not initially be interested in following a traditional healing path or who do not qualify for IIC participation to engage in the Indigenous continuum of care at any point in their sentence if they choose. For those offenders that decide not to participate in the Indigenous continuum of care, case preparation and release planning still consider ISH factors and applications for a Section 81 transfer[7] or Section 84 release.[8]

IIC sites are marked by interventions that are 'front' loaded, meaning that Indigenous offenders can access programs and services in a timely manner, which is particularly important for offenders serving shorter sentences. At intake, First Nations, Métis, and Inuit[9] offenders are presented with the opportunities to work with an Elder, develop a Healing Plan that incorporates their ISH, and engage in the Indigenous continuum of care. In the case of men, while the intake process is completed at the IIC for most Indigenous offenders, some offenders are transferred to other sites (e.g., offenders that receive a maximum security designation, who are longer term, not yet motivated, or not interested in a Healing Plan). For women, all sites are multi-level and do decentralized intake and therefore offenders are typically admitted and penitentiary placed at the same institution, with the exception of Okimaw Ohci Healing Lodge.

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[6] IIC sites for men include Dorchester Penitentiary (Atlantic), Springhill Institution (Atlantic), Archambault Institution (Quebec), Joyceville Institution (Ontario), Stony Mountain Institution (Prairies), Saskatchewan Penitentiary (Prairies), Drumheller Institution (Prairies), Pacific Institution (Pacific), William Head Institution (Pacific) ,and Kwìkwèxwelhp Healing Village (Pacific). IIC sites for women include Nova Institution for Women (Atlantic), Joliette Institution (Quebec), Grand Valley Institution for Women (Ontario), Edmonton Institution for Women (Prairies), and Fraser Valley Institution (Pacific).

[7] Section 81 of the CCRA allows for an offender to be transferred to the care and custody of an Indigenous governing body or any Indigenous organization appropriate at any time during their sentence (CCRA, 1992).

[8] Section 84 of the CCRA applies to offenders who want to serve their eventual day or full parole or statutory release in an Indigenous community, or in an urban area with the support and direction of an Indigenous organization (CSC, 2013).

[9] Inuit offenders have the option to participate in the IIC model and/or one of three Inuit Centres of Excellence, located at Dorchester Institution (Atlantic), Federal Training Center (Quebec), and Beaver Creek Institution (Ontario).

The IIC model focuses all interventions on the Indigenous continuum of care, which includes Indigenous correctional programs and interventions, Elder support, and traditional ceremonies. A concentration of Elder services increases day-to-day interactions and provides offenders with support to address issues related to their ISH, to maximize their success in the model, and to engage them in a healing process. Offenders who are successful in correctional reintegration programs but not yet eligible for conditional release are prioritized for transfer to a Healing Lodge[10] or to a Pathways Transition Unit (minimum security) or Pathways Unit (medium security). To continue to prepare Indigenous offenders for release, engagement of community resources is viewed as essential, through Escorted Temporary Absences (ETAs), Unescorted Temporary Absences (UTAs), and by bringing community members into the institution. Rather than being viewed strictly as a release plan, the development of a Section 84 release plan is part of an engagement process with the identified community so they have an opportunity to participate in the offender's progress and plans for release. Once released, offenders continue to be supported by a community supervision team consisting of Community Parole Officers, Indigenous Community Liaison Officers, community Elders, community based organizations, and community representatives working on Section 84 release plans. This approach recognizes that Indigenous communities must be involved in supporting every step of the Indigenous offender's healing journey and reintegration.

Given that Indigenous-specific resources are limited, IICs were developed to improve results for Indigenous offenders by focusing efforts at intake and medium security levels. By focusing case management efforts on using an Indigenous lens, the offender's ISH is taken into account in every correctional decision throughout their sentence. The objectives of IICs are to ensure that correctional reintegration programs and culturally appropriate services are accessed in a timely fashion, transitions to lower security occur sooner in an offender's sentence, and access to conditional release occurs earlier (i.e., at first eligibility date). This model aims to increase success for offenders upon release by improving the engagement of the Indigenous community earlier in an offender's sentence and through taking an active role in preparing and supporting them for and upon release.

[10] This includes both CSC-operated Healing Lodges and Section 81 Healing Lodges operated by the community or partner organization in accordance with the CCRA.

Importance of Culturally-Specific Interventions

Rather than trying to fit Indigenous offenders into a correctional strategy designed for the mainstream population, there are ongoing efforts to provide culturally-responsive interventions that take into account the unique social history of Indigenous peoples, marked by marginalization, intergenerational trauma, and addictions (CSC, 2019b). There is growing evidence for the relevance of providing culturally-specific services and interventions for Indigenous offenders. A recent meta-analysis looking at the effectiveness of culturally-relevant correctional programs for Indigenous offenders in Canada and New Zealand revealed that the average recidivism rate for offenders who participated in such programming was 9% lower than those who participated in generic programming (Gutierrez, Chadwick, & Wanamaker, 2017). Culturally-specific services, activities, and ceremonies for Indigenous offenders may be conceptualized as parallel to protective factors (Hyatt, 2013; Pridemore, 2004; Richards, 2015; Wardrop, Sheahan, & Stewart, 2019). Understood in the context of individuals at risk of negative outcomes (i.e., reoffending), protective factors are characteristics or circumstances that promote success (de Vries Robbe, de Vogel, & Douglas, 2014; Polaskchek, 2017). In their study involving interviews with Indigenous offenders, Heckbert and Turkington (2001) found that spirituality and cultural activities played a major role in the successful reintegration of Indigenous men and women. Notably, connecting with Elders and participation in ceremonies were commonly identified as playing an integral role for offenders to get out and stay out of prison. More recently, in a study of the experiences of residents,[11] staff, and Elders at men's CSC-operated Healing Lodges, findings were supportive of the significance of these environments in offering culturally appropriate approaches that are responsive to the needs of Indigenous offenders (Ridha, Hanby, & Sullivan, 2021). In particular, the various unique opportunities, cultural environment, supportive relationships, and operational aspects of the Healing Lodges were found to collectively help guide residents through their healing journey and support reintegration.

Alongside emerging qualitative research contributing to the understanding of the meaningful role that Indigenous-specific interventions have on the reintegration and desistance process of offenders (Brault, 2005; Gideon, 2013; Heckbert & Turkington, 2001; Howell, 2016;

[11] Consistent with the approach and language used at the Healing Lodges, the term 'residents' was used to represent the federal offenders who were incarcerated/serving their sentence at the Healing Lodges.

Ridha et al., 2021), several studies have quantitatively examined the relative contribution of Indigenous-specific services. In their study examining various factors related to offender success in the community upon release, Wardrop and colleagues (2019) considered offender involvement in Indigenous services, such as the development of a Healing Plan, Pathways participation, Section 84 releases, as well as Healing Lodge transfers.[12] Analyses revealed promising results between the involvement of offenders in Indigenous services and success in the community as measured by no suspensions or revocations for at least six months upon release. These results were particularly prominent for Indigenous men. For example, Indigenous men with a Healing Plan were 1.28 times more likely to succeed in the community than those with no Healing Plan. Indigenous men who were admitted into a Pathways unit before release were 1.38 times more likely to demonstrate success than their counterparts that did not participate in a Pathways Initiative. Results were less clear for women, which may be attributed to the smaller sample size, although were generally still positive for most aspects.

As part of a larger study exploring the additive effects of different interventions and services on rates of conditional release revocations with an offence, Wilton, Nolan, and Stewart (2015) conducted sub-analyses considering the participation of offenders in Indigenous services. Wilton and colleagues (2015) found that amongst Indigenous men offenders (n = 2,515), the likelihood of revocation with a new offence decreased by approximately 23% for those who had participated in Elder Reviews. This is consistent with findings from earlier research by Sioui, Thibault, and Conseil (2001), which revealed a significant correlation between the use of Elder services amongst Indigenous offenders and non-recidivism (r = - 0.17). Further evidence was found for the cumulative effect of Indigenous-specific interventions in a study focusing solely on Indigenous offenders (N = 1,084; Hanby, Ridha, Sullivan, & Farrell-MacDonald, 2021). Once controlling for relevant risk, need, and offender characteristics, men who completed Indigenous programs at a Healing Lodge had a 54% lower risk of revocation of release, while men who participated in a Pathways Initiative had a 29% lower risk. Each intervention uniquely helped reduce revocations of release, indicating that both offer benefits that may help offenders succeed upon release. For women, those who demonstrated an interest in Indigenous opportunities at

[12] The study sample consisted of all federal offenders admitted and released between April 2012 and March 2017 who experienced at least six months of follow-up time in the community, and who at the time of release, were rated as medium or high risk and need. N = 17,213 men (24% Indigenous) and 932 women (39% Indigenous).

intake (e.g., developing a traditional Healing Plan, transfer to a Section 81 Healing Lodge, and release to an Indigenous community under Section 84) had a 65% lower risk of return to custody.

Overall, the current literature demonstrates the promising results associated with Indigenous-specific programs and services. Typically, research in this area focuses on individual interventions, though recent efforts have attempted to develop an understanding of the cumulative effects of participation in various culturally-specific interventions. Given the innovation of the IIC approach, it is unsurprising that there is a gap in the literature addressing the impacts of culturally-responsive and integrated case management approaches for Indigenous offenders.

The Current Study

IICs were developed to better coordinate interventions designed for Indigenous men and women offenders, while ensuring continuity and cultural competence with dedicated and specialized CMTs. The purpose of this research is to examine the impact of IIC involvement on the institutional behaviour and correctional progress of Indigenous offenders. In order to more comprehensively inform CSC's strategic priority and goal of providing services that address the unique needs of Indigenous offenders, this study will examine the following research questions:

1) What is the profile (e.g., demographic characteristics, offence and sentence characteristics, criminogenic risk and need profile) of IIC participants compared to Indigenous offenders who were eligible but did not participate in IICs?
2) What is the culturally-specific service and intervention participation of IIC participants compared to Indigenous offenders who were eligible but did not participate in IICs?
3) How is the institutional behaviour of IIC participants compared to Indigenous offenders who were eligible but did not participate in IICs?

Method

Participants

Data were extracted for all Indigenous offenders admitted into federal custody between April 1, 2018 and March 15, 2020.[13] Offenders were examined during the first year of their incarceration following admission.[14] Of the 2,262 Indigenous men and 267 Indigenous women admitted during the study timeframe, 477 men (21.1%) and 172 women (64.4%) were identified as IIC participants. For the purpose of this study, IIC sites and all Healing Lodges were considered IIC locations. IIC participants were identified through a combination of data extraction, verification with IIC Coordinators supporting the sites, and manual file review when required. An initial data extraction identified potential IIC participants based on the eligibility criteria available in CSC's Offender Management System (OMS). OMS is the automated system used by CSC to store decision-making and offender management data from the beginning of an offender's sentence until their sentence is complete. However, there were inconsistencies in how offenders were being flagged for IICs, likely given the novelty of IICs as well as regional differences in implementation. OMS also does not contain quantitative data that directly captures an offender's willingness to work with an Elder/Spiritual Advisor and participate in the Indigenous continuum of care. As such, the list of potential participants was verified by IIC Coordinators supporting the sites to confirm participation. In the event that participation could not be ascertained using these two methods, manual file review was completed to determine if any documentation indicated IIC participation.

Representing the comparison group, 297 men (13.1%) and 32 women (12.0%) in the admission cohort were eligible for IICs but did not participate. The most common reasons for non-participation included lack of interest in the Indigenous continuum of care and/or penitentiary placement to a non-IIC site. In some cases, information was obtained that resulted in ineligibility (e.g., override to a higher intensity program, outstanding charges resolved, sentence length changed upon appeal). Some institutions also implemented site-specific criteria that resulted in exclusion. For instance, Edmonton Institution for Women initially only included

[13] The sample was restricted to first term admissions and excluded LTSOs. The sample is restricted to March 15, 2020 due to the potential impacts of COVID-19 on IIC identification and participation.
[14] Offenders were followed up from admission date to the earliest date of: release date, warrant expiry date, one year from admission, or the study end date March 15, 2021.

women serving their first federal sentence and sentence lengths of 5 years or less, a practice which was later changed to ensure consistency with broader IIC policies. Of the total admission cohort, 1,488 men (65.8%) and 63 women (23.6%) did not meet the eligibility criteria for participation and were not included in subsequent analyses.

Measures

Risk/need information. A range of variables regarding static risk and criminogenic needs were included in this study (described in detail in Commissioner's Directives 705-6; CSC, 2019a). Static risk was measured using the Static Factor Assessment (SFA), which includes the Criminal Risk Index (CRI). The SFA is based on static risk factors to help determine the required level of intervention and provides a risk rating of low, moderate, or high. The CRI is generated based on the Criminal History Record of the SFA and provides an auto-populated assessment to assign program intensity levels based on likelihood of recidivism (Motiuk & Vuong, 2018). This study utilizes both CRI total score (0-34, with higher scores indicating higher risk) and CRI levels (based on the score cut-offs used for correctional programming referral as outlined in Commissioner's Directives guidelines 726-2; CSC, 2018b). Dynamic needs were measured by the Dynamic Factors Identification and Analysis-Revised (DFIA-R) tool on seven domains: employment/education, marital/family, associates, substance abuse, community functioning, personal/emotional orientation, and attitudes. The tool includes a rating on each of the domains (low, moderate, high, or asset/no need), as well as an overall criminogenic need rating of low, moderate, or high. Assessments of offender accountability, motivation, responsivity, engagement, and reintegration potential were also considered. Each assessment is rated on a scale of low, moderate, or high, with the exception of responsivity and engagement, which are dichotomous (yes/no) variables. While ratings may be reassessed throughout the period of incarceration, these measures included only those initially completed at intake to assist in the development of an offender's correctional plan.

Culturally-specific interventions and services. Participation in culturally-specific services was measured in a number of ways based on the available data in OMS. First, an offender's interest in Indigenous interventions was examined, which is recorded upon admission and this includes interest in a traditional Healing Plan, transfer to a Section 81 Healing Lodge, and release to an Indigenous community under Section 84. Over the course of an offender's sentence, opportunities are offered to develop a traditional Healing Plan, work with Indigenous

case management staff (e.g., Indigenous Liaison Officer, Indigenous Community Development Officer), and work with Elders (documented in OMS through Initial and Progress Elder Reviews). Participation in other Indigenous interventions included the Pathways Initiative and transfers to a Healing Lodge.

Institutional Behaviour and Progress. Program need, assignment, completion and time to first main moderate or high intensity program of Nationally Recognized Correctional Programs (NRCPs) was examined.[15] NRCPs specifically address risk factors related to offending at intensity levels commensurate to offenders' risk levels. Indigenous NRCPs were developed to respond to the spiritual and cultural needs of Indigenous offenders, and are delivered in conjunction with Elders to support and foster traditional healing. Indigenous NRCPs were included in the analysis of all NRCPs and reviewed independently.[16]

Education and employment were measured based on program assignment, while vocational training was assessed based on completion.[17] Programs were examined for those assigned and completed during the offender's first year of incarceration (i.e., between admission date and release date). While program eligibility, enrollment, and completion can be complex and influenced by numerous external factors, for the purpose of this study, program assignment and completion were simplified to dichotomous variables to indicate whether the offender had participated or completed a certain program type.

Institutional incidents and disciplinary charges were also studied. There are various sub-types of reportable incidents which are grouped into assault, behaviour, contraband, death, miscellaneous, escape, property, and self-injurious behaviour related categories (CSC, 2016a). For the purpose of this study, the measure of institutional incidents only includes those incidents whereby the offender was the instigator. A dichotomous indicator of institutional incidents as well as the number of incidents was examined, along with sub-analysis of any assault,

[15] While the eligibility criteria for IIC limits participation to those eligible for moderate intensity correctional programs, a small number of IIC participants later completed high intensity programs. These offenders were retained in the sample due to identification as IIC participants. Program completion is measured in terms of moderate or high intensity programs to capture this participation in programs.
[16] Sample size and low base rate concerns prevented these analyses for women and by Indigenous group.
[17] Assignment was the preferable indicator for education programming because completion is not always reflective of overall need (i.e. may only capture one program when several are required). Assignment was also the choice indicator for employment, given the ongoing nature of employment programming. Assignment to personal development (e.g., life skills, grief support, peer support, parenting programs), cultural (language classes, arts and crafts, healing circles, counselling, ceremonies, traditional teachings), and special needs programs were also examined but are not reported due to small base rates.

contraband, behaviour, property, and miscellaneous related incidents.[18] Disciplinary charges are incidents that result in a charge, and are defined as minor (negative or non-productive inmate behaviour that is contrary to the institutional rules) or serious (commits, attempts, or incites acts that are serious breaches of security, violent, harmful to others, or in repetitive violation of the rules) depending on the nature of the act (CSC, 2015). Dichotomous indicators of minor and serious disciplinary charges were examined along with number of charges and time to first charge.

Changes to offender security level (OSL) were also reviewed. Any change in OSL, OSL increase, OSL decrease, and time to first OSL decrease were all considered. It is important to note that security reclassification is directed by policy to occur every two years, unless there is an event that precipitates the completion (e.g., completion of main NRCP, 6 months in the Pathways Initiative, transfer/release/TA, etc.; CSC, 2018) This means that some offenders in the sample would not have received a security reclassification during the study period. Finally, release types were also examined. Release was measured in terms of discretionary (i.e., day parole, full parole) or conditional release (i.e., day parole, full parole, statutory release). The one-year follow-up period may limit how many offenders were eligible for release in the study groups. As such, findings related to release should be interpreted as preliminary and will be examined in further depth in a subsequent report.

Analytic Approach

Comparative analyses were used to examine the risk/need profile, participation in culturally-specific services and interventions, and institutional behaviour of IIC participants and non-participants. Where possible, regression analyses were conducted to control for the impact of other factors on the results for men only. [19] The selection of covariates in each of these analyses was driven by theory (i.e., literature on variables related to correctional outcomes) and the strength of the relationship of the variables with the outcome variable of interest.

The impact of IIC participation on the length of time prior to moderate or high NRCP completion was examined using Cox Proportional Hazards model method of survival analysis. Survival analysis is a statistical method that models the time to an event; in this case, the time an offender is incarcerated prior to main program start date. This method also allows inclusion of

[18] Death, self-injury, and escape sub-types were also examined but are not reported due to small base rates.
[19] Sample size and low base rate concerns prevented these analyses for women and by Indigenous group.

other factors (covariates), other than whether an offender participated in IICs, which may affect outcomes in order to determine the impact that each covariate may have on the outcome of interest. Hazard ratios, the relative likelihood of experiencing the event of interest at any point in time (e.g., for one treatment group compared with another), are calculated using this method.

For decreases in security level, logistic regression was performed in order to control for risk and need characteristics (i.e., static and dynamic need at intake). Discretionary releases were also examined using logistic regression in order to determine if IIC participation predicted the odds of receiving a discretionary release for men, once taking into account relevant risk and need characteristics. Logistic regression produces an estimate of the odds of an event occurring. In this study, the event was whether the offender received a decrease in security level or a discretionary release during the study period. An odds ratio greater than 1.0 indicates an increased likelihood of OSL decrease or discretionary release, while an odds ratio less than 1.0 suggests decreased odds of OSL decrease or discretionary release.

The total number of incidents were grouped into categories (of 1, 2, 3, or 4 or more) for women to account for outliers inflating the mean number of incidents. The Mann-Whitney U test was selected as the most appropriate statistical test for this measure. The Mann-Whitney U test is used to compare differences between two independent groups when the dependent variable is ordinal, but not normally distributed. Results were interpreted using the mean ranks because the data did not meet all the assumptions required to compare the medians of the dependent variable.

The results are presented separately for men and women. Sub-analyses by Indigenous group were completed for First Nations and Métis offenders for men only, while the small sample size for Inuit offenders and women prevented further sub-analyses. For the most part, the sub-analyses aligned with the results of the broader Indigenous grouping and therefore are not presented in detail in the report. Only findings that differed in significance for First Nations and Métis men are highlighted in the report.

Results

The results are presented in three parts.[20] The first section examines the profile of Indigenous offenders who participated in IICs, in comparison to those who were eligible but did not participate. The second section focuses on the involvement of IIC participants in culturally-specific interventions in comparison to non-participants. Lastly, the third section assesses the impact of IIC participation on the institutional behaviour of offenders.

Profile of Indigenous Intervention Centre Participants

A profile of Indigenous Intervention Centre participants was created by comparing Indigenous offenders that participated in IICs to those that were eligible but did not participate. The groups were compared on demographics, offence and sentence characteristics, and criminogenic risk and need profile.

Demographic information. The Indigenous group, age, and marital status were examined separately for men and women. For men, the IIC participants consisted of 69.7% (n = 333) First Nations, 29.8% (n = 142) Métis, and 0.4% (n = 2) Inuit offenders. The IIC eligible non-participants consisted of 67.3% (n = 200) First Nations, 29.0% (n = 86) Métis, and 3.7% (n = 11) Inuit offenders. There was a significant association between IIC participation and Indigenous group; χ^2 (2, N = 774) = 11.96, p = .003, Cramer's V = .12. Of note, Inuit representation was lower in the IIC participant sample (both compared to the IIC eligible non-participant group and the broader admission cohort). Men IIC participants were significantly older (M = 33 years, SD = 10.5) than those who were eligible but did not participate (M = 30 years, SD = 9.8; F(1,773) = 16.02, p < .001). There was a significant association between IIC participation and marital status; χ^2 (4, N = 774) = 10.21, p = .04, Cramer's V = .12. Men IIC participants were more likely to be married or in a common-law relationship (35.6%, n = 170) compared to non-participants (25.6%, n = 76), and slightly less likely to be single (53.5%, n = 255, compared to 58.6%, n = 174 in non-participants).[21]

For women, there was also a significant association between IIC participation and Indigenous group; χ^2 (2, N = 204) = 11.21, p = .004, Cramer's V = .23. The majority of IIC

[20] Given the small sample size for the women's comparison group, breakdowns are presented where possible. Cell sizes less than 5 have been collapsed or omitted in tables.
[21] There were no significant differences in age or marital status when examining Métis men separately.

participants were First Nations (72.1%, *n* = 124), while the remainder were Métis (27.9%, *n* = 48). The comparison group consisted of 62.5% (*n* = 20) First Nations, 31.3% (*n* = 10) Métis, and 6.3% (*n* = 2) Inuit women. The age of the IIC participants was comparable to those who chose not to participate. The mean age was 32 years (*SD* = 8.2) for IIC participants compared to 33 years (*SD* = 9.8) for non-participants. There was no significant association between marital status and IIC participation. IIC participants were primarily single (61.0%, *n* = 105), or married/common law (23.8%, *n* = 41).

Offence and sentence characteristics. There were a number of differences in offence and sentence characteristics for Indigenous men that participated in IICs compared to those that were eligible but did not participate (see Table 1).[22]

Table 1

Offence Characteristics of IIC Participants and Non-participants

Measure	Men (*N* = 774)					Women (*N* = 204)				
	Percentage (*n*) of offenders					Percentage (*n*) of offenders				
	IIC Participant (*n* = 477)		Non-participant (*n* = 297)		*V*	IIC Participant (*n* = 172)		Non-participant (*n* = 32)		*V*
Violent offence	47.4	(226)	54.7	(162)	.07*	46.5	(80)	46.9	(15)	n.s.
Offence type					.16**					n.s.
Drug-related	28.5	(136)	24.0	(71)		33.7	(58)	28.1	(9)	
Assault	15.7	(75)	17.6	(52)		9.9	(17)	18.8	(6)	
Robbery	15.3	(73)	21.6	(64)		19.8	(34)	†	(†)	
Other non-violent	14.7	(70)	6.1	(18)		9.3	(16)	†	(†)	
Other violent	10.7	(51)	11.8	(35)		9.3	(16)	†	(†)	
Property	9.0	(43)	10.5	(31)		9.9	(17)	†	(†)	
Homicide	6.1	(29)	8.4	(25)		8.1	(14)	†	(†)	
Sex-related	0	(0)	0	(0)		0	(0)	0	(0)	

Note. V = Cramer's V. Violent offence refers to Schedule 1 or homicide offences. Offence information was not available for 1 non-participant man on bail pending appeal.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.
†Information suppressed due to frequencies fewer than 5 in one category.

[22] There were no significant differences in offence characteristics when examining Métis men separately.

For men, IIC participants were less likely to be serving a sentence for a violent offence (Schedule 1 or homicide) and had a greater proportion of drug-related and other non-violent offences relative to non-participants. Despite these differences, IIC participants and non-participants were comparable in sentence length (IIC participants M = 1,067 days, SD = 360; non-participants M = 1,113 days, SD = 379). For women, IIC participants and non-participants were comparable in offence and sentence characteristics.

Table 2

Admission Information of IIC Participants and Non-participants

Admission information	Men (N = 774)					Women (N = 204)				
	Percentage (n) of offenders					Percentage (n) of offenders				
	IIC Participant (n = 477)		Non-participant (n = 297)		Cramer's V	IIC Participant (n = 172)		Non-participant (n = 32)		Cramer's V
Admitting Region					17.***					.25*
Prairies	71.7	(342)	65.0	(193)		77.9	(134)	59.4	(19)	
Quebec	8.8	(42)	4.0	(12)		2.9	(5)	†	(†)	
Ontario	7.1	(34)	16.5	(49)		9.3	(16)	21.9	(7)	
Atlantic	6.3	(30)	7.4	(22)		†	(†)	†	(†)	
Pacific	6.1	(29)	7.1	(21)		7.6	(13)	†	(†)	
OSL (admission)					.33***					.34***
Minimum	46.1	(220)	17.8	(53)		40.1	(69)	25.0	(8)	
Medium	52.8	(252)	73.1	(217)		58.7	(101)	56.3	(18)	
Maximum	†	(†)	5.7	(17)		†	(†)	18.8	(6)	
IIC site	89.1	(425)	64.6	(192)	.30***	94.2	(162)	75.0	(24)	.25***

Note. OSL = Offender security level at admission. OSL at admission missing for 14 men (4 IIC participants and 10 non-participants). IIC site refers to whether the offender was admitted to an IIC site at admission.
*p < .05. ***p < .001.
†Information suppressed due to frequencies fewer than 5 in one category.

As displayed in Table 2, there were differences in the admission characteristics between IIC participants and non-participants that were consistent between men and women. While the majority of the offenders in the sample were admitted in the Prairie region, a greater proportion of offenders in the Prairie region participated in IICs.[23] Both men and women that were eligible

[23] There were no significant differences in admitting region when examining Métis men separately.

for IICs in Ontario were less likely to participate. For Indigenous men, a greater proportion of non-participants were designated as medium security level at intake, while participants had a larger proportion of minimum security level ratings. Women IIC participants had a greater proportion of minimum security level ratings in comparison to non-participants that had a greater proportion of maximum ratings.[24]

In comparison to offenders that were eligible but did not participate in IICs, IIC participants were more likely to be admitted to an IIC site at admission. In the IIC participant group, there were 92 men (19.3%) and 57 women (33.1%) who were penitentiary placed to a CSC-operated or Section 81 Healing Lodge. For those offenders who did not participate, 116 men (39.1%) and 27 women (84.4%) were penitentiary placed to an IIC site. In other words, penitentiary placement at a non-IIC site may have been a reason for exclusion for 60.9% of eligible men and 15.6% of women.[25]

Criminogenic risk and need profile. The criminogenic risk and need profile was compared between groups (see Table 3). Men non-participants were higher in dynamic need and lower in reintegration potential at intake than IIC participants. While men IIC participants had significantly higher CRI scores (M = 13.07, SD = 6.24) than non-participants (M = 11.83, SD = 5.02; $F(1,765) = 8.27$, $p = .004$), these mean scores correspond to the same moderate risk category.[26] Non-participants were rated higher in static risk at intake, likely due to more serious offence severity of past and current convictions.[27] Men who participated in IICs were less likely to have a Security Threat Group (STG) affiliation, which may be attributed in part to certain sites that excluded STG affiliated offenders from IICs.[28]

Of note, results differed when examining First Nations and Métis men separately (refer to

[24] This finding is likely due to site-specific policies at women's institutions that exclude maximum security offenders from IICs.
[25] There may have been additional reasons for non-participation beyond penitentiary placements at a non-IIC site including: not interested in Indigenous continuum of care (e.g., not willing to work with an Elder, not engaged in culture), override to higher intensity correctional programs resulting in ineligibility, and/or new information obtained later impacting eligibility (e.g., changes in sentence length, changes in Indigenous identification).
[26] Given the small number of offenders in the non-IIC group that fall in the high risk category of the CRI, analyses on CRI level may not be a suitable comparison on that indicator. There were no significant differences in CRI score when examining First Nations men separately.
[27] The Static Factor Assessment consists of three subscales: 1) Criminal History Record (which informs the CRI), 2) Offence Severity Record, and the Sex Offence History Checklist (CSC, 2019).
[28] While STG affiliation is not considered in the IIC eligibility criteria, some sites indicated that they previously excluded STG affiliated offenders from IICs. This practice was later changed to ensure consistency with broader IIC policies.

Table A1 in Appendix A). Overall, the results for First Nations peoples were consistent with the overall Indigenous sample. However, findings were reversed when examining Métis men separately. For Métis men, IIC participants were more likely to be rated higher in static and dynamic need and lower in reintegration potential than non-participants. Similar to the broader Indigenous sample, Métis men who participated in IICs were less likely to have a STG affiliation.

Table 3

Risk and Need Characteristics of IIC Participants and Non-Participants at Intake

Measure	Men (N = 774)					Women (N = 204)				
	Percentage (n) of offenders					Percentage (n) of offenders				
	IIC Participant (n = 477)		Non-Participant (n = 297)		Cramer's V	IIC Participant (n = 172)		Non-Participant (n = 32)		Cramer's V
Static					.14**					n.s.
Low	14.7	(70)	8.8	(26)		23.3	(40)	†	(†)	
Moderate	54.5	(260)	55.9	(166)		62.8	(108)	62.5	(20)	
High	30.8	(147)	33.7	(100)		14.0	(24)	25.0	(8)	
Dynamic					.19***					n.s.
Low	4.0	(19)	4.4	(13)		4.1	(7)	†	(†)	
Moderate	36.1	(172)	20.9	(62)		24.4	(42)	25.0	(8)	
High	60.0	(286)	73.1	(217)		71.5	(123)	68.8	(22)	
RP					.19***					n.s.
Low	27.0	(129)	35.4	(105)		10.5	(18)	21.9	(7)	
Moderate	44.2	(211)	48.5	(144)		74.4	(128)	59.4	(19)	
High	28.7	(137)	14.5	(43)		15.1	(26)	18.8	(6)	
CRI					.27***					n.s.
Low	18.7	(89)	19.5	(58)		36.6	(63)	34.4	(11)	
Moderate	64.6	(308)	77.1	(229)		57.0	(98)	65.6	(21)	
High	16.8	(80)	†	(†)		6.4	(11)	0	(0)	
STG affiliation	10.3	(49)	18.9	(56)	.12**	7.0	(12)	†	(†)	n.s.

Note. RP = reintegration potential; CRI = Criminal Risk Index; STG = Security Threat Group; n.s. = not significant. Sample sizes for the men's IIC non-participant group varied between 290 and 297 due to missing data at intake.
**p < .01. ***p < .001.
†Information suppressed due to frequencies fewer than 5 in one category.

For women, IIC participants and non-participants were comparable in risk and need characteristics. Non-participants were slightly higher in static risk and lower in reintegration potential. However, the differences between groups did not reach statistical significance, which may be attributed to smaller sample sizes.

Upon closer examination of dynamic need, men IIC participants tended to be lower in dynamic need across most DFIA-R domain areas. As demonstrated in Table 4, men who were eligible but did not participate in IICs were more likely to demonstrate moderate or high need for improvement in the following areas of dynamic need: Associates, Attitudes, Community Functioning, Employment, Personal/Emotional, and Substance Abuse.[29] Again, women IIC participants and non-participants were comparable in dynamic need domains.

Table 4

Dynamic Need Domains of IIC Participants and Non-Participants at Intake

Domain	Men (N = 769)					Women (N = 204)				
	Percentage (n) of offenders				Cramer's V	Percentage (n) of offenders				Cramer's V
	IIC Participant (n = 477)		Non-Participant (n = 292)			IIC Participant (n = 172)		Non-Participant (n = 32)		
Associates	69.0	(329)	75.1	(223)	.08*	82.6	(142)	84.4	(27)	n.s.
Attitudes	61.2	(292)	70.4	(209)	.11**	44.8	(77)	53.1	(17)	n.s.
Community	32.9	(157)	40.1	(119)	.08*	64.0	(110)	59.4	(19)	n.s.
Employment	64.6	(308)	70.4	(209)	.07*	69.2	(119)	62.5	(20)	n.s.
Marital/Family	37.9	(181)	42.8	(127)	n.s.	80.2	(138)	75.0	(24)	n.s.
Personal Emotional	37.9	(181)	47.8	(172)	.11**	88.4	(152)	90.6	(29)	n.s.
Substance Abuse	56.4	(269)	63.3	(188)	.08*	91.9	(158)	87.5	(28)	n.s.

Note. n.s. = not significant. Information presented in this table is based on the first available DFIA-R assessment, usually done at intake. Need was determined as having a rating of "High Need for Improvement" or "Moderate Need for Improvement." Five men were missing information on DFIA-R domain ratings.
*p < .05. **p < .01.
†Information suppressed due to frequencies fewer than 5 in one category.

At intake, men IIC participants were rated higher in accountability and motivation (see Table 5). They were also more likely to be rated as engaged and less likely to have identified responsivity concerns. When examining Indigenous groups separately, Métis men IIC

[29] There were no significant differences in dynamic need domains when examining Métis men separately.

participants were more likely to have identified responsivity factors, while there were no significant differences in responsivity for First Nations men (see Table A2 in Appendix 1). Again likely due to smaller sample sizes, there were no significant differences in engagement, accountability, and motivation for women. Of note, women that participated in IICs were significantly less likely to have identified responsivity concerns.

Table 5

Engagement Characteristics of IIC Participants and Non-Participants at Intake

Measure	Men (*N* = 774)					Women (*N* = 204)				
	Percentage (*n*) of offenders				Cramer's *V*	Percentage (*n*) of offenders				Cramer's *V*
	IIC Participant (*n* = 477)		Non-Participant (*n* = 297)			IIC Participant (*n* = 172)		Non-Participant (*n* = 32)		
Accountability					.19***					n.s.
Low	6.1	(29)	10.4	(31)		†	(†)	†	(†)	
Moderate	70.6	(337)	76.1	(226)		70.9	(122)	59.4	(19)	
High	23.3	(111)	11.8	(35)		27.3	(47)	34.3	(11)	
Motivation					.25***					n.s.
Low	1.3	(6)	8.1	(24)		3.5	(6)	†	(†)	
Moderate	72.7	(347)	78.1	(232)		55.8	(96)	65.6	(21)	
High	26.0	(124)	12.1	(36)		40.7	(70)	28.1	(9)	
Responsivity	21.0	(100)	22.9	(68)	.11*	20.3	(35)	43.8	(14)	.20**
Engagement	93.7	(447)	85.2	(253)	.16***	96.5	(166)	90.6	(29)	n.s.

Note. n.s. = not significant.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.
†Information suppressed due to frequencies fewer than 5 in one category.

Culturally-Specific Services Participation

While the development of a Healing Plan is encouraged for all Indigenous offenders, IIC participants are prioritized for early access to Indigenous-specific programs and culturally-responsive interventions. IIC participants showed a significantly greater interest in Indigenous opportunities at intake, including the development of a traditional Healing Plan, a Section 81 transfer, and a Section 84 release (see Table 6).

Table 6

Participation of IIC Participants and Non-Participants in Culturally-specific Services

	Men (*N* = 774)					Women (*N* = 204)				
	Percentage (*n*) of offenders					Percentage (*n*) of offenders				
	IIC Participant (*n* = 477)		Non-Participant (*n* = 297)		*V*	IIC Participant (*n* = 172)		Non-Participant (*n* = 32)		*V*
Service										
Interest in opportunities	94.1	(449)	78.5	(233)	.24***	96.5	(166)	78.1	(25)	.27***
Healing Plan	37.9	(181)	31.0	(92)	.07*	57.0	(98)	37.5	(12)	.14*
Initial Elder Review	90.1	(430)	68.0	(202)	.28***	94.2	(162)	62.5	(20)	.37***
Progress Elder Review	11.9	(57)	8.4	(25)	n.s.	23.8	(41)	†	(†)	n.s.
Indigenous staff	79.0	(377)	59.3	(176)	.21***	84.3	(145)	46.9	(15)	.33***
Pathways participation	32.1	(153)	13.1	(39)	.21***	30.8	(53)	18.8	(6)	n.s.
HL transfer	7.8	(37)	1.7	(5)	.13***	14.0	(24)	2.9	(5)	n.s.

Note. HL = Healing Lodge; V = Cramer's V; n.s. = not significant.
*$p < .05$. ***$p < .001$.
†Information suppressed due to frequencies fewer than 5 in one category.

This interest in culturally-specific services continued throughout the incarceration period, as IIC participants were more likely to have a Healing Plan incorporated into their Correctional Plan, as well as an initial Elder Review. There were no significant differences in the proportion of IIC participants compared to non-participants with at least one progress Elder Review. The number of offenders with a progress Elder Review was low overall, which may be a function of shorter sentence lengths and policy requirements regarding the frequency of progress Elder Reviews. Both men and women IIC participants were also more likely to have Indigenous interventions staff (e.g., Indigenous Liaison Officer, Indigenous Community Development Officer, Indigenous Community Liaison Officer, and/or Elder) assigned to their caseload. For men only, IIC participants were more likely to participate in the Pathways Initiatives and be transferred to a Healing Lodge during their sentence. While 19.3% (*n* = 92) of men IIC participants were penitentiary placed to a Healing Lodge, an additional 7.8% (*n* = 37) were transferred to a Healing Lodge later in their sentence. For women, 33.1% (*n* = 57) of IIC participants were initially penitentiary placed to a Healing Lodge and 2.9% (*n* = 5) were transferred to a Healing Lodge later in their sentence.

Institutional Behaviour and Progress

Part of the objectives of IICs are to ensure participants are accessing programs and services in a timely fashion, transitioning participants to lower security earlier in their sentences, and receiving conditional release sooner in their sentence (i.e., at first eligibility date). The results presented in the following section assess the impact of IIC participation on the institutional behaviour of offenders and address whether IICs are achieving these objectives.

Correctional Program Assignment and Completion. Participation in educational, employment, and vocational programs were compared between groups (see Table 7). There were no significant differences in the assignment of educational and employment programs or the completion of vocational programs between groups, with the one exception for women. Eighty-seven percent (n = 150) of women IIC participants were assigned employment programs, compared to 69% (n = 22) of IIC non-participants.

Correctional program assignment, completion, and time to first main program were also compared between groups (Table 7). Both men and women IIC participants were more likely to be assigned to correctional programs than their non-participant counterparts (both overall and Indigenous specific correctional programs). For men, of those assigned, IIC participants were also more likely to complete correctional programs, observable in both completion of any correctional programs as well as Indigenous specific correctional programs. While these patterns were similar for women, the differences in correctional program completions failed to reach significance. These results were consistent when restricting analyses to only those offenders with an identified program referral (see Table B1 in Appendix B). In particular, for men with a program referral needed, IIC participants were significantly more likely to be assigned to and complete their main correctional program than non-participants. For women with a program referral needed, IIC participants were significantly more likely to complete Indigenous correctional programs compared to non-participants.

Table 7

Program Participation Characteristics of IIC Participants and Non-Participants

Participation Type	Men (N = 774)					Women (N = 204)				
	Percentage (n) of offenders				V	Percentage (n) of offenders				V
	IIC Participant (n = 477)		Non-Participant (n = 297)			IIC Participant (n = 172)		Non-Participant (n = 32)		
Education	59.3	(283)	59.3	(176)	n.s.	73.8	(127)	75.0	(24)	n.s.
Employment	88.7	(423)	84.8	(252)	n.s.	87.2	(150)	68.8	(22)	.19**
Vocational	79.4	(27)	75.0	(9)	n.s.	†	(†)	†	(†)	n.s.
Any CP										
Assignment	79.5	(379)	66.0	(196)	.15***	99.4	(171)	90.6	(29)	.23**
Completion	72.3	(274)	49.5	(97)	.23***	67.3	(115)	58.6	(17)	n.s.
Indigenous CP										
Assignment	74.2	(354)	47.5	(141)	.27***	93.0	(160)	50.0	(16)	.46***
Completion	73.2	(259)	43.3	(61)	.28***	65.0	(104)	43.8	(7)	n.s.
Time to first CP *M/SD*[a]	157.9	(77.3)	175.6	(91. 2)		116.2	(61.4)	114.2	(60.5)	

Note. CP = Correctional Program; V = Cramer's V; n.s. = not significant. Education and Employment are measured by assignments, while Vocational is measured by completions for those assigned to programs. CP assignment and completion include moderate and high CPs.

** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

†Information suppressed due to frequencies fewer than 5 in one category.

[a] F (1,509) = 5.112, p = .024 (Men), F (1,144) = .021, p = .885 (Women)

For women, IIC participants and non-participants were comparable in time to first moderate or high correctional program. On average, men IIC participants had a shorter time between admission and days to first correctional program than those who met the criteria but did not to participate in IICs. For men, the difference between the group means was statistically significant.[30] To control for the potential impact of other factors, including follow up period, Cox Proportional Hazards regression analyses were conducted focusing only on those offenders that

[30] There were no significant differences in time to first program when examining Métis or First Nations men separately. This may be attributed to small sample size in the Métis groups, as the differences in time to first program were still substantial between participants (M = 160.6, SD = 77.8) and non-participants (M = 187.2, SD = 95.8). The differences between First Nations participants (M = 157.0, SD = 77.4) and non-participants (M = 167.8, SD = 88.2) were less pronounced.

were assigned to moderate or high correctional programs during the study timeframe.[31] Results related to moderate and high correctional program completion for men are presented in Table 8. Controlling for motivation level, IIC participants were 1.8 times more likely to complete their main correctional program compared to Indigenous offenders that were eligible but did not participate in IICs. Indigenous men with medium or high levels of motivation were also more likely to complete correctional programs compared to Indigenous offenders with low motivation.

Table 8

Adjusted Hazard Ratios (HR) from Cox Proportional Hazards Regression for Time to Moderate/High Correctional Program Completion for Men (N = 575)

Covariate	Hazard ratio	95% CI	*p*
Study group			
Non-participant	(ref)	(ref)	(ref)
IIC participant	1.80	[1.42, 2.29]	< .001
Motivation			
Low	(ref)	(ref)	(ref)
Medium	2.89	[1.19, 7.07]	.02
High	3.82	[1.52, 9.65]	.005
Wald chi-square		45.2	
DF		3	
P		< .001	

Note. CI = confidence interval; DF = degrees of freedom.

Institutional Incidents and Charges. Institutional incidents as well as minor and serious disciplinary charges were compared between groups (see Table 9). On average, IIC participants had fewer institutional incidents where they were the instigator than non-participants. This pattern is also observable in all of the sub-types of incidents.[32] The only sub-category where the reported difference was not significant is contraband related incidents for women. Similarly, IIC participants were significantly less likely to have minor or serious disciplinary charges than IIC non-participants.

[31] Sample size and low base rate concerns prevented these analyses for women and by Indigenous group.
[32] There were no significant differences in institutional incidents or the sub-types of incidents when examining Métis men separately.

Table 9

Involvement of IIC Participants and Non-Participants in Institutional Incidents and Disciplinary Charges

	Men (N = 774)					Women (N = 204)				
	Percentage (n) of offenders					Percentage (n) of offenders				
Measure	IIC Participant (n = 477)		Non-Participant (n = 297)		Cramer's V	IIC Participant (n = 172)		Non-Participant (n = 32)		Cramer's V
Any Incident	41.9	(200)	63.0	(187)	.21***	50.6	(87)	78.1	(25)	.20**
Incident sub-types										
Assault	15.1	(72)	26.9	(80)	.15***	16.3	(28)	34.4	(11)	.17*
Contraband	26.4	(126)	40.7	(121)	.15***	34.3	(59)	46.9	(15)	n.s.
Behaviour	11.9	(57)	30.6	(91)	.23***	18.0	(31)	34.4	(11)	.15*
Property	1.9	(9)	4.7	(14)	.08**	†	(†)	†	(†)	.19**
Miscellaneous	4.0	(19)	15.5	(46)	.20***	13.4	(23)	31.3	(10)	.18*
Disciplinary Charges										
Any minor	25.2	(120)	41.1	(122)	.17***	41.9	(72)	71.9	(23)	.24***
Any serious	19.5	(93)	30.0	(89)	.12*	15.1	(26)	43.8	(14)	.25***

Note. n.s. = not significant. Incidents are restricted to those in which the offender was identified as instigator.
*p < .05. **p < .01***p < .001.
†Information suppressed due to frequencies fewer than 5 in one category.

The total number of incidents, minor charges, and serious disciplinary charges, as well as time to first minor or serious disciplinary charge are presented in Table 10 for men and Table 11 for women. For men, there was a statistically significant difference in the total number of institutional incidents between groups.[33] On average, men IIC participants had significantly fewer institutional incidents than those who met the criteria but did not participate in IICs. Likewise, women IIC participants (*Mean rank* = 96.03) had significantly less institutional incidents than non-participants (*Mean rank* = 137.27; U = 1639.5, z = −3.84, p < .001, r = −.63).[34] Half of the women IIC participants (49%, n = 85) had no institutional incidents, compared to 22% (n = 7) of non-participants. Whereas 38% (n = 12) of women non-participants

[33] There were no significant differences in the total number of institutional incidents when examining Métis men separately.
[34] To account for outliers inflating the means, total number of incidents for women were grouped into categories of 1, 2, 3, or 4 or more and examined using the Mann-Whitney U test.

had 4 or more incidents, in comparison to 14% (n = 24) of IIC participants.

Table 10

Characteristics of Institutional Incidents and Charges for Men

Measure	IIC Participant (n = 477)		Non-Participant (n = 297)		F	η^2
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Number of incidents	0.98	(1.86)	2.28	(3.32)	48.81***	.059
Number of minor charges	0.49	(1.31)	0.90	(1.49)	15.99***	.020
Number of serious charge	0.39	(1.01)	0.56	(1.06)	4.86*	.006
Time to first minor	177.87	(93.81)	162.12	(93.30)	n.s.	.007
Time to first serious	145.84	(91.02)	155.02	(104.63)	n.s.	.002

Note. n.s. = not significant. Incidents are restricted to those in which the offender was identified as instigator.
* $p < .05$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 11

Characteristics of Institutional Incidents and Charges for Women

Measure	IIC Participant (n = 172)		Non-Participant (n = 32)		F	η^2
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Number of minor charges	1.43	(2.70)	3.94	(6.73)	12.91***	.060
Number of serious charge	0.26	(0.77)	1.28	(2.85)	16.02***	.073
Time to first minor	116.64	(78.35)	132.74	(124.61)	n.s.	.006
Time to first serious	114.92	(97.51)	146.86	(106.75)	n.s.	.023

Note. n.s. = not significant. Incidents are restricted to those in which the offender was identified as instigator.
*** $p < .001$.

For both men and women, IIC participants had significantly fewer minor charges than those who met the criteria but did not participate in IICs. The differences between the group means for total number of minor charges were statistically significant. There was also a significant difference in the number of serious charges between groups.[35] On average, IIC non-participants had more serious charges than IIC participants. There were no significant differences in time to first minor or serious disciplinary charge for men or women. Small base rates,

[35] There were no significant differences in the number of minor or serious charges when examining Métis men separately.

particularly for women, may have impacted the ability to detect differences in time to first charge.

Changes in Security Level. Changes to offender security level as well as time to first decrease were compared between groups (see Table 12). For men, the number of offenders with an OSL change were significantly greater for IIC participants.[36] While there were no significant differences in OSL increases, men IIC participants were significantly more likely to receive a decrease in OSL (13% vs. 6%). For women, there were no significant differences in changes in security level. On average, the number of days to first decrease in offender security level were slightly less for IIC participants (Men M = 195.4 days, SD = 69.6 vs. non-participants 218.2 days, SD = 69.3; Women M = 170.7 days, SD = 64.1, vs. non-participants 206.3 days, SD = 82.2), however, these means were not statistically significant for men ($F(1,77) = 1.55$, $p = .22$) or women ($F(1,49) = 1.54$, $p = .22$).

Table 12

Changes in Security Level for IIC Participants and Non-Participants

OSL change	Men (N = 774)				Women (N = 204)			
	Percentage (n) of offenders				Percentage (n) of offenders			
	IIC Participant (n = 477)		Non-Participant (n = 297)	V	IIC Participant (n = 172)		Non-Participant (n = 32)	V
Any change	18.0	(86)	10.8 (32)	.10**	33.1	(57)	28.1 (9)	n.s.
Increase	5.5	(26)	4.4 (13)	n.s.	7.0	(12)	† (†)	n.s.
Decrease	12.6	(60)	6.4 (19)	.10**	26.2	(45)	18.8 (6)	n.s.

Note. V = Cramer's V; n.s. = not significant.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.
†Information suppressed due to frequencies fewer than 5 in one category.

A logistic regression was performed in order to determine if IIC participation was related to decreases in security level for men, once controlling for relevant risk and need characteristics.[37] Table 13 summarizes the impact of IIC participation, static risk at intake, and dynamic need at intake on decreases in OSL. IIC participation significantly influenced decreases in security level, while static risk and dynamic need did not. The odds ratio indicates that the odds of IIC participants receiving a decrease in security level were 2.18 times higher than

[36] There were no significant differences in OSL changes when examining First Nations men separately.
[37] Sample size and low base rate concerns prevented these analyses for women and by Indigenous group.

Indigenous offenders that were eligible but did not participate in IICs. In other words, once controlling for static risk and dynamic need at intake, IIC participation significantly increased the odds of receiving a decrease in OSL. The number of days to first OSL decrease was fewer for IIC participants, though this difference was not significant.[38]

Table 13

Effect of IIC Participation, Static Risk, and Dynamic Need on Decreases in OSL

Covariate	*B*	*SE*	Odds Ratio	95% CI	Wald	*p*
IIC participant	.78	.28	2.18	(1.27, 3.77)	7.86	.005***
Overall static factor						
Low	(ref)	(ref)	(ref)	(ref)	1.94	.38
Medium	.01	.43	1.01	(.43, 2.36)	.00	.98
High	-.39	.49	.68	(.26, 1.79)	.61	.43
Overall dynamic factor						
Low	(ref)	(ref)	(ref)	(ref)	2.50	.29
Medium	.35	.81	1.43	(.29, 7.01)	.19	.66
High	.79	.83	2.20	(.43, 11.24)	.90	.34

Note: R^2 = .02 (Hosmer & Lemeshow), .02 (Cox & Snell), .03 (Nagelkerke). Model $\chi^2(5) = 11.45$, $p < .05$. CI = confidence interval.
***$p < .001$.

Discretionary and Conditional Releases. Discretionary and conditional releases were examined between groups (see Table 14). On average, IIC participants were significantly more likely to receive discretionary release (i.e., day or full parole) than non-participants. For men, IIC participants were also more likely to be released on conditional release during the study timeframe (i.e., day or full parole, statutory release). However, a greater proportion of the non-participants reached statutory release compared to participants (Men 34% vs. 23%; Women 44% vs. 10%). For women, IIC participants and non-participants were comparable in the number of offenders reaching conditional release during the study timeframe.

[38] Base rates were too low to use Cox proportional hazards regression to examine time to first OSL decrease.

Table 14
Discretionary and Conditional Releases of IIC Participants and Non-Participants

	Men (N = 774)					Women (N = 204)				
	Percentage (n) of offenders					Percentage (n) of offenders				
Release Type	IIC Participant (n = 477)		Non-Participant (n = 297)		Cramer's V	IIC Participant (n = 172)		Non-Participant (n = 32)		Cramer's V
Discretionary	52.6	(251)	28.6	(85)	.24***	69.2	(119)	31.3	(10)	.29***
Conditional	75.3	(359)	62.3	(185)	.14***	79.1	(136)	75.0	(24)	n.s.

***p < .001.

A logistic regression was performed in order to determine if IIC participation predicted the odds of receiving a discretionary release for men, once taking into account relevant risk and need characteristics.[39] As demonstrated in Table 15, once controlling for static risk and dynamic need at intake, the odds of IIC participants receiving a discretionary release were 2.61 times higher than Indigenous offenders that were eligible but did not participate in IICs.[40] Both static risk and dynamic need at intake were also significantly related to discretionary release decisions. For instance, Indigenous offenders with a moderate static factor rating had a 76% lower likelihood of receiving a discretionary release compared to offenders with a low static factor rating. In addition, Indigenous offenders with a high static factor rating had a 90% lower likelihood of receiving a discretionary release compared to offenders with a low static factor rating. Lastly, Indigenous offenders with a high dynamic factor rating had a 78% lower likelihood of receiving a discretionary release compared to offenders with a low dynamic factor rating.

[39] Sample size and low base rate concerns prevented these analyses for women and by Indigenous group.
[40] Cox proportional hazards regression for time to first discretionary release will be examined in a subsequent research report when a larger proportion of the sample has been released.

Table 15

Effects of IIC Participation, Static Risk, and Dynamic Need on Discretionary Releases

Covariate	*B*	*SE*	Odds Ratio	95% CI	Wald	*p*
IIC participants	.96	.17	2.61	(1.86, 3.67)	30.36	< .001***
Overall static factor						
Low	(ref)	(ref)	(ref)	(ref)	41.40	< .001***
Medium	-1.44	.34	.24	(.12, .46)	18.26	< .001***
High	-2.28	.37	.10	(.05, .21)	37.99	< .001***
Overall dynamic factor						
Low	(ref)	(ref)	(ref)	(ref)	17.71	< .001***
Medium	-.79	.62	.46	(.14, 1.54)	1.60	.21
High	-1.50	.62	.22	(.07, .75)	5.85	.02*

Note: R^2 = .16 (Hosmer & Lemeshow), .20 (Cox & Snell), .27 (Nagelkerke). Model $\chi^2(5) = 173.78$, $p < .001$. CI = confidence interval.
*$p < .05$.***$p < .001$.

Discussion

In an effort to provide effective and culturally-responsive interventions for First Nations, Métis, and Inuit offenders serving shorter sentences, IICs were developed to streamline interventions through an integrated and specialized approach to case management. Taken together, the findings of this study support the hypothesis that IIC involvement has positive impacts on the institutional behaviour and correctional progress of participating Indigenous offenders. Consistent with the objectives of IICs, the results suggest that participants access programs and services in a timely fashion, transitions to lower security occurs sooner in their sentence, and discretionary release is accessed earlier.

In particular, IIC participants were more likely to be assigned to and complete Indigenous specific correctional programs, and men started those programs earlier than non-participants. Though this difference did not reach statistical significance for women, for those with a program referral needed, IIC participants were significantly more likely to complete Indigenous correctional programs compared to non-participants. IIC participation was also related to increased employment program assignment for women. Positive impacts on transitions to lower security were observed in a higher proportion of security level decreases for men IIC participants, though the time to first decrease failed to reach significance, likely due to low base rates. In part, these findings reflect policy requirements for reviews in OSL following successful completion of a main correctional program. There were no differences in change in security level for women. Lastly, the rates of discretionary releases were higher for men and women participants relative to their counterparts. Of note, both men and women IIC participants were also less likely to be involved in and had fewer institutional incidents and disciplinary charges.

It is important to note that there were differences in the profile of IIC participants compared to eligible Indigenous offenders who did not participate in the IIC model. For men only, IIC participants were less likely to be serving a sentence for a violent offence (Schedule 1 or homicide) and had a greater proportion of drug-related and other non-violent offences relative to non-participants. IIC participants were lower in dynamic need and static risk, higher in reintegration potential, and less likely to have a Security Threat Group affiliation. IIC participants had significantly higher CRI scores than non-participants, however, these mean scores correspond to the same moderate risk category. At intake, men IIC participants were

older, more likely to be married or in a common law relationship, and rated higher in accountability and motivation. They were also more likely to be rated as engaged and less likely to have identified responsivity concerns. Notwithstanding these differences in profile, the positive results regarding program completion, decreases in security level, and discretionary releases are consistent when controlling for relevant risk and need characteristics. Fewer differences were observed in demographics, offence and sentence characteristics, and risk and need characteristics for women, which may be attributed to smaller sample sizes. The only significant finding to emerge for women was that participants were less likely to have identified responsivity concerns, suggesting that responsivity factors may represent a barrier for IIC participation. Women with identified responsivity issues may require additional motivational interviewing to encourage participation in the IIC model.

Given that interest in participating in the Indigenous continuum of care is part of the eligibility criteria, it is not surprising that IIC participants demonstrated greater involvement in culturally-specific services and interventions. Participants showed a significantly greater interest in Indigenous opportunities at intake, including the development of a traditional Healing Plan, a Section 81 transfer, and a Section 84 release. This interest in culturally-specific services continued throughout the incarceration period, as IIC participants were more likely to have a Healing Plan incorporated into their Correctional Plan, an initial Elder Review, and Indigenous staff assigned to their caseload. IIC participation was also related to a greater likelihood of Pathways participation and a transfer to a Healing Lodge for men only. Of note, non-participants still demonstrated quite a high interest in Indigenous opportunities at intake (men 79%, women 78%) and participation in various culturally-specific interventions (e.g., 68% men and 63% of women had an initial Elder Review).

There were some differences in results when examining First Nations and Métis men separately, suggesting that the IIC model may have a differential impact on various Indigenous groups. While the IIC participant group was generally lower in risk and need than the non-participants, the reverse was true for Métis men. For Métis men, IIC participants were more likely to be rated higher in static risk and dynamic need and lower in reintegration potential than non-participants. Métis IIC participants were also more likely to have identified responsivity factors than non-participants, while there were no significant differences in responsivity for First Nations men. This suggests that IICs may be more appealing to higher risk and more challenging

Métis men. Regardless of profile, the positive impacts of IICs were consistent between Indigenous groups (e.g., reductions in security level, discretionary releases).

In addition, Inuit representation was lower in the IIC participant sample compared to the broader admission cohort of Indigenous offenders. The Inuit Anijaarniq Strategy advocates for Inuit men offenders to be placed at one of three Inuit Centres of Excellence (ICE) where possible. This model bears similarities to the IIC model in terms of streamlining resources within select institutions in order to provide an environment that recognizes the unique culture, knowledge and beliefs systems of Inuit offenders and offers targeted programs and services that foster the healing and reintegration of Inuit offenders. Inuit offenders can also be flagged for IIC participation if they are interested and meet the eligibility criteria. Though not examined in this study, the lower proportion of Inuit offenders in the IIC participant sample may suggest that these offenders are instead accessing ICEs. While the lower Inuit representation could suggest that IICs are not adequately engaging or tailored to the Inuit population, it could also indicate an improvement in that Inuit offenders now have more options in accessing ICEs and/or IICs.

These results are consistent with previous research demonstrating that participation in Indigenous-specific services and interventions is associated with improved outcomes. While much of the literature has focused on post-release outcomes, there is growing evidence for the relevance of providing culturally-specific services and interventions for Indigenous offenders throughout their incarceration (Brault, 2005; Gideon, 2013; Gutierrez et al., 2017; Heckbert & Turkington, 2001; Howell, 2016; Ridha et al., 2021). Further, several studies have demonstrated the cumulative effect of participation in various culturally-specific services (Hanby et al., 2021; Wardrop et al., 2019; Wilton et al., 2015). Though further research is required to examine the impacts on reintegration, the findings of the study offer support for the collective contribution of multiple Indigenous-specific services in improving institutional behaviour.

Conclusions

Once controlling for relevant risk and need factors, men IIC participants were 1.8 times more likely to complete their main correctional program, 2.2 times more likely to transition to a lower security level, and 2.6 times more likely to receive a discretionary release. While the profile of IIC participants is one which favours more positive outcomes, the results are supported even after adjusting for risk. Descriptive results for women were consistent with these positive results. The findings are noteworthy given the novelty of the IIC model. Though it may have

been hypothesized that the potential impacts of the IIC approach would take time, it is promising that the intended objectives are already being realized.

Notwithstanding, there were some challenges associated with IIC eligibility criteria and participant identification that may be attributed to the recent implementation of the IIC model. There were some inconsistencies in how offenders were being flagged and tracked for participation across sites and regions. For instance, some sites implemented additional criteria for inclusion or exclusion beyond the IIC eligibility criteria that were later corrected (e.g., STG affiliation as a criteria to exclude participation). It was not possible in the current study to examine the impact of site-specific criteria on the results of the broader IIC population. In addition, while a flag exists in OMS to indicate IIC participation, inconsistent use of the flag necessitated manual verifications of participation through the sites. These challenges are not uncommon with flag variables within a database designed for the purpose of case management and not research. Over time, the IIC model has been clarified and the eligibility criteria more strictly followed, which should also result in improved data integrity.

IICs are an intervention in which Indigenous offenders have demonstrated motivation to engage in their Correctional and Healing Plans and address the dynamic factors related to their offence cycle, in a holistic manner. IICs provide them with, and encourages them to engage in, a continuum of care and higher level of support in order to assist in their successful reintegration. Culturally-specific services, activities, and ceremonies have been conceptualized as parallel to protective factors for Indigenous offenders (Hyatt, 2013; Pridemore, 2004; Richards, 2015; Wardrop et al., 2019). Cultural and traditional experiences have also been described as "catalysts for change" in desistance from crime (Howell, 2016). In these perspectives, participation in IICs may be viewed as offering circumstances that promote success, first within the institution and ultimately in reintegration.

Limitations & Future Directions

While this study represents the first quantitative study of the impacts of Indigenous Intervention Centres on institutional behavior and correctional progress, there are several limitations that should be noted. Ideally, to examine the impacts of IICs with strong statistical power, the control group of Indigenous offenders that were eligible for IICs but did not participate would have been equal in size to the IIC participants and matched on relevant predictors of institutional outcomes (e.g., risk and need characteristics). This was not possible

given that the majority of offenders that were eligible to participate in IICs did so. While this is positive from an operational perspective, it does present challenges in achieving statistical rigor when comparing groups. Unequal sample sizes were particularly problematic for women and likely contributed to the inability to detect significant findings. The identification of IIC participants was also challenging, and required a combination of data extraction, verification with front-line staff, and file reviews. Lastly, and perhaps most importantly, much of the focus of this study was on institutional behaviour in terms of correctional program completion, institutional incidents, decreases in security level, and discretionary releases. From the available administrative data, it was not possible to also measure benefits of IICs in terms of ensuring a culturally-responsive case management approach, increased engagement with Indigenous communities, or impacts on traditional healing or connection to culture.

The preliminary findings from this study support the rationale for IICs to maximize Indigenous-specific resources at concentrated sites and focus efforts at intake using an Indigenous lens. The focus of this study was on Indigenous offenders serving shorter sentences that meet the eligibility criteria for IIC participation. Given that resources were streamlined to certain sites, this may have resulted in gaps in Indigenous services at other non-IIC sites. Future research should consider the operational impacts of the IIC model on Indigenous offenders that are not placed at IIC sites but are still interested in engaging in the Indigenous continuum of care. While culturally-specific services are limited, it is important that Indigenous offenders that are motivated to engage in their healing journeys have access to the services, interventions, ceremonies, and Elder support. Additional research will also continue to assess the impacts of IICs in terms of earlier access to conditional releases (i.e., at first eligibility date) and post-release outcomes. Taken together, the findings of this study support the assertion that IIC participants are being set up for success through a culturally-responsive and integrated case management approach.

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Appendix A: Sub-analyses for First Nations and Métis Men

Table A1

Risk and Need Characteristics of IIC Participants and Non-Participants at Intake

Measure	First Nations (N = 533)					Métis (N = 228)				
	Percentage (n) of offenders					Percentage (n) of offenders				
	IIC Participant (n = 333)		Non-Participant (n = 200)		Cramer's V	IIC Participant (n = 142)		Non-Participant (n = 86)		Cramer's V
Static					.17**					.24**
Low	13.8	(46)	5.0	(10)		16.9	(24)	18.6	(16)	
Moderate	55.3	(184)	53.5	(107)		52.8	(75)	61.6	(53)	
High	30.9	(103)	41.0	(82)		30.3	(43)	15.1	(13)	
Dynamic					.23***					.21*
Low	3.3	(11)	†	(†)		5.6	(8)	11.6	(10)	
Moderate	35.1	(117)	15.5	(31)		38.7	(55)	32.6	(28)	
High	61.6	(205)	82.5	(165)		55.6	(79)	51.2	(44)	
RP					.24***					.23**
Low	26.4	(88)	42.5	(85)		28.2	(40)	16.3	(14)	
Moderate	46.5	(155)	48.0	(96)		38.7	(55)	50.0	(43)	
High	27.0	(90)	9.0	(18)		33.1	(47)	29.1	(25)	
CRI					.24***					.35***
Low	18.3	(61)	15.5	(31)		19.7	(28)	26.7	(23)	
Moderate	66.4	(221)	82.0	(164)		59.9	(85)	67.4	(58)	
High	15.3	(51)	†	(†)		20.4	(29)	0.0	(0)	
STG affiliation	12.9	(43)	21.0	(42)	.11*	4.2	(6)	16.3	(14)	.21**

Note. RP = reintegration potential; CRI = Criminal Risk Index; STG = Security Threat Group.
*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.
†Information suppressed due to frequencies fewer than 5 in one category.

Table A2

Engagement Characteristics of IIC Participants and Non-Participants at Intake

Measure	First Nations (*N* = 533)					Métis (*N* = 228)				
	Percentage (*n*) of offenders					Percentage (*n*) of offenders				
	IIC Participant (*n* = 333)		Non-Participant (*n* = 200)		Cramer's *V*	IIC Participant (*n* = 142)		Non-Participant (*n* = 86)		Cramer's *V*
Accountability					.24***					.20*
Low	6.0	(20)	11.0	(22)		5.6	(8)	9.3	(8)	
Moderate	70.9	(236)	82.5	(165)		70.4	(100)	59.3	(51)	
High	23.1	(77)	6.0	(12)		23.9	(34)	26..7	(23)	
Motivation					.30***					.20*
Low	†	(†)	8.0	(16)		†	(†)	5.8	(5)	
Moderate	73.9	(246)	85.5	(171)		69.7	(99)	62.8	(54)	
High	25.2	(84)	6.0	(12)		28.2	(40)	26.7	(23)	
Responsivity	24.0	(80)	28.0	(56)	n.s.	14.1	(20)	11.6	(10)	.17*
Engagement	93.7	(312)	85.5	(171)	.14**	94.4	(134)	86.0	(74)	.19*

Note. n.s. = not significant.
*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001
†Information suppressed due to frequencies fewer than 5 in one category.

Appendix B: Program Participation by Program Referral

Table B1

Program Participation Information of IIC Participants and Non-Participants across CRI Program Referral Level

Participation Type	Men (N = 774)					Women (N = 204)				
	Percentage (n) of offenders				V	Percentage (n) of offenders				V
	IIC Participant (n = 477)		Non-Participant (n = 297)			IIC Participant (n = 172)		Non-Participant (n = 32)		
Any CP Assignment	79.5	(379)	66.0	(196)	.15***	99.4	(171)	90.6	(29)	.23***
No program referral needed	13.5	(14)	24.1	(14)	n.s.	98.4	(62)	81.8	(9)	.30*
Program referral needed	94.6	(367)	76.2	(182)	.27***	100.0	(109)	95.2	(20)	.20*
Any CP Completion	72.3	(274)	49.5	(97)	.23***	67.3	(115)	58.6	(17)	n.s.
No program referral needed	75.0	(9)	71.4	(10)	n.s.	32.3	(20)	†	(†)	n.s.
Program referral needed	72.2	(265)	47.8	(87)	.24***	87.2	(95)	75.0	(15)	n.s.
Indigenous CP Assignment	74.2	(354)	47.5	(141)	.27***	93.0	(160)	50.0	(16)	.46***
No program referral needed	12.4	(11)	19.0	(11)	n.s.	92.1	(58)	†	(†)	.54***
Program referral needed	88.4	(343)	54.4	(130)	.38***	93.6	(102)	57.1	(12)	.41***
Indigenous CP Completion	73.2	(259)	43.3	(61)	.28***	65.0	(104)	43.8	(7)	n.s.
No program referral needed	81.8	(9)	63.6	(7)	n.s.	29.3	(17)	0.0	(0)	n.s.
Program referral needed	72.9	(250)	41.5	(54)	.29***	85.3	(87)	58.3	(7)	.22*

Note. CP = Correctional Program; V = Cramer's V; n.s. = not significant. CP completion include moderate and high CPs. Program referral need was identified based on CRI referral criteria (low = no program referral need; moderate/high = program referral need).
*p < .05. ***p < .001.