



Cross Cultural and International Forensic Psychology – A Personal and Historic Overview

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INTRODUCTION

This paper is designed mainly for newcomers to this field as a follow-up to the debate that was initiated by the writer at his ‘Colloquium on Cross-Cultural Forensic Psychology’, which formed a section of the first Australian Forensic Psychology Conference of the Australian Psychological Society, held in Sydney 2001 (Andry, 2001). Accordingly, only a few cogent points and some notable cross-cultural and interdisciplinary projects generated over the years will be highlighted here as part of a vast area to be left over for further debate, research and action. (Andrews, D.A. & Bonta, J. 1998). This is in the hope that it will provide the stimulus in future for many other “cross-cultural” contributions to be made by colleagues interested in working in this field. Projects with comments are presented here idiosyncratically in a “qualitative” and historical manner, in the belief that despite the passage of time, they still have relevance. However, above all, the latest ‘quantitative’ up-to-date position, covering most of the relevant topics mentioned in this field, is contained in the Abstract of the Conference papers (Australian Journal of Psychology Volume 53 Supplement, 2001) and the “Australian Psychologist” APS Journal’s Special Issue on the Rehabilitation of Offenders, summarized by Ward T., Ogloff J.T., Birgden, A., & Hollin, C., (Volume 37, Number 3) (2002)

Material for further discussion will be listed under the headings of: A. Background, B. Basic Professional Requirements; C. International

Landmark Programming; D. Plans for the Future; E. Conclusion

A. BACKGROUND

It is worth recalling that the word “FORENSIC” has its own cross cultural roots in the antiquity of the Greek “Agora” and Roman “FORUM” where matters of justice were discussed, not in secret, but openly, a tradition still upheld as an ideal by all those believing in the supremacy of the rule of law. One of the primary aims here is to attract badly needed new recruits to this speciality, which can provide new opportunities to expand the traditional role of forensic psychologists, currently working in the legal and civil fields. These opportunities might be explored from three different points of view: Globally, Horizontally, and Vertically.

GLOBALLY: For example, by exploring different avenues of how best to become increasingly involved in combating various aspects of internationally expanding mega-crime (including mass terrorism and war criminality) and generally to explore methods of further alleviating the plight of the oft-forgotten victims of crime.

HORIZONTALLY: For instance, an expanding role might also be created, by taking a diversified approach to the problem of illegal and legal immigrants, which, are often associated with psychological assimilation difficulties, often

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stretching over three generations, following vast population and attitudinal shifts, manifested particularly since World War II. Mutual misunderstandings have inevitably arisen, often with legal consequences, as a result of the differing cultural backgrounds of ethnic minorities and that of their host countries, and exacerbated further by the complex interplay between economic, emotional, linguistic and other factors affecting both parties, until assimilation is achieved.

VERTICALLY: Increased opportunities may be created, for instance, by forensic psychologists planning to reach beyond routine practice towards acquiring managerial status as International Consultants to organisations such as the U.N, UNESCO and to government and other departments concerned with law and order.

B. BASIC PROFESSIONAL REQUIREMENTS

Cross-cultural experience can be gained in two ways: either locally through contact with ethnic minority groups, or more dramatically, by practicing periodically in one or more countries. Either way, this requires some of the following prerequisites: (a) some knowledge of local and international law, customs and languages (b) possession of professional competency (c) personal insight into one's own behaviour and attitudes when in contact with others.

The Law (criminal, civil, tribunal and others)

Above all it must be remembered that with indictable serious cases there is a vast difference in the theory and practice of the criminal law, particularly between the two systems: The Anglo-Saxon derived Accusatorial-Adversarial system based mainly on COMMON CASE LAW (Equity, Statutory and others) as practiced in most English speaking countries and conducted in an open court. In contrast is "THE CODIFIED" Inquisitorial-Investigatory law (as practiced in most other countries) where an Expert Witness such as a psychologist may also appear informally in camera at investigatory pre-trials (usually presided over at the trial by three Judges and normally no lay Jury). Under the former system, the Expert Witness will have to survive under the cross fire between the prosecutor and the defense, in open court where a defendant must be considered innocent unless proven guilty by a Jury and not by the sentencing Judge (Gordan, 1975). Complications can arise when aspects of both systems are practiced in some countries, and with Courts of Appeal or in lower

courts, where no jury is present. Also in order to be accepted to give evidence as an Expert Witness under "Voire Dire" procedures, the Court will have to be satisfied that proof can be supplied as to the witness's professional competency in relation to a well-established body of knowledge. It has often been said that the Inquisitorial System seeks to find the "truth" whereas the Accusatorial System is more preoccupied with "Justice" as well as the truth (Hayward, 1990). Either way, the forensic psychologist as Expert Witness has to fit in with whichever system he/she is working under (Maloney, 1985; Hayward, 1990). The Civil Law is more or less similar in both systems, (especially with reference to assessments of injury or family welfare cases) (Hellbronn, 1990; Leung and Sihombing, 1999; Sykes, 2001). However, the burden of proof in the civil law needs only to be at the level of a "balance of probability", whereas in the criminal law it needs to be "beyond reasonable doubt". A psychologist's contribution can also be considerable under Tribunal Law, for instance, if sitting on Alien Control Tribunals, on special Judicial Committees, or on Parole Boards not necessarily presided over by a Judge. A forensic psychologist may also have to be familiar with other kinds of legal systems which may be in danger of clashing with each other, such as: a) Religious or National laws; b) Tribal Laws presided over by Elders (or Capos in case of gangs); or c) U.N laws dealing with Human Rights and War criminal matters; and d) quasi legal provisions based on Conflict Reduction Techniques such as Arbitration (which is legally binding) or Family Mediation (which is morally binding), or Negotiations (in case of riots) or the application of Restorative Justice where the offender and victim may have to face each other; all providing scope for professional involvement (Asian Dispute Review, 2000).

Some Suggested Professional Requirements:

Different countries have, of course, different minimum and maximum standards for practice in this field, usually combining university training somehow with eligibility for specialised membership in the relevant professional Society or Association. For instance the British Psychological Society has set out requirements (Blom-Cooper & Horn, 2001) including also provisions for certain graduates from non-British Universities (Hodge, 2001). The same applies for the Australian Psychological Society where Government Registration is compulsory (Cooke, 2000). However, beyond such requirements, it is

considered important to be up-to-date in psychometric testing (Maloney, 1985) and in all branches of psychology (Andry in Kao Ou Yan, 1995; Andry, 1997; Hodge, 2001), especially in Clinical, Forensic and Social Psychology (Andry in Grygier, Jones and Spencer, 1965) (e.g., with emphasis, following e.g., Lewin's Topological Psychology, on detecting differences in Social Climates, by recognising 'stereotyping', 'ethnocentricity', 'scape-goating', 'in-and-out' group behaviour, etc. (Lewin, 1935; 1936; 1938; 1948; 1951 and Lewin Institute, 2001). Also, essential prerequisites are knowledge of new and old developments in Criminology (Mannheim, 1959; Hood and Sparks, 1970; Toch, 1979), such as "investigatory profiling techniques" (Canter, 2000; Wilbert and Ewell, 2000). Likewise, Bio-Neuro sciences, (Greenfield, 2000; Sykes, 2000; Kaplan-Solms and Solms, 2000); History, and aspects of the Law (Rutter and Gillier, 1983; Green, 1984). It is important also to be familiar with various classification, categorization and prison allocation systems (Andry, 1963) and diverse personality "typological" theories (Eysenck, 1975) applicable to male and female juvenile and adult institutionalised and other offenders. Attention needs also to be paid to staff training, and generally to organization and management skills, IT and statistics, sentencing and treatment options, based partly on relevant testing and the observation of overt and covert behaviour and inter-relationship skills among offenders.

Psychological Tests

There is a broad selection of suitable tests available (registered with Buros 2001). Among these tests might be mentioned **cognitive** tests, (e.g., Binet's or Wechsler's verbal and non-verbal scales (1981 and later), or memory tests or Raven's Progressive Matrices non-verbal test, etc.); **Neuro-pathological** tests, (e.g., Millon's Clinical multi Axial Inventory, or Stroop's Test); **Personality** Tests (e.g., the MMPI, Eysenck's EPQ, or Cattell's sixteen PF); **Educational Achievement** Tests; **Projective** Tests and **Inventories** (eg, TAT or Rorschach); **Specialized** Tests (e.g., the Jesness Behavioural Check List or Hare's Psychopathic Check List, (1978) or Beck's Anxiety Scales, etc), and malingering assessments (Golus et. al., 2001; Gudjonsson and Shackleton, 1986), frequently backed up by lie detectors, if desired, often with the aid of translators where necessary.

Forensic Diagnostic Interviewing

This requires special skills with juveniles (Farrington, D.P., 1995) or adults to achieve a careful balance between non-directive clinical interviewing and "Interrogative directiveness". In this regard, use may be made of one of the writer's informal techniques based on a "Life-style Affective Regressive Inventory" ALISAR (Andry, 1975-1997). Accordingly, the interviewee is encouraged during the interview to start discussing "here and now events" (real, fantasised or dreamt, as well as admitted or denied guilt), etc. Thereafter, however, the interviewee is encouraged to remember sequentially backwards, year-by-year, to recall positive and negative events from the past, (similar to abreactive hypnosis). During this process the interviewer closely observes the degrees of affect, or lack of it, displayed by the interviewee. This is an attempt to find out when the disturbed and disturbing behaviour might have started and under what conditions, thus throwing up possible prognostic indicators. Usually, this confirms the hypothesis that the earlier the onset of "troubles" in life, the worse the prognosis, especially in the case of "loners" with poor "attachment" and "acting out" problems, often "infected" first by an older delinquent. Interviews fall usually into three parts: a) establishing co-operation, b) followed by the LISAR regressive or other interviewing procedures. This is followed up by psychometric testing and a request for a very detailed inventory of current and other types of past offences, and overt and covert attitudes and behaviour towards them, to evaluate what "ego-defence" mechanisms are employed. Also this is an attempt to predict likely recidivism, given under various hypothesised strict remedial conditions. Also real and wishful "Lewinian" lifestyle history is taken, including "road-blocks" encountered to see under what likely developmental conditions a "Maslowian" top self-actualised personality stage might eventually be reached, and c) the interviewing closure, often-revealing further prognostic indicators.

Report Writing and Presentation

This also requires special attention in so far as Reports may have to differ slightly in emphasis to suit the needs of the enquiring agent. Basics, however, are standardized, in so far as Reports need to be objective and as factual as possible, with conclusions based not primarily on "recommendations", but on "statements of treatment options", under different conditions, with the likely prognostic results.

Suggested Personal Requirements:

Among others, it is important for clinicians to be extra-sensitive to cultural and sub-cultural differences when in contact and avoid becoming judgemental or confused about one's own value system. It should also be helpful to experience some form of self-analysis, which can be very instructive, particularly if obtained in a group setting where fellow group members may have a different perspective from that which one has of oneself (Bion, 1961; Foulkes and Anthony, 1965; Andry and Andry, 1980). All of which is notably difficult to diagnose on standardized personality tests. Perhaps, above all, forensic psychologists need to create their own role, since forensic employment possibilities (apart from traditional ones) are difficult to find in such areas as the prevention, rehabilitation of offenders and their victims.

C. INTERNATIONAL LANDMARK PROGRAMMING

Evaluating the long lasting success of treatment programs is difficult, but experience has shown, since Martinson's originally pessimistic research results, that certain programs can be made to work better in some countries than in others, (Lipton, Martinson and Wilkes, 1975 versus McGuire, 1995: Bernfield, G.A., Farrington, D.P. and Leschied, A.W., 2001) and depend upon differing time periods, and staff changes, and therefore are not easily exportable or comparable. This demonstrates existing research complications in the Social Sciences, since it is difficult to hold all variables permanently constant with controlled samples. This is not however, to decry the value of quantifiable research, alongside qualitative research (Andrews & Bonton, 1998), regarding the risk and needs of offenders in relation to professional discretion and programme integrity.

Projects considered as landmarks and quoted below have been idiosyncratically selected qualitatively rather than quantitatively on this occasion by the writer as an overview, partly because of his personal involvement with most of them, over the years.

It can be observed that a majority of psychologists working currently with offenders consider that various forms of "cognitive behaviour modification techniques" work best for practically all offenders (McGuire, 2002; Eysenck, 1963;

Eysenck, 1975). However, this point of view is disputed by a highly trained minority, who believe that varieties of psycho-dynamic based therapies for most offenders will probably have high rehabilitation success according to Cordess and Cox (1996), Glover, (1960). For instance, Samenov and Yokelson (1976) described the pathogenic cycle of certain offenders, starting from the time of his excitement when planning and executing an offence, often then followed by depression, only for the excitement to return when planning and executing the next offence. The writer (Andry, 1975-1997) takes a view at mid point in usually following his own flexible Tripartite Diagnostic and Treatment Modality ("Match") within the context of the risk and needs model by making temporary use of the concept of the Normal Distribution Curve. Accordingly, decisions about either both or other kinds of treatment interventions can be made individually or jointly by well-seasoned experts. Agreement is usually reached fairly easily and quickly (for instance, taking "recidivism probability" as a criterion here (Malz, 1984), or other criteria such as "likely treatment success"). The objective either for individuals or cohorts is to place hypothetically, the relatively few most obvious high-risk juvenile or adult recidivist offenders (called Alpha) to one end of the curve, and the relatively few and obviously "low-risk" cases (called Beta) to the other extreme of the curve. This is with the intention of applying, at least initially, variants of "behaviour therapy" to the Alpha group and a range of psychotherapeutic counselling to the Beta group (unless they obviously require other types of treatment). The major skill, however, rests with sorting out the many prognostically doubtful cases (called Delta) that initially will most likely have been placed theoretically in the center of the bell shaped curve. However these will need, eventually, to be reallocated in reality for refined treatment either to the "behavioural modification end, or to the other psychotherapeutic end of the curve. Therefore, those remaining in the centre can each be treated differentially on a trial and error basis, depending on their responses to either one or a variety of other allied treatment modalities. This or other classification models need, of course, to be linked with some kind of Cognitive and Personality Assessments so that treatment allocation based on categorisation systems can become effective. (Andry, 1975-1997).

Landmarks: Generally attention is hereby drawn arbitrarily to a number of contributions, considered to be significant landmarks past and present, made

by different countries and different allied professionals to the field of offender rehabilitation programming:

Australia:

1. Prison Governor Machonochie anticipated decades ago, the gradual shift from punishment to rehabilitation by following in principle what is now known as “Token Economy” by rewarding “marks” for good behaviour by offenders in exchange for privileges and by making use of the concept of “collective responsibility”. (Barry, 1958; Clay, 2001).
2. Secondly, might be mentioned as a landmark, the establishment of the Melbourne Children’s Court Clinic (history currently being prepared by Brown and Andry) as early as the 1940’s with its emphasis on providing multi-disciplinary service to the court and the general public, thereafter replicated in some other States, (though originally set up by the Healeys in Chicago at the beginning of the last century. (Glueck and Glueck, 1950).
3. The Mentor system now generally operating in most institutions.
4. The practice of Forensic Psychology, for instance, in Australia (and Hong Kong) is not only limited to the “criminal” but is also often extended to the “Civil” side of the Law (e.g., covering assessments for worker’s compensation, malingering or family welfare matters).
5. Since the 1950s, Forensic Psychology has been further developed by many universities, clinics, industry and by defence forces as well as the Canberra Institute of Criminology.

Great Britain:

1. A landmark in early delinquency studies in the 1940’s (apart from that of Sir Cyril Burt, (1943)) was John Bowlby’s “Maternal Deprivation Theory”(Holmes, 1993) based on the study of young delinquents who, during the London blitz in the Second World War, were evacuated and separated at a very young age from their Mothers and were thus deprived of their affection during the critical period between 6 months up to 3 years of age, which Bowlby regarded as often being

causal to delinquent behaviour. The writer criticised this as early as the 1950s on several grounds, particularly in regard to Bowlby’s methodology. Given that the sample was too small and there was no control group, his findings cannot be afforded the status of a “theory”. Moreover, initially Bowlby and his colleagues only took into consideration the effect of impaired affective Mother-child relationships. He neglected the real or perceived pathogenic role played by some Fathers (Andry, 1968) or other significant persons, particularly as far as the etiology of delinquency is concerned. However, “Maternal Deprivation Theory” (Rutter and Gillier, 1983; Bowlby, 1969, 1972, 1980; Ng, 1980; Rutter, 1981) has re-emerged subsequently more successfully as “Attachment Theory”, (Bowlby, 1969; Ainsworth et al, 1978; Rutter, 1981; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Holmes, 1993; Stern et al, 1998; Marrone, 1998; Liell, 2001) with roots going back as far as the Gluecks (1950) and Anna Freud and Burlingham (Rutter and Gillier, 1983) and ultimately S.Freud, as documented by Fenichel (1935) but challenged by Melanie Klein (1988).

2. Group work, was developed by the psychiatrist Wilfred Bion, (1961) for clients and staff training and used first at the Northfield Hospital for shell-shocked war veterans who would normally have been court marshalled, (and later at places like Grendon Underwood Prison, the psycho-dynamically orientated Tavistock Centre in London and the University of Leicestershire, and elsewhere). Similar courses have also been run at the British Association of Psychotherapists by its founder P.de Berker , together with the writer and other colleagues, and also at the London Centre for Psychotherapy.

Bion focuses less on the therapy of individuals within a group but concentrates more on interpreting the “group climate” and its cyclical nature which reflects real-life situations. He posits that there are usually three phases in the development of the life of a group. These he regarded as “basic assumptions”. The first is “dependency” (where group members look to the conductor to take over the leadership and try to absolve themselves thereby of this responsibility and its attendant

anxiety). This is usually followed over time by the “pairing” stage (where like-minded people begin to support each other frequently to the exclusion of others in the group). This is often followed by the phase of “fight-flight” (where group members repeatedly fight each other verbally and then retreat until some kind of resolution is achieved and group cohesiveness is restored temporarily). During a group session, the Conductor’s role is to facilitate and interpret unconsciously displayed behaviour and to encourage the participants to draw parallels with the group’s behaviour and real-life situations. Such groups can be formatted in at least three other manifestations and are called “Experiential Groups” (for insight into one’s personal dynamics) “Application Groups” (to examine one’s inner dynamics in the work situation and at home) and an “Inter-Group Exercise” (where, for instance, negotiations can take place between self-formed groups who despatch from among their members “messengers” or “ambassadors” to communicate or mediate with various of the other groups. The purpose of attending such Groups is to enable clients and staff to cope better in real-life situations.

3. Psychoanalytical group work was also developed by S.H Foulkes (Foulkes and Anthony, 1965), initially at the Northfield Hospital, and later at the Maudsley Hospital. Ultimately he set up his own Institute with his colleagues, backed up by a Journal, with the dual object of offering group therapy to clients and training conductors to run experiential groups, the practice of which has now spread all over Europe and beyond. The main emphasis is on by-passing individual psychoanalysis in favour of participation in “small”, “medium” or “large” groups conducted on psycho-analytical principles to learn experientially how one’s early childhood experiences can influence some later social behaviour. (Andry, and Andry, 1980).
4. H.J Eysenck and his impressive staff developed variance of behaviour therapy before WWII and the EPQ personality test (measuring extroversion, introversion, neuroticism, and incorporates a lie scale) (Eysenck, 1963) at the Maudsley Hospital in London . The test is often used in

prisons, rather than the lengthy M.M.P.I. Both tests are now translated into Chinese and normed on a Hong Kong population (Chan, in Bond, 1996 and Cheung in Bond, 1996).

5. The application of Moreno’s Psychodrama technique developed in Vienna in the 1920s was first practised in the U.K. by Maxwell Jones in the 1940s at the Belmont Henderson Hospital, (Moreno, 1972) for the treatment of highly unstable or aggressive or plausible “psychopaths”, currently referred to as “character affected” in the classification systems, (e.g., DSM-IV, American Psychiatric Association (1992) and World Health Organization ICD (1996).
6. David Canter’s work from Liverpool University specializes in “profiling” offender suspects by using refined methods of investigation. (Canter, 2000).
7. The research carried out by H. Mannheim (of the London School of Economics) and L. Wilkins (from the UK Government’s Home Office Research Unit) on young Borstal delinquents recommended, as early as the 1950’s, abandoning the nebulous hunt for “causation” of crime in favour of concentrating on the outcome of recidivist prediction studies (Mannheim, 1959). Thus setting a new trend.
8. The up-to-date and comprehensive textbook compiled by C.Cordess and J.Cox covers psychodynamic treatment modalities. (Cordess and Cox, 1996)
9. Susan Greenfield’s (2000) current landmark research at Oxford University on the inter-relationship between the Brain and the Mind, may also eventually become applicable in the forensic field as well as influence legal change. This fits in also with Brian Syke’s recent work on DNA and genetic inter-relationships (Sykes, 2000).
10. The wide-ranging text by C.R. Hollin (2001) on Assessment and Treatment.

France:

Some of the writer’s UNESCO-based review-projects showed for instance, during the turbulent 1960s, that if ‘total zero tolerance’ were applied to delinquents in one part of Paris, this would only

result in riots breaking out in another district. Also of interest, were studies of “tough or tender-mindedness” among individuals, cultures, and socio-economic classes, as well as the committee debates at the Council of Europe in Strasbourg inter alia on different national preferences for fixed and mandatory sentencing.

U.S.A:

1. W. Glasser's works (Glasser, 1965; Glasser, 2001) on 'directive aspects of reality group therapy' involved seating delinquents in a circle encouraging each in turn to discuss their case, while fellow group members were invited to respond, especially to counseling comments made by the conductor.
2. The Californian Youth Authority system enables judges either to deal with cases directly or to hand over complex cases to the CYA to try out various kinds of treatment interventions for up to a maximum of three years, during which time the offender is not usually returned to the Courts if he commits minor offences until such time as his review period with the CYA is completed. At that stage a report will be sent back to the Courts to aid the Judge decide how to sentence, thus avoiding the tariff system if further offences are committed.
3. The staff of the Tallahassee University tried out (with the writer's involvement) the system known as “ Operation Scare Straight”, whereby specially selected long term institutionalised psychopaths (trained as Counsellors) carry out counselling with young delinquent probationers. These have to attend prison at least once a week (sometimes together with their parents) to have pointed out to them by the counselling prisoners, the reality of prison life, urging them to go straight, lest they too will finish up, as they did, in prison.
4. In some American prisons in the States and in other countries, special treatment opportunities are made available to various “Categories” of inmates who may benefit, for instance, from various types of therapies (e.g., arts, animal husbandry, music, agriculture, often within a religious environment). This is in addition to the usual prison programs consisting usually of prison industry and education (including

correspondence courses for job training) all combined with physical activities and group sessions aimed at reducing aggression and building up self esteem and instilling orderly behaviour.

5. Experimentation since the 1980s with electronic tagging for certain kinds of probationers has gradually become acceptable in most jurisdictions.

China, Japan and the Far East:

1. The practice of “Nikan” is used extensively throughout the Far East, whereby offenders are encouraged to be introspective and to show remorse, by confessing their wrong doings and by turning feelings of shame into acceptance of guilt.
2. Background to the psychological world of China is provided by Bond et al. (1986; Bond, 1991; Bond, ed., 1996), Blowers and Turtle (1987), Chan J. and Andry, R. (1990), Chan J. (2001); Sinha, O., and Kao, H. (1990) Travers H. and Vaag, J (1981), Bacon-Shone, J. et al. (1995), Andry (1997), Cheung, Andry and Tam, (1990).
3. The United Nation Far Eastern Asian Institute (UNAFEI) in Japan, also in association, among others with the Institute of Criminology in Canberra, is acting as a resource center in this field for the whole of the Pacific region by providing research opportunities, library facilities and workshops.
4. Experts in Government Staff Training Institutes (police, prisons, etc) teach recruits throughout Asia inter alia about: a) riot control and hostage taking procedures, b) western and eastern attitudes towards “keeping face”, c) careful use of eye contact, d) assessment of body language, e) the study of speech tones under stress, f) preference for disputes to be resolved, if possible, by third parties rather than by direct confrontation and g) familiarisation with behaviour patterns of TRIADS, gangs and terrorists (Andry, 1975-1997).

Scandinavia:

1. Denmark's Institute for Psychopaths at Herstedvester (Mannheim, 1959) was offering (until recently) voluntary

castration to dangerous, multiple sex offenders, to avoid long-term imprisonment.

2. Scandinavia has experimented since the 1950s with weekend and part-time institutionalisation, community service and specialized probation provisions for certain types of offenders (Mannheim, 1959).
3. Norway pioneered early experimentations with conjugal prison visits which are now common practice in most Scandinavian countries (and also in South America, among others)(Mannheim, 1959).

Canada:

1. Jeanine Guindon (1990) and her colleagues,(including the writer), taught at the University of Montreal, courses on Psycho-educational techniques (based partly on behaviourism and partly on the psycho-dynamic developmental theories of Piaget and Erikson) for the residential rehabilitation of young male and female offenders (Andry AK, 1982). As practised at “Boserville Rehabilitation Centre” among others, inmates were systematically made to re-experience developmental learning stages that were assumed had not been adequately completed in the normal sequence of time. First, they are allowed to settle slowly into the regime of the Institution. Thereafter however, they must accept the concept of ‘control’ and self-control and adapt to a rigorous educational milieu until, hopefully, their personality will adapt to its full potential of developmental maturity (not unlike Maslow’s self actualisation stage).
2. The application of the “I-Level” classification scheme (Immaturity Scales) at “The Shawbridge Youth Centre” in Montreal and in California, and elsewhere, is based on ‘psycho-dynamic developmental theory’ as refined by J.Sullivan, J. Grant and M. Grant-Warren (1979, in Andry AK, 1982). This attempts to measure the degrees of immaturity levels of court-referred delinquents and aims to apply appropriate intervention methods, including selecting specialised staff with corresponding introverted or

extroverted personalities to work with them as key workers.

Hong Kong:

1. The landmark programme of the Correctional Services Department (CSD) (Hong Kong Government Annual Year Review, 1972-1990; 2000) and Andry, (1997) demonstrated that the ‘Short Sharp Shock’ treatment and training program for young institutionalised male offenders can be made to work in HK (even if it is no longer considered to do so elsewhere), by means of well- trained staff and the careful selection of offenders. This makes it possible, usually within 6 - 12 months, for the majority not to recidivate when followed, upon release, by the Correctional Service’s intensive probationary aftercare (with the power of immediate recall, on failure).
2. The co-coordinating role-played by the Hong Kong government’s “Fight Crime Committee” is noteworthy with all its many sub-committees (HK Govt Annual Review 1972-1990; 2000; and Bacon-Shone, et al. 1995) including also the writer’s involvement in setting up monitoring standing committees on research and on young and old offender rehabilitation. Associated are also Non-Government organisations and other governmental departments, such as the Education, Legal, Health, Social Work, and Correctional Services Departments, as well as The Police, psychologists, prison padres, security guards, and almost anyone associated with matters of law and order and fighting crime (Hong Kong Government Annual Year Review Number 20, of the Fight Crime Committee, 2000).
3. The Correctional Services Department (CSD) has demonstrated that some success with convicted cases can be achieved by applying ‘abstinence drug rehabilitation programs’. These are based on a combination of counselling, total abstinence from addictive substances (including methadone), physical training, hard agricultural work and prolonged isolation of offenders from their original environment. This involves placing them on a small island, followed up on discharge by protracted probation (with

- departmental power to recall failures), intensive aftercare, if necessary in halfway houses, supported also by other organizations such as the Society for the Rehabilitation of Offenders (SRO Publications, 2000).
4. A specialised geriatric prison for “lifers” engages inmates in appropriate horticultural and similar productive activities, and are encouraging to circulate in the prison grounds unless still dangerous (Hong Kong Government Year Review, 1972-2000). Also provided is a special section of the prison for Mothers with babies taught domestic science and other subjects.
 5. Similarly, as in most other prisons, rehabilitation programmes in Hong Kong are based on a flexible prison classification system, separating inmates according to severity of offence and behaviour as assessed by staff teams, including psychologists.
 6. The Hong Kong Correctional Services Department, established in 1982 a Psychology Unit (headed by the writer and based on three of his previous UN feasibility studies initiated in 1975) assisted by specialized correctional services officers. This was in liaison with an already-existing unit of probation officers, thereby constituting an effective forensic team.
 7. An overview of developments in Forensic Psychology in Hong Kong was provided by Andry et.al (1997) with respect to ongoing research at the University of Hong Kong, the Hong Kong Chinese and other Hong Kong Universities and the seminal role played by the Hong Kong Psychological Society (Andry, Chan and Lee, 1993; Andry, Chan, de Speville, 1993-1994) concentrating largely on rendering free community services.
 8. The interdisciplinary Hong Kong Society of Criminology (started by the writer and his Chinese, Indian and expatriate colleagues, mainly from the fields of Psychiatry, the law, the government, criminology and psychology) has now been considerably developed by R.P. Broadhurst into the University of Hong Kong Centre of Criminology. This demonstrates that small beginnings can

develop into larger enterprises by co-ordinated efforts and networking (Broadhurst and Hodge, 2000; Leong, 2001; Leung and Sihombing in Pryde and Tsoi, 1999).

D. THE FUTURE

Consideration might be given to further establishing or expanding the scope of multi-disciplinary Centres of Excellence or Institutes. Among these might be mentioned for instance, the London School of Economics at the University of London or the ISTD, publishing the British Journal of Criminology (with which the writer was formerly associated), or the innovative Kurt Lewin Institute in Holland or the Cambridge or Canberra’s Institutes of Criminology, or a similar one at Wollongong University, as well as others. However, most of these centres, regretfully, usually do not provide in addition to academic teaching and research, clinical facilities or public legal advice services. Therefore, there is scope for establishing some multi-faceted interdisciplinary centres which could gradually be placed in future either in universities or government departments concerned with law and order, provided they liaise closely with each other, locally and abroad. To intensify this process, it might be efficacious if each centre concentrated at least on one specialized research topic in their area of chosen expertise (depending on the availability of human and material resources). Multi-faceted Centres of Excellence, by liaising with each other (also via the Internet), could avoid duplications, and thereby also facilitate international cross-cultural student and staff exchanges, and provide highly specific clinical services and action research.

E. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it should be added that investing in the ‘Cross cultural’ training of multi-disciplinary teams, both in the theory and practice of Criminology and Forensic Psychology, might eventually prove to be a cost effective response to the global rise of mega-crime, and allied social problems.

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