

Measuring Parole Officer Competencies To Advance Core Correctional Practice

by

Kaitlin Pardoel

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate and Postdoctoral Affairs in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Arts

in

Psychology

Carleton University
Ottawa, Ontario

© 2015 Kaitlin Pardoel

Abstract

In three studies, the current research began to address the paucity of research in the area of parole officer characteristics, namely attitudes values, and competencies. To this end, the Parole Officer Competency Survey (POCS) was developed. In Study 1, the psychometric properties of the POCS were examined. Studies 2 and 3 assessed POCS and subscale scores in relations to two separate samples, one Canadian ($N= 69$), and one American ($N = 94$), with the intent of developing a normative competency profile. While findings did lead to the establishment of preliminary competency profiles, significant variability between survey scores and most sample demographic variables was not detected. Results from Study 1 demonstrated that the survey in its current form did not demonstrate adequate reliability and internal consistency, and could not be factor-analyzed, thus precluding further scale refinement through factor analysis. Despite limitations, findings did suggest promising directions for future research.

Acknowledgements

I will keep this brief. This project would not have been possible without the assistance of several key people.

First, I would like to thank my supervisor, Dr. Ralph Serin, for his support and guidance. In addition to providing the initial idea for the project, he provided insight, feedback, and reassurance throughout the process.

Next I would like to thank my committee members for their thoughtful questions and comments early on in the process, which helped structure and shape the final product.

I am also thankful for the assistance of collaborators at the CSC, as this project would not have been feasible without their support. Likewise, I appreciate the cooperation and input of Dr. Lettie Prell from the Iowa Department of Corrections. Her timely assistance in the project was invaluable.

I would also like mention that this research was supported by the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada. The support of SSHRC throughout the completion of both this project, and my second year of MA studies has been greatly appreciated.

Last, and perhaps most importantly, I would like to thank my partner, Al. His ongoing support throughout the duration of this research project helped make it possible. For his unending patience, reassurance, and encouragement in times of stress, I am unreservedly grateful.

Table of Contents

Abstract	ii
Acknowledgements	iii
List of Tables	ix
List of Figures	xi
List of Appendices	xii
Foreword	1
Measuring Parole Officer Competencies to Advance Core Correctional Practice ...	2
Correctional Context.....	6
Description of staff.....	6
Description of relevant offender populations.....	9
Evidence in favor of parole.....	14
A brief overview of the role of POs.....	17
Institutional POs and CMs.....	18
Community POs.....	19
The dual role of POs.....	20
The evolution of parole.....	24
The growth of the prison population.....	24
Policy and parole.....	25
Public opinion and parole.....	27
Types of parole and offender eligibility.....	29
The role of parole officers in the release decision-making process.....	30

Using empirical evidence to advance parole officer competencies.....	32
Decision-making frameworks.....	33
Risk, need, responsivity (RNR) model.....	33
Core correctional practice (CCP).....	37
Training programs.....	42
Current study.....	42
Goals and rationale for the need for this research	42
Research questions and hypotheses.....	44
Methodology.....	45
Sample	45
Participant recruitment	45
Canadian sample demographics	46
American sample demographics	48
Measures	49
Development of the Parole Officer Competency Survey (POCS).....	49
POCS composition	49
Initial development	50
CSC’s five areas of competency.....	51
Analysis.....	51
Risk assessment.....	51
Risk management.....	52
Supervision.....	52
Communication.....	52

Survey revisions	53
French and American versions	54
Scoring of the POCS.....	56
Analytic strategies	57
Study 1	57
Psychometrics.....	57
Factor structure.....	58
Studies 2 and 3	59
Results	60
Preliminary data screening	60
Sample-specific data screening and descriptive information	60
Canadian sample.....	60
Missing data.....	60
Data entry checks	63
Assumptions	64
Normality	65
Univariate outliers	65
Linearity	65
Distribution of POCS scores	66
Description of ranking scale frequencies	70
American sample	74
Missing data	74
Data entry checks	75

Assumptions	77
Normality	77
Univariate outliers	78
Linearity	78
Distribution of POCS-USV scores	79
Description of ranking scale frequencies	82
Study 1: Psychometric properties	87
Data management	88
Reliability and internal consistency	91
Decisions pertaining to factor analysis	92
Study 2: Canadian sample	95
Years of experience and POCS scores	96
Gender and POCS scores	98
Work setting and POCS scores	100
Region and POCS scores	101
Attitudes, values, and POCS scores	105
Study 3: American sample.....	107
Years of experience and POCS-USV scores.....	107
Gender and POCS-USV scores	110
Work setting and POCS-USV scores	112
Attitudes, values, and POCS-USV scores	113
Discussion	115
Overview of important findings: Study 1.....	116

MEASURING PO COMPETENCIES	viii
Overview of important findings: Study 2	118
Overview of important findings: Study 3.....	123
Overview of collective findings	126
Outcome data and general competency profile	127
Interpretation of attitudes and values ranking scales	131
Limitations and directions for future research	134
General implications and conclusions	138
References	141

List of Tables

Table 1. <i>Sample Demographics – Canadian Respondents</i>	47
Table 2. <i>Sample Demographics – American Respondents</i>	48
Table 3. <i>Range of Values Across POCS Items and Subscales – Canadian Sample</i> ...	63
Table 4. <i>Mean Scores Across POCS Items and Subscales – Canadian Sample</i>	68
Table 5. <i>POCS Scores by Percentage of Correct Answers</i>	69
Table 6. <i>Ranking Scale #1 – Canadian Sample</i>	71
Table 7. <i>Ranking Scale #2 – Canadian Sample</i>	72
Table 8. <i>Ranking Scale #3 – Canadian Sample</i>	73
Table 9. <i>Ranking Scale #4 – Canadian Sample</i>	74
Table 10. <i>Range of Values Across POCS-USV Items and Subscales – American Sample</i>	76
Table 11. <i>Mean Scores Across POCS-USV Items and Subscales – American Sample</i>	81
Table 12. <i>POCS-USV Score by Percentage of Correct Answers</i>	82
Table 13. <i>Ranking Scale #1 – American Sample</i>	84
Table 14. <i>Ranking Scale #2 – American Sample</i>	85
Table 15. <i>Ranking Scale #3 – American Sample</i>	86
Table 16. <i>Ranking Scale #4 – American Sample</i>	87
Table 17. <i>Gender Comparisons Between Canadian and American Samples</i>	89
Table 18. <i>Work Setting Comparisons Between Canadian and American Samples</i> ...	89
Table 19. <i>Experience Comparisons Between Canadian and American Samples</i>	90
Table 20. <i>Internal Consistency for Knowledge Questions and Subscales</i>	92

Table 21. <i>Correlations Between Experience and POCS Scores</i>	97
Table 22. <i>Gender Differences and POCS Scores</i>	99
Table 23. <i>Mean Subscale Scores and ANOVA Results by Region</i>	103
Table 24. <i>Overall POCS Scores by Jurisdictional Region</i>	104
Table 25. <i>Correlations Between POCS Scores and Ranking Scale Items</i>	106
Table 26. <i>Correlations Between Experience and POCS-USV Scores</i>	109
Table 27. <i>Gender Differences and POCS-USV Scores</i>	111
Table 28. <i>Work Setting Differences in POCS-USV Scores</i>	113
Table 29. <i>Correlations Between POCS-USV Scores and Ranking Scale Items</i>	115

List of Figures

Figure 1. <i>Missing Values – Canadian Sample</i>	61
Figure 2. <i>Linearity and homoscedasticity – Canadian Sample</i>	66
Figure 3. <i>Distribution of Overall POCS Scores for Canadian POs</i>	67
Figure 4. <i>Missing Values – American Sample</i>	75
Figure 5. <i>Linearity and homoscedasticity – American Sample</i>	79
Figure 6. <i>Distribution of Overall POCS-USV Scores for American POs</i>	80

List of Appendices

Appendix A. Participant recruitment emails, consent forms, and ethics certificates.	158
Appendix B. Parole Officer Competency Survey (POCS)	181
Appendix C. Parole Officer Competency Survey – French (Canadian) Version.....	198
Appendix D. Parole Officer Competency Survey – US Version (POCS-USV).....	215
Appendix E. List of variables with missing values – Canadian sample	231
Appendix F. List of variables with missing values – American sample	233
Appendix G. Reliability analyses for Canadian sample	239
Appendix H. Reliability analyses for American sample	240

Foreword

The overarching goal of the present study is to address the paucity of research examining certain parole officer (PO) characteristics, namely, attitudes, values and competencies, and to identify and standardize the assessment of such traits. Readers should note that although the original intention of this research was to develop and pilot such a survey for use with entirely Canadian POs, unexpected obstacles leading up to data collection culminated in the decision to create a revised version of the survey more suitable for completion by American POs, and to administer the survey in both the United States and Canada. As such, the introduction is structured in such a way that it provides an important parallel context for both American and Canadian POs, though it should be noted that, given that the survey was originally designed for use in Canada, the background and description of parole in Canada is more extensive. Survey results are presented separately for each country as the revisions required to make the survey appropriate for American POs (details to follow in a later section) coupled with significant differences in sample composition precluded merging the data sets. However, a discussion of the collective findings is presented.

Measuring Parole Officer Competencies to Advance Core Correctional Practice

In North America, recent decades have witnessed a seemingly implacable trend – the continual growth of the prison populations in both Canada (Public Safety Canada, 2014) and the United States (Blumstein, 1998; Blumstein & Beck, 1999; James, 2014; Tonry, 1999). As noted by Latimer and Desjardins (2007), many Canadians mistakenly believe that crime rates continued to rise throughout the early 2000s, and therefore consider the causes underlying the persistent increase in incarceration rates to be self-evident. However, when we consider that since peaking in 1991, crimes rates have actually followed a consistent downwards trend in Canada (Public Safety Canada, 2014), these findings are distinctly counterintuitive. The steady decrease in overall crime rates notwithstanding, the Canadian public has little confidence in its Criminal Justice System, with opinions regarding parole being the lowest overall (Latimer & Desjardins, 2007).

As noted by Lowry, Nio, and Leitner (2003) public perceptions of crime can be problematic as they are easily swayed. Lowry et al. (2003) examined American public perceptions, specifically the belief that crime was the most important issue being faced by the United States. Their findings revealed that television news broadcasts had a much larger impact on public perception than did actual crime rates, accounting for nearly four times more variance in public views than did the crime statistics reported by the FBI. Clearly, public opinion is highly subject to influence, and misinformed beliefs are widespread.

Public perceptions and actual crime rates aside, inmate populations in North America have grown at an alarming rate over the course of recent generations (Austin et al., 2007). Austin et al. (2007) examined the causes underlying this growth, concluding

that an upsurge in crime rates was not to blame. Instead, the authors identified two other causes. First, changes in sentencing policy gave rise to an increase in the number and length of prison sentences given out following felony convictions. Second, more intensive surveillance procedures for released offenders coupled with insufficient reintegration support for offenders transitioning back into society has resulted in a higher reincarceration rate. This conclusion is also supported by James (2014), who presents an overview of these issues, in addition to enumerating potential ameliorating options.

For instance, approximately 20% of the cases adjudicated in adult criminal courts in Canada are administration of justice cases, and therefore pertain to misdemeanors such as breaching conditions, failing to appear in court, or being unlawfully at large; transgressions that are likely to have occurred while the individual was under the supervision of a probation or parole officer (PO; Public Safety Canada, 2014). Likewise, researchers (Austin, 2001; Beck & Mumola, 1999; Blumstein, 1998; Grattet, Petersilia, Lin, & Beckman, 2009) studying similar phenomenon in the United States have noted the parole revocation rate is quite high, and that large subsections of the American prison population are comprised of individuals who have not actually committed a new offence.

For instance, Austin (2001) purports that it would be quite reasonable to assume that roughly 40% of the prison population in the early 2000s consisted of parolees who had had their release revoked. He divides parole violators into two categories – those reincarcerated following a technical violation, and those returned to prison with an additional sentence after the commission of a new crime. That said, he is not able to estimate the percentage of individuals in each category. Furthermore, Austin (2001) indicates that probation violators, who can be separated into the same two categories,

account for an important number of the alleged new court commitments. Likewise, Beck and Mumola (1999) noted that while parole violators constituted about 18% of all prison admissions in 1980, this number had risen to 35% by 1997.

The point of import here is that many of the individuals being incarcerated were first sentenced to a period of community supervision, which they failed to complete. As POs supervise both probationers and parolees, advances in the area of PO competencies that might enhance offender compliance and risk management are clearly desirable. A reduction in community supervision failure rates would simultaneously curtail the inflation of the prison population and enhance public safety.

The size of prison populations is also influenced by the rate at which incarcerated offenders are granted release. According to the *Corrections and Conditional Release Statistical Overview (CCRSO)* published by Public Safety Canada in 2014, the 2010-2011 year represents an all time low with respect to the parole grant rate.

Despite the indisputable importance of POs insofar as public safety and offender reintegration are concerned, little is known regarding those individual factors that may impact effectiveness. As such, research in this area is merited. The current study is one of the first to explore POs' individual characteristics that may mediate the rehabilitative success of released offenders. Hence, the current study surveys the knowledge, attitudes, and values of POs working in custody centers and in the community across Canada and the United States to provide a profile of PO competencies.

Given the above recidivism statistics, it is important to more systematically examine the skill-set of POs. In recent years, prominent researchers (Bonta et al., 2011; Bonta, Rugge, Scott, Bourgon, & Yessine, 2008; Bourgon, Gutierrez, & Ashton, 2011;

Kennealy, Skeem, Manchak, & Eno Loudon, 2012) have begun to view the role of POs as “agents of change”; referring to POs’ potential to promote and sustain positive client change. This view, however, is quite recent and competes against a more surveillance-based model that is still commonly in practice in community supervision.

While the principles of the Risk, Need, Responsivity (RNR) model have led to increased effect sizes in correctional programming (Bonta & Andrews, 2007), a more specific set of Core Correctional Practices (CCPs) have emerged as effective in community supervision of offenders (Chadwick, Smeth, & Serin, 2015). These specific techniques, which can be loosely termed the “what” POs should do (i.e., appropriate use of authority, prosocial modeling, effective use of disapproval and reinforcement, relationship skills, capacity to problem-solve and teach skills, and understanding of the learning/change process), have been demonstrably linked to positive client outcomes (i.e., successful completion of community supervision; Dowden & Andrews, 2004). Moreover, these techniques have been shown to yield improved outcomes regardless of risk level (i.e., minimum, medium, or high), client type (e.g., gender, ethnicity, age), needs, and circumstances (Dowden & Andrews, 2004).

Specifically, attention needs to be directed towards identifying skills and knowledge that can be reliably measured, and potentially linked to positive client outcomes. Notwithstanding the growing body of literature substantiating the positive influence of certain PO skills (i.e., CCPs) related to the supervision of probationers and paroled offenders (Bonta et al., 2011; Chadwick et al., 2015; Robinson et al., 2012; Robinson, VanBenschoten, Alexander, & Lowenkamp, 2011), there is a dearth of literature investigating how clients’ rehabilitative success may be mediated by POs’

individual characteristics. Moreover, Bonta, Rugge, Scott, Bourgon, & Yessine, (2008) have noted considerable variability in client outcomes as a function how POs use their limited time in sessions with clients, findings which corroborate the need for further, more systematic research in this area.

In view of the foregoing, advances with respect to identifying and measuring those PO attributes associated with positive client outcomes stand to have significant implications insofar as the performance and training of existing POs is concerned, as well as offer valuable insights with respect to the selection of new POs. Likewise, gains made in augmenting the efficacy of incumbent POs would, by extension, enhance public safety through minimizing the likelihood of reoffending. Moreover, the average cost associated with supervising and supporting an offender in the community is vastly less than the cost of keeping an offender incarcerated (Public Safety Canada, 2014). Increasing the cost-effectiveness of POs, and reducing recidivism and subsequent reincarceration of offenders would yield substantive financial benefits. To further situate this issue, a review of factors germane to community supervision in both Canada and the United States follows.

Correctional Context

Description of staff. In Canada, federal offenders (i.e., those sentenced to two years or more) fall under the jurisdiction of the Correctional Service of Canada (CSC), a constituent of the larger criminal justice system (Correctional Service Canada [CSC], 2014). As per the *Report on Plans and Priorities 2013-14*, CSC promotes and monitors offenders' prosocial reentry into society, from initial custody, through correctional interventions, and during community supervision, thereby contributing to the realization

of its primary objective, public safety (CSC, 2014). The CSC has a total staff of a little over 18,000 individuals, of which 76% are concentrated in custody centers, while 8% are employed in community supervision (CSC, 2014; Public Safety Canada, 2014). That said, of these 18,000 staff members, fewer than 1,500 are employed as POs or PO supervisors (Public Safety Canada, 2014). These 1,500 individuals are split roughly equally between custody centers (i.e., prisons) and community supervision.

In the United States, the majority of criminal cases are prosecuted under a state's criminal law, and not under federal criminal law. Broadly, a case falls under federal jurisdiction if the criminal act was committed on federal property (i.e., in a national park), or if state lines were crossed during the commission of the crime or crimes. In the interest of efficiency, Congress has divided the United States into 94 federal judicial districts, including at least one per state (Motivans, 2015). The Federal Bureau of Prisons (BOP) is responsible for the custody and care of the 207,504 federal inmates (Federal Bureau of Prisons [BOP], 2015a). As per their mission statement, the BOP (2015) endeavors to protect public safety by detaining federal offenders in institutions and community-based facilities that are appropriately secure, but also safe, humane, and as cost-effective as possible. Moreover, the agency aims to support rehabilitation and reintegration of offenders into society through the provision of suitable programming and skills-building opportunities.

In total, the BOP has a staff of 39,616 employees, representing all security levels, spread throughout the 122 institutions across America (BOP, 2015b). An overwhelming majority of staff members are male (72.9%), and White (63.3%; BOP, 2015b). Note that the aforementioned employees are employed in institutions, and that the numbers

provided do not apply to community-based corrections staff. Also, though there is a substantial amount of overlap between the ideologies and guiding principles underlying corrections in both Canada and the United States (see the mission statements of both the CSC and the BOP), there are notable differences in sentencing and supervision procedures. For instance, in the United States, while probation officers may be employed at a federal level down through state, county, and even city levels, parole officers operate primarily at the level of the state (Families Against Mandatory Minimums [FAMM], 2012; United States Department of Justice [DOJ], 2015). Federal parole was abolished following the *Sentencing Reform Act* of 1984, a U.S. federal statute and a subsidiary of the *Comprehensive Crime Control Act* of 1984 (United States Sentencing Commission, 2015). As such, only federal offenders convicted on or prior to November 1st of 1987 are eligible for parole (FAMM, 2012; U.S. Sentencing Commission, 2015). More information describing probation and parole in the United States will be provided in subsequent sections.

The point of import here is that the institution of parole and community supervision, as well as the role and work setting of extant POs varies considerably between the United States and Canada. Moreover, it is difficult to provide a comparable summary the characteristics of American correctional staff nation-wide, particularly those working in community-based corrections, given the variation in jurisdictions (i.e., city, county, state, federal) where they may be employed. However, it is often possible to find a more detailed breakdown of staff (and offender) characteristics through a specific state's Department of Corrections.

Given that the American data used as a part of this research were provided by respondents working for the Iowa Department of Corrections (IDOC), the IDOC will be the focus here, and in subsequent sections with respect to the provision of situating context. The IDOC employs a total staff of 3,790, of which approximately 68.8% are employed in prisons, 30.2% in community-based corrections, with the remaining less than 1% fulfilling administrative functions (Iowa Department of Corrections [IDOC], 2015). Further details about staff characteristics were not available.

Description of relevant offender populations. Relevant populations that will be described here include adult federal offenders in Canada (under the jurisdiction of the CSC), and adult offenders in Iowa (under the jurisdiction of the IDOC). As noted above, given that the American data used in the present study are entirely comprised of survey responses from correctional staff working at the state level in Iowa, the focus will be on the IDOC as a source of staff and offender information.

According to the CCRSO published by Public Safety Canada (2014), the number of federal offenders increased in 2012-13, now totaling 23,244 individuals under the jurisdiction of CSC. Of these 23,244 federal offenders, 14,745 are incarcerated, and 36.6% (or 8,499) are currently in the community under supervision. Likewise, according to the *Quarterly Quick Facts* report published by the IDOC (2015), there were 39,354 offenders under the jurisdiction of the IDOC as of March 2015. Of these almost 40,000 offenders, only 8,183 are presently incarcerated, with the remaining 31,171 receiving some form of community-based supervision (IDOC, 2015). Here, it is worth mentioning that while 36.6% of the Canadian offenders are under some form of supervision in the community, the same is true for nearly 80% of the Iowa offender population. Moreover,

the IDOC employs considerably fewer employees than the CSC, despite being responsible for a larger offender population (IDOC, 2015; Meier, 2014; Public Safety Canada, 2014). Although accurate conclusions may not reasonably be drawn through a comparison of the 2013 Canadian federal offender population and the 2015 offender population of Iowa alone, differences such as these with regards to the ratios between correctional staff and offenders certainly have implications for caseloads and supervision procedures.

POs play a central role in both preparing offenders for parole/release while in custody centers, and in supervising them once released into the community. Given that there are markedly fewer POs than there are offenders on or seeking community supervision (using both Canada and Iowa as examples), it is essential that existing POs are effective with respect to producing positive client outcomes. It follows that, in order to be effective, POs must possess the knowledge, skills, competencies, and characteristics requisite for adapting to the unique needs of individual offenders.

The current federal offender population in Canada is quite diverse. A little over 61% of individuals (males and females) identify themselves as Caucasian, with the remainder of the population self-identifying as Black (8.9%), Asian (i.e., Arab, Asiatic, Chinese, East Indian, Filipino, Japanese, Korean, South East Asian, and South Asian; 6.1%), Aboriginal (i.e., Inuit, Innu, Metis, and North American Indian; 20.5%), Hispanic (1.1%), and other (2.1%; Public Safety Canada, 2014).

Notably, individuals of Aboriginal identification are vastly over-represented in custody centers; while they represent only slightly over 4% of the total Canadian population – down to 3% if we consider only adults – they constitute in excess of one

fifth of the federal offender population (Public Safety Canada, 2014; Statistics Canada, 2011). This disparity is even more pronounced when we examine the female offender population, with Aboriginal women totaling 33% of the less than 600 incarcerated females (Public Safety Canada, 2014).

The Iowa offender population is equally diverse, albeit with differences. While the majority of offenders (males and females) in Iowa also self-identify as White or Caucasian (73.9%), the ethnic composition of the remainder of the population is less similar, with more offenders identifying themselves as Black (17.9% versus 8.9%) and Hispanic (5.4% versus 1.1%), and fewer offenders identifying themselves as Asian (1.1% versus 6.1%), other or unknown (0.5% versus 2.1%), and Aboriginal or American Indian (1.2% versus 20.5%; IDOC, 2015; Meier, 2014; Public Safety Canada, 2014).

Evidently, one of the main differences between the two offender populations is with respect to the number of Aboriginal offenders, who do not evince the same degree of over-representation in the IDOC as they do in the CSC. Instead, it is the group of offenders self-identifying as Black who are overrepresented. Likewise, there are many more female offenders under the jurisdiction of the IDOC, with women representing in excess of one fifth of the total population, whereas female offenders represent less than 2.5% of the Canadian federal offender population (IDOC, 2015; Meier, 2014; Public Safety Canada, 2014).

According to the CCRSO, (Public Safety Canada, 2014) offenders ranging in age from 20-29 and 30-39 comprise the largest age groups, with approximately 25% of the total federal population situated in each. Also of note, the percentage of incarcerated offenders aged 50+ has now reached 21%, an increase from previous years, though it

remains lower than the 30.4% of the community federal offender population aged 50 and over. There are also myriad religious identifications present among Canadian federal offenders, including but not limited to: Catholic, Sikh, Jewish, Buddhist, Muslim, Native Spirituality, Protestant, Orthodox, and Agnostic or Atheist.

Though the *Quarterly Quick Facts* report published by the IDOC in March of 2015 presents an overview of offender characteristics, the age ranges included are broader than those used in the CCRSO; regardless, available information has been included for the sake of comprehensiveness. In Iowa, the largest offender age group was the 18-30 year-old group (44.1%), which was closely followed by the 31-50 year-old age group (IDOC, 2015). Also, offenders over the age of 50 represented less than 13% of the total population. A loose comparison would suggest that the percentage of Canadian offenders aged 50 and over is higher as a function of being convicted of a federal offence, which would generally be associated with longer sentences. Information describing the religious identifications of the IDOC offenders was not presented.

The take-away message: though such diversity among offenders is not unexpected, it does add additional complexities insofar as POs are concerned in that they must tailor meetings and interactions to suit an array of different needs and sensibilities.

Furthermore, PO efficacy is important as many offenders are incarcerated for lengthy sentences as a result of having committed a violent offence. For instance, nearly half of the offenders under federal jurisdiction in Canada are serving sentences of five years or longer, with 23% of the total offender population incarcerated for life, or an otherwise indeterminate sentence (Public Safety Canada, 2014). Sixty-eight percent of Canadian federal offenders are serving time for a violent offence, with individuals

incarcerated for first and second-degree murder accounting for almost 20% of the population. In Iowa, only about 8% of incarcerated offenders are serving a sentence of five years or less, with over 40% having received a sentence of 40 or more years (IDOC, 2015). Perhaps due to the fact many violent offenders may have been sentenced at the federal level, relatively fewer IDOC offenders were convicted for the commission of violent crimes: violent offenders constitute 47.5% and 19.4% of the prison, and community populations respectively, translating to approximately one quarter of the total offender population (IDOC, 2015; Meier, 2014).

In any case, the severity of an offender's index crime is not necessarily indicative of their risk for recidivism (Nafekh & Motiuk, 2002). Similarly, an offender's security classification is not necessarily the preferred approach to predict reoffending (Luciani, 2001). For example, the vast majority of the aforementioned Canadian federal offender population is classified as minimum to moderate security risk (though 15.1% are classified as being a high security risk) based on empirically validated intake assessment tools (e.g., the Custody Rating Scale [CRS]; Public Safety Canada, 2014), despite having received a lengthy sentence or having committed a violent offence.

The diversity of the offender population is increasing; for instance, in Canada, there are more female federal offenders than in past years, more individuals affiliated with gangs and organized crime, higher prevalence rates for both serious mental illnesses and viruses (e.g., Hepatitis C and HIV), and more offenders with extensive, violent, criminal histories and prior convictions (CSC, 2014). As a consequence of this increase in individual needs, there is a magnification of the complexities and nuances with which POs must regularly contend. Moreover, after reaching an all-time low in 2010-2011,

recent years have witnessed an increase in the parole grant-rate for both day parole and full parole, even for aboriginal offenders (Public Safety Canada, 2014). To be clear, parole grant rates are still quite low, with 67.6% and 28.9% for day and full parole respectively (Public Safety Canada, 2014), and this resurgence is perhaps most accurately interpreted as the end of a steady decline. Though the number of offenders granted parole actually decreased by 7.1% in Iowa from 2013 to 2014, the overall number of offenders being supervised in the community in 2014 rose to a 12 year high at 30,674 (Meier, 2014). In conjunction with the low PO to offender ratio evinced by the IDOC as alluded to above (IDOC, 2015), it is clear that both the Canadian and American POs currently under discussion must supervise a growing number of offenders, and must also have increasingly comprehensive and refined skill-sets in order to be able to mitigate the potential risks posed to public safety by working with such diverse offender populations.

Evidence in favor of parole. As noted above, as per the CCRSO (Public Safety Canada, 2014) there are over 8,000 federal offenders currently being supervised in communities across Canada. The average annual cost associated with monitoring an offender in the community is \$35,101 whereas the cost required to keep an offender incarcerated (averaged across males and females of all risk levels) amounts to \$117,788.

In relation to the costs associated with Canadian federal offenders, the costs associated with incarceration in Iowa seem quite low, coming in at just over \$34,000 per offender (also averaged across males and females of all risk levels; IDOC 2015; Meier, 2014). Nevertheless, the annual cost associated with supervising an offender in the community in Iowa amounts to just over \$1,500. Thus, if there is no compromise of

public safety, it is preferable to manage offenders in the community, assuming that they have satisfied the legislated requirements of their sentence.

The potential monetary advantages, when considered in combination with the fact that the majority of federal day and full paroles are successfully completed (89.3% and 85.2% respectively; Public Safety Canada, 2014), lends credence to the merit of parole. Equally, the majority of community supervision outcomes in Iowa are positive, with 75% of offenders completing their terms of supervision (IDOC 2015; Meier, 2014). Hence, gains with respect to the knowledge, skills, and overall proficiency of POs should help minimize both supervision failure rates and government expenditure.

Finally, offenders released on discretionary forms of release typically fare better. For example, Canadian federal offenders released on statutory release (at end of sentence), have a much higher revocation rate, with barely over 60% of offenders completing the release successfully (Public Safety Canada, 2014). Moreover, this group of offenders has a much higher violent failure rate – that is revocation of release for having committed a new violent offense – than do offenders released on full or day parole; the violent revocation rates are 1.5%, 0.3%, and 0.1% for statutory release, full parole, and day parole respectively, prior to warrant expiry. Similarly, only about a third of the American offenders released on mandatory parole, a form of parole in which offenders are released after a pre-specified length of incarceration less any “good time” earned (common in jurisdictions using determinate sentencing), successfully complete their term of supervision (Hughes & Wilson, 2003).

Findings from numerous studies (Gottfredson, Mitchell-Herzfeld, & Flanagan, 1982; Paparozzi & Guy, 2009; Schlager & Robbins, 2008; Solomon, Kachnowski, &

Bhati, 2005) have demonstrated that discretionary release and subsequent PO supervision has a significant positive impact in terms of offender outcomes. For instance, in an examination of the factors associated with successful sentence completion, Grant and Gillis (1999) found that the successful completion of day parole was associated with a reduction in both parole revocation rates, and general recidivism rates. In addition to increasing the likelihood of being granted full parole, day parole was found to meet the needs of low risk offenders, who could be released earlier in their sentence, as well as high-risk offenders, who benefited from a period of supervision prior to statutory release (Grant & Gillis, 1999).

Improving the effectiveness of parole is becoming increasingly critical insofar as financial resources are concerned, in addition to public views about safety. Expenditures on corrections in Canada increased during the 2011-2012 fiscal year, totaling almost \$2.5 billion, up from the approximately \$2.1 billion disbursed the previous year (Public Safety Canada, 2014). Nevertheless, in support of Canada's *Economic Action Plan 2012*, the CSC has embarked on an endeavor to reduce its operating budget by in excess of \$250 million annually, which will include trimming \$4.8 million from its community supervision-specific budget (CSC, 2014). As such, judicious use of available resources is paramount.

Given the operating costs of the Canadian criminal justice system and the cost of incarceration itself relative to community supervision, even a slight reduction in recidivism rates of federal offenders would amount to substantial savings. For example, if 721 offenders (which represents 5% of the 2011-12 federal offender population) were supervised in the community rather than incarcerated, the subsequent reduction in costs,

which include the cost of operating the facilities and paying employee salaries and benefits, would amount to a savings of just under \$60 million annually (Public Safety Canada, 2014). Aiming to reduce recidivism through the augmentation of PO competencies would appear to be a useful strategy.

In the United States, the President's Department of Justice (DOJ) *Budget for the 2013 Fiscal Year* allocated \$28.1 billion to the Department of Justice, which represents a slight decrease from the previous year's budget of \$28.2 billion (Office of Management and Budget, 2014). Although even this relatively small decrease arguably represents progress, any further decreases that could be achieved by the reduction of (re)incarceration-related costs through the improvement of PO efficacy is patently desirable in the United States as well, perhaps even more so, when we consider the sheer size of the American offender population. The incarceration rate in the United States is the highest in the world, with over two million people currently incarcerated (Hartney, 2006). Moreover, even though only about 5% of the world's population resides in the United States, the American prison population accounts for 23% of the total number of incarcerated individuals worldwide (Hartney, 2006). Needless to say, reductions in reoffending and reincarceration, accomplished through augmenting PO competencies could yield considerable financial benefits.

A brief Overview of the Role of POs

Several authors (i.e., Shapland et al., 2012) acknowledge that we know relatively little about the day-to-day tasks of POs engaged in routine supervision or management of offenders. The role of any given PO is almost invariably contingent upon whether said individual works within a correctional facility or in the community. Broadly, institutional

POs (Canada) or Case Managers (CMs; United States) are tasked with case management and release preparation, while community POs provide supervision for released offenders. Both institutional and community POs manage or supervise multiple offenders concurrently; the term “caseload” is used to describe the specific number of offenders being monitored by a PO at a given time. Likewise, all POs are required to maintain regular contact with the offenders currently under their supervision, and to be familiar with relevant policies and legislature.

Institutional POs and CMs. POs (or CMs) working in correctional facilities must engage offenders on their caseload in order to identify the factors that contributed to criminality in each individual’s case, and thereby guide the development of treatment plans and the selection of programming options that will be most appropriate (American Probation and Parole Association [APPA], 1987; CSC, 2012, 2013). Through consistent observation and interviewing, institutional POs and CMs must track an offender’s behaviour and level of accountability while incarcerated, in addition to the offender’s progress with respect to addressing their criminogenic needs (dynamic risk factors that have been empirically linked to criminal behaviour; i.e., the presence of antisocial attitudes or values, and procriminal associates; Andrews & Bonta, 2003) with the expressed intent of assessing risk to society, and, by extension, suitability for release.

Based on these interactions coupled with a careful analysis and synthesis of all available sources of information (e.g., information from the trial, previous criminal history, the offender’s file regarding institutional and program performance, collaterals, the offenders themselves, etc.), institutional POs and CMs must produce reports. CMs submit their report to the appropriate paroling authority, which varies by jurisdiction,

while Canadian POs submit their reports to the Parole Board of Canada (PBC; APPA, 1987; CSC, 2012, 2013). For Canadian POs, this report is called an Assessment for Decision (A4D) report, and includes a recommendation with respect to whether or not a given offender should be granted parole in addition to suggesting any conditions they deem necessary if released. While release decisions ultimately fall to the appropriate paroling authority, findings from previous Canadian research suggest that members of the PBC carefully consider the recommendations made by POs, as evidenced by the high concordance rate between recommendations and actual decisions (Pardoel, 2013).

Community POs. Once granted release, offenders are supervised by community POs, who supervise, and ideally, facilitate their reintegration into society by aiding in the development of a prosocial support network. Through careful establishment of, and frequent communication with relevant contacts (i.e., local law enforcement, the offender's case management team, and, when applicable, the friends, family, and co-workers of the offender), community POs gather information pertaining to their parolees' rehabilitative progress (APPA, 1987; CSC, 2012, 2013). At this point, it should be noted that the main distinction between probation and parole is that parolees are offenders granted release following a period of incarceration, while probationers are offenders sentenced to a term of supervision (probation) in lieu of incarceration (APPA, 1987, 1997). However, given that many of the functions or roles of community POs overlap with those of probation officers, it is not uncommon for the same officer to supervise both parolees and probationers, particularly in the United States (Seiter, 2002). This is the case for many of the officers employed by the IDOC.

The dual role of POs. While the role of a PO may appear to be relatively straightforward at first glance, when examined in greater depth, it rapidly becomes apparent that POs are tasked with reconciling two competing, and hence, often antithetical objectives; they are expected to simultaneously provide surveillance and rehabilitation, to act as both “cop” and “social worker”; a conundrum that has been noted by many researchers (Caplan, 2006; Kennealy et al., 2012; Seiter, 2002; Sigler & McGraw, 1984; West & Seiter, 2004). To some extent, this role conflict seems unavoidable; though POs may struggle to strike a balance between the at times conflicting aims of offender reintegration and public safety, both aspects of this role are indispensable in terms of achieving the objectives outlined in the CCRSO and the *Position Statement* of the APPA (APPA, 1987; CSC, 2014; Public Safety Canada, 2014).

Even so, there is some variability with respect to which aspect of this “dual role” is prioritized. While surveillance-based approaches to supervision are centered around the enforcement of rules and the detection and enforcement of violations (often leading to a revocation of parole and subsequent reincarceration), a rehabilitation-based approach is predicated instead on a more positive philosophy of offender change, and dictates that emphasis be placed on assisting the offender with their problems and facilitating their successful reintegration into society (Seiter, 2002).

Seiter (2002) reports the results of study conducted with a sample of POs ($N = 114$) working for the Missouri Department of Corrections. The intent of the study was to identify the types of supervisory tasks performed by the POs, as well as to determine which of those tasks they believed to be both most important and most effective with respect to guiding the reintegration process. Notably, the average caseload size of

surveyed POs was 60, with the smallest and largest caseloads being eight, and 127 respectively. Seiter advances that the size of POs' caseloads may have an impact on the approach to supervision, suggesting that larger caseloads may, by necessity, result in less time dedicated to meeting with each offender.

Other key findings from the study were related to the tasks that POs deemed most important with respect to reintegration outcomes. Surveyed POs overwhelmingly identified spending time on activities such as finding and maintaining steady employment, refraining from substance use, and developing social support systems as being the most important contributing aspects to successful offender reentry. Evidently, these types of tasks characterize a casework, or rehabilitation-focused mode of supervision. Interestingly, in terms of what POs thought that they should focus on doing in order to best contribute to reintegration success, 'holding offenders accountable' emerged alongside helping offenders with the above listed activities. While holding offenders accountable may seem to fall under the umbrella of a more surveillance-based approach, POs explained that this was not done so as to catch violators so that they could be returned to prison, but rather to monitor and better assist progress toward rehabilitative goals.

Seiter concludes that, even though the dominant surveillance style has shifted towards a more surveillance-based model, and that POs are increasingly charged with the intensive supervision of offenders on their caseloads, many maintain the belief that in order to be most effective, they need to focus on helping, as opposed to punishing, offenders. Nevertheless, he cautions that if the emphasis shifts too strongly toward surveillance and eliminating risk, that rehabilitation-centered activities may be sidelined.

Essentially, Seiter suggests that focusing on a more surveillance-based model (due to size of caseload or otherwise), as opposed to a supportive, change-based model, is a cause for concern, as a surveillance-based model, characterized by impersonal supervision, appears to be associated with a corresponding increase in revocations, as it largely fails to address parolees' needs.

Other authors (e.g., Jalbert, Rhodes, & Flygare, 2010; Petersilia, 1999, 2001) have also noted the increasing size of the average caseload with concern. Petersilia (2001) comments that the increase in the number of parolees over the years has not been met with a parallel increase in POs. In the 1970s, a typical caseload would include 45 offenders, a figure which had risen substantially by the year 2000 (Petersilia, 2001). By this point (i.e., the year 2000), Petersilia (2001) remarks that it was not unusual for a single PO to be responsible for 70 offenders, though caseloads ranging from 35-50 had been deemed optimal. In an earlier study, Petersilia (1999) pointed out that somewhere around 80% of all American parolees receive "regular" parole supervision, as opposed to more intensive supervision, signifying that these parolees would only meet briefly (for around 15 minutes) with their PO once or twice a month.

Clearly, it would be difficult for POs to provide sufficient support for offenders already struggling with a multitude of issues (i.e., lack of education, employability, social support; Beck & Mumola, 1999) within such limited timeframes. Perhaps unsurprisingly, Beck and Mumola (1999) cite this dearth of support as a main factor contributing to the high rate of parole failures shortly after release, explaining that rearrests are most common in the first six months following release, and that such short, infrequent

meetings are clearly not sufficient for many parolees with numerous concurrent obstacles to overcome.

Similarly, the results of Jalbert, Rhodes, and Flygare's (2010) more recent study of probationers in Iowa, indicated that reducing the caseloads of officers providing community supervision was likely related to reductions in criminal recidivism. However, Jalbert and colleagues' (2010) findings come with a caveat; reductions in caseload must be accompanied by the use of evidence-based practices such as assigning high-risk offenders to officers who have time available to provide them with the appropriate intensity of supervision. Caseload reduction, in and of itself, was not demonstrably linked to positive client outcomes.

Encouragingly, numerous researchers (Quinn & Gould, 2003; Seiter, 2002; West & Seiter, 2004, etc.) have noted POs' inclination to focus on supportive, and reintegration-focused activities inasmuch as possible, despite large caseloads and the general public's retribution-oriented beliefs. Needless to say, POs are faced with the struggle of needing to integrate the competing ideologies of offender surveillance and treatment.

Gutierrez (2010) argues for the importance of considering POs' dual role when examining client outcomes, advancing that the quality of therapeutic relationships between POs and their clients may have significant ramifications with respect to success in this arena. Likewise, Kennealy and colleagues' (2012) findings lend credence to the supposition that the quality of these dual role relationships may mediate rehabilitative success, finding that effective reconciliation of dual roles by POs resulted in positive client outcomes (in that they protect against re-arrest). Specifically Kennealy et al.

(2012) concluded that a firm, fair, and caring approach to relationships engendered positive outcomes regardless of an offender's intrinsic personality traits or characteristics, and risk level notwithstanding. Hence, high quality dual role relationships that include components of both offender accountability and a rehabilitation (both crucial elements of CCP), appear to be important with respect to protecting against rearrest (Kennealy et al., 2012).

Increasingly, the notion of adopting a firm but fair approach has been receiving support from prominent researchers in the field of corrections (Dowden & Andrews, 2004; Bourgon, Bonta, Ruge, Scott, & Yessine, 2009; Lowenkamp, Robinson, & Lowenkamp, 2010). The relationship-based aspect of PO-client interactions will be discussed in greater detail in the coming sections.

The Evolution of Parole

In combination with the war on drugs, Martinson's seminal paper in 1974 in which he promulgated his conviction that "nothing works" with regards to offender rehabilitation led to a significant increase in the American prison population (Blumstein, 1998). Furthermore, Martinson's assertion intensified the debate between proponents of a sanctions and retribution-focused approach to offending (i.e., the "tough on crime" perspective), and advocates for offender rehabilitation, initiating one of numerous vacillations between the two viewpoints (Hood & Shute, 2000). That said, national espousals of either perspective are likely associated with the extant political climate.

The growth of the prison population. Attitudes toward offender rehabilitation aside, the staggering increase in the size of the American prison population and the ensuing overcrowding in the decade following the publication of Martinson's work led to

a resurgence of interest in rehabilitative models, if only by necessity (Blumstein, 1998; Phelps, 2011). Notably, despite the continual growth of the size of the Canadian prison population in conjunction with mounting evidence for the merit of the rehabilitative components, Canada also remains informed by a surveillance and retribution-focused model (Cook & Roesch, 2012).

Policy and parole. The following section provides a brief overview of key developments with respect to parole in both Canada and the United States. Note that a comprehensive description of how parole has evolved in Canada and the United States is beyond the scope of the current study. As such, the focus here will be on recent changes germane to the topic at hand.

Established under the *Parole Act*, the concept of parole has existed in Canada for over century (Larocque, 1998; Serin, Gobeil, & Sutton, 2013a). First instituted in 1959, the *Parole Act* was renamed the *Corrections and Conditional Release Act (CCRA)* in 1992 following revisions, including several aimed at standardizing the decision-making process and at systematizing the assessment of offender risk (Grant & Gillis, 1999; Larocque, 1998). Similar policy revisions took place around the same time at other paroling agencies internationally, (i.e., the United Kingdom, see Hood and Shute, 2000), though they will not be discussed in great detail here.

In the U.S., the most salient policy change made in recent decades is the abolition of indeterminate sentencing at a federal level. From 1910 to 1984, a majority of federal prisoners were eligible for parole, and in many cases, were given a maximum sentence, as opposed to a minimum (FAMM, 2012). In 1984, the *Sentencing Reform Act (SRA)*, a provision of the *Comprehensive Crime Control Act of 1984*, created the U.S. Sentencing

Commission, and tasked it with the evaluation and reformulation of national sentencing guidelines (FAMM, 2012; U.S. Sentencing Commission, 2015).

As a result, parole was eliminated for all federal offenders convicted on or after November 1st, 1987. In abolishing parole for federal offenders, Congress had several main goals, namely: 1) to shift the focus from offender rehabilitation toward punishment and retribution given widespread doubt that rehabilitative measures could actually work; 2) to standardized the administration of punishment by eliminating inconsistencies with respect to actual time served; and 3) to allow for the administration of more severe punishments for certain types of offenders (e.g., violent and repeat offenders), and, by extension, to assuage the public misconception that paroling an offender meant setting them free early (FAMM, 2012; U.S. Sentencing Commission, 2015).

Currently, offenders convicted in certain states are eligible for parole, though many states have also discontinued the use of indeterminate sentencing procedures (FAMM, 2012). Interestingly, Hughes, Wilson, and Back (2001) concluded that, according to Bureau of Justice Statistics, prisoners serving prison terms in states using discretionary release procedures actually served longer sentences than prisoners in states using mandatory release, a finding that runs counter to popular belief that discretionary release procedures are not sufficiently severe (Petersilia, 2003).

Notably, the expressed intent of some of the legislative revisions listed above was largely to systematize the decision-making process. In Canada, this was expected to increase the facility with which parole could be granted (as standardizing procedures should increase the quality of, and resultant confidence in decisions), but grant rates decreased in actuality. For instance, following the enactment of the CCRA in 1992 and

the changes in legislation, offender eligibility, and societal and legislative pressures aimed at promoting public safety, there was a 37% reduction in day parole rates by 1995-1996 (Grant, 1998). As previously mentioned, parole grant rates followed a downward trend until 2010-2011 (Public Safety Canada, 2014).

Caplan (2007) came to a similar conclusion about American Parole boards, but also noted that despite supposedly objective guidelines, parole release decisions were made irregularly, and were predicated on institutional behaviour, crime severity, criminal history, mental illness, and victim input rather than on actuarial models. That said, release decisions are not based solely on risk and security ratings; members of paroling authorities must also take other factors (e.g., type of offense, level of preparedness for release, quality of post-release plans, completion of programming, and other indices of prosocial change, etc.) into consideration (PBC, 2014). Documenting and analyzing this information is within the purview of POs working in an institutional setting.

In Canada, the last decade has seen several advances aimed at standardizing the release-decision making process in order to enhance the quality of decisions and to streamline the process itself. The Structured Parole Decision Making Framework (SPDMF; Serin et al., 2013a, Serin, Gobeil, & Sutton, 2013b) was developed for the PBC, and has been evaluated and integrated into the correctional system. Furthermore, the key principles upon which this framework is predicated are now reflected in relevant policies, namely policy 2.1 of the Decision-Making Policy Manual for Board Members (PBC, 2014).

Public opinion and parole. Though largely unaltered since the early 1990s, the CCRA now highlights the use of empirically validated risk assessment tools and decision

protocols and places a premium on the protection of public safety (PBC, 2010).

Nevertheless, according to public opinion research conducted by Latimer and Desjardins (2007), the Canadian public lacks confidence in its criminal justice system. The general attitude towards parole is the most adverse, even when compared to opinions regarding the other subcomponents of the justice system (e.g., courts, the police, victim services, etc.). The authors submit that Canadians are not convinced that the current release procedures and supervision approaches adopted by POs are sufficient insofar as the protection of public safety is concerned. Parole is a similarly contentious issue in the United States, as evidenced by the common belief that excessive lenience on the part of paroling authorities has led to parole being granted too often, to too many offenders (Burke, 2003; Lindsay & Miller, 2011; Roberts & Stanlans, 1997).

The public's convictions notwithstanding, advances with respect to decision-making have been made. Moreover, it is important to be cognizant of the average citizen's level of factual knowledge with respect to the operation and successfulness of the parole system. Lindsay and Miller (2011) assert that as the general public is typically not well informed regarding the release of offenders (both the rationale and success rates), prison systems should avoid altering procedures in an attempt to mollify the public. For instance, when surveyed, Canadians tended to believe that crime rates had increased during the last decade (Latimer & Desjardins, 2007) even though crimes rates (both general and violent) have actually decreased (Public Safety Canada, 2014). Likewise, sensational cases should not be used to inform public policy (Glick & Pruet, 1985).

That said, crime and offender reintegration are still important concerns. Hence, conducting research focused on advancing our understanding of PO skills and competencies in addition to POs' individual characteristics which may moderate rehabilitative success is paramount not only for the offenders themselves, but also with respect to ameliorating the North American public's legitimate concerns about their respective Criminal Justice Systems.

Types of parole and offender eligibility. Parole does not epitomize a shortening of an offender's sentence, but rather constitutes an opportunity for offender to complete the remainder of their sentence while under supervision in the community, where they can begin working towards re-establishing a prosocial lifestyle. Offenders serving the remainder of their sentence in the community must meet frequently with their parole officer, and are, therefore, still accountable for their behaviour and progress with respect to reintegration. In addition to having mandated sessions with a PO, offenders are typically subject to one or more conditions of parole intended to help mitigate risk. For example, these can include conditions like being required to avoid certain people or places, and are intended to dissuade the offender from involvement with certain persons or situations related to past criminality (DOJ, 2015; PBC, 2010).

Furthermore, parole is separate from both statutory (Canada) and mandatory (United States) release. The main distinction being that parole is a form of discretionary release, while the other two are not (DOJ, 2001; PBC, 2010). By extension, though an offender may be eligible for parole, the parole board is ultimately responsible for granting or denying parole. Conversely, statutory release entails the mandated release of an offender following the completion of two thirds of their sentence, though this does not

apply to certain types of offenders, such as those serving life or indeterminate sentences for very serious crimes (i.e., first-degree murder and sexual offences involving a child; PBC, 2010). Mandated release represents the release of an American offender following the completion of their sentence (Schlager & Robbins, 2008).

Similarly, eligibility for parole varies according to length and type of sentence, and in this case, whether the offender is Canadian or American. In Canada, offenders may be granted day parole, or full parole; the difference here essentially lies in whether or not the offender must return to a correctional facility or designated halfway house each night. Generally speaking, lower risk offenders, as well as those who have successfully completed their periods of supervision during day parole (granted that they have reached their eligibility date), are more likely to be granted full parole (Pardoel, 2013; PBC, 2010).

The Role of Parole Officers in the Release Decision Making Process

Internationally, the last twenty years have seen a concerted effort aimed at standardizing decision-making procedures, namely with respect to the consistent inclusion of actuarial risk-assessment instruments in the process (PBC 2010, Hood & Shute, 2000; Grant & Gillis, 1999). Nevertheless, as alluded to above (e.g., Caplan, 2007, Public Safety Canada, 2014) evidence that parole board members adhere to empirically established criteria is equivocal. Instead of relying primarily on actuarial methods, which have generally been found to be more accurate, liberal, and reliable than clinical methods (Grove, Zald, Lebow, Snitz, & Nelson, 2000), decisions appear to involve personal ideologies and at least some degree of subjectivity (Paparozzi & Guy, 2009).

PO recommendations represent another factor that influence parole board decisions. A Canadian study by Samra-Grewal, Pfiefer, & Ogloff (2000), examined concordance rates between case management officers' recommendations and the actual decision rendered by the National Parole Board. They concluded that the parole board's decision was significantly predicted by the case management officer's recommendation, even after taking into account the fact that both groups would have access to similar information about the offender. Likewise, another Canadian study found high concordance rates between PO-recommended release decisions (and any associated conditions), and the final decision made by PBC members (Pardoel, 2013). These findings are consistent with similar research conducted in the U.S. (Morgan & Smith, 2005; Proctor, 1999).

Given the importance ascribed to PO recommendations by parole board members, PO competencies become germane to parole decision-making; institutional POs' relative aptitude with respect to communicating with offenders, recognizing and presenting relevant case information, and recommending relevant conditions can have an impact on release decisions. In other words, to a great extent, PO recommendations are by-products of their competencies.

The ability of institutional POs and CMs to recommend appropriate conditions (i.e., those related to reducing or managing an offender's risk) is largely determined by appropriate case analysis and by their understanding of risk management principles, and is of consequence for several reasons. Appropriate conditions have an influence on reintegration success. First, conditions need to be tailored to each individual in order to adequately address their criminogenic needs and manage their risk factors, thereby

preserving public safety (Andrews, Bonta, & Wormith, 2006; Barklage, Miller & Bonham, 2006; Skeem & Manchak, 2008).

Second, the capricious assignment of conditions can act as an impediment to successful reintegration. Excess or generic conditions not associated with managing an offender's risk can act as an obstacle to reintegration for individuals already facing numerous challenges, and are associated with higher rates of reincarceration following technical violations (Jacobson, 2005; Travis & Stacey, 2010). The "less is more" perspective with respect to the assignment of conditions is supported by numerous researchers, including, but not limited to Arluke, (1956, 1969), Hanlon, Nurco, Bateman, and O'Grady (1999), Jacobson (2005), Petersilia (2001), Solomon et al. (2008), and Travis and Latessa (1984).

Finally, the conditions assigned to an offender have an impact on how they will be managed in the community. For community POs, these conditions inform meeting and conversation topics with the given offender, treatment and resource referrals, and supervision strategies more broadly. As such, it is key for POs to be cognizant of why and how conditions are assigned.

Using Empirical Evidence to Advance Parole Officer Competencies

Extensive research efforts have been directed toward the exploration, and subsequent validation of theoretical constructs aimed at improving the overall efficacy of institutional, community, case management, and probation staff. The following provides a brief description of several of these initiatives, namely decision-making frameworks, the Risk-Need-Responsivity (RNR) model, Core Correctional Practice (CCP), and training programs.

Decision-making frameworks. In Canada, there have been recent advances in terms of the standardization of the parole decision-making process, (i.e., the implementation of the SPDMF; Serin et al., 2013a,b). The SPDMF was created through a collaborative research endeavor that began in 2003 between the PBC and the Criminal Justice Decision Making Lab (led by Dr. Ralph Serin). It reflects a careful synthesis of parole board policy and the extant research on decision-making within the field of corrections, and provides a more transparent structure for decisions, with the expressed intent being to enhance the quality and accuracy of parole release decisions (Serin et al., 2013a).

The SPDMF has been empirically validated (i.e., has been shown to yield increased accuracy over current decisions) in Canada, and has since been implemented by the PBC (Gobeil, 2012; Serin, Gobeil & Sutton, 2009; Serin et al., 2013a,b). To date, the vast majority of the research examining the impact of the SPDMF on the quality of parole decision-making has taken place within a Canadian context, but international interest is growing (Serin et al., 2013b). Recently, opportunities to evaluate the utility of the SPDMF in three American states – Ohio, Kansas, and Connecticut – have arisen (Serin et al., 2013b). Following preliminary validation processes, it appears that the Framework can be conducive to high-quality decision-making, though further analyses are necessary in Ohio and Kansas in order to corroborate current findings (Serin et al., 2013b).

Risk, need, responsivity (RNR) model. Don Andrews spearheaded the development and empirical validation of the RNR model, which emerged from an abundance of research (Andrews, Dowden, & Rettinger, 2001; Andrews et al., 1990; Dowden & Andrews, 1999a,b, 2000) investigating what exactly constitutes effective

correctional programming. Such programming is characterized by addressing offenders' unique criminogenic needs, thereby minimizing their risk to society (Andrews & Bonta, 2003).

Mindful application of the RNR principles has afforded increased effect sizes in correctional programming, with even adherence to individual principles, such as need principle (successfully addressing criminogenic needs) being related to large decreases in recidivism (19% on average; Bonta & Andrews, 2007). Andrews and Dowden (2006) report that in almost 400 tests of the application of the risk principle alone with offenders, successful application yielded an average difference of 10% in recidivism for high-risk offenders, and a more modest but still significant, 3% difference in recidivism for low-risk offenders. As further evidence in support of the risk principle, a study by Bonta, Wallace-Capretta and Rooney (2000), which evaluated a Canadian program, found that low-risk offenders who received inappropriately intensive treatment evinced nearly double the recidivism rates (32%) of low risk offenders who received suitably minimal levels of treatment (15%). Finally, an examination of the use of cognitive behavioral interventions (i.e., the general responsivity principle) alone was related to a 23% difference in recidivism (Bonta & Andrews, 2007). That said, the simultaneous implementation of all three principles of the RNR model in programming has been associated with the highest overall reductions in recidivism (mean $\phi = .30$; Andrews et al., 1990), with numerous other authors (e.g., Cleland, Pearson, & Lipton, 1996; Dowden & Andrews, 1999a,b, 2000) supporting these findings. Likewise, Andrews and Bonta (2007) have reported reductions in recidivism up to 50% when all three principles are utilized to full effect. Notably, the model appears to be quite widely applicable, yielding

positive outcomes regardless of setting, and type of offender or criminal behaviour (Andrews & Bonta, 2010).

Knowledge of RNR principles more generally as well as awareness of the foundational role that they play in correctional programming is of import to POs for two main reasons. First, knowledge of the components of programming is valuable to institutional POs insofar as pre-release case-management is concerned. Second, the underpinnings of the RNR model are arguably transferable across correctional settings, and certainly apply to community POs in the sense that they aid in the promotion of offender change, thereby contributing to effective supervision, offender-management, and promotion of public safety.

For example, extant research (Andrews & Bonta, 2003, 2010; Dowden & Andrews, 1999a,b, 2000; Garrett, 1985; Hill, Andrews, & Hoge, 1991; Izzo & Ross, 1990; Lipsey, 1989, 1995; Losel, 1995) surrounding the responsivity principle has highlighted the effectiveness of including structured cognitive-behavioural components in interventions. As noted above, adherence to this one principle alone can produce average reduction in recidivism in excess of 20% (Bonta & Andrews, 2007). Evidently, POs should employ cognitive-behavioural techniques and social learning strategies during interactions with offenders and probationers. The responsivity principle may also inform how to appropriately structure sessions for each individual on their caseload.

Originally, the focus of the RNR model rested primarily on the characteristics of effective programming and did not extend to the general characteristics epitomized by effective staff or the specific best practices implicated in effective treatment delivery (Dowden & Andrews, 2004). However, since its inception the 1990's, several additional

principles have been added to complement the central three. For instance, the importance of staff developing high quality, and therefore influential, working relationships with clients has now been recognized, as has the need for respectful, cooperative, and open interactions (Bonta & Andrews, 2012; Bonta et al., 2008). This particular aspect of the model is germane to POs as it relates to the ability to foster a relationship conducive to effective interventions and positive offender change.

The link between RNR and PO competencies is perhaps clearest if we examine the probable outcomes of POs failing to employ these principles. As asserted by Bonta and Andrews (2007), treatment programs that fail to adhere to any of the three RNR principles are essentially criminogenic. The implications for POs are comparable. Consider a PO who spends more time with low risk cases as opposed to high risk ones, fails to address criminogenic needs, focusing instead on factors not related to offending, and uses ineffectual strategies to communicate and promote change. Arguably, being an effective PO requires an internalized understanding of the principles subsumed by the RNR model.

Unfortunately, though the RNR model as it applies to correctional treatment and offender reintegration would appear to be relatively simple to integrate, acting in accordance with its principles seems to be more difficult in practice. Using audiotaped recordings, Bonta and colleagues (2008) examined the degree to which a sample of Canadian probation officers adhered to the RNR principles during sessions with clients. Findings indicated low levels of adherence to the principles. They noted inconsistent application of the risk principle, and failure to both consistently prioritize discussion of criminogenic needs, and use cognitive-behavioural techniques. The authors also found

that generic supervision seemed to be unrelated to recidivism. While these findings are certainly worrisome, the cumulative body of research investigating the effectiveness of the RNR model led Bonta and colleagues (2008) to the conclusion that probation officers could learn to improve, hence improving supervision outcomes.

Core correctional practice (CCP). The advent of the CCP principles have begun to address the paucity of research investigating the characteristics of effective staff. The focus of RNR has now been extended beyond program components (Andrews & Bonta, 2010; Bonta & Andrews, 2012), and CPPs consist of a set of specific techniques or skills, which, when employed by POs, should lead to more positive parole outcomes (Dowden & Andrews, 2004).

In 1980, Andrews and Kiessling introduced five areas or domains of effective correctional practice. These dimensions were designed to maximize offender gains (i.e., positive change) acquired while completing programming, and have a strong theoretical component, being largely based on social learning theory (Andrews & Kiessling, 1980). Finally, these dimensions included a careful synthesis of empirically validated intervention strategies found to have been most effective in catalyzing positive behavioural change in offenders.

The five dimensions that make up Andrews and Kiessling's (1980) CCP framework are: effective use of authority (i.e., the 'firm but fair' approach), antiriminal or prosocial modeling and positive reinforcement (which also includes the use of disapproval where appropriate), problem solving (i.e., the ability to teach strategies), awareness and use of community resources, and quality interpersonal relationships (i.e., ability of staff to foster strong relationships with clients). Dowden and Andrews (2004)

examined the use of CPPs in practice, and found that the mean number employed across different treatment programs was quite low ($M = .95$, $SD = 1.67$), despite the concurrent finding that the use of these CPPs was indicative of better treatment outcomes.

Furthermore, findings from their meta-analytic review indicated that even the most frequently used CCP skills such as focus on skill development and problem-solving skills, were used inconsistently, being present in only 16% of the included studies.

Relatedly, other research (Bonta et al., 2011; Trotter, 1996) has confirmed that the diligent utilization of the five CPP techniques introduced by Andrews and Kiessling (1980) has been demonstrably linked to positive client outcomes. Furthermore, these techniques have been shown to yield improved outcomes, regardless of risk level, client type (e.g., gender, ethnicity, age, etc.), needs, and circumstances, as substantiated by marked decreases in recidivism and technical violations (Bonta et al., 2011; Dowden & Andrews, 2004; Trotter, 1996). Some researchers, (i.e., Dowden & Andrews, 2004) ascribe particular importance to the relational aspect of CPP, linking ability to both form quality relationships and to structure limited session time to better client outcomes.

Lambert (1992) reviewed the effectiveness of a variety of therapy techniques. Though this research was conducted in a non-correctional context, some of the conclusions are presumably transferable. For example, the quality of the therapeutic relationship between treatment provider and client was consistently viewed as pivotal, across different reviewers and schools of therapy (Lambert, 1992). Another study, conducted by Miller, Taylor, and West (1980) examined the effectiveness of various behavioural approaches on problem drinkers. Though the primary focus of their study was on the relative effects of different types of behaviour therapies, they collected data on

elements of the therapeutic relationship, namely therapist empathy. The ability of the therapist to communicate in a meaningful way with clients was found to very important, with empathy being strongly correlated with patient outcome, accounting for the majority of variance in outcome (Miller, Taylor, and West, 1980).

Results from recent CCP studies (Bonta et al., 2008; Robinson et al., 2011; Robinson et al., 2012) have demonstrated a need to more systematically train POs in the use of CCP in order to ensure their effective use during sessions with clients.

Additionally, numerous studies show that POs trained in the utilization of CCP skills yielded improved client outcomes (i.e., through the identification and targeting of criminogenic needs) than those who had not received such training (Bonta et al., 2011; Bourgon, Bonta, Rugge, Scott, & Yessine, 2009; Robinson et al., 2012; Trotter, 1996).

For instance, the study by Bonta et al. (2008) introduced above, provided important insights into the use of CPP techniques in addition to the application of RNR principles by probation officers. Although one of the main issues discussed by the researchers was a lack of follow-through by probation officers between the identification of salient criminogenic needs and actually addressing them with clients, Bonta et al. (2008) also noted weakness in several CCP dimensions.

The dimension of interpersonal relationship factors was discussed first. Positive relationship was assessed using seven indicators: 1) empathy, 2) openness, 3) warmth, 4) firmness, 5) prompting and encouragement, 6) enthusiasm, and 7) humor. Some of the indicators (e.g., openness, warmth, and prompting and encouragement) remained stable as sessions progressed, which the authors posited might be due to the relatively stable interpersonal styles of individual officers. However, the frequency with which some

indicators were used varied over time. While the use of enthusiasm and humor increased as sessions progressed, empathy decreased, as did firmness (i.e., the use of firm but fair statements and setting appropriate limits). In addition, with the exception of prompting and encouragement that was used in almost all cases, the other indicators of positive relationships were used by only about half the officers.

The second CCP dimension discussed in the Bonta et al. (2008) study was that pertaining to prosocial modeling and effective disapproval. With respect to this CCP dimension, officers seemed to rely primarily on approval or reinforcement of prosocial behaviours. While this is not necessarily negative, it was the only subcomponent of the dimension that was evident in more than half of the officer-client interactions. Other subcomponents of the dimension that were used infrequently by officers include: modeling desired behaviours, providing opportunities for offenders to practice the desired behaviour, discouraging antisocial behaviours or expressions, giving appropriate feedback, and teaching relapse prevention skills and assigning associated homework. Notably, only about 15% of the officers modeled desired behaviours themselves, and only about a quarter seemed comfortable addressing antisocial expressions or behaviours on the part of the offender.

Although neither of the two CCP dimensions described above were found to predict recidivism, Bonta and colleagues (2008) did not find this result surprising. They note that relationship factors on their own are insufficient in reducing recidivism, and that directive structuring skills (i.e., behaviours included in the prosocial modeling dimension of the CCP framework) are also required. Accordingly, the deficits noted in this area,

namely failures to discourage antisocial expressions and behaviours, were likely related to inability to reduce recidivism.

Generally, findings from Bonta et al., (2008) suggest that officers tend to focus on the more positive aspects of their role when interacting with offenders, and spend less time engaging in firm, or disapproving behaviours, as well as in the discussion of criminogenic needs. Therefore, Bonta and colleagues (2008) suggest that these domains be the focus of improvement. Specifically, they conclude that officers can become more effective by spending more time discussing criminogenic needs, as well as learning to implement the components of CPP in more balanced and comprehensive way.

Encouragingly, recent studies focusing on the concurrent application of RNR principles and CCPs (e.g., Robinson et al., 2011 and Robinson et al., 2012) have demonstrated that officers can learn to be better at using these skills and techniques in order to improve offender outcomes. In their study, Bonta et al. (2011) were able to identify two possible links between PO behavior and client outcomes. The use of cognitive techniques by officers was found to influence recidivism, yielding reductions ($r = -.24$) if used successfully. Likewise, the extent to which officers discussed conditions of probation was also related to recidivism, however, in this case, the relationship between time spent discussion conditions was negative. In other words, the more officers discussed conditions, the higher the recidivism rate ($r = .25$; Bonta et al., 2011).

Researchers (Bonta et al., 2008; Bonta et al., 2011; Bourgon et al., 2011; Kennealy et al., 2012) have increasingly begun to view the role of POs as agents of change, alluding to POs' potential, through some of the practices described above, to promote positive client change. Nevertheless, this view is relatively recent, and is

therefore in contrast to the distinctly surveillance-based model that is still currently in practice.

Training programs. Closely following the emergence and validation of CCP was the development of several PO training programs by various agencies. Speaking generally, these programs have an overarching goal to teach empirically validated correctional skills. As such, the three main programs that are currently being utilized in North America have substantially similar curricula. They are: Staff Training Aimed at Reducing Re-arrest (STARR; Robinson et al., 2011; Robinson et al., 2012), Effective Practices In Correctional Settings (EPICS-II; Lowenkamp et al., 2010), and Strategic Training Initiatives In Community Supervision (STICS; Bonta, et al., 2011).

Findings from the evaluations of STARR, EPICS-II, and STICS seem to suggest that staff who received this training typically experienced higher levels of success in terms of influencing positive changes among their clients, and thus, in overall outcome (Bourgon et al., 2009; Robinson et al., 2012; Smith, Schweitzer, Labrecque, & Latessa, 2012). A recent meta-analysis of such training programs confirmed their utility, reporting an average reduction in recidivism of 13% (Chadwick, Smeth, and Serin (2015).

Current Study

Goals and rationale for the need for this research

Lately interest in PO performance has been increasing; however, there is limited evidence to date linking specific measurement of PO competencies to client performance. The present study is mainly descriptive, and as such, is intended to examine variation in PO knowledge and characteristics, setting the stage for future validation research linking

these characteristics to offender outcomes, and hence, to the eventual standardization of PO competency evaluation procedures.

More specifically, this study represents an important first step toward the development of a new measure of PO competencies (the Parole Officer Competency Survey; POCS), and therefore had for a central aim the collection of normative data on a sample of POs. As indicated in its name, the overarching goal of the POCS is to assess PO competencies.

Competence is broadly viewed as being comprised of a number of building blocks. Numerous authors (e.g., Epstein & Hundert, 2002; Kaslow, 2004; Leigh et al., 2007; Marrelli, Tonodora, & Hoge, 2005; Rodolfa et al., 2005; Rubin et al., 2007) have contributed to a generally accepted definition of competence, agreeing that competence involves a mixture of practical, observable, and measurable characteristics that can be used to evaluate an individual's degree of success in carrying out their professional duties. As such, competence can be seen as involving attitudes, skills, and knowledge, all of which the POCS was designed to assess.

Given that data was collected on two independent samples of POs (one Canadian sample, and one American sample), analyses and results are presented separately. Study 1 investigates the psychometric properties of the survey. Study 2 used the original version of the POCS to collect data on a sample of Canadian POs working with federal offenders, while Study 3 used a modified version of the survey (the Parole Officer Competency Survey – United States Version; POCS-USV) to collect data on a sample of American POs. Initially, findings from this research will help inform continuous

development training for POs regarding CPP, and ultimately, to lead to improvements in public policy by adding to the growing body of literature in this area.

Finally, this research is necessary as offenders represent one of society's most vulnerable or 'at-risk' groups. As such, assisting them in becoming prosocial community-members may lead to valuable social and economic gains. As referenced in earlier sections, there is a large discrepancy between the cost of keeping offenders incarcerated and that of supervising them in the community. Hence, with large portions of Canadian and American offenders currently under community supervision, increasing the effectiveness of the supervising POs could lead to substantive financial gains by minimizing subsequent reincarcerations for technical violations and new offences. The identification of core competencies is a critical component of the recent interest and research on CCP.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The present study is largely exploratory. Nonetheless, the several research questions and hypotheses are outlined below. Here, it is important to note, that due to the fact the little research examining many of the questions under investigation here exists, it was not possible to formulate a priori hypotheses in most cases.

Study 1 examines the first hypothesis, which pertains to the psychometric properties of the survey.

Hypothesis 1: It is expected that the knowledge questionnaire component of the POCS will demonstrate acceptable psychometric properties (e.g., reliability, internal consistency, factor structure).

Study 2 examines the following hypothesis and research questions in relation to the Canadian sample using the original version of the survey (POCS):

Hypothesis 2: It is hypothesized that POs will perform differently on the POCS, specifically, that more experienced POs will score higher than less experienced POs.

Research Question 1: Are there gender differences in POCS results?

Research Question 2: Will there be a difference in competency scores on the POCS between institutional and community POs?

Research Question 3: Will there be regional differences in competency scores on the POCS?

Research Question 4: Will POs perform differently on the POCS based on their attitudes and values?

Study 3 examines the same hypothesis and three of the four research questions, but will do so using the American sample and scores on American version of the survey (POCS-USV). For this sample, it was not possible to examine the third research question, as the POs in the sample were all from Iowa.

Methodology

Sample

Participant recruitment. Participants were Canadian POs working across Canada, in institutions (at various security levels) and in the community, and American CMs, POs, or probation officers working for the Iowa Department of Corrections (IDOC). Canadian participants were recruited with the assistance of the CSC, and American participants were recruited with the assistance of the research coordinators working at the IDOC. Each research coordinator was provided with an appropriate

recruitment email (two Canadian versions, one in English, one in French, and an American version), which was then disseminated to potential participants. The recruitment emails contained a brief description of the purpose and requirements of the study (i.e., time required to complete it; 20-30 minutes), as well as a link that those who agreed to participate could follow. Consenting participants were able to complete the appropriate survey through the electronic survey platform, Qualtrics. Note that a separate Qualtrics survey and corresponding link were created for each of the three versions of the survey. See Appendix A for the recruitment emails, informed consent forms, debriefing forms, and ethics certificates.

Canadian sample demographics. In total, 131 Canadian POs began the survey. However, due to a dropout rate of nearly 47%, only 69 actually completed (i.e., made it to the end of) the survey. Accordingly, data from these 69 respondents were used in the subsequent analyses. Descriptive statistics for this sample are displayed in Table 1.

The mean age of the sample was 39.57 years ($SD = 9.02$), with 30-39 year-olds constituting nearly half of the sample (46.4%). The sample was primarily female (73.9%), and the vast majority of respondents had a Bachelor's degrees (91.3%). Approximately half of the sample's primary area of study was criminology (49.3%), with psychology being the second most common (23.9%). Almost one third of POs who completed the survey were from Ontario (31.9%), with 14.5%, 15.9%, 17.4%, and 20.3% of the sample being from the Quebec, Atlantic, Prairies, and Pacific regions respectively. More than half of the POs included in the sample worked in an institutional setting (58.0%), with the remaining 42% employed in a community setting. On average, participants had worked 8.44 years ($SD = 5.49$) as a PO, with six having worked in

excess of 15 years. Further, the average time worked in corrections was 11.70 years ($SD = 7.20$), with almost one third (29%) of respondents having worked in a correctional setting for 16 years or more.

Table 1

Sample Demographics – Canadian Respondents

Variable	<i>n</i>	(%)	Cumulative %
Gender			
Male	18	26.1	26.1
Female	51	73.9	100.0
Age <i>M (SD)</i>			
	39.57 (9.03)		
20-29	8	11.6	11.6
30-39	32	46.4	58.0
40-49	16	23.2	81.2
50-59	12	17.4	98.6
60-69	1	1.4	100.0
Highest Level of Education			
Bachelor's degree	63	91.3	91.3
Master's degree	6	8.7	100.0
Region			
Ontario	22	31.9	31.9
Quebec	10	14.5	46.4
Atlantic	11	15.9	62.3
Prairies	12	17.4	79.7
Pacific	14	20.3	100.0
Work Setting			
Institutional	40	58.0	58.0
Community	29	42.0	100.0
Number of Years as a PO <i>M (SD)</i>			
	8.44 (5.49)		
0-5	24	34.8	34.8
6-10	23	33.3	68.1
11-15	16	23.2	91.3
16-20	5	7.2	98.6
21+	1	1.4	100.0
Number of Years in Corrections <i>M (SD)</i>			
	11.70 (7.20)		
0-5	15	21.7	21.7
6-10	21	30.4	52.2
11-15	13	18.8	71.0
16-20	12	17.4	88.4
21-25	5	7.2	95.7
26+	3	4.3	100.0

American sample demographics. As with the Canadian sample, the American sample evinced a high dropout rate (approximately 64%). Of the 260 POs who began the survey, only 94 finished it, and even so, many of these cases contained many missing values. Missing values will be discussed in greater detail under data screening in a coming section. Descriptive statistics for the resultant 94 American respondents are described below in Table 2.

Table 2

Sample Demographics – American Respondents

Variable	<i>n</i>	(%)	Cumulative %
Gender			
Male	48	51.1	51.1
Female	46	48.9	100.0
Age <i>M (SD)</i>	44.04 (10.18)		
20-29	8	8.5	8.5
30-39	29	30.9	39.4
40-49	29	30.9	69.8
50-59	18	19.1	88.9
60-69	10	11.1	100.0
Highest Level of Education			
Technical / vocational training	3	3.2	3.2
Bachelor's degree	77	81.9	85.1
Master's degree	14	14.9	100.0
Work Setting			
Institutional CM	29	30.9	30.9
Community Probation or PO	65	69.1	100.0
Number of Years as a PO <i>M (SD)</i>	11.00 (9.32)		
0-5	35	37.2	37.2
6-10	18	19.1	56.3
11-15	13	13.8	70.1
16-20	13	13.8	83.9
21+	15	16.0	100.0
Number of Years in Corrections <i>M (SD)</i>	15.65 (8.31)		
0-5	11	11.7	11.7
6-10	18	19.1	30.8
11-15	17	18.1	47.0
16-20	23	24.5	73.5
21+	25	26.6	100.0

Measures

Development of the POCS. The development of the Parole Officer Competency Survey (POCS; Appendix B) was an iterative process, of which the overall goal was to develop a survey that could be used to assess various components underlying PO skills, knowledge, and competencies. Following its development, the original version of the survey (the POCS, the Canadian English version) was adapted into two additional versions: a French Canadian version (Questionnaire sur compétences des agents de libération; QCALC; Appendix C) for use by French-speaking POs in Canada, and a U.S. version (POCS-USV; Appendix D) suitable for use by American POs in Iowa. Following a short description of the composition of the final version of the POCS, a brief overview of the rationale and processes involved in its development will be provided.

POCS composition. The first part of the POCS elicited background information such as participants' gender, age, highest level of education and area of study, the region and setting in which they work, the number of years they have worked as a parole officer, and the number of years they have worked in corrections. These introductory questions are important given that many of the questions of interest for the present study require examining the relationship between these characteristics and scores on the POCS.

The second section of the POCS contains four separate ranking scales. Two of the scales have six items, while the other two have seven items. POs are asked to rank-order a series of statements, based on how relevant they feel each is within the context of their job. The statements included in these scales describe different behaviours and tasks that POs would be expected to engage in while supervising offenders, and are intended to assess PO attitudes and values regarding correctional practice.

The next section is comprised of four situational vignettes, each of which provides a brief description of a hypothetical offender, and includes information about their risk level, needs, index offence, and criminal history. For each case, POs are asked to provide the most appropriate response to a series of follow-up questions. This section is intended to assess PO skill, and vignettes were deliberately chosen over other forms of questions for this purpose. Marrelli, Tondora, and Hoge (2005) define skill as the ability of an individual to perform a task, either mental or physical, in order to achieve a specified outcome. Moreover, Marrelli et al. (2005) note that unlike abilities, which imply a degree of natural aptitude, skills can be learned through experience and practice. As such, vignettes are appropriate for assessing PO skill because they require participating POs to accomplish a task with a specified outcome, and because this is something that POs will have learned to do.

The fourth, and final section of the survey is comprised of multiple choice and true or false questions reflecting CSC's five areas of PO competency. This section was designed to assess PO knowledge. Just as with the vignettes, multiple choice and true or false questions were intentionally chosen for this section. Knowledge, while difficult to define precisely as it involves both abstract and concrete elements, can, nonetheless, be seen to include elements of the following: an understanding, awareness, or information about the facts, details, rules, concepts, theories, guidelines, procedures, or processes requires to successfully perform a given task (Marrelli et al., 2005). Consequently, multiple choice and true or false questions were deemed appropriate.

Initial development. As the current study was originally intended to focus solely on Canadian POs, an important first step was to communicate with collaborators at the

CSC, who had agreed to participate in the project. Concurrently, existing literature in the field of corrections and reintegration was reviewed in order to identify empirically supported PO skills, knowledge, and competencies. As such, the ranking scales, questions and vignettes that were ultimately included in the survey are largely predicated on the findings of empirically validated research (e.g., Bonta et al., 2011; Robinson et al., 2011) that have shown which PO skills and knowledge yield better client outcomes, and are in keeping with the PO competencies prioritized by the Operations Sector of the CSC.

The CSC was able to provide a draft of a document describing the competency profile of a CSC PO, which was used as a starting point with respect to the types of questions and content that should be included. The areas of PO competency identified and prioritized by the Correctional Service of Canada's Operations Sector (and therefore the main areas that will be taken into account in the current study) are organized in terms of five key domains: (1) Analysis, (2) Risk Assessment, (3) Risk Management, (4) Supervision, and (5) Communication. A short description of each follows.

CSC's five areas of competency.

Analysis. Analysis entails the ability to effectively integrate different types of information from a variety of sources, process it efficiently, and make appropriate decisions or recommendations. Broadly, POs should be able to identify relevant sources of information, differentiate essential details, and be able to support all proposed courses of action. They should also be knowledgeable with respect to relevant policies, legislation, and procedures.

Risk assessment. Risk assessment involves the ability to accurately determine the unique risk level and needs of individual offenders in order to achieve an appropriate

balance between public safety and offender rehabilitation. POs should be cognizant of, and able to apply, the RNR principles. This involves the use of appropriate risk assessment tools, an understanding of the relative importance of static and dynamic risk factors, and the ability to identify a client's most relevant criminogenic needs.

Risk management. Risk management involves being able to apply the above-noted principles in practice. POs should use their knowledge of RNR principles to inform case planning and the subsequent management of offenders in the community. As such, POs should be aware of both the most suitable intervention types and delivery methods, and the most salient and proximal indicators of risk for recidivism for diverse types of offenders.

Supervision. Broadly, supervision describes the ongoing process of monitoring an offender's progress and being able to readjust intervention and supervision strategies as needed. It entails POs' capacity to effectively integrate knowledge of relevant laws, policies, legislation, and resources (e.g., criminal justice partners) into the ongoing offender management process. Also, supervision involves a relational component; specifically, POs' ability to interact with both other staff members and offenders in a professional, respectful way. With respect to offenders, POs should model appropriate prosocial behaviour, use their position of authority appropriately, build offender engagement in supervision and treatment, and take the special needs of different groups of offenders (i.e., women, aboriginal peoples, persons requiring additional mental health care, etc.) into consideration.

Communication. Communication is POs' ability to receive and convey information effectively, verbally, nonverbally, and in writing. POs should be able to

distinguish relevant sources of information, and adapt their communication style to suit the intended recipient (i.e., an offender, the PBC). POs should maintain frequent and open communication with offenders, engage in active listening, and involve the offender in proceedings in order to ensure that they understand the conditions and expectations of supervision. Note that in the actual survey, questions pertaining to both supervision and knowledge are presented in the same subsection.

The above five areas were then considered in conjunction with broader surrounding literature in order to create survey questions suitable for assessing skills, knowledge, and competencies of CSC POs. Here, it is important to note that some of the competencies pertaining to POs being agents of change identified in recent research are beyond the scope of the present study as they are not currently emphasized in the CSC.

Survey Revisions. Once the first draft of the survey had been completed, it was sent to three corrections professionals at CSC for review. They were able to provide feedback about the content and relative difficulty of the survey questions, which led to several modifications, including the removal of questions that were deemed too politicized, and some minor edits to wording. Overall, the main concern raised was that the survey was too long, and that participation and completion rates would suffer as a result. As the vignettes section had been identified as being particularly time-consuming, this seemed to be the best area to target for reduction. The first draft of the survey included 10 vignettes, since reduced to four.

In order to determine which vignettes should be kept, the CSC was again solicited for feedback. With the assistance of a colleague, the vignettes were distributed to existing POs ($n = 5$), who evaluated the quality and general validity of each individual

vignette by rating them on the following three criteria: 1) commonness (how common is the type of case presented in the vignette?), 2) representativeness (how representative of typical offenders is the offender described in the vignette?), and 3) importance (how important is it for POs to understand how to deal with the type of case presented?). POs were asked to rate each of the above criteria for each vignette on a scale of 1-10 (with 1 being lowest and 10 being highest). Vignettes were then given an overall score based on the average scores of the three criteria, and the four with the highest overall scores were retained.

The final revision to the POCS occurred following my prospectus defense. Due to concern from committee members that the scales intended to assess PO attitudes and values would not produce any variability, the original two scales were divided into four. Furthermore, instructions were modified so that POs would be required to rank order the statements as opposed simply rating them, as having to rank-order the statements eliminates the possibility that respondents would indicate that each element was of great importance.

French and American versions. The finalized POCS was sent to the CSC, who had the survey and associated material translated into French. This was done in order to facilitate the participation of Canadian POs whose first language was French. The result was the Questionnaire sur les compétences des agents de libération conditionnelles (QCALC). Given that the survey was translated, content and overall format remained unchanged.

The creation of an American version of the POCS was not part of the project originally. However, as alluded to above, anticipated low sample size lead to the decision

to adapt the survey, and administer it in other jurisdictions to American POs. Briefly, collecting data in the U.S. was a back-up plan, as changes at the level of Canadian Federal Government raised doubts about whether or not it would be possible to collect any data on Canadian POs. In the end, a number of Canadian POs did complete the survey, but the response rate was much lower than initially expected or desired. Nevertheless, the American version of the POCS (POCS-USV) had been created and administered in the meantime.

While changes were relatively minimal, given the highly Canada-specific nature of the content of the original POCS, several adaptations were required in order to develop the POCS-USV. First, changes were made to the demographic section. Canadian regions were removed. Next, the options under the ‘work setting’ demographic question were also changed to more accurately reflect terminology that U.S. respondents would be familiar with. Likewise, the entire survey was reviewed and updated to better reflect language used in the American correctional system. Many specific terms were changed (i.e., ‘institutional PO’ became ‘institutional case manager’), and references to Canada-specific legislation were replaced with American equivalents where possible.

The changes required in the vignettes section were minimal overall, and related only to the question asking POs to choose appropriate assessment tools for each hypothetical offender. Given that tools like the Static Factor Assessment (SFA) and the Custody Rating Scale (CRS) are not used in the U.S., they were removed and replaced with appropriate options. The knowledge section, however, required more substantial alterations. Eight of the questions required modification, though for seven of the eight questions, it was possible to preserve the intent or purpose. One question was modifiable,

though the change (replacing ‘Aboriginal offenders’ with ‘women offenders’) impedes comparing results from the two surveys directly. Unfortunately, one question from the original POCS had to be dropped, as it was not possible to alter the question and available responses without completing changing what was being asked. Therefore, though the POCS-USV is largely comparable to the POCS, slight differences in content and scoring preclude direct comparisons across the two surveys and may have limited generalizability of findings.

Once the changes had been made, feedback on the POCS-USV draft was requested from colleagues working in corrections in the U.S. Comments from the research coordinators working at the IDOC led to further minor revisions, primarily with respect to terminology.

Scoring of the POCS. Information gathered in the demographic section and on the rating scales variables was not scored per se, but was used to gather supplemental information about POs. Basic descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation, frequencies, etc.) were calculated for each of the demographic variables, and this information was used to explore central research questions and hypotheses. For instance, the gender variable was used to examine whether or not males or females performed differently on the POCS.

Total scores on the POCS, termed the overall competency score for the purpose of this study, were based on the aggregated scores of the vignettes (the skill component) and questions (the knowledge component). For all cases, each of the four vignettes was scored independently, so as to produce a total score per vignette. Further, as the vignettes included text fields allowing participants to list appropriate risk assessment tools, all

vignettes were scored manually. Once all four vignettes had been scored, these scores were summed in order to produce an overall vignette, or skill, score. As each vignette was scored out of a possible seven points, the maximum score that could be achieved was 28.

Scoring of the knowledge questions was more straightforward. As all questions involved forced-choice responses and had definitive right and wrong answers, defined with Dr. Ralph Serin's supervision, SPSS was used to facilitate the scoring of this section. New variables were created for each question; correct answers were coded as '1' and incorrect answers were coded as '0'. Scores were calculated for each of the four knowledge subscales (analysis, risk assessment, risk management, and supervision and communication) before aggregating to yield an overall score on the knowledge questions. Finally, the scores on the skill and knowledge sections were combined in order to produce an overall POCS score.

Here it is important to note that there are 37 questions in knowledge section of the Canadian survey, but only 36 in the American version. As mentioned above, this was due to inability to suitably adapt the content of one of the original questions for use with an American sample. As such, Canadian participants could achieve a maximum POCS score of 65, whereas for American participants, the maximum score was 64.

Analytic Strategies

Study 1.

Psychometrics. Given that first hypothesis for the current study was that the knowledge questions section of the POCS would demonstrate acceptable psychometric properties, several analyses were necessary. It is important to note that the current study

did not propose to validate the POCS, but rather to obtain normative competency data on a large sample of Canadian POs. Additionally, findings from the current study were primarily used to inform the refinement of the current POCS in order to improve upon the current content and structure.

To determine if a scale possesses adequate reliability, the calculation of several indices was required. Reliability of a scale, its subscales (as well as the reliability of the items within each of the four subscales), and the associated internal consistency for each, are often assessed using Cronbach's alpha. Given that the POCS is in initial developmental stages, this index would prove helpful with respect to identifying and suggesting items that correlate most strongly with the broader subscale constructs for retention. Cronbach's alpha ranges from 0 to 1, with coefficients closer to 1 representing a greater degree of internal consistency. Though there is some disagreement over what level of Cronbach's alpha is required to demonstrate reliability, general convention stipulates that .70 (though ideally higher) is an acceptable standard (Salkind & Green, 2011).

Further, inter-item correlations and the corresponding score distributions were examined before making conclusions about the reliability of the POCS. Customarily, inter-item correlations should exceed .30, and items failing to reach this cut-off should be considered for removal from the survey (Field, 2000).

Factor structure. Broadly, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is used to identify underlying latent constructs, leading to an understanding of the structure of correlations among variables of interest in a data set (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). In other words, EFA helps organize data by grouping correlated variables together

into a set of overarching factors, each of which is relatively independent of the others (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). As noted by Tabachnick & Fidell (2001), performing EFA during early stages of research can assist in the generation and exploration of hypotheses pertaining to how variables of interest are related.

At the onset of this research, the use of EFA was intended to assess the adequacy of the present structure of the POCS, though, due to complications during data collection regarding sample size, it was not possible to conduct these analyses. A comprehensive description of the barriers precluding this analysis is provided.

Studies 2 and 3. As all four research questions and the second hypothesis were concerned with the relationships between demographic variables or variables surveying attitudes and values, and competency scores on the overall POCS (and its subscales), they were evaluated similarly.

Chi-square analyses were used for any comparisons involving only categorical variables, and independent samples *t*-tests and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests were conducted on categorical demographic variables, depending on whether or not the demographic variable in question had two or more categories. For example, *t*-tests were used to determine if males and females, who represent two independent groups, were significantly different in terms of their mean scores on the POCS. These variables were examined in relation to both total and subscale POCS scores. Given that numerous comparisons were required, corrections were made as necessary in order to control for family-wise error rate, and to minimize the risk posed by type I errors. Correlations were used to explore the relationship between continuously distributed demographic and attitudinal variables with linear distributions and competency scores on the POCS.

Results

Preliminary Data Screening

Prior to beginning analyses, data from both samples were screened thoroughly. First, participant data was reviewed in order to ensure consistency. Several important discrepancies in format were identified for the variables age, years working as a PO, and years working in corrections, and slight changes were made in order to ensure consistency and to facilitate analyses (e.g., '6 and a half years' was entered as '6.5'). Following these adjustments, these variables were recoded into numerical variables.

With the exception of the age, years worked as a PO, and years working in corrections variables, no errors were detected. As participants were required to choose from predetermined options for most of the remaining variables of interest, impossible values and human error in data entry were not a large issue.

Next, a brief visual inspection of both data sets was conducted. Although existing data had been entered accurately, a cursory examination revealed large amounts of missing data in both the Canadian and American data sets. In many cases, participants had missed or skipped questions throughout the surveys, or had simply quit partway through, leaving long series of missing values. While this was common across both the Canadian and America surveys, the extensiveness and pattern of missing data differed. As such, methods for dealing with the missing data will be discussed independently.

Sample-Specific Data Screening and Descriptive Information

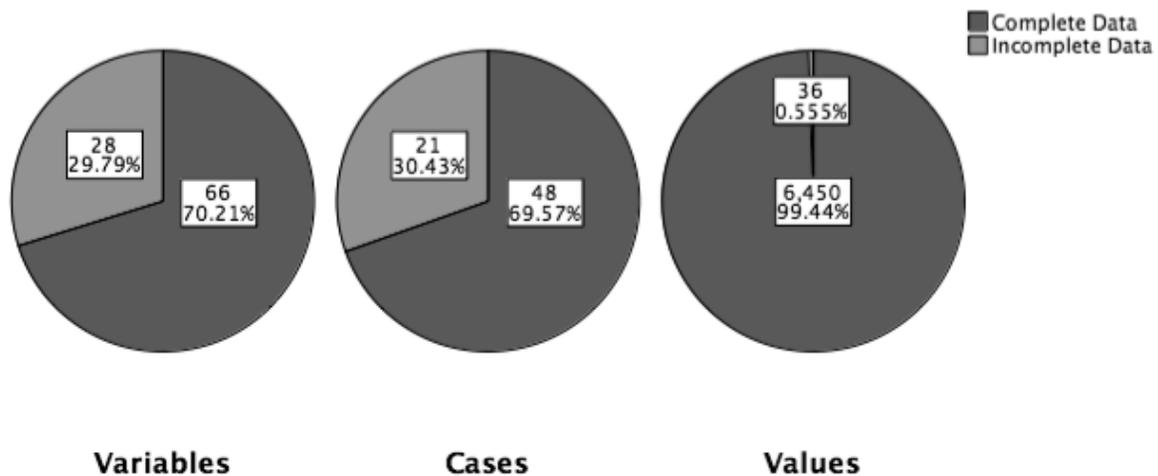
Canadian Sample.

Missing data. After performing an Analyze Patterns Analysis (APA) for missing values (SPSS 21.0), only one variable (i.e., "which of the following need areas is not

typically more serious/salient for Aboriginal offenders”) had more than 5% missing values (5.8%), with four participants failing to provide an answer. In all, 21 cases and 28 variables were missing at least one value, totaling 36 missing values across the entire data set. See Figure 1 for a summary of the missing data across variables, cases, and total values.

Figure 1

Missing Values – Canadian Sample



Given the already small sample size, it was desirable to preserve as many cases as possible. Moreover, many of the variables with missing values were either key demographic variables, or variables intended for inclusion in factor analysis; as such, no cases were deleted outright. See Appendix E for a complete list of variables with missing values.

Generally speaking, several options exist for dealing with missing data. One of the default options for dealing with missing data is to simply delete the cases or variables with missing values. While this may be a suitable option when dealing with large data

sets with few missing values, when samples are smaller, or when missing values are scattered throughout cases and variables, this method can lead to substantial losses in data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Furthermore, if the missing values are not randomly distributed throughout the data, outright deletion can result in distortions in the sample and biased parameter estimates (Carpenter & Kenward, 2012).

A second, and arguably better option is to impute (estimate) the missing values to preserve existing cases and variables. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) list several options used for estimating values, including using prior knowledge to insert plausible values, inserting mean values, using regression, and multiple imputation. While mean substitution has been used extensively in the past, it can lead to reduced variability in the sample (Field, 2000; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001), and was therefore not desirable here.

Multiple imputation is a desirable strategy for dealing with missing data as it prevents loss of cases or variables, does not reduce sampling variability (Statistical Solutions, 1997), and it does not strictly require that data be missing randomly (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). As the name implies, multiple imputation involves the creation of several different hypothetical, or imputed, data sets, the values from which can then be averaged. Multiple imputation has risen in popularity in recent research, with many authors noting that it can still be used effectively when the percentage of missing data is very high (Carpenter & Kenward, 2012; Rubin, 2004; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Moreover, an examination by Rubin (2004) suggests that multiple imputation is appropriate for dealing with survey nonresponse, as is the case here. Given all of the above reasons, multiple imputation was selected as the method to deal with missing values. Specifically, the multiple imputation function available through SPSS was used.

Authors (i.e., Bodner, 2008; Graham, Olchowski, & Gilreath, 2007; Royston & White, 2011), suggests that the number of imputations used should match or exceed the percentage of missing data, as fewer can lead to unstable standard error estimates. Accordingly, for the Canadian sample, which was missing up to 6% of the values on particular variables, 10 imputations were used to err on the side of caution. The SPSS imputation procedure also permits delineation of minimum and maximum values for each variable prior to imputation, thus simplifying the process further. All missing values were successfully replaced.

Data entry checks. Before proceeding with additional screening procedures, values across all items as well as total POCS, and subscales scores were verified to ensure that they were within a valid range. Moreover, as the vignettes were scored manually and values were entered by hand, these items were carefully cross-referenced with the original scoring sheet, to ensure that no data-entry errors had occurred. No errors were identified. Descriptive information for the range of values for POCS items and subscales is presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Range of Values Across POCS Items and Subscales – Canadian Sample

Variable	Valid Range	Min	Max
Vignettes (Skill) – Total Score	0 – 28	8	20
Vignette 1 Score- Mike	0 – 7	2	7
Vignette 2 Score- Robert	0 – 7	0	5
Vignette 3 Score - Alison	0 – 7	1	6
Vignette 4 Score- Jesse	0 – 7	1	7
Analysis – Total Score	0 – 8	4	8
Item 1	1 – 5	1	5
Item 2	1 – 4	1	4
Item 3	1 – 5	5	5
Item 4	1 – 2	1	1

Table continues...

Table 3. <i>Continued...</i>			
Item 5	1 – 2	1	2
Item 6	1 – 2	1	2
Item 7	1 – 2	1	1
Item 8	1 – 4	1	4
Risk Assessment – Total Score	0 – 10	3	10
Item 1	1 – 2	1	2
Item 2	1 – 5	1	3
Item 3	1 – 5	1	4
Item 4	1 – 5	1	5
Item 5	1 – 2	1	2
Item 6	1 – 4	1	4
Item 7	1 – 2	1	2
Item 8	1 – 2	1	2
Item 9	1 – 2	1	2
Item 10	1 – 2	1	2
Risk Management – Total Score	0 – 11	2	9
Item 1	1 – 2	1	2
Item 2	1 – 4	1	4
Item 3	1 – 5	1	5
Item 4	1 – 4	1	4
Item 5	1 – 4	1	4
Item 6	1 – 2	1	2
Item 7	1 – 2	1	2
Item 8	1 – 4	1	4
Item 9	1 – 4	1	4
Item 10	1 – 4	1	4
Item 11	1 – 5	1	5
Supervision & Communication – Total Score	0 – 8	4	8
Item 1	1 – 2	1	2
Item 2	1 – 4	1	4
Item 3	1 – 2	1	2
Item 4	1 – 2	1	2
Item 5	1 – 5	2	5
Item 6	1 – 4	1	4
Item 7	1 – 4	2	4
Item 8	1 – 4	1	4
Questions (Knowledge) – Total Score	0 – 37	19	32
POCS – Total Score	0 – 65	30	51

Assumptions. The following assumptions were examined across the POCS subscales.

Normality. As normality is one of the primary assumptions underlying most analyses, it was the first assumption examined. Each variable was examined for univariate normality. Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests indicated that that most variables, with the exception of the knowledge subscale scores, and overall POCS scores, were non-normal, as evidenced by the tests reaching significance at $p < .05$. However, Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) note that Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests can be overly sensitive, and recommend using additional assessments as well. Q-Q plots and histograms were generated for visual inspection, and skewness and kurtosis ratios were calculated by dividing the skewness and kurtosis values by their respective standard errors. A visual examination of the graphs revealed no noticeable deviations from normality, which was confirmed by the standardized skewness and kurtosis ratios. Using a conservative alpha level of .001, none of the ratios exceeded the critical value of ± 3.29 (two-tailed).

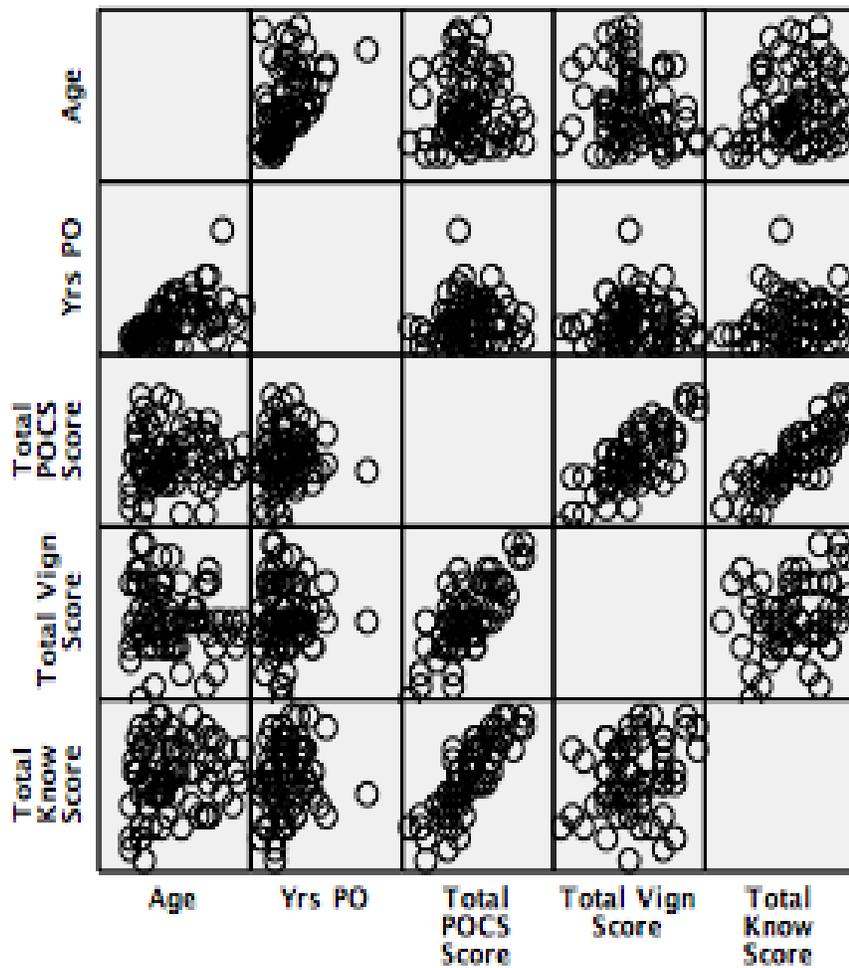
Univariate outliers. Though outliers were unlikely given that all POCS and subscale scores were within valid ranges, a quick check was performed anyway, as these extreme values, or “outliers” can influence the outcome of analyses. Accordingly, individual z -scores were calculated for all variables to be included in main analyses. These z -scores were then examined for any values exceeding an absolute value of ± 3.29 , as per the recommendations of Tabachnick & Fidell (2001). No outliers were found.

Linearity. Linearity assumes that the relationship between two variables is best represented as a straight line, and is important to test for as it is a fundamental underlying assumption of numerous analyses germane to this study (i.e., Pearson’s r correlations). Bivariate scatterplots were inspected in order to assess linearity and homoscedasticity. The plots indicated no cases of non-linearity or heteroscedasticity. Figure 2, which

depicts the relationship between age, years as a PO, POCS scores, overall vignette scores, and overall knowledge question scores, is representative.

Figure 2

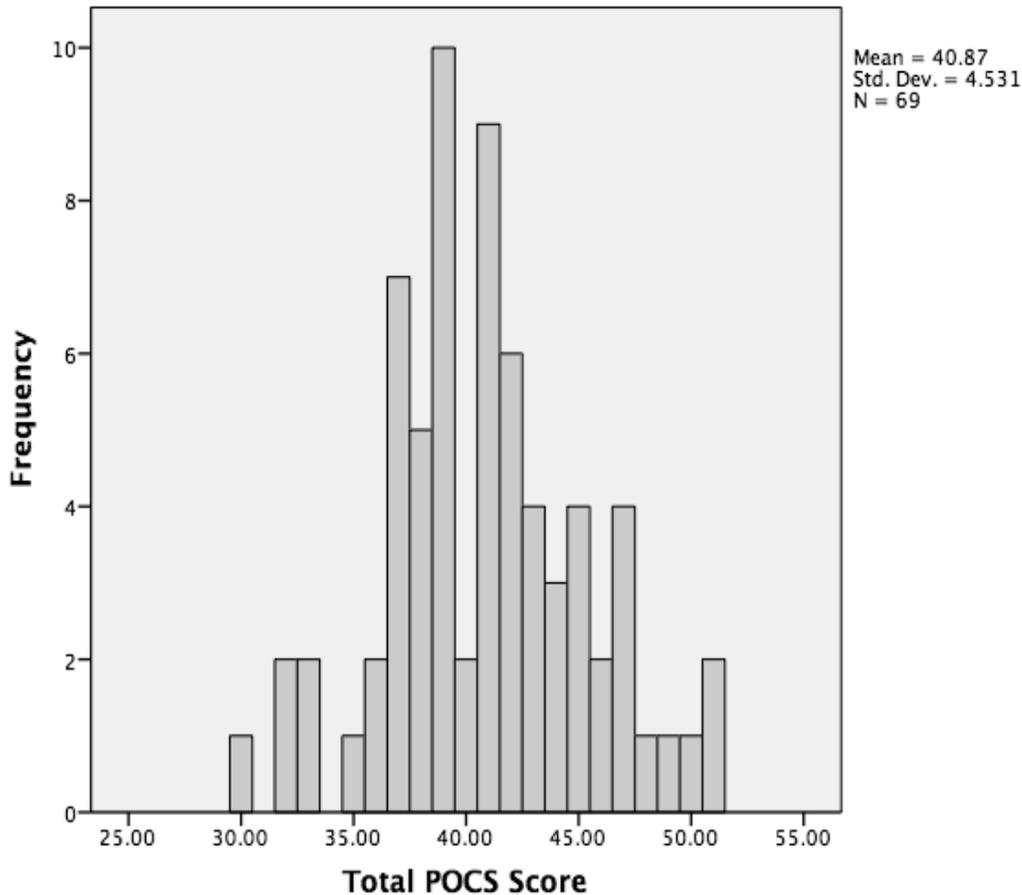
Linearity and homoscedasticity – Canadian Sample



Distribution of POCS scores. In total, POCS scores were calculated for 69 Canadian POs. As can be seen in Figure 3, the average score on the POCS was just below 41 ($M = 40.87$), or 62.88% correct.

Figure 3

Distribution of Overall POCS Scores for Canadian POs



A summary of scores for each of the items and subscales used to calculate the overall POCS score is provided in Table 4. POs performed better on the knowledge testing questions ($M = 26.57$, $SD = 3.13$; 71.81% correct) than they did on the skill section, as evidenced by average vignette scores ($M = 14.30$, $SD = 2.57$; 51.07% correct). Of the four vignettes, POs appeared to struggle the most with the second vignette, which presented the case of Robert, an offender with mental illness. For this particular case, POs chose the most appropriate response on average only 38.86% of the time.

Table 4

Mean Scores Across POCS Items and Subscales – Canadian Sample

Variable	Possible Score	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	% Correct
Vignettes (Skill) – Total Score	0 – 28	14.30	2.57	51.07
Vignette 1 Score- Mike	0 – 7	4.19	1.08	59.86
Vignette 2 Score- Robert	0 – 7	2.72	1.08	38.86
Vignette 3 Score - Alison	0 – 7	3.48	1.08	49.71
Vignette 4 Score- Jesse	0 – 7	3.91	1.01	55.86
Analysis – Total Score	0 – 8	6.49	0.98	81.13
Item 1		3.00	0.62	88.40
Item 2		2.33	1.30	42.00
Item 3		5.00	.00	100.00
Item 4		1.00	.00	100.00
Item 5		1.22	0.42	78.30
Item 6		1.59	0.50	59.40
Item 7		1.00	.00	100.00
Item 8		2.83	0.62	81.20
Risk Assessment – Total Score	0 – 10	6.77	1.54	67.70
Item 1		1.10	0.30	89.90
Item 2		2.93	0.36	95.70
Item 3		3.94	0.38	97.10
Item 4		3.90	1.25	30.40
Item 5		1.20	0.41	79.70
Item 6		2.01	0.88	62.30
Item 7		1.35	0.48	65.20
Item 8		1.84	0.37	15.90
Item 9		1.45	0.50	44.90
Item 10		1.04	0.21	95.70
Risk Management – Total Score	0 – 11	6.46	1.67	58.73
Item 1		1.70	0.46	69.90
Item 2		3.57	0.72	68.10
Item 3		4.10	1.17	46.40
Item 4		2.20	0.58	79.70
Item 5		2.91	1.00	100.00
Item 6		1.68	0.47	68.10
Item 7		1.04	0.21	95.70
Item 8		1.80	1.16	15.90
Item 9		2.65	0.64	65.20
Item 10		2.87	0.57	79.70
Item 11		3.54	0.70	58.00

Table continues...

Table 4. *Continued...*

Supervision & Communication – Total Score	0 – 8	6.84	1.05	85.50
Item 1		1.03	0.17	97.10
Item 2		1.71	1.23	72.50
Item 3		1.01	0.12	98.60
Item 4		1.96	0.21	95.70
Item 5		2.10	0.52	95.70
Item 6		2.81	0.60	78.30
Item 7		2.99	0.21	95.70
Item 8		1.71	0.91	50.70
Questions (Knowledge) – Total Score	0 – 37	26.57	3.13	71.81
POCS – Total Score	0 – 65	40.87	4.53	62.88

To simplify the presentation of POCS total scores, they were recoded into a new variable, which split the cases into four different groups based on the percent of correct answers, with 1 representing the group with the lowest scores, and 4 representing the group with the highest scores. As there were no scores exceeding 80%, the new groups are as follows: 1) scores up to 50%; 2) scores between 50 and 60%; 3) scores between 60 and 70%; and 4) scores between 70 and 80%. As can be seen by Table 5, which shows the relative frequency of POs scoring in each group, those POs scoring between 60 and 70% represent the largest group, representing 55.1% of all cases.

Table 5

POCS Scores by Percentage of Correct Answers

	Frequency	%	Cumulative %
less than 50%	3	4.3	4.3
50-60%	17	24.6	29.0
60-70%	38	55.1	84.1
70-80%	11	15.9	100.0
Total	69	100.0	---

Description of ranking scale frequencies. Having used ranking scales to assess attitudes and values toward particular aspects of the PO role, observed frequencies were more difficult to interpret and to intuitively present. Notwithstanding, the following tables provide an overview of each of the four separate scales by presenting the average importance ascribed to each of the included items.

When completing the ranking scales, POs were asked to drag and drop the items into position according to the importance they attributed to each. Items deemed most important were placed at the top, which was equivalent to a rank of ‘1’ or ‘most important’. Therefore, lower means on items indicate a higher level of perceived importance, averaged across all 69 POs in the sample. Conversely, items with higher means were generally considered to be lesser priorities.

Table 6 summarizes the relative importance that POs attributed to the roles or tasks presented in the first ranking scale within the context of their job. POs clearly felt that “communicating expectations and conditions of incarceration and supervision clearly...” was a priority, as this item was ranked first most frequently ($M = 1.78$, $SD = 1.60$). The second highest priority was "getting the offender to see the difference between where their life is now and where they want to be in the future" ($M = 2.99$, $SD = 1.60$). The remaining four items were consistently evaluated as being of moderate importance, though notably, no POs indicated that “providing opportunities that allow the offender to comment on their own progress” was of greatest importance, as it was never given a rank of ‘1’.

Table 6

Ranking Scale #1 – Canadian Sample

Ranking Scale #1	<i>N</i>	Min	Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>1 = most important, 6 = least</i>					
Communicating expectations and conditions of incarceration or supervision clearly to offender.	69	1	6	1.78	1.60
Getting the offender to see the difference between where their life is now and where they want to be in the future.	69	1	6	2.99	1.60
Reiterating to the offender an area that warrants change.	69	1	6	3.42	1.49
Praising the offender for successful completion of a task or for achieving a goal.	69	1	6	4.04	1.50
Providing opportunities that allow the offender to comment on their progress.	69	2	6	4.25	1.08
Summarizing what the offender said to allow them to hear their own ideas.	69	1	6	4.52	1.36

Overall, results for the second ranking scale (displayed in Table 7) are less disparate. Nevertheless, it can be seen that “getting the offender to discuss change” was rated as the highest priority when averaged across all of the responses ($M = 2.45$, $SD = 1.48$). Items describing the reviewing of case plans or behaviour contracts were ascribed the least overall importance, receiving average ranks of $M = 4.13$ ($SD = 1.89$) and $M = 4.38$ ($SD = 1.75$), though as the standard deviations for both these items were relatively high, their relative placement evidently varied.

Table 7

Ranking Scale #2 – Canadian Sample

Ranking Scale #2 <i>1 = most important, 6 = least</i>	<i>N</i>	Min	Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Getting the offender to discuss change.	69	1	6	2.45	1.48
Letting the offender know when they need to change their behaviour to avoid problems.	69	1	6	3.10	1.43
Asking the offender to identify different ways that they could handle a difficult situation in the future.	69	1	6	3.14	1.47
Providing the offender with feedback on their progress.	69	1	6	3.80	1.44
Providing offenders with a written care plan.	69	1	6	4.13	1.89
Establishing or reviewing a behavioural contract for case planning.	69	1	6	4.38	1.75

Table 8 depicts the results for the third ranking scale. Interestingly, while POs attributed the most overall importance to “being aware of relevant legislation...” and “understanding procedural information”, with $M = 2.57$ ($SD = 1.81$) and $M = 3.49$ ($SD = 1.69$) respectively, “being aware of current/ up-to-date research”, which, arguably is used to inform policy and procedure, was believed to be the least important of the seven items in this scale, receiving a mean importance rating of $M = 6.45$ ($SD = 1.15$). Moreover, the results from this ranking scale are interesting, as most of the items had means in the middle of the range and moderately high standard deviations, suggesting that POs may have found it particularly difficult to rank the items in this scale.

Table 8

Ranking Scale #3 – Canadian Sample

Ranking Scale # 3 <i>1 = most important, 7 = least</i>	<i>N</i>	Min	Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Being aware of relevant legislation (i.e. Immigration, Access to Information and Privacy Act)	69	1	7	2.57	1.81
Understanding of procedural information	69	1	7	3.49	1.69
Being familiar with effective correctional interventions/programs	69	1	7	3.70	1.90
Using a variety of supervision strategies	69	1	7	3.74	1.84
Verifying offender-reported information	69	1	7	3.86	1.63
Being aware of criminal justice partners such as community resources	69	1	7	4.20	1.61
Being aware of current/up-to-date research	69	1	7	6.45	1.15

Results from the fourth and final ranking scale are presented in Table 9. Findings from this ranking scale are slightly concerning, as many of the role components that would fall under the umbrella of CCPs (developing a positive relationship with the offender, adapting the supervision approach in order to meet changing needs of the offender, and role-modeling prosocial behaviours; Bonta, et al., 2008) were ranked as being the least important. Specifically, “role-modeling prosocial behavior” received a mean ranking of 5.28 ($SD = 1.81$), which suggests that this is not a priority for POs in the sample. Though not surprising given similar findings by Bonta et al. (2008), who note that this was one of the subcomponents of CCP used least frequently by POs surveyed in their study, it does, nonetheless, provide insight into POs beliefs with respect to the best use of time when interacting with clients.

Table 9

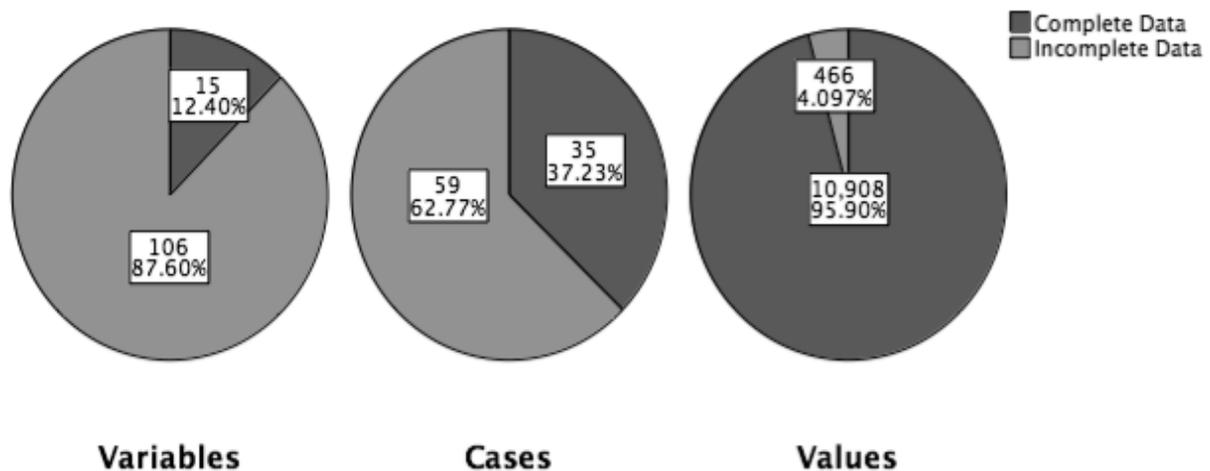
Ranking Scale #4 – Canadian Sample

Ranking Scale #4 <i>1 = most important, 7 = least</i>	<i>N</i>	Min	Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Understanding offenders' offence cycles (behavioural chain)	69	1	6	2.59	1.44
Providing a thorough analysis of information and rationale for conclusions/decisions	69	1	7	3.23	2.05
Assisting an offender in managing his/her risk	69	1	7	3.42	1.75
Developing a positive working relationship with the offender	69	1	7	3.88	1.90
Writing clear and concise reports	69	1	7	4.65	1.89
Changing the supervision approach in accordance with changes in behaviour or in response to new information	69	2	7	4.94	1.64
Role-modeling prosocial behaviour	69	1	7	5.28	1.81

American Sample.

Missing data. Again, an Analyze Patterns Analysis (APA) for missing values (SPSS 21.0) was performed for the American sample. While, only 4% of the values were missing overall, these values were missing across a wide array of cases and variables. Fifteen variables evidenced missing values, and 63% cases were missing at least one value (see Figure 4). Furthermore, nine variables were missing in excess of 10 values – see Appendix F for a complete list of missing variables.

Figure 4

Missing Values – American Sample

Given the similarities to Canadian data (i.e., small sample size and nature of the variables with missing values) multiple imputation was again selected as a strategy to deal with missing data.

Although less than 5% of the data was missing overall, some variables demonstrated much higher rates of missing values, with some cases missing almost 40%. Correspondingly, 40 imputations were used in order to estimate the missing data. Appropriate constraints (i.e., plausible minimum and maximum values) were specified prior to imputation, and all missing values were replaced successfully.

Data entry checks. Scores on all items included in the POCS-USV as well as its total, and subscale scores were verified to ensure that they were within a valid range. Again, American vignette scores were carefully cross-referenced with the scoring sheet, ensuring that all data had been entered accurately. Descriptive information for the range of values for POCS-USV items and subscales is presented in Table 10. This table is quite similar to Table 3 (i.e., the Canadian sample), presented above, however there are slight

differences in observed minimum and maximum values on some items. As well, as the POCS-USV contains one less item than the POCS (Canadian version), readers will note that the Supervision and Communication subscale of the Knowledge section contains one fewer item, thus slightly altering possible scores.

Table 10

Range of Values Across POCS-USV Items and Subscales – American Sample

Variable	Valid Range	Min	Max
Vignettes (Skill) – Total Score	0 – 28	10	22
Vignette 1 Score- Mike	0 – 7	2	6
Vignette 2 Score- Robert	0 – 7	1	6
Vignette 3 Score - Alison	0 – 7	2	6
Vignette 4 Score- Jesse	0 – 7	3	7
Analysis – Total Score	0 – 8	3	8
Item 1	1 – 5	1	5
Item 2	1 – 4	1	4
Item 3	1 – 5	1	5
Item 4	1 – 2	1	1
Item 5	1 – 2	1	2
Item 6	1 – 2	1	2
Item 7	1 – 2	1	2
Item 8	1 – 4	1	4
Risk Assessment – Total Score	0 – 10	3	9
Item 1	1 – 2	1	2
Item 2	1 – 5	1	5
Item 3	1 – 5	1	5
Item 4	1 – 5	1	5
Item 5	1 – 2	1	2
Item 6	1 – 4	1	4
Item 7	1 – 2	1	2
Item 8	1 – 2	1	2
Item 9	1 – 2	1	2
Item 10	1 – 2	1	2
Risk Management – Total Score	1 – 11	1	10
Item 1	1 – 2	1	2
Item 2	1 – 5	1	5
Item 3	1 – 5	1	5
Item 4	1 – 5	1	5
Item 5	1 – 2	1	2

Table continues...

Item 6	1 – 2	1	2
Item 7	1 – 2	1	2
Item 8	1 – 4	1	4
Item 9	1 – 4	1	4
Item 10	1 – 4	1	4
Item 11	1 – 5	1	5
Supervision & Communication – Total Score	0 – 7	3	7
Item 1	1 – 2	1	2
Item 2	1 – 4	1	4
Item 3	1 – 2	1	2
Item 4	1 – 2	1	2
Item 5	1 – 5	1	5
Item 6	1 – 4	1	4
Item 7	1 – 4	1	4
Questions (Knowledge) – Total Score	0 – 36	14	30
POCS – Total Score	0 – 64	28	49

Assumptions.

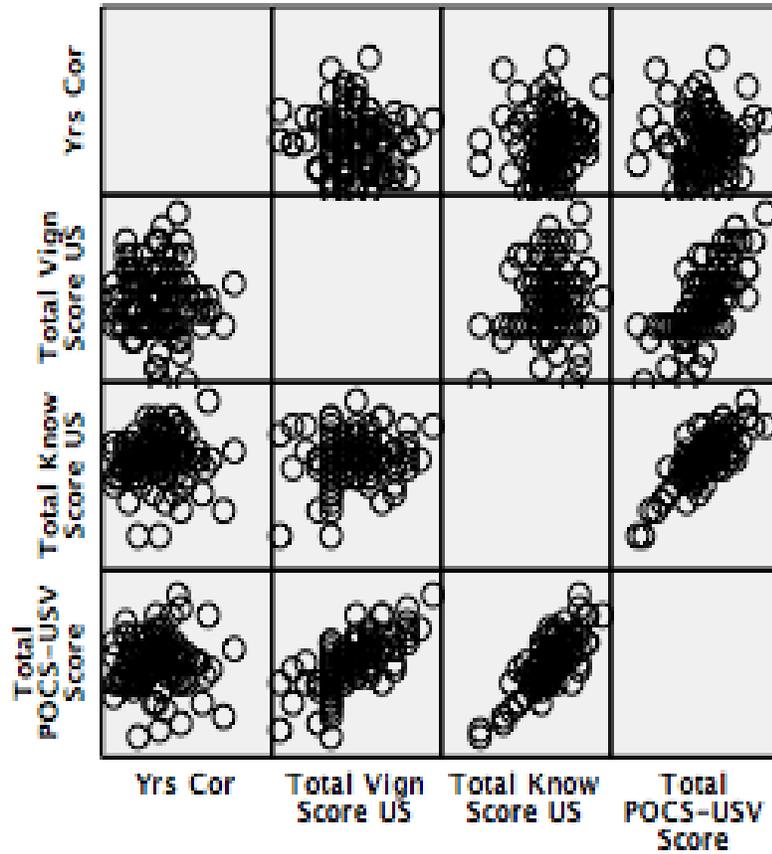
Normality. Normality was visually examined using histograms, and Q-Q plots, and assessed statistically using Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests indicated that all of the POCS-USV subscale variables were non-normal ($p \leq .001$). The POCS-USV total score variable was still considered non-normal, but at $p < .05$. In order to further examine the degree of non-normality present in the distributions of these variables, skewness and kurtosis ratios were calculated. Skewness ratios for scores on Vignette 2, and on the supervision and communication subscale were slightly in excess of the absolute value of ± 3.29 , however Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) note that with larger samples of around 100 or higher, even statistically significant skewness is often not problematic, as it does not represent a substantial enough deviation from normality for influence analyses. Prior to deciding how to deal with the two slightly skewed variables, tests for the presence of outliers were performed, as extreme scores can potentially impact normality.

Univariate outliers. To assess whether or not any outliers were present, individual z -scores were calculated for all variables to be included in main analyses. As per the recommendations of Tabachnick & Fidell (2001), these z -scores were then examined for any values exceeding an absolute value of ± 3.29 . Several outliers were identified. Both the scores on the first or second vignette yielded one outlier each, as did the risk management, and supervisions and communication subscales. Given that the outlying scores represented plausible, if extreme values, on each of the subscales, the cases were not deleted outright. In cases such as this, Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) present alteration of such scores as an alternative, and that option was selected here. Outlying scores on each of the four variables listed above were brought within range of the next most extreme score. This was done in order to reduce the overall impact of the outliers while still preserving their position relative to other scores in the distribution. Once the outliers had been dealt with, normality was re-evaluated. Skewness and kurtosis ratios indicated that the distributions for the two previously problematic variables (the second vignette and the supervision and communication subscale) had been normalized.

Linearity. Bivariate scatterplots were inspected in order to assess linearity and homoscedasticity. The main concern when running analyses such as those proposed in this study is that data may be curvilinear or otherwise non-linear, which can be related to non-normality (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The plots showed no cases on non-linearity or heteroscedasticity, which was not surprising as normality had already been established. Figure 5, which depicts the relationship between years in corrections, POCS-USV scores, overall vignette scores, and overall knowledge question scores, is representative.

Figure 5

Linearity and homoscedasticity – American Sample



Distribution of POCS-USV Scores. A total of 94 scores were calculated for the POCS-USV and associated subscales. As demonstrated in Figure 6, the total percentage of correct answers on the POCS-USV was just over 61%, with the mean number of correct answers being 39.13 ($SD = 3.77$) out of a possible 64.

Figure 6

Distribution of Overall POCS-USV Scores for American POs

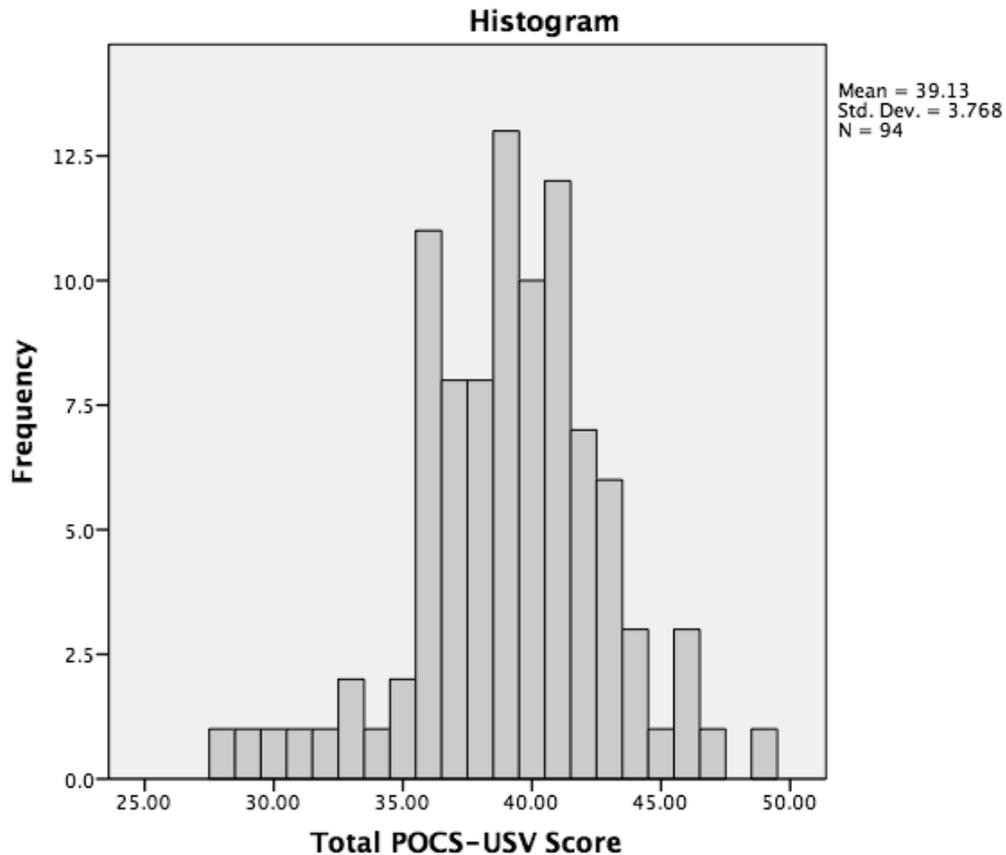


Table 11 presents a summary of the items and subscales collectively used to calculate the POCS-USV score. As with the Canadian sample, American POs scored higher on the questions intended to assess knowledge ($M = 23.23$, $SD = 2.83$; 64.53%) than they did on the skill, or vignettes, section ($M = 15.84$, $SD = 2.38$; 56.57%).

Likewise, American POs also struggled most with the vignette describing the hypothetical case of Robert, a mentally ill offender, choosing appropriate responses on average 43.71% of the time. POs provided the highest rate of correct responses to vignette four, suggesting a degree of familiarity with cases involving sex offenders.

Table 11

Mean Scores Across POCS Items and Subscales – American Sample

Variable	Possible Score	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	% Correct
Vignettes (Skill) – Total Score	0 – 28	15.84	2.38	56.57
Vignette 1 Score- Mike	0 – 7	3.93	0.83	56.14
Vignette 2 Score- Robert	0 – 7	3.07	1.18	43.71
Vignette 3 Score - Alison	0 – 7	3.66	1.00	52.43
Vignette 4 Score- Jesse	0 – 7	5.15	0.88	73.71
Analysis – Total Score	0 – 8	5.51	0.99	68.89
Item 1		3.26	0.79	63.83
Item 2		2.47	1.26	31.91
Item 3		4.74	0.79	89.36
Item 4		1.00	.00	100.00
Item 5		1.07	0.26	92.55
Item 6		1.28	0.45	27.66
Item 7		1.04	0.20	95.74
Item 8		3.10	0.79	49.47
Risk Assessment – Total Score	0 – 10	5.76	1.30	57.60
Item 1		1.02	0.15	97.87
Item 2		3.03	0.58	89.36
Item 3		3.85	1.30	39.36
Item 4		3.19	1.09	15.96
Item 5		1.16	0.37	83.30
Item 6		2.16	0.92	48.94
Item 7		1.54	0.50	45.74
Item 8		1.80	0.40	20.21
Item 9		1.40	0.49	40.43
Item 10		1.06	0.25	93.62
Risk Management – Total Score	0 – 11	6.30	1.71	57.27
Item 1		1.47	0.50	46.80
Item 2		3.66	0.71	79.79
Item 3		4.18	1.24	31.91
Item 4		2.09	0.65	76.60
Item 5		2.65	1.04	26.60
Item 6		1.44	0.50	43.62
Item 7		1.07	0.26	92.55
Item 8		1.87	1.10	26.60
Item 9		2.69	0.76	71.28
Item 10		3.05	0.59	74.47
Item 11		3.59	0.68	58.51

Table continues...

Table 11. *Continued...*

Supervision & Communication – Total Score	0 – 8	5.71	1.11	71.38
Item 1		1.11	0.31	89.36
Item 2		1.98	1.34	61.70
Item 3		1.01	0.10	98.94
Item 4		1.87	0.34	87.23
Item 5		2.19	0.66	84.04
Item 6		2.97	0.34	94.68
Item 7		1.62	0.79	52.13
Questions (Knowledge) – Total Score	0 – 36	23.23	2.83	64.53
POCS-USV – Total Score	0 – 64	39.07	3.78	61.05

POCS-USV scores were recoded to create a new variable comprised of four groups representing ranges of POCS-USV scores. The new variable divides POCS –USV scores into the following four groups: 1) scores up to 50%, 2) scores between 50 and 60%, 3) scores between 60 and 70%, and 4) scores between 70 and 80%. As can be seen by table 12, which shows the relative frequency of POs scoring in each group, those POs scoring between 60 and 70% represent the largest group, representing 54.2% of all cases.

Table 12

POCS-USV Score by Percentage of Correct Answers

	Frequency	%	Cumulative Percent
less than 50%	4	4.3	4.3
50-60%	33	35.1	39.4
60-70%	51	54.3	93.6
70-80%	6	6.4	100.0
Total	96	100.0	---

Description of Ranking Scale Frequencies. Items and relative frequencies from the four ranking scales are presented in the following tables. Recall from the Canadian sample, that lower means on items actually indicate higher perceived importance when averaged across the 94 POs in this sample. Participants were asked to order the

statements, which described components of the PO role, by placing those items they deemed priorities at the top of the list. Thus, the item as the top of the list was coded with a '1', the next item with a '2', and so on.

Table 13 shows the frequencies for PO responses to the first ranking scale. The item with the lowest mean referred to POs' responsibility to communicate expectations and conditions to their clients ($M = 2.44$, $SD = 1.95$), indicating that on average, this was the top priority for POs. However, given the standard deviation of nearly two for this item, it is evident that not all POs believed this to be most important. "Getting offenders to see the difference between where their life is now and where they want it to be in the future" was rated second most important ($M = 2.97$, $SD = 1.69$), and was closely followed by "praising the offender for successful completion of a task..." as demonstrated by the very slight mean difference for this item ($M = 3.03$, $SD = 1.38$). Although the remaining three items were ranked as lesser priorities overall, it is interesting to note that each item was ranked as the top priority by at least one PO.

Table 13

Ranking Scale #1 – American Sample

Ranking Scale #1	<i>N</i>	Min	Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>1 = most important, 6 = least</i>					
Communicating expectations and conditions of incarceration or supervision clearly to offender.	94	1	6	2.44	1.95
Getting the offender to see the difference between where their life is now and where they want to be in the future.	94	1	6	2.97	1.69
Praising the offender for successful completion of a task or for achieving a goal.	94	1	6	3.03	1.38
Providing opportunities that allow the offender to comment on their progress.	94	1	6	3.80	1.37
Summarizing what the offender said to allow them to hear their own ideas.	94	1	6	4.16	1.42
Reiterating to the offender an area that warrants change.	94	1	6	4.63	1.31

Results from the second ranking scale are presented in Table 14, and clearly demonstrate that getting offenders to discuss change was a priority ($M = 2.12$, $SD = 1.21$). Moreover, the fact that the standard deviation for this item is near one demonstrates that there was little variation in the placement of this item near the top of the ranking scale. Given these findings, it is not surprising that the item with the second lowest mean ($M = 2.79$, $SD = 1.40$) was “asking the offender to identify different ways of handling difficult situations in the future”, another item targeting offender change. The low rankings for the final two items, “establishing or reviewing behavioural contracts...” ($M = 3.90$, $SD = 1.73$), and “providing offenders with a written care plan” ($M = 4.78$, $SD = 1.60$) would seem to suggest that many POs do not prioritize the paperwork or the redaction of reports.

Table 14

Ranking Scale #2 – American Sample

Ranking Scale #2	<i>N</i>	Min	Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>1 = most important, 6 = least</i>					
Getting the offender to discuss change	94	1	6	2.12	1.21
Asking the offender to identify different ways that they could handle a difficult situation in the future.	94	1	6	2.79	1.40
Letting the offender know when they need to change their behaviour to avoid problems.	94	1	6	3.66	1.51
Providing the offender with feedback on their progress.	94	1	6	3.78	1.43
Establishing or reviewing a behavioural contract for case planning.	94	1	6	3.90	1.73
Providing offenders with a written care plan.	94	1	6	4.78	1.60

From Table 15 it is apparent that of the seven items included in this scale, those that seemed most directly related to facilitating offender reintegration were prioritized. “Being aware of criminal justice partners such as community resources” was ranked highest overall ($M = 2.87$, $SD = 1.37$), and also evidenced the smallest standard deviation, indicating more consistent agreement. “Being familiar with effective correctional interventions/programs” and “using a variety of supervision strategies” had the next highest ratings, with ($M = 3.06$, $SD = 1.87$) and ($M = 3.33$, $SD = 1.76$) respectively, though their standard deviations were higher, indicating more variation in the placement of these items in the ranking scale. POs in the sample did not prioritize awareness of both relevant legislation, and current research, as these items were consistently placed toward the higher end of the seven-item scale.

Table 15

Ranking Scale #3 – American Sample

Ranking Scale # 3 <i>1 = most important, 7 = least</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Being aware of criminal justice partners such as community resources	94	1	7	2.87	1.37
Being familiar with effective correctional interventions/programs	94	1	7	3.06	1.87
Using a variety of supervision strategies	94	1	7	3.33	1.76
Understanding of procedural information	94	1	7	3.65	1.75
Verifying offender-reported information	94	1	7	4.02	1.67
Being aware of relevant legislation (i.e. Immigration, Access to Information and Privacy Act)	94	1	7	5.53	1.64
Being aware of current/up-to-date research	94	1	7	5.53	1.64

Results from Table 16 demonstrate a continued trend from scales two and three with respect to the types of behaviours and actions prioritized. Again, the highest ranked items are those that can be loosely considered as being rehabilitation- or reintegration-focused and human-centered. Here, officers ranked “developing a positive working relationship with the offender” and “role-modeling prosocial behavior” highest, with ($M = 2.06$, $SD = 1.47$) and ($M = 2.76$, $SD = 1.70$) respectively. The items that were ranked as being of lowest priority were related to the redaction of reports and the provision of rationale.

Table 16

Ranking Scale #4 – American Sample

Ranking Scale #4	<i>N</i>	Min	Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>1 = most important, 7 = least</i>					
Developing a positive working relationship with the offender	94	1	7	2.06	1.47
Role-modeling prosocial behaviour	94	1	7	2.76	1.70
Understanding offenders' offence cycles (behavioural chain)	94	1	7	4.21	1.57
Assisting an offender in managing his/her risk	94	1	7	4.39	1.53
Changing the supervision approach in accordance with changes in behavior or in response to new information	94	1	7	4.40	1.83
Writing clear and concise reports	94	1	7	4.97	1.99
Providing a thorough analysis of information and rationale for conclusions/decisions	94	1	7	5.20	1.74

Study 1: Psychometric Properties

The main goal of Study 1 was to address the first hypothesis, that the POCS would demonstrate acceptable psychometric properties (e.g., reliability, internal consistency, factor structure). However, issues in data collection, namely unexpectedly low sample sizes across both the Canadian and American samples posed serious issues with respect to conducting the intended factor analyses.

The following section begins with an overview of the existing data sets as they relate to the evaluation of psychometric properties of the POCS, as well as an evaluation of the reliability and internal consistency of the POCS and POCS-USV. A comprehensive explanation of the considerations and factors taken into account leading up to the eventual decision that performing a factor analysis was not appropriate within the context of the current study will also be provided.

Data management. A total of 163 individuals participated in the present study, with 69 completing the POCS, and a further 94 completing the POCS-USV. When this project was developed, the intent was to create a preliminary survey, and to pilot it by collecting data on 250+ Canadian POs. This data would then be used to evaluate survey psychometrics, and as part of an EFA, which would represent an initial step in refining, and continuing the developmental process on the survey. However, as mentioned earlier, following the creation of this preliminary survey, concerns about low sample size led to the creation and administration of an American version alongside the Canadian version. At this point, the intent became to gather data from both sites, to examine the data obtained from Canada to generate initial findings, and then to attempt to replicate these findings using the American data. However, exceedingly low completion rates and high percentages of missing data invalidated this option.

The remaining option was to test whether or not it would be appropriate to create a combined sample using both the Canadian and American cases. To this end, a new data set was created, and key demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, number of years as a PO, number of years in corrections, and work setting) were entered. Another variable (labeled 'Sample') was also created, in order to identify if each case represented a member of the Canadian sample (coded '1') or American sample (coded '2').

Chi-square analyses for independence are conducted when both of the variables involved are nominal. As such, a chi square analysis was used to test if gender was associated with which sample a participant belonged to. Given the differences between expected and observed counts, and a significant Pearson chi-square; $X^2(1) = 10.30, p = .001, \phi = -.25$, gender was associated with which sample the participant belonged to.

Likewise, work setting was also associated with the sample, $X^2 (1) = 11.99, p < .001, \phi = .27$, as more Canadian POs worked in institutions relative to American POs. Expected and observed counts for both of these analyses can be seen in Tables 17 and 18.

Table 17

Gender Differences Comparisons Between Canadian and American Samples

		Gender		Total	
		Male	Female		
Sample	Canadian	Count	18	51	69
		Expected Count	27.9	41.1	69.0
	American	Count	48	46	94
		Expected Count	38.1	55.9	94.0
		Count	66	97	163
		Expected Count	66.0	97.0	163.0

Table 18

Working Setting Comparisons Between Canadian and American Samples

		Work Setting		Total	
		Institution	Community		
Sample	Canadian	Count	40	29	69
		Expected Count	29.2	39.8	69.0
	American	Count	29	65	94
		Expected Count	39.8	54.2	94.0
		Count	69	94	163
		Expected Count	69.0	94.0	163.0

The relationships between sample of provenance and age, number of years as a PO, and number of years in corrections were examined using independent-samples *t*-tests. In all three cases, significant differences between the means of the Canadian and American participants were found. Results indicated that Canadian respondents ($M = 39.57, SD = 9.03$) were significantly younger than American respondents ($M = 44.10, SD = 9.03$), $t(163) = -2.90, p = .004$. Likewise, the mean differences between the number of

years that Canadians and Americans had worked as POs and in corrections were significant, with $t(154.2) = -2.08, p = .039$, and $t(161) = -3.13, p = .002$ respectively.

Relevant statistics are highlighted in Table 19 below.

Table 19

Experience Comparisons Between Canadian and American Samples

		Levene's Test		<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means			
		<i>F</i>	Sig.	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)	<i>M</i> Diff.
Years PO	Equal variances assumed	22.24	.000	-1.93	161	.056	-2.43
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.08	154.21	.039*	-2.43
Years in Corrections	Equal variances assumed	1.30	.256	-3.13	161	.002**	-3.92
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.20	157.04	.002	-3.92
Age	Equal variances assumed	1.133	.289	-2.93	161	.004**	-4.53
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.97	155.78	.003	-4.53

*. Denotes significance at $p < .05$ (2-tailed).

**. Denotes significance and $p < .01$ (2-tailed).

As a final consideration, the correlations between the total scores on the vignettes (skill) and questions (knowledge) components of the survey were calculated for both samples. For the Canadian sample, these two main subsections of the POCS were correlated, $r = .26, p = .03$, but the same was not true for the American sample, with the correlation between scores on the vignettes and questions sections of the POCS-USV failing to reach significance ($r = .14, p = .17$).

In light of the above information, combining the two samples was not justifiable. Not only were the Canadian and American samples significantly different with respect to composition on key demographic variables, but the relationships between main subscales

of the survey across samples was also not comparable.

Reliability and internal consistency. As an amalgamation of the two data sets was not feasible, reliability and internal consistency were assessed for the knowledge section subscales of the POCS and POCS-USV independently. Reliability coefficients were calculated using a reliability analysis conducted through SPSS (version 21.0).

Results of the analysis indicated that both subscales and the knowledge section as a whole did not demonstrate acceptable levels of internal consistency. This is problematic, as, Cronbach's alpha is typically used prior to other analyses as it is helpful in determining whether or not it is justifiable to base interpretations off of aggregate or composite scores (Sijtsma, 2009). As can be seen from the alpha coefficients seen in Table 20, none even approached .70, yet alone .80, which is the commonly accepted guideline for concluding that a scale is reliable (Salkind & Green, 2011). Although Cronbach's alpha for the overall knowledge questions section of the Canadian POCS is nearing .50, it is still well below recommended guidelines, and the alpha coefficients for the analysis subscales (for both the POCS and POCS-USV) are particularly poor. Moreover, in the case of the POCS-USV the analysis subscale actually has a negative coefficient, indicating that, for this section, the average covariance between items is actually negative.

As would be expected based on these findings, inter-item correlations were overall quite weak, and often negative. For the POCS knowledge items, inter-item correlations ranged between $r = -.21$ and $r = .40$, though notably, the next highest positive correlation after .40 was .24. For the POCS-USV knowledge items, inter-item correlations ranged between $r = -.33$ and $r = .12$. The degree of variation among

consistently weak correlations, or the pattern of correlations so to speak, suggests that the items included in the scale are not necessarily measuring the same thing. Typically, it is ideal for all inter-item correlations to be positive, and in the range of .30 to .50 (Field, 2000). Finally, an examination of the item total statistics for all of the items included in the knowledge questions sections of both the POCS and POCS-USV (see Appendices G and H) demonstrate that deleting many of the items in would yield increases in Cronbach's alpha. While it is not uncommon for the deletion of a few items to improve overall reliability, it is problematic when item-total statistics suggest that the deletion of 30% and 45% of items in the knowledge section in the POCS and POCS-USV respectively would increase reliability. Conclusively, the hypothesis that the POCS and POCS-USV would have adequate psychometric properties was not supported.

Table 20

Internal Consistency for Knowledge Questions and Subscales

		α	# of items
POCS	Knowledge Question Section (overall)	.498	37
	Analysis Subscale	.047	8
	Risk Assessment Subscale	.432	10
	Risk Management Subscale	.356	11
	Supervision & Communication Subscale	.318	8
POCS-USV	Knowledge Question Section (overall)	.284	36
	Analysis Subscale	-.155	8
	Risk Assessment Subscale	.061	10
	Risk Management Subscale	.315	11
	Supervision & Communication Subscale	.443	7

Decisions pertaining to factor analysis. Despite the popularity of EFA in psychological research, it (as well as its constituent procedures) remains a complex, and often poorly understood, analysis (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Fabrigar et al., 1999). As

noted above, EFA was not feasible in the current study, mainly as a result of insufficient sample size. Had it been possible to combine the Canadian and American data for a sample of $n = 163$, an EFA could have been attempted, though perhaps still not advisable. Note that, had it been deemed possible to perform an EFA, further data screening and assumptions-checks related to multivariate analyses would have been required.

As the intent was to factor analyze only the knowledge questions, there would have been a total of 35 items entered into the analysis. The original POCS contained 37 knowledge questions, though two items would have been removed if the Canadian and American samples were combined. As described in an early section detailing survey development, when the POCS was altered to create the POCS-USV, one question had to be dropped outright, while the content of another was changed to an extent that prevented direct comparison. Therefore, both of those items would have been eliminated prior to conducting the EFA. That said, even with only 35 items retained, the subject to item ratio would have been 4.7:1, a ratio which fails to meet recommended minimum guidelines (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Fabrigar et al., 1999; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Using the Canadian or American samples alone would result in subject to item ratios of roughly 1.9:1 and 2.6:1 respectively.

Insofar as EFA is concerned, the accuracy of the solutions produced is heavily related to sample size. For instance, Costello and Osborne (2005) report that EFAs conducted with subject to item ratios of 2:1 produce correct factor structures only 10% of the time. Further, they determined that even with much larger ratios, such as 20:1, correct structures are not always produced, though EFAs conducted with samples with this ratio produced correct solutions 70% of the time. Moreover, Costello and Osborne

(2005) note that when subject to item ratios of 2:1 are used, an average of 1.93 items are misclassified on the wrong factor.

For the purpose of illustration, consider that just under 750 participants would have been required in order to satisfy the 20:1 ratio for the when conducting an EFA with the 37 items included in the knowledge section of the current version of the POCS.

Fabrigar et al. (1999) emphasize that in addition to sample size, there are many other factors that need to be considered when determining the appropriateness of EFA. One such important consideration is the psychometric properties of the measures involved. Issues such as low communalities between factors often due to low reliability (a critical concern with the present data) can result in distorted results (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Fava & Velicer, 1992; MacCallum et al., 1999), and counter-indicate the use of EFA.

Additionally, the samples included in the current study are arguably highly homogenous, as evinced by the lack of significant differences found between variables in Study 2 and 3. Overly homogeneous samples can be problematic, as they can lead to attenuated correlations among items thereby leading to artificially low estimates of factor loadings (Fabrigar et al., 1999). Thus, these types of samples should be avoided.

Lastly, Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) note that researchers should be wary of conducting factor analysis with samples that originally included large amounts of missing data. As options are either to estimate or delete cases, this can lead to one of two problems. Deletion can result in lower than ideal sample size, and estimation, depending on the method used, can also be problematic. For instance, they note that estimation

procedures can sometimes lead to over-fitting of data and the identification of inaccurate factors.

Given all of the above issues, the use of EFA was deemed unadvisable, as it would not have been possible to confidently interpret whatever factor solution may have emerged.

The above results (i.e., the inadequate psychometric properties of the scale) led to further considerations with respect to how to proceed. Following deliberation, the decision to continue with an examination of each sample in relation to the current versions of the scale was reached. While deleting the items identified during reliability analyses in order to create second versions of both scales was one option, this course of action was not pursued for the following reasons: 1) the advisory group comprised of corrections professionals consulted during the development process supported the current versions of the surveys, thereby indicating a degree of face validity; 2) the aim of the present study was chiefly exploratory in nature; and, 3) larger samples sizes and more complete data may have produced different results. For these reasons, it was deemed worthwhile to proceed with an evaluation of the current versions of the POCS in order to examine if, despite low reliability and internal consistency, significant difference between groups would still be found. That said, the use of item reduction strategies and the creation of new versions of both surveys should be considered as avenues for further research in this area.

Study 2: Canadian Sample

Hypothesis 2: It is hypothesized that POs will perform differently on the POCS, specifically, that more experienced POs will score higher than less experienced POs.

Years of experience and POCS scores. POCS scores were examined in relation to indicators of experience, namely age, number of years as a PO, and number of years as an employee in corrections. Note that while age is not necessarily indicative of experience, the age variable was significantly correlated with both the number of years as a PO ($r = .51, p < .01$) and number of years in corrections ($r = .81, p < .01$), and was therefore included in the analysis. As all of these variables are continuous, Pearson product-moment correlations were used to assess relationships between them.

Although it was hypothesized that more experienced POs would score higher on the POCS, results did not support this hypothesis. Age was not significantly correlated with total vignette scores, $r = -.15, p = .21$, total knowledge question scores, $r = .15, p = .23$, or with total POCS scores, $r = .015, p = .904$. Likewise, number of years as a PO were not associated with main POCS subscale scores or with total POCS scores; $r = .02, p = .90$ (vignettes), $r = .15, p = .21$ (knowledge questions), $r = .12, p = .35$ (total POCS scores). Finally, no significant correlations were found between the final experience variable, number of years working in a correctional setting, and vignette scores ($r = -.11, p = .36$) knowledge question scores ($r = .16, p = .18$), and total POCS scores ($r = .05, p = .69$). These results are presented in Table 21, in addition to all of the likewise non-significant correlations between the three experience variables and all of the individual vignettes and knowledge questions subscales. Hence, we can conclude that experience and POCS scores are not related.

Table 21

Correlations Between Experience and POCS Scores

		Years PO	Years in Corrections	Age
Vignette 1 Score	Pearson Correlation	.094	.007	-.069
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.443	.952	.575
	N	69	69	69
Vignette 2 Score	Pearson Correlation	-.006	-.091	-.077
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.958	.455	.529
	N	69	69	69
Vignette 3 Score	Pearson Correlation	-.084	-.150	-.179
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.494	.220	.141
	N	69	69	69
Vignette 4 Score	Pearson Correlation	.037	-.036	-.045
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.760	.769	.717
	N	69	69	69
Total Vignette Score	Pearson Correlation	.016	-.113	-.154
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.896	.357	.206
	N	69	69	69
Analysis Subscale Score	Pearson Correlation	-.052	-.177	-.123
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.673	.146	.312
	N	69	69	69
Risk Assessment Subscale Score	Pearson Correlation	.166	.170	.119
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.173	.164	.330
	N	69	69	69
Risk Management Subscale Score	Pearson Correlation	.148	.177	.231
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.225	.145	.056
	N	69	69	69
Supervision and Communication Subscale Score	Pearson Correlation	.027	.119	.014
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.824	.331	.907
	N	69	69	69
Total Knowledge Questions Score	Pearson Correlation	.153	.163	.148
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.208	.182	.225
	N	69	69	69
Total POCS Score	Pearson Correlation	.115	.048	.015
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.347	.693	.904
	N	69	69	69

Research Question 1: Are there gender differences in POCS results?

Gender and POCS scores. Next, total POCS scores as well as subscale scores were examined in relation to gender. Given that gender is a categorical variable with two categories, independent-samples *t* tests were used to probe this relationship. No significant difference was found by gender on overall POCS score, $t(67) = 1.05, p = .30$, indicating that POCS scores for males ($M = 41.83, SD = 1.09$) were not significantly higher than the POCS scores achieved by females ($M = 40.53, SD = .63$). Levene's test for homogeneity of variance held, but as results were not significant at the $\alpha = .05$ level, $F(1, 66) = .27, p = .60$, this is of little importance. Likewise, males ($M = 14.44, SD = 2.75$) and females ($M = 14.25, SD = 1.03$) were not significantly different with respect to total vignette scores; $t(67) = .27, p = .79$, or total knowledge questions scores; $t(67) = 1.31, p = .20$, where their means were 27.39 ($SD = 3.20$) and 26.27 ($SD = 3.08$) for males and females respectively. Furthermore, there was no statistically significant difference between males' and females' scores on any of the vignette or knowledge subscales. It should also be noted that none of the tests reached significance even prior to correcting the alpha level to account for multiple tests. Table 22 displays the relevant statistics.

Table 22

Gender Differences and POCS Scores

Independent Samples Test		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		<i>F</i>	Sig.	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.
V1 Score	Equal variances assumed	.623	.433	1.442	67	.154
	Equal variances not assumed			1.371	27.366	.182
V2 Score	Equal variances assumed	.182	.671	-.011	67	.991
	Equal variances not assumed			-.011	30.417	.991
V3 Score	Equal variances assumed	.000	.985	-.660	67	.512
	Equal variances not assumed			-.660	29.827	.515
V4 Score	Equal variances assumed	.060	.808	-.117	67	.907
	Equal variances not assumed			-.121	31.908	.904
Total Vignette Score	Equal variances assumed	.103	.749	.267	67	.790
	Equal variances not assumed			.257	27.827	.799
Analysis Subscale Score	Equal variances assumed	1.18	.280	.036	67	.971
	Equal variances not assumed			.040	35.482	.969
Risk Assessment Subscale Score	Equal variances assumed	.752	.389	1.287	67	.202
	Equal variances not assumed			1.397	35.089	.171
Risk Management Subscale Score	Equal variances assumed	1.45	.233	1.605	67	.113
	Equal variances not assumed			1.680	32.577	.103
Supervision & Communication Subscale Score	Equal variances assumed	.324	.571	-.552	67	.583
	Equal variances not assumed			-.529	27.725	.601
Total Knowledge Questions Score	Equal variances assumed	.195	.660	1.307	67	.196
	Equal variances not assumed			1.282	28.866	.210
Total POCS Score	Equal variances assumed	.274	.603	1.051	67	.297
	Equal variances not assumed			1.035	29.075	.309

In the interest of comprehensively examining any potential relationship between gender and POCS scores, chi-square analyses were conducted between gender and the transformed POCS variable. As mentioned above, total POCS scores had been be recoded into a categorical variable based on the percentage of correct answers (less than 50%, 50-60% correct, 60-70%, and 70% or more correct). POCS scores were also transformed into a dichotomized low – high variable. Chi-square analyses performed between gender and POCS (using the split by percentage group and the low – high POCS

group) were not significant, with X^2 (3 n = 69) = 1.165, p = .761, Cramer's V = .130, and X^2 (1 n = 69) = .037, p = .848, ϕ = 0.23 respectively. Results indicated that POCS did not differ by gender, regardless of how the variable was coded (i.e., continuous, dichotomized, etc.)

Research Question 2: Will there be a difference in competency scores on the POCS between institutional and community POs?

Work setting and POCS scores. POCS scores and subscale scores were analyzed in relation to whether a PO worked in an institution or in the community. While there was no difference between the performance of community and institutional POs on vignette 1, t (67) = -1.98, p = .052, vignette 3, t (67) = -.932, p = .354, and vignette 4, t (67) = 3.54, p = .724, there was a statistically significant difference between the performance of community and institutional POs on vignette 2, t (67) = -2.32, p = .023, at the α = .05 level, with community POs receiving higher scores (M = 3.07, SD = 1.07) than institutional POs (M = 2.48, SD = 1.04). Likewise, community POs outperformed institutional POs with respect to overall vignette scores t (67) = -2.06, p = .044, with (M = 15.03, SD = 2.64) and (M = 13.78, SD = 2.41) respectively. Levene's test for homogeneity of variance held for all of the above analyses. However, these results were not significant following the Bonferroni correction required to maintain a family-wise error rate of α = .05.

Community and institutional POs were not significantly different with respect to performance on the overall knowledge component of the POCS, nor on any of the knowledge subscales, as evidenced by the following statistics: t (67) = -1.76, p = .86 for the analysis subscale, t (67) = -1.23, p = .22 for the risk assessment subscale, t (67) = -

1.11, $p = .27$ for the risk management subscale, $t(67) = -.37$, $p = .71$ for the supervision and communication subscale, and $t(67) = -1.38$, $p = .17$ for the overall knowledge component. While there was some evidence of a relationship between work setting and continuous (overall) POCS scores, which indicated that POs working in the community ($M = 42.92$, $SD = 4.22$) did perform better than institutional POs ($M = 39.90$, $SD = 4.55$), $t(67) = -2.14$, $p = .036$ on the POCS overall, this relationship did not maintain significance following a Bonferroni correction of $p < .05/11 = .005$.

Research Question 3: Will there be regional differences in competency scores on the POCS?

Region and POCS scores. The region or jurisdiction in which POs work was assessed in relation to POCS subscale and total scores. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was used to determine if there was a relationship between the categorical region variable (indicating each of the five jurisdictional regions within Canada) and the variables measuring the subscale and total scores on the POCS. Results indicated that there was a significant relationship between region and mean (total) vignette score; $F(4, 64) = 4.57$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .002$. The means for each region, from highest to lowest, are as follows: Quebec ($M = 15.80$, $SD = 2.82$), the Atlantic ($M = 15.36$, $SD = 1.69$), the Pacific ($M = 15.21$, $SD = 2.26$), Ontario ($M = 13.50$, $SD = 1.90$), and the Prairies ($M = 12.50$, $SD = 3.11$). Furthermore, Levene's statistic was examined to ensure that homogeneity of variance assumptions held; $F(4, 64) = 1.89$, $p = .12$. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that region did have an impact on scores on the vignette section of the POCS, with POs working in Quebec achieving the highest mean scores, and POs working in the Prairies scoring the lowest.

However, while overall vignette scores were related to jurisdictional region, this was not true of all four of the individual vignette scores. Although scores on the first vignette were related to the region in which POs worked, $F(4, 64) = 4.85, p < .01$, the same was not true for scores on Vignette 2, $F(4, 64) = 1.13, p = .35$, Vignette 3, $F(4, 64) = 2.40, p = .06$, and Vignette 4, $F(4, 64) = 0.93, p = .45$. As such, we can conclude that, in addition to differences in overall vignette scores by region, there is also some inequality in mean scores by region on the first vignette. This also suggests that vignettes themselves are not equivalent.

While none of the means on the individual subscales included in the knowledge component of the POCS differed substantially by region (see Table 23 for mean scores by region and ANOVA results), the knowledge subscale as a whole just reached statistical significance at the $\alpha = .05$ level, $F(4, 64) = 2.53, p = .049, \eta^2 = .14$. The assumption of homogeneity of variance held for this analysis; $F(4, 64) = 0.89, p = .47$.

At this point, it is important to note that the results of ANOVA tests are easily influenced by issues such as overall low sample size, deviations from normality, and unequal group sizes (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). As the above analyses were predicated on relatively small group sizes and correspondingly low degrees of freedom, the results obtained above and in subsequent analyses pertaining to jurisdictional region should be interpreted cautiously.

Table 23

Mean Subscale Scores and ANOVA Results by Region

Subscale	Region	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	Sig.
Analysis Subscale	Ontario	6.50	1.14	.65	.633
	Quebec	6.10	.88		
	Atlantic	6.64	.92		
	Prairies	6.42	.90		
	Pacific	6.71	.91		
Risk Assessment Subscale	Ontario	6.36	1.50	2.19	.080
	Quebec	6.70	1.70		
	Atlantic	7.45	1.13		
	Prairies	6.17	1.80		
	Pacific	7.43	1.22		
Risk Management Subscale	Ontario	6.09	1.90	1.15	.342
	Quebec	6.40	1.43		
	Atlantic	6.82	1.89		
	Prairies	6.08	1.56		
	Pacific	7.14	1.23		
Supervision and Communication Subscale	Ontario	6.68	1.09	.75	.560
	Quebec	6.50	1.58		
	Atlantic	7.00	.77		
	Prairies	7.17	.94		
	Pacific	6.92	.83		
Total Know Score	Ontario	25.64	2.72	2.53	.049*
	Quebec	25.70	3.68		
	Atlantic	27.91	3.24		
	Prairies	25.83	3.16		
	Pacific	28.21	2.52		

*. Denotes significance at $p < .05$ (2-tailed).

Finally, results showed that overall POCS scores did differ by region; Ontario ($M = 39.14$, $SD = 3.40$), Quebec ($M = 41.50$, $SD = 4.95$), the Atlantic ($M = 43.27$, $SD = 3.23$), the Prairies ($M = 38.33$, $SD = 5.58$), and the Pacific ($M = 43.43$, $SD = 3.76$), with $F(4, 64) = 4.42$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .22$. After checking that Levene's statistic was not significant; $F(4, 64) = .95$, $p = .44$, results indicated that POs working in the Pacific and Atlantic regions had the highest overall scores on the POCS, with those working in the Prairies scoring the lowest.

Post hoc tests specified that POs in Ontario were significantly different from POs in both Atlantic and Pacific regions, $t = -4.14, p < .01$, and $t = -4.29, p < .01$, with respect to mean POCs scores (scoring lower in both cases). The same was also true for POs working in the Prairies when compared to POs working in both the Atlantic and Pacific regions, $t = -4.94, p < .01$, and $t = -5.10, p < .01$. These results are summarized in Table 24, with some scores maintaining significance even at an adjusted alpha level of $p < .005$.

Table 24

Overall POCs Scores by Jurisdictional Region

The region you work in:	The region you work in:	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Ontario	Quebec	-2.364	1.576	.139
	Atlantic	-4.136	1.526	.009*
	Prairies	.803	1.483	.590
	Pacific	-4.292	1.413	.003**
Quebec	Ontario	2.364	1.576	.139
	Atlantic	-1.773	1.810	.330
	Prairies	3.167	1.770	.078
	Pacific	-1.929	1.711	.264
Atlantic	Ontario	4.136	1.526	.009*
	Quebec	1.773	1.806	.330
	Prairies	4.939	1.725	.006*
	Pacific	-.1556	1.665	.926
Prairies	Ontario	-.803	1.483	.590
	Quebec	-3.167	1.770	.078
	Atlantic	-4.939	1.725	.006*
	Pacific	-5.095	1.626	.003**
Pacific	Ontario	4.292	1.413	.003**
	Quebec	1.929	1.711	.264
	Atlantic	.156	1.665	.926
	Prairies	5.095	1.626	.003**

*. Denotes significance at $p < .01$ (2-tailed).

**. Denotes significance and $p < .005$ (2-tailed).

Research Question 4: Will POs perform differently on the POCS based on their attitudes and values?

Attitudes, values, and POCS scores. The 26 items from the ranking scales were correlated with vignette, knowledge question, and total POCS scores in order to determine if any relationships existed between survey scores and attitudes and values. Significant results are presented in Table 25. Given the large number of items, non-significant results were not included here.

Interpretation of significant correlations is complicated by how the items comprising the ranking scales were scored. Specifically, items deemed higher priorities were ranked higher, and were therefore associated with a lower number (i.e., '1' for 'first' or 'highest' priority). In total, nine of the items from the ranking scales (listed below) yielded significant relationships with scores on the POCS and/or one of the main subscales. For example, the first item in the table "providing opportunities that allow the offender to comment on their progress" ($r = -.24, p = .49$), would be interpreted as follows: as scores on the POCS increased, so too did the importance attributed to providing opportunities for the offender to comment on their progress. Positive correlations should be interpreted in an opposite manner. For instance, attributing less importance to getting an offender to see the difference between where their life is now and where they want it to be in the future was associated with higher scores on the POCS; $r = .25, p = .04$. It should be noted that all of the correlations listed here, though significant at uncorrected alpha levels of $\alpha = .05$ or $\alpha = .01$, are considered relatively weak by general convention, and are being presented due to the general exploratory nature of the current study.

Table 25

Correlations Between POCS Scores and Ranking Scale Items

		Vignette (Skill) Score	Questions (Knowledge) Score	Total POCS Score
Providing opportunities that allow the offender to comment on their progress.	Correlation	-.208	-.173	-.238*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.086	.155	.049
	N	69	69	69
Getting the offender to see the difference between where their life is now and where they want to be in the future.	Correlation	.220	.182	.250*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.069	.136	.038
	N	69	69	69
Verifying offender-reported information	Correlation	.042	-.252*	-.150
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.730	.037	.219
	N	69	69	69
Being familiar with effective correctional interventions/programs	Correlation	-.098	.281*	.139
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.423	.019	.256
	N	69	69	69
Writing clear and concise reports	Correlation	.217	.351**	.365**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.074	.003	.002
	N	69	69	69
Providing a thorough analysis of information and rationale for conclusions/decisions	Correlation	.188	.269*	.292*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.122	.025	.015
	N	69	69	69
Developing a positive working relationship with the offender	Correlation	-.056	-.246*	-.202
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.648	.041	.096
	N	69	69	69
Assisting an offender in managing his/her risk	Correlation	-.130	-.302*	-.282*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.287	.012	.019
	N	69	69	69
Changing the supervision approach in accordance with changes in behaviour or in response to new information	Correlation	-.250*	.044	-.112
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.038	.722	.361
	N	69	69	69

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Study 3: American Sample

Hypothesis 2: It is hypothesized that POs will perform differently on the POCS, specifically, that more experienced POs will score higher than less experienced POs.

Years of experience and POCS-USV scores. In order to evaluate this hypothesis, correlations were calculated between POCS-USV scores, and indicators of experience, namely number of years as a PO, number of years in corrections, and age. Note that as we are dealing with an American sample here, the term ‘PO’ also refers to probation officers and institutional CMs. Furthermore, as in Study 2, the age variable is being considered an indicator of experience in this analysis as a result of its degree of relatedness to both the number of years as a PO ($r = .53, p < .001$) and number of years in corrections ($r = .63, p < .001$) variables.

As can be seen in Table 26, age, number of years as a PO, and number of years in corrections were not significantly correlated with overall POCS-USV scores, or with overall vignette and question scores. However, the hypothesis that experience would be related to survey scores did receive some support. Two statistically significant relationships were found, and are highlighted in the table below. The first significant correlation was found for number of years worked in corrections and the risk management subscale of the knowledge questions. Given that the correlation was positive ($r = .23, p = .028$), it indicates that as number of years in a correctional setting increase, so do overall scores on the risk management section. However, it should be noted that while this does offer some support for the hypothesis, a correlation of this magnitude is typically considered weak, and would not retain significance following correction for family-wise error rates.

The second significant correlation identified actually runs counter to the hypothesis. Number of years as a PO was found to be negatively related to scores on Vignette 2 ($r = -.21, p = .046$), thereby indicating that individuals who had more experience being POs (as measured by number of years) actually scored lower on the second vignette. Though intriguing, this correlation is again considered weak, and would not retain significance following a Bonferroni correction.

Table 26

Correlations Between Experience and POCS-USV Scores

		Age	Years PO	Years in Corrections
Vignette 1 Score	Pearson Correlation	.040	.051	.021
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.702	.626	.839
	N	94	94	94
Vignette 2 Score	Pearson Correlation	.027	-.206*	-.124
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.796	.046	.235
	N	94	94	94
Vignette 3 Score	Pearson Correlation	.016	-.014	-.013
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.880	.896	.900
	N	94	94	94
Vignette 4 Score	Pearson Correlation	-.027	-.072	.018
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.799	.498	.863
	N	94	94	94
Total Vignette Score	Pearson Correlation	.036	-.116	-.055
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.732	.266	.600
	N	94	94	94
Analysis Subscale Score	Pearson Correlation	-.067	.003	-.074
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.520	.980	.479
	N	94	94	94
Risk Assessment Subscale Score	Pearson Correlation	-.130	-.074	-.070
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.211	.480	.504
	N	94	94	94
Risk Management Subscale Score	Pearson Correlation	.125	.138	.226*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.229	.186	.028
	N	94	94	94
Supervision and Communication Subscale Score	Pearson Correlation	-.037	.009	-.030
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.723	.931	.776
	N	94	94	94
Total Knowledge Questions Score	Pearson Correlation	-.021	.058	.067
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.840	.581	.519
	N	94	94	94
Total POCS-USV Score	Pearson Correlation	.008	-.022	.017
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.939	.832	.874
	N	94	94	94

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Research Question 1: Are there gender differences in POCS results?

Gender and POCS-USV scores. Possible gender differences in POCS-USV scores were first examined using independent-samples *t* tests. Total POCS-USV scores, as well as all subscale scores were analyzed. As can be seen in Table 27, females ($M = 39.78$, $SD = 3.03$) did not perform substantially better than males ($M = 38.50$, $SD = 4.30$) with respect to total POCS-USV scores as evidenced by a non-significant test; $t(92) = -1.67$, $p = .099$. Similarly, no significant differences were found between the scores of males ($M = 15.52$, $SD = 2.60$) and females ($M = 16.17$, $SD = 2.10$) for total vignette scores; $t(92) = -1.34$, $p = .19$, or total knowledge question scores; $t(92) = -1.26$, $p = .21$ (males: $M = 22.89$, $SD = 3.17$; females: $M = 23.61$, $SD = 2.40$).

However, one significant mean difference was identified at the $\alpha = .05$ level. Females, ($M = 3.37$, $SD = 1.18$) did score significantly higher than males ($M = 2.79$, $SD = 1.11$) on the second vignette, $t(92) = -2.45$, $p = .016$. Assumptions for equality of variance held for this analysis.

As an additional method of investigating the existence of a relationship between POCS-USV scores and gender, the continuous POCS-USV variable was recoded in order to create two new variables; one based on the percentage of correct answers (less than 50%, 50-60% correct, 60-70%, and 70% or more correct), and a second dichotomized variable in which POCS-USV scores were split into 'high' or 'low' groups based on their position relative to the mean. Chi-square tests were performed on gender and these new variables with non-significant results; $\chi^2(3, n = 94) = 4.68$, $p = .20$, Cramer's $V = .22$, and $\chi^2(1, n = 94) = 1.04$, $p = .31$, $\phi = 0.11$ for the POCS-USV variable split by percentage groups, and high – low groups respectively.

Table 27

Gender Differences and POCS-USV Scores

		Levene's Test		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.
V1 Score	Equal variances assumed	.518	.474	.264	92	.792
	Equal variances not assumed			.265	90.483	.792
V2 Score	Equal variances assumed	.515	.475	-2.446	92	.016*
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.443	91.008	.017
V3 Score	Equal variances assumed	.369	.545	.275	92	.784
	Equal variances not assumed			.275	90.862	.784
V4 Score	Equal variances assumed	.125	.724	-.973	92	.333
	Equal variances not assumed			-.977	90.241	.331
Total Vignette Score	Equal variances assumed	1.434	.234	-1.336	92	.185
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.342	89.467	.183
Analysis Subscale Score	Equal variances assumed	.060	.807	-.313	92	.755
	Equal variances not assumed			-.313	91.922	.755
Risk Assessment Subscale Score	Equal variances assumed	.014	.905	-.198	92	.843
	Equal variances not assumed			-.198	91.730	.843
Risk Management Subscale Score	Equal variances assumed	.991	.322	-.267	92	.783
	Equal variances not assumed			-.277	90.288	.782
Supervision & Communication Subscale Score	Equal variances assumed	12.774	.001	-1.920	92	.058
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.936	81.973	.056
Total Knowledge Questions Score	Equal variances assumed	.765	.384	-1.262	92	.210
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.270	87.409	.208
Total POCS-USV Score	Equal variances assumed	2.231	.139	-1.665	92	.099
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.677	84.659	.097

*. Denotes significance at $p < .05$ (2-tailed).

Research Question 2: Will there be a difference in competency scores on the POCS between institutional and community POs?

Work setting and POCS-USV scores. POCS-USV and subscale scores were examined in relation to work setting. For this sample, possible work settings include the community (as a probation or parole officer) or in an institution (as an institutional case manager). Independent-samples *t* tests were used to evaluate whether or not work setting influenced competency scores. Means on the overall POCS-USV scale were not significantly higher for institutional ($M = 39.59, SD = 4.06$) than for community POs ($M = 38.92, SD = 3.65$), $t(92) = .79, p = .43$, indicating that work setting did not influence overall competency scores. Likewise, scores on the knowledge section were not substantially different as a function whether the PO worked in an institution or in the community; $t(92) = -1.58, p = .12$. Differences in means on the knowledge question subscales were also non-significant, as can be seen in Table 28.

Further, the mean scores on three of the four vignettes did not differ as a function of work setting. However, POs working as CMs in an institution did perform significantly better on Vignette 2 than community POs, with means of 3.55 ($SD = 1.38$) and 2.86 ($SD = 1.01$) respectively. Levene's test revealed that the assumption of equal variances did not hold in this case, therefore the appropriate statistic in this case is $t(42.1) = 2.41, p = 0.02$. Means were also significantly different for total vignette scores; $t(92) = 2.88, p = .005$, with institutional POs ($M = 16.86, SD = 2.67$) again outperforming community POs ($M = 15.38, SD = 2.10$).

Table 28

Work Setting Differences in POCS-USV Scores

		Levene's Test for		<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means		
		<i>F</i>	Sig.	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.
V1 Score	Equal variances assumed	.627	.431	1.040	92	.301
	Equal variances not assumed			.975	46.646	.334
V2 Score	Equal variances assumed	7.085	.009	2.718	92	.008
	Equal variances not assumed			2.421	42.076	.020*
V3 Score	Equal variances assumed	.585	.446	1.089	92	.279
	Equal variances not assumed			1.046	49.188	.301
V4 Score	Equal variances assumed	1.201	.276	1.451	92	.150
	Equal variances not assumed			1.430	52.040	.159
Total Vignette Score	Equal variances assumed	1.680	.198	2.888	92	.005**
	Equal variances not assumed			2.638	44.197	.011
Analysis Subscale Score	Equal variances assumed	2.548	.114	-1.544	92	.126
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.676	65.924	.099
Risk Assessment Subscale Score	Equal variances assumed	.052	.820	-.325	92	.746
	Equal variances not assumed			-.321	52.186	.750
Risk Management Subscale Score	Equal variances assumed	1.272	.262	-.604	92	.547
	Equal variances not assumed			-.628	59.100	.533
Supervision & Communication Subscale Score	Equal variances assumed	.870	.353	-.936	92	.352
	Equal variances not assumed			-.891	48.204	.377
Total Knowledge Question Score	Equal variances assumed	.424	.516	-1.576	92	.118
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.633	58.668	.108
Total POCS-USV Score	Equal variances assumed	.555	.458	.786	92	.434
	Equal variances not assumed			.755	49.018	.454

*. Denotes significance at the $p < .05$ level (2-tailed).

** Denotes significance after Bonferroni correction of $p < .05/11 = .005$ (2-tailed).

Research Question 4: Will POs perform differently on the POCS based on their attitudes and values?

Attitudes, values, and POCS-USV scores. In order to assess if attitudes and values had an influence on POCS-USV scores, a series of correlation coefficients were

calculated between each of the ranking scale items and POCS-USV scores. Correlations were also calculated between ranking scale items and total vignette and knowledge question scores. Significant results are presented in Table 29. Given that there are 26 ranking scale items in total, non-significant results were omitted.

Recall that a higher score on ranking items indicates a lower level of perceived importance, and that the interpretation of significant correlations must take this into account. For instance, the positive correlation between ‘Reiterating to the offender an area that warrants change’ and scores on the knowledge questions and POCS-USV as a whole indicates that higher scores are associated with a lower degree of priority on the item. That is, POs who attributed less importance to the reiteration item tended to have higher knowledge question, and POCS-USV scores, as evidenced by $r = .25, p = .016$ and $r = .26, p = .011$ respectively.

Conversely, negative correlations indicate that an increase in scores on the POCS-USV, or relevant subscales, is associated with a degree of prioritization (i.e., a lower ranking score) of the item. For example, “Providing an offender with feedback on their progress” was negatively correlated with vignette scores ($r = -.39, p < .001$) and overall POCS-USV scores ($r = -.36, p < .001$), meaning that higher overall vignette and POCS-USV scores tended to be related to the provision of feedback being ranked as a top priority. Notably, these were the only correlations to maintain significance following a Bonferroni correction for family-wise error.

Table 29

Correlations Between POCS-USV Scores and Ranking Scale Items

		Vignette (Skill) Score	Questions (Knowledge) Score	Total POCS- USV Score
Reiterating to the offender an area that warrants change.	Correlation	.129	.247	.260
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.216	.016*	.011*
	N	94	94	94
Establishing or reviewing a behavioural contract for case planning.	Correlation	.276	-.004	.180
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007**	.968	.082
	N	94	94	94
Providing the offender with feedback on their progress.	Correlation	-.386	-.152	-.356
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000***	.144	.000***
	N	94	94	94
Using a variety of supervision strategies	Correlation	-.144	-.317	-.299
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.165	.002**	.003**
	N	94	94	94
Being aware of current/up- to-date research	Correlation	.055	.273	.217
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.598	.008**	.036*
	N	94	94	94

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

***. Correlation significant following Bonferroni correction of $p < .05/26 = .002$ 2-tailed).

Discussion

The current study had two main objectives. The first objective was to initialize the development of a measure that could be used to quantify these characteristics. The current form of the resultant pilot survey was then examined for practicability. The second goal was to examine variation in PO skills, knowledge and other individual characteristics, such as attitudes and values across two samples of POs. As this study is one of the first to do so, the intent was to gather normative data in order to form a preliminary descriptive profile, which would, in turn, form a basis for further investigation. An overview of the important findings for each of the 3 sub-studies is discussed below. However, it is particularly important to note that as the current study

was not a validation study and has no linked outcome data, survey scores are not indicative of job performance with respect to offender reintegration.

Overview of Important Findings: Study 1

The purpose of Study 1 was to examine the psychometric properties of the POCS surveys. Given the small sample size of both the Canadian and American data sets, chi-square analyses and *t*-tests were utilized in order to determine if merging the two data sets was feasible. Significant differences with respect to sample composition in terms of gender, age, work setting, number of years as a PO and number of years worked in correction precluded merging of the samples.

Consequently, Cronbach's alpha was calculated in order to assess the reliability and internal consistency of items in the POCS knowledge subsection of each sample independently. Neither sample demonstrated adequate reliability and internal consistency. As per Sijtsma (2009), failure to demonstrate adequate internal consistency suggests that interpretations should not be made based on the composite scores calculated based on answers to the questions in the knowledge sections of the POCS and POCS-USV. Essentially, in the absence of reliability, it is not justifiable to use POCS scores to make inferences.

Furthermore, calculations of inter-item correlations revealed that obtained correlations were far from the ideal range of .30 to .50 suggested by researchers such as Field (2000). The weak and highly variable correlations obtained between both POCS and POCS-USV items suggested that the items included in the current versions of the scale were not measuring the same thing, though this could also be a function of the

observed significant sample differences. Broadly, the psychometric properties for both the POCS and POCS-USV knowledge subscales were far from adequate.

While this may be a disappointing result, it nevertheless represents an important first step in survey development. Additionally, the fact that the scale reliability analysis indicated that a deletion of a large proportion of presently included items would result in improved reliability of the scale, it is evident that the design of the survey needs to be reconsidered. Nevertheless, despite the low reliability, some significant differences were noted in Studies 2 and 3. As well, the POCS and POCS-USV have face validity given their review by industry experts. Given the exploratory nature of this research, item reduction strategies were not pursued.

Finally, the results of the reliability analyses combined with low sample size made EFA unfeasible. Some researchers, such as MacCallum, Widamon, Zhang, and Hong (1999) have suggested that EFA can be feasible with even with lower subject to item ratios, and that in some cases, sample sizes as low as 100 can be adequate. However, they specify that in order for this to be the case, communalities between factors must all exceed .60. As communalities decrease below .50, they recommend samples sizes in excess of 500. Thus, had all necessary data requirements (e.g., sample size, adequate scale reliability, internal consistency, and inter-item correlations, multivariate normality, etc.; Costello & Osborne, 2005; Fabrigar et al., 1999; Field, 2000; MacCallum, Widamon, Zhang, & Hong, 1999; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001), EFA would have been an ideal analysis to use for survey refinement.

Issues such as lack of heterogeneity in variance, low communalities between items, and the resultant lack of reliability certainly played a role in the decision to not

attempt an EFA, but low sample size, as the most critical issue, was the primary determining factor. In summary, the hypothesis regarding psychometric fidelity of the POCS was not supported.

Overview of Important Findings: Study 2

The first part of the Study 2 involved examining whether or not a POs' level of experience, represented by their age and the number of years they had worked as a PO and in a correctional setting, had any impact on their performance on the POCS. Counter to general expectations, no relationship between any of the above noted indices of experience and scores on the survey were found. Likewise, scores on the POCS subscales were also found to be unrelated to experience. While this finding may be somewhat surprising, it is not inherently bad, as it suggests that less experienced POs are capable of performing comparably to their more experienced colleagues in terms of completing the tasks and questions required by the survey.

Similarly, no relationship was found between gender and survey scores. While existing research (Jurik, 1988) has examined the strategies developed and used by female correctional officers working in a traditionally male-dominated work setting, and other research has noted that females working in this type of setting present significantly different interpersonal and demographic characteristics when compared to their male counterparts (Walters, 1992), no existing research has demonstrated significant differences between male and female correctional officers with respect to competence. Given this lack of research, the possibility of gender differences on POCS performance seemed worthy of investigation. That said, no a priori hypothesis about how or why

females might perform differently than males was presented, and given that no differences were found, it would seem that this was justified.

Although no differences were detected based on the gender and experience demographic variables, POs' work setting (i.e., in an institution or in the community) did appear to have some influence on their performance on the POCS, though these relationships are perhaps most accurately characterized as trends. All of the observed differences in this sample favored community POs, as they outperformed institutional POs with respect to scores on the second vignette, the combined vignette subsection, and on the POCS overall. As no significant difference was identified for scores on the knowledge subscale, it can be concluded that the higher overall POCS scores achieved by community POs were largely a function of their higher vignette scores. Nevertheless, as alluded to above, these differences should be considered cautiously, as the mean difference between the two groups were overall quite minimal, with average scores on the vignettes and overall POCS differing by only 1.25 and 3.02 points respectively for scores on the second vignette and the total vignette scores respectively.

One possible explanation for this difference stems from the fact that the roles of community and institutional POs are distinct, and that some of the dissimilarities between their roles may have given community POs an advantage over institutional POs insofar as certain survey items were concerned. While none of the questions included in the vignettes section require types of information or knowledge that are entirely outside of the purview of institutional POs, it is likely that community POs may be required to answer some of these types of questions on a more regular basis.

For instance, community POs may be more familiar with several of the options included under the “managing the offender’s risk would require...” item of the vignette follow-up questions. Thus, they may have been increasingly likely to select options such as “more structured sessions” and “an increase in frequency of contact” as these represent the types of recommendations that they would be accustomed to making. Instead, the focus of institutional POs may be on tracking offenders’ behaviour and level of accountability while incarcerated in order to determine the degree of risk they pose to public safety if released (Andrews & Bonta, 2003), thereby making some of the follow-up questions in the vignettes less intuitive.

The greatest variation in POCS scores was related to the jurisdictional region in which the PO worked. Even after making adjustments to maintain family-wise error rates at an acceptable level, total POCS scores, as well as the aggregated scores on the skill and knowledge sections differed significantly as a function of region. With respect to the vignette scores, POs working in Quebec had the highest scores, closely followed by POs working in the Atlantic, and in the Pacific. Ontario POs came in fourth, with POs working in the Prairies achieving the lowest scores. Though this second analysis barely reached significance ($p = .049$), similar patterns were apparent for the knowledge questionnaire section, with POs from Pacific and Atlantic regions, and Quebec scoring highest in that order. Again, POs from Ontario and the Prairies came in fourth and fifth. Finally, the differences in overall POCS scores by region were found to differ across regions, with POs from Pacific and Atlantic regions scoring highest, and POs from the Prairies scoring lowest once more.

The fact that some regions consistently outperformed others is of import. It is somewhat concerning that POs from the Prairies had the lowest average scores across all analyses, and that POs from Ontario performed only slightly better. However, as noted earlier, results for these analyses should be interpreted cautiously as a result of the sensitivity of ANOVA tests. Furthermore, as this is a new area of research, there is no solid basis upon which to base speculation regarding the differential performance of POs across Canada on a measure such as this, and it should certainly not be concluded that lower POCS scores are in any way related to parolee outcome. That said, given that the items in the survey are largely predicated on the CSC's five areas of PO competency, they do retain some salience.

One possible avenue of inquiry with respect to the low scores achieved by POs in the Prairies region would involve an examination of the potential impact exerted by the high proportion of Aboriginal offenders found in this jurisdiction. Previous research (Pardoel, 2013) has noted a higher percentage of Aboriginal offenders (both males and females) in the Prairies when compared to all other Canadian regions. By extension, it is possible, though purely speculative, that POs in the Prairies may have invested more time and energy into approaches to dealing with Aboriginal offenders relative to POs from other regions. As vignettes and questions testing this type of knowledge did not represent a large portion of the survey, this could have influenced findings.

The final component of Study 2 involved correlating attitudes and values, as assessed by the ranking scales, with POCS scores in order to determine if certain types of beliefs had an impact on POCS performance. Of the 26 items in the ranking scales, nine associations were found. While the correlations ranged in absolute value from $r = .24$ to

$r = .37$, and were therefore considered weak by general convention, they did, nonetheless provide some interesting insight into the types of attitudes and values espoused by Canadian POs, as well as into how these beliefs were related to POCS performance.

Perhaps unsurprisingly, ascribing a higher degree of importance to behaviours such as “providing opportunities that allow the offender to comment on their own progress”, “developing a positive working relationship with the offender”, “assisting an offender in managing his/her risk”, and “changing supervision approach in accordance with changes in behaviour or in response to new information”, were all associated in higher scores on the POCS. Conversely, prioritizing “providing a thorough analysis of information...” or “writing clear and concise reports” was associated with lower POCS scores, though it should be noted that neither correlation was particularly strong. It is possible that these items may simply have been ranked as lower priorities, as they represent activities that can broadly be described as paperwork. As reported by Seiter (2002), even when POs are charged with increasingly levels of surveillance and paperwork-related tasks, they continued to believe that the most important components of their role lay in helping the offender, and in interacting with them at a more human level.

Among the somewhat more surprising findings from this section were the positive correlations between “being familiar with effective correctional interventions/programs” and “getting the offender to see the difference between where their life is now and where they want to be in the future”. Recall that items deemed higher priorities actually received lower scores as a function of being ranked from most to least important. As such, these findings are interpreted to mean that increases in POCS scores were associated with ranking these items as lower priorities. Also, as the priority associated

with “verifying offender-reported information” increased, so too did POCS scores. In light of the weak correlations between these variables and the shortcomings associated with the POCS as a survey, no confident interpretations of these findings can be made.

Overview of Important Findings: Study 3

As with Study 2, the first objective in this study was to determine if experience played a role in determining POCS-USV scores. The overall conclusion, is that no, experience does not influence POCS-USV scores, again rejecting the hypothesis. When POCS-USV and subscale scores were examined in relation to the experience variables, no significant correlation was found with overall survey scores, and neither of the two correlations identified between experience variables and POCS-USV subscales maintained significance following the required correction to alpha level. That said, a weak, positive correlation ($r = .23, p = .03$) was found between the number of years worked in corrections variable and the risk management subscale of the knowledge question section of the survey, suggesting that, at least to some degree for this US sample, that ability to answer questions pertaining to offender risk management correctly increases as a function of time worked in a correctional setting.

Interestingly, results indicated that the number of years that an individual had worked as a PO was inversely related to their score on the second vignette. Again, as the correlation was weak ($r = -.21, p = .05$), and did not retain significance once alpha values were appropriately adjusted, what exactly this means is not easily discerned. This finding is noted here as subsequent analyses also revealed differences with respect to this particular vignette. These will be discussed collectively shortly.

Subsequent analyses of gender in relation to POCS-USV scores revealed no conclusive evidence of gender differences. Analyses of subscales yielded similar results, with the one slight difference detected (females achieving high mean scores on vignette 2 than males), though it failed to retain significance following appropriate adjustments to significance levels. As noted in the discussion of Study 2, there were no convincing reasons to expect difference in scores across gender, thus this finding was anticipated.

In any case, the finding that neither degree of experience or gender had a significant influence on POCS-USV scores is arguably positive. Had differences been detected, further research would have been required in order to investigate the causes underlying any differential performance. Though perhaps not ideally tailored for use with an American sample, none of the items included in the POCS-USV would reasonably be expected to be problematic for either males or females, or even for newer versus more experienced staff.

Work setting was not associated with performance scores on the POCS-USV as a whole, or on the knowledge questions subsection, but was related to scores on the vignettes. Specifically, the total score aggregated across all four vignettes was higher for institutional CMs, who also scored higher on the second vignette. In this case, the scores achieved by CMs on the vignettes overall ($M = 16.86$, $SD = 2.67$) retained significance after corrections to alpha level, suggesting that the difference in the performance of the two groups was more substantial.

Another finding was that institutional CMs achieved higher scores on the second vignette (as did females). These results, when combined with the finding that experience as measured by number of years as a PO was inversely related to scores on this vignette,

are somewhat perplexing. Most likely, the finding is relatively insignificant as methodological issues (described in greater detail in the overview of key findings from Study 1) present serious limitations for the interpretability of vignette-specific findings. It may also imply that POs' understanding or interpretations of this vignette are quite varied, suggesting that the wording or content of this vignette needs to be improved. Nevertheless, the conflicting nature of these findings is notable, particularly because the second vignette presents the case of an offender with mental illness. Mental illness is a common problem among offenders, who suffer from a significantly higher degree of these problems than members of the general population (Brink, Doherty, & Boer, 2001; Petersilia, 2001). Owing to this, it would seem imperative that POs understand how to deal with cases such as this one, and this may represent a valuable avenue for future research into PO training.

Several of the ranking scale items yielded significant correlations with POCS-USV scales, even at very stringent alpha levels. The first finding of import is that, "using a variety of supervision strategies" was correlated with both the knowledge section of the POCS-USV ($r = -.32, p = .002$) and total POCS-USV scores ($r = -.30, p = .003$), indicating that a higher degree of prioritization of this item was related to higher scores. Likewise a correlation was observed between "providing offenders with feedback on their progress" and both vignette and overall POCS-USV scores. The correlation coefficients were $r = -.39, p < .001$, and $r = -.36, p < .001$, respectively. In other words, the more importance ascribed to providing the offender with feedback, the higher the associated scores. These findings are encouraging, as behaviours such as these are involved in the development high-quality relationships between POs and offenders, and have been linked

to positive client outcomes (Dowden & Andrews, 2004; Bonta et al., 2008; Bonta et al., 2011). More specifically, reductions in recidivism have been linked to establishing good relationships and providing offenders with direction and structure (Bonta, et al., 2008), and providing offenders with feedback is a component of this.

Some of the items that were associated with lower POCS-USV scores were focused more heavily on POs' own learning, such as maintaining awareness of up-to-date or new research; as described in Study 2. Results from Seiter (2002) suggest that the lower prioritization of these items may simply be a function of POs placing more importance on behaviours that seemed more directly relevant to helping offenders. Moreover, as the correlations between these items and POCS-USV scores did not exceed $r = .27$, the strength of the relationship is not particularly compelling.

Overview of Collective Findings

Taken as a whole, the findings of Studies 1 through 3 demonstrate that POCS scores did not vary greatly based on any of the demographic variables collected as part of the surveys. For both Canadian and American samples, no noteworthy differences existed between overall survey scores and both experience and gender variables, though the samples did differ significantly with respect to composition on these variables. Furthermore, results from Study 1 demonstrated that the reliability and other psychometric properties of the POCS as a scale were lacking.

This section will present an overview of the collective outcome data, as well as a general description of the resultant competency profile that has emerged. Finally, a discussion of the attitudes and values in the ranking scales will be offered in relation to extant research, as this component represents one of the more unique aspects of the

present study and is also part of the normative profile that this research endeavored to develop.

Outcome data and general competency profile. Despite low response rates for both Canadian and American samples, sample demographic characteristics were largely consistent with expectations. Notwithstanding the fact that the composition of the samples on key demographic variables rendered them statistically unsuitable for amalgamation, none of the values obtained on either survey suggested inaccurate or exaggerated reporting on the part of any of the participants.

Of the demographic variables examined, only work setting was associated with variance in survey scores across both samples, though findings were contradictory; in the Canadian sample, any significant differences favored community POs, while for the American sample, the opposite was true. While slight differences were found between demographic variables and overall survey or subscale scores, the dissimilarity in results across samples does little other than provide further evidence for the degree of variation between the Canadian and American samples.

As the results of study 1 suggest, the POCS and POCS-USV in their current forms are less than optimal in terms of their practicability as scales. Nevertheless, as the items included are based on CSC's five areas of PO competency (and were deemed to have face-validity by a panel of corrections experts), and a synthesis of extant research on PO competencies (much of which overlaps), it is still relevant to discuss Canadian and American POs' overall performance on the appropriate survey.

Overall, Canadian POs' averaged just under 63% on the survey overall, with their American counterparts scoring just above 61%. Notwithstanding the shortcomings of the

POCS as a reliable scale, these scores do not exactly inspire confidence. However, given that scores did not vary as a function of key demographic variables, namely those related to experience, and that the present study was neither a validation study or in any way linked to offender outcome, it would be inappropriate to judge POs negatively based on these outcomes.

Within the Canadian sample, POs performed better on the knowledge questions than they did on the skill section, as evidenced by a correct response rate of only 51% on the vignettes. While performance on the second vignette was lowest overall, correct response rates on any of the vignettes did not reach 60%.

Findings suggest that while POs seemed to be able to answer questions pertaining to relevant policies, laws, legislation, and general offender management, and understand how to communicate this type of information (analysis subscale 81.1% correct, and supervision and communication subscale 85.5% correct), issues pertaining specifically to risk assessment and risk management proved more problematic. For the risk assessment and risk management subscales, the percentages of correct answers were 67.7% and 58.7% respectively. However, in light of recent research (Bonta et al., 2008), it is not entirely surprising that there is somewhat of a disconnect between POs' understanding of, and ability to apply RNR principles and CCPs.

Within the analysis subscale, Item 2 (summarizing the key principles of the CCRA) and Item 6 (evaluating the efficacy of dynamic risk factors as predictors of recidivism) evidenced the highest error rates, with only 42.0% and 59.4% of POs providing correct responses.

Three items within the risk assessment subscale yielded a less than 50% success rate. Item 4, which pertains specifically to assessing and managing risk among sex-offenders was answered correctly by less than one third of POs (30.40%). Similarly, the low rate of correct responses to Item 9, which addresses the efficacy of clinical overrides, indicates that many of the POs surveyed may not fully understand the strengths and limitations of many of the assessment tools at their disposal. However, these observations are far less troubling than the fact that fewer than 16% of POs provided a correct response to Item 8; the vast majority of POs selected “False” in response to the statement “it is best to focus on offenders’ criminogenic needs...”. Given the abundance of research describing RNR principles and the empirically validated need for POs to focus on criminogenic needs with clients (Andrews & Bonta, 2003, 2010; Bonta & Andrews, 2007; Bonta, et al., 2008; Dowden & Andrews, 1999a,b, 2000; Dowden and Andrews, 2004; etc.), this result is particularly worrisome.

With respect to the risk assessment subscale, a further two items were answered correctly less than half the time. In this case, both items (3 and 8) made reference to offenders with mental illness. It would appear that many POs are uncertain when it comes to identifying salient risk factors and the most effective treatment strategies for mentally ill offenders. As noted earlier, mental illness is a serious concern within offender populations (Brink et al., 2001; Petersilia, 2001), and the poor performance on these questions is indicative of an area in which POs could improve.

Results indicate that the final subscale, supervision and communication, was the least problematic for respondents. With the exception of the final item (Item 8), all questions were answered correctly in excess of 70% of the time. This final section

included a large number of questions referring to appropriate supervision strategies and procedures, and suggests that POs are well aware of what they are expected to do in interactions with offenders.

Correct responses rates for American POs on the POCS-USV were similar, as again, POs were more successful with respect to answering the knowledge questions than choosing appropriate responses to the skill-testing vignettes. Again, the second vignette proved most problematic, though POs in this sample were able to select appropriate courses of action slightly more frequently. Given the low level of correct responses to this vignette and the puzzling relationships it yielded with some of the demographic characteristics mentioned earlier on in the discussion section and the fact that it deals with a mentally ill offender, it would seem that either inclusion (or at least content/wording) of this vignette should be reconsidered; or that this is an area that POs should target for improvement.

Two questions in the analysis subscale yielded correct response rates of less substantially less than 50%. Item 2, pertaining to the guiding principles of American legislation, was answered correctly in approximately one third of cases, suggesting that though POs may be generally aware of its' tenets, that it is not something discussed on a regular basis. Item 6 was answered incorrectly more than 70% of the time, demonstrating a certain degree of misunderstanding with respect to the relative strengths and weaknesses of static and dynamic risk factors.

Six of ten items in the risk assessment subscale proved problematic for POs, as evidenced by a low rate of correct responses. The lowest rates of correct response were observed for Items 4 and 8. While the fact that Item 4 was answered correctly only

16.0% of the time, it is conceptually less worrisome, as while there are a wide array of risk assessment tools used to assess and manage offender risk, Item 8, which deals with criminogenic needs, should be common knowledge within a correctional setting.

With respect to the risk management section, the items with the lowest correct response rate (i.e., Items 3, 5, and 8) all pertained to dealing with offenders constituting minority groups. Specifically, these items addressed mentally ill and female offenders. While still concerning, in some sense, this may be reassuring, in that POs appear to struggle with questions describing procedures and management strategies for offenders who represent a minority of the offenders with whom they come into contact.

Overall, American POs did quite well with the final knowledge subscale, supervision and communication, as all items were answered correctly in more than 50% of cases. As this section focused primarily on appropriate procedures and characteristics of effective staff, it would appear that the surveyed POs have a solid grasp of this information.

Interpretation of attitudes and values ranking scales. The mean ratings on each of the items in the ranking scales were, overall, quite close. Moreover, there were minimal differences in the mean priority ratings ascribed to the items across Canadian and American samples. The main conclusion that can be made here is that POs found it difficult to attribute more importance to certain items relative to others. Many of the items pertain directly to CCP (i.e., “developing a positive working relationship with the offender”, “role-modeling prosocial behaviour”, “being aware of criminal justice partners such as community resources”, and “asking the offender to identify different ways that they could handle a difficult situation”), and perhaps more saliently, none of

the behavioural statements described overtly negative or obviously inappropriate behaviours. Given the opportunity, it is expected that POs would have indicated that all of the behaviours described in the statement were almost equally important parts of their role. However, as POs were forced to rank order the statements, certain trends did emerge.

In view of the foregoing, it was almost impossible for the results to not be encouraging. Regardless, the pattern of prioritized items still allows for some interpretation. Results suggested that POs gave most importance to items that appeared to be most directly related to helping facilitate offender reintegration. Other items, which may loosely be described as paperwork-related, were typically ranked as lower priorities. This is not to say that POs think these aspects of their roles are not important, but suggests instead that they feel that the most useful things they can do are those that would maximize offenders' likelihood of successful reintegration (Grant & McNeill, 2014). These findings are largely consistent with those from Seiter (2002), who also concluded that officers believed they could best help offenders by doing things like referring them to appropriate resources or services, helping them find and maintain employment, developing support systems, and aiding them in the development of stable patterns of prosocial behavior.

Also consistent with extant research by Bonta et al. (2008) is the finding that POs in both samples appeared to attribute a relatively high degree of importance to encouraging positive behaviour. By extension, it is assumed that this is something most POs are comfortable doing. While generally speaking, Canadian and American POs

ranked items similarly, there were two key differences, both of which are of interest in relation to the Bonta et al. (2008) study.

First, Bonta and colleagues (2008) identified prosocial modeling, or rather the lack thereof, as a key area in which the Canadian POs they survey could improve. Interestingly, Canadian POs in the current study ranked “role-modeling prosocial behaviour” lowest overall within its respective ranking scale. Conversely, in the American sample, this item received the second highest mean ranking. As prosocial modeling is such an important component of influencing behaviour change (Bonta et al., 2008; Bonta et al., 2011; Dowden & Andrews, 2004), it would appear that this remains an area in need of improvement for Canadian POs in particular. However, as a final note on this topic, it is important to differentiate between ranking an item as a top priority, and actually utilizing that technique consistently in practice. Further and different research would be required in order to actually determine if American POs used this technique more frequently in practice.

Second, results for the present study suggest that Canadian POs may be beginning to recognize the importance of discouraging inappropriate behaviour, or in other words, using effective disapproval (Andrews & Kiessling, 1980). As this was one of the areas Bonta and colleagues (2008) also cited for improvement among Canadian POs, it is encouraging that, in the current sample, this item, “reiterating to the offender an area that warrants change” was ranked as being one of the more important items (though still not first in its particular ranking scale), especially when compared to POs in the American sample, in which this item received the lowest importance rating. Still, the relative

ranking of an item is not indicative of its use in practice; hence these findings should not be cause for too much excitement or concern.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Results from the present study should be considered in light of several limitations. First and foremost among these considerations is the issue of low sample size. Before all else, it must be acknowledged that sample size is invariably related to power; all things being equal, larger samples result in greater power (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). As power represents the probability of finding a significant effect, if in fact one exists, it is a key consideration in all analyses. That said, though the sample sizes used in the present study were still in excess of $N = 50$, had the desired sample size of $N = 250+$ been achieved, the resultant increase in power may have yielded different results. At the very least, future research should be conducted with a greater sample size, which would increase the likelihood of detection of any significant results.

To be frank, for reasons explained above, data collection did not go as planned. The result was two smaller data sets in place of one larger one. While a suitably large number of participants began the survey, the dropout, or non-completion rate was quite high, resulting in two much smaller samples once reduced to the useable data. Furthermore, even these useable data sets were fairly incomplete, in that they include many missing values across numerous variables.

There are several possible reasons for the high proportion of dropouts, though the following two seem the most likely. First, the length of the survey, which required 20-30 minutes to complete, may have had an impact. This seems a likely culprit based on the patterns of missing data observed, and the fact that when many respondents withdrew

from the survey, they had completed all (or most) of the items up until that point. This concern should be addressed in future studies; options include shortening the survey, offering some sort of incentive for completion, or considering dividing the survey into shorter subsections to be administered at different times. While this last option raises concerns of its own, it may, nevertheless, result in more complete results.

The second possible reason underlying the low completion rate is a lack of certainty about how to answer questions. Notably, this reason is slightly more likely to be the case for American respondents. Though the survey was altered to be suitable for use with an American sample, and approved by American research coordinators, given that the development of the original survey was largely predicated on the CSC's five areas of competency, many American participants may have been confused, or unsure of the relevance of certain items. The dropout rate for the American sample was greater than that noted for the Canadian sample. Moreover, several emails were received from American participants voicing such concerns, and indicating that they were unsure of how they should proceed. In response to such emails, participants were encouraged to choose whatever option seemed best or most plausible, but it is entirely likely and quite understandable that many such participants would simply have become frustrated and neglected to complete the remaining questions.

To address this, future studies would benefit from designing surveys specifically for each jurisdiction from the outset. While this was not possible within the context of the current study, survey quality would inarguably benefit from design procedures based specifically on the rules, regulations, and competencies emphasized in the jurisdiction for which it is intended for use.

Findings from the current study may also have been affected by self-selection bias. As participation was entirely voluntary and anonymous, only those POs who wanted to participate did so. Likewise, some of the POs who started the survey may have withdrawn prior to completion if they felt that they were performing poorly. An inevitable consequence of this is homogeneity of variance. Although homogeneity of variance is desirable to a certain degree, if data is overly, or artificially homogeneous, it minimizes the likelihood of detecting any differences that otherwise might exist. That said, for the present study it was not possible to determine the cause of the lack of variance among outcome variables, as it may be legitimate.

The current study also included various other methodological limitations, which may have undermined the results. This study constituted the initial stages of development of a survey intended to quantify PO competencies, more precisely defined as a composite of attitudes, values, skills, and knowledge (Kaslow, 2004a; Marrelli et al., 2005; Rodolfa et al., 2005), and is therefore almost intrinsically plagued by challenges (DeVellis, 2012). As per Clark and Watson (1995) and DeVellis (2012), when developing a scale, it is important to begin with a clearly defined conceptualization of the construct to be measured, and to employ a heterogeneous sample, which is representative of the entire population to be measured. For the purposes of this study, survey development efforts were directed almost exclusively toward meeting the objectives with respect to the PO competencies presently emphasized by the CSC, and likely resulted in a combination of questionnaire items that, despite looking right (i.e., having face validity) and a reasonable attempt to have experts from the field validate the content, did not do an adequate job of measuring the intended constructs. An additional weakness here would

be that much of the research on CCPs, though inter-meshed with the CSC's five areas of competency, was not integrated to the extent that it likely should have been.

Moreover, owing to the fact that one of the samples included in the study was entirely composed of participants from Iowa, using the CSC's competency areas as the foundation for the survey poses yet another serious limitation. Although CCPs are widely accepted as effective across North America (Andrews & Bonta, 2010; Andrews & Bonta, 2012; Dowden & Andrews, 2004), the inevitable differences between the CSC and IDOC limits the generalizability of findings based on the use of a survey largely predicated on the CSC's objectives with IDOC POs. Thus, much of the content of the survey may not have been directly relevant for participants in Iowa, an issue that should be rectified prior to further research.

Next, existing items and subscales demonstrated poor psychometric properties. Though lack of adequate sample size was the primary reason preventing the use of EFA, lack of reliability and internal consistency between subscale items also contributed to this decision. Had EFA been feasible, it may have been possible to make greater advancements with respect to the development of a more parsimonious measure, which, in turn, may have helped to address the issue of the length of the survey. Future research would benefit from a more careful synthesis of research pertaining specifically (at least initially) to the jurisdiction in which data collection was intended, and from a thorough review of the research regarding competencies (i.e., CCPs) that have been found to be applicable across jurisdictions, regardless of individual client risk, needs, and circumstances.

Additionally, the division of items amongst each of the ranking scores may not have been ideal with respect to detecting variability. Following identification of items to include, insufficient time was dedicated to determining which items should be grouped together for the purposes of ranking. Consequently, many of the items included in each scale were similar with respect to the behaviour or value described, and as discussed in an earlier section, largely representative of CCPs. Hence, variability was limited, thereby also limiting interpretability of findings. Possible directions for future research include a more judicious consideration of which items to group together in order to maximize variability of results. Arguably, more important information about PO attitudes and values could be gleaned from a higher degree of variability in ranking order. Another option that merits consideration would be the inclusion of items with more of a surveillance-based focus, as this might provide more interesting grounds for a comparison of attitudes and values.

Final, if specific, directions for future research include investigating the generally poor performance of POs in relation to the second vignette describing a hypothetical mentally ill offender, as well delving into possible reasons underlying why POs from the Prairies, closely followed by those from Ontario, achieved lower POCS scores when compared to Canadian POs from other jurisdictions.

General Implications and Conclusions

The overarching goal of the present study was to address the paucity of research examining certain parole officer (PO) characteristics, namely, attitudes, values and competencies, and to identify and standardize the assessment of such traits, and to a certain extent, this goal was accomplished. A normative competency profile describing

the attitudes, values, skills, and knowledge of extant POs in both Canada and the United States was established, and a contextual description of these findings was provided.

Though the current study fell somewhat short in terms of the creation a preliminary measure demonstrating adequate psychometric properties, it did, nonetheless, provide useful insights and directions that could be used to inform future research, and the possible causes underlying methodological shortcomings were discussed.

Advances with respect to identifying and measuring those PO attributes associated with positive client outcomes stand to have significant implications insofar as the performance and training of existing POs is concerned. While the present study was able to assess the performance of Canadian and American POs on the POCS and POCS-USV respectively, given the shortcoming associated with the surveys, much remains to be elucidated. Moreover, despite the somewhat equivocal findings with respect to variations in POCS scores observed in the current study, PO attitudes, values, and competence remain a valid area of research.

Prison overcrowding, high reincarceration rates, and the exorbitant financial expenditures associated with incarceration are issues that are not likely to be resolved any time soon. Additionally, in the absence of convincing evidence, public views with respect to the efficacy of the criminal justice system are not likely to be ameliorated, and said public is unlikely to support increased investment in offender reintegration and PO training initiatives (Petersilia, 2001).

Findings from this research can be used to help inform continuous development training for POs regarding CPP, with a specific focus on the areas found to be lacking on the attitudes and values section. Moreover, findings from the current study will be used

to inform the restructuring of the POCS, and may, ultimately lead to the creation of a standardized measure, which can be used to assess PO competencies. While improvements to public policy as a result of contributing to the growing body of literature in this area is the eventual end-goal, substantial research is required in the interim.

References

- American Probation and Parole Association (1987). *Position Statement – Parole*.
Lexington, KY. Retrieved from the American Probation and Parole Association
website:http://www.appanet.org/eweb/Dynamicpage.aspx?webcode=IB_PositionStatement&wps_key=e21e9312-056e-43be-8d55-dda3549dd7dc
- American Probation and Parole Association (1997). *Position Statement – Probation*.
Lexington, KY. Retrieved from the American Probation and Parole Association
website:http://www.appanet.org/eweb/Dynamicpage.aspx?webcode=IB_PositionStatement&wps_key=dc223702-d690-4830-9295-335366a65d3e
- Andrews, D. A. & Bonta, J. (2003). *The psychology of criminal conduct*. (3rd ed.).
Cincinnati, OH: Anderson.
- Andrews, D. A., & Bonta, J. (2010). Rehabilitating criminal justice policy and practice.
Psychology, Public Policy, and Law, 16(1), 39.
- Andrews, D. A., Bonta, J., & Wormith, J. S. (2006). The recent past and near future of
risk and/or need assessment. *Crime and Delinquency*, 52(1), 7-27. doi:
10.1177/0011128705281756
- Andrews, D. A., & Dowden, C. (2006). Risk principle of case classification in
correctional treatment: A meta-analytic investigation. *International Journal of
Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, 50, 88-100.
- Andrews, D. A., Dowden, C., & Rettinger, J. L. (2001). Special populations within
corrections. *Corrections in Canada: Social reactions to crime*, 170-212.

- Andrews, D. A., & Kiessling, J. J. (1980). Program structure and effective correctional practices: A summary of the CaVIC research. In R.R. Ross & P. Gendreau (Eds.), *Effective correctional treatment*. Toronto, Canada: Butterworth.
- Andrews, D. A., Zinger, I., Hoge, R. D., Bonta, J., Gendreau, P., & Cullen, F. T. (1990). Does correctional treatment work? A clinically relevant and psychologically informed meta-analysis. *Criminology*, 28(3), 369-404.
- Arluke, N. R. (1956). A summary of parole rules. *NPPA Journal*. (January): 6-13.
- Arluke, N. R. (1969). A summary of parole rules – Thirteen years later. *Crime and Delinquency*, 15(2), 267-274.
- Austin, J. (2001). Prisoner reentry: Current trends, practices, and issues. *Crime and Delinquency*, 47(3), 314-334.
- Austin, J., Clear, T., Duster, T., Greenberg, D. F., Irwin, J., McCoy, C., ... & Page, J. (2007). *Unlocking America: Why and how to reduce America's prison population*. Washington, DC: JFA Institute.
- Barklage, H., Miller, D., & Bonham, G. (2006). Probation conditions versus probation officer directives: where the twain shall meet. *Journal of Federal Probation*, 70(3), 37-41.
- Beck, A., & Mumola, C. (1999). *Prisoners in 1998* (NCJ 175687). Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics.
- Blumstein, A. (1998). US criminal justice conundrum: rising prison populations and stable crime rates. *Crime and Delinquency*, 44, 127-135.
- Blumstein, A., & Beck, A. J. (1999). Population growth in US prisons, 1980-1996. *Crime and Justice*, 26, 17.

- Bodner, T. E. (2008). What improves with increased missing data imputations?. *Structural Equation Modeling, 15*(4), 651-675.
- Bonta, J., & Andrews, D. A. (2007). Risk-need-responsivity model for offender assessment and rehabilitation. *Rehabilitation, 6*, 1-22.
- Bonta, J., & Andrews, D. (2012). Viewing offender assessment and rehabilitation through the lens of the risk-need-responsivity model1. *Offender Supervision: New Directions in Theory, Research and Practice, 19*.
- Bonta, J., Bourgon, G., Rugge, T., Scott, T.-L., Yessine, A.K., Gutierrez, L., and Li, J. (2011). An experimental demonstration of training probation officers in evidence-based community supervision. *Criminal Justice and Behavior, 38*(11), 1127-1148. doi: 10.1177/0093854811420678
- Bonta, J., Rugge, T., Scott, T. L., Bourgon, G, and Yessine, A. K. (2008). Exploring the black box of community supervision. *Offender Rehabilitation, 47*(3), 248-270. doi: 10.1080/10509670802134085
- Bonta, J., Wallace-Capretta, S. & Rooney, R. (2000). A quasi-experimental evaluation of an intensive rehabilitation supervision program. *Criminal Justice and Behavior, 27*, 312-329.
- Bourgon, G., Bonta, J., Rugge, T., Scott, T. L., & Yessine, A. K. (2009). *Translating "What Works" Into Sustainable Everyday Practice: Program Design, Implementation and Evaluation*. Ottawa, Canada: Public Safety Canada.
- Bourgon, G., Gutierrez, L., and Ashton, J. (2011). The evolution of community supervision practice: the transformation from case manager to change agent. *Irish Probation Journal, 8*, 28-48

- Brink, J. H., Doherty, D., & Boer, A. (2001). Mental disorder in federal offenders: A Canadian prevalence study. *International journal of law and psychiatry*, 24(4), 339-356.
- Burke, P.B. (Ed.). (2003). A handbook for new parole board members. *Association of Parole Authorities*. Retrieved June 27, 2015, from http://www.apaintl.org/en/aw_publications.html
- Caplan, J. M. (2006). Parole system anomie: conflicting models of casework and surveillance. *Federal Probation*, 70(3), 32-36.
- Caplan, J. M. (2007). What factors affect parole: a review of empirical research. *Federal Probation*, 71, 16.
- Carpenter, J., & Kenward, M. (2012). *Multiple imputation and its application*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Chadwick, N., Smeth, A.H., & Serin, R.C. (2015). *Effectively training community supervision officers: A meta-analytic review of the impact on offender outcome*. Manuscript submitted for publication.
- Cleland, C. M., Pearson, F., & Lipton, D. S. (1996). *A meta-analytic approach to the link between needs-targeted treatment and reductions in criminal offending*. Paper presented at the American Society of Criminology annual meeting, Chicago, IL.
- Cook, A. N., & Roesch, R. (2012). "Tough on crime" reforms: What psychology has to say about the recent and proposed justice policy in Canada. *Canadian Psychology/Psychologie canadienne*, 53(3), 217.
- Corrections and Conditional Release Act (1992)*.

- Correctional Service of Canada. (2012). *About parole officers*. Ottawa, Canada: Retrieved from Correctional Service of Canada website: <http://www.csc-scc.gc.ca/parole/002007-0001-eng.shtml>
- Correctional Service of Canada. (2013). *Parole officer*. Ottawa, Canada: Retrieved from Correctional Service of Canada website: <http://www.csc-scc.gc.ca/careers/003001-1103-eng.shtml>
- Correctional Service of Canada. (2014). *2013-14 Report on Plans and Priorities*. Ottawa, Canada: Retrieved from Correctional Service of Canada website: <http://www.csc-scc.gc.ca/text/pblct/rpp/rpp2013-2014/rpp-2013-14-eng.shtml>
- Costello, A., & Osborne, J. W. (2005). Best practices in exploratory factor analysis: Four recommendations for getting the most from your analysis. *Practical Assessment, Research, & Evaluation, 10*(7), 1-9.
- DeVellis, R. F. (2012). *Scale development: Theory and applications* (Vol. 26). Sage publications.
- Dowden, C., & Andrews, D. A. (1999a). What works for female offenders: A meta-analytic review. *Crime and Delinquency, 45*, 438-452.
- Dowden, C., & Andrews, D. A. (1999b). What works in young offender treatment: A meta-analysis. *Forum on Corrections Research, 11*(2), 21-24.
- Dowden, C., & Andrews, D. A. (2000). Effective correctional treatment and violent reoffending: A meta-analysis. *Canadian Journal of Criminology, 42*, 449-476.
- Dowden, C., and Andrews, D.A. (2004). The importance of staff practice in delivering effective correctional treatment: a meta-analytic review of core correctional

- practice. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, 48(2), 203-214. doi: 10.1177/0306624X03257765
- Epstein, R.M., & Hundert, E.M. (2002). Defining and assessing professional competence. *JAMA: the Journal of the American Medical Association*, 287, 226-235. doi: 10.1001/jama.287.2.226
- Fava, J. L., & Velicer, W. F. (1992). The effects of overextraction on factor and component analysis. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 27(3), 387-415.
- Fabrigar, L. R., Wegener, D. T., MacCallum. R. C., & Strahan, E. J. (1999). Evaluating the use of exploratory factor analysis in psychological research. *Psychological Methods*, 4(3), 272-299. doi: 10.1177/1094428104263675
- Families Against Mandatory Minimums. (2012). *Frequently asked questions about the lack of parole for federal offenders*. Washington, DC. Retrieved from: <http://famm.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/08/FAQ-Federal-Parole-11.29.pdf>
- Federal Bureau of Prisons. (2015). *About BOP*. Washington, DC. Retrieved from the Federal Bureau of Prisons website: <http://www.bop.gov/about/index.jsp>
- Federal Bureau of Prisons. (2015). *Staff Ethnicity/Race*. Washington, DC. Retrieved from the Federal Bureau of Prisons website: http://www.bop.gov/about/statistics/statistics_staff_ethnicity_race.jsp
- Field, A. (2000). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics*. Sage Publications.
- Garrett, C. J. (1985). Effects of residential treatment of adjudicated delinquents: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 22, 287-308.

- Glick, H. R., & Pruet Jr, G. W. (1985). Crime, public opinion and trial courts: An analysis of sentencing policy. *Justice Quarterly*, 2(3), 319-343.
- Gobeil, R. (2012). *Understanding parole recommendations: the contribution of parole officers* (Doctoral Dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses.
- Gottfredson, M. R., Mitchell-Herzfeld, S. D., Flanagan, T. J. (1982). Another look at the effectiveness of parole supervision. *Research in Crime and Delinquency*, July 1982, 277-298.
- Graham, J. W., Olchowski, A. E., & Gilreath, T. D. (2007). How many imputations are really needed? Some practical clarifications of multiple imputation theory. *Prevention Science*, 8(3), 206-213.
- Grant, B.A. (1998). *Day parole: Effects of the corrections and conditional release act*. Ottawa: Research Branch, Correctional Service of Canada.
- Grant, B. A., & Gillis, C. A. (1999). *Day parole outcome, criminal history, and other predictors of successful sentence completion (R-83)*. Ottawa, Canada: Correctional Service of Canada.
- Grant, S., & McNeill, F. (2014). The quality of probation supervision: Comparing practitioner accounts in England and Scotland. *European Journal of Probation*, 6(2), 147-168.
- Grattet, R., Petersilia, J., Lin, J., & Beckman, M. (2009). Parole violations and revocations in California: Analysis and suggestions for actions. *Federal Probation*, 73(1), 1-11.

- Grove, W.M., Zald, D.H., Lebow, B.S., Snitz, B.E., & Nelson, C. (2000). Clinical versus mechanical prediction: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Assessment, 12*, 19-30.
- Gutierrez, L. (2010). *Examining the relationship factor in a criminal justice setting: therapeutic alliance, the dual-role principle of effective correctional counseling* (Master's Thesis). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses.
- Hanlon, T. E., Nurco, D. N., Bateman, R. W., & O'Grady, K. E. (1999). The relative effects of three approaches to the parole supervision of narcotic addicts and cocaine abusers. *The Prison Journal, 79*(2), 163-181.
- Hartney, C. (2006). US rates of incarceration: A global perspective. *Oakland, CA: National Council on Crime and Delinquency.*
- Hill, J. K., Andrews, D. A., & Hoge, R. D. (1991). Meta-analysis of treatment programs for young offenders: The effect of clinically relevant treatment on recidivism with controls introduced for various methodological variables. *Canadian Journal of Program Evaluation, 6*, 97-109.
- Hood, R., & Shute, S. (2000). *The Parole system at work: a study of risk based decision-making* (Research Study No. 202). Retrieved from University of Oxford, Centre for Criminological Research website:
http://solo.bodleian.ox.ac.uk/primo_library/libweb/action/dlDisplay.do?vid=OXVU1&docId=oxfaleph013828895
- Hughes, T. A., & Wilson, D. J. (2003). *Reentry trends in the United States*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics.
- Hughes, T., Wilson, D.J., & Back, A.J. (2001). *Trends in state parole, 1990-2000*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics.

- Iowa Department of Corrections, (2015). *Quarterly Quick Facts, March 31, 2015*. Des Moines, IA: Author.
- Izzo, R. L., & Ross, R. R. (1990). A meta-analysis of rehabilitation programs for juvenile delinquents: A brief report. *Criminal Justice and Behavior, 17*, 134-142.
- Jacobson, M. (2005). *Downsizing Prisons: How to reduce crime and end mass incarceration*. Retrieved from www.books.google.ca/books?hl=en&lr=id=PUr07P0Vi3QC&oi=fnd&pg=PR9&dq=jacobson,+2005
- Jalbert, S. K., Rhodes, W., & Flygare, C. (2010). Testing probation outcomes in an evidence-based practice setting: reduced caseload size and intensive supervision effectiveness. *Offender Rehabilitation, 49*, 233-253. doi: 10.1080/10509671003715987
- James, N. (2014). *The federal prison population buildup: Overview, policy changes, issues, and options* (Report No. 42937). Washington, DC: Congressional Research Service.
- Jurik, N. C. (1988). Striking A Balance: Female Correctional Officers, Gender Role Stereotypes, and Male Prisons*. *Sociological Inquiry, 58*(3), 291-305.
- Kaslow, N. J. (2004). Competencies in professional psychology. *American Psychologist, 59*(8), 774.
- Kennealy, P. J., Skeem, J. L., Manchak, S. M., and Eno Loudon, J. (2012). Firm, fair, and caring officer-offender relationships protect against supervision failure. *Law and Human Behavior, 36*(6), 496-505. doi: 10.1037/h0093935

- Lambert, M. J. (1992). Psychotherapy outcome research: Implications for integrative and eclectic therapists. *Handbook of psychotherapy integration, 1*, 94-129.
- Larocque, B. (1998). *Federal trends and outcomes in conditional release*. Ottawa: National Parole Board.
- Latimer, J., & Desjardins, N. (2007). *The 2007 National Justice Survey: Tackling Crime and Public Confidence*. Canada: Department of Justice Canada.
- Leigh, I.W., Smith, I.L., Bebeau, M.J., Lichtenberg, J.W., Nelson, P.D., Portnoy, S., ... Kaslow, N.J. (2007). Competency assessment models. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, 38*(5), 463-473. doi: 10.1037/0735-7028.38.5.463
- Lindsay, S. C., & Miller, M. K., (2011). Discretionary release decisions of actual and mock parole board members: implications for community sentiment and parole decision-making research. *The Australian and New Zealand Association of Psychiatry, Psychology and Law, 18*(4), 498-516. doi: 10.1080/13218719.2011.625619
- Lipsey, M. W. (1989). *The efficacy of intervention for juvenile delinquency: Results from 400 studies*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Society of Criminology, Reno, NV.
- Lipsey, M. W. (1995). What do we learn from 400 research studies on the effectiveness of treatment with juvenile delinquents? In J. McGuire (Ed.), *What works: Reducing reoffending: Guidelines from research and practice* (pp. 63-78). Chichester, UK: Wiley.

- Losel, F. (1995). The efficacy of correctional treatment: A review and synthesis of meta-evaluations. In J. McGuire (Ed.), *What works: Reducing reoffending: Guidelines from research and practice* (pp. 79-111). Chichester, UK: Wiley.
- Lowenkamp, C. T., Robinson, C. R., & Lowenkamp, M. S. (2010). EPICS-II: Effective Practices in Correctional Settings. *Unpublished training manual*.
- Lowry, D. T., Nio, T. C. J., & Leitner, D. W. (2003). Setting the public fear agenda: A longitudinal analysis of network TV crime reporting, public perceptions of crime, and FBI crime statistics. *Journal of Communication*, 53(1), 61-73.
- Luciani, F. (2001). Initiating safe reintegration: A decade of Custodial Rating Scale results. *Forum on Corrections Research*, 13 (1), 8-10.
- MacCallum, R. C., Widaman, K. F., Zhang, S., & Hong, S. (1999). Sample size in factor analysis. *Psychological methods*, 4(1), 84.
- Marrelli, A.F., Tondora, J., & Hoge, M.A. (2005). Strategies for developing competency models. *Administration and Policy in Mental Health Services Research*, 32, 533-561. doi:10.1007/s10488-005-3264-0
- Martinson, R. (1974). What works? Questions and answers about prison reform. *The Public Interest*, 10, 22-54.
- Meier, T. (2014). *Iowa Department of Corrections FY2014 Annual Report*. Des Moines, IA: Iowa Department of Corrections.
- Miller, W. R., Taylor, C. A., & West, J. C. (1980). Focused versus broad-spectrum behaviour therapy for problem drinkers. *Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 48, 590-601.

- Morgan, K., & Smith, B. L. (2005). Victims, punishment, and parole: The effect of victim participation on parole hearings. *Criminology & Public Policy*, 4(2), 333-360.
- Motivans, M. (2015). *Federal justice statistics, 2011- Statistical Table*. (NCJ 248469). Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics.
- Nafekh, M., & Motiuk, L. L. (2002). *The Statistical Information on Recidivism – Revised 1 (SIR:R1) scale: A psychometric study* (User Report No. 2002-126). Ottawa, Ontario, Canada: Correctional Service of Canada.
- Office of Management and Budget. (2014). *Federal Budget for the Fiscal Year 2012, for the Department of Justice*. (No. 202-514-2007). Washington, DC: Author.
- Paparozzi, M. A., & Guy, R. (2009). The giant that never woke: parole authorities as the lynchpin to evidence-based practices and prisoner reentry. *Contemporary Criminal Justice*, 25(4), 397-411. doi: 10.1177/1043986209344561
- Pardoel, K. (2013). *Parole conditions as a means to manage risk: an examination of recommendations and release decisions among Canadian federal offenders*. Unpublished honours thesis: Carleton University, Ontario, Canada.
- Parole Board of Canada. (2010). *Fact sheet*. Ottawa, Canada: Retrieved from Parole Board of Canada website: <http://www.pbc-clcc.gc.ca/parole/parole-eng.shtml>
- Parole Board of Canada, (2014). *Decision-Making Policy Manual for Board Members*. Ottawa, Canada: Author.
- Petersilia, J. (1999). Parole and prisoner reentry in the United States. In M. Tonry & J. Petersilia (Eds.), *Prisons* (pp. 479-529). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Petersilia, J. (2001). Prisoner reentry: public safety and reintegration challenges. *The Prison Journal*, 81(3), 360-375.

- Petersilia, J. (2003). *When prisoners come home: Parole and prisoner reentry*. New York: Oxford.
- Phelps, M. (2011). Rehabilitation in the Punitive Era: The Gap Between Rhetoric and Reality in U.S. Prison Programs. *Law and Society Review*, 45(1), 33–68.
- Proctor, J. L. (1999). The “new parole”: An analysis of parole board decision making as a function of eligibility. *Journal and Crime and Justice*, 22(2), 193-217. doi: 10.1080/0735648X.1999.9721100
- Public Safety Canada. (2014). *Corrections and Conditional Release Statistical Overview 2013*. Ottawa, Canada: Author.
- Quinn, J.F. & Gould, L.A. (2003). The prioritization of treatment among Texas parole officers. *The Prison Journal*, 83(3), 323-336.
- Roberts, J., & Stalans, L. (1997). *Public opinion, crime, and criminal justice*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Robinson, C.R., VanBenschoten, S., Alexander, M., and Lowenkamp, C.T. (2011). A random (almost) study of staff training aimed at reducing re-arrest (STARR): reducing recidivism through intentional design. *Federal Probation*, 75(2), 57-63.
- Robinson, C. R., Lowenkamp, C. T., Holsinger, A. M., VanBenschoten, S., Alexander, M., and Oleson, J.C. (2012). A random study of Staff Trained at Reducing Re-arrest (STARR): Using core correctional practices in probation interactions. *Crime and Justice*, 35(2), 167-188. doi: 10.1080/0735648X.2012.674823
- Rodolfa, E., Bent, R., Eisman, E., Nelson, P., Rehm, L., & Ritchie, P. (2005). A cube model for competency development: Implications for psychology educators and regulators. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, 36, 347-354.

- doi:10.1037/0735-7028.36.4.347
- Royston, P., & White, I. R. (2011). Multiple imputation by chained equations (MICE): implementation in Stata. *Journal of Statistical Software*, 45(4), 1-20.
- Rubin, D. B. (2004). *Multiple imputation for nonresponse in surveys* (Vol. 81). John Wiley & Sons.
- Rubin, N.J., Bebeau, M., Leigh, I.W., Lichtenberg, J.W., Nelson, P.D., Portnoy, S., Smith, I.L., Kaslow, N.J. (2007). The competency movement within psychology: An historical perspective. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, 38, 452-462. doi: 10.1037/0735-7028.38.5.452
- Salkind, N.J., & Green, S. (2011). *Spss quickstarts*. Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Samra-Grewal, J., Pfeifer, J.E., & Ogloff, J.P. (2000). Recommendations for conditional release suitability: Cognitive biases and consistency in case management officers' decision-making. *Canadian Journal of Criminology*, 42, 421-447.
- Schlager, M. D. & Robbins, K. (2008). Does parole work? Reframing the discussion of the impact of postprison supervision on offender outcome. *The Prison Journal*, 88(2), 234-251. doi: 10.1177/0032885508319164
- Seiter, R. P. (2002). Prisoner reentry and the role of parole officers. *The Federal Probation Journal*, 66(50), 50-54.
- Serin, R. C., Gobeil, R., & Sutton, J. (2009). *Practice Manual for Use with Release Decision Making Worksheet* (National Parole Board of Canada & Correctional Service Canada). Unpublished manuscript. Ottawa, ON: Carleton University.

- Serin, R. C., Gobeil, R., & Sutton, J. (2013a). *Parole decision-making: development, evaluation, and implementation of a structured framework*. Manuscript in preparation. Ottawa, ON: Carleton University.
- Serin, R. C., Gobeil, R., & Sutton, J. (2013b). *Analysis of the use of the Structured Decision Making Framework in Three States*. Unpublished manuscript. Ottawa, ON: Carleton University.
- Shapland, J., Bottoms, A., Farrall, S., McNeill, F., Priede, C., & Robinson, G. (2012). *The quality of probation supervision: A literature review* (Occasional Paper 3). Sheffield, UK: Centre for Criminological Research, University of Sheffield and University of Glasgow.
- Sigler, R.T, and McGraw, B. (1984). Adult probation and parole officers: influence of their weapons, role perceptions and role conflict. *Criminal Justice Review*, 28(9), 28-32.
- Sijtsma, K. (2009). On the Use, the Misuse, and the Very Limited Usefulness of Cronbach's Alpha. *Psychometrika*, 74(1), 107–120. doi:10.1007/s11336-008-9101-0
- Skeem, J. L., & Manchak, S. (2008). Back to the future: from Klockars' Model of effective supervision to evidence-based practice in probation. *Offender Rehabilitation*, 7(3), 220-247. doi:10.1080/10509670802134069
- Smith, P., Schweitzer, M., Labrecque, R. M., and Latessa, E. J. (2012). Improving probation officers' supervision skills: An evaluation of the EPICS model. *Crime and Justice*, 35(2), 189-199. doi: 10.1080/0735648X.2012.674826

- Solomon, A. L., Kachnowski, V., & Bhati, A. (2005). *Does Parole Work? Analyzing the impact of postprison supervision on rearrest outcomes*. Washington, D.C.: Urban Institute Justice Policy Center.
- Solomon, A.L., Osborne, J., Winterfield, L., Elderbroom, B., Burke, P., Stroker, R.P., et al., 2008. *Putting Public Safety First, 13 Parole Supervision Strategies to Enhance Reentry Outcomes*. Washington , DC.: The Urban Institute Justice Policy Center.
- Solutions, S. (1997). SOLAS for missing data analysis 1.0. *Cork: Statistical Solutions Ltd.*
- Statistics Canada (2011). *Aboriginal Peoples in Canada: First Nations People, Métis and Inuit*. Ottawa, Canada: Retrieved from Statistics Canada website:
<http://www12.statcan.gc.ca/nhs-enm/2011/as-sa/99-011-x/99-011-x2011001-eng.cfm>
- Tabachnick, B. G., and Fidell, L. S. (2001). *Using multivariate statistics* (4th Ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Experimental designs using ANOVA*. Thomson/Brooks/Cole.
- Tonry, M. (1999). Why are US incarceration rates so high?. *Crime and Delinquency*, 45(4), 419-437.
- Travis, L. F., & Latessa, E. J. (1984). A summary of parole rules – thirteen years later: revisited thirteen years later. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 12, 591-600.

- Travis, L. F., & Stacey, J. (2010). A half-century of parole rules: Conditions of parole in the United States, 2008. *Criminal Justice*, 38, 604-608. doi: 10.1016/j.jcrimjus.2010.04.032
- Trotter, C. (1996). The impact of different supervision practices in community corrections: Cause for optimism. *Australian & New Zealand Journal of Criminology*, 29(1), 1-19.
- United States Department of Justice. (2001). *Trends in state parole, 1990-2000* (special report). Washington, DC: National Institute of Justice.
- United States Department of Justice. (2015). *US Department of Justice FAQs*. Washington, DC. Retrieved from: <http://www.justice.gov/uspc/frequently-asked-questions>
- United States Sentencing Commission. (2015). *An overview of the United States Sentencing Commission*. Washington, DC. Retrieved from: http://www.ussc.gov/sites/default/files/pdf/about/overview/USSC_Overview.pdf
- Walters, S. (1992). Attitudinal and demographic differences between male and female corrections officers: A study in three midwestern prisons. *Journal of Offender Rehabilitation*, 18(1-2), 173-190.
- West, A. D. & Seiter, R. P. (2004). Social worker or cop? Measuring the supervision styles of probation & parole officers in Kentucky and Missouri. *Crime and Justice* 27(2), 27-57.

Appendix A. Participant recruitment emails, consent forms, and ethics certificates**Participant Recruitment Email – Canada**

Good day,

I am contacting you to invite you to participate in an ongoing research project supported by the CSC. External researchers from Carleton University hope to collect anonymous normative data on a sample of Canadian parole officers in order to establish an initial competency profile as part of the development of a standardized Parole Officer competency measure. This study has received clearance by the Carleton University Ethics Committee for Psychological Research (Research Ethics Approval # 15-077). Completion of the survey is a good opportunity to contribute to important research and will aid in the advancement of parole and community supervision practices.

This research is being supported by the Operations Sector of the CSC. I encourage you to consider participating.

Please click the link below to begin the questionnaire.

https://carletonpsych.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_6ihBCsImF5dmkLL

The password for the survey is: Parole2015

Regards,

Dear CSC parole officers,

I am graduate student in the Department of Psychology at Carleton University. I am contacting you as I would like to invite you to participate in my MA research project. I hope to contribute to the advancement of parole and community supervision practices by establishing a basic competency profile for parole officers, and by developing a standardized competency measure. The survey is anonymous and can be completed online, and will take you about 20-30 minutes to complete.

If you would like more detailed information about this survey, and/or you would like to participate, please click the following link:

https://carletonpsych.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_6ihBCsImF5dmkLL

If you have any questions, please contact me at katepardoel@cmail.carleton.ca or my faculty supervisor, Dr. Ralph Serin, at ralph.serin@carleton.ca

Thank you for your time and consideration,

Kate Pardoel

Department of Psychology M.A. Candidate, Carleton University

Dr. Ralph Serin
Department of Psychology Faculty, Carleton University

Informed Consent – Canada

This informed consent form is intended to give you more detailed understanding of the study's purpose and requirements so that you can decide whether or not you would like to participate. Please take a few moments to read this information carefully.

Project Title: Measuring Parole Officer Competencies to Advance Core Correctional Practice

Research personnel. The following people are involved in the study, and may be contacted at any time if you have questions or concerns:

Kate Pardoel
Department of Psychology, M.A. Candidate, Carleton University
katepardoel@cmail.carleton.ca

Ralph Serin
Ph.D., C. Psych, Department of Psychology, Faculty, Carleton University
ralph.serin@carleton.ca

Purpose: The purpose of this study is to survey a large sample of Canadian parole officers in order to gather data about their skills, knowledge, attitudes and values (competencies). These data will then be used to create a normative competency profile for CSC parole officers. This study represents a critical first step in the development of a standardized parole officer competency measure, and hopes to contribute to the understanding of how the individual characteristics of parole officers (their attitudes and values) might be associated with other areas of competence (skills and knowledge).

Benefits of participating in the study: By participating in this study, you will be contributing to an important area of international research. Your data will be used to establish a normative competency profile for probation/parole officers internationally, which may then inform the development of a standardized parole officer competency measure. Moreover, by participating in the present study, you will be supporting a collaborative research endeavor, which, ultimately, aims to promote public safety.

Task requirements: Participation in this study involves completing a multi-format online questionnaire, the Parole Officer Competency Survey (POCS). Each of the different components requires a slightly different type of response. You will first be asked to answer some questions about your background (e.g., demographics). You will then be asked to read a series of statements, and rank-order them in terms of importance/relevance within the context of your job. You will also be asked to complete a series of multiple-choice and true or false questions, and to read four brief vignettes (case studies) before selecting appropriate responses to a few follow-up questions.

Time required: This questionnaire will take approximately 20-30 minutes to complete.

Right to withdraw: Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. At any point during the study, you have the right to not complete certain questions, or to withdraw, without penalty. If you choose to withdraw before the end of the survey, you simply need to click the 'withdraw' button located in each page. Clicking 'withdraw' will take you directly to the debriefing form.

Anonymity/Confidentiality: The responses in this study will be anonymous. The data collected will be used for research publications, conference presentations, and/or teaching material. IP addresses will not be collected during this study.

Data will be collected through the online survey platform Qualtrics, which uses servers with multiple layers of security (e.g., encrypted websites and password-protected storage) to ensure that data remains private and secure. Please note that Qualtrics is hosted by a server located in the USA. The United States Patriot Act permits U.S. law enforcement officials, for the purpose of an anti-terrorism investigation, to seek a court order that allows access to the personal records of any person without that person's knowledge. In view of this we cannot absolutely guarantee the full confidentiality of your data. With your consent to participate in the study you acknowledge this.

Data will only be accessed by the above-listed research personnel at Carleton University, and will not be made available to the Corrections agency. Once the research is complete, data will be stored on password-protected computers in the Criminal Justice Decision Making Lab at Carleton University. Only aggregate (group-level anonymous data) will be reported.

This study has received clearance by the Carleton University Ethics Committee for Psychological Research (Research Ethics Approval # 15-077).

Concerns:

Should you have any ethical concerns about this research, please contact:

Dr. Shelley Brown
Carleton University Ethics Committee for Psychological Research Chair:
(613) 520-2600 ext. 1505
shelley.brown@carleton.ca

For any other concerns, please contact:

Dr. Joanna Pozzulo
Psychology Departmental Chair:
(613) 520-2600 ext. 1412
psychchair@carleton.ca

Consent. I have read the above form and understand the conditions of my participation. My participation in this study is voluntary, and I understand that if at any time I wish to leave the survey, I may do so without having to give an explanation and with no penalty. I am also aware that the data collected in this study will be used for research publications and/or teaching material, but will be kept strictly confidential. By clicking yes, I hereby consent to participate in this study.

Yes

No

Debriefing Form – Canada

What are we trying to learn in this research?

This research examines various parole officer skills, attitudes, values, and knowledge, which can be collectively seen as contributing to professional competency. The questionnaire you completed is intended to gather information measuring these competencies. We are interested in using these data (and that provided by other participants) to establish a competency profile for parole officers currently working across Canada, both in institutions, and in the community. We hope to use this information to contribute to a better understanding of the characteristics of individual parole officers (i.e., attitudes and values). Eventually such competencies could be related to offender outcomes. The current study will also allow for the examination of the psychometric properties of the Parole Officer Competency Survey (POCS).

Why is it important to psychologists or the general public?

Previous research has demonstrated the positive impact of particular parole officer skills (Core Correctional Practices [CCPs]) on offender outcome. However, there is a lack of systematic research examining the measurement of these skills. In establishing a normative competency profile and refining the POCS, we can aim to standardize the assessment of parole officer competencies. In doing this, we hope to lay the groundwork for a future validation study, the findings from which could then be used to inform training targets for parole officers. Increasing the effectiveness of parole officers would have important implications for the effective use of public resources, as well as for public safety.

What are our hypotheses and predictions?

We predict there will be variability among parole officers regarding competency. For example, we hypothesize that more experienced parole officers will score higher on the POCS than less experienced parole officers.

Where can I learn more?

If you are interested in learning more about evidence-based practice in parole and community supervision, please refer to the following sources:

- Bonta, J., Bourgon, G., Rugge, T., Scott, T.-L., Yessine, A.K., Gutierrez, L., and Li, J. (2011). An experimental demonstration of training probation officers in evidence-based community supervision. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 38(11), 1127-1148. doi: 10.1177/0093854811420678
- Kennealy, P. J., Skeem, J. L., Manchak, S. M., and Eno Loudon, J. (2012). Firm, fair, and caring officer-offender relationships protect against supervision failure.

Law and Human Behavior, 36(6), 496-505. doi: 10.1037/h0093935

What if I have questions later?

If you have any remaining questions, concerns, or comments, or if you would like to discuss this research further, feel free to contact:

Kate Pardoel by email: katepardoel@cmail.carleton.ca

and/or

Ralph Serin by email: ralph_serin@carleton.ca

Should you have any ethical concerns about this study please contact:

Dr. Shelley Brown (Chair, Carleton University Ethics Committee for Psychological Research) by phone: (613) 520-2600 ext. 1505 or by email: shelley_brown@carleton.ca

Should you have any other concerns please contact:

Dr. Joanna Pozzulo (Chair, Department of Psychology) by phone: 613-520-2600, ext. 1412 or by email: psychchair@carleton.ca

This study has received clearance by the Carleton University Ethics Committee for Psychological Research (# 15-077).

Please refer to this number when contacting the Chair of the Department or the Chair of Carleton University Ethics Committee for Psychological Research.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey.

Your participation in this research is greatly appreciated!

Message visant à recruter des participants – Canada

Bonjour,

Permettez-moi de vous inviter à participer à un projet de recherche en cours, subventionné par le SCC. Des chercheurs de l'Université Carleton souhaitent recueillir des données normatives anonymes auprès d'un échantillon constitué d'agents de libération conditionnelle canadiens en vue d'établir un profil de compétences initiales, qui servira à mettre au point une mesure normalisée des compétences des agents de libération conditionnelle. Cette étude a été autorisée par le Comité d'éthique de la recherche en psychologie de l'Université Carleton (approbation n° 15-077). Le sondage est une bonne occasion de contribuer à cette importante recherche et de faire progresser les pratiques en matière de surveillance dans la collectivité et de libération conditionnelle.

La recherche est subventionnée par le Secteur des opérations du SCC. Je vous encourage à y participer.

Veuillez cliquer sur le lien ci-dessous pour remplir le questionnaire.

https://carletonpsych.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_6nYhek96YW6CBV3

Le mot de passe pour répondre au sondage est : Parole2015.

Salutations,

Mesdames, Messieurs,

Je suis étudiante de deuxième cycle au Département de psychologie à l'Université Carleton. Permettez-moi de vous inviter à participer à mon projet de recherche de maîtrise. J'espère contribuer à l'évolution des pratiques en matière de surveillance dans la collectivité et de libération conditionnelle en établissant un profil des compétences de base pour les agents de libération conditionnelle et en élaborant une mesure normalisée des compétences. Ce sondage préserve l'anonymat des répondants. Il faut entre 20 et 30 minutes pour répondre aux questions en ligne.

Si vous souhaitez obtenir de plus amples renseignements sur ce sondage et/ou y participer, veuillez cliquer sur le lien suivant :

https://carletonpsych.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_6nYhek96YW6CBV3

Si vous avez des questions, veuillez communiquer avec moi à

katepardoel@cmail.carleton.ca ou mon directeur de recherche, Ralph Serin, à ralph.serin@carleton.ca.

Nous vous remercions à l'avance de votre temps et de votre collaboration.

Kate Pardoel

Département de psychologie, étudiante à la maîtrise, Université Carleton

Ralph Serin, Ph.D.

Département de psychologie, Université Carleton

Consentement éclairé – Canada

Le présent formulaire de consentement éclairé vise à préciser l'objet de l'étude et les exigences qui s'y rattachent, de sorte que vous puissiez décider d'y participer ou non. Veuillez prendre le temps de lire attentivement les renseignements qui suivent.

Titre du projet : *Measuring Parole Officer Competencies to Advance Core Correctional Practice* (Évaluation des compétences des agents de libération conditionnelle en vue de faire progresser les pratiques de base en matière de services correctionnels)

Personnel de recherche. Voici les personnes qui participent à l'étude et avec qui vous pouvez communiquer en tout temps si vous avez des questions ou des préoccupations.

Kate Pardoel
Département de psychologie, étudiante à la maîtrise, Université Carleton
katepardoel@cmail.carleton.ca

Ralph Serin
Ph. D., c. psych, Département de psychologie, Université Carleton
ralph.serin@carleton.ca

Objet : L'étude vise à effectuer un sondage auprès d'un vaste échantillon d'agents de libération conditionnelle canadiens en vue de recueillir des données sur leurs compétences, leurs connaissances, leurs attitudes et leurs valeurs (compétences). Les données ainsi recueillies serviront à établir un profil de compétences normatives pour les agents de libération conditionnelle du SCC. L'étude est la première étape de la conception d'une mesure normalisée des compétences des agents de libération conditionnelle. Les chercheurs souhaitent apporter une contribution qui jettera un éclairage sur le lien qui existe entre les caractéristiques personnelles des agents de libération conditionnelle (leurs attitudes et leurs valeurs) et d'autres domaines de compétences (habiletés et connaissances).

Énoncé de tâches : Les participants à l'étude devront répondre à un questionnaire multiformat en ligne, le Questionnaire sur les compétences des agents de libération conditionnelle (QCALC). Pour chacune des composantes, il faut donner un type de réponse légèrement différent. Nous vous demanderons d'abord de répondre à des questions d'ordre général (p. ex., caractéristiques démographiques). On vous demandera ensuite de lire une série d'énoncés et de les classer en fonction de leur pertinence dans le contexte de votre emploi. Nous vous demanderons également de répondre à une série de questions à choix multiples et de type vrai ou faux, et de lire ensuite quatre brèves mises en situation (études de cas) avant de sélectionner les réponses appropriées à un petit nombre de questions de suivi.

Temps requis : Il faudra environ 20 à 30 minutes pour répondre au questionnaire.

Droit de se retirer : Votre participation à cette étude est entièrement volontaire. Pendant l'étude, vous avez le droit de refuser en tout temps de répondre à certaines questions ou de vous retirer sans être pénalisés. Si vous décidez de vous retirer avant la fin du questionnaire, vous n'avez qu'à cliquer sur le bouton *withdraw* dans le bas de chaque page. En cliquant sur ce bouton, vous arrivez directement au questionnaire de compte-rendu.

Anonymat/confidentialité : Les réponses obtenues dans le cadre de l'étude demeureront anonymes. Les données recueillies serviront à la préparation de publications de recherche, d'exposés pour des conférences et/ou de matériel didactique. Nous ne recueillerons pas les adresses IP au cours de l'étude.

Les données seront recueillies au moyen de la plate-forme de sondage en ligne *Qualtrics*, qui utilise plusieurs serveurs avec des couches de sécurité multiples (p. ex., sites Web chiffrés et stockage de données protégées par un mot de passe) pour protéger la confidentialité et la sécurité des données. Veuillez noter que *Qualtrics* est hébergé par un serveur situé aux États-Unis. En vertu de la *Patriot Act* des États-Unis, les agents d'application de la loi de ce pays peuvent consulter les dossiers personnels de toute personne aux fins d'une enquête antiterroriste, sans que la personne concernée en soit informée. Pour cette raison, nous ne pouvons pas garantir complètement la confidentialité de vos données. En consentant à participer à l'étude, vous en prenez acte.

Seuls les membres du personnel de recherche à l'Université Carleton, dont le nom est indiqué ci-dessus, auront le droit de consulter les données, et celles-ci ne seront pas mises à la disposition des organismes correctionnels. À la fin de l'étude, les données seront stockées dans des ordinateurs protégés par un mot de passe dans le *Legal Decision Making Lab* à l'Université Carleton. Seules les données regroupées (données anonymes au niveau des groupes) feront l'objet de comptes rendus.

Cette étude a été autorisée par le Comité d'éthique de la recherche en psychologie de l'Université Carleton (approbation n° 15-077).

Préoccupations

Si vous avez des préoccupations d'ordre éthique au sujet de l'étude, veuillez communiquer avec la personne suivante :

Shelley Brown

Présidente du Comité d'éthique de la recherche en psychologie de l'Université Carleton :
613-520-2600, poste 1505
shelley.brown@carleton.ca

Veuillez communiquer avec la personne suivante si vous avez d'autres questions :

Joanna Pozzulo
Directrice du Département de psychologie
613-520-2600, poste 1412
psychchair@carleton.ca

Consentement. J'ai lu le formulaire ci-dessus et je comprends les modalités de ma participation. Ma participation à l'étude est volontaire, et je comprends que si je souhaite à un moment ou à un autre quitter le sondage, je peux le faire sans avoir à me justifier ni être pénalisé(e). Je suis également conscient(e) que les données recueillies dans le cadre de l'étude serviront à la préparation de publications de recherche et/ou de matériel pédagogique, mais qu'elles demeureront strictement confidentielles. En cliquant sur *Oui*, je consens par les présentes à participer à cette étude.

Oui

Non

Formulaire de compte-rendu – Canada

Que cherchons-nous à apprendre dans le cadre de cette recherche?

Dans le cadre de cette recherche, nous examinons des compétences, des attitudes, des valeurs et des connaissances variées chez les agents de libération conditionnelle, qui, prises ensemble, sont considérées comme contribuant à la compétence professionnelle. Le questionnaire auquel vous avez répondu vise à recueillir des renseignements qui permettent de mesurer ces compétences. Nous souhaitons utiliser ces données (et les données fournies par d'autres participants) pour établir un profil de compétences des agents de libération conditionnelle qui travaillent actuellement au Canada, dans les établissements et dans la collectivité. Nous espérons nous en servir afin de mieux faire comprendre les caractéristiques individuelles des agents de libération conditionnelle (leurs attitudes et leurs valeurs). Enfin, on pourrait associer ce genre de compétences avec les résultats des délinquants. L'étude actuelle permettra également d'examiner les propriétés psychométriques du Questionnaire sur les compétences des agents de libération conditionnelle (QCALC).

Pourquoi cette recherche est-elle importante pour les psychologues et le public en général?

Les recherches antérieures ont démontré l'effet positif de certaines compétences des agents de libération conditionnelle (les pratiques correctionnelles de base [PCB]) sur les résultats obtenus par les délinquants. Cependant, il n'y a pas de recherches systématiques sur la mesure de ces compétences. En établissant un profil de compétences normatives et en perfectionnant le QCALC, nous pouvons viser à normaliser le profil des compétences des agents de libération conditionnelle. Ce faisant, nous espérons jeter les bases d'une étude de validation à venir, dont les conclusions pourraient servir à définir les objectifs en matière de formation pour les agents de libération conditionnelle. L'efficacité accrue des agents de libération conditionnelle aurait des effets importants sur l'optimisation des ressources publiques, de même que pour la sécurité publique.

Quels sont nos hypothèses et nos prédictions?

Nous prévoyons qu'il y aura une certaine variabilité entre les agents de libération conditionnelle concernant les compétences. Par exemple, nous avançons l'hypothèse selon laquelle les agents de libération conditionnelle expérimentés obtiendront une cote plus élevée dans le QCALC que les agents de libération conditionnelle moins expérimentés.

Où puis-je obtenir plus d'information?

Si vous souhaitez en apprendre davantage au sujet des pratiques fondées sur les données probantes dans le domaine de la libération conditionnelle, veuillez consulter les sources suivantes :

- Bonta, J., G. Bourgon, T. Rugge, T.-L. Scott, A.K. Yessine, L. Gutierrez et J. Li (2010). « An experimental demonstration of training probation officers in evidence-based community supervision », *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, vol. 38, n° 11, p. 1127-1148. doi: 10.1177/0093854811420678
- Kennealy, P. J., Skeem, J. L., Manchak, S. M. et Eno Loudon, J. (2012). « Firm, fair, and caring officer-offender relationships protect against supervision failure », *Law and Human Behavior*, vol. 36, n° 6, p. 496-505. doi: 10.1037/h0093935

Que dois-je faire si j'ai des questions plus tard?

Si vous avez d'autres questions, préoccupations ou commentaires, ou si vous souhaitez discuter de la recherche plus à fond, n'hésitez pas à communiquer avec les personnes suivantes :

Kate Pardoel, par courriel : katepardoel@gmail.com
et/ou

Ralph Serin, par courriel : ralph_serin@carleton.ca

Si vous avez des préoccupations d'ordre éthique au sujet de l'étude, veuillez communiquer avec :

Shelley Brown (présidente, Comité d'éthique de la recherche en psychologie de l'Université Carleton), en composant le : 613-520-2600, poste 1505, ou par courriel : shelley_brown@carleton.ca

Si vous avez d'autres questions, veuillez communiquer avec :

Joanna Pozzulo (directrice du Département de psychologie), en composant le 613-520-2600, poste 1412, ou par courriel : psychchair@carleton.ca

Cette étude a été autorisée par le Comité d'éthique de la recherche en psychologie de l'Université Carleton (# 15-077).

Veillez utiliser ce numéro lorsque vous communiquez avec la directrice du Département ou le président du Comité d'éthique de la recherche en psychologie de l'Université Carleton.

Merci de prendre le temps de répondre au sondage.

Nous vous remercions vivement de bien vouloir participer à cette étude.

Carleton University Research Ethics Board (CUREB)

Certificate of Ethics Clearance

Principal Investigator

Department

StudyNumber

Kate Pardoel

Psychology

15-077

Co-Investigators and other researchers:

Researcher	Study Role	Position
Ralph Serin	Faculty Sponsor	Faculty

Study Title: **Measuring Parole Officer Competencies to Advance Core Correctional Practice**

Approval Date: **05/12/2015**

Expiry Date: **08/31/2016**

Approval Type: **Final**

Submitted Date	Study Component	Approval Date
04/13/2015	Addendum	05/12/2015

Validity Term: **1 Until Aug 31st Next**

Comments:

Certification

The protocol describing the above-named project has been reviewed by Carleton University Research Ethics Board and the research procedures were found to be acceptable on ethical grounds for research involving human participants.



Chair, Carleton University Research Ethics Board (CUREB)

This Certificate of Clearance is valid for the above term provided there is no change in the research procedures.

Close

Print

Participant Recruitment Email – U.S.

Good day,

I am contacting you to invite you to participate in an ongoing research project supported by your corrections agency. External researchers from Carleton University (Ontario, Canada) hope to collect anonymous normative data on a sample of probation/parole officers and institutional case managers in order to establish an initial competency profile (i.e., a descriptive summary of the types of skills, knowledge, and attitudes possessed by existing officers and case managers) as part of the development of a standardized Parole Officer competency measure. This study has received clearance by the Carleton University Ethics Committee for Psychological Research (Research Ethics Approval # 15-089). Completion of the survey is a good opportunity to contribute to important research and will aid in the advancement of parole and community supervision practices.

I encourage you to consider participating.

Please click the link below to begin the questionnaire.

https://carletonpsych.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_ddjF9XXwNsYAell

The password for the survey is: Parole2015

Regards,

Dear parole officers,

I am graduate student in the Department of Psychology at Carleton University. I am contacting you as I would like to invite you to participate in my MA research project. I hope to contribute to the advancement of parole and community supervision practices by establishing a basic competency profile for parole officers, and by developing a standardized competency measure. The survey is anonymous and can be completed online, and will take you about 20-30 minutes to complete.

If you would like more detailed information about this survey, and/or you would like to participate, please click the following link:

https://carletonpsych.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_ddjF9XXwNsYAell

The password for the survey is: Parole2015

If you have any questions, please contact me at katepardoel@cmail.carleton.ca or my faculty supervisor, Dr. Ralph Serin, at ralph.serin@carleton.ca

Thank you for your time and consideration,

Kate Pardoel
Department of Psychology M.A. Candidate, Carleton University

Dr. Ralph Serin
Department of Psychology Faculty, Carleton University

Informed Consent – U.S.

This informed consent form is intended to give you more detailed understanding of the study's purpose and requirements so that you can decide whether or not you would like to participate. Please take a few moments to read this information carefully.

Project Title: Measuring Parole Officer Competencies to Advance Core Correctional Practice

Research personnel. The following people are involved in the study, and may be contacted at any time if you have questions or concerns:

Kate Pardoel
Department of Psychology, M.A. Candidate, Carleton University
katepardoel@cmail.carleton.ca

Ralph Serin
Ph.D., C. Psych, Department of Psychology, Faculty, Carleton University
ralph.serin@carleton.ca

Purpose: The purpose of this study is to survey a large sample of parole officers in order to gather data about their skills, knowledge, attitudes and values (competencies). These data will then be used to create a normative competency profile for parole officers. This study represents a critical first step in the development of a standardized parole officer competency measure, and hopes to contribute to the understanding of how the individual characteristics of parole officers (their attitudes and values) might be associated with other areas of competence (skills and knowledge).

Benefits of participating in the study: By participating in this study, you will be contributing to an important area of international research. Your data will be used to establish a normative competency profile for probation/parole officers internationally, which may then inform the development of a standardized parole officer competency measure. Moreover, by participating in the present study, you will be supporting a collaborative research endeavor, which, ultimately, aims to promote public safety.

Task requirements: Participation in this study involves completing a multi-format online questionnaire, the Parole Officer Competency Survey – US Version (POCS-USV). Each of the different components requires a slightly different type of response. You will first be asked to answer some questions about your background (e.g., demographics). You will then be asked to read a series of statements, and rank-order them in terms of importance/relevance within the context of your job. You will also be asked to complete a series of multiple-choice and true or false questions, and to read four brief vignettes (case studies) before selecting appropriate responses to a few follow-up questions.

Time required: This questionnaire will take approximately 20-30 minutes to complete.

Right to withdraw: Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. At any point during the study, you have the right to not complete certain questions, or to withdraw, without penalty. If you choose to withdraw before the end of the survey, you simply need to click the 'withdraw' button located in each page. Clicking 'withdraw' will take you directly to the debriefing form.

Anonymity/Confidentiality: The responses in this study will be anonymous. The data collected will be used for research publications, conference presentations, and/or teaching material, and may be shared with trusted colleagues and by request with competent professionals. However, please note that as IP addresses will not be collected during this study, this data would be group-level anonymous data.

Data will be collected through the online survey platform Qualtrics, which uses servers with multiple layers of security (e.g., encrypted websites and password-protected storage) to ensure that data remains private and secure. Please note that Qualtrics is hosted by a server located in the USA. The United States Patriot Act permits U.S. law enforcement officials, for the purpose of an anti-terrorism investigation, to seek a court order that allows access to the personal records of any person without that person's knowledge. In view of this we cannot absolutely guarantee the full confidentiality of your data. With your consent to participate in the study you acknowledge this.

Data will only be directly accessed by the above-listed research personnel at Carleton University, and will not be made available to the Corrections agency. Once the research is complete, data will be stored on password-protected computers in the Criminal Justice Decision Making Lab at Carleton University for 10 years after the end of the study. Only aggregate (group-level anonymous data) will be reported.

This study has received clearance by the Carleton University Ethics Committee for Psychological Research (Research Ethics Approval # 15-089).

Concerns:

Should you have any ethical concerns about this research, please contact:

Dr. Shelley Brown
Carleton University Ethics Committee for Psychological Research Chair:
(613) 520-2600 ext. 1505
shelley.brown@carleton.ca

For any other concerns, please contact:

Dr. Joanna Pozzulo
Psychology Departmental Chair:
(613) 520-2600 ext. 1412

psychchair@carleton.ca

Consent. I have read the above form and understand the conditions of my participation. My participation in this study is voluntary, and I understand that if at any time I wish to leave the survey, I may do so without having to give an explanation and with no penalty. I am also aware that the data collected in this study will be used for research publications and/or teaching material, but will be kept strictly confidential. By clicking yes, I hereby consent to participate in this study.

Yes

No

Debriefing Form – U.S.

What are we trying to learn in this research?

This research examines various parole officer skills, attitudes, values, and knowledge, which can be collectively seen as contributing to professional competency. The questionnaire you completed is intended to gather information measuring these competencies. We are interested in using these data (and that provided by other participants) to establish a competency profile for parole officers currently working in both institutions, and in the community. We hope to use this information to contribute to a better understanding of the characteristics of individual parole officers (i.e., attitudes and values). Eventually such competencies could be related to offender outcomes. The current study will also allow for the examination of the psychometric properties of the Parole Officer Competency Survey – US Version (POCS-USV).

Why is it important to psychologists or the general public?

Previous research has demonstrated the positive impact of particular parole officer skills (Core Correctional Practices [CCPs]) on offender outcome. However, there is a lack of systematic research examining the measurement of these skills. In establishing a normative competency profile and refining the POCS, we can aim to standardize the assessment of parole officer competencies. In doing this, we hope to lay the groundwork for a future validation study, the findings from which could then be used to inform training targets for parole officers. Increasing the effectiveness of parole officers would have important implications for the effective use of public resources, as well as for public safety.

What are our hypotheses and predictions?

We predict there will be variability among parole officers regarding competency. For example, we hypothesize that more experienced parole officers will score higher on the POCS than less experienced parole officers.

Where can I learn more?

If you are interested in learning more about evidence-based practice in parole and community supervision, please refer to the following sources:

- Bonta, J., Bourgon, G., Rugge, T., Scott, T.-L., Yessine, A.K., Gutierrez, L., and Li, J. (2011). An experimental demonstration of training probation officers in evidence-based community supervision. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 38(11), 1127-1148. doi: 10.1177/0093854811420678
- Kennealy, P. J., Skeem, J. L., Manchak, S. M., and Eno Loudon, J. (2012). Firm, fair, and caring officer-offender relationships protect against supervision failure.

Law and Human Behavior, 36(6), 496-505. doi: 10.1037/h0093935

What if I have questions later?

If you have any remaining questions, concerns, or comments, or if you would like to discuss this research further, feel free to contact:

Kate Pardoel by email: katepardoel@cmail.carleton.ca

and/or

Ralph Serin by email: ralph_serin@carleton.ca

Should you have any ethical concerns about this study please contact:

Dr. Shelley Brown (Chair, Carleton University Ethics Committee for Psychological Research) by phone: (613) 520-2600 ext. 1505 or by email: shelley_brown@carleton.ca

Should you have any other concerns please contact:

Dr. Joanna Pozzulo (Chair, Department of Psychology) by phone: 613-520-2600, ext. 1412 or by email: psychchair@carleton.ca

This study has received clearance by the Carleton University Ethics Committee for Psychological Research (# 15-089).

Please refer to this number when contacting the Chair of the Department or the Chair of Carleton University Ethics Committee for Psychological Research.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey.

Your participation in this research is greatly appreciated!

Carleton University Research Ethics Board (CUREB)

Certificate of Ethics Clearance

Principal Investigator

Department

Study Number

Kate Pardoel

Psychology

15-089

Co-Investigators and other researchers:

Researcher	Study Role	Position
Ralph Serin	Faculty Sponsor	Faculty

Study Title: **Measuring Parole Officer Competencies to Advance Core Correctional Practice-US sites**

Approval Date: **06/04/2015**

Expiry Date: **08/31/2016**

Approval Type: **Final**

Submitted Date	Study Component	Approval Date

Validity Term: **1 Until Aug 31st Next**

Comments:

Certification

The protocol describing the above-named project has been reviewed by Carleton University Research Ethics Board and the research procedures were found to be acceptable on ethical grounds for research involving human participants.



Chair, Carleton University Research Ethics Board (CUREB)

This Certificate of Clearance is valid for the above term provided there is no change in the research procedures.

Close

Print

Appendix B. Parole Officer Competency Survey (POCS)

PART 1 – Demographics and Background

Please provide the following information

Gender	Male	
	Female	
Education level – highest degree in area of study <i>Area of study</i> _____	Technical/ vocational training	
	Bachelor’s degree	
	Master’s Degree	
	Doctorate	
Region	Ontario	
	Quebec	
	Atlantic	
	Prairies	
	Pacific	
Work setting	Institutional	
	Community	
Age: _____	Number of years as parole officer:	Number of years in corrections:

Please rank-order each of the following based on how relevant you feel it is within the context of your job.

	1 = most important 6 = least important
Praising the offender for successful completion of a task or for achieving a goal.	
Providing opportunities that allow the offender to comment on their progress.	
Summarizing what the offender said to allow them to hear their own ideas.	
Reiterating to the offender an area that warrants change.	
Getting the offender to see the difference between where their life is now and where they want to be in the future.	
Communicating expectations and conditions of incarceration or supervision clearly to offender.	

Please rank-order each of the following based on how relevant you feel it is within the context of your job.

	1 = most important 6 = least important
Establishing or reviewing a behavioural contract for case planning.	
Getting the offender to discuss change.	
Letting the offender know when they need to change their behaviour to avoid problems.	
Asking the offender to identify different ways that they could handle a difficult situation in the future.	
Providing offenders with a written case plan.	
Providing the offender with feedback on their progress.	

Please rank-order each of the following based on how relevant you feel it is within the context of your job.

	1 = most important 7 = least important
Being aware of relevant legislation (i.e. Immigration, Access to Information and Privacy Act).	
Being aware of criminal justice partners as community resources	
Understanding of procedural information	
Verifying offender-reported information	
Using a variety of supervision strategies	
Being aware of current/up-to-date research	
Being familiar with effective correctional interventions/programs	

Please rank-order each of the following based on how relevant you feel it is within the context of your job.

	1 = most important 7 = least important
Writing clear and concise reports	
Providing a thorough analysis of information and rationale for conclusions/decisions	
Role-modeling prosocial behaviour	
Understanding offenders' offence cycles (behavioural chain)	
Developing a positive working relationship with the offender	
Assisting an offender in managing his/her risk	
Changing supervision approach in accordance with changes in behaviour or in response to new information	

PART 2 – Vignettes (Skill)

1) Mike is a 37-year old recidivist. He is currently incarcerated for violent armed robbery. After a night of heavy drinking, Mike exited a bar and robbed a patron he had met, and been chatting with, while inside the bar. The victim had been waiting for friends to arrive, but after receiving a text message indicating that his friends were at a neighboring bar, left the club with Mike. Mike has several previous convictions including one for assault, and one for armed robbery (of a convenience store). Though he has only been incarcerated for a month so far, he has already had two altercations with other inmates, one that earned him time in segregation. Mike frequently expresses antisocial attitudes, and has been diagnosed with Antisocial Personality Disorder following a psychological evaluation. He expresses no remorse for his current crime, stating that the victim was “drunk and asking for it”.

➤ Which assessment tool(s) would you complete in this case to determine risk level?

Static Factor Assessment (SFA)	
Custody Rating Scale (CRS)	
Dynamic Factors Identification and Analysis - Revised (DFIA-R)	
Statistical Information on Recidivism - Revised (SIR-R1)	
Other:	

<i>Based on this description:</i>		
What is the offender’s <u>primary</u> criminogenic need? (Select best option)	Antisocial Attitudes	
	Antisocial Associates	
	Substance Abuse	
	Sexual Deviance	
	Violence	
	Poor Problem-Solving	
What risk rating would you give to the offender? (Select best option)	Low	
	Low-Moderate	
	Moderate	
	Moderate-High	
	High	
What intensity-level of programming would be required? (Select best option)	None or N/A	
	Low Intensity	
	Moderate Intensity	
	High Intensity	
What is the offender’s apparent level of motivation? (Select best option)	Low	
	Moderate	
	High	
Managing the offender’s risk would require:	An increase in frequency of contact	
	An increase in the offender’s motivation	

(Check all that apply)	A behavioural contract	
	More structured sessions	
	Referral to psychological counseling	
	Referral to programming	
	Incarceration	
How would you communicate risk level in your case plan? (Select best option)	Risk Score	
	Risk Rating	
	Average risk rating (if information from more than one source is provided)	
	Risk rating and risk management strategy	

2) Robert is a 36-year old male offender who was brought before the courts on a manslaughter charge. Prior to the offence, he had not been involved with the criminal justice system. Following a minor argument in a bar, he assaulted another patron with a beer bottle and the person died at the scene. Robert has been diagnosed with schizophrenia, and had received intermittent care in the community prior to the offence, including a brief hospitalization 6 years ago.

Despite the seriousness of the crime, there is little evidence of antisocial personality or psychopathic symptoms. Early psychiatric reports indicate that he had episodes of disordered thinking, and at times auditory hallucinations. Social withdrawal, diminished personal hygiene, and blunted affect were also noted. At times of severe symptoms he has coped by using alcohol and street drugs (cannabis). At times of agitation he has refused treatment and been non-compliant with medication, though he is taking it now.

Robert has had a few common-law relationships but is currently single. He does have some support in the form of sister to whom he writes regularly. Reports indicate that he is aware of antecedent symptoms and has accepted responsibility for his need for self-management.

➤ Which assessment tool(s) would you complete in this case to determine risk level?

Static Factor Assessment (SFA)	
Custody Rating Scale (CRS)	
Dynamic Factors Identification and Analysis - Revised (DFIA-R)	
Statistical Information on Recidivism - Revised (SIR-R1)	
Other:	

<i>Based on this description:</i>		
What is the offender’s primary criminogenic need? (Select best option)	Antisocial Attitudes	
	Antisocial Associates	
	Substance Abuse	
	Sexual Deviance	
	Violence	
	Poor Problem-Solving	
What risk rating would you give to the offender? (Select best option)	Low	
	Low-Moderate	
	Moderate	
	Moderate-High	
	High	
What intensity-level of programming would be required?	None or N/A	
	Low Intensity	
	Moderate Intensity	

(Select best option)	High Intensity	
What is the offender's apparent level of motivation? (Select best option)	Low	
	Moderate	
	High	
Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply)	An increase in frequency of contact	
	An increase in the offender's motivation	
	A behavioural contract	
	More structured sessions	
	Referral to psychological counseling	
	Referral to programming	
	Incarceration	
How would you communicate risk level in your case plan? (Select best option)	Risk Score	
	Risk Rating	
	Average risk rating (if information from more than one source is provided)	
	Risk rating and risk management strategy	

3) Alison is a 27 year-old woman nearing the halfway point in her 8-year sentence for armed robbery of a convenience store. Alison has an extensive criminal history, which includes offences such as drug trafficking, break and enters, and robbery. At the 14 Alison left home, as she could no longer bear living with her abusive stepfather and her mother, who had a serious drug addiction. Within six months of leaving home, Alison found herself working as a prostitute for a man named Brad. Alone and afraid, Alison became depressed and looked to the drugs Brad provided for any kind of escape. In the years that followed, Alison became increasingly reliant on substances. Between the drug addiction and Brad’s demands, Alison also became increasingly involved in other criminal activities.

Now, after several years in prison, and after completing Dialectical Behaviour Therapy (DBT), Alison feels that it is time to turn her life around. She has completed programming for her substance abuse problems and has also sought psychological counseling. She claims that she finally feels that she is a worthwhile person, and feels confident that she can learn the skills required to live a prosocial, drug-free life.

➤ Which assessment tool(s) would you complete in this case to determine risk level?

Static Factor Assessment (SFA)	
Custody Rating Scale (CRS)	
Dynamic Factors Identification and Analysis - Revised (DFIA-R)	
Statistical Information on Recidivism - Revised (SIR-R1)	
Other:	

<i>Based on this description:</i>		
What is the offender’s <u>primary</u> criminogenic need? (Select best option)	Antisocial Attitudes	
	Antisocial Associates	
	Substance Abuse	
	Sexual Deviance	
	Violence	
	Poor Problem-Solving	
What risk rating would you give to the offender? (Select best option)	Low	
	Low-Moderate	
	Moderate	
	Moderate-High	
	High	
What intensity-level of programming would be required? (Select best option)	None or N/A	
	Low Intensity	
	Moderate Intensity	
	High Intensity	
What is the offender’s apparent level of motivation?	Low	
	Moderate	
	High	

(Select best option)		
Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply)	An increase in frequency of contact	
	An increase in the offender's motivation	
	A behavioural contract	
	More structured sessions	
	Referral to psychological counseling	
	Referral to programming	
	Incarceration	
How would you communicate risk level in your case plan? (Select best option)	Risk Score	
	Risk Rating	
	Average risk rating (if information from more than one source is provided)	
	Risk rating and risk management strategy	

- 4) Jesse is a 26-year old man serving a 5-year sentence for sex offences against a child. The victim was an 8-year-old boy playing at the local park across from Jesse’s apartment. Jesse only spoke to the boy at first, but then began to bring him snacks and small treats. After a few months, Jesse convinced the boy to leave the park by asking for his help in locating his fictional dog, which he claimed had gotten out by accident. Eventually, he brought the boy back to his apartment to ‘see if the dog had come back’ and forced the child to engage in oral sex acts with him.

Jesse has several prior convictions for sexual offences, the first of which occurred when he was 16. While living in foster care, he sexually abused one of the younger children in the home. He also exposed himself to children on different occasions in the restrooms of local parks and beaches. At age twenty, he became a soccer coach for a local ‘under 10’ team. He was arrested when 2 young girls on the team told their parents that he had fondled them after volunteering to drive them home after a game. Jesse’s file includes the results from the STATIC-99.

Jesse has never had a long-term romantic relationship and has no age-appropriate friends. He would prefer to spend all of his time with children, though he understands that his desire to do so is not appropriate. He has no major mental illness and is a model inmate. He is respectful of staff is motivated to start treatment. He claims to feel a lot of remorse and wants to be able to have a “healthy adult relationship” some day.

- Which assessment tool(s) would you complete in this case to determine risk level?

Static Factor Assessment (SFA)	
Custody Rating Scale (CRS)	
Dynamic Factors Identification and Analysis - Revised (DFIA-R)	
Statistical Information on Recidivism - Revised (SIR-R1)	
Other:	

<i>Based on this description:</i>		
What is the offender’s <u>primary</u> criminogenic need? (Select best option)	Antisocial Attitudes	
	Antisocial Associates	
	Substance Abuse	
	Sexual Deviance	
	Violence	
	Poor Problem-Solving	
What risk rating would you give to the offender? (Select best option)	Low	
	Low-Moderate	
	Moderate	
	Moderate-High	
	High	
What intensity-level of programming would be	None or N/A	
	Low Intensity	

required? (Select best option)	Moderate Intensity	
	High Intensity	
What is the offender's apparent level of motivation? (Select best option)	Low	
	Moderate	
	High	
Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply)	An increase in frequency of contact	
	An increase in the offender's motivation	
	A behavioural contract	
	More structured sessions	
	Referral to psychological counseling	
	Referral to programming	
	Incarceration	
How would you communicate risk level in your case plan? (Select best option)	Risk Score	
	Risk Rating	
	Average risk rating (if information from more than one source is provided)	
	Risk rating and risk management strategy	

PART 3 – General Knowledge Questions*Analysis*

1. When developing a plan of action and/or making recommendations about a given offender, the most relevant source of information is:
 - a. the Finger Print System (FPS) for criminal history
 - b. the offender's index/current offence
 - c. the offender's file**
 - d. the offender themselves (self-report)
 - e. none of the above

2. Which of the following best summarizes the guiding principles of the *Corrections and Conditional Release Act (CCRA)* as they pertain to the mandate of Correctional Service of Canada (CSC):
 - a. The level of incarceration used should be limited to that which is strictly necessary in order to balance the needs of the offender and public safety**
 - b. The successful reintegration of offenders is the most important consideration in the corrections process
 - c. The management of an offender's case is determined only after considering all relevant, available information
 - d. The seriousness of an offence and the degree of responsibility of the offender are critical in determining the risk posed to the public and subsequent decisions about sentence management

3. To address gaps or inconsistencies in information, a parole officer should consider:
 - a. the offender's file
 - b. the index/current offence
 - c. information from collaterals
 - d. information from the trial or sentencing process
 - e. all of the above**

4. Part of case analysis is identifying risk factors.
True/False

5. Once risk factors have been identified, more time and attention should be dedicated to the dynamic risk factors (precipitating and activating situations) as opposed to the static ones (age at first offence, prior criminal history).
True/False

6. Dynamic risk factors are more accurate predictors of recidivism than static risk factors.
True/False

7. Dynamic factors identify case needs.
True/False

8. According to research findings, which of the following is most important to address during sessions with an offender:
- (Lack) of employment
 - Family and/or marital issues
 - Antisocial cognitions**
 - Major mental disorder

Risk Assessment

- Certain risk factors are unique in terms of prediction for offender sub-populations such as sex offenders or perpetrators of intimate violence.
True/False
- Which risk assessment tool is most appropriate for use with sex offenders:
 - VRAG
 - SIR-R1
 - Static-99**
 - SARA
 - Custody Rating Scale (CRS)
- Which risk assessment tool is most appropriate for use with perpetrators of domestic violence:
 - VRAG
 - SIR-R1
 - Static-99
 - SARA**
 - Custody Rating Scale (CRS)
- Which of the following does not provide any information about how to manage or reduce a sex offender's risk?
 - the Violence Risk Scale – Sexual Offender Version (VRS-SO)
 - the Stable-2007
 - The Sexual Violence Risk—20 (SVR-20)
 - The Static-99**
 - The Acute-2007
- Anchoring a decision with a standardized risk estimate (such as the Statistical Information of Recidivism Revised [SIR-R1] scale) generally yields greater accuracy.
True/False
- Which of the following dynamic risk factors has the strongest empirical association with criminal conduct:
 - level of personal distress/psychopathology
 - antisocial associates**
 - parental/family/intimate factors

- d. unstable/lack of employment
7. Clinical judgment is generally less accurate than actuarial or statistical assessment.
True/False
 8. It is best to focus on offenders' criminogenic needs and to not spend time discussing other issues.
True/False
 9. Clinical overrides, when used by experienced correctional staff, tend to exceed the accuracy of standardized risk scales.
True/False
 10. As a general rule, offenders are adult learners and respond best to program models that are cognitive-behavioural and skills based.
True/False

Risk Management

1. When dealing with a violent offender, interventions that focus on instilling morals and increasing empathy are generally most effective.
True/False
2. Which is the best indicator of violent recidivism?
 - a. Separation from either biological parent by age 16
 - b. Alcohol problems
 - c. Failure on prior conditional release
 - d. Psychopathy checklist score/antisocial personality diagnosis**
3. Relative to other offenders, the risk level for offenders with schizophrenia increases significantly when which of the following co-occur:
 - a. Substance abuse problems
 - b. A history of 'bizarre' delusions ("aliens are controlling my thoughts")
 - c. The presence of acute symptoms
 - d. A & C**
 - e. All of the above
4. Which of the following does not contribute to effective relapse prevention and community reintegration for sex offenders:
 - a. identifying dynamic and situational risk factors (i.e. high-risk situations) and having the offender participate in the creation of a self-management plan
 - b. public registries and community notification**
 - c. skills development (i.e. victim empathy, (pro)social skills)
 - d. working to increase motivation of offenders to participate and engage in treatment

5. Which of the following need areas is not typically more serious/salient for Aboriginal offenders than non-Aboriginal offenders?
 - a. Substance use
 - b. Employment
 - c. Emotional (i.e. anger management)
 - d. Attitudes**

6. Generally speaking, it is accepted that all violent offenders have anger problems.
True/False

7. If there is a change in an offender's situation (i.e. a change in beliefs, attitudes, peers, sobriety), their case should be re-analyzed in terms of risk.
True/False

8. When dealing with mentally ill offenders in general, which of the following strategies has not been linked to positive outcomes:
 - a. Obtaining court orders to ensure that patients comply with their treatment programs
 - b. having the patient develop insight**
 - c. re-hospitalizing the patient if needed to deal with the emergence of acute symptoms
 - d. multi-faceted, intense, and highly-structured programming

9. Which of the following is not associated with desistance from crime and/or a decrease in recidivism:
 - a. Increasing age of the offender
 - b. An increase in rewards for prosocial behaviour
 - c. A history of criminal behaviour beginning at a young age**
 - d. Cognitive-behavioural and skills-based interventions

10. Which of the following is TRUE with respect to the treatment of high-risk violent offenders:
 - a. treatment programs should be low-intensity
 - b. treatment programs should be high-intensity
 - c. treatment programs should be high-intensity with aftercare**
 - d. treatment providers should aim to increase victim empathy

11. With respect to sex offenders and recidivism, which of the following is the most true:
 - a. knowledge of their offence chain can lead to substantial reductions in recidivism
 - b. knowledge of their offence chain alone is insufficient to reduce reoffending
 - c. offenders must have knowledge of their offence chain in addition to both a plan, and the skill-set required for avoiding and/or dealing with triggers
 - d. B & C**
 - e. none of the above

Supervision and Communication

1. Offenders who have been given some form of discretionary parole have better outcomes than offenders on statutory release.
True/False
2. Which of the following is not effective with regards to positive offender outcomes:
 - a. **focusing solely on the offenders following the rules**
 - b. establishing a positive, open, and respectful parole officer-offender relationship
 - c. being a prosocial role model (for behaviours and attitudes)
 - d. using one's position of authority to reinforce approval or disapproval of specific behaviours
3. Often, motivational interviewing strategies can be used to encourage offender change.
True/False
4. Self-report data from offenders is unhelpful in managing a case.
True/False
5. Which of the following need not be included in an A4D:
 - a. the offender's risk rating and the underlying rationale
 - b. **sexual orientation**
 - c. a description of the offender's index crime and criminal history
 - d. information about the offender's apparent level of motivation and readiness to change
 - e. a description of any protective or aggravating factors
6. Which of the following is TRUE regarding parole eligibility for offenders with determinate sentences:
 - a. most offenders are eligible for full parole at $\frac{1}{2}$ of their sentence
 - b. most offenders are eligible for full parole at $\frac{1}{3}$ of their sentence, or 5 years, whichever is less
 - c. **most offenders are eligible for day parole 6 months before their full parole eligibility date**
 - d. most offenders are eligible for day parole at $\frac{1}{4}$ of their sentence
7. Which of the following is not a characteristic of effective correctional staff:
 - a. Good communication skills
 - b. Being directive
 - c. **Being authoritarian**
 - d. Being respectful and fair

8. Providing quality aftercare for offenders can help reduce the likelihood of recidivism. Which of the following is least likely to contribute to effective aftercare:
- a. **ensuring that the offender knows the rules**
 - b. being knowledgeable of criminal justice partners
 - c. maintaining consistent communication between all parties involved
 - d. ensuring that all parties understand their roles and responsibilities

Appendix C. Parole Officer Competency Survey – French Version (QCALC)

Questionnaire sur les compétences des agents de libération conditionnelle (QCALC)

PARTIE 1 : Caractéristiques démographiques et renseignements généraux

Veuillez fournir les renseignements suivants.

Sexe	Homme	
	Femme	
Scolarité (niveau le plus élevé) <i>Domaine d'études</i> _____	Formation professionnelle ou technique	
	Baccalauréat	
	Maîtrise	
	Doctorat	
Région	Ontario	
	Québec	
	Atlantique	
	Prairies	
	Pacifique	
Milieu du travail	Établissements	
	Collectivité	
Âge: _____	Nombre d'années comme agent(e) de libération conditionnelle: _____	Nombre d'années en Corrections : _____

Veillez classer chacun des énoncés suivants en fonction de l'importance que vous lui attribuez dans le contexte de votre emploi.

	1 = le plus important 6 = le moins important
Féliciter le délinquant qui a réussi une tâche ou atteint un objectif.	
Prévoir des occasions qui permettront au délinquant de faire des commentaires sur les progrès qu'il a accomplis.	
Résumer les propos du délinquant pour lui permettre d'entendre les idées qu'il a émises.	
Rappeler au délinquant un aspect qu'il doit modifier.	
Amener le délinquant à percevoir la différence entre sa vie à l'heure actuelle et ses objectifs d'avenir.	
Communiquer clairement au délinquant les attentes et les conditions de l'incarcération ou de la surveillance.	

	1= le plus important 6 = le moins important
Établir ou revoir un contrat de comportement en vue de la planification de gestion de cas.	
Amener le délinquant à discuter de changement.	
Faire savoir au délinquant quand il doit modifier son comportement pour éviter d'avoir des ennuis.	
Demander au délinquant de déterminer différentes façons de faire face à une situation difficile à l'avenir.	
Remettre au délinquant un plan de gestion du cas.	
Fournir au délinquant une rétroaction sur les progrès qu'il a accomplis.	

	1= le plus important 7 = le moins important
Connaître les lois pertinentes (<i>Loi sur l'immigration, la Loi sur l'accès à l'information et la Loi sur la protection des renseignements personnels</i>).	
Connaître les partenaires du système de justice pénale qui font office de ressources communautaires.	
Comprendre l'information procédurale.	
Vérifier les informations déclarées par les délinquants.	
Utiliser diverses stratégies de surveillance.	
Être au courant des recherches en cours/des toutes dernières recherches.	
Bien connaître les programmes/interventions correctionnels efficaces.	

	1=le plus important 7 = le moins important
Rédiger des rapports clairs et concis.	
Procéder à une analyse approfondie des renseignements et justifier les conclusions/décisions.	
Recourir à un modèle de rôle pour façonner un comportement prosocial.	
Comprendre les cycles de délinquance des délinquants (chaîne comportementale).	
Maintenir des relations de travail harmonieuses avec le délinquant.	
Aider un délinquant à gérer le risque qu'il représente.	
Modifier l'approche en matière de surveillance en fonction des changements observés dans le comportement ou en réaction à de nouveaux renseignements.	

PARTIE 2 – Mises en situations (compétences)

1) Michel a 37 ans, et c'est un récidiviste. Il est actuellement incarcéré pour avoir commis un vol à main armée avec violence. Après avoir consommé de façon abusive de l'alcool pendant la soirée, il a quitté un bar et a volé un client qu'il avait rencontré et avec qui il avait bavardé. La victime attendait des amis qui devaient venir le chercher, mais, après avoir reçu un texto indiquant que ses amis étaient dans un bar voisin, il avait quitté le bar en compagnie de Michel. Ce dernier a été condamné à plusieurs reprises, dont une pour voies de fait et une pour vol à main armée (dans un dépanneur). Bien qu'il soit incarcéré seulement depuis un mois, il a déjà eu deux altercations avec d'autres détenus, dont une qui lui a valu une période d'isolement. Il affiche souvent une attitude antisociale, et on a diagnostiqué chez lui le trouble de la personnalité antisociale à l'issue d'une évaluation psychologique. Il n'éprouve pas de remords pour le crime qu'il vient de commettre, affirmant que la victime était saoule et qu'elle l'a bien cherché.

- De quels outils d'évaluation vous serviriez-vous dans ce cas-ci pour établir le niveau de risque?

Évaluation des facteurs statiques (EFS)	
Échelle de classement par niveau de sécurité (ECNS)	
Instrument de définition et d'analyse des facteurs dynamiques révisé (IDAFD-R)	
Échelle révisée d'information statistique sur la récidive (Échelle ISR–R1)	
Autres	

<i>Selon cette description :</i>		
Quel est le <u>principal</u> besoin lié à un facteur criminogène de cette personne? (Choisir la meilleure option)	Attitudes antisociales	
	Fréquentations antisociales	
	Toxicomanie	
	Déviance sexuelle	
	Violence	
	Difficulté à résoudre les problèmes	
Quelle cote de risque attribueriez-vous au délinquant? (Choisir la meilleure option)	Faible	
	Faible-moderé	
	Moderé	
	Moderé-élevé	
	Élevé	
Quel niveau d'intensité les programmes devraient-ils avoir ? (Choisir la meilleure option)	Aucun ou S.O.	
	Faible intensité	
	Intensité modérée	
	Intensité élevée	
Quel est le degré de	Faible	

motivation apparent chez cette personne? (Choisir la meilleure option)	Modéré	
	Élevé	
Pour gérer le risque que présente cette personne, il faudrait ce qui suit: (Choisissez tous les types qui s'appliquent)	Des contacts plus fréquents	
	Une motivation accrue chez la personne visée	
	Un contrat de comportement	
	Des séances mieux structurées	
	L'aiguillage vers des services de consultation psychologique	
	L'aiguillage vers des programmes	
	L'incarcération	
De quels outils d'évaluation vous serviriez-vous dans ce cas-ci pour établir le niveau de risque? (Choisir la meilleure option)	Cote de risque	
	Évaluation du risque	
	Moyenne des cotes de risque (si on obtient des renseignements de plus d'une source)	
	Cote de risque et stratégie de gestion du risque	

- 2) Robert a 36 ans et il s'est retrouvé devant le tribunal, accusé d'homicide. Avant de commettre ce crime, il n'avait jamais eu de démêlés avec le système de justice pénale. À la suite d'une dispute banale dans un bar, il a agressé un autre client avec une bouteille de bière, et celui-ci est décédé sur les lieux. On a diagnostiqué que Robert était schizophrène. Celui-ci avait reçu des soins intermittents dans la collectivité avant le délit, notamment un court séjour à l'hôpital six ans auparavant.

Malgré la gravité du crime, il y a très peu d'indices qui prouvent qu'il souffre de troubles de la personnalité antisociale ou de psychose. Les premiers rapports psychiatriques indiquent qu'il a présenté des épisodes de troubles de la pensée, et parfois, des hallucinations auditives. On a également observé chez lui de l'isolement social, une mauvaise hygiène personnelle et un affect émoussé. Pendant les périodes où il manifestait des symptômes graves, il faisait face à ses problèmes en consommant de l'alcool et des drogues illicites (du cannabis). En période d'agitation, il a refusé le traitement et il ne prenait pas de médicaments, bien qu'il les prenne maintenant.

Robert a vécu à quelques reprises en couple, mais il est actuellement célibataire. Il reçoit un peu de soutien de la part de sa sœur qui lui envoie régulièrement des lettres. Selon les rapports, il est conscient des symptômes dont il a déjà souffert et il reconnaît qu'il a besoin de se prendre en main.

- De quels outils d'évaluation vous serviriez-vous dans ce cas-ci pour établir le niveau de risque ?

Évaluation des facteurs statiques (EFS)	
Échelle de classement par niveau de sécurité (ECNS)	
Instrument de définition et d'analyse des facteurs dynamiques révisé (IDAFD-R)	
Échelle révisée d'information statistique sur la récidive (Échelle ISR-R1)	
Autres	

<i>Selon cette description :</i>		
Quel est le <u>principal</u> besoin lié à un facteur criminogène de cette personne? (Choisir la meilleure option)	Attitudes antisociales	
	Fréquentations antisociales	
	Toxicomanie	
	Déviance sexuelle	
	Violence	
	Difficulté à résoudre les problèmes	
Quelle cote de risque attribueriez-vous au délinquant? (Choisir la meilleure option)	Faible	
	Faible-moderé	
	Moderé	
	Moderé-élevé	
	Élevé	

Quel niveau d'intensité les programmes devraient-ils avoir? (Choisir la meilleure option)	Aucun ou S.O.	
	Faible intensité	
	Intensité modérée	
	Intensité élevée	
Quel est le degré de motivation apparent chez cette personne ? (Choisir la meilleure option)	Faible	
	Modéré	
	Élevé	
Pour gérer le risque que présente cette personne, il faudrait ce qui suit : (Choisissez tous les types qui s'appliquent)	Des contacts plus fréquents	
	Une motivation accrue chez la personne visée	
	Un contrat de comportement	
	Des séances mieux structurées	
	L'aiguillage vers des services de consultation psychologique	
	L'aiguillage vers des programmes	
	L'incarcération	
De quels outils d'évaluation vous serviriez-vous dans ce cas-ci pour établir le niveau de risque? (Choisir la meilleure option)	Cote de risque	
	Évaluation du risque	
	Moyenne des cotes de risque (si on obtient des renseignements de plus d'une source)	
	Cote de risque et stratégie de gestion du risque	

- 3) Mylène a 27 ans. Elle a pratiquement purgé la moitié de sa peine d'emprisonnement de huit ans pour vol à main armée dans un dépanneur. Elle a un lourd passé criminel : elle a commis différentes infractions, dont le trafic de drogue, l'introduction par effraction et le cambriolage. Elle a quitté son foyer à l'âge de 14 ans, parce qu'elle ne parvenait plus à supporter son beau-père, qui avait un comportement abusif à son égard, et sa mère, aux prises avec un grave problème de toxicomanie. En moins de six mois, elle s'est mise à se prostituer : elle travaillait pour un homme qui s'appelait Guy. Seule et effrayée, elle est devenue dépressive et, pour échapper comme elle le pouvait à la réalité, elle s'est mise à consommer la drogue qu'il lui apportait. Dans les années qui ont suivi, elle est devenue de plus en plus dépendante des drogues illicites. Entre la toxicomanie et les exigences de Guy, elle a également participé de plus en plus souvent à d'autres activités criminelles.

Aujourd'hui, après avoir passé plusieurs années en prison et suivi une thérapie comportementale dialectique (TCD), Mylène sent qu'il est temps de passer à autre chose. Elle a suivi un programme pour toxicomanes et a également demandé des services de consultation psychologique. Elle affirme qu'elle a enfin l'impression d'avoir de la valeur et elle est convaincue qu'elle peut développer les compétences nécessaires pour vivre une vie prosociale, sans consommer de drogue.

- De quels outils d'évaluation vous serviriez-vous dans ce cas-ci pour établir le niveau de risque ?

Évaluation des facteurs statiques (EFS)	
Échelle de classement par niveau de sécurité (ECNS)	
Instrument de définition et d'analyse des facteurs dynamiques révisé (IDAFD-R)	
Échelle révisée d'information statistique sur la récidive (Échelle ISR-R1)	
Autres	

<i>Selon cette description :</i>		
Quel est le principal besoin lié à un facteur criminogène de cette personne? (Choisir la meilleure option)	Attitudes antisociales	
	Fréquentations antisociales	
	Toxicomanie	
	Déviante sexuelle	
	Violence	
	Difficulté à résoudre les problèmes	
Quelle cote de risque attribueriez-vous au délinquant? (Choisir la meilleure option)	Faible	
	Faible-moderé	
	Moderé	
	Moderé-élevé	
	Élevé	
Quel niveau d'intensité les programmes devraient-ils avoir ?	Aucun ou S.O.	
	Faible intensité	
	Intensité modérée	

(Choisir la meilleure option)	Intensité élevée	
Quel est le degré de motivation apparent chez cette personne ? (Choisir la meilleure option)	Faible	
	Modéré	
	Élevé	
Pour gérer le risque que présente cette personne, il faudrait ce qui suit : (Choisissez tous les types qui s'appliquent)	Des contacts plus fréquents	
	Une motivation accrue chez la personne visée	
	Un contrat de comportement	
	Des séances mieux structurées	
	L'aiguillage vers des services de consultation psychologique	
	L'aiguillage vers des programmes	
	L'incarcération	
De quels outils d'évaluation vous serviriez-vous dans ce cas-ci pour établir le niveau de risque? (Choisir la meilleure option)	Cote de risque	
	Évaluation du risque	
	Moyenne des cotes de risque (si on obtient des renseignements de plus d'une source)	
	Cote de risque et stratégie de gestion du risque	

- 4) Paul a 26 ans. Il purge une peine de cinq ans pour des infractions sexuelles qu'il a commises contre un enfant. Il s'agissait d'un petit garçon de huit ans qui jouait au parc du quartier, tout près de l'appartement de Paul. La première fois, il s'est contenté de parler au petit garçon, puis il a commencé à lui apporter des friandises et des gâteries. Quelques mois plus tard, il l'a convaincu de quitter le parc en lui demandant de l'aider à retrouver son chien fictif, qui, disait-il, s'était échappé par hasard. Finalement, il l'a ramené chez lui en prétendant vérifier si le chien était revenu et il l'a forcé à avoir des relations sexuelles orales avec lui.

Il a déjà été condamné à plusieurs reprises pour des délits sexuels, dont le premier remonte à l'époque où il avait 16 ans. Pendant son séjour dans une famille d'accueil, il a agressé sexuellement l'un des jeunes enfants dans la maison où il vivait. Il s'est également déshabillé devant des enfants à différentes reprises dans les toilettes de parcs de quartier et à la plage. À vingt ans, il est devenu entraîneur de soccer pour une équipe locale composée de jeunes de moins de dix ans. Il a été arrêté sur les déclarations de petites filles qui avaient dit à leurs parents qu'il s'était livré à des attouchements sur elles après leur avoir offert de les ramener après une partie. Le dossier de Paul comprend les résultats de la STATIQUE-99.

Paul n'a jamais eu de relation amoureuse à long terme et il n'a pas d'amis de son âge. Il préférerait passer tout son temps avec les enfants bien qu'il soit conscient que c'est déplacé. Il ne souffre pas d'une maladie mentale grave, et c'est un détenu modèle. Il respecte le personnel et il est motivé à entreprendre un traitement. Il affirme qu'il est bourrelé de remords et il souhaite vivre une « saine relation adulte » un jour.

- De quels outils d'évaluation vous serviriez-vous dans ce cas-ci pour établir le niveau de risque ?

Évaluation des facteurs statiques (EFS)	
Échelle de classement par niveau de sécurité (ECNS)	
Instrument de définition et d'analyse des facteurs dynamiques révisé (IDAFD-R)	
Échelle révisée d'information statistique sur la récidive (Échelle ISR-R1)	
Autres	

<i>Selon cette description :</i>		
Quel est le <u>principal</u> besoin lié à un facteur criminogène de cette personne? (Choisir la meilleure option)	Attitudes antisociales	
	Fréquentations antisociales	
	Toxicomanie	
	Déviance sexuelle	
	Violence	
	Difficulté à résoudre les problèmes	
Quelle cote de risque attribueriez-vous au délinquant? (Choisir la	Faible	
	Faible-modéré	
	Modéré	

meilleure option)	Modéré-élevé	
	Élevé	
Quel niveau d'intensité les programmes devraient-ils avoir? (Choisir la meilleure option)	Aucun ou S.O.	
	Faible intensité	
	Intensité modérée	
	Intensité élevée	
Quel est le degré de motivation apparent chez cette personne? (Choisir la meilleure option)	Faible	
	Modéré	
	Élevé	
Pour gérer le risque que présente cette personne, il faudrait ce qui suit : (Choisissez tous les types qui s'appliquent)	Des contacts plus fréquents	
	Une motivation accrue chez la personne visée	
	Un contrat de comportement	
	Des séances mieux structurées	
	L'aiguillage vers des services de consultation psychologique	
	L'aiguillage vers des programmes	
	L'incarcération	
De quels outils d'évaluation vous serviriez-vous dans ce cas-ci pour établir le niveau de risque ? (Choisir la meilleure option)	Cote de risque	
	Évaluation du risque	
	Moyenne des cotes de risque (si on obtient des renseignements de plus d'une source)	
	Cote de risque et stratégie de gestion du risque	

PARTIE 3 : Questions visant à évaluer les connaissances générales**Analyse**

1. Pour l'élaboration d'un plan d'action et/ou de recommandations concernant un délinquant donné, la source d'information la plus utile est la suivante :
 - a. le Système d'empreintes digitales (SED) pour les antécédents criminels;
 - b. l'infraction désignée ou l'infraction à l'origine de la peine actuelle;
 - c. le dossier du délinquant;**
 - d. le délinquant lui-même (auto-déclaration);
 - e. aucune de ces réponses.

2. Parmi les options suivantes, quelle est celle qui résume le mieux les principes directeurs de la *Loi sur le système correctionnel et la mise en liberté sous condition* (LSCMLC), s'appliquant au mandat du Service correctionnel du Canada (SCC)?
 - a. Le niveau d'incarcération doit être limité au niveau strictement nécessaire qui concilie les besoins du délinquant et la sécurité publique.**
 - b. La réinsertion sociale réussie des délinquants est l'élément le plus important à prendre en considération dans le processus correctionnel.
 - c. On établit la façon de gérer le cas d'un délinquant uniquement après avoir étudié les renseignements pertinents dont on dispose sur lui.
 - d. La gravité d'une infraction et le degré de responsabilité du délinquant sont des facteurs déterminants lorsqu'on établit le risque qu'il représente pour le public et les décisions ultérieures concernant la gestion de la peine.

3. Pour combler les lacunes ou corriger les incohérences dans les renseignements, voici ce dont un agent de libération conditionnelle doit tenir compte :
 - a. le dossier du délinquant;
 - b. l'infraction désignée ou l'infraction à l'origine de la peine actuelle;
 - c. les renseignements obtenus auprès de tiers;
 - d. les renseignements obtenus au cours du procès ou de la détermination de la peine;
 - e. toutes ces réponses**

4. L'analyse de cas consiste notamment à déterminer les facteurs de risque.
Vrai ou **faux**

5. Une fois qu'on a établi les facteurs de risque, il faut étudier de plus près les facteurs de risque dynamiques (ceux qui précipitent ou déclenchent des situations) par opposition aux facteurs statiques (âge auquel la première infraction a été commise, antécédents criminels).
Vrai ou **faux**

6. Les facteurs de risque dynamiques sont des indicateurs de récidive plus précis que les facteurs de risque statiques.
Vrai ou **faux**

7. Les facteurs dynamiques permettent d'établir les besoins d'un délinquant.

Vrai ou faux

8. Selon la recherche, lequel des facteurs suivants faut-il impérativement aborder pendant les séances avec un délinquant?

- a. l'emploi (le manque d'emploi),
- b. les problèmes conjugaux ou familiaux,
- c. les cognitions antisociales,**
- d. les troubles mentaux majeurs.

Évaluation du risque

1. Certains facteurs de risque sont particuliers, quant à leur utilité prédictive, à certaines sous-populations de délinquants, comme les délinquants sexuels ou les auteurs d'actes de violence familiale.

Vrai ou faux

2. Quel outil d'évaluation du risque faut-il utiliser idéalement pour les délinquants sexuels?

- a. GERV
- b. Échelle d'ISR-R1
- c. Statique-99**
- d. ERVC
- e. Échelle de classement par niveau de sécurité (ECNS)

3. Quel outil d'évaluation du risque faut-il utiliser idéalement pour les auteurs de violence conjugale?

- a. GERV
- b. Échelle d'ISR-R1
- c. Statique-99
- d. ERVC**
- e. Échelle de classement par niveau de sécurité (ECNS)

4. Parmi les outils suivants, quel est celui qui ne donne pas de renseignements sur la façon de gérer ou de réduire le risque que représente un délinquant sexuel?

- a. Échelle d'évaluation du risque de violence - Version pour les délinquants sexuels (VRS-SO)
- b. Échelle STABLE-2007
- c. Risque de violence sexuelle-20 (SVR-20)
- d. Statique-99**
- e. Échelle Aigu-2007

5. En fondant une décision sur une évaluation normalisée du risque (comme l'Information statistique sur la récidive-révisée [échelle d'ISR-R1]), on obtient généralement une plus grande exactitude.

Vrai ou faux

6. Parmi les facteurs de risque dynamiques, quel est celui dont l'association empirique avec un comportement criminel est la plus forte?
 - a. le degré de détresse personnelle/psychopathologie;
 - b. les fréquentations antisociales;**
 - c. les facteurs liés aux parents, à la famille ou aux partenaires intimes;
 - d. l'instabilité/le manque de travail.
7. Le jugement clinique est généralement moins précis qu'une évaluation actuarielle ou statistique.
Vrai ou faux
8. Il est préférable de se concentrer sur les besoins des délinquants liés aux facteurs criminogènes et de ne pas prendre le temps de discuter d'autres problèmes.
Vrai ou faux
9. En règle générale, les dérogations cliniques, quand elles sont utilisées par des agents de libération conditionnelle chevronnés, dépassent la précision des échelles d'évaluation du risque normalisées.
Vrai ou faux
10. En règle générale, les délinquants sont des apprenants adultes et ils réagissent mieux aux modèles de programmes axés sur sur l'approche cognitivo-comportementale et les compétences.
Vrai ou faux

Gestion du risque

1. Lorsqu'on fait affaire avec un délinquant violent, les interventions axées essentiellement sur les principes moraux et visant à renforcer l'empathie sont les plus efficaces.
Vrai ou faux
2. Quel est le meilleur indicateur de récurrence avec violence?
 - a. la séparation de l'un des parents biologiques avant 16 ans;
 - b. la dépendance à l'alcool;
 - c. l'échec d'une mise en liberté sous condition antérieure;
 - d. un diagnostic de trouble de la personnalité antisociale ou une cote établie au moyen de l'échelle de psychopathie.**
3. Dans quel cas le niveau de risque pour les délinquants souffrant de schizophrénie augmente considérablement comparativement aux autres délinquants?
 - a. des problèmes de toxicomanie;

- b. des antécédents d'idées délirantes « bizarres » (« mes pensées sont contrôlées par des extraterrestres »);
 - c. la présence de symptômes graves;
 - d. A et C;**
 - e. toutes ces réponses.
4. Parmi les facteurs suivants, quel est celui qui réduit l'efficacité des mesures de prévention des rechutes et nuit à la réinsertion sociale des délinquants sexuels?
- a. l'établissement des facteurs de risque dynamiques et situationnels (situations à risque élevé) et participation du délinquant à l'élaboration d'un plan de maîtrise de soi;
 - b. les registres publics et avis à la communauté;**
 - c. le développement de compétences (l'empathie pour les victimes, des compétences prosociales);
 - d. les efforts visant à renforcer la motivation des délinquants à participer activement à un traitement.
5. Parmi les domaines où les besoins sont importants, quel est celui qui est habituellement le moins grave/important pour les délinquants autochtones que pour les autres délinquants?
- a. la toxicomanie;
 - b. l'emploi;
 - c. les besoins affectifs (maîtrise de la colère);
 - d. les attitudes.**
6. Il est communément admis que tous les délinquants violents ont du mal à gérer leur colère.
Vrai ou **faux**
7. Si on observe un changement dans la situation d'un délinquant (c'est-à-dire un changement dans les croyances, les attitudes, les pairs, la sobriété), son cas doit être réanalysé en fonction du risque.
Vrai ou faux
8. Lorsqu'on fait affaire en général avec des délinquants atteints de maladie mentale, quelle est la stratégie, parmi les suivantes, qui n'est pas associée à des résultats positifs?
- a. obtenir des ordonnances du tribunal afin que les patients se conforment à leurs programmes de traitement;
 - b. amener le patient à acquérir une capacité d'introspection;**
 - c. réhospitaliser le patient, au besoin, en cas d'apparition de symptômes aigus;
 - d. offrir des programmes à volets multiples, à intensité élevée et hautement structurés.
9. Parmi les facteurs suivants, lequel n'est pas associé au renoncement à la criminalité et/ou à la diminution de la récidive?

- a. l'augmentation de l'âge du délinquant;
 - b. une augmentation des récompenses pour comportement prosocial;
 - c. **des antécédents de comportement criminel commençant à un jeune âge;**
 - d. des interventions cognitivo-compartementales et fondées sur les compétences.
10. Parmi les facteurs qui suivent, lequel est VRAI pour ce qui est du traitement des délinquants violents à risque élevé?
- a. Il faut des programmes de traitement à faible intensité.
 - b. Il faut des programmes de traitement à intensité élevée.
 - c. **Il faut des programmes de traitement à intensité élevée, avec des services d'assistance postpénale.**
 - d. Les fournisseurs de services de traitement doivent viser à renforcer l'empathie à l'égard des victimes.
11. Pour ce qui est des délinquants sexuels et de la récidive, quel est le facteur parmi les suivants, qui est le plus vrai?
- a. La connaissance de leur chaîne de délit peut se traduire par une diminution substantielle de la récidive.
 - b. La connaissance de leur chaîne d'infractions ne suffit pas à réduire la récidive.
 - c. Les délinquants doivent connaître leur chaîne d'infractions en plus d'avoir un plan et la série de compétences requises pour éviter et/ou traiter les éléments déclencheurs.
 - d. **B et C.**
 - e. Aucune de ces réponses.

Surveillance et communication

1. Les délinquants à qui on a accordé une certaine forme de libération conditionnelle discrétionnaire ont de meilleurs résultats que les délinquants qui ont obtenu une libération d'office.
Vrai ou faux
2. Parmi les facteurs suivants, quel est celui qui n'est pas efficace pour ce qui est des résultats positifs chez les délinquants?
 - a. **se concentrer uniquement sur les délinquants en suivant les règles;**
 - b. établir une saine relation délinquant-agent de libération conditionnelle;
 - c. être un modèle de rôle prosocial (pour les comportements et les attitudes);
 - d. utiliser sa position d'autorité pour renforcer l'approbation ou la désapprobation de comportements particuliers.
3. Souvent, on peut recourir à des stratégies d'entrevue motivationnelle afin d'encourager le délinquant à changer.
Vrai ou faux

4. Les données fournies par les délinquants ne sont pas utiles pour gérer leur cas.
Vrai ou **faux**
5. Parmi les facteurs suivants, quel est celui qu'il ne faut pas inclure dans une Évaluation en vue d'une décision?
 - a. la cote de risque du délinquant et la justification sous-jacente;
 - b. l'orientation sexuelle;**
 - c. une description de l'infraction désignée commise par le délinquant et de ses antécédents criminels;
 - d. les renseignements concernant le degré apparent de motivation du délinquant et sa disposition à changer;
 - e. une description des facteurs aggravants ou de protection.
6. Parmi les énoncés suivants, lequel est VRAI en ce qui concerne l'admissibilité à une libération conditionnelle des délinquants qui purgent une peine de durée déterminée?
 - a. La plupart des délinquants sont admissibles à la libération conditionnelle totale après avoir purgé la moitié de leur peine.
 - b. La plupart des délinquants sont admissibles à la libération conditionnelle totale après avoir purgé le tiers de leur peine ou 5 ans, la période la moins longue des deux.
 - c. La plupart des délinquants sont admissibles à la semi-liberté 6 mois avant la date de leur admissibilité à la libération conditionnelle totale.**
 - d. La plupart des délinquants sont admissibles à la semi-liberté après avoir purgé le quart de leur peine.
7. Laquelle des caractéristiques suivantes NE s'applique PAS à un membre du personnel correctionnel efficace?
 - a. avoir de bonnes compétences en communication;
 - b. avoir un comportement directif;
 - c. être autoritaire;**
 - d. être respectueux et équitable.
8. La prestation de services d'assistance postpénale de qualité aux délinquants peut contribuer à réduire le risque de récidive. Parmi les facteurs suivants, quel est celui qui contribue probablement le moins à l'efficacité du service d'assistance postpénale?
 - a. s'assurer que le délinquant connaît les règles;**
 - b. connaître les partenaires du système de justice pénale;
 - c. maintenir une communication constante entre toutes les parties concernées;
 - d. s'assurer que les parties comprennent bien leurs rôles et responsabilités.

Appendix D. Parole Officer Competency Survey – US Version (POCS-USV)

PART 1 – Demographics and Background

Please provide the following information

Gender	Male	
	Female	
Education level – highest degree in area of study <i>Area of study</i> _____	Technical/ vocational training	
	Bachelor’s degree	
	Master’s Degree	
	Doctorate	
Region/Site	Iowa Department of Corrections	
Work setting	Institutional - case manager	
	Community – probation/parole	
Age: _____	Number of years as parole officer: _____	Number of years in corrections: _____

Please rank-order each of the following based on how relevant you feel it is within the context of your job.

	1 = most important 6 = least important
Praising the offender for successful completion of a task or for achieving a goal.	
Providing opportunities that allow the offender to comment on their progress.	
Summarizing what the offender said to allow them to hear their own ideas.	
Reiterating to the offender an area that warrants change.	
Getting the offender to see the difference between where their life is now and where they want to be in the future.	
Communicating expectations and conditions of incarceration or supervision clearly to offender.	

	1 = most important 6 = least important
Establishing or reviewing a behavioral contract for case planning.	
Getting the offender to discuss change.	
Letting the offender know when they need to change their behavior to avoid problems.	
Asking the offender to identify different ways that they could handle a difficult situation in the future.	
Providing offenders with a written case plan.	
Providing the offender with feedback on their progress.	

	1 = most important 7 = least important
Being aware of relevant legislation	
Being aware of criminal justice partners as community resources	
Understanding of procedural information	
Verifying offender-reported information	
Using a variety of supervision strategies	
Being aware of current/up-to-date research	
Being familiar with effective correctional interventions/programs	

	1 = most important 7 = least important
Writing clear and concise reports	
Providing a thorough analysis of information and rationale for conclusions/decisions	
Role-modeling prosocial behavior	
Understanding offenders' offense cycles (behavioral chain)	
Developing a positive working relationship with the offender	
Assisting an offender in managing his/her risk	
Changing supervision approach in accordance with changes in behavior or in response to new information	

PART 2 – Vignettes (Skill)

1) Mike is a 37-year old recidivist. He is currently incarcerated for violent armed robbery. After a night of heavy drinking, Mike exited a bar and robbed a patron he had met, and been chatting with, while inside the bar. The victim had been waiting for friends to arrive, but after receiving a text message indicating that his friends were at a neighboring bar, left the club with Mike. Mike has several previous convictions including one for assault, and one for armed robbery (of a convenience store). Though he has only been incarcerated for a month so far, he has already had two altercations with other inmates, one that earned him time in segregation. Mike frequently expresses antisocial attitudes, and has been diagnosed with Antisocial Personality Disorder following a psychological evaluation. He expresses no remorse for his current crime, stating that the victim was “drunk and asking for it”.

➤ Which assessment tool(s) would you complete in this case to determine risk level?

A static measure (list)	
A dynamic measure (list)	
A specialized risk measure (list or indicate unavailable)	

Based on this description:		
What is the offender’s primary criminogenic need? (Select best option)	Antisocial Attitudes	
	Antisocial Associates	
	Substance Abuse	
	Sexual Deviance	
	Violence	
	Poor Problem-Solving	
What risk rating would you give to the offender? (Select best option)	Low	
	Low-Moderate	
	Moderate	
	Moderate-High	
	High	
What intensity-level of programming would be required? (Select best option)	None or N/A	
	Low Intensity	
	Moderate Intensity	
	High Intensity	
What is the offender’s apparent level of motivation? (Select best option)	Low	
	Moderate	
	High	
Managing the offender’s risk would require: (Check all that apply)	An increase in frequency of contact	
	An increase in the offender’s motivation	
	A behavioral contract	
	More structured sessions	
	Referral to psychological counseling	
	Referral to programming	
	Incarceration	
How would you communicate risk level in your case plan? (Select best option)	Risk Score	
	Risk Rating	
	Average risk rating (if information from more than one	

	source is provided)	
	Risk rating and risk management strategy	

2) Robert is a 36-year old male offender who was brought before the courts on a manslaughter charge. Prior to the offense, he had not been involved with the criminal justice system. Following a minor argument in a bar, he assaulted another patron with a beer bottle and the person died at the scene. Robert has been diagnosed with schizophrenia, and had received intermittent care in the community prior to the offense, including a brief hospitalization 6 years ago.

Despite the seriousness of the crime, there is little evidence of antisocial personality or psychopathic symptoms. Early psychiatric reports indicate that he had episodes of disordered thinking, and at times auditory hallucinations. Social withdrawal, diminished personal hygiene, and blunted affect were also noted. At times of severe symptoms he has coped by using alcohol and street drugs (cannabis). At times of agitation he has refused treatment and been non-compliant with medication, though he is taking it now.

Robert has had a few common-law relationships but is currently single. He does have some support in the form of sister to whom he writes regularly. Reports indicate that he is aware of antecedent symptoms and has accepted responsibility for his need for self-management.

➤ Which assessment tool(s) would you complete in this case to determine risk level?

A static measure (list)	
A dynamic measure (list)	
A specialized risk measure (list or indicate unavailable)	

Based on this description:		
What is the offender's <u>primary</u> criminogenic need? (Select best option)	Antisocial Attitudes	
	Antisocial Associates	
	Substance Abuse	
	Sexual Deviance	
	Violence	
	Poor Problem-Solving	
What risk rating would you give to the offender? (Select best option)	Low	
	Low-Moderate	
	Moderate	
	Moderate-High	
	High	
What intensity-level of programming would be required? (Select best option)	None or N/A	
	Low Intensity	
	Moderate Intensity	
	High Intensity	
What is the offender's apparent level of motivation? (Select best option)	Low	
	Moderate	
	High	
Managing the offender's risk would require:	An increase in frequency of contact	
	An increase in the offender's motivation	

(Check all that apply)	A behavioral contract	
	More structured sessions	
	Referral to psychological counseling	
	Referral to programming	
	Incarceration	
How would you communicate risk level in your case plan? (Select best option)	Risk Score	
	Risk Rating	
	Average risk rating (if information from more than one source is provided)	
	Risk rating and risk management strategy	

3) Alison is a 27 year-old woman nearing the halfway point in her 8-year sentence for armed robbery of a convenience store. Alison has an extensive criminal history, which includes offenses such as drug trafficking, break and enters, and robbery. At the 14 Alison left home, as she could no longer bear living with her abusive stepfather and her mother, who had a serious drug addiction. Within six months of leaving home, Alison found herself working as a prostitute for a man named Brad. Alone and afraid, Alison became depressed and looked to the drugs Brad provided for any kind of escape. In the years that followed, Alison became increasingly reliant on substances. Between the drug addiction and Brad’s demands, Alison also became increasingly involved in other criminal activities.

Now, after several years in prison, and after completing Dialectical Behavior Therapy (DBT), Alison feels that it is time to turn her life around. She has completed programming for her substance abuse problems and has also sought psychological counseling. She claims that she finally feels that she is a worthwhile person, and feels confident that she can learn the skills required to live a prosocial, drug-free life.

➤ Which assessment tool(s) would you complete in this case to determine risk level?

A static measure (list)	
A dynamic measure (list)	
A specialized risk measure (list or indicate unavailable)	

Based on this description:		
What is the offender’s primary criminogenic need? (Select best option)	Antisocial Attitudes	
	Antisocial Associates	
	Substance Abuse	
	Sexual Deviance	
	Violence	
	Poor Problem-Solving	
What risk rating would you give to the offender? (Select best option)	Low	
	Low-Moderate	
	Moderate	
	Moderate-High	
	High	
What intensity-level of programming would be required? (Select best option)	None or N/A	
	Low Intensity	
	Moderate Intensity	
	High Intensity	
What is the offender’s apparent level of motivation? (Select best option)	Low	
	Moderate	
	High	
Managing the offender’s risk would require: (Check all that apply)	An increase in frequency of contact	
	An increase in the offender’s motivation	
	A behavioral contract	
	More structured sessions	
	Referral to psychological counseling	
	Referral to programming	

	Incarceration	
How would you communicate risk level in your case plan? (Select best option)	Risk Score	
	Risk Rating	
	Average risk rating (if information from more than one source is provided)	
	Risk rating and risk management strategy	

- 4) Jesse is a 26-year old man serving a 5-year sentence for sex offenses against a child. The victim was an 8-year-old boy playing at the local park across from Jesse’s apartment. Jesse only spoke to the boy at first, but then began to bring him snacks and small treats. After a few months, Jesse convinced the boy to leave the park by asking for his help in locating his fictional dog, which he claimed had gotten out by accident. Eventually, he brought the boy back to his apartment to ‘see if the dog had come back’ and forced the child to engage in oral sex acts with him.

Jesse has several prior convictions for sexual offenses, the first of which occurred when he was 16. While living in foster care, he sexually abused one of the younger children in the home. He also exposed himself to children on different occasions in the restrooms of local parks and beaches. At age twenty, he became a soccer coach for a local ‘under 10’ team. He was arrested when 2 young girls on the team told their parents that he had fondled them after volunteering to drive them home after a game. Jesse’s file includes the results from the STATIC-99.

Jesse has never had a long-term romantic relationship and has no age-appropriate friends. He would prefer to spend all of his time with children, though he understands that his desire to do so is not appropriate. He has no major mental illness and is a model inmate. He is respectful of staff is motivated to start treatment. He claims to feel a lot of remorse and wants to be able to have a “healthy adult relationship” some day.

➤ Which assessment tool(s) would you complete in this case to determine risk level?

A static measure (list)	
A dynamic measure (list)	
A specialized risk measure (list or indicate unavailable)	

Based on this description:		
What is the offender’s <u>primary</u> criminogenic need? (Select best option)	Antisocial Attitudes	
	Antisocial Associates	
	Substance Abuse	
	Sexual Deviance	
	Violence	
	Poor Problem-Solving	
What risk rating would you give to the offender? (Select best option)	Low	
	Low-Moderate	
	Moderate	
	Moderate-High	
	High	
What intensity-level of programming would be required? (Select best option)	None or N/A	
	Low Intensity	
	Moderate Intensity	
	High Intensity	
What is the offender’s apparent level of motivation? (Select best option)	Low	
	Moderate	
	High	

Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply)	An increase in frequency of contact	
	An increase in the offender's motivation	
	A behavioral contract	
	More structured sessions	
	Referral to psychological counseling	
	Referral to programming	
	Incarceration	
How would you communicate risk level in your case plan? (Select best option)	Risk Score	
	Risk Rating	
	Average risk rating (if information from more than one source is provided)	
	Risk rating and risk management strategy	

PART 3 – General Knowledge Questions*Analysis*

1. When developing a plan of action and/or making recommendations about a given offender, the most relevant source of information is:
 - a. the official recidivism database
 - b. the offender's index/current offense
 - c. the offender's file**
 - d. the offender themselves (self-report)
 - e. none of the above

2. Which of the following best summarizes the guiding principles of your legislation as they pertain to your mandate:
 - a. The level of incarceration used should be limited to that which is strictly necessary in order to balance the needs of the offender and public safety**
 - b. The successful reintegration of offenders is the most important consideration in the corrections process
 - c. The management of an offender's case is determined only after considering all relevant, available information
 - d. The seriousness of an offense and the degree of responsibility of the offender are critical in determining the risk posed to the public and subsequent decisions about sentence management

3. To address gaps or inconsistencies in information, a parole officer should consider:
 - a. the offender's file
 - b. the index/current offense
 - c. information from collaterals
 - d. information from the trial or sentencing process
 - e. all of the above**

4. Part of case analysis is identifying risk factors.
True/False

5. Once risk factors have been identified, more time and attention should be dedicated to the dynamic risk factors (precipitating and activating situations) as opposed to the static ones (age at first offense, prior criminal history).
True/False

6. Dynamic risk factors are more accurate predictors of recidivism than static risk factors.
True/False

7. Dynamic factors identify case needs.
True/False

8. According to research findings, which of the following is most important to address during sessions with an offender:
- (Lack) of employment
 - Family and/or marital issues
 - Antisocial cognitions**
 - Major mental disorder

Risk Assessment

- Certain risk factors are unique in terms of prediction for offender sub-populations such as sex offenders or perpetrators of intimate violence.
True/False
- Which risk assessment tool is most appropriate for use with sex offenders:
 - VRAG
 - WRN
 - Static-99**
 - SARA
 - COMPAS
- Which risk assessment tool is most appropriate for use with perpetrators of domestic violence:
 - VRAG
 - WRN
 - Static-99
 - ODARA**
 - COMPAS
- Which of the following does not provide any information about how to manage or reduce a sex offender's risk?
 - the Violence Risk Scale – Sexual Offender Version (VRS-SO)
 - the Stable-2007
 - The Sexual Violence Risk—20 (SVR-20)
 - The Static-99**
 - The Acute-2007
- Anchoring a decision with a standardized risk estimate (such as the Salient Factor Score) generally yields greater accuracy.
True/False
- Which of the following dynamic risk factors has the strongest empirical association with criminal conduct:
 - level of personal distress/psychopathology
 - antisocial associates**
 - parental/family/intimate factors

- d. unstable/lack of employment
7. Clinical judgment is generally less accurate than actuarial or statistical assessment.
True/False
 8. It is best to focus on offenders' criminogenic needs and to not spend time discussing other issues.
True/False
 9. Clinical overrides, when used by experienced correctional staff, tend to exceed the accuracy of standardized risk scales.
True/False
 10. As a general rule, offenders are adult learners and respond best to program models that are cognitive-behavioral and skills based.
True/False

Risk Management

1. When dealing with a violent offender, interventions that focus on instilling morals and increasing empathy are generally most effective.
True/False
2. Which is the best indicator of violent recidivism?
 - a. Separation from either biological parent by age 16
 - b. Alcohol problems
 - c. Failure on prior conditional release
 - d. Psychopathy checklist score/antisocial personality diagnosis**
3. Relative to other offenders, the risk level for offenders with schizophrenia increases significantly when which of the following co-occur:
 - a. Substance abuse problems
 - b. A history of 'bizarre' delusions ("aliens are controlling my thoughts")
 - c. The presence of acute symptoms
 - d. A & C**
 - e. All of the above
4. Which of the following does not contribute to effective relapse prevention and community reintegration for sex offenders:
 - a. identifying dynamic and situational risk factors (i.e. high-risk situations) and having the offender participate in the creation of a self-management plan
 - b. public registries and community notification**
 - c. skills development (i.e. victim empathy, (pro)social skills)
 - d. working to increase motivation of offenders to participate and engage in treatment

5. Which of the following need areas is not typically more serious/salient for female offenders than male offenders?
 - a. Substance use
 - b. Employment
 - c. Emotional (i.e. anger management)
 - d. Attitudes**

6. Generally speaking, it is accepted that all violent offenders have anger problems.
True/False

7. If there is a change in an offender's situation (i.e. a change in beliefs, attitudes, peers, sobriety), their case should be re-analyzed in terms of risk.
True/False

8. When dealing with mentally ill offenders in general, which of the following strategies has not been linked to positive outcomes:
 - a. Obtaining court orders to ensure that patients comply with their treatment programs
 - b. having the patient develop insight**
 - c. re-hospitalizing the patient if needed to deal with the emergence of acute symptoms
 - d. multi-faceted, intense, and highly-structured programming

9. Which of the following is not associated with desistance from crime and/or a decrease in recidivism:
 - a. Increasing age of the offender
 - b. An increase in rewards for prosocial behavior
 - c. A history of criminal behavior beginning at a young age**
 - d. Cognitive-behavioral and skills-based interventions

10. Which of the following is TRUE with respect to the treatment of high-risk violent offenders:
 - a. treatment programs should be low-intensity
 - b. treatment programs should be high-intensity
 - c. treatment programs should be high-intensity with aftercare**
 - d. treatment providers should aim to increase victim empathy

11. With respect to sex offenders and recidivism, which of the following is the most true:
 - a. knowledge of their offense chain can lead to substantial reductions in recidivism
 - b. knowledge of their offense chain alone is insufficient to reduce reoffending
 - c. offenders must have knowledge of their offense chain in addition to both a plan, and the skill-set required for avoiding and/or dealing with triggers
 - d. B & C**
 - e. none of the above

Supervision and Communication

1. Offenders who have been given some form of discretionary parole have better outcomes than offenders on end of sentence release.
True/False
2. Which of the following is not effective with regards to positive offender outcomes:
 - a. **focusing solely on the offenders following the rules**
 - b. establishing a positive, open, and respectful parole officer-offender relationship
 - c. being a prosocial role model (for behaviors and attitudes)
 - d. using one's position of authority to reinforce approval or disapproval of specific behaviors
3. Often, motivational interviewing strategies can be used to encourage offender change.
True/False
4. Self-report data from offenders is unhelpful in managing a case.
True/False
5. Which of the following need not be included in a pre-release report:
 - a. the offender's risk rating and the underlying rationale
 - b. **sexual orientation**
 - c. a description of the offender's index crime and criminal history
 - d. information about the offender's apparent level of motivation and readiness to change
 - e. a description of any protective or aggravating factors
6. Which of the following is not a characteristic of effective correctional staff:
 - a. Good communication skills
 - b. Being directive
 - c. **Being authoritarian**
 - d. Being respectful and fair
7. Providing quality aftercare for offenders can help reduce the likelihood of recidivism. Which of the following is least likely to contribute to effective aftercare:
 - a. **ensuring that the offender knows the rules**
 - b. being knowledgeable of criminal justice partners
 - c. maintaining consistent communication between all parties involved
 - d. ensuring that all parties understand their roles and responsibilities

Appendix E. List of variables with missing values – Canadian sample

Variable Name	Missing		Valid <i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
	<i>N</i>	%			
Which of the following need areas is not typically more serious/salient for Aboriginal offenders...	4	5.8%	65	2.91	1.027
Age	2	2.9%	67	39.37	9.030
Offenders who have been given some form of discretionary parole have better outcomes than offende...	2	2.9%	67	1.03	.171
Which of the following does not provide any information about how to manage or reduce a sex offe...	2	2.9%	67	3.90	1.269
What is the offender's apparent level of motivation? (Select best option)	2	2.9%	67	2.79	.410
What intensity-level of programming would be required? (Select best option)	2	2.9%	67	2.85	.821
Years in Corrections	1	1.4%	68	11.69	7.250
Years PO	1	1.4%	68	8.44	5.528
Providing quality aftercare for offenders can help reduce the likelihood of recidivism. Which o...	1	1.4%	68	1.71	.915
Which of the following is TRUE regarding parole eligibility for offenders with determinate sente...	1	1.4%	68	2.81	.605
Self-report data from offenders in unhelpful in managing a case.	1	1.4%	68	1.96	.207
Often, motivational interviewing strategies can be used to encourage offender change	1	1.4%	68	1.01	.121
Which of the following is not effective with regards to positive offender outcomes:	1	1.4%	68	1.71	1.247
Which of the following is not associated with desistance from crime and/or a decrease in recidiv...	1	1.4%	68	2.66	.637
When dealing with mentally ill offenders in general, which of the following strategies has not b...	1	1.4%	68	1.79	1.166
If there is a change in an offender's situation (i.e. a change in beliefs, attitudes, peers, sobr...	1	1.4%	68	1.04	.207
Clinical overrides, when used by experienced correctional staff, tend to exceed the accuracy of s...	1	1.4%	68	1.46	.502
It is best to focus on offenders' criminogenic needs and to not spend time discussing other issue...	1	1.4%	68	1.84	.371

Table continues...

Which of the following dynamic risk factors has the strongest empirical association with crimina...	1	1.4%	68	2.01	.889
Certain risk factors are unique in terms of prediction for offender sub-populations such as sex o...	1	1.4%	68	1.10	.306
What is the offender's apparent level of motivation? (Select best option)	1	1.4%	68	2.10	.462
Please rank-order each of the following based on how relevant you feel it is within the context o...-Communicating expectations and conditions of incarceration or supervision clearly to offender.	1	1.4%	68	1.74	1.561
Please rank-order each of the following based on how relevant you feel it is within the context o...-Getting the offender to see the difference between where their life is now and where they want to be in the future.	1	1.4%	68	2.94	1.563
Please rank-order each of the following based on how relevant you feel it is within the context o...-Reiterating to the offender an area that warrants change.	1	1.4%	68	3.44	1.490
Please rank-order each of the following based on how relevant you feel it is within the context o...-Summarizing what the offender said to allow them to hear their own ideas.	1	1.4%	68	4.54	1.354
Please rank-order each of the following based on how relevant you feel it is within the context o...-Providing opportunities that allow the offender to comment on their progress.	1	1.4%	68	4.25	1.084
Please rank-order each of the following based on how relevant you feel it is within the context o...-Praising the offender for successful completion of a task or for achieving a goal.	1	1.4%	68	4.09	1.463
Gender	1	1.4%	68	1.74	.444

Appendix F. List of variables with missing values – American sample

Variable Name	Missing		Valid <i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
	<i>N</i>	%			
Which risk assessment tool is most appropriate for use with perpetrators of domestic violence:	37	39.4%	57	4.07	1.944
Which of the following does not provide any information about how to manage or reduce a sex offe...	34	36.2%	60	3.30	1.357
Anchoring a decision with a standardized risk estimate (such as the Salient Factor Score) general...	22	23.4%	72	1.21	.409
Which risk assessment tool is most appropriate for use with sex offenders:	15	16.0%	79	3.04	.629
Which assessment tool(s) would you complete in this case to determine risk level?	14	14.9%	80	4.23	.856
Which assessment tool(s) would you complete in this case to determine risk level?	14	14.9%	80	4.10	.587
Which of the following does not contribute to effective relapse prevention and community reinteg...	12	12.8%	82	2.10	.696
With respect to sex offenders and recidivism, which of the following is the most true:	11	11.7%	83	3.53	.704
Which assessment tool(s) would you complete in this case to determine risk level?	11	11.7%	83	4.31	.679
How would you communicate risk level in your case plan? (Select best option)	9	9.6%	85	3.20	1.203
Clinical overrides, when used by experienced correctional staff, tend to exceed the accuracy of s...	8	8.5%	86	1.44	.500
What intensity-level of programming would be required? (Select best option)	8	8.5%	86	3.90	.308
Which assessment tool(s) would you complete in this case to determine risk level?	8	8.5%	86	4.12	.726
Which of the following is not associated with desistance from crime and/or a decrease in recidiv...	7	7.4%	87	2.67	.787
Which of the following dynamic risk factors has the strongest empirical association with crimina...	7	7.4%	87	2.17	.955
How would you communicate risk level in your case plan? (Select best option)	7	7.4%	87	2.89	1.243

Table continues...

When dealing with mentally ill offenders in general, which of the following strategies has not b...	6	6.4%	88	1.86	1.136
Which of the following is TRUE with respect to the treatment of high-risk violent offenders:	5	5.3%	89	3.06	.610
Clinical judgment is generally less accurate than actuarial or statistical assessment.	5	5.3%	89	1.52	.503
Which of the following best summarizes the guiding principles of your legislation as they pertain...	5	5.3%	89	2.48	1.289
Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply) -Incarceration	5	5.3%	89	.53	.502
Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply) -Referral to programming	5	5.3%	89	.82	.386
Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply) -Referral to psychological counseling	5	5.3%	89	.72	.452
Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply) -More structured sessions	5	5.3%	89	.60	.494
Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply) -A behavioural contract	5	5.3%	89	.55	.500
Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply) -An increase in the offender's motivation	5	5.3%	89	.34	.475
Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply) -An increase in frequency of contact	5	5.3%	89	.74	.440
Providing quality aftercare for offenders can help reduce the likelihood of recidivism. Which o...	4	4.3%	90	1.60	.804
Offenders who have been given some form of discretionary parole have better outcomes than offende...	4	4.3%	90	1.11	.316
Which is the best indicator of violent recidivism?	4	4.3%	90	3.64	.724
Certain risk factors are unique in terms of prediction for offender sub-populations such as sex o...	4	4.3%	90	1.02	.148
According to research findings, which of the following is most important to address during sessio...	4	4.3%	90	3.10	.808
What risk rating would you give to the offender? (Select best option)	4	4.3%	90	4.78	.556
What risk rating would you give to the offender? (Select best option)	4	4.3%	90	3.17	.824
<i>Table continues...</i>					

How would you communicate risk level in your case plan? (Select best option)	4	4.3%	90	2.94	1.221
What is the offender's apparent level of motivation? (Select best option)	4	4.3%	90	2.00	.540
Changing the supervision approach in accordance with changes in behavior or in response to new information	4	4.3%	90	4.37	1.783
Assisting an offender in managing his/her risk	4	4.3%	90	4.46	1.485
Developing a positive working relationship with the offender	4	4.3%	90	2.08	1.501
Understanding offenders' offence cycles (behavioral chain)	4	4.3%	90	4.22	1.606
Role-modeling prosocial behaviour	4	4.3%	90	2.77	1.723
Providing a thorough analysis of information and rationale for conclusions/decisions	4	4.3%	90	5.14	1.752
Writing clear and concise reports	4	4.3%	90	4.97	2.030
Which of the following need not be included in a pre-release report:	3	3.2%	91	2.20	.670
Generally speaking, it is accepted that all violent offenders have anger problems.	3	3.2%	91	1.45	.500
Which of the following need areas is not typically more serious/salient for female offenders tha...	3	3.2%	91	2.64	1.060
When dealing with a violent offender, interventions that focus on instilling morals and increasin...	3	3.2%	91	1.48	.502
As a general rule, offenders are adult learners and respond best to program models that are cogni...	3	3.2%	91	1.07	.250
It is best to focus on offenders' criminogenic needs and to not spend time discussing other issue...	3	3.2%	91	1.79	.409
What is the offender's apparent level of motivation? (Select best option)	3	3.2%	91	1.87	.670
What is the offender's primary criminogenic need? (Select best option)	3	3.2%	91	4.00	.558
Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply) -Incarceration	3	3.2%	91	.05	.229
Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply) -Referral to programming	3	3.2%	91	.78	.416
Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply) -Referral to psychological counseling	3	3.2%	91	.59	.494
<i>Table continues...</i>					

Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply) -More structured sessions	3	3.2%	91	.34	.477
Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply) -A behavioural contract	3	3.2%	91	.24	.431
Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply) -An increase in the offender's motivation	3	3.2%	91	.22	.416
Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply) -An increase in frequency of contact	3	3.2%	91	.45	.500
What is the offender's primary criminogenic need? (Select best option)	3	3.2%	91	3.41	1.374
What intensity-level of programming would be required? (Select best option)	3	3.2%	91	3.15	.631
Education level - highest degree in area of study	3	3.2%	91	2.12	.417
Which of the following is not effective with regards to positive offender outcomes:	2	2.1%	92	1.98	1.359
Relative to other offenders, the risk level for offenders with schizophrenia increases significa...	2	2.1%	92	4.18	1.257
Dynamic factors identify case needs.	2	2.1%	92	1.04	.205
What is the offender's apparent level of motivation? (Select best option)	2	2.1%	92	2.72	.453
What intensity-level of programming would be required? (Select best option)	2	2.1%	92	2.95	.581
Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply) -Incarceration	2	2.1%	92	.21	.407
Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply) -Referral to programming	2	2.1%	92	.68	.467
Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply) -Referral to psychological counseling	2	2.1%	92	.95	.228
Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply) -More structured sessions	2	2.1%	92	.46	.501
Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply) -A behavioural contract	2	2.1%	92	.34	.475
Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply) -An increase in the offender's motivation	2	2.1%	92	.35	.479
Managing the offender's risk would require: (Check all that apply) -An increase in frequency of contact	2	2.1%	92	.58	.497

Table continues...

What risk rating would you give to the offender? (Select best option)	2	2.1%	92	3.45	1.093
What is the offender's primary criminogenic need? (Select best option)	2	2.1%	92	4.14	1.713
How would you communicate risk level in your case plan? (Select best option)	2	2.1%	92	2.96	1.342
Providing the offender with feedback on their progress.	2	2.1%	92	3.75	1.427
Providing offenders with a written care plan.	2	2.1%	92	4.77	1.618
Asking the offender to identify different ways that they could handle a difficult situation in the future.	2	2.1%	92	2.80	1.400
Letting the offender know when they need to change their behavior to avoid problems.	2	2.1%	92	3.64	1.509
Getting the offender to discuss change.	2	2.1%	92	2.12	1.221
Establishing or reviewing a behavioural contract for case planning.	2	2.1%	92	3.91	1.733
How many years have you worked as a parole/probation officer?	2	2.1%	92	10.867	9.4666
Your age:	2	2.1%	92	43.620	11.3523
Which of the following is not a characteristic of effective correctional staff:	1	1.1%	93	2.97	.344
If there is a change in an offender's situation (i.e. a change in beliefs, attitudes, peers, sobr...	1	1.1%	93	1.08	.265
Dynamic risk factors are more accurate predictors of recidivism than static risk factors.	1	1.1%	93	1.28	.451
Part of case analysis is identifying risk factors.	1	1.1%	93	1.00	.000
What is the offender's apparent level of motivation? (Select best option)	1	1.1%	93	1.08	.337
What intensity-level of programming would be required? (Select best option)	1	1.1%	93	3.80	.523
What is the offender's primary criminogenic need? (Select best option)	1	1.1%	93	2.20	1.760
What risk rating would you give to the offender? (Select best option)	1	1.1%	93	4.77	.445
Being familiar with effective correctional interventions/programs	1	1.1%	93	3.02	1.830
<i>Table continues...</i>					

Being aware of current/up-to-date research	1	1.1%	93	5.58	1.576
Using a variety of supervision strategies	1	1.1%	93	3.34	1.760
Verifying offender-reported information	1	1.1%	93	4.01	1.671
Understanding of procedural information	1	1.1%	93	3.65	1.755
Being aware of criminal justice partners and community resources	1	1.1%	93	2.87	1.377
Being aware of relevant legislation	1	1.1%	93	5.53	1.976
Communicating expectations and conditions of incarceration or supervision clearly to offender.	1	1.1%	93	2.40	1.923
Getting the offender to see the difference between where their life is now and where they want to be in the future.	1	1.1%	93	2.97	1.703
Reiterating to the offender an area that warrants change.	1	1.1%	93	4.62	1.318
Summarizing what the offender said to allow them to hear their own ideas.	1	1.1%	93	4.18	1.406
Providing opportunities that allow the offender to comment on their progress.	1	1.1%	93	3.80	1.372
Praising the offender for successful completion of a task or for achieving a goal.	1	1.1%	93	3.03	1.387
How many years have you worked in corrections?	1	1.1%	93	15.613	8.4323

Appendix G. Reliability analyses for Canadian sample

POCS Knowledge Section: Cronbach's Alpha: .498

Item-Total Statistics – POCS – Knowledge Question Items

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q_A_1_R	22.6812	9.514	.081	.	.495
Q_A_2_R	23.1449	9.332	.066	.	.501
Q_A_5_R	22.7826	9.408	.078	.	.497
Q_A_6_R	22.9710	9.470	.021	.	.508
Q_A_8_R	22.7536	9.041	.246	.	.473
Q_RA_1_R	22.6667	9.696	-.005	.	.504
Q_RA_2_R	22.6087	9.889	-.118	.	.509
Q_RA_3_R	22.5942	9.598	.146	.	.492
Q_RA_4_R	23.2609	8.813	.273	.	.466
Q_RA_5_R	22.7681	8.828	.327	.	.461
Q_RA_6_R	22.9420	9.408	.044	.	.504
Q_RA_7_R	22.9130	8.845	.246	.	.469
Q_RA_8_R	23.4058	9.215	.191	.	.481
Q_RA_9_R	23.1159	9.163	.120	.	.491
Q_RA_10_R	22.6087	9.448	.229	.	.485
Q_RM_1_R	22.8696	9.321	.086	.	.496
Q_RM_2_R	22.8841	8.986	.203	.	.477
Q_RM_3_R	23.1014	8.240	.446	.	.431
Q_RM_4_R	22.7681	9.210	.165	.	.484
Q_RM_6_R	22.8841	9.222	.118	.	.491
Q_RM_7_R	22.6087	9.712	.019	.	.500
Q_RM_8_R	23.4058	10.421	-.327	.	.545
Q_RM_9_R	22.9130	8.816	.257	.	.467
Q_RM_10_R	22.7681	9.563	.021	.	.504
Q_RM_11_R	22.9855	8.867	.224	.	.473
Q_SC_1_R	22.5942	9.598	.146	.	.492
Q_SC_2_R	22.8406	9.607	-.011	.	.511
Q_SC_3_R	22.5797	9.571	.260	.	.489
Q_SC_4_R	22.6087	9.830	-.072	.	.506
Q_SC_5_R	22.6087	9.448	.229	.	.485
Q_SC_6_R	22.7826	9.084	.208	.	.478
Q_SC_7_R	22.6087	9.683	.042	.	.498
Q_SC_8_R	23.0580	9.350	.057	.	.502

Note: Q_A = Analysis, Q_RA = Risk Assessment, Q_RM = Risk Management, Q_SC = Supervision and Communication

Appendix H. Reliability analyses for American sample

POCS-USV Knowledge Section: Cronbach's Alpha: .284

Item-Total Statistics – POCS-USV – Knowledge Question Items

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q_A_1_U_R	21.60	8.222	-.169	.	.335
Q_A_2_U_R	21.91	7.584	.071	.	.274
Q_A_3_U_R	21.34	7.861	.017	.	.285
Q_A_5_U_R	21.31	7.743	.119	.	.270
Q_A_6_U_R	21.96	8.321	-.206	.	.339
Q_A_7_U_R	21.28	7.966	-.017	.	.287
Q_A_8_U_R	21.73	7.165	.212	.	.235
Q_RA_1_U_R	21.26	7.891	.093	.	.278
Q_RA_2_U_R	21.34	7.947	-.032	.	.293
Q_RA_3_U_R	21.84	7.662	.031	.	.285
Q_RA_4_U_R	22.07	8.027	-.084	.	.305
Q_RA_5_U_R	21.39	7.747	.051	.	.279
Q_RA_6_U_R	21.74	8.171	-.152	.	.333
Q_RA_7_U_R	21.78	7.767	-.011	.	.296
Q_RA_8_U_R	22.03	7.730	.042	.	.281
Q_RA_9_U_R	21.83	7.799	-.020	.	.298
Q_RA_10_U_R	21.30	7.781	.106	.	.272
Q_RM_1_U_R	21.77	7.794	-.021	.	.299
Q_RM_2_U_R	21.44	7.496	.149	.	.258
Q_RM_3_U_R	21.91	7.649	.046	.	.281
Q_RM_4_U_R	21.47	6.983	.366	.	.204
Q_RM_5_U_R	21.97	7.752	.016	.	.288
Q_RM_6_U_R	21.80	7.754	-.006	.	.295
Q_RM_7_U_R	21.31	7.635	.194	.	.259
Q_RM_8_U_R	21.97	7.902	-.045	.	.302
Q_RM_9_U_R	21.52	7.349	.175	.	.248
Q_RM_10_U_R	21.49	7.758	.015	.	.288
Q_RM_11_U_R	21.65	7.693	.018	.	.288
Q_SC_1_U_R	21.34	7.840	.030	.	.283
Q_SC_2_U_R	21.62	6.884	.337	.	.200
Q_SC_3_U_R	21.24	7.907	.120	.	.278
Q_SC_4_U_R	21.36	7.610	.143	.	.262
Q_SC_5_U_R	21.39	7.704	.073	.	.275
Q_SC_7_U_R	21.29	7.433	.410	.	.236
Q_SC_8_U_R	21.71	6.852	.336	.	.198

Note: *Q_A* = Analysis, *Q_RA* = Risk Assessment, *Q_RM* = Risk Management, *Q_SC* = Supervision and Communication