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_____ **Research Report** _____

A profile of women in segregation

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A profile of women in segregation

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December 2013

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to acknowledge the operational staff who provided insight into programming information and Dena Derkzen for facilitating the communication between our groups. We would also like to thank Anne Trinneer for help with the initial stages of the report writing, Ashley McConnell and Amanda Prince for their help with editing and Renée Gobeil for providing her thoughtful comments while reviewing the document.

Executive Summary

Key words: *Segregation, Women offenders, Aboriginal women*

Segregation is among the most restrictive measures available to correctional institutions. Given this, some argue that segregation should not be used, while others argue that the use of segregation is an operational necessity; however, many can agree that the ability to minimize the potential for placement in segregation is, at minimum, preferred. Previous research indicates that women who have been in segregation have greater criminogenic risks and needs at intake, poorer institutional adjustment, and greater challenges associated with reintegration than those who have not experienced segregation. The current study aims to update our knowledge of the characteristics and experiences of women in segregation, and provides an opportunity to further understand the risk factors that may lead to segregation and the possibility to mitigate these factors to avoid segregation events.

This study included 2,718 women who were admitted to a Federal Penitentiary between April, 2002 and March, 2012. Of those, 844 women had been segregated and 1,858 had not been segregated. The factors examined include demographics and incarceration characteristics of the women in the sample, security classification information, intake assessment information, institutional adjustment, and release outcomes. Two types of information were examined: 1) event-centred data – the focus is on the event of segregation and 2) person-centred data – the focus is on the similarities and differences between women who were and were not segregated.

Overall, although the use of segregation was growing, it was not increasing at the same rate as population growth. The majority of segregations were involuntary in nature, with voluntary and disciplinary segregation being used infrequently. Although most regions used segregation in similar amounts, there were some differences in the type of segregation used regionally. Most segregation events were under 10 days in length and involuntary segregation occurs much earlier in a sentence than voluntary or disciplinary segregation.

Overall, Aboriginal women were more likely to be involuntarily segregated and have longer segregations than non-Aboriginal women. Women who have been in segregation were more likely than those who have not been to have a higher level of security, a rating of high static and dynamic risk, higher rates of involvement in institutional incidents and charges, lower rates of successful completion of correctional programs, and have a revocation of a supervision period. Additionally, women who have been in segregation were less likely than those who had not been in segregation to be rated as having high reintegration potential or motivation to participate in their correctional plan, to have completed some programming, and have been granted discretionary release. There was some variation in these findings by Aboriginal ancestry; however, it was generally minimal.

Overall, an examination of the demographic and incarceration characteristics, assessments of risk, and the involvement in certain events, programming and correctional outcomes among women who have and have not been in segregation sheds light on potential factors that could be used to minimize the potential for segregation through the development of interventions.

Table of Contents

| | |
|---|-----|
| Acknowledgements..... | ii |
| Executive Summary..... | iii |
| List of Tables..... | vi |
| List of Figures..... | vi |
| List of Appendices..... | vi |
| Introduction..... | 1 |
| Regulating the Use of Segregation..... | 1 |
| The Segregation Debate..... | 2 |
| Women in Segregation..... | 3 |
| The Current Study..... | 4 |
| Method..... | 6 |
| Sample..... | 6 |
| Measures..... | 6 |
| Analyses..... | 7 |
| Results..... | 9 |
| Segregation Event-centred Analyses..... | 9 |
| Sentence-centred Analyses..... | 12 |
| Person-centred Analyses..... | 13 |
| Demographic and Incarceration Characteristics..... | 13 |
| Offender Intake Assessment..... | 16 |
| Static Risk..... | 16 |
| Dynamic Risk..... | 20 |
| Reintegration Potential and Motivation to Participate in Correctional Plan..... | 21 |
| Rate of events occurring during period of incarceration..... | 22 |
| Institutional Incidents and Charges..... | 22 |
| Programming Involvement and Successful Completion..... | 23 |
| Release Outcomes..... | 24 |
| Discussion..... | 25 |
| Segregation Events..... | 25 |

| | |
|--|----|
| Comparative Analyses between Women Who Had Been In Segregation And Women Who Had Not Been In Segregation..... | 26 |
| Conclusion..... | 29 |
| References..... | 30 |

List of Tables

| | |
|--|----|
| Table 1 <i>Days In and Reasons for Segregation Event by Type of Segregation.</i> | 11 |
| Table 2 <i>Time Until First Segregation Event by Type of Segregation</i> | 12 |
| Table 3 <i>Type of Segregation Experience</i> | 13 |
| Table 5 <i>Incarceration Characteristics of Federal Women Offenders</i> | 16 |
| Table 6 <i>Static Risk of Federal Women Offenders</i> | 18 |
| Table 7 <i>Dynamic Risk of Federal Women Offenders</i> | 20 |
| Table 8 <i>Reintegration Potential and Motivation to Participate in the Correctional Plan of Federal Women Offenders</i> | 22 |
| Table 9 <i>Rate of Events while Incarcerated per 100 Federal Women Offenders</i> | 23 |
| Table 10 <i>Release Outcomes of Federal Women Offenders with and without Segregation Events for Those Who Have Been Released</i> | 24 |

List of Figures

| | |
|--|----|
| <i>Figure 1. Number of Incarcerated Women, and Voluntary, Disciplinary, and Involuntary Segregations From Fiscal Year 2002-2003 To 2011-2012</i> | 9 |
| <i>Figure 2. Type of Segregation by Region</i> | 10 |

List of Appendices

| | |
|--|----|
| Appendix A: Legislative Provisions for the Use of Administrative and Disciplinary Segregation. | 32 |
| Appendix B: Measures..... | 33 |

Introduction

Segregation is among the most restrictive measures available to correctional institutions (Jackson, 2006; Ten-Year Status Report on Women's Corrections, 2006). Accordingly, the use of segregation is a widely debated topic in the field of corrections. Although some argue that segregation should not be used, others argue that the use of segregation is an operational necessity; however, many can agree that the ability to minimize the potential of placement in segregation is, at minimum, preferred. The goal of the current report is to examine the characteristics and experiences of women who have been segregated in Federal Penitentiaries across Canada. Echoing Wichmann and Taylor (2004), "[T]hese characteristics may act as risk factors and vulnerabilities that could be attended to at the beginning of a woman's sentence, and could reduce her likelihood of subsequent placement in segregation" (p. 25).

Regulating the Use of Segregation

In Canada, the two forms of segregation, administrative and disciplinary, are regulated by the Corrections and Conditional Release Act (CCRA) and Commissioner's Directives (CD). Broadly, the purpose of segregation is "...to keep an inmate from associating with the general inmate population" (CCRA, 31(1)), whether administrative or disciplinary in nature. In the case of disciplinary segregation, however, the specific purpose of segregation is a sanction for "an inmate who is found guilty...of a serious disciplinary offence..." (CCRA 41 (1)) (see Appendix A for further details on the CCRA's legislative provisions on administrative and disciplinary segregation).

Administrative segregation can be applied involuntarily or voluntarily. Involuntary segregation can be applied for any of the reasons outlined in CCRA 31(3). In contrast, voluntary segregation occurs when an "inmate requests placement in administrative segregation for his or her own protection and the Institutional Head believes on reasonable grounds that the continued presence of the inmate in the general population would jeopardize the inmate's own safety (CCRA 31(3-C)) and there is no reasonable alternative to placement in administrative segregation" (CD 709). Although the inmate-initiated aspects of this form of segregation result in the label of "voluntary segregation," Zinger and Wichmann (1999) argue that this is simply a legal construct as "most offenders would prefer to remain in the general offender population if the threat to their personal safety was to be removed" (p. 13). Consistent with this argument,

Motiuk and Blanchette (1997) found that very few characteristics distinguished voluntarily and involuntarily segregated male and female offenders. Some exceptions to this were that voluntarily segregated offenders had higher rates of previously served provincial terms, were more likely to have a history of sexual offending, and increased reporting of having been victimized in social relations.

Since administrative segregations are at the discretion of the Institutional Head, there is no time limit on their duration. To ensure that this form of segregation is appropriate, a hearing must be held five days after segregation commences and every 30 days that the offender remains in confinement. However, the independent adjudication and judicial supervision of women with longer segregations remains a contentious issue (CSC, 2007a).

In contrast to administrative segregation, inmates in disciplinary segregation can only be confined for a maximum of 30 days. In addition to this distinction, disciplinary segregation is applied based on a disciplinary hearing, conducted by an independent chairperson, when an offender has been charged and found guilty of a serious disciplinary offence. Given the independence of this adjudicator, procedural safeguards, such as regular reviews over the course of segregation, are not conducted. Disciplinary segregations can include harsher conditions than administrative segregation if sanctions arising from the disciplinary hearing include a loss of privileges. In contrast, an inmate in administrative segregation is given the same rights, privileges, and conditions of confinement as the general inmate population, except for those that can only be enjoyed in association with other inmates or would be prohibited based on limitations specific to the administrative segregation area or security requirements (CCRA 37).

The Segregation Debate

Despite these regulations governing the use of segregation, a debate around the appropriate use, impact, and effectiveness of segregation persists. Opponents of segregation argue that there is a lack of evidence to suggest that segregation reduces violence in the prison system (Mears, 2008) or that successful community reintegration can occur directly after segregation without a step-down process to facilitate the release (O'Keefe, Klebe, Stucker, & Leggett, 2011), and that conditions of solitary confinement are inhumane and do not offer adequate treatment, human contact, and activities to engage the mind (Dowker & Good, 1993; Weidman, 2004). Of note, much of this research is conducted with male inmate samples and stems from the United States, where long-term segregation is more common than Canada.

Focusing more specifically on a female and Canadian context, researchers and advocacy groups have raised particular concerns with regards to the segregation of women offenders. For example, the Canadian Human Right Commission (CHRC, 2003) has identified concerns related to the overuse of, length of stays in, and questionable admissions to segregation. The CHRC argues that the effects of separation from the general inmate population have more profound effects on women than men (see also CSC, 1997). Further, citing the observations of Correctional Service officials and women inmates, the CHRC raised concerns about the greater frequency and length of Aboriginal women's segregation, relative to non-Aboriginal women. This disparity is an important one to examine as it has been argued that segregation may have greater hardship on some Aboriginal women because of increased challenges in delivering programs and services to Aboriginal offenders while in administrative segregation (CSC, 1997).

Echoing some of the CHRC's concerns, critics have pointed to the inappropriate use of segregation to respond to mental health issues. The use of segregation with mentally ill offenders has been criticized as being overly restrictive and an inappropriate tool to use in response to institutional misconduct when these behaviours are an expression of mental illness (O'Keefe, 2007). Dell, Fillmore, and Kilty's (2009) interviews of correctional officials identified the use of segregation as a way to reduce the likelihood of a woman self-harming. The CCRA (Section 87-a) requires that the offenders state of health and health care needs be taken into consideration in all decisions relating to administrative segregation.

Women in Segregation

In 2004, Wichmann and Taylor completed the first quantitative report focusing on the segregation of federal women offenders in Canada. The impetus for their study was largely centred on Justice Arbour's (1996) concerns over the use of administrative segregation with women. Although prior Canadian research had been conducted in response to recommendations made by the Task Force on Administrative Segregation, these studies focused on the characteristics of segregated male offenders (Motiuk & Blanchette, 1997; 2001) including basic demographics, intake assessment, and criminal history characteristics of men and women in segregation (Wichmann & Nafekh, 2001), and the psychological effects of men in administrative segregation (Zinger, Wichmann, & Andrews, 2001). In contrast, the Wichmann and Taylor (2004) report was unique in its focus on federal women offenders.

Using data from a three-year period (January 31st, 1997 to January 31st, 2000), Wichmann

and Taylor (2004) provided a description of segregation use, a profile of segregated women and a comparative analysis of women who had been involuntarily segregated and a matched group who had not experienced involuntary segregation. Through this comparison, they found that, although these two groups were demographically similar, women who had been placed in involuntary segregation demonstrated higher risk and needs at intake than those who had not been segregated (see also Wichmann & Nafekh, 2001). In addition, the segregated group had criminal histories that involved greater contact with the youth justice system, more prior adult convictions, histories of more violent behaviour, and displayed more continuous criminal behaviour than women who had not been segregated (see also Motiuk & Blanchette, 1997). In addition between distinctions in intake characteristics, women in involuntary segregation demonstrated poorer institutional adjustment (i.e., greater involvement in institutional incidents), lower levels of success in discretionary release, and lower success in their reintegration efforts as evidenced by having had a greater number of releases than women who had not been placed in involuntary segregation.

Taken together, Wichmann and Taylor's (2004) findings of greater criminogenic risks and needs at intake, poorer institutional adjustment, and reintegration difficulties suggest that women placed in involuntary segregation are a group that experience greater challenges and pose greater risks than those who do not require involuntary segregation. Despite this, Wichmann and Nafekh (2001) suggest that "the nature of the segregation environment can impose limits on offender programming, while in custody" (p. 32). This possibility creates particular challenges for the Service's ability to rehabilitate these women.

The Current Study

The current study is a follow-up on previous research to examine whether there have been changes in how segregation is applied. This report will allow for a longer-term examination of women's segregation in Federal Penitentiaries. Through the use of ten years of segregation data (2002-2012), results will indicate whether the use of segregation has changed, particularly with respect to the increased number of women admitted to federal jurisdiction (Public Safety, 2011). Therefore, an updated profile on the experiences and characteristics of women in segregation is essential (Bottos, 2008).

Furthermore, this study explores whether the type and extent of differences between women who have and have not been segregated have remained consistent or become more

evident over time. Specifically, differences between these two groups will be examined through a comparison of offender and sentence characteristics, criminogenic risk, institutional behaviour, and release outcomes. Given the findings of previous research (see Motiuk & Blanchette, 2001; Taylor and Wichmann, 2004; Wichmman & Nafehk, 2001), it is expected that women who have been segregated are less likely than women who have not been in segregation to have a high school diploma, to have social attachments, to be assessed as having low static and dynamic risk, to be assessed as having high motivation or reintegration potential, to complete programming while incarcerated, to be granted discretionary release, and to be successful upon release to the community.

Method

Sample

Two types of data were collected for the purpose of this study: 1) event-centred data and 2) person-centred data. The focus of the event-centred data was the segregation. In this case, segregations were counted and aggregated to obtain annual and regional breakdowns of the types of segregation events occurring during the ten-year period. Moreover, the length and reason for the segregations and time to segregation were also examined.

In total, 2,718 women were admitted at least once to a Federal Penitentiary on a warrant of committal with a federal jurisdiction between April 1, 2002 and March 31, 2012. This group consisted of 844 women who had been segregated and 1,858 women who had never been segregated. These two groups form the “segregation event” and “no segregation event” groups, respectively. Of the 2,718 women, 748 were Aboriginal women and 1,970 were non-Aboriginal women. Information for these women was extracted from databases of the Offender Management System (OMS), which holds all computerized offender records pertinent to federal sentences. The data extracted for the person-centred analyses contained information related to the demographic and incarceration characteristics of the women in the sample, security classification information, intake assessment information, institutional adjustment, and release outcomes. This information was extracted for the first sentence in the ten-year period for women who did not have a segregation event and for the first sentence in which a segregation event occurred for women who had been segregated in the ten-year period.

Measures

In the person-centred data, we examined the similarities and differences between women who were and who were not segregated. Comparisons were completed by examining many aspects of an offender, sentence, risk, institutional behaviour, and release outcomes. More specifically, an examination of demographic and incarceration characteristics included: relationship status, educational level attained prior to incarceration, region, age at admission, length of sentence, offence type, and security level (for specific descriptions of how these and all other examined items are defined see Appendix B). With regard to risk, several measures were included. These measures were taken from the Offender Intake Assessments. First, assessments of overall static risk (e.g., criminal history) and individual items such as: having previous youth

court offences, having previous adult court offences, past failure on conditional release, past reclassification to a higher security level, no crime free period of more than a year, and a period of less than six months since prior incarceration were examined. Motivation to participate in a correctional plan and assessment of reintegration potential are also part of the OIA process.

Events occurring during the period of incarceration were also examined. The types of events included institutional incidents, institutional charges, program or interventions completions and involvement. Finally, an examination of two types of release outcomes was completed: whether a woman was granted a discretionary release and whether she has had her supervision in the community revoked.

Analyses

In this report, analyses were conducted largely focussing on both the event of segregation (i.e., event-centred) and the women who did and did not experience segregation (i.e., person-centred) over the time period examined. Event-centred event analyses examined the number and type of segregations over the ten-year period, while considering regional and Aboriginal ancestry¹ distributions of these events. Moreover, the event-centred analysis examined the number of days spent in segregation as well as the reason for the segregation event. Finally, the number of days until a first segregation occurred from admission was also examined. All of these analyses took into consideration the role of region and whether or not the event involved an Aboriginal or non-Aboriginal woman. Examination of the distribution of sentences with segregations for the period examined were also conducted (sentence-centred perspective).

The person-centred analyses have been conducted separately among Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal women to compare women who did and did not experience segregation.² Given that a specific population of women was examined rather than a sampling of women, the use of inferential statistics, statistics which estimate the probability that a drawn sample actually reflects the population, is not appropriate. Thus, the results of the current study were interpreted where practical differences exist and insight into these differences also took into consideration

¹Aboriginal (includes all women with Inuit, Métis or First Nations ancestry) and non-Aboriginal women (includes all women not of Inuit, Métis or First Nations ancestry)

²Attempts to also compare whether differences existed between the women who experienced voluntary or involuntary segregation only or women who experienced both voluntary and involuntary segregation were also made. Generally, there were too few women who experienced voluntary segregation only, and both involuntary and voluntary segregation to come to any firm conclusion regarding the differences between these groups with regard to the factors examined in this profile; however, where differences were large, footnotes have been added in the results.

the magnitude of differences as assessed by Cramer's Phi. Cramer's Phi ranges from 0 to 1.0 and this statistic is interpreted in the following way: values under 0.20 are considered to be a small difference, values between 0.20 and 0.60 indicate moderate to relatively strong differences, and values above 0.60 indicate a strong to very strong difference (Rea & Parker, 1992).

In the case of events experienced while incarcerated, rates per 100 person-years were calculated for each group under examination (i.e., Aboriginal women who had not experienced segregation, Aboriginal women who had experienced segregation, non-Aboriginal women who had not experienced segregation, and non-Aboriginal women who had experienced segregation). For each group, the rate is calculated by taking the sum of events being examined and dividing it by the total sum of the years spent incarcerated for the sentence being examined³ (i.e., person-years at risk; Last, 1995). For ease of interpretation, this rate⁴ is then multiplied by 100 and expressed as the rate per 100 person-years. With regard to total sum of time incarcerated, each individual only contributes their amount of time incarcerated. For example, a person with only one year in an institution contributes one person-year to the denominator, whereas a person who has spent 10 years incarcerated contributes 10 person-years. This manner of calculating a rate allows for greater precision because it combines information about both the quantity of events and the total amount of time that each individual was at risk of experiencing an event, thereby enabling the use of variable periods of follow-up rather than standardized periods. To provide an example of how to express this rate, consider a rate of institutional misconducts of 5.2 per 100 person-years. This rate can also be expressed in the following manner: if 100 women offenders were followed for a period of a year, we would expect a total of 5.2 institutional misconducts to occur. As in the case of the other estimates, differences will be interpreted in terms of practical importance. All analyses were conducted using SAS 9.2.

³ The focus here is on only one sentence in the time period. However, for those who have experienced multiple sentences in the period, their time-at-risk could be argued to be total time incarcerated. Given low percentage of women who had both experienced and not experienced segregation with multiple sentences in the time period, it was not expected to have large impact on rates.

⁴ Rate per 100 Person – Years = $\left(\frac{\text{total number of events}}{\text{Total person time at risk in years}} \right) \times 100$;

where the Total Person Time is the sum of all time in a year that all offenders are at risk within a particular period of interest. The sum of the total risk days is divided by 365.25 to establish person-years.

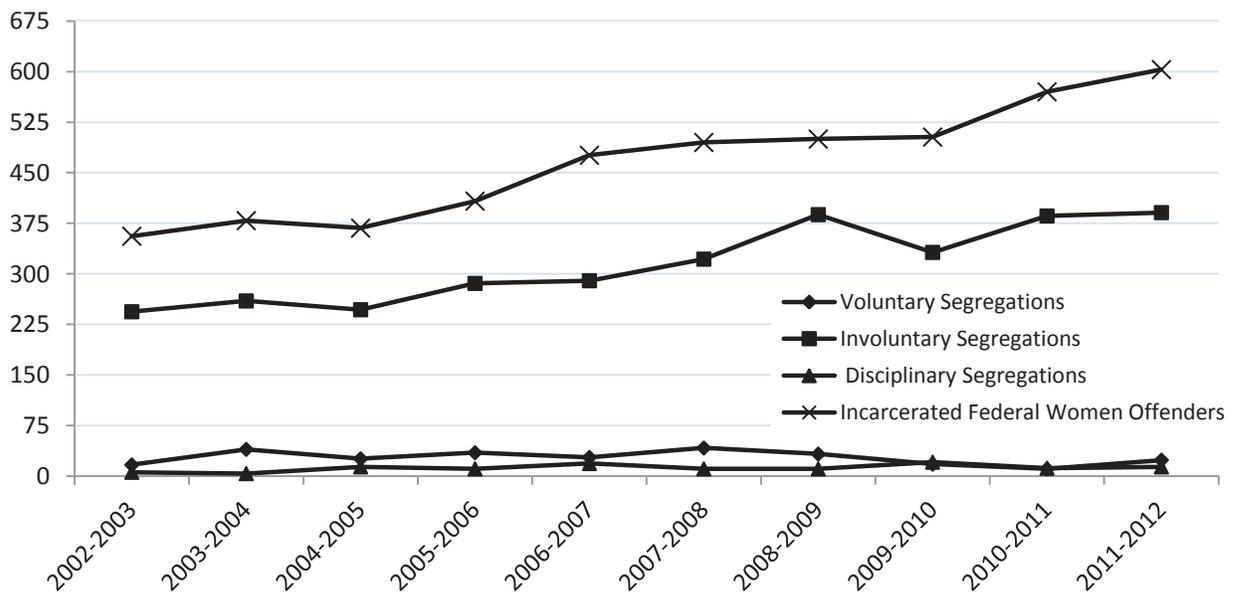
Results

Records of segregation were examined from three perspectives: (1) event-centred, (2) sentence-centred, and (3) person-centred. To provide greater context, the first approach explored the details related to each segregation event occurring in the period. Although used minimally, the second approach examined occurrences within a sentence. Finally, a person-centred approach synthesized information occurring over the course of incarceration. As a result, each individual is represented once whether they have been convicted for multiple sentences with the period.

Segregation Event-centred Analyses

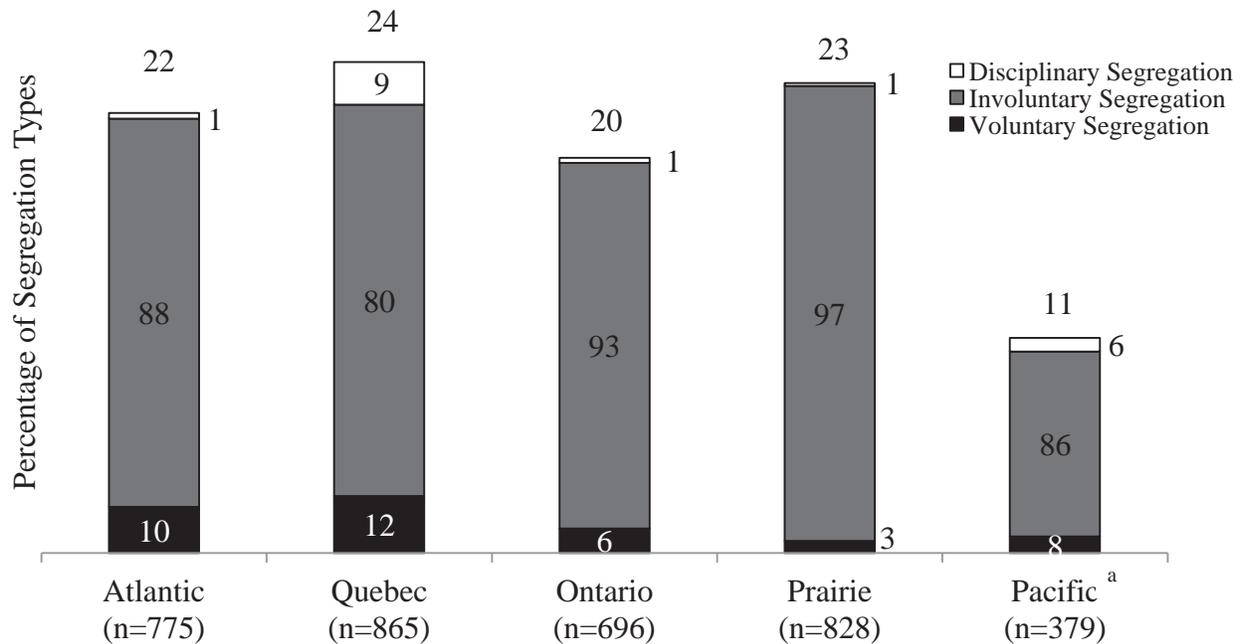
In total, there were 3,543 segregation events between April, 2002 and March, 2012. Figure 1 shows an increase in the number of women being placed in involuntary segregation, although this increase was lower than the growth of the incarcerated women offender population. Over the period, the women offender population grew by 69%, whereas the use of involuntary segregation and use of any type of segregation increased by only 60% and 61%, respectively. Additionally, the use of both disciplinary (3%) and voluntary (8%) segregation was relatively stable over time, and each is used infrequently compared to involuntary segregation (89%).

Figure 1. Number of Incarcerated Women, and Voluntary, Disciplinary, and Involuntary Segregations From Fiscal Year 2002-2003 To 2011-2012



Although most regions had similar patterns of use of segregation for women (ranging from 20% to 24%, excluding Pacific region⁵), there was variation in the type of segregation being used in each region (see Figure 2). For example, unlike other regions, the vast majority of segregations in the Prairie regions were involuntary (97%); whereas, disciplinary segregations were notably higher in the Quebec and Pacific regions than in other regions. Finally, the Atlantic and Quebec regions had higher use of voluntary segregation than the other regions. In addition to regional differences, there were also some differences in the types of segregation by Aboriginal ancestry. For example, non-Aboriginal women were twice as likely as Aboriginal women to have a voluntary segregation (10% vs. 5%). As such, Aboriginal women were more likely to be involved with an involuntary segregation than non-Aboriginal women (93% vs. 87%).

Figure 2. Type of Segregation by Region



Note. ^a Limited segregation records exist for Federal Women Offenders in the Pacific region because prior to March, 2004 all women incarcerated in that region were housed in provincial facilities through Exchange of Services Agreements.

⁵ Limited segregation records exist for Federal Women Offenders in the Pacific region because prior to March, 2004 all women incarcerated in that region were housed in provincial facilities through Exchange of Services Agreements.

Overall, the total number of days spent in segregation per event ranged from zero (i.e., offender entered and exited segregation on the same day) to 764 days (see Table 1). Seventy-five percent of all segregations were 10 days or less (Less than 5 days: 45%; 5 to 10 days: 30%). However, a greater proportion of involuntary segregations exceeded 10 days than do voluntary and disciplinary segregation (26% vs. 13% and 12%, respectively).

Given the influence of a few extreme cases, which had a large impact on the mean, the median number of days is discussed here. The shortest stays were in voluntary segregation (Md: 3 days) followed by disciplinary segregation (Md: 4 days) and then involuntary segregation (Md: 7 days). Although the median number of days spent in any of the three types of segregation did not vary greatly by Aboriginal ancestry, on average, Aboriginal women spent about 7.5 days more in involuntary segregation compared to non-Aboriginal women. This finding suggests that Aboriginal women were spending longer periods of time in involuntary segregation compared with non-Aboriginal women.

Table 1 *Days In and Reasons for Segregation Event by Type of Segregation.*

| Type of Segregation | Days in Segregation | | | Reason for Segregation ^a | | | | Total |
|--------------------------------|---------------------|--------|-------|-------------------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|-------|
| | Mean (SD) | Median | Range | CCRA 31(3-A) | CCRA 31(3-B) | CCRA 31(3-C) | CCRA 44(1-F) | |
| Voluntary | 6.04 (10.42) | 3 | 0-101 | 0 | 0 | 274 | 0 | 274 |
| Involuntary^b | 12.75 (33.16) | 7 | 0-764 | 2,640 | 77 | 427 | 2 | 3,146 |
| Disciplinary | 5.41 (5.03) | 4 | 0-22 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 123 | 123 |
| Total^d | 11.98 (31.47) | 6 | 0-764 | 2,640 | 77 | 701 | 125 | 3,543 |

Note. ^aCCRA reasons for segregation are presented in Appendix A. ^bTwo cases are missing information and therefore not captured in the mean, median or range statistics.

Table 1 also depicts the reason for segregation, by type of segregation. The only reason an inmate would be selected for placement in voluntary segregation is if the inmate's safety could be jeopardized if she continued to be present in the general inmate population (CCRA 31(3-C)). Approximately 14% of the time, this same reason was given for involuntary segregation placements. Otherwise, women were generally (84% of the events) involuntarily segregated because presence in the general inmate population could jeopardize the security of the penitentiary or the safety of any person (CCRA 31(3-A)). All disciplinary segregations were given because an inmate was found guilty of a disciplinary offence (CCRA 44(1-F)).

Amount of time until a first segregation event occurred was also considered (see Table 2). Again, the median number of days to each type of segregation is discussed. Overall, 50% of women experienced their first segregation event in the first 235 days after admission (~ 7 months); however, there was some variation in time to experiencing segregation, especially for those experiencing voluntary or disciplinary segregation. Of those experiencing voluntary segregations, 50% had their first voluntary segregation event in the first 426 days of the sentence (~ 14 months). Half of those experiencing a disciplinary segregation did so within 464 days after admission (~15 months). Thus, the bulk of segregations, (i.e., involuntary ones) were experienced relatively early on in a woman’s sentence. The less frequent types of segregation occurred much later into a woman’s sentence. There were no large differences in the time to first segregation of any type by Aboriginal ancestry or by region.

Table 2 *Time Until First Segregation Event by Type of Segregation*

| Type of Segregation | Days Until Segregation | | |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------|--------------|
| | Mean (SD) | Median | Range |
| Voluntary | 1,109 (1,913) | 426 | 5-10,868 |
| Involuntary^a | 514 (951) | 236 | 0-9,648 |
| Disciplinary | 787 (807) | 464 | 105-3,817 |
| Total^c | 521 (997) | 235 | 0-9,709 |

Note. SD= standard deviation.

^aTwo cases are missing information and therefore are not captured in the mean, median or range statistics.

Sentence-centred Analyses

Overall, in the ten-year period, the segregations occurred across a total of 1,115 sentences when examining segregation from a sentence-centred perspective. The vast majority of women (92%) were segregated during only one sentence. Only 8% of women were segregated over the course of two sentences, and less than 1% of women were segregated over three sentences. The number of women with segregations across more than one sentence did not vary by Aboriginal ancestry. Given that few women have segregations over multiple sentences, further examination of the distinguishing characteristics of those segregated during one sentence versus multiple sentences was not conducted. In total, 1,025 women contributed to the 3,504 segregations event

in period of interest.

Person-centred Analyses

Women who have not been segregated during the ten-year period were compared to women who have been segregated on many factors. The total number of women in the sample was 2,718. In total, there were 748 Aboriginal women and 1,970 non-Aboriginal women.

As shown in Table 3, the majority of women had not experienced segregation (69%). The remaining women have four different types of segregation experiences: those who experienced only voluntary segregation (1%); those who experienced only disciplinary segregation (<1%); those who experienced only involuntary segregation (26%) and those who experienced any combination of the three types of segregation (5%). Given the small number of women who only experienced voluntary or disciplinary segregation and those that experienced more than one type of segregation experience, only two groups were examined in most analyses: women who had and had not been segregated. Overall, Aboriginal women are more likely than non-Aboriginal women to have been segregated (39% vs. 28%). Given the differences in prevalence of segregation among Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal women, all analyses were conducted separately for these groups.

Table 3 *Type of Segregation Experience*

| Segregation Type | % (N) |
|--|--------------|
| No Segregation | 69% (1,874) |
| Voluntary Segregation Only | 1% (21) |
| Involuntary Segregation Only | 26% (702) |
| Disciplinary Segregation | < 1% (6) |
| Both Voluntary and Involuntary Segregation Only | 2% (63) |
| Both Involuntary and Disciplinary Segregation Only | 2% (42) |
| All Three Types of Segregations | <1 (10) |

Demographic and Incarceration Characteristics

Four demographic characteristics were examined in this profile: relationship status, education level prior to incarceration, region of admission, and age at time of admission to the sentence. Overall, the majority of women reported that they were not in a partnership (i.e., married or in a common-law relationship). Relationship status did not vary by whether a woman

had been in segregation among Aboriginal women; however, among non-Aboriginal women those who had been in segregation were less likely than those who had not been segregated to report that they were in a partnership (29% vs. 38%; $\Phi_c = 0.09$). A large majority of Aboriginal women and many non-Aboriginal women had not completed high school prior to the incarceration period under examination. Fewer non-Aboriginal women who had been in segregation indicated they had a high school diploma than non-Aboriginal women who had not been in segregation (30% vs. 45%, $\Phi_c = 0.14$). No differences by segregation status and having a high school diploma were observed among Aboriginal women.

Table 4 *Demographic Characteristics of Federal Women Offenders*

| | Aboriginal Women | | | Non-Aboriginal Women | | |
|---|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|---|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|---|
| | No Segregation Events % (N) | Segregation Events % (N) | Association Between Variables Φ_c | No Segregation Events % (N) | Segregation Events % (N) | Association Between Variables Φ_c |
| Relationship Status | | | | | | |
| Partner | 33.85 (154) | 31.01 (89) | 0.03 | 38.12 (534) | 29.04 (160) | 0.09 |
| Single | 66.15 (301) | 68.99 (198) | | 61.88 (867) | 70.96 (391) | |
| High School Diploma Prior to Incarceration | | | | | | |
| No | 81.57 (332) | 84.67 (232) | 0.04 | 55.11 (604) | 69.63 (353) | 0.14 |
| Yes | 18.43 (75) | 15.33 (42) | | 44.89 (492) | 30.37 (154) | |
| Region of Admission | | | | | | |
| Atlantic | 4.59 (21) | 8.97 (26) | - | 11.23 (159) | 23.65 (131) | - |
| Quebec | 3.71 (17) | 3.79 (11) | | 15.96 (226) | 23.47 (130) | |
| Ontario | 14.85 (68) | 16.21 (47) | | 39.41 (558) | 27.98 (155) | |
| Prairie | 67.90 (311) | 57.24 (166) | | 23.73 (336) | 16.61 (92) | |
| Pacific ^a | 8.95 (41) | 13.79 (40) | | 9.68 (137) | 8.30 (46) | |

Note. Column totals may not sum to 100% due to rounding. The number of participants varies due to unknown or missing participants. Φ_c = Cramer's phi.

^aLimited segregation records exist for Federal Women Offenders in the Pacific region because prior to March, 2004, all women incarcerated in that region were housed in provincial facilities through Exchange of Services Agreements. Therefore, no Cramer's Phi were calculated.

Region of admission was also examined; however, due to shared provincial and federal custodial practices there was no information on segregations for women in the Pacific region before March, 2004. Thus, the information regarding region of admission was presented, but not analyzed further. Finally, age at time of admission was compared for the various groups⁶,

⁶ Age at admission was also compared among the various types of segregation for all women: voluntary only, involuntary only, both voluntary and involuntary (all other types of segregation were excluded due to small numbers). On average, women in voluntary segregation (Mean: 37 years old) were approximately 5 years older than women in involuntary segregation only and women who had been in both involuntary and voluntary segregation (Mean: 32 years old).

although not presented in Table 3. On average, women placed in segregation were at least three years younger than women who did not experience segregation (Aboriginal women: 30 vs. 33 years; non-Aboriginal women: 33 vs. 37 years).

Several incarceration characteristics were examined including length of sentence, most serious offence on the sentence, initial security level, and final or most recent security level, as well as the percentage of women who experienced a decrease from their initial to their final or most recent security levels (see Table 5). The majority of women were serving determinate sentences of three years or less (~60%), followed by approximately one-third of women serving determinate sentences of three years or more, and a small percentage of women serving indeterminate sentences. Among Aboriginal women, those who had been segregated were more likely than those who had not to be serving an indeterminate sentence (6% vs. 2%, $\Phi_c = 0.18$) and have a sentence of more than three years (40% vs. 30%). There were few differences between women who had and had not been segregated with regard to their most serious offence.

Moreover, the offence patterns were similar among Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal women, however, the differences were not quite as large among Aboriginal women. Women who experienced segregation were more likely than those who had not been segregated to have been convicted for the offences of robbery (Aboriginal women: 28% vs. 17%, $\Phi_c = 0.13$; non-Aboriginal women: 25% vs. 9%, $\Phi_c = 0.21$) and major assault (Aboriginal women: 23% vs. 14%, $\Phi_c = 0.12$; non-Aboriginal women: 13% vs. 5%, $\Phi_c = 0.14$). In contrast, women who experienced segregation were less likely than those who had not been segregated to have been convicted for the offences related to drugs (Aboriginal women: 12% vs. 27%, $\Phi_c = 0.17$; non-Aboriginal women: 20% vs. 44%, $\Phi_c = 0.22$). There was little difference between the segregated women and those who had not been segregated for the remainder of the offences.

With regard to security classification, women who had been segregated were more likely than women who had not to have started their incarceration at a higher security level (Aboriginal women: $\Phi_c = 0.37$; non-Aboriginal women: $\Phi_c = 0.45$) and to have their most recent or last security classification prior to release at a higher level of security (Aboriginal women: $\Phi_c = 0.54$; non-Aboriginal women: $\Phi_c = 0.53$). Notably, the proportion of women decreasing security level between their first and last placements differs when Aboriginal ancestry was considered. Among Aboriginal women, those who were segregated were less likely than those who were not to have been at a lower security level at their most recent or final security classification prior to release

(15% vs. 27%, $\Phi_c=0.15$). The opposite pattern was observed among non-Aboriginal women, women who were segregated were more likely than those who were not segregated to have been at a lower security level at their most recent or final security classification (16% vs 9%., $\Phi_c=0.10$).

Table 5 *Incarceration Characteristics of Federal Women Offenders*

| | Aboriginal Women | | | Non-Aboriginal Women | | |
|---|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|---|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|---|
| | No Segregation Events % (N) | Segregation Events % (N) | Association Between Variables Φ_c | No Segregation Events % (N) | Segregation Events % (N) | Association Between Variables Φ_c |
| Length of Aggregate Sentence | | | | | | |
| 3 Years or Less | 69.65 (319) | 54.48 (158) | | 62.36 (883) | 60.29 (334) | |
| More than 3 Years | 28.82 (132) | 39.66 (115) | 0.18 | 35.95 (509) | 35.02 (194) | 0.09 |
| Life Sentence | 1.53 (7) | 5.86 (17) | | 1.69 (24) | 4.69 (26) | |
| Offence Type | | | | | | |
| Homicide | 18.12 (83) | 18.62 (54) | 0.01 | 6.29 (89) | 9.39 (52) | 0.05 |
| Sex | - | - | - | 2.61 (37) | 1.81 (10) | 0.06 |
| Robbery | 17.25 (79) | 28.28 (82) | 0.13 | 9.25 (131) | 25.09 (139) | 0.21 |
| Drugs | 26.64 (122) | 12.41 (36) | 0.17 | 44.00 (623) | 20.40 (113) | 0.22 |
| Property | 8.73 (40) | 5.86 (17) | 0.05 | 20.27 (287) | 17.51 (97) | 0.03 |
| Major Assault | 13.54 (62) | 23.10 (67) | 0.12 | 4.87 (69) | 12.64 (70) | 0.14 |
| Other Violent | 5.02 (23) | 4.14 (12) | 0.02 | 3.18 (45) | 6.68 (37) | 0.08 |
| Other non-violent | 10.04 (46) | 5.52 (16) | 0.08 | 9.46 (134) | 6.50 (36) | 0.05 |
| Initial Security Level | | | | | | |
| Maximum | 2.08 (9) | 18.06 (52) | | 1.45 (19) | 13.37 (73) | |
| Medium | 59.26 (256) | 69.44 (200) | 0.37 | 23.89 (312) | 57.51 (314) | 0.45 |
| Minimum | 38.66 (167) | 12.50 (36) | | 74.66 (975) | 29.12 (159) | |
| Final Security Level | | | | | | |
| Maximum | - | 27.78 (80) | | 0.92 (12) | 16.48 (90) | |
| Medium | 40.05 (173) | 59.03 (170) | 0.54 | 18.68 (244) | 56.41 (308) | 0.53 |
| Minimum | 59.26 (256) | 13.19 (38) | | 80.40 (1050) | 27.11 (148) | |
| Percentage of Offenders a Lower Security Level at Last Placement | 27.08 (117) | 14.58 (42) | 0.15 | 8.88 (116) | 15.57 (85) | 0.10 |

Note. The number of participants varies due to unknown/missing participants. Φ_c = Cramer's phi, - indicates too few cases to present data.

Offender Intake Assessment

Risk, both static and dynamic, reintegration potential, and motivation levels as assessed at the time of intake were examined in the current study.

Static Risk

With regard to static risk – several history indicators were included (see Table 6). Overall static risk is higher among those who had been in segregation compared to women who had not

been in segregation (Aboriginal women: $\Phi_c = 0.24$; non-Aboriginal women: $\Phi_c = 0.34$). The majority of women who had been in segregation were rated as having either high or moderate static risk, whereas the majority of Aboriginal women who had not been in segregation were rated as having moderate or low static risk and low risk in the case of non-Aboriginal women.

For both Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal women, generally those who were segregated were more likely than those who had not been segregated to have experienced each criminal risk history item. For example, Aboriginal women who had been in segregation were more likely than Aboriginal women who had not been in segregation to have a youth court record, a previous violent conviction for assault or robbery, a previous segregation for disciplinary infractions, and a previous reclassification to a higher level of security. Among non-Aboriginal women, women who had been segregated were more likely than those who had not been segregated to have a youth court record, an adult court record, a previous violent conviction for assault or robbery, a previous segregation for disciplinary infractions, a previous failure on conditional release, a previous reclassification to a higher level of security, and less than six months since their previous incarceration. Overall, the women in segregation⁷ were presenting with higher static risk and more criminal risk indicators than women who had not been in segregation, although the criminal history items were not as important in differentiating between those who had and had not been segregated when considering Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal women.

⁷ Among women who had been in segregation, there were some differences in the presence of specific criminal history indicators. The three notable instances are: women who have spent time in voluntary segregation were less likely than women who have been in involuntary segregation or who have been experienced both types of segregation to have a youth record (22% vs. 45% and 61% respectively, $\Phi_c = 0.12$), whereas women who have experienced both voluntary and involuntary segregation were more likely than those who experienced voluntary or involuntary segregation to have had a previous segregation (53% vs. 6% and 25% respectively, $\Phi_c = 0.19$) or have had a previous increase in security level (30% vs. 12% and 9% respectively, $\Phi_c = 0.18$).