UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

DISTANCE LEARNING CENTRE

PSY 401: Correctional Psychology

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**General Introduction and Course Overview**

Correctional Psychology (PSY 401) as a course aims at seeking method of understanding offender's behaviour, to aid offenders in achieving more effective intellectual, social, or emotional functioning. In the final analysis, offenders are aided to achieve successful adjustment to the society.

**Aims of the Course**

The aim of the course is to improve students’ understanding of what crime is; how the criminal mind works, psycho-social factors that influence crime; societal perception of crime; preventions and treatments available within the field of psychology. At the end of this lecture as a whole, students are expected to know all it takes to be labeled a criminal and such person could be rehabilitated in the end, so that he will successfully function in the society again.

**Specific Objectives**

The course attempts to achieve the following specific objectives at the end:

To understand the aspect of the field of correctional psychology that focuses on treatment of offenders and managing individual’s perception towards crime; this would include the definition and functions of correctional psychologists.

- Also to expose students to the criminal justice system
- It also looks into the crime control methods available
- Finally, the rehabilitation facilities available within the sphere of psychology.

It is expected that students every lecture in this course would be taken with all seriousness by the students and with total commitment and dedication for excellent performance.
LECTURE ONE

Definition: Correctional Psychology

Introduction
This lecture introduces you to an aspect of psychology called correctional psychology. The American Association of Correctional Psychologists defines correctional psychology as the study and application of psychological knowledge in the administration of criminal justice (American Association of Correctional Psychologists By-laws Article 111). Correctional psychology aims at seeking method of understanding offender's behaviour, to aid offenders in achieving more effective intellectual, social, or emotional functioning.

According Michael Decaire, the correctional psychologist's primary mission is to assist in offender rehabilitation and reintegration. In the final analysis, offenders are assisted to achieve successful adjustment to the society. Psychologists provide a wide variety of services to the criminal justice system. Some of these involve advising the courts and law enforcement agencies. A central function has been to assist the penal system in its management of convicted offenders. The overall function of the psychologist is to focus attentions on improving the well-being of those suspects, convicted prisoners and victims who come in contact with the criminal justice system comes under the broad term correctional psychology. Desirable as they seem to be, psychological services available to those coming before the courts have always been limited especially in Nigeria.

Objectives
At the end of this lecture, you should be able to
1. Understand the aspect of psychology discipline that deals with crime issues.
2. Identify with areas where correctional psychologists do work
3. Know the concerns of the field of correctional psychology

Pre-test
1. Define the field of correctional psychology
2. Mention and discuss places where correctional psychologist work.

CONTENT
Correctional psychology is an area of specialization that has recently enjoyed explosive growth along with the burgeoning United States prison population and the renewed interest in providing correctional rehabilitation programs that reduce inmate recidivism. The contribution of psychology to the study of crime and its control. A number of other academic disciplines such as anthropology, jurisprudence, psychiatry, philosophy and economics have made considerable contributions to the study of crime. Hollin's (1989) view is that crime cannot be explained and controlled solely by psychological theory. Psychology as a behavioral and social science is also an applied discipline, which seeks to understand human behavior and resolve problems, which emanate from everyday living. The interface between psychology and crime has been given a number of titles. Correctional Psychology is one such title. Others are forensic psychology, legal psychology and criminological psychology. But regardless of the title given, what is needed is massive effort on the part of society to control and prevent crime, which is considered a social problem. Owing to its persistent nature in most societies, many authorities doubt that crime can ever be brought under control. This is more so when one considers crime as the result of three broad social factors. These factors are: the numbers of youths in a society at a particular time; the disruptive nature of our society on the family unit, and the urbanized society we are increasingly living in, which present many new opportunities for the successful remission of crime they encompass not only the most injurious behaviours, but also many with trivial effects.

Additionally, the psychologist enhances staff and inmate safety by promoting a healthy institutional environment (Hawk, 1997). The correctional psychologist clearly has varied responsibilities. Their primary focus is their application of direct psychological services with inmates, evaluation of the prison population, inmate management, release evaluation and recommendations. While correctional psychology has become a highly popular sub-discipline of psychology, it is also riddled with unique ethical dilemmas and conflicts (Van Voorhees & Spencer, 1999). Unfortunately, many of the ethical dilemmas within correctional psychology appear to be far from successful resolution. There is virtually no recent academic literature concerning the ethical problems in corrections, and even fewer recommendations on how one should proceed when faced with such problems (Weinberger & Sreenivasan, 1994). The ethical guidelines that govern psychological practice are equally unhelpful (American Psychological Association, 1992; Canadian Psychological Association, 1991).
Correctional psychology aims at seeking method of understanding offender's behaviour, to aid offenders in achieving more effective intellectual, social, or emotional functioning. In the final analysis offenders are aided to achieve successful adjustment to the society. Psychologists provide a wide variety of services to the criminal justice system. Some of these involve advising the courts and law enforcement agencies but a central function has been to assist the penal system in its management of convicted offenders. The sum total of all that psychologists do in their bid to improving the criminal justice system comes under the broad term correctional psychology. Desirable as they seem to be, psychological services available to those coming before the courts have always been limited.

**History of Correctional psychology**

In 1909, 30 years after Wundt established his Leipzig Laboratory, William Healy, a psychiatrist and Grace Fernald, a psychologist, founded the first juvenile court clinic in Chicago Juvenile Detention Home (Megargee, 1982).

Psychology as a field of study has contributed immensely to the progress of other fields such as criminology, a branch of which specializes on Criminal justice system. 1979 marked the 70th anniversary of correctional psychology while the same year marked the 100th anniversary of psychology as a science. Megargee joined the staff at the Alameda County Probation Department Guidance Clinic, though psychology had been flourishing in juvenile court settings for half a century. In the Newsletter of the American Association of Correctional Psychologists, Megargee was referred to as a pioneer in Criminal Justice Psychology.

Based on this, criminal justice psychology has gained impetus on its own, flourishing in juvenile court settings. (Many contributors in this field can therefore be unmistakably called pioneers) As pioneers, they were unprepared for the new problems springing up in their "new-found" field. Like many pioneers, they attempted and applied familiar techniques and methods from traditional psychology. This proved very difficult, as there was no headway in their studies at the initial attempt. For this reason some psychologists left the criminal justice system but for those who stayed, they grew, improved and adapted to the new settings.

These were the men and women who were able to learn from experience and regarded the new demands imposed by the criminal justice system as a challenge rather than a threat. For example, Healy was convinced that delinquent behaviour stems from psychopathology and
for this reason named his clinic "Juvenile Psychopathic Institute”. This viewpoint was quite different from the prevailing Lombrosoian notion that criminal tendencies were inherited.

In the context therefore, treatments were aimed at recovering the unconscious determinants of delinquency (Riesman, 1966). Healy was able to devise new assessment devices, better suited to the needs of the clinics clientele, including the Healy Picture Completion Test and the 'Own Story' technique, in which the delinquent reported his or her feelings and attitudes towards parents, teachers, and others.

These were actually creating ways in this field. Grace Fernald and Augusta Bronner also contributed greatly to the various devices developed. Other methods included adaptations of traditional psychological techniques that advocated a close relationship with the criminal justice system particularly in the aspect of counseling and case study. Thus with so much resemblance, clinical study in this regard has proved very helpful in exploiting the needed resource for the purpose of such traditional technique.

This compares with the early settlers in America, who were singularly unprepared for the problems they encountered and uncivilized in their approaches. Their slow progress and crudeness had been noted.

Similar to this, correctional psychology was not regarded as an exciting, challenging opportunity to apply psychological science to significant social problems. One way to make progress is to avoid the mistakes of the past. In this vein also, criminal justice psychology has in many ways avoided the past error.

In the past, many criminal justice psychologists received training in medical psychology, with no specific training in the special problems associated with research and practice in the criminal justice system. According to Ingram, (1974) "it is ridiculous to assume that a psychologist can walk into a correctional institution unprepared and so to speak, do his thing and be successful".

This makes it obviously clear that adequate training is essential for an in depth practice of this profession. Today however, professional organizations representing criminal justice psychology have been formed and journals founded. In addition to this, psychological consultation centers have also been created. For instance, the consultation centres have helped to improve on past researches. It has also helped to adapt to certain special requirements of the criminal justice system.
At Florida State University, programmes covering pre-doctoral degrees have ensued. In these programmes, every graduate student in the Crime and Delinquency or 'C&D' programme goes through the same basic core curriculum covering the traditional areas of psychology and research methodology which includes; assessment, therapy and professional ethics as well as practical training alongside a year internship.

Students in the Crime and Delinquency programme also take courses in Criminal Law in the Law School, with proper focus on legal definition of sanity, competency to stand trial and expert witness testimony.

**Correctional Facilities**

Broadly speaking, there are three primary types of correctional facilities: lockups, jails, and prisons. Within each category, there are subtypes (particularly in the prison category), but this breakdown is useful for a basic understanding.

Lockups are local, temporary holding facilities that are generally utilized at the very beginning of the criminal justice process. They are very common, and the typical stay is generally very short - maybe 48 hours tops. The location of lockups is usually a local police station, where an individual who only requires a temporary detention can be held. Approximately 30% of police stations have lockups, and they vary in size based on the size of the jurisdiction. Larger communities will generally use a jail if a lockup is not available.

Jails are locally operated detention facilities that will house individuals both before and after adjudication. Generally, if a person is sentenced to a shorter sentence, they may serve the remainder of their sentence at the jail. Jails tend to be a jack-of-all-trades type of facility, with various roles in terms of who is held there: probation/parole violators, individuals convicted of a misdemeanor, people awaiting trial, a temporary holding spot for individuals needing a transfer, etc. Jail staffs generally see all types of individuals in terms of the legal process. From a mental health perspective, jails may sometimes be used when the police detain someone with a mental illness, while a determination is made for a more appropriate placement. Jails hold approximately 1/3 of the individuals counted as incarcerated in the U.S., so they are quite busy, particularly since they are generally not holding individuals who will be there for a very long period of time.
Prisons are correctional facilities that hold individuals who have been convicted of felonies, and are required to serve a significant period of time as a sentence (generally at least one year). They tend to hold a lot of individuals, and they are operated on both the state and federal level. There are a wide variety of prisons, based on gender, security level, medical/mental health needs, etc.

It is important to think about corrections as broadly as possible, as well as mentioning the various step-down facilities, half-way houses, etc. that are used for re-introduction into the community. One may also consider court-ordered outpatient treatment (i.e. court-ordered anger management therapy) within the context of correctional mental health, even if the person may not have any custodial restrictions. Within all of these contexts, mental health assessment, treatment, management, classification, etc. will play a role. For the mental health clinician working in the system, different mental health issues will likely be more or less prevalent, depending on the type of facility. For example, individuals working at a lockup facility will see significantly more substance intoxication than at a prison. A jail will see a significant amount of substance withdrawal. A person working in a penitentiary will see a significant amount of Antisocial Personality Disorder, while a prison medical facility will see many older inmates with various medical and mental health issues related to aging. Knowing your population will allow a clinician to be prepared for the more likely clinical issues that will present themselves, (Jeremiah D, 2009).

Summary

In the lecture, Correctional Psychology was seen as one such title and others were forensic psychology, legal psychology and criminological psychology. It was also discovered in the course of the lecture how correctional facilities aid in the rehabilitation of criminals. In the same vein, various correctional facilities were discussed and at large how the application of psychology has made correction possible in its context.

Post Test

1. What is the link between the history of Psychology and correctional psychology?
2. Mention and discuss the various correctional facilities you know

LECTURE TWO

Function of Psychologists involved with the Criminal Justice System

Introduction
This lecture opens your psyche to what the criminal Justice system is all about and why psychologists are involved in the justice system. It will also explain in details the ethical implication of their involvement. The lecture also covers the role of the psychologist in law enforcement.

Objectives
At the end of this lecture, you should be able to
1. Know what criminal justice system is all about.
2. Know the areas where psychologists are involved within the criminal justice system

Pre-test
1. How does a psychologist function in criminal justice system?
2. Create a link between psychology and law enforcement?

CONTENT
The involvement of psychologists in the criminal justice system has gone beyond their original assessment function (Farringdon, 1980; Grayson, 1979; The American Psychological Association, 1978 (APA). Megargee and Bohn (1979) were involved in the classification of offenders and his papers enlisted the contributions of psychologists to: institutions, courts, law enforcement agencies and victims, and discussion of the training of psychologists to work in these settings. Other psychologists are interested in behaviour modification with offenders (Emery and Marholin, 1977; Trasler (1979), Idemudia (1995) and Farrington, 1979). Twenty four prisoners were treated with coping skills instructional programme.

Those treated reported psychological disorders than those assigned disorders treatment control group (Idemudia 1995). The effects of incarceration have also been studied (Harney et al, 1973; Sapsford, 1978; Idemudia, (1995); Osinowo, 1995).

They have also been involved in Class action suits, in which prisoners sued those responsible for prison conditions which violated their rights enshrined in the United States constitution
(e.g. not to suffer cruel and unusual punishment). Psychological knowledge has been applied to law and legal processes, for instance, eyewitness testimony (Loftus, et al, 1979) identification evidence e.g., Clifford and Bull, (1978), the psychologist as an expert witness (Harward, 1979; Gudjonsson, 1992).

**LAW ENFORCEMENT AND THE ROLE OF PSYCHOLOGY AND PSYCHOLOGISTS**

Psychology is the intersection between psychology and the criminal justice system. It involves understanding criminal law in the relevant jurisdictions in order to be able to interact appropriately with judges, attorneys and other legal professionals. An important aspect of forensic psychology is the ability to testify in court, reformulating psychological findings into the legal language of the courtroom, providing information to legal personnel in a way that can be understood. Further, in order to be a credible witness, for example in the United States, the forensic psychologist must understand the philosophy, rules and standards of the American judicial system. Primary is an understanding of the adversarial system. There are also rules about hearsay evidence and most importantly, the exclusionary rule. Lack of a firm grasp of these procedures will result in the forensic psychologist losing credibility in the courtroom. A forensic psychologist can be trained in clinical, social, organizational or any other branch of psychology. In the United States, the salient issue is the designation by the court as an expert witness by training, experience or both by the judge. Generally, a forensic psychologist is designated as an expert in a particular jurisdiction. The number of jurisdictions in which a forensic psychologist qualifies as an expert increases with experience and reputation.

Questions asked by the court of a forensic psychologist are generally not questions regarding psychology but are legal questions and the response must be in language the court understands. For example, a forensic psychologist is frequently appointed by the court to assess a defendant's competency to stand trial. The court also frequently appoints a forensic psychologist to assess the state of mind of the defendant at the time of the offense. This is referred to as an evaluation of the defendant's sanity or insanity (which relates to criminal responsibility) at the time of the offense. These are not primarily psychological questions but rather legal ones. Thus, a forensic psychologist must be able to translate psychological information into a legal framework.
Forensic psychologists provide sentencing recommendations, treatment recommendations, and any other information the judge requests, such as information regarding mitigating factors, assessment of future risk, and evaluation of witness credibility. Forensic psychology also involves training and evaluating police or other law enforcement personnel, providing law enforcement with criminal profiles and in other ways working with police departments. Forensic psychologists work both with the Public Defender, the States Attorney, and private attorneys. Forensic psychologists may also help with jury selection.

The forensic psychologist views the client or defendant from a different point of view than does a traditional clinical psychologist. Seeing the situation from the client's point of view or "empathizing" is not the forensic psychologist's task. Traditional psychological tests and interview procedure are not sufficient when applied to the forensic situation. In forensic evaluations, it is important to assess the consistency of factual information across multiple sources. Forensic evaluators must be able to provide the source on which any information is based. Unlike more traditional applications of clinical psychology, informed consent is not required when the assessment is ordered by the court. Instead, the defendant simply needs to be notified regarding the purpose of the evaluation and the fact that he or she will have no control over how the information obtained is used. While psychologists infrequently have to be concerned about malingering or feigning illness in a non-criminal clinical setting, a forensic psychologist must be able to recognize exaggerated or faked symptoms. Malingering exists on a continuum so the forensic psychologist must be skilled in recognizing varying degrees of feigned symptoms.

Forensic psychologists perform a wide range of tasks within the criminal justice system. By far the largest is that of preparing for and providing testimony in the court room. This task has become increasingly difficult as attorneys have become sophisticated at undermining psychological testimony. Evaluating the client, preparing for testimony, and the testimony itself require the forensic psychologist to have a firm grasp of the law and the legal situation at issue in the courtroom, using the Crime Classification Manual and other sources. This knowledge must be integrated with the psychological information obtained from testing, psychological and mental status exams, and appropriate assessment of background materials, such as police reports, prior psychiatric or psychological evaluations, medical records and other available pertinent information.

Malingering
An overriding issue in any type of forensic assessment is the issue of malingering and deception. A defendant may be intentionally faking a mental illness or may be exaggerating the degree of symptomatology. The forensic psychologist must always keep this possibility in mind. It is important if malingering is suspected to observe the defendant in other settings as it is difficult to maintain false symptoms consistently over time. In some cases, the court views malingering or feigning illness as obstruction of justice and sentences the defendant accordingly. In United States, V. Binion, malingering or feigning illness during a competency evaluation was held to be obstruction of justice and led to an enhanced sentence. As such, fabricating mental illness in a competency-to-stand-trial assessment now can be raised to enhance the sentencing level following a guilty plea.

Competency evaluations

If there is a question of the accused’s competency to stand trial, a forensic psychologist is appointed by the court to examine and assess the individual. The individual may be in custody or may have been released on bail. Based on the forensic assessment, a recommendation is made to the court whether or not the defendant is competent to proceed to trial. If the defendant is considered incompetent to proceed, the report or testimony will include recommendations for the interim period during which an attempt at restoring the individual's competency to understand the court and legal proceedings, as well as participate appropriately in their defense will be made. Often, this is an issue of committed, on the advice of a forensic psychologist, to a psychiatric treatment facility until such time as the individual is deemed competent.

As a result of Ford v. Wainwright, a case by a Florida inmate on death row that was brought before the Supreme Court of the United States, forensic psychologists are appointed to assess the competency of an inmate to be executed in death penalty cases.

Sanity evaluations

The forensic psychologist may also be appointed by the court to evaluate the defendant's state of mind at the time of the offense. These are defendants who the judge, prosecutor or public defender believe through personal interaction with the defendant or through reading the police report, may have been significantly impaired at the time of the offense. In other situations, the defense attorney may decide to have the defendant plead not guilty by reason
of insanity. In this case, usually the court appoints forensic evaluators and the defense may hire their own forensic expert. In actual practice, this is rarely a plea in a trial. Usually any judgments about the defendant's state of mind at the time of the offense are made by the court before the trial process begins.

**Sentence mitigation**

Even in situations where the defendant's mental disorder does not meet the criteria for a not guilty by reason of insanity defense, the defendant's state of mind at the time, as well as relevant past history of mental disorder and psychological abuse can be used to attempt a mitigation of sentence. The forensic psychologist's evaluation and report is an important element in presenting evidence for sentence mitigation. In Hamblin v. Mitchell, 335 F.3d 482 (6th Cir. 2003), the Sixth Circuit Court of Appeals reversed the decision of a lower court because counsel did not thoroughly investigate the defendant's mental history in preparation for the sentencing phase of the trial. Specifically, the court stated that such investigation should include members of the defendant's immediate and extended family, medical history, and family and social history (including physical and mental abuse, domestic violence, exposure to traumatic events and criminal violence). This issue was further addressed in Wiggins v. Smith and Bigby v. Dretke.

**Other evaluations**

Forensic psychologists are frequently asked to make an assessment of an individual's dangerousness or risk of re-offending. They may provide information and recommendations necessary for sentencing purposes, grants of probation, and the formulation of conditions of parole, which often involves an assessment of the offender's ability to be rehabilitated. They are also asked questions of witness credibility and malingering. Occasionally, they may also provide criminal profiles to law enforcement.

Due to the Supreme Court decision upholding involuntary commitment laws for predatory sex offenders in Kansas v. Hendricks; it is likely that forensic psychologists will become involved in making recommendations in individual cases of end-of-sentence civil commitment decisions.

**Ethical implications**
A forensic psychologist generally practices within the confines of the courtroom, incarceration facilities, and other legal setting. It is important to remember that the forensic psychologist is equally likely to be testifying for the prosecution as for the defense attorney. A forensic psychologist does not take a side, as do the psychologists described below. The ethical standards for a forensic psychologist differ from those of a clinical psychologist or other practicing psychologist because the forensic psychologist is not an advocate for the client and nothing the client says is guaranteed to be kept confidential. This makes evaluation of the client difficult, as the forensic psychologist needs and wants to obtain all information while it is often not in the client's best interest to provide it. The client has no control over how that information is used. Despite the signing of a waiver of confidentiality, most clients do not realize the nature of the evaluative situation. Furthermore, the interview techniques differ from those typical of a clinical psychologist and require an understanding of the criminal mind and criminal and violent behavior. For example, even indicating to a defendant being interviewed that an effort will be made to get the defendant professional help may be grounds for excluding the expert's testimony.

In addition, the forensic psychologist deals with a range of clients unlike those of the average practicing psychologist. Because the client base is by and large criminal, the forensic psychologist is immersed in an abnormal world. As such, the population evaluated by the forensic psychologist is heavily weighted with specific personality disorders.

The typical grounds for malpractice suits also apply to the forensic psychologist, such as wrongful commitment, inadequate informed consent, duty and breach of duty, and standards of care issues. Some situations are clearer cut for the forensic psychologist. The duty to warn, which is mandated by many states, is generally not a problem because the client or defendant has already signed a release of information, unless the victim is not clearly identified and the issue of the identification of the victim arises. However, in general the forensic psychologist is less likely to encounter malpractice suits than a clinical psychologist. The forensic psychologist does have some additional professional liability issues. As mentioned above, confidentiality in a forensic setting is more complicated than in a clinical setting as the client or defendant is apt to misinterpret the limits of confidentiality despite being warned and signing a release.

Tach et al (1975) designed assessment tools to investigate factors leading to violent alterations between police officers and citizens. He devised retraining strategies to help
officers recognize and change their propensities for violence. Also, situational tests for selection of officers were developed (Tach et al, 1975).

Psychological screening of all candidates for law enforcement positions, assessment of police applications are entrenched in Britain since the recommendations of the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals.

**PSYCHOLOGICAL PROFILING**

Construction of psychological profiles of perpetrators of crimes has also formed part of the tasks that psychologists are called upon to perform. Psychological knowledge has been used to study occupational stress and management of stress. In this regard, law enforcement has been found to be the most stressful of occupations (Gunn and Farrington, 1982). Police work is stressful (Akinnawo; 1995, Lester and Mink, 1979; Lester and Gallagher 1980). Strategies for combating stress have been taught to police officers, Police training has been another important aspect of the contribution of psychologists to law enforcement.

**TRAINING PROGRAMMES FOR THE POLICE**

Programmes and prepared training films for police in such diverse areas as hostage negotiation, death notification, family crisis intervention, and rape investigation (Bard, 1970, 1971; Bard and Ellison, 1974) have been undertaken. The major aim is to help officers understand and empathize with those they encounter, whether they are quarrelling spouses, bereaved loved ones, or victims of sexual assault which consequently lead to higher level of satisfaction while rendering service to the community.

**FAMILY CRISIS INTERVENTION**

*Family crisis interventions* are taught and early warning signs of emotional upset in line personnel and brief counseling and referral process are also taught to police sergeants. Training seminars, including psychodrama and role-playing are held with police officers. All these are geared toward decreasing potential conflicts. Psychological crisis intervention form significant aspect of knowledge passed on to police officers by psychologists working with them. This knowledge places them in better situations to handle problems in their working lives.

**SELECTION AND PLACEMENT**
Psychologists are also involved in selection and placement while police men are being recruited and also after they have been employed when there is need to re-deploy them to other specialized areas within the police force. Very few Nigerian psychologists are engaged in the type of psychological services mentioned above though psychologists with psychology degrees teach in some police academies in the country. They are too few to make a considerable impact although some psychologists in academia have carried out research related to police work.

Summary

In the lecture, we got to know the involvement of psychologists in the criminal justice system, how it has gone beyond their original assessment function or the normal thumb of the rule. We still discover novel ideas about psychology and the law enforcements. In the same vein, ethical consideration of psychologists’ involvements was also unraveled.

Post Test

1. Summarize the role of psychologist in the criminal justice system?

2. List and explain the ethical implications of a forensic psychologist involvement in criminal justice system

References;


Jeremiah D, mental Health Community
CHAPTER 3

CONTRIBUTIONS TO CRIMINAL PROCEEDINGS

Introduction
This lecture opens your psyche to criminal Proceedings. That is, the various statutes that regulates criminal acts and various established punishments due to each offences

Objectives
At the end of this lecture, you should be able to
1. Know what criminal proceeding.
2. Also know the importance in crime regulation.

Pre-test
1. What do you understand by criminal proceeding?
2. Do you think it is a necessary and absolute tool in crime control?

Content:

In the English Legal System, the nature and contribution of the- psychological assessment will be influenced by the three distinct stages: Pretrial issues, Trial, and sentencing.

Chiswick (1990) argued that the defendant's fitness to plead and fitness to stand trial are often raised by the defense. Sometimes the defendant may not have a fair trial due to his physical or mental state at the time of the trial. It is possible that this may interfere with the due process of law if the case proceeds, although fitness to plead and stand trial issues are generally raised in serious cases which have major legal and clinical significance in England (Chiswick, 1990).

Clinical psychologists are very much involved in pretrial issues and in this regard, their roles overlap considerably with that of psychiatrists (Blau, 1984, Cook, 1980; Werner and Hess, 1987). American psychologists have developed objective psychological instruments to assess psychological deficits relevant to the legal issues (Blau, 1984). Psychiatrists are mainly involved at this stage of the proceedings and minimally involve the psychologist.

In Nigeria, hardly has any psychologist been involved in this stage of the criminal proceeding. Our criminal justice system though emanated from the English judicial system is yet to practice the more recent advance procedures in processing suspects.
TRIAL ISSUES

There are two main categories with distinct legal issues when criminal offences are considered in English law: acteusreus and mensrea (Leng, 1990).

The prosecution has to prove that a criminal offence was committed during the actusreus and that the defendant committed it. Whereas in mensrea, the focus is on the state of mind of the accused at the time of the alleged offence and his or her blameworthiness.

In England, psychologists are often asked to prepare court reports, which are relevant to both acteusreus and mensrea issues (Gudjonsson, 1986, 1992, Fitzgerald, 1987). In carrying out this role, psychologists assessed severe mental handicapped individuals in cases of unlawful sexual intercourse (Gudjonsson and Gunn, 1982). Also cases involving dispute or retracted confessions have been assessed (Gudjonsson 1992). Assessment in this area also include cases of perceptual or identification error (Haward, 1981; 1990). Clinical psychologists complement the efforts of their psychiatrist colleagues in dealing with issues relevant to diminished responsibility in cases of homicide and cases of alleged shoplifting.

SENTENCING ISSUES

Sentencing options are numerous depending on the nature of the offence and the circumstances of the case. In contrast to the psychiatrists, the psychologists are less involved at this stage but they are increasingly being called upon to provide court reports about factors which are relevant to mitigation concerning sentencing (Gudjonsson, 1986).

Treatment has been offered to individuals convicted of sexual offences, compulsive shoplifting (Gudjonsson, 1987b) and car theft (Brown, 1985).

ADMISSIBILITY

Psychological evidence is now seen as important in its own right, rather than relying on medical criteria for admissibility. Also, even if defendants have an I.Q. above the cut-off point of 70, the psychological evidence is still admissible and finally evidence of psychological characteristics, such as suggestibility, is accepted by the Court of Appeal as important and admissible.
Expert psychological evidence is needed when defendants have significant psychological deficiencies and the jury is not expected to be in as much as there is variation in the causes of crime, there are also variations in the kinds of offenders. Some criminals may benefit from psychological help although the root causes of their acts may lie in adverse economic conditions.

Crime prevention problem has parallels in the notions of primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention, which have guided community mental health. Primary prevention aims at preventing the onset of mental disorders by promoting positive barriers to its development, while secondary prevention is intervention at an early stage, and aims at preventing the disorders from becoming severe or chronic.

Tertiary prevention concerns itself with ameliorating disability and preventing its occurrence, and represents the traditional focus on treatment and rehabilitation. Psychological interventions have been directed at each of these levels.

ASSESSMENT

Psychological assessment is carried out in penal institutions for purposes of classification and treatment planning or evaluations for parole (Brodsky and Smitherman, 1983). Particular problems of the prisoner such as antisocial beliefs, sexual deviation, or level of risk are assessed.

Psychologists rely on sound psychometric principles in order to be able to make sound judgment about the prisoners and to evaluate outcomes of interventions. Without competent assessment, the psychologist cannot identify the inmates who require services.

Brief screening of the prisoners has been recommended by the American Association of Correctional Psychologists for those inmates with sentences of over one-year. By doing this, their prior history and emotional and intellectual abnormalities will be uncovered. Invariably they will be provided with intensive follow up. When inmates are properly classified they can be offered the appropriate treatment. Knowledge of inmates who hold attitudes, values, and beliefs supportive of crime will enable the psychologist to monitor such individuals for the appropriate interventions.

Case I: Experimental Role
An experimental procedure involving the polygraph as an aid to the diagnosis of blood injury phobia was undertaken by Gudjonsson, and this case was that of a young man who was arrested for speeding and was suspected of driving whilst under the influence of alcohol.

The young man failed two breathalyzer tests and accepted that he had consumed three pints of beer that evening. While asked to provide a specimen of blood, he claimed he was unable to provide this. He was subsequently convicted in the Magistrate's court for failing to provide a specimen of blood without a reasonable excuse. The appeal that he put up was that he has blood injury phobic and on this basis failed to provide a specimen of blood. This case was referred to Gudjonsson for psychological assessment.

Sartory and Gudjonsson set up an experimental procedure that involved testing whether or not the young man exhibited cardiovascular responses on the polygraph which were consistent with blood injury phobia (i.e. bradycardia to critical stimuli in contrast to the usual cardiac acceleration mainly seen in other phobias) The result revealed supported blood injury phobia. This relevant clinical data and this evidence were used as testimony in court and the defendant's conviction was quashed (Gudjonsson and Sartory 1993).

**Case 2: Actuarial Role**

A suspect confessed to a murder of a stranger. He informed the police that he had knowledge of the stranger's telephone number from the telephone directory and arranged a meeting with him. During his arrest and while being interviewed by the police, he correctly recalled the first four of the six digits in the victim's telephone number.

The suspect later retracted his confession and claimed that he had given the police random numbers as to the victim's telephone number. The result from the statistician's calculation showed that there was less than one chance in 1,000 that the suspect could have correctly guessed the four digits without some prior knowledge of the victim's telephone number. This result led to the suspect's conviction for the murder despite the fact of having retracted his confession.

**Case 3:**

A civil servant suffering from post-traumatic stress disorder following a previous trial could not advise his lawyer. Gudjonsson testified in court following the referral of this case from a defense solicitor who asked for an assessment on the mental state of the defendant.
A report from a consultant forensic psychiatrist agreed with Gudjonsson findings. The trial was postponed for few months during which time he was receiving psychological treatment on outpatient basis. Treatment involved desensitizing the defendant to the original trauma.

Case 4

This is a case illustration, which gives a clear picture of the role of psychological assessment in a murder case.

A 20-year-old woman called McGovern in the company of two other persons charged with murder. Gudjonsson was asked to assess her with regard to her intellectual functioning and suggestibility. Poor intellectual functioning and a possibility of brain damage were found on assessment. On the basis of the result from neuropsychological assessment, she was sentenced to 10 years imprisonment whereas her two co-defendants received life sentences for murder.

Post Test:

1. Discuss the following:
   a. Trial issue
   b. assessment
   c. sentences issue
   d. admissibility
CHAPTER FOUR
Role of Psychologists in the Court/Legal System

Psychology in criminal justice, better known as forensic psychology, refers to applying scientific principles to issues relating to the legal system and the law. A forensic psychologist looks into the psychological perspectives associated with the commission of a crime. She then applies those perspectives to the case to aid in justice being served.

Over the years psychologists have found themselves more frequently called upon to give expert advice in a variety of areas through the court-room setting. While such advice may not always be needed, it is often called upon and on a number of occasions has been responsible for the final decision being rendered by magistrates and Judges on the basis of a particular kind of evidence. It is interesting to discuss the role of the psychologist in the court-room and critically describe his tools and how he uses them and finally what psychologists can contribute to the provision of valid and meaningful evidence in a court of law, be it in a British court of law (Howard 1969) or in the USA (Kuriloff 1975). It is vital in the first instance to explain the role of the psychologist in the court room, as viewed by one clinical educational psychologist who has, from time to time, been involved in this way with a variety of different cases. Unlike the role of the advocate or barrister on one side or the other of the case, the psychologist's role is, or should be, dictated by the ethics of his profession to be scrupulously impartial in whatever decision he makes (McCloskey et al 1986) or conclusions he reaches.

Interest in psychological matters that affect the progress and outcome of court trials has had a long history. Towards the end of the last century, this lay interest was reflected in a new body of academic theory and research, sparked off by Cattell’s work on the psychology of testimony. Of particular interest to these early researchers were the processes involved in witness memory, a focus still being taken by today’s researchers. Such topics received the attention of some of the foremost psychologists of the day, including the inventor of the formal IQ test, Alfred Binet, and Sigmund Freud who published an influential paper, *Psychoanalysis and the Ascertaining of Truth in Courts of Law*. Today, forensic or criminological psychology has a wide brief, seeking to investigate the causes and prevention
of crime, the interplay between mental disorder and crime, effective policing methods, and various other issues pertaining to law and related matters. The relevance of forensic psychology has been widely recognised and in Ireland (until recently) the only non-lawyer on the Law Reform Commission was a psychologist.

This paper will specifically focus on psychological theory and research surrounding the court trial. As psychology represents the study of the individual, this overview will deal in turn with the various characters involved. However, two points must be borne in mind; firstly, this is by no means an exhaustive review of the research literature. Such a project would require many papers to accomplish. What are presented here are some of the more important principles which offer suggestions for improvement of the overall trial system. Secondly, this is by no means a geographically specific review. The bulk of the available research has been carried out in the United States, with that country’s legal system in mind. A smaller amount of research has been conducted in the United Kingdom. Therefore, the topics dealt with here are general in the sense that they are relevant to court trials in most jurisdictions.

The focus here therefore will be on matters pertaining to the defendant, the witness, the judge, and the jury. This will be followed by a discussion of some of the methodological issues relevant to the research. At all times, the impact or potential impact of the research findings on court trials will be emphasised.

II. THE DEFENDANT

A. Fitness to Plead.

The insanity defence has been the subject of a tremendous amount of academic writing (and so will not be dealt with here), despite the fact that it is pleaded in only about 2% of cases and is rarely successful. The insanity defence, however, revolves around the mental state of the accused at the time of the crime. Of relevance to perhaps more defendants is the similar issue of the accused’s mental condition at the time of the trial. Whereas the insanity defence is of direct concern to defendants likely to be found guilty, competency to stand trial is important in that it may be an issue that prevents a genuinely innocent person standing trial for the crime for which he or she is accused. The innocent person accused of a crime may be at a severe disadvantage if, during the trial, he or she is confused, delusional or hallucinated; and secondly, such a person would be even more disadvantaged if he or she were to be
incarcerated until such time as her mental condition is judged to be ‘normal’ once again. Furthermore, in the case of defendants with mental handicap, it is not an option for the court to await a recovery.

In the United States, for every one defendant acquitted by the insanity defence, approximately forty-five are remanded in prison hospitals after being judged incompetent to stand trial. The common law principal underlying this issue is that a person cannot be brought to trial in absentia. Although the person may be physically present, he or she may be deemed mentally ‘absent’ if there is reason to believe that he or she is unable to understand the proceedings being brought against them, or unable to adequately assist in their own defence. In most jurisdictions, such a trial is routinely delayed and the individual is incarcerated in a prison hospital in the hope that he or she may ‘recover’. However, with most psychiatric illnesses symptomized by hallucinations or delusions, such a recovery is unlikely to occur. Other severe consequences then face the individual. Bail is automatically denied. The accused is kept in a facility for the criminally insane and may well lose his or her job and undergo the trauma of separation from friends and family. It is not unreasonable to expect the mental condition of such individuals to deteriorate rather than to improve.

The case of Jones v. United States provides a startling illustration of the predicament of individuals being held in prison hospitals awaiting recovery. In 1975, Michael Jones was arrested for attempting to steal a jacket from a department store in Washington, D.C. However, upon medical examination, Jones was found to be suffering from paranoid schizophrenia. Although found competent to stand trial, and found not guilty by reason of insanity, Jones was committed to St. Elizabeth’s Hospital, Washington, to be held there until he ‘recovered’. Despite several hearings in the District of Columbia Court of Appeal and the US Supreme Court, Jones is still in the hospital today, some 21 years later. The original charge was one of petty larceny, a misdemeanour punishable by a maximum sentence of one year’s imprisonment. The decision to find Jones competent to stand trial was surprising, given that paranoid schizophrenia is—by definition—symptomized by delusions of paranoia and a lack of insight into reality. However, even if he had been found incompetent, policy dictates that he would still have been committed to a prison hospital to await recovery and so would still be in such a facility today. Of more concern is that this would also be true even if Jones were originally falsely accused.
The expertise of clinical psychologists has had a considerable bearing on the issues surrounding competency to stand trial. In a 1972 US Supreme Court case, *Jackson v. Indiana*, a deaf-mute man with mental handicap, who was deemed incompetent to stand trial, was also deemed unlikely ever to become competent. Based in part on testimony from medical professionals, the Court ruled that if the defendant was unlikely ever to become competent, then the State should immediately institute civil commitment proceedings or release the defendant. Thus, the duration of pre-trial confinement should be no longer than the time taken to determine whether the defendant is incurably incompetent. This ruling represents a compromise between the rights of due process and those of a speedy trial and illustrates the importance of psychological knowledge in deciding when to legislate to compromise such rights.

Pharmacological therapies for psychiatric conditions have also led to the introduction of ‘synthetic sanity’. If a drug can temporarily produce some rationality in an otherwise deranged defendant, then the trial may proceed. However, there are three main problems with synthetic insanity. Firstly, such therapies are by their nature temporary; severe side-effects can occur with prolonged usage. Secondly, if the insanity defence is pleaded, the apparent (but temporary) rationality of the defendant may lead a jury to reject the plea. And finally, the drugs in question have no effect on mental handicap, which is probably the most common condition of defendants whose competency is under question. In summary, the issue of competency to stand trial is still awaiting satisfactory resolution, on both a psychological and legal level. However, the role of the psychologist in proffering expert opinion on competency cannot be overstated. Furthermore, it is imperative that legal and mental health professionals work together in making a competency determination, given that a knowledgeable lawyer understands what is required from the defendant and a knowledgeable psychologist understands what is to be expected from the defendant.

*B. Characteristics of the Defendant*

A great worry about the courts system is that even when all the evidence is presented clearly, the jurors will be swayed by subjective opinions, or hidden prejudicial or sympathetic biases towards the defendant. A number of possible sources of such bias have been identified, including physical attractiveness, socio-economic status, gender, speech patterns, and similarity to the jurors.
It has often been claimed that physically attractive defendants are less likely to be found guilty, or that they receive shorter sentences, than unattractive defendants. However, the available research suggests that such a generalisation might be premature. When physical attractiveness is interpreted to be of assistance in committing the crime (for example, the case of a young woman who charms a middle-aged bachelor into investing money in a non-existent business) jurors are prone to be more lenient on the less attractive defendants. Furthermore, attractive defendants who offer no justification for their actions tend to receive harsher sentences than their less attractive counterparts. However, in the main, such research is difficult to interpret. The subjective nature of physical attractiveness makes it an unreliable variable for objective research.

The other characteristics of defendants that may affect jurors have received much empirical attention, although the findings have tended to be inconsistent. However, it has been found that the personal biases of jurors have most effect when the evidence presented is ambiguous. Thus, the effective collection and presentation of unambiguous evidence is important in encouraging an unbiased verdict.

III. THE WITNESS

A. Eyewitness Testimony

Eyewitness testimony constitutes, perhaps, the most persuasive evidence that can be brought up in court and has been the subject of a variety of imaginative and dramatic experiments. An illustration of this can be seen in the prolific experimental work of Elizabeth Loftus and her colleagues who staged a number of mock trials to investigate the power of such testimony. When the mock jurors were presented with a hypothetical murder case with circumstantial evidence but no eyewitness testimony, only 18% voted for a conviction. However, when a second set of mock jurors were given the same details of the case with the addition of a single eyewitness testimony, 72% voted for a conviction. Obviously, jurors find eyewitnesses to be considerably convincing, which is hardly surprising. However, when Loftus carried out the experiment with a third set of mock jurors, she attempted to discredit the testimony by informing the jury that the eyewitness had 20/400 vision and was not wearing his spectacles when the crime occurred. In this instance, 68% of the jurors voted for a conviction. This disturbing finding has been replicated in a number of similar mock-trial experiments. It
appears, therefore, that the credibility of eyewitness testimony has little effect on its persuasiveness in the minds of jurors.

In evaluating the overall accuracy of eyewitness testimony, it is useful to distinguish between the three stages of human memory: acquisition, retention, and retrieval. It is also important to point out that human memory has been shown to be notoriously inaccurate and that all three stages of memory are susceptible to considerable interference. Eyewitnesses may record the incident inaccurately (faulty acquisition), may forget vital details over time (faulty retention), or may interpret what they have seen in a distorted fashion in order to respond to a leading or biased question (faulty retrieval). Although all three stages have been studied extensively by forensic psychologists, it is the latter stage of memory retrieval that is of most relevance to the courtroom. In court trials, memory retrieval takes the form of testimony elicited by questioning.

A great deal of research has investigated the effects of different types of questions on the accuracy of such eyewitness testimony. Loftus and Palmer illustrated the effects of dramatic language in questioning. They showed a number of people a film depicting a car accident and subsequently asked them to estimate the speed of the cars when they collided. The question was phrased in one of four different ways: "At what speed were the cars travelling when they contacted/hit/bumped/smashed into each other?" It was found that the more severe the verb used in the question, the higher the speed estimated by the witnesses. For example, when the cars were described as having "contacted into each other" the average estimate of speed was 31.8 mph. However, when the cars were described as having "smashed into each other" the average estimate rose to 40.8 mph. More worrying was the fact that the witnesses who were asked about the ‘smash’ reported seeing broken glass at the scene of the accident, even though no broken glass appeared in the original film.

This latter point illustrates the reconstructive nature of human memory. It is important to point out that the lay person’s understanding of memory is quite different from that which emerges from scientific enquiry. Most people believe that memory works like a video-camera—events in the real world are seen and recorded, and in order to recall events, one simply has to retrieve the correct footage and play the tape back. Underlying this perception of human memory is the assumption that "the camera never lies". However, the actual workings of memory are quite different from the video-camera analogy. What appears to happen is that the individual records ‘clips’ of the events he or she has witnessed. In order to
recall the events later, the individual must piece together these clips in an order that makes sense, and if the remembered sequence doesn’t quite fit together, the individual is prone to creatively ‘fill in the gaps’. Thus, when the participants in Loftus and Palmer’s experiment were led to believe that a ‘smash’ had taken place, many of them concocted an image of broken glass which they then included in their memory of the event. It can easily be seen that such phenomena are quite relevant to the reliability of eyewitness testimony. When claiming to have seen the broken glass, these witnesses were not lying; they were merely demonstrating the tendency of human memory to be reconstructive.

In a similar experiment, Loftus again showed people a film depicting a number of events. In one scene a car was seen travelling along a country road. Half of the witnesses were asked to estimate the speed of the car "as it passed the barn", even though no barn appeared in the film. One week later, over 17% of these witnesses reported having seen a barn in the film, as compared to only 3% of the witnesses who were asked to simply estimate the speed of the car with no reference to the fictitious barn. Thus, the misleading question had a significant effect on the memory ‘retrieval’ of the eyewitnesses. Similar experiments have shown that witnesses can be misled into seeing non-existent road signs and into believing that a red light was actually green. Further study has shown that such misleading information is most effective when the questioner is of high status (such as a barrister). The reconstructive tendency of human memory is brought to bear by the context of memory retrieval. No witness in a trial wants to appear a fool. If, in any way, they are led to believe that a particular version of events has taken place, then they are quite likely to recall the events in such a way as to concur with that version, rather than suggest that their camera does actually lie.

Currently, the focus of research is on ways of improving eyewitness testimony. For example, research has shown that the effects of misleading information in questioning are much reduced if the witness is warned in advance about the possibility of such misleading information. Similarly, it has been found that testimony from forensic psychologists that inform jurors of the potential inaccuracy of eyewitness testimony leads jurors to analyse such evidence more sceptically and to discuss it more fully. The danger of ‘leading’ questions has received much attention and is widely acknowledged. However, a leading question is often hard to detect. For example, the question, "Did you see the broken headlight?" elicits twice as many affirmative responses as does the question, "Did you see a broken headlight?" A wealth
of corroborating research has been carried out in this area—what is presented above is merely an illustrative selection.

In summary, it is always dangerous to overestimate the accuracy of eyewitnesses and psychological research is proving enormously useful in the evaluation of eyewitness testimony in court. Such research is important for demonstrating the potential inaccuracy of eyewitness testimony and in developing methods of reducing the error component involved. Expertise in the processes of human memory is, perhaps, psychology’s most confident and useful contribution to the court trial.

IV. THE JUDGE

A. Instructions to the Jury to Disregard Testimony

Almost every lay person who watches enough television is aware of the possibility that a barrister may ask a witness a prejudicial or accusatory question or may mention facts that are deemed inadmissible by the judge. The judge then instructs the jury to ignore the remarks that have been made. What has intrigued many lay people and psychologists alike is the issue of whether or not it is possible to erase the effects of such remarks from the opinions of the individual jurors. This issue is of great controversy in jurisdictions that have so-called "rape shield" statutes, where evidence describing a rape victim’s previous sexual history is deemed inadmissible. If a witness reveals that a rape victim has had many previous sexual relationships, is it sufficient for the judge to instruct the jury to disregard this fact when determining the truth of the victim’s claim that she had not consented to sex?

In a series of mock trial experiments, it emerged that judges’ instructions had little effect on jurors. The mock juries were given the details of a homicide case. When the prosecution relied on weak evidence, none of the juries found the defendant guilty. However, when a recording of an incriminating telephone conversation was played to the juries, and the judge subsequently instructed the juries that the tape was not legal evidence and so should be disregarded, the conviction rate rose to 33%. Similar experiments have shown that jurors tend to be unaware of the influence of revealed inadmissible evidence, but that in some mock trials, jurors can consciously rebel against a judge’s instructions and give the inadmissible evidence undue emphasis in their decisions.
Psychological research has discovered possible ways of diminishing the effects of inadmissible evidence. It appears that initial juror impressions and opinions are hard to erase. Thus, the first strategy is to attempt to ‘inoculate’ the jury. If, prior to the trial, the jury is informed about the various types of inadmissible evidence, then the effects of such evidence arising during the trial appear to diminish. In one experiment, when mock jurors were shown videotapes of trials and were subsequently reminded by the experimenter of the importance of the presumption of innocence, the number of guilty verdicts returned (59%) hardly differed from the number returned by jurors who were given no such admonition (63%). However, when the admonition was given before the tape was viewed, only 37% of jurors returned a guilty verdict. Similar research has shown that jurors are more likely to find an accused rapist guilty if they are told to disregard information about the victim’s sexual history before they actually hear the information rather than after.

A second strategy to combat the effects of inadmissible evidence is the use of videotaped evidence. As well as allowing inadmissible testimony to be edited out, videotapes allow for, perhaps, speedier trials. Although research indicates that there is little, if any, difference in the impact of videotaped evidence and live evidence, the procedure is not popular. Critics point to the rights of due process, the prevention of jurors from observing the live reactions of the defendant to the witnesses and the costs involved. In summary, judges’ instructions to juries to disregard inadmissible evidence are frequently ineffective. However, psychological research indicates that the matter can in some measure be redressed by inoculating juries appropriately.

B. Instructions to the Retiring Jury

Critics of the jury system claim that juries are incapable of appreciating the full extent of the task presented to them. After all the evidence has been presented, it is up to the judge to present the jury with a range of facts, summaries, and points of law. The judge has the responsibility of ensuring that the jurors are aware of the facts of the case, the laws appropriate to the case, and the correct application of the law to the facts at hand. However, research has repeatedly found that a significant proportion of judges’ instructions are incomprehensible to the majority of jurors. Although most of the research on this topic is either British or American, such instructions are generally standardised and contain a great deal of standard technical language. It has been found that when standard instructions are revised to increase their clarity, agreement among jurors is somewhat increased. Thus, a
simple suggestion based on the available research would be that revising the standard instructions given by judges to retiring juries might assist the jurors in deliberating their verdicts and, indeed, increase the accuracy of the verdicts.

**C. Judicial Inconsistency**

Judicial discretion allows judges leeway in handing down sentences. Furthermore, in District Courts and the Special Criminal Court in Ireland, the judge has the final word on the outcome of the trial, as there is no jury. Therefore, there is some concern over the consistency of judges’ interpretations. For example, in the United States, fifty federal judges were given the details of a case of theft and possession of stolen goods and were asked to sentence the offender. Their sentences ranged from probation to 7½ years in prison. Although it is fair to assume a certain degree of variability among the interpretations and attitudes of different judges, it is difficult to generalise such research findings to different jurisdictions and different crimes. Moreover, there is considerable philosophical and criminological debate over what precisely constitutes an appropriate sentence in any given case. Thus, the establishment of appropriate sentencing norms must take place before the issue of judicial inconsistency in sentencing can adequately be addressed by research psychologists.

A related issue—concerning legal reasoning—concerns not just sentencing inconsistencies but also the verdict a judge may be required to return, as described by Irish psychologist, Paul O’Mahony. Unless a defendant pleads guilty, the truth of a case may never be established. Thus, legal reasoning will operate with its highest standard of proof—‘beyond a reasonable doubt’. However, when this standard of proof is utilised by a judge, a question arises as to the judge’s subjective assessment of the facts of the case. What may appear to be established beyond reasonable doubt to the judge may well be reasonably doubted by other impartial people. This is important in the light of the issue of judicial inconsistency, in that, even with the strictest standard of proof available to the legal system, different judges may well come to different conclusions.

**V. THE JURY**

**A. Juror Selection**

The issue of jury selection illustrates that psychological research only slowly alters judicial practice. In the United States, jury candidates for potential death penalty trials are screened so that opponents of capital punishment are systematically eliminated from the jury. However, a
wealth of research exists to indicate that supporters of capital punishment are more likely to return a guilty verdict. Supporters of the death penalty are more likely to be authoritarian, to feel that the legal system is ‘too soft on the criminal’, that the police don’t make mistakes, and are more concerned with crime control than with the right of the accused to be presumed innocent until proven guilty. In short, juries composed of supporters of capital punishment are not only capable of returning a guilty verdict, but are actually predisposed to do so. However, in 1986 the US Supreme Court overturned a lower court decision that such juries represent a biased group. Some researchers have argued for ‘scientific jury selection’ where prosecution-biased jurors are identified by means of questionnaires and surveys. However, some have questioned the ethics of allowing questions to ‘trap’ unsuitable jurors. Furthermore, it is as yet unclear whether scientific jury selection is practical, useful or even possible. Whereas proponents of capital punishment are biased in favour of guilty verdicts, opponents of capital punishment may refuse on moral grounds to return a verdict of guilty—even if they feel that the accused did actually commit the crime. However, capital punishment is relevant to only a minority of trials in those countries not to have abolished it. Thus, in trials where capital punishment in not applicable, who lays down the criteria for determining an ‘unsuitable’ juror? In such trials, it appears that the general attitudes and characteristics of jurors are poor predictors of their verdicts. In general, therefore, the current debate among psychologists about scientific jury selection has a long way to go before it can be usefully applied to the courts system.

B. Other Issues

Broadly speaking, the field of Social Psychology concerns the study of the individual in a social context. Within social psychology, the specific field of group dynamics theory can be applied to many different types of small groups, including juries. However, given the broad context of such research, the principles arising from research in the area are largely global in nature and, so, difficult to apply to specific situations. A complete review of these principles would be outside the remit of this article. Nonetheless, a few universals are worth referring to briefly. For example, when a group appoints a spokesperson, it is more often the first member to speak, the person sitting at the head of the table, or a man. Each of these effects occurs when juries appoint a foreman. Secondly, juries—like other groups—are prone to group polarisation, where deliberations usually strengthen individual members’ initial impressions. Thirdly, the larger the group, the more the discussion of issues that take place prior to reaching a decision. Some American courts have experimented with five- and six-person
juries, and subsequent research on the matter suggests that the smaller juries are more likely to hold secret ballots and less likely to examine the evidence in detail. These principles of group dynamics suggest little in the way of improving the effectiveness of juries, except perhaps that a twelve-member jury is more likely to give the verdict more rigorous deliberation than the six-person version. This is particularly interesting given that the US Supreme Court has repeatedly argued that no difference exists between the two sizes, with regard to decision-making.

The courtroom is the arena in which the person charged to court has to defend himself/herself. Decisions of guilt and innocence, liberty and custody, even life and death are outcomes of any case. A psychologist is called upon to offer expert opinion which falls into two classes, medical and psychological. The medical evidence includes three categories: neurological as in assessment of the effects of brain injury; psychiatric, that is in relation to mental disorder; and psychological medicine, as in recovery from injury.

The psychological evidence is the very bedrock of the psychologist's scientific knowledge concerning cognition, affect, sensation and human attributes. While the above stated areas define the scope of the psychologist's expertise, there are a variety of roles the psychologist might take in court proceedings.

The provision of expert testimony already referred to earlier on has been on for about a century (Gudjonsson, 1990). Be that as it may, this is far from what obtains in Nigeria where psychologists are hardly invited to perform this role. Psychiatrists have often been called to provide evidence in courts. This may be due to the fact that Nigerian lawyers and members of the public are still ignorant or not aware that psychologists in this country are capable of providing such service. In fact, psychologists in the United Kingdom and America have expanded their role in criminal and civil proceedings (Haward, 1981,1990; Bartol and Bartol, 1987; Gudjonsson, 1986). Psychiatrists have referred cases to psychologists and their findings have been incorporated into psychiatrists' reports in these countries. Haward (1981) has classified such roles into four: the experimental role, the clinical role, the actuarial role, and the advisory role.

**EXPERIMENTAL ROLE:**

Under experimental role, the psychologist informs the court of the findings of experimental research, which are relevant to a given forensic problem, thus performing unique functions,
which are normally outside those of the psychiatrists. Also the psychologist conducts laboratory or field studies to resolve issues pertinent to the outcome of a trial. Questions or problems pertaining to such issues as: person identification, effects of drugs and alcohol, industrial hazards, and accuracy of vision have been common points of discussion under the experimental role.

**CLINICAL ROLE**

Unlike the experimental role, the psychologist in conjunction plays clinical role with other professional. This role is carried out by practicing clinical psychologist as exemplified by the court reports that *have* been prepared for expert witness (Gudjonsson, 1985).

In the clinical role, there is often a considerable overlap between psychological and psychiatric evidence. For instance, the psychologist interviews a client and undertakes the necessary assessment which may include extensive psychometric testing.

Such examples include neuro-psychological assessment and personality assessment to mention a few cases such as brain damage or injury where medical experts may testify on the nature and extent of the physical damage, while the psychologist informs the court of the concomitant cognitive impairment of behaviour change.

Many of the clinical cases handled by the psychologist in court relate to compensation claims. On psychiatric matters, the psychologist may be concerned with an offender's state of mind, and so with issues of *mensrea*. The clinical psychologist in the discharge of his or her duties has a range of techniques to draw on, including: the interview, case records, psychometric tests, and experimental *evidence*.

**ACTUARIAL ROLE**

The psychologist playing actuarial role in the discharge of expert testimony duties is called upon to *give* the probability of an *event*, or to present an estimate of the *average* of something. The advisory roles of psychologists--in the court are limited to technical matters, which the psychologist testifies to the court on. For instance, psychologists *advise* counsel how to cross-examine psychologists who are testifying for the other side. Gudjonsson (1985) remarked that having another psychologist in court evaluating one's testimony increases stress experienced by psychologists when they testify.
Tunstall et al (1982) argued that disagreement between the opinions of psychology experts might result in lengthy and stressful cross-examination. It is important that psychologists become familiar with the development and validation of the instruments being used. It needs to be pointed out at this juncture that the four roles described above are not exclusive of each other. For instance, clinical experimental evidence may be offered, or actuarial evidence may be informed by experimental findings. While the psychologist may in principle be asked to advise on a range of topics, eyewitness memory and clinical matters are the most frequent as far as advisory role-playing of the psychologist is concerned.

Summary

Here, the role of psychologists in the court was dissected, stating some of the reasons why they made the court their beat. Yet, the lecture has not been able to exhaust some other roles of the psychologists in court as various discoveries on roles keep surfacing as their involvements in judicial settings increases.

Post Test:

1. Define the following:
   a. Victims
   b. Criminal justice and victim’s profiling
2. How can criminal justice psychology be applied to aid victim?

References


Introduction
This lecture opens your psyche to a very challenging aspect of every society, that is the policing-from the word police. It shall discuss all forms of policing and the various challenges locally and globally.

Objectives
At the end of this lecture, you should be able to
1. Know what policing is all about.
2. Also know the types and various challenges.

**Pre-test**
1. What do you understand by policing?
2. What are your perceptions of policing?

**Content:**

Policing is the act of the police. Therefore, the **police** are a constituted body of persons empowered by the state to enforce the law, protect property, and limit civil disorder. Their powers include the legitimized use of force. The term is most commonly associated with police services of a state that are authorized to exercise the police power of that state within a defined legal or territorial area of responsibility. Police forces are often defined as being separate from military or other organizations involved in the defense of the state against foreign aggressors; however, gendarmerie and military police are military units charged with civil policing.

Law enforcement, however, constitutes only part of policing activity. Policing has included an array of activities in different situations, but the predominant ones are concerned with the preservation of order. In some societies, in the late 18th and early 19th centuries, these developed within the context of maintaining the class system and the protection of private property.

Alternative names for police force include constabulary, gendarmerie, police department, police service, crime prevention, protective services, law enforcement agency, civil guard or civic guard. Members may be referred to as police officers, troopers, sheriffs, constables, rangers, peace officers or civic/civil guards. Police of the Soviet-era Eastern Europe were (or are, in some cases, like in the Russian Federation) called the *militsiya*. The Irish police are called the Garda Síochána ("guardians of the peace"); a police officer is called a *garda*. As police are often in conflict with individuals, slang terms are numerous.

**Development of Theory**

In Western culture, the contemporary concept of a police paid by the government was developed by French legal scholars and practitioners in the 17th and early 18th centuries, notably with Nicolas Delamare's *Traité de la Police* ("Treatise on the Police"), first published in 1705. The German *Polizeiwissenschaft* (Science of Police) was also an important
theoretical formulation of police. As conceptualized by the *Polizeiwissenschaft*, the police had an economic and social duty ("procuring abundance"). It was in charge of demographics concerns and of empowering the population, which, according to mercantilist theory, was to be the main strength of the state. Thus, its functions largely overreached simple law enforcement activities and included public health concerns, urban planning (which was important because of the miasma theory of disease; thus, cemeteries were moved out of town, etc.), and surveillance of prices.

Development of modern police was contemporary to the formation of the state, later defined by sociologist Max Weber as achieving a "monopoly on the legitimate use of physical force" and which was primarily exercised by the police and the military. Marxist theory situates the development of the modern state as part of the rise of capitalism, in which the police are one component of the bourgeoisie's repressive apparatus for subjugating the working class.

**Personnel and organization**

In most Western police forces, perhaps the most significant division is between preventive (uniformed) police and detectives. Terminology varies from country to country. Police functions include protecting life and property, enforcing criminal law, criminal investigations, regulating traffic, crowd control, and other public safety duties.

**Uniformed police**

Preventive Police, also called Uniform Branch, Uniformed Police, Uniform Division, Administrative Police, Order Police, or Patrol, designates the police which patrol and respond to emergencies and other incidents, as opposed to detective services. As the name "uniformed" suggests, they wear uniforms and perform functions that require an immediate recognition of an officer's legal authority, such as traffic control, stopping and detaining motorists, and more active crime response and prevention. They almost always make up the bulk of a police service's personnel. In Australia and Britain, patrol personnel are also known as "general duties" officers. A typically, Brazil's preventive police are known as Military Police.

**Detectives:**
Police detectives are responsible for investigations and detective work. Detectives may be called Investigations Police, Judiciary/Judicial Police, and Criminal Police. In the UK, they are often referred to by the name of their department, the Criminal Investigation Department (CID). Detectives typically make up roughly 15%-25% of a police service's personnel.

Detectives, in contrast to uniform police, typically wear 'business attire' in bureaucratic and investigative functions where a uniformed presence would be either a distraction or intimidating, but a need to establish police authority still exists. "Plainclothes" officers dress in attire consistent with that worn by the general public for purposes of blending in. Detectives, by contrast, usually investigate crimes after they have occurred and after patrol officers have responded first to a situation. Investigations often take weeks or months to complete, during which time detectives spend much of their time away from the streets, in interviews and courtrooms, for example. Rotating officers also promotes cross-training in a wider variety of skills, and serves to prevent "cliques" that can contribute to corruption or other unethical behavior.

Auxiliary

Police may also take on auxiliary administrative duties, such as issuing firearms licenses. The extent that police have these functions varies among countries, with police in France, Germany, and other continental European countries handling such tasks to a greater extent than British counterparts.

Specialized unit

Specialized preventive and detective groups exist within many law enforcement organizations either for dealing with particular types of crime, such as traffic law enforcement and crash investigation, homicide, or fraud; or for situations requiring specialized skills, such as underwater search, aviation, explosive device disposal ("bomb squad"), and computer crime. Most larger jurisdictions also employ specially selected and trained quasi-military units armed with military-grade weapons for the purposes of dealing with particularly violent situations beyond the capability of a patrol officer response, including high-risk warrant service and barricaded suspects. In the United States these units go by a variety of names, but are commonly known as SWAT (Special Weapons And Tactics) teams. While that of Nigeria
is called Joint Task Force (JTF)

Military police

Military police may refer to:

- a section of the military solely responsible for policing the armed forces (referred to as provosts)
- a section of the military responsible for policing in both the armed forces and in the civilian population (most gendarmeries, such as the French Gendarmerie, the Italian Carabinieri and the Portuguese Republican National Guard also known as GNR)
- a section of the military solely responsible for policing the civilian population (such as the Romanian Gendarmerie)
- the civilian preventative police of a Brazilian state (Policia Militar)
- an Special Military law enforcement Service, like the Russian Military Police

Religious police

Some Islamic societies have religious police, who enforce the application of Islamic Sharia law. Their authority may include the power to arrest unrelated males and females caught socializing, anyone engaged in homosexual behavior or prostitution; to enforce Islamic dress-codes, and store closures during Islamic prayer time. They enforce Muslim dietary laws, prohibit the consumption or sale of alcoholic beverages and pork, and seize banned consumer products and media regarded as un-Islamic, such as CDs/DVDs of various Western musical groups, television shows and film. In Saudi Arabia, religious police actively prevent the practice or proselytizing of non-Islamic religions within Saudi Arabia, where they are banned.

Varying jurisdictions

Police forces are usually organized and funded by some level of government. The level of government responsible for policing varies from place to place, and may be at the national, regional or local level. In some places there may be multiple police forces operating in the same area, with different ones having jurisdiction according to the type of crime or other circumstances. For example in the UK policing is primarily the responsibility of a regional
police force; however specialist units exist at the national level. In the US policing there is typically a state police force, but crimes are usually handled by local police forces which usually only cover a few municipalities. National agencies, such as the FBI, only have jurisdiction over federal crimes or those with an interstate component.

**Global policing**

Policing plays an increasingly important role in United Nations peacekeeping and this looks set to grow in the years ahead, especially as the international community seeks to develop the rule of law and reform security institutions in States recovering from conflict.

**Transnational policing**

The term transnational policing entered into use in the mid-1990s as a description for forms of policing that transcended the boundaries of the sovereign nation state (Sheptycki, 1995). It is distinguished against the terms ‘international policing’ and ‘global policing’. The former term would seem to indicate only those types of policing that are formally directed by institutions usually responsible for international affairs (for example the State Department in the US, the Foreign Office in the UK, etc.). The later term would seem to indicate only those forms of policing that are fully global in scope. Transnational policing pertains to all those forms for policing that, in some sense, transgress national borders. This includes a variety of practices, but cross-border police cooperation, criminal intelligence exchange between police agencies working in different nation-states, and police development-aid to weak, failed or failing states are the three types that have received the most scholarly attention.

Historical studies reveal that policing agents have undertaken a variety of cross-border police missions for many years (Deflem, 2004). For example, in the 19th century a number of European policing agencies undertook cross-border surveillance because of concerns about anarchist agitators and other political radicals. A notable example of this was the occasional surveillance by Prussian police of Karl Marx during the years he remained resident in London. The interests of public police agencies in cross-border co-operation in the control of political radicalism and ordinary law crime were primarily initiated in Europe, which eventually led to the establishment of Interpol before the Second World War. There are also many interesting examples of cross-border policing under private auspices and by municipal police forces that date back to the 19th century (Nadelmann, 1993). It has been established
that modern policing has transgressed national boundaries from time to time almost from its inception. It is also generally agreed that in the post–Cold War era this type of practice became more significant and frequent (Sheptycki, 2000).

Perhaps the greatest question regarding the future development of transnational policing is: in whose interest? At a more practical level, the question translates into one about how to make transnational policing institutions democratically accountable (Sheptycki, 2004).

**Equipment/Weapons**

In many jurisdictions, police officers carry firearms, primarily handguns, in the normal course of their duties. In the United Kingdom, Ireland, Norway, and New Zealand, with the exception of specialist units, officers do not carry firearms as a matter of course.

Police often have specialist units for handling armed offenders, and similar dangerous situations, and can (depending on local laws), in some extreme circumstances, call on the military (since Military Aid to the Civil Power is a role of many armed forces). Perhaps the most high-profile example of this was, in 1980 the Metropolitan Police handing control of the Iranian Embassy Siege to the Special Air Service.

They can also be equipped with non-lethal (more accurately known as "less than lethal" or "less-lethal") weaponry, particularly for riot control. Non-lethal weapons include batons, riot control agents, rubber bullets and electroshock weapons. Police officers often carry handcuffs to restrain suspects. The use of firearms or deadly force is typically a last resort only to be used when necessary to save human life, although some jurisdictions (such as Brazil) allow its use against fleeing felons and escaped convicts. A "shoot-to-kill" policy was recently introduced in South Africa, which allows police to use deadly force against any person who poses a significant threat to them or civilians.[51] With the country having one of the highest rates of violent crime, president Jacob Zuma states that South Africa needs to handle crime differently than other countries.

**Communications**

Modern police forces make extensive use of radio communications equipment, carried both on the person and installed in vehicles, to co-ordinate their work, share information, and get
help quickly. In recent years, vehicle-installed computers have enhanced the ability of police communications, enabling easier dispatching of calls, criminal background checks on persons of interest to be completed in a matter of seconds, and updating the officer's daily activity log and other required reports on a real-time basis. Other common pieces of police equipment include flashlights/torches, whistles, and police notebooks and "ticket books" or citations.

**Vehicles/Police transportation**

Police vehicles are used for detaining, patrolling and transporting. The common Police patrol vehicle is an improved four door sedan (saloon in British English). Police vehicles are usually marked with appropriate logos and are equipped with sirens and light bars to aid in making others aware of police presence.

Unmarked vehicles are used primarily for sting operations or apprehending criminals without alerting them to their presence. Some police forces use unmarked or minimally marked cars for traffic law enforcement, since drivers slow down at the sight of marked police vehicles and unmarked vehicles make it easier for officers to catch speeders and traffic violators. This practice is controversial, with for example, New York State banning this practice in 1996 on the grounds that it endangered motorists who might be pulled over by people impersonating police officers.

Motorcycles are also commonly used, particularly in locations that a car may not be able to access, to control potential public order situations involving meetings of motorcyclists and often in escort duties where the motorcycle policeman can quickly clear a path for the escorted vehicle. Bicycle patrols are used in some areas because they allow for more open interaction with the public. In addition, their quieter operation can facilitate approaching suspects unawares and can help in pursuing them attempting to escape on foot.

Police departments use an array of specialty vehicles such as helicopters, airplanes, watercraft, command post, vans, trucks, all terrain vehicles, motorcycles, and SWAT armored vehicles.

**Other safety equipment**

Police cars may also contain fire extinguishers or defibrillators.
Strategies

The advent of the police car, two-way radio, and telephone in the early 20th century transformed policing into a reactive strategy that focused on responding to calls for service. With this transformation, police command and control became more centralized.

In the United States, August Vollmer introduced other reforms, including education requirements for police officers. O.W. Wilson, a student of Vollmer, helped reduce corruption and introduce professionalism in Wichita, Kansas, and later in the Chicago Police Department. Strategies employed by O.W. Wilson included rotating officers from community to community to reduce their vulnerability to corruption, establishing of a non-partisan police board to help govern the police force, a strict merit system for promotions within the department, and an aggressive recruiting drive with higher police salaries to attract professionally qualified officers. During the professionalism era of policing, law enforcement agencies concentrated on dealing with felonies and other serious crime, rather than broader focus on crime prevention. Anti-riot armoured vehicle of the police of the Canton of Vaud in Lausanne, Switzerland

The Kansas City Preventive Patrol study in the 1970s found this approach to policing to be ineffective. Patrol officers in cars were disconnected from the community, and had insufficient contact and interaction with the community. In the 1980s and 1990s, many law enforcement agencies began to adopt community policing strategies, and others adopted problem-oriented policing.

Broken windows policing was another, related approach introduced in the 1980s by James Q. Wilson and George L. Kelling, who suggested that police should pay greater attention to minor "quality of life" offenses and disorderly conduct. This method was first introduced and made popular by New York City Mayor, Rudy Giuliani, in the early 1990s.

The concept behind this method is simple: broken windows, graffiti, and other physical destruction or degradation of property, greatly increases the chances of more criminal activities and destruction of property. When criminals see the abandoned vehicles, trash, and deplorable property, they assume that authorities do not care and do not take active approaches to correct problems in these areas. Therefore, correcting the small problems
prevents more serious criminal activity.

Building upon these earlier models, intelligence-led policing has emerged as the dominant philosophy guiding police strategy. Intelligence-led policing and problem-oriented policing are complementary strategies, both which involve systematic use of information. Although it still lacks a universally accepted definition, the crux of intelligence-led policing is an emphasis on the collection and analysis of information to guide police operations, rather than the reverse.

Police in the United States are also prohibited from holding criminal suspects for more than a reasonable amount of time (usually 24–48 hours) before arraignment, using torture, abuse or physical threats to extract confessions, using excessive force to effect an arrest, and searching suspects' bodies or their homes without a warrant obtained upon a showing of probable cause. The four exceptions to the constitutional requirement of a search warrant are:

- Consent
- Search incident to arrest
- Motor vehicle searches
- Exigent circumstances

On a final note, the essence of policing is for the reduction of all sorts of crimes.


Lecture Six

Juvenile Correctional System

Introduction
This lecture is about juvenile correction system. At the end of this lecture, you will get to know correctional system for juveniles that it is a network of agencies that deal with juveniles whose conduct has come in conflict with the law. These agencies include police, prosecutor, detention, court, probation, and the Department of Juvenile Corrections.

Objectives
At the end of this lecture, you should be able to
1. Know what juvenile crimes are.
2. The system responsible for juvenile crime control.

Pre-test
1. What do you understand by Juvenile delinquency?
2. What are the factors responsible for juvenile delinquency?

Content:
The juvenile correctional system is a network of agencies that deal with juveniles whose conduct has come in conflict with the law. These agencies include police, prosecutor, detention, court, probation, and the Department of Juvenile Corrections.

Although the corrections system is a viable concept for keeping crime out of the streets, there
are differences and similarities when it comes to juvenile and adult corrections systems. One must consider the age of an adult person is 18 in United States, and often, this is where the line gets drawn between being convicted of a crime as a juvenile and as an adult. As long as a juvenile is being tried in a juvenile court and is convicted of a crime there, they will not enter the adult corrections facilities until they turn the legal age of adulthood (exceptions apply). One of the similarities is that both corrections systems use incarceration to punish offenders; however rehabilitation is often the key concept of juvenile corrections, and not the adult corrections. It may seem that there are more ‘incentive’ programs offered for adolescent criminals. For example, American Youth Prevention Forum (1998) states that 

“services found to be effective in juvenile justice include: smaller, 15-25 bed, programs that reduce violent incidents; low staff/student ratios that lead to higher academic achievement; five hours of academic instruction per day (usually required by law); cognitive restructuring programs that, among other things, help young people understand thinking errors which get them into trouble; and gradual returns to the community from secure facilities through day treatment which reduces recidivism, results in higher levels of academic achievement and provides more connections to employers.”

This kind of care is not fully available in adult correction system, although there are exceptions, and most likely some of the services would not work well with adult prisoners. The adult corrections system focuses stringently on punishment and offers only a handful of rehabilitation initiatives when compared to its juvenile counterpart.

Other differences include the use of facilities (buildings) to store detainees and prisoners. For example, I found out that there are a lot more types of facilities for adults than for juveniles. Private jails and prisons (contracted from the government), regional jails, minimum security, low security, medium security, maximum security, and super-maximum security facilities mainly serve the adult population. Places like secure mental health facilities, boot camp incarceration, and juvenile detention facilities are more conducive to juvenile corrections; although, some of the mentioned facilities may be used interchangeably for both juveniles and adults (i.e. secure mental health facilities) (FindLaw, 2007; Federal Bureau of Prisons).

According to a FindLaw (2007) article Jails and Prisons: Types and Kinds “juvenile detention facilities are often run much like a regular prison or jail, with strict schedules, codes
of expected behaviour, and punishment for misbehaviour” and further for “the purpose of placing juvenile offenders in separate facilities from adult criminals is to insulate juveniles from “bad influences,” to protect them, and to attempt to curb criminal tendencies before adulthood is reached.”

Both correction systems have their similarities and differences. The reason for these measures is to prevent, curtail, and/or eradicate crime. The juvenile corrections system is set in place with a grander purpose than adult corrections system. That is done in order to help rehabilitate rather than confine the troubled adolescents. Neither correctional system should be undermined, especially the juvenile system of corrections for its more lenient approach. Adult correctional systems are not as cruel as depicted on TV and they offer ample help for prisoners and in some cases, they offer rehabilitation and educational opportunities for the inhabitants.

The goal of the juvenile justice system is to deter juveniles from future illegal acts. Parents are the most important resource in achieving that goal. Here are a few suggestions on how parents may help their child succeed:

- Listen to your child.
- Be consistent with your child.
- Do not physically or verbally abuse your child.
- Express love and affection.
- Create a stable family environment.
- Agree upon and follow house rules.
- Discuss problems.
- Meet your child's friends and their parents.
- Get involved in your child's school.
- Set a good example yourself.
- Spend time with your child.
- Reward positive behaviours.
- Take care of your own personal problems.
- Get professional help if necessary.

How Does the System Work?
There are various stages in the process. At each stage important decisions are made about how to handle cases.

**Police Contact**

When the police determine that a crime has been committed and have a suspect, they have the option of referring the juvenile to the prosecutor's office and returning the juvenile to his/her parent or requesting that the juvenile be detained in the Southwest Idaho Juvenile Detention Centre.

**Intake**

The purpose of intake is to screen cases to determine how they will be handled. If a juvenile is detained and a petition is filed, the case is referred to court. However, in the case of minor offenses, the case may be referred for informal handling through the youth accountability board or through the probation department. Repeat offenders and felony cases are automatically referred to court by the prosecutor's office.

**Detention**

Detention is a short-term secure facility where juveniles are held awaiting court hearings. Juveniles may be held because of the seriousness of the offense, a history of criminal offenses, the juvenile is a threat to others, or to insure that the juvenile returns to court. The juvenile may also be placed in detention after the sentencing by the judge as a consequence for his/her actions. **Parents may be ordered to pay detention costs.**

**Arraignment**

The initial hearing is for the purpose of informing the juvenile and parents of the charges and their rights. The judge will also decide where and under what conditions the juvenile will stay until the next hearing.

**Evidentiary Hearing**

The evidentiary hearing is the same as a trial, except that juveniles do not have the right to a jury. At this hearing, the judge listens to everyone's testimony and determines whether the
acts charged actually happened.

**Sentencing**

At the sentencing hearing the judge will decide what services will be ordered and what conditions the juvenile and parents must fulfil. Before the hearing, a probation officer will investigate the case by interviewing the family and other people to gather information to help the judge make a disposition. The judge may also order evaluations such as psychological, substance abuse, medical, etc. At the hearing the judge will consider the evaluations, reports, and statements made by all parties, including the victim. **The juvenile and parents will be ordered to repay the victim for losses.**

**Dispositions**

The two main dispositions the court may order are probation or commitment to the Department of Juvenile Corrections. Probation is the disposition made in most juvenile court cases. The judge will order that the juvenile live with a responsible adult, usually the parents, and order that certain conditions be followed. They may include a curfew, school attendance, counselling, etc. **The judge may order that the parents follow certain conditions and if they fail to, may be ordered to pay fines up to $1,000 or serve jail time.**

The judge may determine that the juvenile needs treatment that is not available in the community or that the community needs to be protected from the juvenile's behaviour. In such cases, the juvenile may be placed in the custody of the Department of Juvenile Corrections. The Department may then place the juvenile in foster care, a group home, a hospital, secure confinement, or placement in another state. Although the Department has legal custody of the juvenile that does not mean that the parents lose either their rights or responsibilities as the parents. **The Department will require that the parents pay for the treatment of their child while he/she is in the state's custody.**

**Waiver to Adult Court**

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The judge may determine that the juvenile is not going to respond to the juvenile system and presents enough of a danger to the community that the juvenile should be treated as an adult. First there has to be a hearing where the prosecutor must prove that the child should be treated as an adult. If the judge orders the juvenile into the adult system, he/she will be subject to any punishment available in adult court, such as a sentence to the Idaho State Penitentiary. There are certain offenses where a juvenile may be waived into adult court automatically.

References


Administration of Penal Institutions and Implication for Psychological Consequences of Imprisonment

Introduction
This lecture opens your psyche to the meanings of penal institutions and the psychological implications of imprisonments.

Objectives
At the end of this lecture, you should be able to
1. Know what penal institution is all about.
2. Know the importance too and the consequences.

Pre-test
1. Unravel your knowledge of penal institution?
2. Can you think of an alternative to penal institutions?

CONTENT
Imprisonment as a form of penal treatment given to adult offenders is especially important in the reduction of crime. To some however, this treatment seems unfair. This raises a number of pertinent issues, which deserves thorough consideration.

As it can be clearly seen, crime of any kind is not good for any society. For this problem of societal concern to be curbed, a great deal of effort is required. This actually raises the need for effective measures that will be directed towards controlling crime especially in cases involving adult offenders.

Imprisonment as one of the measures in this regard has indeed helped in a number of ways. Imprisonment therefore can be said to be of great effect, it helps to remove offenders from the society, to postpone reconviction and to discourage others. To a high degree therefore, imprisonment is a beneficial way to reform criminals and make them see the wrong in their attitude towards other people within their society. By imprisonment, criminals can be put under temporary deprivation. It is for all these that prisons are established. Nevertheless, does this form of penal treatment change criminals? If it does, how can such impact be felt? These questions will be answered in the course of this writing. There are many ways to know the impact imprisonment has on those who undergo it.

The Penal Institution:
A penal institution is any place of confinement for convicted criminals. It include local and
County jail and workhouses, reformatories, penitentiaries, prison camps and farms, as well as
The modern correctional institutions. In the common use of today, it is known as the prison.
A prison (from Old French prisoun) also known as Jail, the Big House or The Slammer is a
place in which people are physically confined and, usually, deprived of a range of personal
freedoms. Imprisonment or incarceration is a legal penalty that may be imposed by the
state for the commission of a crime. Other terms used are penitentiary, correctional facility,
remand centre, detention centre, and jail or gaol. In some legal systems some of these terms
have distinct meanings. In the United States the difference between jails or detention facilities
and prisons is primarily a function of the length of incarceration. Jails and detention facilities,
under city or county jurisdiction, typically hold offenders awaiting trial or serving short
sentences. Correctional facilities and prisons are more often run by the state or federal
governments and house offenders serving long-term sentences. Similarly Ontario, Canada,
jails and detention centres are used to hold remanded prisoners awaiting trial, sentencing or
other court proceedings. Jails are typically small facilities originally designed to serve the
local community and have been gradually replaced with large regional detention centres. Jails
and detention centres are run by the provincial government. Once an offender is sentenced, he
or she would be transferred to either a provincial correctional centre (if the sentence is less
than two years) or a federal penitentiary (if the sentence is two years or more).

A criminal suspect who has been charged with or is likely to be charged with criminal offense
may be held on remand in prison if he or she is denied or unable to meet conditions of bail, or
is unable or unwilling to post bail. A criminal defendant may also be held in prison while
awaiting trial or a trial verdict. If found guilty, a defendant will be convicted and may receive
a custodial sentence requiring imprisonment.

As well as convicted or suspected criminals, prisons may be used for internment of those not
charged with a crime. Prisons may also be used as a tool of political repression to detain
political prisoners, prisoners of conscience, and "enemies of the state", particularly by
authoritarian regimes. In times of war or conflict, prisoners of war may also be detained in
prisons. A prison system is the organizational arrangement of the provision and operation of
prisons. There are models that can be used to explain the situation in the prisons; prisons may
follow either the traditional model or the collaborative model.
THE NIGERIAN PRISON SERVICE

The first Prison in Nigeria (the Broad Street Prison in Lagos) was established in 1872. The federally run and the native authority prisons in Nigeria were united during the post-independence era.

In 1972 after the Government's White Paper on Prison reorganization The Nigerian Prisons Service (NPS) has the following objectives: To keep safe custody of persons legally interned; To identify the cause of their anti-social behaviour; treat and reform them to become disciplined and law abiding citizens of a free society; To train offenders toward their eventual rehabilitation on discharge; To generate funds for Government through prisons Farms and Industry.

Aina (1998) suggests that the prison system in Nigeria has come to a point where it has to reform itself if it must successfully reform prisoners under its custody. The Objectives of the Nigerian Prison Service are tripartite in nature. First, the Nigerian Prison Service is responsible for the safe custody of persons legally interned. Second, it provides treatment to them and third, it seeks to rehabilitate them. The law requires the Government to classify the prisons for the purpose of separation of prisoners, or for their training or for any other purpose.

THE TRADITIONAL MODEL

In the Nigerian System, the emphasis is more on the security so as to protect the institutional staff as well as the citizens. In this regard, high walls are constructed, security devices are put in place and armed guards are employed. The security staff in Nigeria is not armed; instead, they rely on outdated equipment like batons, bows and arrows. The inmates are locked up during the day with specific periods of being let out for their meals and routine prison labour activities. The inmates are usually counted and searched at regular intervals. Administratively, head counts, disciplinary measures and segregation are stiff.

The traditional model lays emphasis on the fact that the convicted offender must be deterred from further crimes through: strict discipline, regimental action, and punishment and the atmosphere is impersonal, it is a quasi-military rigidity. The security staff which the (NPS) refers to as prison warders or inspectorate staff censor prisoners' mails, visitations are heavily
guarded and sometimes visitation privileges are closely controlled. Privacy is hardly assured or non-existent. The inmates are given numbers and this is how they can be identified. Their numbers are written on their uniforms as well as the day or expiration of their term. They are stripped of their personal clothes, money etc. on admission at the admission room beside the reception.

This form of treatment, which Goffman (1966) wrote about in his book called the Asylum, describes the prison as a total institution. There is impersonality and social distance maintained by mass handling of prisoners, the warders often march the inmates to their work, to recreation and to their meals. This has a lot of psychological consequences as social interaction between them and those expected to treat them is curtailed. The custodial staff sometimes cannot maintain their authority over inmates. This could be as a result of poor interpersonal skills, which have not been fully developed amongst these officials, and the fact that they perceive that the inmates should not be treated, but be punished for their acts. Also this may be due to the fact that high security measures could combat the violent nature of some of the inmates the traditional prisons have been shown to cause the development of an inmate’s sub-culture. Such prison sub-cultures present an interesting view of "human behaviour under conditions of enforced control and confinement" (Pursley, 1977).

Obvious manifestation of such sub-cultures is the formation of inmate groups which are fostered by the stresses and deprivations associated with imprisonment. There are two broad categories of harmful consequences of imprisonment. The first suggests that the experience of prison actually increases the likelihood of re-offending after release. The second arises from the possible damaging effects on human beings of institutional life in particular (Feldman, 1978; Idemudia, 1995, Osinowo 1982 & 1983 2010). Thomas (1973) provided evidence, which has some relevance to the possibility that adaptation to the prison community reduces the likelihood of not offending after release. He suggested that prisons have informal systems, set up by the prisoners and transmitted to successive new entrants (which has the effects of imprisonment) training the inmates in a social code hostile to the attempts of the authorities. He found scores on scales of imprisonment and on a scale of post release expectations were negatively correlated with number of letters and visits.

According to Erikson (1964), prisons gather marginal people into tightly segregated groups, give them an opportunity to teach each other the skills and attitudes of a deviant career, and often provoke them into employing these skills by reinforcing their sense of alienation from
the rest of the society. This form of administration has implication for psychological impact of imprisonment.

COLLABORATIVE MODEL

Attention is now focused on the collaborative model of administration. The administration of prisons has been undergoing some significant changes in recent years in most countries. There is increasing emphasis being placed upon the development of a collaborative model that would offset the negative consequences of authoritarian programming in the traditional model.

The collaborative model rests on the idea that inmate rehabilitation and reintegration can be better accomplished through closer interpersonal relationships between: inmates and the institutional staff and through use of the full range of community resources. There is advantage in increasing contact with non-criminal ways of life, which invariably leads to the assimilation of more appropriate values on the part of the inmate. The advantage of this model is the emphasis placed on reduction of mass treatment and depersonalization.

Some prisons have implemented certain policies in this regard in developed countries. Expression of individuality is encouraged and freedom is also permitted. Greater emphasis is placed on decreasing the size of residential units. Cells in Nigerian and in some other countries prisons are heavily over-crowded. Hygiene facilities, such as toilets, washrooms are inadequate. Schedules for work are still not flexible hence one can say that lip service is paid to the collaborative model in Nigeria.

It is important to note that the most imaginative features of the collaborative model is its emphasis upon a coordinate endeavour for purposes of inmate rehabilitation (Robert et. al;1973) On such promising progress is the integrative-treatment team concept in the traditional model, the custodial staff was often suspicious of treatment personnel and vice-versa. Inmates were often distrutful of both and would play one off against the other.

In the course of performing their duties, the security staff tends to spend more time with the inmate compared to the treatment staff, but they downgrade the security staff because of their preoccupation with security rather than treatment. By the same token, custodial people often criticized the treatment staff for not understanding the necessity for security.
The collaborative model has contributed to the growth of communication among treatment staff, custodial personnel, and the inmates themselves. In the course of applying this model, the custodial personnel have found that in most cases that: inmate’s morale and co-operation are more directly related to the manner in which inmates are treated than to how strict discipline, security, and other control measures are imposed. This has given rise to inmate expression, which is very important and has evolved into group counseling which foster communication. Group counseling sessions are held periodically by social workers in Nigerian prisons. In Nigeria, social workers are recognized as professionals who work with prisoners rather than psychologists. For a very long time, psychologists working with the Nigerian Prison Service (NPS) have been deployed to the Social Welfare Unit.

According to Aina (1999), the NPS has less than ten psychologists working in their great establishment. Psychologists have not been given their due recognition in the (NPS). The collaborative model also encourages participatory decision-making if fully implemented.

Some common types of prisons include:

- **Supermax**: As the name implies, the custody level goes beyond Maximum by segregating "the worst of the worst" in a prison system, such as terrorists deemed a threat to national security and inmates from other prisons who have a history of violent or other disruptive behavior in prison or are suspected of gang affiliation. This level is also used for non-terrorists who have been deemed too dangerous or too high-profile to ever be in a normal prison. These inmates have individual cells and are kept in lockdown for 23 hours per day. Meals are served through "chuck holes" in the cell door, and each inmate is permitted out of their cell for one hour of exercise per day, alone. They are normally permitted no contact with other inmates and are under constant surveillance via closed-circuit television cameras.

- **Administrative**: Administrative security is a classification of prisons or detention centers that are for a specific purpose, such as housing mentally ill offenders. These range in levels of security from Minimum to Administrative Maximum Security (ADMAX), as in the case of ADX Florence in Florence, Colorado.

- **Maximum**: A custody level in which both design and construction as well as inmate classification reflect the need to provide maximum external and internal control and supervision of inmates primarily through the use of high security perimeters and extensive use of internal physical barriers and check points. Inmates accorded this
status present serious escape risks or pose serious threats to themselves, to other inmates, to staff, or the orderly running of the institution. Supervision of inmates is direct and constant.

- **High**: The "Middle Ground" for violent crimes, High security institutions have highly-secured perimeters (featuring walls or reinforced fences), multiple- and single-occupant cell housing, the highest staff-to-inmate ratio and close control of inmate movement.

- **Medium**: A custody level in which design and construction as well as inmate classification reflect the need to provide secure external and internal control and supervision of inmates. Inmates accorded to this status may present a moderate escape risk or may pose a threat to other inmates, staff, or the orderly running of the institution. Supervision remains constant and direct. Through an inmate's willingness to comply with institutional rules and regulations, increased job and program opportunities exist.

- **Close Security**: Close Security prisons are institutions which house inmates too dangerous for Low Security, but who did not commit a crime worthy of incarceration in a Medium Security Facility. These prisons are rare, as most inmates fall into either "Medium" or "Low" Security Classifications. These facilities are often located in separate areas of a Low or Medium security Prison.

- **Low**: A custody level in which both the design and construction as well as inmate classification reflect the goal of returning to the inmate a greater sense of personal responsibility and autonomy while still providing for supervision and monitoring of behavior and activity. Inmates within this security level are not considered a serious risk to the safety of staff, inmates or to the public. Program participation is mandated and geared toward their potential reintegration into the community. Additional access to the community is limited and under constant direct staff supervision.

- **Minimum**: The lowest level of security to which an inmate can be assigned directly. This type of prison is typically a "prison farm", or other work-oriented facility, and most often houses petty or "white collar" criminals.

- **Pre-release**: A custody level in which both design and construction as well as inmate classification reflect the goal of restoring to the inmate maximum responsibility and control of their own behavior and actions prior to their release. Direct supervision of these inmates is not required, but intermittent observation may be appropriate under
certain conditions. Inmates within this level may be permitted to access the community unescorted to participate in programming, including but not limited to work release or educational release.

**Special types of prison**

**Juvenile**

Prisons for juveniles (people under 17 or 18, depending on the jurisdiction) are known as young offender facilities or similar designation and hold minors who have been remanded into custody or serving sentence. Many countries have their own age of criminal responsibility in which children are deemed legally responsible for their actions for a crime. Countries such as Canada may try to sentence a juvenile as an adult, but have them serve their sentence in a juvenile facility until they reach the age of majority, at which time they would be transferred to an adult facility.

**Military**

The United States Disciplinary Barracks in Fort Leavenworth, Kansas is a military prison.

Prisons form part of military systems, and are used variously to house prisoners of war, unlawful combatants, those whose freedom is deemed a national security risk by military or civilian authorities, and members of the military found guilty of a serious crime.

**Political**

Certain countries maintain or have in the past had a system of political prisons; arguably the gulags associated with Stalinism are best known.

**Psychiatric**

Some psychiatric facilities have characteristics of prisons, particularly when confining patients who have committed a crime and are considered dangerous. In addition, many prisons have psychiatric units dedicated to housing offenders diagnosed with a wide variety of mental disorders.

**The Psychological Impact of Imprisonment.**
Historically, imprisonment was based on punishing those who wronged society, by inflicting suffering of the body – similar to the pound of flesh depicted within Shakespeare’s Merchant of Venice. In contrast to this concept, today’s imprisonment is no longer simply intended as an acute form of corporal punishments, but a method by which to work on a person's mind as well as his body, through 3 distinct areas – which include: Punishment, Deterrence and Rehabilitation. These 3 unique areas, when interlinked into a single process are intended to allow society to remove criminals from a position where they may continue their criminal behaviour, place them into an institution that satisfies the masses who desire some form of retribution, persuade other would be criminals that such activities are not beneficial, and in time sculpt them into productive and law abiding citizens through positive psychological conditioning who may later be re-integration into society.

In theory, such a concept fairs well – but unfortunately in reality, a large range of negative psychological experiences encountered within prison do not lead to this otherwise well thought out plan.

Let us begin by looking at the textbook objectives and responsibilities of prisons – which once again are three.

1. The safekeeping of all inmates;
2. The maintaining and improving of welfare of all confined within it;
3. And the performance of these objectives with the maximum of efficiency and economy.

Safe keeping generally comprises of keeping inmates locked away, counted, and controlled whilst allowing for isolated moments of welfare activities to satisfy needs through recreation, education and counseling. Unfortunately, the welfare and psychological freedom of the individual inmate does not depend on how much education, recreation, and counseling he receives but rather, on how he manages to live and relate with the others inmates who constitute his crucial and only meaningful world. It is what the prisoner experiences in this world; how they attain satisfaction, and how they avoid its detrimental effects through the adjustment process known as prisonization that ultimately decides how, if ever, they will emerge. It has also been recognized, through simulations of prison environments, that lockups and isolation have the habit of dehumanize prisoners by making them feel
anonymous, and breeding ill feelings because of their rejection and condemnation by society as a whole.

Likewise, it must be remembered that offenders have been drawn from a society in which possessions are closely linked with concepts of personal worth by numerous cultural definitions. However in prison, inmates find themselves reduced to a level of living near bare subsistence. Whatever physical discomforts this deprivation may entail, it has deeper psychological significance as to the prisoner’s conception of his personal adequacy—particularly when surrounded by other inmates, whom 20% are estimated as mentally deficient, and 5% as psychotic.

**Structure Prison**

The entire prison structure is based on solitude and separatism. Firstly, the convict is isolated from the external world and everything that motivated his/her offences. Secondly, they are to a large degree isolated from one another. During the 18th century this concept was taken to extremes, whereby prisoners were even forced to wear facemasks that did not allow vision or communication during exercise periods. This concept is based on the promotion for total submission, and in older prisons dually acted as a form of buffering with which to control the outbreak of diseases.

Early attempts at submission and rehabilitation were far from perfect. The use of solitary confinement was originally designed to allow prisoners to rediscover their own conscience and better voice through spiritual conversion. Unfortunately, it was later discovered that no form of torture could have been worse than solitary confinement because it ended up causing within many prisoners adverse psychological effects such as:

- delusions,
- dissatisfaction with life,
- claustrophobia,
- depression,
- feelings of panic,
- And on many instances madness.
All of which are symptoms of Chronophobia – a state often referred to as prison neurosis. It wasn’t until 1850 that these disturbing effects of confinement to small quarters was finally abandoned, and only utilized as an instrument of potential terror to keep inmates in line. Furthermore, it brought attention to the need to redesign rooms that housed each prisoner. But even to this day, confinement within prison, though vastly improved by comparison, continues to have similar adverse psychological effects.

Timetables also play a large factor in rehabilitation by establishing rhythms, and cycles of repetition. This combined with convict’s personal needs for reward and acquisition through penal labour, turns the criminal into a somewhat docile worker. It imposes on the convict the moral form of wages as the condition of his existence. A principle of order and regularity.

Prisons issued uniforms also play a large part in destroying personal identity, and crashing individual spirits. These somewhat bland, yet repetitive outfits are a way whereby unification maybe achieved within inmates, through the portrayal that they are no longer individuals, but are part of a whole. That whole is symbolic of - society.

Overall, the entire prison experience with its symbolic mechanisms of justice that encompass every lock, piece of barbed wire, the thick walls, the never ending supervision and segregation, the harsh solitude, and minimalistic lifestyles, are deliberately designed to not only incapacitate, but psychologically curb any prisoner’s personality traits that have been deemed by society as undesirable or dangerous.

**Impact of Prison**

Prisons are often the scenes of brutality, violence and stress. Prisoners are faced with incidence of violence and are always concerned for their safety. A long-term prisoner named Jack Abbott had stated "everyone is afraid. It is not an emotional or psychological fear. It is a practical matter. If you don’t threaten someone at the very least, someone will threaten you...Many times you have to "prey" on someone, or you will be "preyed" on yourself" (Tosh, 1982:86).

Prisons aim to cure criminals of crime however their record has not been encouraging. Instead prisons do more harm than good. The pains of jail confinement affect all prisoners in different ways. To begin with the prisoners need to withstand the entry shock by adapting
quickly to prison life. Prisoners are exposed to a new culture, which is very different from their own culture. Then they need to maintain outside links. For example, keeping in contact with family and friends becomes frustrating. While being in prison the prisoner must determine his/her way of passing the time since the hours appears endless (Tosh, 1982).

For some prisoners the major source of stress would include the loss of contact with family and friends outside the prison. There is also the fear of deterioration. There is lack of personal choice within the prison environment which many effect prisoners. After many years of being told what to do they may well lose the ability to think for themselves and make their own decisions and choices freely (Tosh, 1982).

Age

The age of an inmate also appears to determine the psychological effects of imprisonment. In 1992, Richard McCorkle discovered what Toch and Adams had reported in 1989. That is, those younger inmates aged twenty five or below, are initially more resistant to the prison structure which makes them more likely to be the targets of victimization in comparison to older inmates who assume passive avoidance roles in prison hence, increasing psychological effects of imprisonment. However, it has been suggested that after the initial shock of imprisonment, younger inmates tend to demonstrate increasing levels of conformity over time. (Bartol & Bartol, 1994).

Total institution and Goffman

A total institution is defined as "a place of residence and work where a large number of like-situated individuals, cut off from the wider society for an appreciable period of time, together lead an enforced, formally administered round of life" (Harlambos & Holborn, 1995:305). Erving Goffman believes that a total institution such as prison, cuts people off from the outside world and from forming and maintaining relationships with family and friends. Prisoners are required to ask for permission to perform even some of the basic functions, such as asking to go to the toilet. Punishments that are given include solitary confinement, a diet of bread and water, as well as withdrawal of privileges such as cigarettes and recreation (Harlambos & Holborn, 1995).
Goffman identified 5 modes for adapting to an institution. The steps involved include a situational withdrawal where prisoners minimize their interaction with others. This is then followed by an intransigent line where prisoners refuse to cooperate with the staff and show hostility towards the institution. When this occurs prisoners are usually placed in solitary confinement. Colonization involves prisoners becoming institutionalized and they begin to feel that life in prison is more desirable than life outside the prison. Then conversion leads prisoners to adopt what the guards regard them to be like. Finally playing it cool is done by staying out of trouble so that when they are released they will have "a maximum chance, in the particular circumstances of eventually getting out physically and psychologically undamaged" (Haralambos & Holborn, 1995:306).

Pain of Confinement

The pain of confinement is limited to certain psychological deprivations. This includes the loss of liberty were prisoners experience a limitation of movement. There is also the pain of moral rejection implied in confinement. Confinement applies that the prisoner is not trusted or respected therefore s/he should not be able to move freely amongst other citizens (Johnson, 1996).

Prisoners must obey rules and there are restrictions placed on what goods they may have with them and when. Sexual deprivation places pressure on prisoners towards homosexual satisfaction of one’s sexual needs. It also involves a cry for the compassion of a woman. Also loss of autonomy suggests that prisoners are under the control of officials. Prisoners must obey rules and are treated like children. Combined these psychological deprivations lead to a destruction of the human personality (Johnson, 1996).

Isolation

Isolation is the term used when inmates are separated from the general prison population. There are three situations which may call for an inmate to be put in isolation. These include disciplinary segregation, administrative segregation, and protective custody. As one may predict, whether an inmate becomes severely psychologically affected by solitary confinement is dependent on how much time is spent in isolation. (Bartol & Bartol, 1994). For instance, an inmate who is placed in isolation for a few days will not be as
psychologically affected by the experience in comparison to an inmate who is isolated for a longer period of time.

**Case Studies**

As was demonstrated with the experiment conducted by Phillip Zimbardo in 1973 at the Stanford university, a number of case studies on the effects of prison life have also indicated that imprisonment can be brutal, demeaning, and generally psychologically a devastating experience for many individuals. Psychological symptoms described in these studies which are believed to be directly caused by imprisonment include psychosis, severe depression, inhibiting anxiety, and complete social withdrawal. Another major stressor which the prisoner is faced with in prison is the fear of contagious and incurable diseases, such as, aids. (Bartol & Bartol, 1994). Overall, the results from studies indicate that individuals react different psychologically to confinement. While some find their experience of prison extremely stressful, at the other extreme, those who are dependent, passive, and generally incompetent may find that the prison structure offers them a positive experience. (Bartol & Bartol, 1994). Zamble and Porporino concluded from their research that "prisons do not produce permanent harm to the psychological well-being of inmates." (Bartol & Bartol, 1994, p.366). However, Adams, in 1992, found that there are certain prison conditions where this may not be the case, such as, where inmates are subjected to crowding and isolation.

**U-Shaped Curve**

A factor that may determine the extent of the psychological effects of imprisonment, is by looking at what point the prisoner is in serving his or her sentence. Zamble and Proporino (1988) studied the coping strategies of inmates in several Canadian penitentiaries. They discovered that emotional disruption and adjustment were clearly problems for most inmates during the early stages of their sentences, resulting from the dramatic disruptions to their life caused by the many restrictions, deprivations and constraints inherent in prisons. (Bartol & Bartol, 1994). Studies have found that during the time span of an inmate’s sentence, psychological reactions to imprisonment will often follow a U-shaped pattern, with the strongest emotional stress reactions occurring at the beginning of the sentence, and at the end of their sentence, as the time to be released approaches. During the middle of the sentence, anxiety is usually quite low and some acceptance of prison life is generally gained. (Bartol & Bartol, 1994). Some inmates may totally adjust to prison life. This notion is referred to as
‘institutionalization.’ This is where the "inmate loses interest in the outside world, views the prison as home, loses the ability to make independent decisions, and in general, defines him or herself totally within the institutional context." (Bartol & Bartol, 1994, p.366). Stress levels may increase at the end of an inmate’s sentence due to anticipation and feelings of uncertainty about one’s ability to adjust and cope in the outside world again, after having adjusted to prison life. (Bartol & Bartol, 1994).

The Needs of Prisoners

In order to survive in prison certain needs of the prisoners must be met. There needs to be activities that are aimed for personal fulfillment. It will enable the time to pass and allows for distraction. Privacy is also important to help eliminate the environmental irritants such as noise and crowding. Prisoners will feel that the environment is simpler and more easily managed. The safety levels need to be improved to minimize the chances of being attacked. Prisoners should receive emotional feedback by providing prisoners with staff who care and adapting programs to help improve their future. Also support can be given by adopting services which facilitate self-advancement and self-improvement. The issue of freedom can be explored by minimizing restrictions and controlling prisoners at the same time (Johnson, 1996).

The Stanford Prison experiment was aimed to examine the power of roles, rules, symbols, group identity and situational validation of behaviour. Two dozen university students, judged to be the most normal, average and healthy were selected to participate. Some became prisoners and others were guards. The basement of a psychology department was created into a prison by the psychologists. Guards were dressed in uniform while prisoners wore dresses and no underpants to take away their masculinity. They had a chain on one foot to remind them of the repression of being in prison.

The experiment was going to last for two weeks however it ended after 6 days. After 5 days, 5 experienced an emotional breakdown. They cried hysterically, had disorganized thinking, they smashed their heads on the walls and refused to eat. The guards showed no concerns or sympathy towards the prisoner, and accused them of malingering.

The experiment showed that normal average, healthy males became too powerful when they had the role of being the guards while others experienced a break down, if they were the
prisoners. People can become corrupted by the power situation, if someone exercises more power over others. Prisoners were powerless and guards were powerful. Power is determined by the role you occupy.

**Prison Subcultures**

In an attempt to survive within forced conditions, whilst maintaining some form of self-dignity, prisoners have resorted to instinctual community development methods and created their own subculture within prison walls which focuses on important inside issues such as relations amongst prisoners, and their interaction with staff members.

This unofficial system tends to be in direct defiance of most administrative rules, does not demand uniformity of behaviour, and recognizes alternative roles that inmates may play. Within male populated prisons, this subculture becomes one of the more prominent reasons for prisoner conflict and the struggle for supremacy between inmates and guards. On the other hand, within women’s prisons the subculture has one more function, and that is to provide for much needed emotional support through the existence of extended play families.

Much of this subculture is developed and imported by each offender from their external lives, and is then combined with the already existent attitudes and behaviours sculptured by the uniquely limited environment of prison.

The major function of this new way of life and its normative system is to prevent social rejection from being internalized and converted into self-rejection. Furthermore, it permits the inmate to reject his rejecter rather than himself. Sykes and Sheldon during 1960 proposed that inmates seek to neutralize the consequences of imprisonment by a state of solidarity. By moving towards this, the pains of imprisonment become less severe.

By taking on identity, folkways, dogma, customs, and the general culture of the penitentiary, prisoners mold themselves into a state early referred to as prisonization, which for the most part is a method of adaptation.

Clinical studies have shown that this prisonization can have devastating effects, and may lead to a ‘psycho-syndrome’ which includes a loss of memory, clouding of comprehension, apathy, infantile regressions, hopelessness and the appearance of various psychotic characteristics such as obsession and major depression. This is most common amongst those
prisoners who endure long sentences, have unstable personalities, the inability to pertain normal relations with members of non-prison society, a readiness or desire to integrate into the subculture, and a close proximity to other individuals that are already integrated.

Within this subculture, even smaller competitive sects emerge largely based on race and ethnicity. Some of these sects include the Muslims (a Black Nationalist group pledged to ethnic solidarity, self-discipline, avoidance of drugs, tobacco and pork in accordance with religious precepts), The Panthers and Young Lords.

All events within prison revolve around the continuous struggle for power and supremacy. The struggle itself takes place in varied forms. Since the inmates have been victims of power by the judicial system and its total authoritarian regime of imprisonment, they tend to regard the possession of power as the highest personal value, which within itself acclaims them prestige among other prisoners whilst allowing for their regeneration of self-worth.

This inmate social structure yields much more authority over individual inmates than do the members of staff, simply because inmate groups are capable of inflicting far more physical and psychological damage on their fellow inmates than any type of punishment that staff can administer – particularly in duration. In fact, punishment by staff may have a self-defeating purpose in that it may be regarded as a further source of statues by the inmates.

**Offence Hierarchy**

The nature of the offence committed by a prisoner can either add to an inmate’s psychological state or decrease it. The reason being that, typically in prisons, there exists a social hierarchy which is determined by the type of crime that a prisoner has committed. For instance, offenders who have been convicted for either robberies or burglaries are considered to be at the top of the hierarchy, particularly if the crimes committed required a lot of skill. Whereas, at the other extreme, pedophiles are placed at the bottom of the hierarchy and are looked down upon and harassed by their fellow inmates due to the nature of the crime that they committed. (Bartol & Bartol, 1994). Therefore, the psychological effects of imprisonment would be more apparent amongst paedophiles in comparison to thieves, due to the nature of their offence.

**Physical and Psychological Victimization**
Physical victimization includes assault, homicide and homosexual rape. Physical victimization takes place due to many factors. They include inadequate supervision by staff members as well as the easy availability of deadly weapons. Furthermore the problem is exasperated by the housing of violent-prone prisoners in close proximity to relatively defenseless victims and the high levels of tension generated between the individuals (Tosh, 1982). Another form of victimization, which is more common, involves psychological victimization. It consists of verbal manipulation and other manipulations by changing their social structure or physical environment. For example a psychotic male prisoner was moved from a protected environment to one where he was easily victimized. He found a nut (as in nuts and bolts) sitting outside his cell and believed his fellow prisoners were insulting him by suggesting he is "going nuts". (Tosh, 1982:66)

There are many effects of being victimized. They include feeling helplessness and depression, physical injury, disruption of social relationships, damaged self-image, self-mutilation and suicide, psychosomatic disease, also increased difficulties in adjusting to life after release. In order to reduce the incidence of prison victimization the most promising modification involves having an increase in staff and security, adopting unit management and decrease incarceration rates (Tosh, 1982).

**Rape**

A prime example of power dynamics can be observed by the use of sex and sexual assaults within the prison environment, though it should be noted that this is only true in male prisons because such encounters within female populated facilities are for the most part, voluntary homosexual liaisons.

The penis becomes a weapon of control that provides prisoners with a means to assert themselves and show others that they are unassailable. This type of assault - though noted as being a maladaptive expression by psychologists - is the inmate’s legitimate way of expressing their manhood and brutal desire for power.

They do not see their actions as those of homosexuals because they are rarely done with the intent of sexual satisfaction. In fact, they rarely climax whilst performing these acts. The focus is simply on - who is in charge – who is doing the penetration – and ironically, who is normal.
There have been no direct studies pertaining to the long term psychological effects of prison rape – but undoubtedly some parallel can be drawn between prison rape and that which takes place within free society.

Some of the predictable psychological effects include:

- Stress
- Denial
- Nightmares and the inability to sleep
- Phobias
- Substance abuse
- Criminal activity
- And some forms of self destructive behaviour

Consider the case of Donny Donaldson, who during 1996 refused to pay the sum $10 for bail, ended up in prison for a short duration. During this time, he was pack raped by 45 inmates consecutively, and then urinated on.

This is similar to the experiences of around about 25% of all prison inmates.

Four short term effects that have been noted by prison psychologists include feelings of:

- Guilt – particularly in men who get an erection and feel as though they were active participants.
- Shame – at not being able to defend one’s self and their masculine inadequacies
- Suicidal tendencies – due to fear of continued victimization or the possibility of having contracted diseases.
- and the fear of becoming, or having become homosexual

It is important to note that prison rape is rarely ever an isolated incident, and the psychological effects are magnified with each repetition of victimization.

One of the few attempts to document such effects was known as the ‘Lockwood’ study. Its results indicated that 55% of raped prisoners experienced extreme fear, 42% felt uncontrollable angry, whilst 33% experienced extreme anxiety. Many of these same
individuals were also recorded as having undertaken self-mutilation in an attempt to look less attractive; suicide attempts, and became mental ill as a direct consequence.

**Crowding**

Crowding has arisen due to correctional institutions being forced to house far more inmates than they were designed to hold, due to the fact that prison populations are on the increase. A relationship has been found between crowding and the psychological effects of imprisonment. In 1988, Paulas completed a fifteen year study on the effects of prison crowding and discovered that increasing the number of inmates in correctional facilities significantly increased negative psychological effects, such as, stress, anxiety, tension, depression, hostility, feelings of helplessness, and emotional discomfort. (Bartol & Bartol, 1994). Crowding can also affect the psychological state of an inmate due to the fact that crowded institutions have reduced work and activity programs available for fewer inmates or for shorter time periods. Therefore, this increases the amount of time that an inmate is left with nothing to do which generates a great deal of stress and boredom. (Bartol & Bartol, 1994).

**Riots**

Prison riots are a collective attempt by inmates to seize control over part or all of a prison as a form of protest, and again try to overpower their oppressors by forcing their ways upon them. Throughout the years, the causes of riots are almost as numerous as the riots themselves, but remarkably the majority of them had the same reasoning behind them. These reasons range from inadequate and unwholesome food; overcrowding in filthy cells; racism; outside agitation; poor health care; lack of fresh air, exercise and recreation programs; cruel disciplinary actions, right through to inadequate channels for complaints to be heard.

The first of two theories for this causation is known as the conflict theory. It suggests that in prisons, as in other social settings, riots are a result of unsolved conflicts. This conflict is generated when one person wants another to exercise power in a specified manner, but the other person, for whatever reason, does not.
The second theory is that of Collective behaviour identifying casual processes in social conflict. It maintains that several necessary conditions must be present for collective action to occur. The combinations of these conditions, in sequence, increase the probability of a riot.

These six conditions are

- structural conduciveness,
- strain or tension,
- growth and the spread of a generalized belief,
- precipitation factors,
- mobilisation and organisation for action,
- And finally, operation of mechanisms for social control.

In having these social conflicts develop into riots, inmates accomplish at least three essential psychological objectives.

- The first is a sort of outlet for expressing hostility originally generated by failure in human relations, in particular their resentment of confinement.
- Secondly, the reinforcement of a self-picture in the role of a martyred victim of superior force, with particular reference to their heroic counteractions.
- And thirdly, absolution of any personal sense of guilt or responsibility for offenses against society by emphasizing and concentrating on society’s real or fancied offenses against them.

**Prison Suicide**

The occurrence of prison suicide is evidence that prison life is stressful to many inmates. In 1981, Bartollas suggested three major reasons for prison suicide. These include inmates who: are embarrassed by the disgrace they have brought upon their families and find their guilt and debased self-esteem intolerable; find that the sense of helplessness and lack of control over their lives is intolerable; and, those who use suicidal behaviour in order to manipulate others, without the intention of actually ending their lives. (Bartol & Bartol, 1994).

**The Role of Prison Psychologists in the amelioration of the impact of imprisonment**
Psychological may play a significant role in institutional corrections, in easing the psychological effects experienced by inmates. Psychologists can recommend programs which will best match offenders to their needs. These might include substance-abuse treatment programs, development of reading and writing skills, decision-making, anger control, meaningful job training, contact with families, or sex offender treatment. Their minimum goal may be to help inmates cope with the realities of prison life. (Bartol & Bartol, 1994). However, such programs will only be beneficial if inmates enter them voluntarily and take them seriously.

**Summary**

Here, we discovered several things such as the penal institutions and their psychological implications. Various penal institutions were discussed and some special types of prisons such as juvenile, political and military prisons were succinctly opened up for analysis for knowledge sake. Also models were also used into throwing more lights to the explanations of the structures of the prison.

Post Test:

1. Mention and explain the various types of penal institutions that we have?
2. What are the psychological implications of imprisonments?
3. Explain the models of the prisons?

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Lecture Seven B

Key Psychological Impact of Imprisonment on Nigerian Political Detainees/prisoners

Introduction
This lecture opens your psyche to various Nigerian examples of Detainees and the psychological implications.

Objectives
At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. Have adequate insight to Nigerian political detainees
2. Know what psychological impacts have been implicated in such.

**Pre-test**

1. Give examples of Nigeria political detainees

Content

Political detainee and political detention are words difficult to define. Someone who is detained may be imprisoned, placed under house arrest, or in other ways have their activities curtailed. When the person is detained for political reasons, he is a political detainee. This term is not always used, and a country may choose another word rather than detainee or political prisoner, since in most cases, a person detained for political reasons is considered apolitical prisoner. Organizations like Amnesty International refer to detainees as prisoners, and countries don’t like to be called out by the organization as appearing to violate human rights in such a way.

Many political prisoners sent to prison camps for acts of dissent against the ideology or actions of their government.

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**How do political prisoners come about?**

Political prisoners are a direct result of state terror. State governments place many civilians into political prison camps as a form of collective punishment. Through imprisonment, torture, disappearance, and assassination, state governments have used these methods as a way of disciplining their political dissidents. Amnesty International, is one international organization which has been campaigning for the release of these "prisoners of conscience", whom have not created or abdicated violence.

**What makes a political prisoner?**

A person is referred to as a political prisoner if that person is:

1) Imprisoned and waiting on trial,

2) Has been convicted of actions that constitute treason/ terrorism/ espionage

3) Arrested under false charges and been denied legal action

**What is the best solution to stop state governments from inhumane treatment of more political prisoners?**

The solutions to help stop the inhumane treatment of political prisoners are:
1) To have individuals, state governments, and the international community recognize when unlawful imprisonment is happening

2) Have a set of standard for procedure of "prisoners of conscience"

3) Have international standards on treatment of political prisoners: free conscience, due process, and humane prison conditions

4) An effective foreign policy that would require all states to take some sort of economic, political, diplomatic action against the offending state.

   - Example diplomacy, sanctions, boycotts, financial lending, intervention through UN missions and peacekeeping as well as NATO and OAS, refugee policies, and democracy promotion

**What are the functions of political prison camps meant for political prisoners?**

These political prison camps are created to isolate political dissent and to make other civilians in that state afraid to increase dissent. These camps are also there to dehumanize the victims, in other words, to punish them and break them. As an attack on human dignity and identity, the prison camps will change the nature of society. These prison camps are also used as labor camps. These prisoners are forced into hard labor under extreme stress, for the extraction of resources and the exportation of goods for trade. Countries such as North Korea, the most totalitarian government in the international community, has even used these political prison camps as a means of biological and chemical testing on its prisoners.

**The Nigerian case studies:**

Released political detainees recount their experiences during detention and their own reactions to the ill treatments. These range from succour in God to regressing to childhood behaviors. According to Mr. George Mbah, Tell’s senior assistant editor who was detained for three years recounts his ordeal during incarceration. He stated that throughout the three years he was detained, he was not granted any access to books.

When he arrived at the prison in Benin, all the books with him were collected, he was given the Bible to read, he later asked for a copy of the Koran which was later taken away and was left with nothing to read for 8 months. THIS is an example of loss of control because he was denied of a basic right of reading which he likes.

He stated that throughout 1996 he was ill and no doctor came to see him, he was given some tablets every two or three weeks which is another form of loss of control because he had no
freedom of choice. He also stated that he was not able to eat the prison food provided which was 'Tuwo' (corn porridge). He also recalled that he was put in solitary confinement, which is a big room with bug infested mattress with no bed sheet or blanket.

This is an example of lack of stimulation because there was nobody to interact with; he just slept, woke up and remained idle. Life was very boring and monotonous to him. He broke down after he was sent to life imprisonment and taken back to his cell because he could not understand what was going on he was not granted permission to seek medical attention when he broke his wisdom tooth. A dentist eventually attended to him and recommended some drugs and tooth extraction, though the tooth extraction did not eventually take place.

Mr Kunle Ajibade, editor of the News who spent three years in incarceration also recounts his ordeal after he was released. He said that there is nothing compared to freedom because while he was in prison he was denied some basic needs because the officials said that there is instruction from above that he should be denied certain things. He said that he was kept in a prison in Makurdi, which is a mosquito-infested place with no mosquito nets. He was always going for injection at the end of every month, which can have resultant side effect on his system. He also said that the feeding was poor; basically the same diet of carbohydrates was served three times a day.

He stated that people were dying all around him due to the poor nutrition that made him to feel unsafe and dehumanized. He also stated that there was no medical doctor until 1997 after Yar'Adua's death. In order to survive the solitary confinement, he said he read extensively after so many hassles before his books were returned to him.

He also experienced the loss of family because his wife delivered a child while he was in prison and the child was brought to him only four months later.

He was however very happy when he saw his son for the first time. He felt relieved because his wife was able to deliver safely. When he was earlier arrested he was put in a cell with no light, no bed to sleep on and they were given swan water bottle for urination which had to be discarded through the window. The condition was very poor that he collapsed and was taken to the military hospital for treatment.

Mr. Ben Charles Obi, the editor of defunct Classique Magazine said that he was shocked that the Nigerian military had lost touch with reality, that they had deviated from civilized standards and that it had degenerated into a worthless institution.
On arrest, he was interviewed and left in a room, which had no bed to sleep on and he was kept there for 5 days after which he was moved to Defence Military Intelligence (DMI) headquarters where he shared a cell with another detainee. He stated that they tried to discourage them from interacting with each other, though they found a way of having useful discussion, he stated that they were later transferred to a cell in a small bush in Apapa, a four feet by four feet room, completely dark without ventilation, and that they were not allowed any sunlight when they were put in solitary confinement for about two months, where they were devoured by mosquitoes. They were fed with N20.00 per day and narrowly missed death. He also confessed that he became a born again when he was in detention. Initially the members of his family were not allowed to see him, but later he was granted permission to be visited by two people each month. He recounted that he was not provided with the opportunity to discuss freely with them; because the visits were restricted to between 0-15 minutes to anytime they were around. He remarked that there is nothing to be equated with freedom because the imprisonment affected his plans.

He concluded by saying that he needed time to relax, check himself over medically before re-Launching himself to the realities of societal life.

Chief M.K. 0. Abiola in his last prison notes exhibited clearly the impact of imprisonment in his discussion with the United Nations (UN) Secretary General, Kofi Annan. It will be recalled that Chief M.K.0. Abiola was the acclaimed winner of the 1993 Nigerian Presidential Election.

When Mr. Kofi Annan introduced himself as the UN General Secretary, Chief Abiola asked about Boutrous Ghali who had retired 18 months before the discussion, thus reflecting his loss of communication with the outside world because of the four years of solidarity confinement. He was forbidden to listen to radio or read newspapers and magazines. He said that "He had literally been buried alive".

He informed Kofi Annan that he had suffered greatly in solitary confinement; he complained of suffering from diarrhea for six months and was not allowed to receive adequate medical attention. His skin had yellow patches perhaps, a reaction of his being kept away from sunlight for many years. He also showed the UN Secretary General a lump on his buttocks, which had been causing him excruciating pain and headaches for a long time. He had not been allowed to see his personal physician for almost 36 months. He later wrote that on
release he would have to take time to check his health, rebuild his family cohesion which had become tattered by the events of the past five years and breathe life into his business empire.

This dream was not realized because he died in detention. The cause of death was claimed to be "cardiac arrest" though his doctor said was as a result of poor medical attention for a long time.

Source: Content analysis of a widely read national magazine, **TELL**, July-December 1998.

Post-Test:

1. Define Political Detainees
2. Explain the Nigerian experience of unjust detains, do they have impact?

References:

Wisegeek by Tricia Ellis-Christensen
http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_prisoners

UC Irvine Class on International Human Rights: taught by Professor Alison Brysk

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**Lecture Eight**

**Application of Criminal Justice Psychology to Victims**

**Introduction**

This lecture opens your mind to the meanings and application of criminal justice psychology to victims.

**Objectives**

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to
1. Know how psychology is useful in criminal justice system and psychological aiding of the victim.

**Pre-test**

1. Outline the role of criminal justice Psychologist in the management of the impact of crime on the victims?
2. Where can criminal Justice psychologists be found?

**Contents:**

This aspect of application of psychology is fairly recent and research has typically focused on victims of violence such as; murder (Wolfgang, 1957), rape (Bard, 1976; Toch (1969) and terrorism and hostage-taking. Forensic psychologists have carried out assessment of crime victims in conjunction with civil suits to know the residual impairment to the victim and the psychological distress suffered. This assessment is undertaken with the hope of assessing compensatory and punitive damages.

In cases of neurological damage, psychologists can help establish the extent of permanent impairment and translate this into estimate of reduced educational and vocational opportunities. Rape victims and their family have also been assisted through psychological testimony in court.

Psychological autopsies have also been undertaken with the view of helping law enforcement officials discriminate suicide from homicide victims (Shneidman, 1969). Psychologists have begun research aimed at determining what victims should do when they are involved in a crime and this has some implication for crime prevention.

Psychologists have organized programmes of crime prevention that educate potential victims to avoid crime by locking their homes and cars, and retraining from hitchhiking. Brodsky (1976) designed basic strategies that had been found to be successful with women and designing these were suggested for training purposes to aid resisting rape.

**What is Victim Blaming?**

Victim blaming is a devaluing act that occurs when the victim(s) of a crime or an accident is held responsible — in whole or in part — for the crimes that have been committed against
them. This blame can appear in the form of negative social responses from legal, medical, and mental health professionals, as well as from the media and immediate family members and other acquaintances.

Some victims of crime receive more sympathy from society than others. Often, the responses toward crime victims are based on the misunderstanding of others. This misunderstanding may lead them to believe that the victim deserved what happened to them, or that they are individuals with low self-esteem who seek out violence. As a result, it can be very difficult for victims to cope when they are blamed for what has happened to them.

**Why Do People Blame Victims?**

There are a number of reasons why people choose to blame victims for the crimes that have happened to them. These reasons stem from misconceptions about victims, perpetrators, and the nature of violent acts. Victims are sometimes wrongfully portrayed as passive individuals who seek out and submit to the violence they endure. Offenders are seen as hapless individuals who are compelled to act violently by forces they cannot control. The most popular reasons for blaming victims include belief in a just world, attribution error, and invulnerability theory:

**Just World Hypothesis:**

The just world hypothesis is based on an individual’s belief that the world is a safe, just place where people get what they deserve. These individuals believe that the social system that affects them is fair, legitimate, and justifiable. Such strong beliefs in individuals can be challenged when they encounter victims of random misfortune, such as violent crimes. The perception of these individuals is that good things happen to good people, and bad things to bad people. Therefore, when people with these beliefs view victims they believe that their victimization was caused through some fault of their own. In this way, one who believes in a just world maintains their belief because there is not an innocent, suffering victim, but someone who “deserves” their misfortune. Blaming the victim maintains beliefs of personal responsibility and controllability over social outcomes. Moreover, this hypothesis presents the world as a safe and protected place, even when in the face of hardship.

Proponents of the just world hypothesis judge the harshness of events as a function of harm caused. Thus, if a victim is not harmed in a severe manner, then what happened to them can be seen as an accident. However, as the severity of harm increases, believers begin to think
that ‘this could happen to me.’ Therefore, a way for these individuals to cope and restore their faith in the world is to blame victims for their misfortunes.

**Attribution Error:**

According to Kelly and Heider, there are two categories of attribution: internal and external. Individuals make internal attributions when they recognize that a person’s personal characteristics are the cause of their actions or situation. External attributions, however, have individuals identify the environment and circumstances as the cause for a person’s behaviour. Attribution error occurs when individuals overemphasize personal characteristics and devalue environmental characteristics when judging others, resulting in victim blaming. People who make this error view the individual victim as partially responsible for what happened to them and ignore situational causes. So-called “internal failings” take precedent over situational contributors in judgment of the subject. On the contrary, these people may have the propensity to attribute their own failures to environmental attributes, and their own successes to personal attributes.

**Invulnerability Theory:**

Literature on Invulnerability Theory claims that those who subscribe to the theory blame victims as a means to protect their own feelings of invulnerability. The Invulnerability Theory is based on subscribers blaming the victim in order to feel safe themselves. Even friends and family members of crime victims may blame the victim in order to reassure themselves.

A common statement would be:

“*She was raped because she walked home alone in the dark. I would never do that, so I won’t be raped.*”

The theory states that victims are a reminder of our own vulnerability. Individuals do not want to consider the possibility of losing control over their life or body; by deciding that a victim brought on the attack themselves, they create a false sense of security. This reassures people that as long as they do not act as the victim did at the time of their attack, they will be invulnerable.

**VIOLENT CRIMES IN WHICH VICTIMS ARE BLAMED**
**Violence against Women**

In cases of intimate partner violence where females are abused by male perpetrators, women are often blamed for the actions of their abusive male partner. Male offenders often use external attributions to justify their abusive behaviour. They may blame their partner or claim that they deserved the abuse because of their offensive personality. Male offenders may also attribute their behaviour to occupational stress or substance abuse, without taking ownership of their actions.

These characteristics all work to minimize a perpetrator’s culpability for abusive actions. Further, it is also common for women to be blamed for being masochistic, withholding, asking for it, or deserving it. Questions, such as “why didn’t she just leave?” are common, and reinforce the notion that a woman likes to be abused and therefore stays in the relationship. These are devaluing actions that remove the responsibility from the offender. Blaming the victim releases the man who commits the violence from the responsibility for what he has done.

**Sexual Assault**

The most obvious manifestations of victim blaming appear in sexual assault cases. Adult female victims of sexual assault are often blamed for being provocative, seductive, suggestive, teasing, or “asking for it”. Before 1992, when there was a case of sexual harassment or rape before the court, the victim’s dress, lifestyle, and sexual background was likely a more important factor than the incident that had occurred. The role of the victim became the role of the accused. The introduction of rape shield laws in 1992 in Canada gave victims protection during rape trials. Rape shield laws do not allow the defence to ask victims questions regarding their sexual history, thus diminishing the likelihood of discrediting the victim.

In contrast, male perpetrators in this myth are seen as helpless, sexually-frustrated beings, responding to sexually-provocative women. There have been cases in which not guilty verdicts have been returned on the basis that the female victims somehow precipitated their own rape. These myths are especially prominent in acquaintance rape cases. Acquaintance rape victims are more often blamed than stranger rape victims. This is reflective of the mistaken traditional belief that sexual assault can only involve strangers.
There can also be an attribution error: female reactions to trauma and their behaviour are often pathologized by family members, friends, criminal justice personnel, and professionals alike. There is a myth supported by some that women tend to exaggerate their symptoms.

**Sex trade workers**

Are some victims’ lives worth less? Are some victims seen as expendable? The whore stigma — or the idea that women labelled as whores are somehow disposable or less human — is common: “those whores got what they deserved”. As a society we consistently demean any woman considered to be sexually deviant or promiscuous. Many people deem those who work in the sex trade as “throw-aways”. They may not care when these women suddenly go missing, or are abused, or murdered. The demeaning behaviour towards sex trade workers can have a very negative impact on the parents who have children involved in the sex trade. These parents do not agree with society that their child is a “whore” or that they “got what they deserve” because they obviously do not see them in this manner. Society, however, blames these victims for their victimization. Instead of recognizing sex trade workers as being particularly vulnerable, society blames them for choosing a dangerous lifestyle.

**Homicide**

Losing a loved one through an act of violence can be devastating for a family. No one can ever be prepared for such a loss, and no amount of counselling, prayer, justice, restitution or compassion can ever bring a loved one back. The survivors’ world is abruptly and forever changed. The awareness that your loved one’s dreams will never be realized hits. Life can suddenly lose meaning, and many survivors report that they cannot imagine ever being happy again.

Further, victims of homicide are often undervalued because of the apparent or real blame that is attributed to them. Friends and family may question the victim’s lifestyle, wondering how they knew the murderer. They might make comments, such as “he was in the wrong place at the wrong time,” when this is simply not true.

Questioning the innocence of the victim is very hurtful to surviving family members.

**Effects of Victim Blaming**
Victim blaming can have many negative and devastating effects on the innocent victims, who have been deemed at fault even though they bear no responsibility for the crime which has been committed against them.

One effect of victim blaming is the subsequent effect it has on the reporting of further crime. Victims who receive negative responses and blame tend to experience greater distress and are less likely to report future abuse. Victims who have been blamed prefer to avoid secondary victimization in the future, so they do not report further crime.

Victim Blaming, along with effecting a victim’s decision to report crime, can also impact on a confidante’s willingness to support a victim’s decision, a witnesses’ willingness to testify, authorities’ commitment in pursuing cases and prosecuting offenders, a jury’s decision to convict, a prosecutor’s decision to recommend incarceration and a judge’s decision to impose incarceration.

The Media and Socially Marginalized People

Why is there outcry over certain missing persons and not others? The criminal justice system’s response can be very hurtful to families, such as in the case of Maisy Odjick, 17, and Shannon Alexander, 18, who went missing from their Aboriginal community near Ottawa on Sept. 5, 2008. The Quebec province Victim blaming in the media can have numerous negative effects on crime victims.

For one, the media can be callous and insensitive when discussing what happened to the victim. They may paint the victim in a negative light by saying they somehow deserved what happened to them, or perhaps that they were not really the victim but the offender.

Victim blaming effectively states that a victim deserved the crime that they endured. Crime is often about violence, power, and control; it needs to be clear that no one deserves it. Most importantly, the victim blame approach is neither effective in resolving problems of violence, nor in protecting the victim from further victimization, nor in protecting future generations from continuing the cycle of abuse.

Therefore, it is important that we shift the focus of our blame from the victim of the crime to the perpetrator, in order to ensure that the offender takes responsibility for the crime that they have committed. One way of assuring that an offender is held accountable for their actions is to have a community response. This can occur through the police, courts, schools, clergy,
health care providers, and social service agencies. The justice system and social agencies need to work together in order to promote offender accountability, while at the same time helping victims of violence to recover from what has happened to them.

Victims have been referred to as the “forgotten party” in the criminal justice system (Viano, 1978). Studies have repeatedly shown that victims seek recognition and want to be included in the criminal justice system (Baril, Durand, Cousineau, & Gravel, 1983; Kelly & Erez, 1997; Shapland, Willmore, & Duff, 1985; Wemmers, 1996). Excluded from any formal role in the proceedings other than that of witness, victims are often left feeling frustrated with the criminal justice system and do not sense that justice has been done.

**Summary**

Here, we discovered how criminal justice psychologists are involved in helping the victims. The definition of the victims was also discussed. Also we discovered how psychology is applied to criminal justice.

Post Test:

1. Define the following:
   a. Victims
   b. criminal justice and victim’s profiling

2. How can criminal justice psychology be applied to aid victim?

References:

Read more: Definition of Psychology in Criminal Justice | eHow.com
Lecture Nine:

Crime Prevention

Introduction
This lecture opens your mind to crime preventions and control.

Objectives
At the end of this lecture, you should be able to
1. Know what crime is, its prevention and control.
2. Also know the importance in crime regulation system.

Pre-test
1. What do you understand by crime control?
2. Do you think there is any difference between crime prevention and crime control?
Crime prevention has been defined as “a pattern of attitude and behaviours directed both at reducing the threat of crime and enhancing the sense of safety and security to positively influence the quality of life and to develop environments where crime cannot flourish.” In another definition, it is defined as “the anticipation, recognition, and appraisal of a crime risk and the initiation of some action to remove or reduce it.”

To anticipate crime risk is to foresee the patterns or trends of crime in a particular area or time, most probably based on reports; to recognize a crime risk is to identify it through a systematic means of collecting and analyzing data to enable the policy determine what, when, how, where, by whom, and why criminal activity is taking place; to appraise the crime risk is to assess or evaluate it in terms of danger to the community, and such appraisal will rely heavily on data; to initiate an action is to introduce it and in this context, action means response to the crime problem, which requires both factual and strategic action by developing a plan, which could be short, medium or long-term; and finally, to remove or reduce the crime risk is the implementation phase and produces the end results.

Crime prevention is the attempt to reduce victimization and to deter crime and criminals. It is applied specifically to efforts made by governments to reduce crime, enforce the law, and maintain criminal justice. Prevention as the basis of policing was first formulated in England with the passage of the Metropolitan Police Act of 1829. Crime prevention was the ultimate goal of the organized police force, before it was later overshadowed by emphasis on investigation, arrest and punishment. The idea of crime prevention assumed importance again in the early 1970’s. The Virginia Crime Prevention Association identified three types of prevention as indicated in Table 5.2, thus: punitive, corrective and mechanical or organized.

Crime prevention approaches have developed out of different traditions across the world. In the United States, for example, criminologists have drawn largely from public health models of disease prevention to create their own crime prevention typology. There is the primary crime prevention which attempts to change environmental conditions that provide opportunities for or precipitate the occurrence of criminal acts; next, there is the secondary crime prevention which involves engagement in early identification of potential offenders by seeking to intervene to prevent criminal behaviour from developing. The third
involve the tertiary crime prevention measures dealing with actual offenders and interventions aimed at preventing further criminal acts.

Criminologists such as Gottfredson, McKenzie, Eck, Farrington, Sherman, Waller and others have been at the forefront of analyzing what works to prevent crime. Prestigious commissions and research bodies, such as the World Health Organization, United Nations, the United States National Research Council, the UK Audit Commission and so on, have analyzed their and others' research on what lowers rates of interpersonal crime. They agree that governments must go beyond law enforcement and criminal justice to tackle the risk factors that cause crime because it is more cost effective and leads to greater social benefits than the standard ways of responding to crime. Interestingly, multiple opinion polls also confirm public support for investment in prevention. Waller uses these materials in *Less Law, More Order* to propose specific measures to reduce crime as well as a crime bill.

Some of the highlights of these authorities are set out below with some sources for further reading. The *World Health Organization Guide* (2004) complements the *World Report on Violence and Health* (2002) and the 2003 *World Health Assembly Resolution 56-24* for governments to implement nine recommendations, which were:

1. Create, implement and monitor a national action plan for violence prevention.
2. Enhance capacity for collecting data on violence.
3. Define priorities for, and support research on, the causes, consequences, costs and prevention of violence.
5. Strengthen responses for victims of violence.
6. Integrate violence prevention into social and educational policies, and thereby promote gender and social equality.
7. Increase collaboration and exchange of information on violence prevention.
8. Promote and monitor adherence to international treaties, laws and other mechanisms to protect human rights.
9. Seek practical, internationally agreed responses to the global drugs and global arms trade.

The authoritative commissions agree on the Role of Municipalities, because they are best able to organize the strategies to tackle the risk factors that cause crime. The European Forum for Urban Safety and the United States Conference of Mayors have stressed that municipalities
must target the programs to meet the needs of youth at risk and women who are vulnerable to violence.

To succeed, they need to establish a coalition of key agencies such as schools, job creation, social services, housing and law enforcement around a diagnosis.

Types

Elements Necessary for a Crime to Occur

1. **Desire** or motivation on the part of the criminal
2. The **skills** and tools needed to commit the crime
3. **Opportunity**

Primary prevention address individual and family level factors correlated with later criminal participation. Individual level factors such as attachment to school and involvement in prosocial activities decrease the probability of criminal involvement. Family level factors such as consistent parenting skills similarly reduce individual level risk. Risk factors are additive in nature. The greater the numbers of risk factors present the greater the risk of criminal involvement. In addition there are initiatives which seek to alter rates of crime at the community or aggregate level.

For example, Larry Sherman from the University of Maryland in Policing Domestic Violence (1993) demonstrated that changing the policy of police response to domestic violence calls altered the probability of subsequent violence. Policing hot spots, areas of known criminal activity, decreases the number of criminal events reported to the police in those areas. Other initiatives include community policing efforts to capture known criminals. Organizations such as America's Most Wanted and Crime Stoppers these help catch the criminals.

Secondary prevention uses techniques focusing on at risk situations such as youth who are dropping out of school or getting involved in gangs. It targets social programs and law enforcement at neighbourhoods where crime rates are high. The use of secondary crime prevention in cities such as Birmingham and Bogotá has achieved large reductions in crime and violence. Programs that are focused on youth at risk have been shown to significantly reduce crime.

Tertiary prevention is used after a crime has occurred in order to prevent successive incidents. Such measures can be seen in the implementation of new security policies following acts of terrorism such the September 11, 2001 attacks.
Situational crime prevention uses techniques focusing on reducing the opportunity to commit a crime. Some of techniques include increasing the difficulty of crime, increasing the risk of crime, and reducing the rewards of crime.

Crime education

By educating the community on crime prevention techniques and by getting citizens involved in crime prevention activities such as neighbourhood watch; we can reduce the number of crimes in San Diego and increase the quality of life for its citizens. The San Diego Police Department is committed to working in a problem-solving partnership with individuals, community groups, and businesses to fight crime and improve the quality of life for the people of San Diego. However, we cannot succeed on the efforts of the police alone. The community also has responsibilities to fulfill. The following topics include information about what citizens can do to improve the quality of life in their communities.

**Types of Crime Prevention**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prevention Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Punitive</td>
<td>An attempt by law enforcement to forestall crime through the threat of apprehension and punishment. It is manifested by the enactment of tougher laws, longer sentence, and preventive patrol. The fear of getting caught has a deterrent effect, especially among the population that has the tendency to be law-abiding.</td>
<td>The critique of the punitive prevention model is that individuals intent on committing crime seldom believe they will be caught.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrective</td>
<td>A basic premise of corrective crime prevention is that criminal behaviour is caused by various conditions such as</td>
<td>A critique of this theory points to the fact that there is no consensus as to the causes of crime. The conditions that are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mechanical (Organized)</strong></td>
<td>The mechanical type involves the need for law enforcement, other government agencies, and the community, to initiate an organized process for reducing or removing the opportunity for crime through data collection and analysis; the accurate identification of problems by a number of factors; development of crime control objectives and strategies; and implementation of the strategies.</td>
<td>Organized crime prevention is the basis for the modern concept of crime prevention. It is embodied in the community policing and problem oriented policing concepts. It clearly recognizes that the control of crime and associated problems is beyond the capability of law enforcement alone.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Virginia Crime Prevention Association

Table 5.4: Models of Crime Prevention
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Concept</th>
<th>Crime Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main Strategy</td>
<td>opportunity Reduction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main Crime Focus</td>
<td>Conventional “STREET” Crime</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concept of Criminality</td>
<td>Rational Choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime Response</td>
<td>Protection, Surveillance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role of Community</td>
<td>Auxiliary to Police</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limitations</td>
<td>Based on Social Exclusion, Narrow Definition of Crime</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Liberal Model of Crime Prevention**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Concept</th>
<th>Social Problem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main Strategy</td>
<td>opportunity Enhancement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main Crime Focus</td>
<td>Conventional “STREET” Crime</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concept of Criminality</td>
<td>Individual or Social Pathology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime Response</td>
<td>Correct Deficits, Improve opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role of Community</td>
<td>Self-help, Community Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limitations</td>
<td>based on Limited Resources, Narrow Definition of Crime</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Radical Model of Crime Prevention**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Concept</th>
<th>Social Justice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main Strategy</td>
<td>Political Struggle</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main Crime Focus</th>
<th>Crimes of the Powerful, Conventional</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“STREET” Crime</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concept of Criminality</td>
<td>Marginalisation, Social Alienation,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Market Competition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime Response</td>
<td>Social Empowerment,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role of Community</td>
<td>Reduce Inequality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limitations</td>
<td>Social Change Agents</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on Shared Consciousness/Solidarity, Wide Definition of Crime


Table 5.4 represents “ideal types” abstract models designed by While to appreciate the different conceptions of crime prevention in terms of the organizational and philosophical objects. The models have been designed to reflect the major political divisions within criminological theory. Each model identified strategies of intervention; dominant conception of crime the role of the community as part of the crime prevention effort, and relationship to law-and-order strategies. Overall, the models are concentrated mainly on those community-based strategies that attempt to stop criminal behaviour before it occurs. According to While, the models exhibit the following advantages:

(a) The usefulness of the models is based on the fact that they reflect broad tendencies at the practical and policy level, and they alert us to significant strengths and weaknesses of existing strategies.

(b) The models highlight the political differences within criminology. In other words, they have been devised to reflect the major political divisions within criminological theory.

(c) The models can be used ideologically to create boundaries between and around particular intervention techniques and philosophical legitimacies.
1. What are the models of crime control?
2. What are the elements to crime occurrence?

References:
- International Centre for Prevention of Crime, *Urban Crime Prevention and Youth at Risk: Compendium of promising strategies and programs from around the world*, Montreal, 2005
Lecture Ten

Forensic assessment

Introduction
This lecture is about forensic assessment. You are going to be told what assessment is and why we do forensic assessment.

Objectives
At the end of this lecture, you should be able to
1. Know what forensic assessment is all about.

Pre-test
1. Why do we do assessments in forensic practise?
2. Create a link between clinical assessment and forensic assessment?

CONTENT
The essence of any assessments is for the evaluation of a patient's physical condition and prognosis based on information gathered from physical and laboratory examinations and the patient's medical history (Mosby’s Medical Dictionary, 8th edition. © 2009, Elsevier).

Sometimes, clinical assessment could be referred to as a health assessment, is a documented process that is used to evaluate, diagnose, and treat individuals. Results obtained from such interview can be used to improve the health and productivity of the individuals being assessed. Results obtained take into account the individual that is being evaluated, rather than evaluating individuals based on data that is compiled from multiple sources. For instance, when you assess the level of intelligence or intellectual functions of a child, one can adequately use information obtained for treatment. Therefore forensic assessments techniques are listed below:

**Testing**

Testing must always be relevant to the issue being evaluated. If there are appropriate forensic assessment instruments that have been developed for the specific purpose of the evaluation, it is considered reasonable and in good practice to use these. The evaluator may choose to administer additional psychological tests as per the specifics of the particular case.

**Collateral Information**

This is probably the most important component of the forensic evaluation. It is necessary to be skeptical of everything that is self-reported by the evaluatee in a forensic context. This includes being skeptical of self-report measures. It is best to always act conservatively when considering information. For example, if the evaluatee reports having committed crimes that do not appear on his or her criminal record, go with the self-report. If the evaluatee denies committing crimes that appear on his or her criminal record, go with the criminal record. As a general rule, go with the more conservative report (whether it is self-report or documentation). Collateral information may be collected from any number of sources and will depend upon the particulars of a specific case. Some examples of sources of collateral information include:
-Family members -spouse and/or children

-Correctional officers -parole/probation officers

-people who have had contact with the evaluatee

-People who have treated the evaluatee -files/reports from treatment professionals or programs -files/reports from medical/psychiatric/correctional institutions

**The Forensic Evaluation: Report**

The report will be closely based on the evaluation. The key is to summarize relevant information without disclosing too much information about issues that are not specific to the legal inquiry at hand. The report (as with all written information) should always be written as if you have opposing counsel sitting on your shoulder. The reports should document all the information (both file and collateral interviews and reports) used for the evaluation. It should include the dates of contact between the evaluator and the evaluatee as well as any other contacts that were included as part of the evaluation.; It is good practice to cite scientific/empirical research in your report to back up information and conclusions (e.g., testing, opinion, conclusions); It is very important to provide a basis for your opinions. That is, the report should document how you arrived at the opinion/conclusion that you did. Observations and other relevant information should be documented in the report and used to back up your opinions/conclusions.

This may include any or all of the following, depending upon the type of evaluation being conducted:

-crime/police reports -previous psychiatric history reports/records

-Jail records -psychiatric institution records

-School records -previous criminal and juvenile court records

-Prison records -treatment records
Interview

The interview may cover any or all of the following areas, depending upon the type of evaluation.

- Family history & current
- Residential history & current
- Educational history & current
- Recreation and leisure activities
- Employment history & current
- Military service & current
- Relationship history & current
- Children
- Sexual history
- Current and past legal history
- Drug/alcohol use history & current
- Health history & current
- Psychiatric history & current

Other Issues in Criminal Forensic Assessment:

Test Integrity

Personal Notes

Specifically, attorneys should consider referring their clients for testing when:

Case I: Sexual Harassment

A client complains of emotional trauma following alleged sexual harassment at work. She reports feeling frightened, angry, and ashamed. By adding psycho diagnostic testing to the standard assessment, the attorney should have an objective expert who can testify about the severity of the trauma, any psychological factors that predated the harassment, and the prognosis for a return to the client's emotional baseline.

CASE II: The Seniors client who wants to change her will

The older client who appears confused and to seems to have a poor memory could be suffering from a variety of illnesses, including Alzheimer's or multi-infarct dementia, Pick's
disease, alcohol dependence, depression (the "pseudo-dementia"), delirium, or emotional trauma. Psychological testing can evaluate her ability to make informed decisions and can determine whether she is legally competent to make changes in her will. Attorneys who use psychological testing can distinguish themselves by working effectively with this difficult and growing population.

**CASE III: The "stressed-out" adult who has been denied disability coverage by his insurance company**

This adult client has been experiencing work difficulties, problems in his relationships, insomnia, and many vague physical symptoms, and wants to take sick leave from work. However, his employer's EAP deems him fit to work and denies him stress leave. An assessment that includes psychological testing would enable the attorney to distinguish between depression, stress, malingering, and drug or alcohol abuse and facilitate well-informed advocacy for sick leave.

**CASE IV: The client who is fired for alleged substance abuse**

Clients with substance abuse problems are difficult to assess objectively in the office because they often minimize their drinking or drug use. Equally, certain types of people may be wrongfully accused of drug or alcohol abuse. Substance abuse assessments are a standard feature of psychological testing.

**Case V: The "Bad Kid"**

The adolescent who suddenly starts doing badly in school and has angry outbursts has his first brush with the law. Psychological testing can distinguish between adolescent depression (a leading cause of teen suicides), normal adolescence, drug abuse, child abuse, and the development of antisocial or other personality disorders. This knowledge is essential in developing sentencing or treatment recommendations.

**CASE IV: The client who has suffered psychological distress as a result of physical injury**

These clients are often seen by their physicians as "psychosomatic" and receive non-definitive medical work-ups, need psychological testing to assess the presence of...
psychological symptoms related to physical injuries. Testing also helps clients rebut accusations of malingering or personality disorders.

CASE VI: The drug addicted mother who wants treatment and reunification services

The client who requires legal assistance to obtain services for herself and her child would benefit from psychological testing to diagnose any underlying psychiatric disorders, and to assess the severity of drug addiction and the potential for rehabilitation.

CASE VII: The refugee who has been a victim of torture

Refugees basing their immigration case on allegations of torture and fearing further harm should they return home, benefit greatly from psychological assessments. Psychological testing points not only to the presence or absence of the psychological consequences of torture, but also grades the severity of the client's condition.

CASE VIII: Custody disputes and allegations of child abuse in divorce settlements

Attorneys who use experienced psychologists with expertise in child assessment are able to offer their clients the best assessment of their child's needs and are able to evaluate accusations of child abuse. They can provide the court with expert recommendations for child placement and opinions about visitation issues.

CASE IX: The client whose violence potential needs to be assessed

In sentencing phases, psychological testing, including such measures as the revised Hare Psychopathy Checklist, provides standardized and objective measures of a client's potential for violence.

CASE X: The client who is claims that "homosexual panic" caused him to assault a gay man

Psychological testing can assess the underlying psychodynamics and personality of clients who commit violent crimes. The attorney who uses expert psycho diagnostic testing can provide the court with standardized measures that distinguish between anti-social personality traits, impulse disorders, and gender dysphoria syndromes.
CASE XI: The confused senior whose family wants to place him in a nursing home

This is the increasingly common seniors’ client who denies symptoms of dementia, but whose family is convinced that he can no longer live alone. Neuropsychological testing measures the patient’s strengths and weaknesses, levels of impairment, and specific cognitive deficits. This information is crucial in assisting attorneys to make accurate recommendations about conservatorship and competency issues.

**When used judiciously**, psychological tests have high levels of diagnostic accuracy. For example, the reliability of the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale, which measures cognitive abilities and determines intelligence quotients, ranges from an impressive .93 to .97. The Halstead Reitan Neuropsychological Battery can identify brain damaged from non-brain-damaged controls beyond the .001 level of significance. Additionally, tests such as the Bender Gestalt and the Trail Making Test accurately predict the extent to which patients with head trauma may function independently. Accuracy is enhanced when the psychologist develops the appropriate battery of tests to answer specific diagnostic and personality questions.

**Ethical implications**

A forensic psychologist generally practices within the confines of the courtroom, incarceration facilities, and other legal setting. It is important to remember that the forensic psychologist is equally likely to be testifying for the prosecution as for the defense attorney. A forensic psychologist does not take a side, as do the psychologists described below. The ethical standards for a forensic psychologist differ from those of a clinical psychologist or other practicing psychologist because the forensic psychologist is not an advocate for the client and nothing the client says is guaranteed to be kept confidential. This makes evaluation of the client difficult, as the forensic psychologist needs and wants to obtain all information while it is often not in the client's best interest to provide it. The client has no control over how that information is used. Despite the signing of a waiver of confidentiality, most clients do not realize the nature of the evaluative situation. Furthermore, the interview techniques differ from those typical of a clinical psychologist and require an understanding of the criminal mind and criminal and violent behavior. For example, even indicating to a defendant being interviewed that an effort will be made to get the defendant professional help may be grounds for excluding the expert's testimony.
In addition, the forensic psychologist deals with a range of clients unlike those of the average practicing psychologist. Because the client base is by and large criminal, the forensic psychologist is immersed in an abnormal world. As such, the population evaluated by the forensic psychologist is heavily weighted with specific personality disorders.

The typical grounds for malpractice suits also apply to the forensic psychologist, such as wrongful commitment, inadequate informed consent, duty and breach of duty, and standards of care issues. Some situations are clearer cut for the forensic psychologist. The duty to warn, which is mandated by many states, is generally not a problem because the client or defendant has already signed a release of information, unless the victim is not clearly identified and the issue of the identity of the victim arises. However, in general the forensic psychologist is less likely to encounter malpractice suits than a clinical psychologist. The forensic psychologist does have some additional professional liability issues. As mentioned above, confidentiality in a forensic setting is more complicated that in a clinical setting as the client or defendant is apt to misinterpret the limits of confidentiality despite being warned and signing a release.

Summary

In the lecture, assessment was discussed. It was seen as a practice that is necessary so as to discover exactly what a client problem is, without which treatment is not possible. Methods of assessments includes: interviewing, case study, psychiatric history, questionnaires e.tc therefore students should take cognizance of this

Post-test:

1. Imagine a scenario of a kleptomaniac and state what is needed to be done as an assessor.
2. What are the ethical issues in forensic assessments?
Forensic Assessment Report Template

NAME OF HOSPITAL/ FORENSIC FACILITY

Drug & Alcohol Assessment

On

D.O.B:

NAME OF WARD OR UNIT

FACILITY

by

Psychologist

DATE

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NAME:

DATE OF BIRTH:

CURRENT LOCATION
MHA SECTION:

DATE OF ADMISSION:

GENDER:

DATE OF ASSESSMENT:

INTRODUCTION

STATE WHEN THE client was admitted and why or why the client is in the forensic setting and generally provide the introduction about the client.

REASON FOR REFERAL

Why is the client referred and what is the purpose of assessment?

SOURCES OF INFORMATION:

The following could serve as a guide for sources as examples:

(a) Interview with the patient.

(b) Medical Hospital records.

(c) Psychiatric report for Mental Health Review Tribunal

(d) Nursing Report

PERSONAL HISTORY (From the Hospital records)

Personal history could include the following information:

Where a client was born, are the parents married/ living together and family history of any illness/ forensic history of parents,

Early development/ behavioural problems at school

Employment history, sexual relationships and one long-term sexual relationship.
No of children and their ages including where they are whether they are living with the client or not should be included.

Other relationships relationship including vulnerability of partners and spouses in the relationships

CRIMINAL HISTORY (From the Hospital/ Criminal Justice Records)

Offence history and what it could be related to and no of convictions/ arrest record, Nature of Admission in mental health cases, which section of the mental health act was the client sentenced, any previous conditional discharge by the Home Office?

Any long-standing history of mental health problems which may have had any effect on the client’s psychological state e.g., self-esteem issues?

PREVIOUS PSYCHOLOGIST INVOLVEMENT

Initial psychological involvement in previous forensic/ mental health settings

CURRENT PSYCHOLOGICAL INVOLVEMENT

DRUG AND ALCOHOL HISTORY (As Stated By client: name of client and date of interview)

BEHAVIOURAL OBSERVATIONS DURING ASSESSMENT

Did the client cooperate, was he/ she willing to undertake the assessment. Did the client engage maximally/ talkative/ any speech pressure/ generally what was the nature of responses when answering questions. What was the mood like generally? Did the client maintain eye contact? Any anxiety, show of confidence, gaze/ eye contact. Any concerns expressed/ any difficult with self-disclosure.

Previous treatment: cooperate fully with blood tests because of his reported fear of needles.

Motivation to be drug-free:

Client’ views
Is substance use a problem to the client

Life Value Clarification

FORMULATION

Precipitating factors

Perpetuating factors

Presenting issues

Protective factors

SUMMARY OF FORMULATION

RISK ASSESSMENT

The client's past history, imminent concern and future potential for the following risk categories:

a)   Physical aggression: –

b) c) Self-harm:

c) f) Fire setting

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Name: (of psychologist)

Signature _________________________________

Date: _________________________________

Supervisor if any

Signature __________________ Date: _______________
Lecture Eleven
Psychotherapeutic Interventions

Introduction
This lecture opens your psyche to what treatment is all about in correctional psychology and the various types available.

Objectives
At the end of this lecture, you should be able to
1. Know what treatment is all about.
2. Know the areas in psychotherapies.

CONTENT

The whole essence of assessment is to be able to provide necessary therapeutic support for one’s client. Treatment will usually involve one or more of the following elements: behavior therapy, cognitive-behavior therapy, problem-solving therapies, psychodynamic therapy,
parent training programs, family therapy, and/or the use of medication. The intervention can also include consultation with pediatricians, clinical psychologists, primary care physicians or professionals from schools, juvenile courts, social agencies or other community organizations. Some therapies available for treatments include:

1. **Cognitive Therapy**

At the heart of cognitive therapy is the idea that our thoughts can affect our emotions. For example, if we choose to look for the silver lining in every experience we will be more likely to feel good than if we only focus upon the negative. Cognitive therapy helps patients to learn to identify certain common patterns of negative thinking, called cognitive distortions, and to turn those negative thought patterns into more positive ones, thus improving the patient's mood.

2. **Behavioral Therapy**

Behavioral therapy is a type of psychotherapy that focuses on changing undesired behaviors. It uses the principles of classical and operant conditioning in order to reinforce wanted behaviors while eliminating unwanted behaviors.

3. **Cognitive-Behavioral Therapy**

Cognitive therapists tend to focus on specific problems. These therapists believe that irrational thinking or faulty perceptions cause dysfunctions. A cognitive therapist may work with a client to change thought patterns. This type of therapy is often effective for clients suffering from depression or anxiety or irrational thinking to commit crime. Behavioral therapists work to change problematic behaviors that have been trained through years of reinforcement. A good example of behavioral therapy would be a therapist working with a client to overcome a fear how to make it or of heights. The therapist would encourage the client to gradually face their fear of heights through experience. The client might first imagine standing on the roof of a tall building or riding an escalator. Next, the client would slowly expose themselves to greater and greater levels of their fear until the phobia diminishes or disappears entirely. Because cognitive therapy and behavioral therapy work well together to help depression and anxiety disorders, the two are often combined in an approach called cognitive-behavioral therapy.
Benefits of Cognitive-Behavioral Therapy

Cognitive and behavioral approaches can be highly effective when treating specific problems. Oftentimes, cognitive and behavioral approaches are combined when treating a disorder. A therapist treating a client with social anxiety may help the client form more accurate thinking patterns as well as focusing on specific behaviors, such as social avoidance.

4. Dialectical Behavior Therapy

Dialectical behavior therapy is a type of cognitive-behavioral therapy. Its main goal is to teach the patient skills to cope with stress, regulate emotions and improve relationships with others. Dialectical behavior therapy is derived from a philosophical process called dialectics. Dialectics is based upon the concept that everything is composed of opposites and that change occurs when one opposing force is stronger than the other, or in more academic terms: thesis, antithesis and synthesis.

5. Psychodynamic Therapy

Psychodynamic therapy is based upon the assumption that depression occurs because of unresolved -- usually unconscious -- conflicts, often originating from childhood. The goal of this type of therapy is for the patient to understand and better cope with these feelings by talking about the experiences which led to them.

6. Interpersonal Therapy

Interpersonal therapy is a type of therapy which focuses on past and present social roles and interpersonal interactions. During treatment, the therapist generally chooses one or two problem areas in the patient's current life to focus on. Examples of areas covered are disputes with friends, family or co-workers, grief and loss and role transitions, such as retirement or divorce.

7. Group Therapy

Group therapy helps to talk to criminals as a group in the prison. It is a form of psychotherapy where two or more clients work with one or more therapists or counselors. This method is a popular format for support groups, where group members can learn from the experiences of others and offer advice. This method is also more cost effective than individual psychotherapy and is oftentimes more effective. Group therapy generally involves anywhere from three to fifteen patients. It offers patients the opportunity to give and receive
group support in coping with their particular issues as well as to observe how they interact in group settings. It may also be a less expensive alternative to individual therapy.

Benefits of Group Therapy

It is common for those suffering from a mental illness or problem behavior to feel alone, isolated or different. Group therapy can help clients by providing a peer group of individuals that are currently experiencing the same symptoms or who have recovered from a similar problem. Group members can also provide emotional support and a safe forum to practice new behavior.

8. Individual Therapy

Individual, “one-to-one,” or “talk therapy” is the most common psychological therapy for children and adults. Individual therapy is based on the premise that when a trusting relationship with a therapist is established, a client can increase self-awareness and change destructive or unhealthy patterns of thought, emotion, and behavior. A real-life example is when you feel relief from and resolution to an issue by talking it through with a supportive friend. Though theoretical approaches vary, most individual therapy is based on the concepts outlined below. However, it is important to keep in mind that some schools of thought, such as behaviorism, focus almost exclusively on behavior change and bypass the importance of the therapeutic relationship, and the need for emotional catharsis, or release.

“Name It, Claim It, and Tame It”

In a broad sense, name it, claim it, and tame it captures the essence of personal growth, both in therapy and in life. The ability to identify a problem or pattern such as anxiety, take ownership of the problem, and take steps to change it, are at the root of personal development. Individual therapy is designed to facilitate this process while offering support, suggestions, affirmation, and a compassionate ear.

Problem Patterns and Positive Psychology

Individual therapy usually begins with an assessment of “what's not working” for a client with respect to thinking, emotions, relationships, and behavior. A skilled therapist will help clients identify maladaptive or unhelpful patterns, and set measurable goals to decrease them
while increasing more positive, productive patterns. Because of the inherent negativity in anxiety, a therapist who helps your child own and build on her strengths can be essential.

Summary

In the lecture, treatment was seen as the end result or last resort to all forms of criminal behaviors. In the same vein, the essence of correctional psychology is just this treatment we have talked about. It was also discovered in the course of the lecture the various psychotherapies used in correcting all sort of behavioral or irrationalities in human function, especially as related to criminal behaviors.

Post test:

1. Discuss the various treatment procedures for correcting criminal behaviours.

References:


About.com Health's Disease and Condition

Lecture Twelve

Community Intervention in Crime Control

Introduction

This lecture opens your psyche to how alternative measures can be put in place for crime control, and such is community intervention. So pay attention.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to
1. Know what community intervention is all about.
2. Know how effective that measure could be.

Pre-test

1. How can community intervene in reducing crime rate?
2. do you think is an appropriate measure?
Many recent community interventions—particularly those that target risk factors and introduce protective factors to prevent antisocial behavior—have been heavily influenced by public health approaches (Hyndman et al., 1992; Perry, Klepp, and Sillers, 1989). Nonetheless, comprehensive prevention strategies that involve more than one entity (e.g., police and neighborhoods), take place in a variety of settings (e.g., home and school), and are maintained for several years have the potential to positively affect that population. This is especially true for communitywide programs targeting risk and protective factors for alcohol, tobacco, and drug use. Examples of the following eight types of community interventions are described below: citizen mobilization, situational prevention, comprehensive community interventions, mentoring, afterschool recreation programs, policing strategies, policy change interventions, and media interventions.

**Protective Factors**

- Peer groups, schools, and communities that emphasize positive social norms.
- Warm, supportive relationships and bonding with adults.
- Opportunities to become involved in positive activities.
- Recognition and support for participating in positive activities.
- Cognitive, social, and emotional competence.

The eight types of communitywide interventions examined by the Study Group focused on several risk factors, including easy access to firearms and drugs, community disorganization, and community norms or attitudes favoring antisocial behavior. The interventions also focused on such protective factors as social bonding and clear community norms against antisocial behavior. According to the studies and evaluations of these interventions examined by the Study Group, prevention strategies that cross multiple domains and that are mutually reinforcing and maintained for several years produce the greatest impact.

**Citizen Mobilization**

Programs that mobilize citizens to prevent crime and violence have the potential to reduce serious juvenile crime because they often address risk factors and offer the protective factors necessary to deter or intervene with serious juvenile offenders. The most common citizen mobilization programs are neighborhood block watch programs and citizen patrols.
Neighborhood block watch programs are based on the premise that residents are in the best position to monitor suspicious activities and individuals in their neighborhoods. Evaluations of three such programs, however, found little evidence that the programs have a significant effect on neighborhood crime. An evaluation of a citizen patrol program similarly found no significant effect on crime. Specific community mobilization program is described below.

- **Guardian Angels.** Another popular community mobilization strategy uses citizens who are not sworn law enforcement officers to patrol neighbourhoods. One of the most well-known programs using this strategy is the Guardian Angels, a racially diverse group of unarmed individuals who patrol neighbourhoods by foot. The group, which operates in cities across the Nation, specifically seeks to prevent crimes involving force or personal injury. Evaluators who compared two areas in San Diego, CA, one that was patrolled by Guardian Angels and one that was not, found that crime rates in the two areas did not differ (Pennell et al., 1989).

**Comprehensive Community Interventions**

Comprehensive community interventions hold promise for preventing crimes because they address multiple risk factors in the community, schools, family, and the media by mounting a coordinated set of mutually reinforcing preventive interventions throughout the community. Given the scarcity of evaluations completed in this area, the only comprehensive community programs summarized in the Study Group's report are ones that have focused on reducing alcohol and substance abuse, including smoking.

**Mentoring**

Many communities have initiated mentoring programs in which adult mentors spend time with and act as role models for individual youth. Mentoring interventions may address several risk factors (including alienation, academic failure, low commitment to school, and association with delinquent and violent peers), while introducing protective factors (including opportunities for pro-social involvement and development of skills for and recognition of prosocial involvement, bonds with adults, healthy beliefs, and clear standards for behaviour).

**Afterschool Recreation Programs**
Programs that provide supervised recreation after school address the risk factors of alienation and association with delinquent or violent peers and introduce several protective factors, including skills for leisure activities and opportunities to become involved with prosocial youth and adults.

**Policing Strategies**

Police departments around the country are trying innovative new policies to reduce crime. Many address the risk factors of community disorganization, low neighbourhood attachment, and neighbourhood tolerance of crime and violence. Others introduce protective factors, including healthy beliefs, clear behaviour standards, and citizen involvement with police. Evaluations of three policing strategies show mixed results.

One strategy, intensifying the use of marked police cars, appears to prevent certain types of serious crime in high-crime areas during high-crime periods (Kelling et al., 1974). Some jurisdictions use another technique known as field interrogation in which police officers stop persons they believe to be suspicious based on "reasonable cause," question them about their activities, and sometimes search the individuals and their vehicles. These tactics often are considered controversial because it is hard to define "reasonable cause" and sometimes have been challenged as unconstitutional (Skolnick and Bayley, 1988). An evaluation of a program in San Diego, CA, however, indicates that field interrogation is a potentially promising crime prevention tactic, especially when carried out in a respectful manner (Boydstun, 1975). The evaluation found that reported crime increased significantly when police discontinued field interrogation and decreased significantly when the tactic was reintroduced.

Community policing is another popular policing strategy. In this approach, police departments, other government agencies, and members of the community work together to solve crime issues. Three studies of community policing have shown a reduction in physical and social disorder; two of these reported positive effects on resident satisfaction in areas using community policing (Pate et al., 1985; Skogan and Wycoff, 1986; Wycoff et al., 1985a). Only one of the three studies, however, showed a reduction in victimization rates as a result of community policing. In general, community policing programs result in a decrease in residents' perceptions of and fear of crime and, in many cases; result in more positive evaluations of police by residents. Crime reductions reported in these studies are based on
differences in all reported crime, and the portion of crime reductions that is due to juveniles is unknown.

**Media Interventions**

A final community-based prevention strategy that has shown positive effects is the use of media campaigns that attempt to change public attitudes and standards, educate community residents, or support other community interventions. One of the best known media interventions is the Partnership for a Drug-Free America, a national advertising campaign against drugs. One survey revealed the effectiveness of this campaign, showing that markets where the Partnership campaign was intensively waged saw significant increases in knowledge about the effects of marijuana and cocaine use, compared with other markets (Black, 1989).

Media interventions have been used primarily (either alone or in combination with other strategies) to prevent and reduce the use of cigarettes and alcohol. Evaluations show that media interventions are especially effective when used in conjunction with school intervention curriculums to prevent smoking or other substance abuse (Flynn et al., 1992; Flynn et al., 1995; Goodstadt, 1989; Pentz et al., 1989a; Perry et al., 1992; Vartiainen et al., 1986, 1990). Although few evaluations of media interventions targeting delinquency or violence have been conducted, such interventions provide a promising direction for future research related to changing community antiviolence norms and behaviors.

**References:**

OJJDP's 1998 Report to Congress: Juvenile Mentoring Program (JUMP) indicates that youth involved in mentoring programs are less likely to experiment with drugs, less likely to be physically aggressive, and less likely to skip school than those not involved in such programs (Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, 1998).
Lecture Thirteen
Rehabilitation

Introduction
This lecture will introduce you to rehabilitation.

Objectives
At the end of this lecture, you should be able to
1. Know what rehabilitation is all about.
2. Know why psychologists rehabilitate.

Pre-test
1. What is rehabilitation?
2. Establish a relationship between rehabilitation and treatment?

CONTENT
What is a rehabilitation psychologist? Psychologists help resolve problems with human behavior and the mind. Rehabilitation psychology is a specialty field within the field of psychology, helping people who are dealing with:

- cognitive issues
- chronic health conditions
- developmental disabilities
- emotional problems
- Psychosocial problems.

Whether people are born with their disabilities or acquire them later in life, rehabilitation psychologists help them address their issues to lead functional, fulfilling and meaningful lives. Rehabilitation is the most appealing justification for punishment. According to Packer, rehabilitation theory teaches us that “…we must treat each offender as an individual whose special needs and problems must be known…in order to enable us deal effectively with him. Analysing rehabilitation as a justification for punishment, Packer further noted that the rehabilitative ideal may be used to prevent crime by changing the personality of the offender; that punishment in the theory is forward-looking, that the inquiry is not into how dangerous the offender is but rather into how dangerous the offender is but rather into how amenable to
treatment he is. However, Packer also noted that the gravity of the offence committed may not give us clue as to the intensity and duration of the measures needed to rehabilitate.

**Job Description**

Rehabilitation psychology is a broad field. In addition to working with the psychosocial, cognitive, personal, physical and behavioral difficulties affecting their patients, rehabilitation psychologists must also address factors such as ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, culture, language, age and location. In addition, they work with patients on issues such as mobility, independence, emotions and sensory problems. Once an assessment is made, rehabilitation psychologists plan interventions to address the issue raised. These might include:

- helping patients and their networks adapt to new circumstances
- using services available for assistance
- using technology that will allow patients to have greater independence, and removing any barriers to this independence.

Rehabilitation psychologists also develop and administer rehabilitation programs, conduct public-education programs, teach psychology students, and advocate and develop programs to help those with chronic injuries or disabilities.

Rehabilitation psychologists work in a variety of settings. These may include:

- acute-care hospitals
- agencies working with specific disabilities, such as cerebral palsy or multiple sclerosis
- assisted-living facilities
- long-term care facilities
- healthcare facilities
- hospitals
- rehabilitation centers for various health conditions
- sports-injury centers.
Some rehabilitation psychologists also work with major organizations targeting a special group (such as veterans) or for government facilities. They may also work as faculty conducting teaching and research in the field.

**Education and Training**

Rehabilitation psychologists are usually required to earn a doctoral degree, which involves between five and seven years of graduate study and the production of an original piece of research. For a clinical psychology practice, this also includes an internship period of at least a year. Many existing psychology programs offer rehabilitation psychology only as a minor. Rehabilitation psychologists must also complete an intensive training period after completing their doctoral studies. In addition to these qualifications, those providing clinical services need to obtain appropriate state licensing.

**Prior Work Experience**

Those pursuing rehabilitation psychology jobs may want to consider optional internships in clinical settings catering to mental-health issues. Some also choose to work as research assistants within psychology departments to broaden their knowledge. Careful choice of required internships will help qualified applicants gain entry to this field. The employment outlook for rehabilitation psychologists is excellent. Employment in the psychology profession as a whole is expected to grow 15 percent through 2016, a faster rate than other professions. Rehabilitation psychology is one of the fastest-growing areas of psychology. Reasons for this growth include higher survival rates from accidents, which create a need for this type of care. In addition, the general population is aging and dealing with more health conditions. For those with the right qualifications, there is never been a better time to be a rehabilitation psychologist.

**Summary**

In the lecture, rehabilitation was discussed. Rehabilitation psychologists were seen to also develop and administer rehabilitation programs, conduct public-education programs, teach psychology students, and advocate and develop programs to help those with chronic injuries or disabilities. It
Post-test:

1. Why do you think assessment is important before rehabilitation?

2. Discuss rehabilitation in relation your personal life and that of your family members

Reference:
Edudecision.com
Lecture Fourteen:

Course Overview

Students, while I crave your indulgence for having undergone the stresses of wanting to acquire knowledge, it is important that we overview all we have done in this class from lecture one till the end. In the same vein, I admonish you to be painstaking as you read on. Thank you.

(PSY 401) is all about Correctional Psychology.

As a course, aims at seeking method of understanding offender's behaviour, to aid offenders in achieving more effective intellectual, social, or emotional functioning. In the final analysis offenders are aided to achieve successful adjustment to the society. It also focused on certain phenomenon such as:

- An Overview of Involvement of Psychologists in Criminal Justice System where
- Administration of Penal Institutions and Implication for Psychological Consequences of Imprisonment
- Key Psychological Impact of Imprisonment on Nigerian Political Detainees
- Application of Criminal Justice Psychology to Victims
- Role of Psychologists in the Court Contributions to Criminal Proceedings
- **Psychology in court**
- Policing
- Crime Prevention
- Juvenile Correctional System
- Community Intervention in Crime control
- Rehabilitation
- Forensic assessment
- Treatment

As a matter of fact, all of these lectures were treated so that correctional activities in clients are possible with the knowledge that has been acquired in the above lectures.

Therefore, as we come to the end of this lecture, I wish you well.